

1 **Research paper**

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4 **Size-segregated sulfate on top of Mt. Fuji transported from**
5 **Sakurajima volcano eruption**
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26

1 **Abstract**

2 Size-segregated aerosol samples were collected on Mt. Fuji with a cascade impactor
3 during daytime and nighttime. We analyzed for their ionic and element compositions.
4 Samples were collected from 29 July to 2 August (first period) and from 19 to 21 August
5 2013 (second period). Based on combined chemical components and CMAQ, in the first
6 period, the air masses had been transported from East Asia. In the second period, the
7 Sakurajima volcano eruption had been transported. NH_4^+ , SO_4^{2-} and elements were the
8 major ions in $2.5 < D_p \leq 10$ during the second period. The slope of a linear regression
9 of non-sea-salt (nss)- SO_4^{2-} versus NH_4^+ was nearly unity, particularly during the first
10 period. However, nss- SO_4^{2-} in coarse aerosol was shifted in great excess in the second
11 period. We have observed a rare phenomenon in which sulfate shifts to $2.5 < D_p \leq 10$.
12 Although the formation process of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ in coarse particle is hypothesized two
13 mechanisms, we hypothesize the third mechanism in this study. Currently, radiative
14 forcing is being discussed for the detection of volcanic aerosols using satellites with
15 particle sizes of $1.2 \mu\text{m}$. If this can be clarified, it will improve the reproducibility of
16 sulfate radiative forcing.

17

18 Keywords : Size-segregated aerosol, Size distribution of sulfate, Mt. Fuji, East Asia,
19 Sakurajima volcano eruption

20

1. Introduction

Transport of aerosols in the free troposphere is of great interest and an important problem with respect to air pollution and volcano eruption transported long range distance (Osada *et al.*, 2009). The climate impacts of volcanic aerosols in the troposphere and stratosphere have received attention (Hoffmann *et al.*, 2009; Solomon *et al.*, 2011). Volcanic eruptions have continuously increased stratospheric aerosol levels (Wu *et al.*, 2023). Japan, in particular, is a region with many volcanoes, and the frequency of volcanic eruptions is increasing. In that case, it is essential to accurately estimate the climate impacts of volcanic eruptions because the climate impact of anthropogenic greenhouse gases and aerosol particles could be better assessed if natural forcings, such as volcanic eruptions, are explicit (Wu *et al.*, 2023).

The atmospheric background conditions, the amount of emitted SO₂, and the plume heights of volcanic eruptions are all essential parameters that directly determine the transport pathways of volcanic SO₂ and sulfate aerosols (Wu *et al.* 2023). There are few 3000m-class observation sites in Asia. Mt. Fuji is one of the few observation sites in the 3000m a.s.l class (Okamoto *et al.*, 2016). Mt. Fuji is an isolated peak with a sharp, symmetric shape similar to an artificial tower (Kaneyasu *et al.*, 2007; Wai *et al.*, 2008).

Kato *et al.* (2016) previously reported that SO₂ in the plume from the Mt. Sakurajima eruption was observed on at Mt. Fuji in August 2013. The dynamics of chemical speciation, including not only gases but also particles in the plume, have not been clarified. We also measured size-segregated aerosols during our same measurement period.

In mountain sites, the chemical composition of aerosols has scarcely been reported. The aerosol number and mass concentration are mainly investigated for size-segregated aerosol in review paper of mountain measurement sites (Okamoto *et al.*, 2016). In the work reported here, therefore, we showed that ionic and element compositions in size-segregated aerosols including aerosol mass concentration transported East Asia and Sakurajima volcano eruption. In particular, we reported on characteristic of distribution of sulfates in Sakurajima volcanic plumes transported long range distance to Mt. Fuji in free troposphere.

2. Experimental Methods

1 **2.1 Size-segregated Aerosol Sampling on the Top of Mt. Fuji**

2 Observations were carried out at the Mt. Fuji Research Station (35.36°N, 138.73°E,
3 3776 m a.s.l.) in summer 2013 (Shimada *et al.* 2024; Kato *et al.*, 2016). The pressure
4 pattern in summer is located over the western Pacific Ocean, generally (Miura *et al.*
5 2019). Size-segregated sampling of aerosols was carried out from 18:00 JST 29 July to
6 6:00 JST 2 August 2013 (first period) and from 18:00 JST 19 August to 6:00 JST 21
7 August 2013 (second period). Each sample was collected for 12 hours from 18:00 on one
8 day to 6:00 on the next day (nighttime sample) during valley wind in troposphere, and
9 from 6:00 to 18:00 (daytime sample) during mountain wind in free troposphere.

10 Sampling was carried out with a five-stage cascade impactor (Nanosampler Model
11 3180, KANOMAX JAPAN Inc., Osaka, Japan). Aerosols with a particle diameter (D_p)
12 in five size ranges, $D_p \leq 0.5 \mu\text{m}$, $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$, $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$, $2.5 < D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$
13 and $10 \mu\text{m} < D_p$ were collected on polytetrafluoroethylene filters with a diameter of
14 55 mm (PF020, ADVANTEC, Tokyo, Japan) (Shimada *et al.* 2024).

15 A Nanosampler was set up in the 3rd building of the Mt. Fuji Observatory (the Mount
16 Fuji Research Station). The inlet of a high-volume air sampler was placed on the ground
17 floor of the same building to draw in outside air at a flow rate of 1000 L/min. Outside air
18 was sampled with a dry diaphragm vacuum pump (DA-121D, ULVAC Inc., Tokyo,
19 Japan; maximum flow rate 120 L/min) under the control of a mass flow controller
20 (Model8550, KOFLOC Inc., Kyoto, Japan) set at 40 L/min (Shimada *et al.* 2024). Filters
21 were weighed before and after sampling with an ultra-micro balance (UMX2, Mettler
22 Toledo International Inc., Tokyo, Japan) to determine the mass concentrations of particles
23 in each size range.

24 Back trajectories of particles at the top of Mt. Fuji (35.36°N, 138.73°E, 3776 m a.s.l.)
25 were calculated for 96 hours from 18:00 (nighttime sample) and 6:00 (daytime sample)
26 by using the HYbrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model
27 on the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) web site (Stein *et al.*
28 2015).

