- 1 Enrichment of calcium in sea spray aerosol: through Insights from bulk
- 2 measurements and individual particle analysis during the R/V Xuelong cruise
- 3 inover the summertime Ross Sea, Antarctica
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Abstract: CAlthough calcium is known to be enriched in sea spray aerosols (SSAs), but its controllingthe factors and individual mixing states that affect its enrichment remain ambiguous. Here, we investigate the impact of various In this study, we examine how environmental factors affect the on the distribution of water-soluble calcium (Ca²⁺) distribution in SSAs. We obtained our dataset from observations taken during a research cruise on the through R/V Xuelong cruise in observations over the Ross Sea, Antarctica, from December 2017 to February 2018. We observedOur observations showed that the enhanced Ca²⁺-enrichment of Ca²⁺ in aerosol samples was enhanced under specific conditions, including at-lower temperatures (< -3.5 °C), lower wind speeds (< 7 m s⁻¹), and in the presence of sea ice. Our analysis of Further individual particle mass spectral analysis indicated revealed that a significanteonsiderable fractions portion of calcium in SSAs likely boundbind with organic matter (ain the form of a single-particle type, OC-Ca). Our findings suggest that current estimations of which may be neglected in current water-soluble estimation of Ca2+ enrichment based solely on water-soluble Ca2+ may be inaccurate. Also, this Our study is the first to observe time that a calcium-dominated single-particle type dominated by calcium has been observed in the Antarctic atmosphere. We Our findings suggest that a broader focus on individual OC-Ca and its subsequent environmental behavior should be included in future Antarctic atmospheric modeling should take into account the environmental behavior of individual OC-Ca. Given the context of With the ongoing global warming and sea ice retreat of sea ice, it is essential toan understanding of the mechanisms of calcium enrichment and the mixing state of individual particles to better comprehend involved is valuable for further recognizing the aerosol-cloud-climatethe interactions between aerosols, clouds, and climate duringin the Antarctica summer.

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45 **Key points:**

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• Enhanced Ca²⁺ enrichment in sea spray aerosols (SSAs) was observed at lower ambient temperatures, lower wind speeds, and in the presence of sea ice.

Individual particle analysis revealed a large proportion significant portion of internally mixed

- 49 organics with calcium particles in the Antarctic summer atmosphere.
- Organically complexed calcium may be neglected in current water-soluble estimation of Ca²⁺
- 51 enrichment in SSA.
- Current water-soluble estimation of Ca²⁺ enrichment in SSAs may be inaccurate without
 considering organically complexed calcium.
- Key-worlds: Sea spray aerosol; Calcium enrichment; Individual particle analysis; Environmental
- factors; Internally mixed organics with calcium particles; Antarctic summer atmosphere.

1 Introduction

Sea spray aerosols (SSAs) govern radiative forcing by directly scattering and absorbing solar
radiation over the remote ocean (Murphy et al., 1998), and they affect the microphysical properties
of marine clouds by serving as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and ice nuclei (IN) (Wilson et al.
2015; Brooks and Thornton, 2018; Willis et al., 2018). Calcium is one of the components of
SSASSAs, which can present as inorganic calcium (e.g., CaCl ₂ and CaSO ₄) (Chi et al., 2015) as
well as organic calcium (i.e., Ca ²⁺ can readily induce the gelation of organic matter, presenting as
the most efficient gelling agent) (Carter-Fenk et al., 2021). The extent of Calcium enrichment and
chemical signature of calcium maycan affect some physicochemical properties of SSASSA such
as alkalinity and hygroscopicity (Salter et al., 2016; Mukherjee et al., 2020), which is critical for
understanding aerosol-cloud interactions over the remote marine boundary layer (Keene et al.,
2007; Leck and Svensson, 2015; Bertram et al., 2018).
A growing number of Several studies have shown that demonstrated significant enrichment of
calcium (Ca ²⁺) is significantly enriched in <u>SSASSAs</u> relative compared to bulk seawater, as
briefly summarized in (Table S1) and documented by Keene et al. (2007), Hara et al. (2012),
Cochran et al. (2016), Salter et al. (2016), Cravigan et al. (2020), and Mukherjee et al. (2020). For
example, Hara et al. (2012) found that the Ca ²⁺ enrichment of aerosol samples was sensitive to sea
salt fractionation during the cold winter-spring season over the Antarctic coast. Leck and Svensson
(2015) suggested that Ca ²⁺ enrichment in SSAs is attributed to bubble bursts on sea ice leads
within the seg ice over the Arctic area. Similarly, low wind-driven hubble bursts were regarded as

a major reason for the Ca²⁺ enrichment in SSAs during an Arctic cruise (Mukherjee et al., 2020).