29 To identify Mt. Sakurajima eruption and Asian outflow by simulation model,
30 Community Multiscale Air Quality Modeling System (CMAQ) version 5.3.3 (U.S.
31 Environmental Protection Agency, 2021) was used. The SO₂ emission from 16 Japanese

1 volcanoes were obtained from the Japan Meteorological Agency (Japan Meteorological
2 Agency, 2024) and the anthropogenic emissions were taken from the Hemispheric
3 Transport of Air Pollution version 3 (HTAP_v3) dataset (Crippa *et al.* 2023). The gas and
4 aerosol chemistry modules used in the CMAQ model were SAPRC07tic (Xie *et al.* 2013)
5 and aero7 (Xu *et al.* 2018), respectively. To improve the modeling of SO_4^{2-} oxidation
6 process, the aqueous-phase SO_4^{2-} formation from SO_2 and NO_2 (Itahashi *et al.* 2021)
7 and the enhancement of iron solubility in the aqueous-phase SO_4^{2-} reaction in O_2
8 oxidation catalyzed by transition-metal ions (Itahashi *et al.* 2022) were included with the
9 Transition Metal Inventory-Asia version 1.0 (Kajino *et al.* 2020). The details of modeling
10 design and applications for volcanoes and the long-range transport were found in our
11 previous studies (e.g., Itahashi *et al.* 2019; 2023). In this study, CMAQ simulation was
12 started from 1 July 2013, and we analyzed the model results for first and second periods.
13 The impact of 16 Japanese volcanoes was evaluated by switching off SO_2 emission from
14 16 Japanese volcanoes, and the impact of Sakurajima was additionally evaluated by
15 switching off SO_2 emissions from Sakurajima.

17 2.2 Analyses of ionic species

18 Each sampling filter was then cut into two pieces, one of which was analyzed for ionic
19 components and the other for elements. The concentrations of ionic species in aerosols
20 were assessed after ultrasonic extraction of components with a mixture of ethanol (100
21 μL) and distilled water (10 mL) in a polypropylene tube for 20 min. The concentrations
22 of the ions Cl^- , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , and Ca^{2+} were assessed by ion
23 chromatography (Shimadzu LC10AD, Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan). Anions
24 were separated by a column for anions (Shimadzu IC-SA2) and identified with a
25 conductivity detector (Shimadzu CDD-10Asp) with a suppresser. Cations were separated
26 by a column for cations (Shimadzu IC-C4) and identified with a conductivity detector
27 (Shimadzu CDD-6A) but without a suppresser (Shimada *et al.* 2024; Yumoto *et al.*,
28 2015).

29 The concentrations of elements in aerosols were quantitatively assessed after digestion
30 of components with a mixture of 1.5 mL HF (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd.,

1 Osaka, Japan), 2.5 mL HNO₃ (Kanto Chemical Co., Inc., Tokyo, Japan), and 0.5 mL
2 H₂O₂ (Wako) in a Teflon vessel placed in a microwave oven operated at 200 W for 10
3 min. After digestion, the HF was removed by evaporation at 200 °C on a hot plate in a
4 hood. Sample solutions were prepared by the addition of nitric acid followed by filtration.
5 The isotopes ⁷Li, ²³Na, ²⁴Mg, ²⁷Al, ³⁹K, ⁴³Ca, ⁵¹V, ⁵³Cr, ⁵⁵Mn, ⁵⁷Fe, ⁵⁹Co, ⁶⁰Ni, ⁶³Cu, ⁶⁶Zn,
6 ⁶⁹Ga, ⁷⁵As, ⁸²Se, ⁸⁵Rb, ⁸⁸Sr, ⁹⁵Mo, ¹⁰⁷Ag, ¹¹¹Cd, ¹¹⁵In, ¹¹⁸Sn, ¹²¹Sb, ¹³³Cs, ¹³⁷Ba, ¹³⁹La,
7 ²⁰⁵Tl, ²⁰⁸Pb, and ²⁰⁹Bi were analyzed by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry
8 (Agilent 7500, Agilent Technologies, Inc., California, USA) (Shimada *et al.* 2024;
9 Yumoto *et al.*, 2015).

10 3. Results and Discussion

11 3.1 Size distribution of aerosols transported from the East Asia, Japan and 12 Sakurajima volcano eruption

13 Average mass concentrations of $D_p \leq 0.5 \mu\text{m}$, $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$, $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$, 2.5
14 $< D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$ and $10 \mu\text{m} < D_p$ were $1.49 \pm 0.43 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $1.09 \pm 0.50 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 1.42 ± 0.67
15 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $1.29 \pm 1.72 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $0.28 \pm 0.33 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively, in the first period (**Fig. 1**).
16 CMAQ and back trajectories in the first period indicated that the aerosols had come
17 mainly from China and had passed over Korea (**Fig. S1, Fig. S2**). According to Shimada
18 *et al.* (2024), they are investigating that long-range transported air pollution (LRTAP)
19 mixed with domestic air pollution (DAP) during the daytime (D) transported from China
20 to Mt. Fuji are identified based on the proportion of elements in the collected size-
21 segregated aerosols and a combination of backward trajectory analysis and satellite
22 observation CLIPSO. When the contribution of domestic source is high, the proportion
23 of Zn is high. And when the contribution of Chinese source is high, the proportion of Pb
24 is high. Based on the result, we found that the proportion of elements transported over
25 long distances from China at nighttime (N) showed a high proportion of Pb (**Fig. S3**). In
26 this study, we discussed size distributions of aerosols observed in the first period and the
27 second period without separating mountain and valley winds to compare LRTAP (D and
28 N) and DAP with Sakurajima volcano eruption. In **Fig. S2**, CMAQ calculated sulfuric
29 acid concentration within 0-3000m during the daytime and nighttime. On the other hand,
30 during the nighttime, the sulfuric acid concentration on 30 (D) July 2013 was calculated

1 within 2000-3000m in **Fig. 2**. The contribution of Asian outflow was found to be strong
2 during both daytime periods. CMAQ represented sulfate concentrations by altitude
3 considering mountain and valley winds.

4 Whereas, in the second period, they were $1.79 \pm 0.63 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $1.40 \pm 0.67 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, 1.96
5 $\pm 1.21 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $2.55 \pm 2.80 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $0.56 \pm 0.70 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively (**Fig. 1**). Sakurajima
6 volcano was active and erupted many times during 17–19 August 2013. A large-scale
7 eruption took place at 16:31 JST 18 August 2013. Kato *et al.* (2016) previously reported
8 that SO₂ in the plume from the Sakurajima volcano eruption was observed during our
9 same measurement period on at Mt. Fuji in 19-21 August 2013 (**Fig. 2**). Back trajectories
10 in the second period showed that the aerosols had passed over the Japanese islands of
11 Kyushu or Shikoku (**Fig. S1**). The contrast between the back trajectories during the two
12 periods was clear. CMAQ, which is the difference in volcanic emissions showed that
13 sulfate concentration was transported to Mt. Fuji from Sakurajima during 19 August to
14 21 August 2013 (second period) (**Fig. 2**). These findings showed that sulfate was
15 transported to Mt. Fuji (**Fig. 2, Fig. S3**). In **Fig. S4**, CMAQ calculated sulfuric acid
16 concentration within 0-3000m during the daytime and nighttime. On the other hand,
17 during nighttime, the sulfuric acid concentration was calculated within 2000-3000m (**Fig.**
18 **2**). The sulfate concentration was low because the edge of the volcanic plume was
19 grazing Mt. Fuji, consistent with atmospheric measurements and CMAQ (**Fig. 2, Fig.**
20 **S3**). When this study was compared with the high sulfate concentration observed at Noto
21 during the Sakurajima volcanic eruption (Watanabe *et al.* 2015), this study was observed
22 in the edge of the volcanic plume. CMAQ also could represent sulfate concentrations by
23 altitude considering mountain and valley winds. From these results, we found that we
24 were observing Sakurajima volcanic plume both during the daytime and at nighttime.

25 Average mass concentrations in $D_p \leq 0.5 \mu\text{m}$, $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$, $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$, 2.5
26 $< D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$ and $10 \mu\text{m} < D_p$ during the second period were 1.20, 1.28, 1.38, 1.93 and
27 2.00 times those in the first period, respectively (**Fig. 1**). Therefore, mass concentrations,
28 particularly those of the larger particles ($2.5 < D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$, $10 \mu\text{m} < D_p$), were higher in
29 the second period.

30 The main ionic component was SO₄²⁻ during both periods (**Fig. 3**). Its average percent
31 contributions in $D_p \leq 0.5 \mu\text{m}$, $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$, $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$, $2.5 < D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$ and
32 $10 \mu\text{m} < D_p$ were $64.9 \pm 8.1\%$, $67.1 \pm 3.5\%$, $68.5 \pm 3.2\%$, $55.9 \pm 12.0\%$ and $55.1 \pm 11.2\%$,

1 respectively, in the first period and $40.7 \pm 9.7\%$, $42.9 \pm 13.2\%$, $66.3 \pm 9.3\%$, $73.5 \pm 9.0\%$,
2 and $67.1 \pm 7.5\%$, respectively, in the second period. Ionic concentrations peaked in $1 <$
3 $D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ in the first period and in $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ in the second period (**Fig. 3**). The
4 size distribution of the ionic species therefore shifted toward larger particles in the second
5 period. **Figure 4** shows the size distribution of twelve elements (natural source: Mn, Fe,
6 Na, Na, Mg, Al, Anthropogenic source: Bi, Sb, As, Zn, Cu, Pb, V) from among the 16
7 elements measured in most samples. Similar to sulfate, the distribution of all of elements
8 peaked in $2.5 < D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$ during second period. This indicates that aerosols derived
9 from Sakurajima volcanic eruptions were observed on Mt. Fuji both day and night.

10 In order to distinguish between anthropogenic and natural sources of elements, we
11 checked the enrichment factor (EF) values of metallic elements. EF values are defined
12 by the following equation.

$$14 \quad EF_{soil}(X) = \frac{(X / REF)_{aerosol}}{(X / REF)_{crust}} \quad (1)$$

15
16 Here, $(X/REF)_{aerosol}$ and $(X/REF)_{crust}$ are the ratios of the concentrations of a target
17 element to a reference element (here Al was chosen as the reference element) in an
18 aerosol and in soil, respectively. We used the average concentrations of elements in soil
19 reported by Taylor *et al.* (1995). $EF < 2$ suggests mainly natural crustal sources, and EF
20 > 10 suggests strong enrichment from noncrustal sources (Gao *et al.*, 2002).

21 For example, EF values of V were found to be 5.8–8.7 for $D_p \leq 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ and 3.4–6.4 for
22 $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$, the implication being that the V, Pb, As etc., in these particles was
23 derived mainly from natural sources. In our previous study (Taniguchi *et al.*, 2017;
24 Shimada *et al.*, 2017) at Cape Hedo, Okinawa, we found EF values of V in size-
25 segregated aerosol samples to be ~ 30 for $D_p \leq 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ and 130 for $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$.
26 There was thus evidence of a large contribution of anthropogenic components
27 transported from the Asian continent. The V in the aerosols collected at the top of Mt.
28 Fuji, mainly in the second period, was therefore likely of natural source such as from a
29 volcanic eruption. Therefore, it was found that the influence of volcanoes is stronger
30 during the daytime in mountain breeze and nighttime in valley breeze.

1 3.2 The extent of sulfur oxidation in Sakurajima volcanic plume

2 To understand the extent of sulfur oxidation in air, we calculated the fraction of
3 oxidized sulfur present as sulfate (F_s) with the following equation.

$$4 \quad F_s = \text{nss-SO}_4^{2-} / (\text{SO}_2 + \text{nss-SO}_4^{2-}) \quad (1)$$

6
7 The F_s value at night on 20 August was 0.58 (**Table S1**). Our CMAQ simulation
8 also showed that F_s value was low (**Fig. 2**). On other days, especially in the first period,
9 F_s was 0.94-1. The F_s value at night on 20 August is much smaller than the value
10 observed at Cape Hedo, Okinawa (0.83, Takami *et al.*, 2007; 0.75, Shimada *et al.*, 2015),
11 where most of the sulfur in the air is oxidized during long-range transport. CMAQ
12 simulation show that F_s value at Cape Hedo is 95.8–99.9% and 63.0% derived from
13 China and Mt. Aso volcanic plume (Itahashi *et al.*, 2017). A large amount of SO_2 emitted
14 from Sakurajima volcano eruption therefore arrived at Mt. Fuji before being oxidized.
15 Basically, SO_2 are oxidized by OH radicals to H_2SO_4 .