These results have greatly improved the understanding of the processes contributing toshed light

on the Ca²⁺ enrichment process; however, our understanding of how environmental factors

synergistically affect such enrichment processes remains unclear.

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To date, a unified consensus on the chemical form of calcium to explain calcium enrichment in SSAs has not been reached. The enrichment extent of calcium and its chemical form in SSA have been deduced with water-soluble Ca²⁺. Two hypotheses have been proposed: (i) Calcium enrichment is dominated by inorganic calcium, such as CaCO₃ and CaCl₂. Ca²⁺ is enriched close to the seawater surface in the form of ionic clusters (most probably with carbonate ions) (Salter et al., 2016). Another source of CaCO₃ is directly from calcareous shell debris (Keene et al., 2007). Through bubble bursts, both CaCO₃ and CaCl₂ along with sea salt can be emitted into the atmosphere. In addition, the sea salt fractionation by precipitation of ikaite (CaCO₃·6H₂O) may contribute to calcium enrichment in aerosol during the freezing of sea ice (Hara et al., 2012). (Dieckmann et al., 2008; Dieckmann et al., 2010; Hara et al., 2012) calcium enrichment is dominated by inorganic calcium, such as CaCl2 and CaCO3-6H2O (ikaite), derived from windblown bubble bursts, calcareous shell debris and/or sea salt fractionation (Keene et al., 2007; Dieckmann et al., 2008; Hara et al., 2012). (ii) Calcium enrichment is attributed to organically complexed calcium. Ca2+ may bind with organic matter, which is relevant with marine microgels and/or coccolithophore phytoplankton scales, and can be emitted by bubble bursting (Oppo et al., 1999; Sievering, 2004; Leck and Svensson, 2015; Cochran et al., 2016; Kirpes et al., 2019; Mukherjee et al., 2020). The chemical form of calcium can significantly determine its atmospheric role., and inorganic calcium may exhibit stronger aerosol alkalinity and hygroscopicity than

organic calcium (Salter et al., 2016; Mukherjee et al., 2020). However, current estimations of calcium enrichment based solely on water-soluble Ca²⁺ may not precisely explain the calcium distribution in SSAs. This is because the amount of low water-soluble complexation of Ca²⁺ with organic matter (e.g., aged Ca²⁺-assembled gel-like particles) (Orellana and Verdugo, 2003; Leck and Bigg, 2010; Russell et al., 2010; Orellana et al., 2011; Leck and Svensson, 2015) and insoluble Ca²⁺ in the form of calcareous shell debris or the like may not be considered. because organic calcium has low water solubility (e.g., aged Ca²⁺-assembled gel-like particles) (Orellana and Verdugo, 2003; Leck and Bigg, 2010; Russell et al., 2010; Orellana et al., 2011; Leck and Svensson, 2015), the commonly measured water-soluble Ca²⁺ may not precisely explain the ealeium distribution in SSA. Thus, an understanding Thus, an alternative method, such as discerning the mixing state based on single-particle analysis, of the mixing state of individual calcareous aerosols may provide unique insights into the chemical form of calcium, and thus the mechanisms of calcium enrichment in SSAs. As a part of the 34th Chinese Antarctic Research Expedition (CHINARE ANT34th), the aim of theis study aimedwas to investigate the influencing factors and possible mechanisms of calcium enrichment in SSASSAs through R/V Xuelong cruise observation campaigns over the Ross Sea, Antarctica. An in-situ gas and aerosol composition monitoring system (IGAC) was employed to determine the extent of Ca²⁺ enrichment in SSASSAs. Single-particle aerosol mass spectrometry (SPAMS) was utilized to measure the size and chemical signature (i.e., mixing state) of individual calcareous particles. We first investigated the impact of environmental factors such as ambient temperature, wind speed, sea ice fraction, and chlorophyll-a concentration, and back trajectory

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coverage on Ca²⁺ enrichment in <u>SSASSAs</u>. Then, the mechanisms of calcium enrichment in <u>SSASSAs</u> were inferred according to the mixing state of individual calcareous particles.