16 However, a large amount of SO_2 emitted from Sakurajima volcano eruption
17 therefore arrived at Mt. Fuji before being oxidized because based on the reaction rate,
18 OH radicals cannot exist in excess of SO_2 . Moreover, Itahashi *et al.* (2017) reported that
19 the temporal variation of the modeled volcano absolute source apportionment and
20 coarse-mode nss-SO_4^{2-} of $D_p > 10 \mu\text{m}$ observed by the size-segregated cascade impactor.
21 They showed moderate correlation ($R = 0.64$), and both revealed the maximum
22 attribution to the volcano source. They also report that the approach of specifying
23 emission sources both from model and observations is necessary to have confidence in
24 the estimation results. In this study, our results demonstrated reproducibility in estimating
25 volcanic sources.

26 3.3 Chemical form of SO_4^{2-} in fine and coarse aerosols Ion balance

27 NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} were the major ionic components in the fine ($D_p \leq 0.5 \mu\text{m}$, $0.5 < D_p$
28 $\leq 1 \mu\text{m}$, $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$) and coarse ($2.5 < D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$, $10 \mu\text{m} < D_p$) aerosols (**Fig. 5**).
29 They are formed by the neutralization reaction between H_2SO_4 and NH_3 in air (Reaction
30 (1)) and exist as ammonium sulfate ($(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$) (Yeatman *et al.*, 2001; Okuda *et al.*,

1 2007).



4
5 NH_4^+ was strongly correlated with nss-SO_4^{2-} ($R^2 = 0.72$) in this study. Scatter plots of
6 nss-SO_4^{2-} against NH_4^+ (**Fig. 5**) gave a straight line with a slope of nearly unity,
7 particularly in the first period. This scatter plots based on equivalent concentrations
8 (neq/m^3) can show whether they are formed by the neutralization reaction or not (Yumoto
9 *et al.*, 2015). It thus appears that nss-SO_4^{2-} existed as $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ in the first period. It can
10 therefore be inferred that nss-SO_4^{2-} in the first period had been transported mainly from
11 China and Korea.

12 In contrast, nss-SO_4^{2-} was present in great excess compared to NH_4^+ during the night of
13 20 August (**Fig. S3**). The excess nss-SO_4^{2-} must have been present as sulfuric acid
14 because, as reported before, high concentrations of SO_2 were observed simultaneously
15 (Kato *et al.*, 2016). Scatter plots of nss-SO_4^{2-} against NH_4^+ (**Fig. 5**) gave a straight line
16 with a slope of nearly unity, particularly in the first period. Here, the value obtained by
17 subtracting the total amount of cations from the total amount of anions was defined as
18 infer-H^+ . In addition, the excess nss-SO_4^{2-} in that was not bonded to NH_4^+ , which is the
19 main counter ion, was designated as ex-SO_4^{2-} .

$$20 \quad 21 \quad [\text{ex-SO}_4^{2-}] = [\text{nss-SO}_4^{2-}] - [\text{NH}_4^+] \quad (2)$$

22
23 In the second period, the coefficient of determination between infer-H^+ and ex-SO_4^{2-}
24 was 0.91, indicating a high correlation, suggesting that H^+ in aerosols is related to
25 particles containing nss-SO_4^{2-} . Here, the vertical axis represents the equivalent
26 concentration of nss-SO_4^{2-} , and the horizontal axis represents the equivalent
27 concentration of $\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{infer-H}^+$, as shown in **Fig. 5**. It is mainly plotted on $y=x$, and in
28 the second period, not only $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ but also the production of unneutralized H_2SO_4
29 is included when the air mass from the Sakurajima volcano eruption is transported to Mt.
30 Fuji.

31

1 3.4 (NH₄)₂SO₄ in coarse particles

2 Sulfate aerosols such as (NH₄)₂SO₄ usually exist as fine particles. However, SO₄²⁻
3 existed in coarse particles during the second period (**Fig. 6**). In coarse particles, SO₄²⁻ is
4 usually present as Ca(SO₄)₂ (Zhuang *et al.*, 1999), but the concentration of Ca²⁺ in the
5 particles was low (**Fig. 4**) in the second period, and the concentration of NH₄⁺ was
6 relatively high. The sulfate therefore existed as (NH₄)₂SO₄ (**Fig. 5**), with ex-SO₄²⁻
7 existing as free sulfuric acid.

8 Yeatman *et al.*, (2001) have hypothesized two mechanisms by which coarse
9 (NH₄)₂SO₄ particles might be formed: (1) by neutralization of the surface of coarse,
10 acidic particles by gaseous NH₃ (Zhuang *et al.*, 1999; Yeatman *et al.*, 2001; Parmar *et al.*,
11 2001), and (2) by condensation of fine (NH₄)₂SO₄ particles on the surface of coarse
12 particles (Yeatman *et al.*, 2001; Xiaoxiu *et al.*, 2003).

13 If the first mechanism is the explanation, then fine particles should be basic, and
14 gaseous NH₃ should be present in large excess (Zhuang *et al.*, 1999; Yeatman *et al.*, 2001,
15 Parmar *et al.*, 2001). In the present case, however, fine particles were not basic, and it is
16 unlikely that NH₃ was present in excess in second period in the free troposphere.
17 Therefore, the first mechanism is not plausible.

18 Although the element concentrations in coarse particles were high on the night of
19 19 August and day of 20 August, the element concentration was not high on the night of
20 20 August (**Fig. S3**). However, the concentration of SO₄²⁻ in coarse particles still was
21 very high (**Fig. S3**) and even included excess sulfuric acid, as described above. It is thus
22 unlikely that (NH₄)₂SO₄ condensed on the surfaces of volcanic ash particles during night
23 of 19 August and day of 20 August.

24 Thus, there will be third mechanism. **Fig. 6** showed the distribution of nss-SO₄²⁻
25 concentration at Cape Hedo and Tokyo to compare with Mt. Fuji (**Fig. 3**). Yumoto *et al.*
26 (2016) reported that when nss-SO₄²⁻ is transported from China to Cape Hedo for long
27 rang transport, distribution of nss-SO₄²⁻ concentrations were peaked in $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$
28 and $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ due to coagulation process. Moreover, distribution of nss-SO₄²⁻
29 concentrations were peaked in $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ at Tokyo in summer
30 due to high humidity (Shimada *et al.* 2021). This is because the distribution of nss-SO₄²⁻
31 concentration cannot grow until the size range of $0.1 < D_p \leq 0.5$ at Tokyo in winter due

1 to low humidity (Shimada *et al.* 2021). On other hand, in this study, the distribution of
2 nss-SO₄²⁻ concentrations were peaked in $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ and $2.5 < D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$.

3 Because the top of Mt. Fuji is often enveloped in dense fog, fine particles can be
4 captured in fog droplets (Kevin *et al.*, 1992; Goran *et al.*, 1998). It seems very likely that
5 fine particles were trapped in fog droplets and coagulated as coarse particles. The low
6 mass concentration of the nighttime sample on 20 August also supports this scenario,
7 because fog water is likely to evaporate after particles are collected on filters. However,
8 our report on whether the aerosols are caused by fog or volcanic growth is still only a
9 hypothesis during night of 19 August and day of 20 August. In the future, it will be
10 necessary to examine volcanic plumes using new atmospheric measurement methods to
11 examine the reproducibility of this hypothesis.

12 **5. Conclusions**

13 The size distribution of the mass concentration, ionic and elemental components of
14 aerosols were measured at the top of Mt. Fuji in summer 2013 with a cascade impactor.
15 We observed LRTAP from 29 July to 2 August and a plume from Sakurajima volcano
16 during 19–20 August. A comparison of average mass concentrations during the first
17 period with those in the second period revealed that mass concentrations were higher in
18 the second period, particularly those of particles in $2.5 < D_p \leq 10 \mu\text{m}$ and $10 \mu\text{m} < D_p$.
19 Ionic concentrations peaked in $0.5 < D_p \leq 1 \mu\text{m}$ and $1 < D_p \leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ during the first
20 periods. The concentrations of most elements in the second period peaked $2.5 < D_p \leq 10$
21 μm . During the second period, a large amount of SO₂ emitted from Mt. Sakurajima
22 arrived at the top of Mt. Fuji before being oxidized. A comparison of the different size
23 distributions of (NH₄)₂SO₄ aerosols during the first and the second periods suggested that
24 coarse (NH₄)₂SO₄ particles may have formed as a result of fine particles' being trapped
25 in fog droplets and subsequently coagulating as coarse particles. The low mass
26 concentration of the nighttime sample on 20 August also supports this scenario, because
27 fog water is likely to evaporate after particles are collected on filters. However, our report
28 on whether the aerosols are caused by fog or volcanic growth is still only a hypothesis
29 during night of 19 August and day of 20 August. In the future, it will be necessary to
30 examine volcanic plumes using new atmospheric measurement methods to examine the

1 reproducibility of this hypothesis. This is the first comparison in Asia of volcanic sulfate
2 with a simulation model that takes into account mountain and valley winds and observed
3 values. This study provided important information for predicting climate change due to
4 volcanic eruptions.

5 Currently, radiative forcing is being discussed for the detection of volcanic aerosols
6 using satellites with particle sizes of 1.2 μm . When combined with a climate change
7 model, the amount of SO_4^{2-} produced is calculated from the amount of SO_2 emission.
8 Sulfate may not show a maximum concentration at 1.2 μm , as in the present study. If this
9 third mechanism is not considered in the simulation model, it will lead to overestimation
10 of sulfate. Therefore, it is necessary to measure chemical components according to
11 particle size distribution. If this can be clarified, it will contribute to improving the
12 reproducibility of sulfate radiative forcing using simulation models.

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23

24

25 Figure Captions

26 **Fig. 1** Size segregated mass concentrations in the first and the second periods.

27

28 **Fig. 2** Spatial distribution of the simulated sulfate concentration without volcano and
29 including volcano emission, and of the difference in volcanic emissions during the first
30 and the second periods.

31

32

- 1 **Fig. 3** Size segregated ionic concentrations in the first and the second periods.
- 2
- 3 **Fig. 4** Size segregated element concentrations in the first and the second periods.
- 4
- 5 **Fig. 5** (a)Scatter plot of nss-SO_4^{2-} against NH_4^+ . (b)Scatter plot of nss-SO_4^{2-} against NH_4^+
- 6 + infr-H^+
- 7
- 8 **Fig. 6** Size segregated sulfate concentrations in Tokyo and Okinawa.