2 Methodology

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2.1 The R/V Xuelong cruise and observation regions

124 Our study focused on the Ross Sea region of Antarctica (50 to 78° S, 160 to 185° E) (Fig. 1), 125 where we conducted two separate observation campaigns aboard the R/V Xuelong. During samplingthe observations, this region was relatively isolated from the impact of long-range 126 127 transport of anthropogenic aerosols and has experienced the sea ice retreat (Yan et al., 2020a). 128 The first observation campaign (Leg I) took place from December 2-20, 2017, during the sea ice period. The second campaign (Leg II) was conducted from January 13 to February 14, 2018, 129 130 during the period without sea ice. The sampling design for Leg I and Leg II aimed to investigate how changing environmental factors affect the enrichment extent of calcium and the 131 characteristics of individual particles. 132 133 Two observations were carried out aboard the R/V Xuelong cruise over the Ross Sea, Antarctica (50 to 78° S, 160 to 185° E) (Fig. S1). During sampling, this region was relatively 134 135 isolated from the impact of long-range transport of anthropogenic acrosols and has experienced 136 the sea ice retreat (Yan et al., 2020a). The first leg of the cruise (leg I) was conducted from 2-20 December, 2017, when the ocean was covered by sea ice. The second leg of the cruise (leg II) was 137 carried out in the same region from January 13 to February 14, 2018, when basically no sea ice 138 presents. Therefore, legs I and II were also regarded as the "sea ice period" and "the period 139 without sea ice", respectively, hereafter. 140

2.2 <u>Metrological Meteorological parameters and satellite data of air masses, sea ice, and chlorophyll-a</u>

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We measured various mMeteorological parameters, including such as ambient temperature, relative humidity (RH), wind speed, and true wind direction were measured byusing an automated meteorological station located on the top deck of the R/V Xuelong (Fig. \$2-\$1 and Table \$2). To determine the type of air masses, we first overviewed the 72-hour back trajectory with daily resolution per each starting location by using the NOAA Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectories (HYSPLIT, version 4.9) model (Fig. S2). Additionally, we conducted a 96hour back trajectory analysis with an hourly resolution, which covered the enhanced calcium enrichment events associated with sea ice fraction and chlorophyll-a concentration (discussed in section 3.1), using the TrajStat in Meteoinfo (version 3.5.8) (Wang et al., 2009; Wang, 2014). Meteorological data used for back trajectory analysis obtained from the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS, ftp://ftp.arl.noaa.gov/pub/archives). Moreover, The type of air masses was calculated by 72-hour back trajectory analysis using the NOAA Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectories (HYSPLIT, version 4.9) model (Fig. S1). we obtained tThe monthly sea ice fraction was obtained from the Sea Ice Concentration Climate Data Record with a spatial (https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/products/climate-data-records/sea-iceresolution 25 km concentration) and -tThe 8-day chlorophyll-a concentration was collected from MODIS-aqua with a spatial resolution of 4 km (https://modis.gsfc.nasa.gov) (Fig. S3). During the R/V Xuelong cruise observation campaignss, leg I was dominantly affected by the 72 h air masses from the sea ice-covered open-water (7892%, by trajectory coverage), and leg II was mainly affected by the 72 h air masses from continental Antarctica (4058%) (Fig. S1 and **Table S1S2**). The average ambient temperature (-4.0 \pm 1.4 °C vs. -3.1 \pm 2.2 °C), wind speed (7.2 \pm 5.5 m s⁻¹ vs. 7.1 \pm 4.2 m s⁻¹), and chlorophyll-a concentration (0.51 \pm 0.29 μ g L⁻¹ vs. 0.44 \pm 0.18 μ g L⁻¹) varied slightly between legs I and II (**Table S2**).