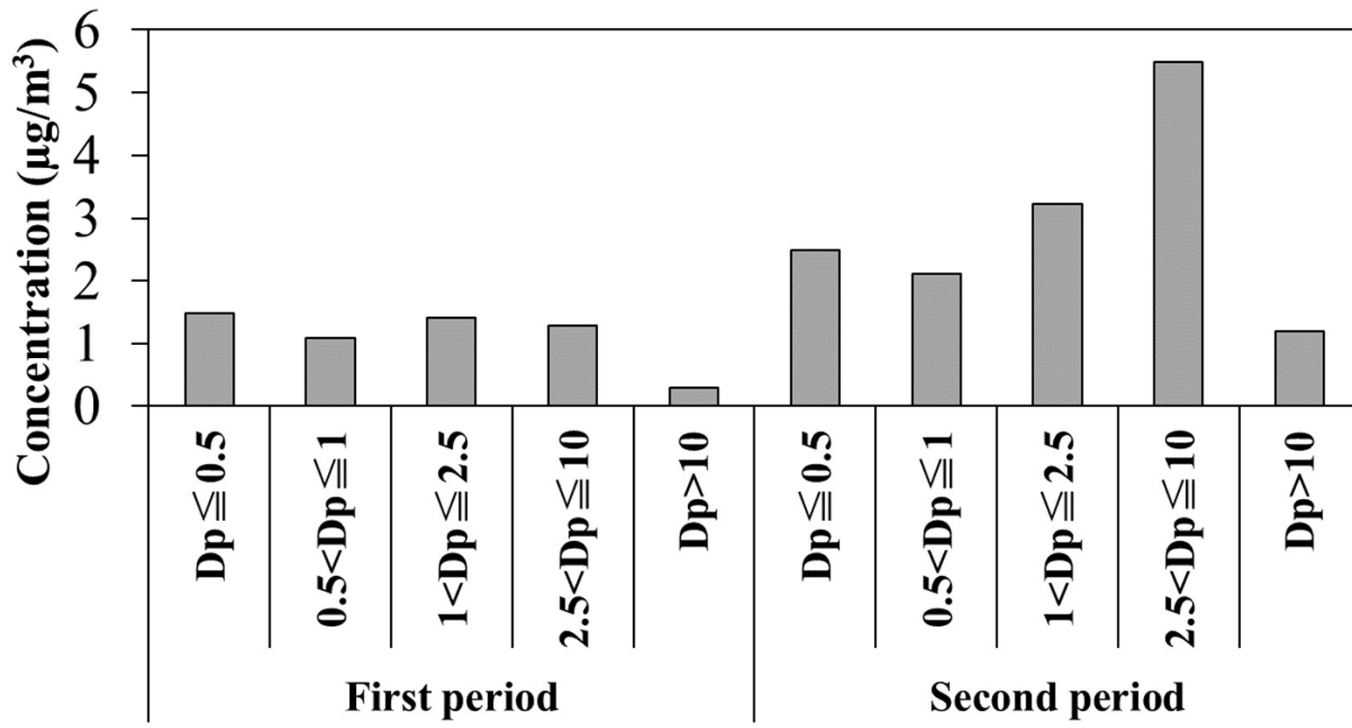


Fig. 1

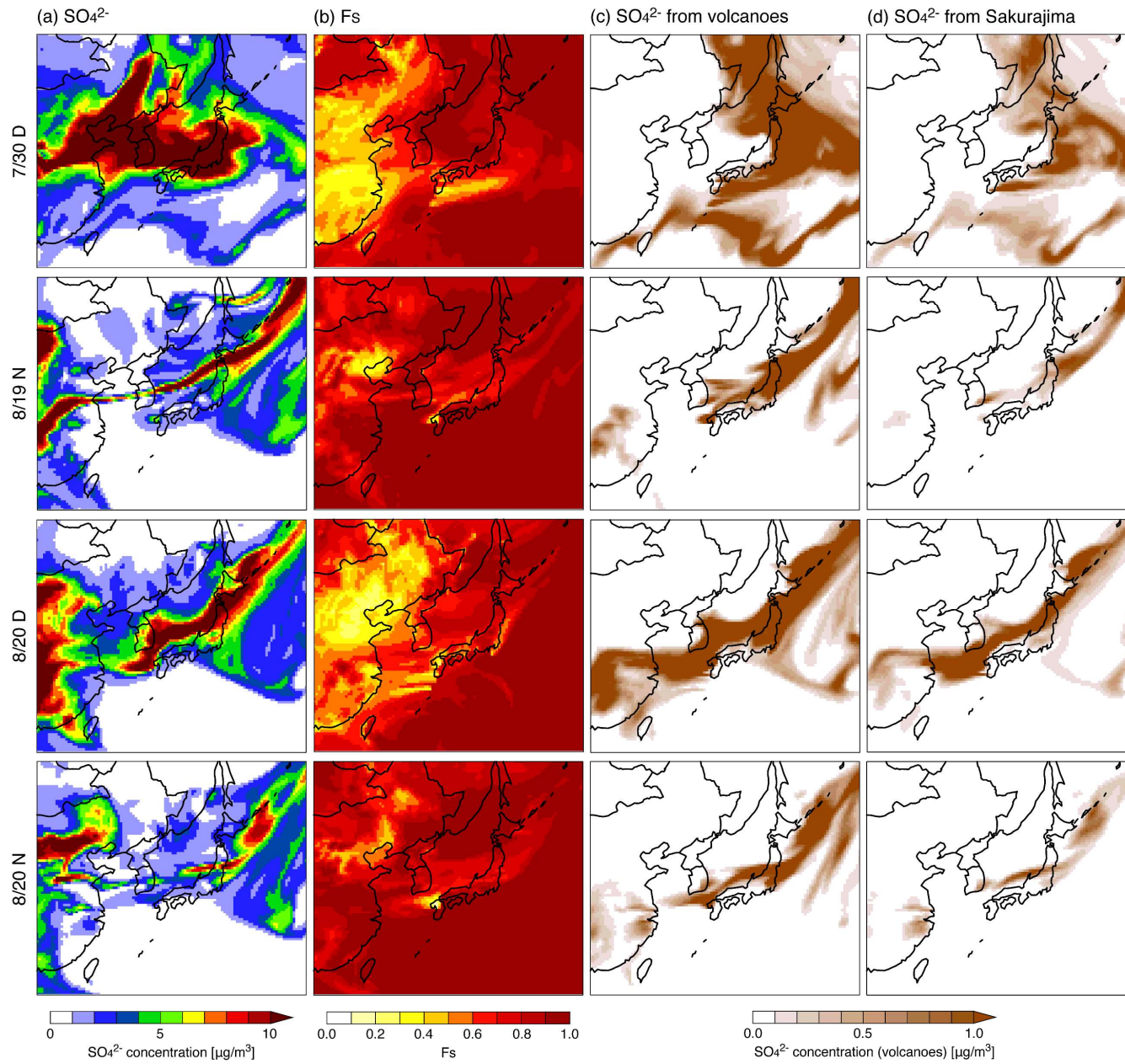


Fig. 2

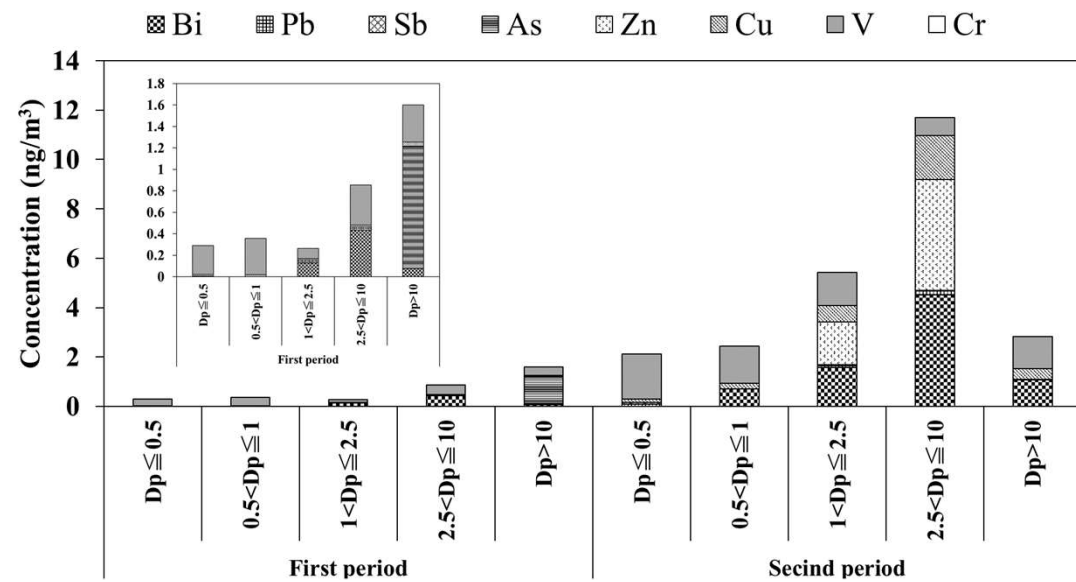
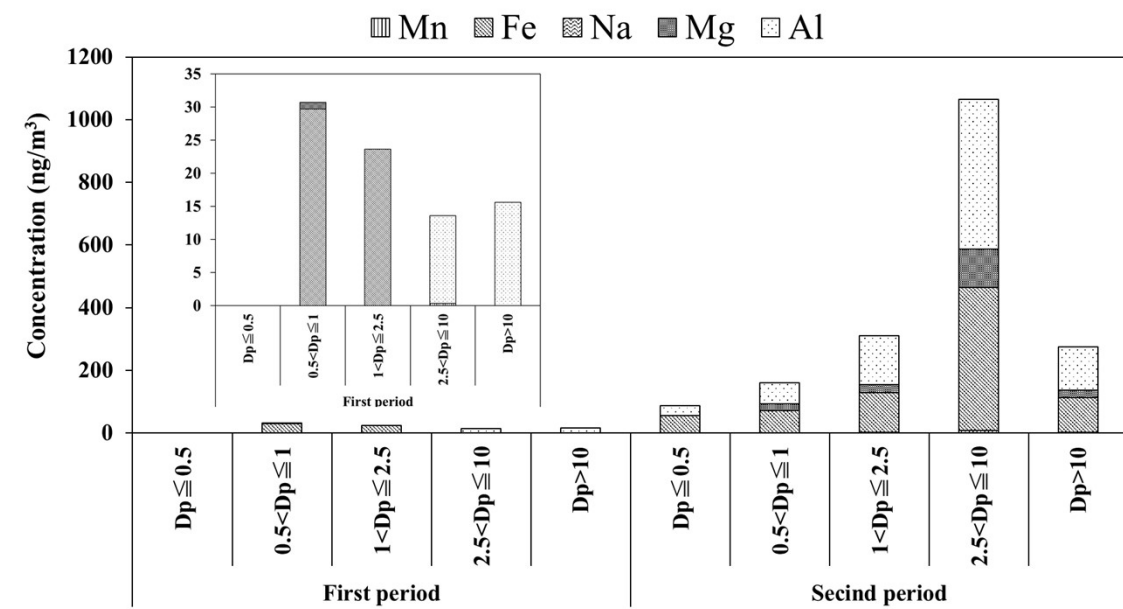


Fig. 4

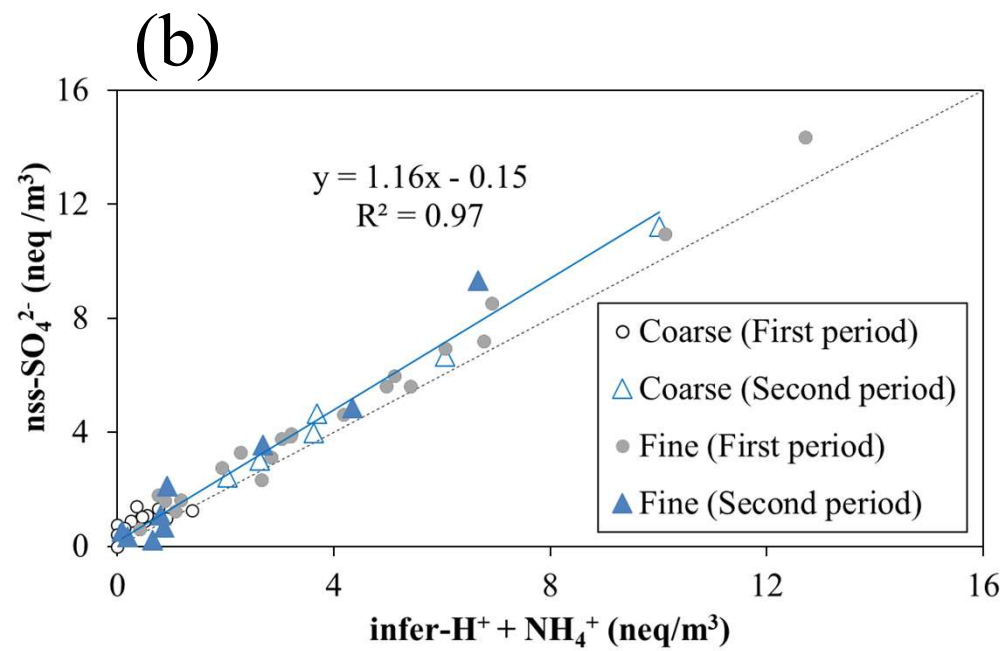
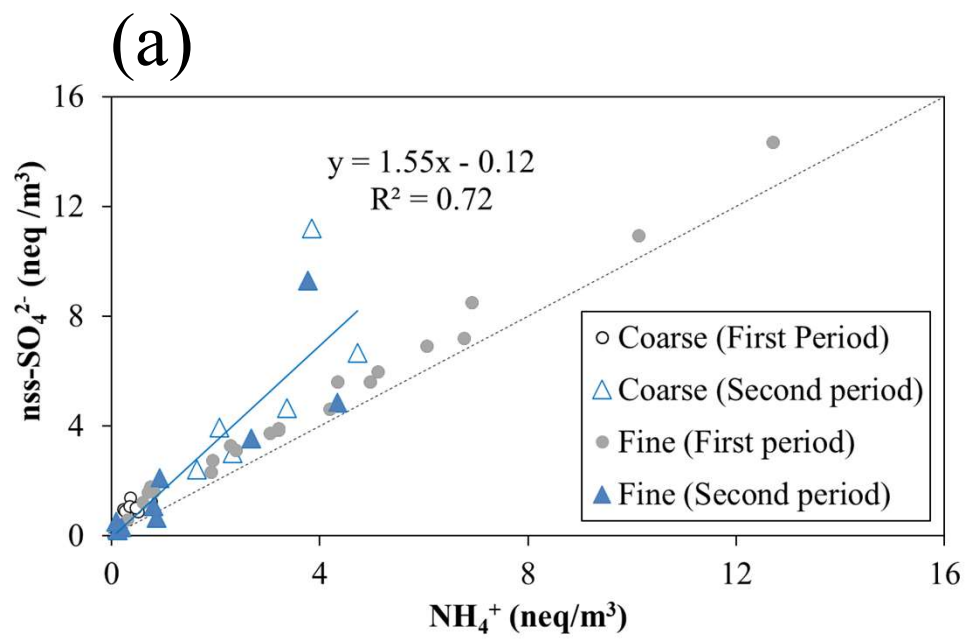


Fig. 5

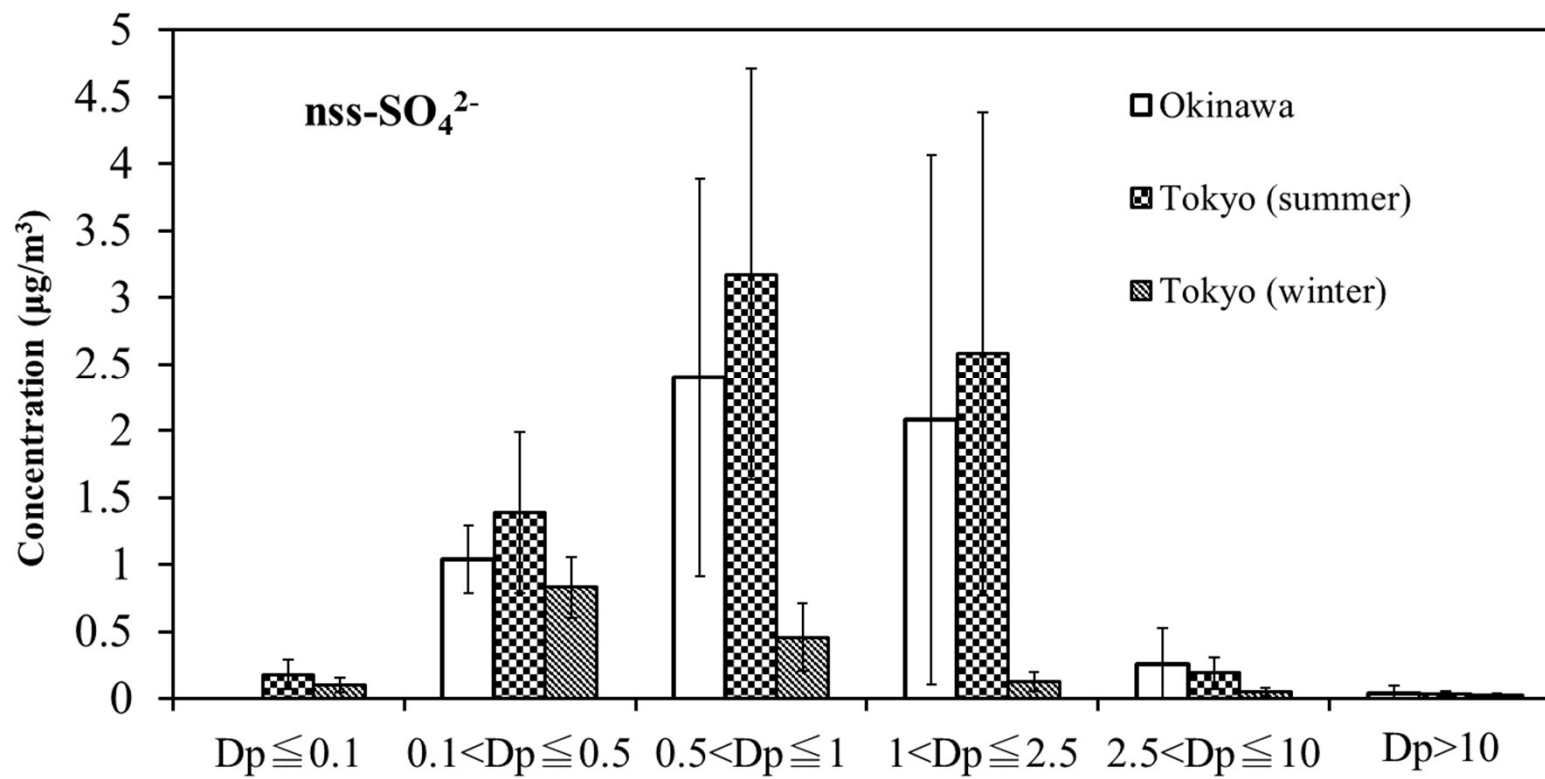


Fig. 6