2.3 Contamination control during observation campaigns

During the research cruise, the major contamination source was identified as emissions from a chimney located at the stern of the vessel and about 25 m above the sea surface. To mitigate the potential impact of ship emissions on aerosol sampling, we have taken several measures. Firstly, a total suspended particulate (TSP) sampling inlet connecting to the monitoring instruments was fixed to a mast 20 m above the sea surface, located at the bow of the vessel. In addition, the sampling inlet was fixed on a ship pillar with a rain cover, which could minimize the potential influence of violent shaking of the ship and sea waves. Secondly, sampling was only conducted while the ship was sailing, to avoid the possible effect of ship emission on aerosol sampling under the low diffusion condition. Lastly, we did not observe the mass spectral characteristics associated with ship emission (e.g., particles simultaneously contain m/z 51 [V]⁺, 67 [VO]⁺, and element carbon) during the observation campaigns (Liu et al., 2017; Passig et al., 2021). These measures ensured that the collected data were representative and reliable for subsequent analysis.92

2.43 Instrumentation

An IGAC (Model S-611, Machine Shop, Fortelice International Co. Ltd., Taiwan, China) and a SPAMS (Hexin Analytical Instrument Co., Ltd., China) were synchronously employed to determine water-soluble ion mass concentrations of bulk aerosol and the size and chemical composition of individual particles in real-time with hourly resolution (Figs. 2 and S4). In the

aerosol sampling procedure, a TSP inlet with a PM_{10} cyclone (trap efficiency greater than 99% for particles $> 0.3 \mu m$, $D_{a50} = 10 \pm 0.5 \mu m$) was used for IGAC sampling and a $PM_{2.5}$ cyclone ($D_{a50} = 2.5 \pm 0.2 \mu m$) to remove particles larger than 2.5 μm for SPAMS. All instruments were connected using conductive silicon tubing with an inner diameter of 1.0 cm.

2.34.1 Aerosol water-soluble ion constituents

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(Model S-611, Machine Shop, Fortelice International Co. Ltd., Taiwan, China) An IGAC (Model S-611, Machine Shop, Fortelice International Co. Ltd., Taiwan, China) was applied to determine the water-soluble ion mass concentrations of aerosol (Fig. S4). Notably, only the watersoluble fraction (organic and inorganic) of the aerosols sampled was considered (details in Supporting Information, SI text S1) (Oppo et al., 1999). Sampling was performed only while the ship was sailing. A PM₁₀ cyclone with trap efficiency larger than 99% was fixed to a bow mast at 20 m above the sea surface for IGAC sampling to minimize the impact of stern emissions. The details of the analytical method and ion mass concentrations of IGAC have been described in previous studies (Young et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2019; Yan et al., 2020b). Briefly, the IGAC system consisted of three main units, including a Wet Annular Denuder (WAD), a Scrub and Impact Aerosol Collector (SIAC), and an ion chromatograph (IC, Dionex ICS-3000) (Fig. 2). Gases and aerosols were passed through WAD with a sampling flow of 16.7 L min⁻¹. Two concentric Pyrex glass cylinders with a length of 50 cm and inner and outer diameters of 1.8 and 2.44 cm were assembled to WAD, in which the inner walls of the annulus were wetted with ultrapure water (18.2 $M\Omega$ cm⁻¹). This part was responsible for the collection of acidic and basic gases by diffusion and absorption of a downward-flowing aqueous solution. The SIAC had a length of 23 cm and a

diameter of 4.75 cm, which was positioned at an angle to facilitate the collection of enlarged
particles. The collected particles were separated firstly, continually enlarged by vapor steam, and
then accelerated through a conical-shaped impaction nozzle and collected on an impaction plate.
Each aerosol sample was collected for 55 minutes and injected for 5 minutes. The injection loop
size was 500 μL for both anions and cations, which were subsequently analyzed by IC. The
collection efficiency of aerosol and gas samples before they entered IC was previously reported
higher than 89% (for 0.056 μm particles, 89%; for 1 μm particles, 98%; for gaseous samples, >
90%) (Chang et al., 2007; Tian et al., 2017). The target ion concentrations were calibrated with a
coefficient of determination (r^2) above 0.99 by using standard solutions (0.1-2000 $\mu g \ L^{-1}$). The
detection limits for Na, Cl, Ca, K, and Mg were 0.03, 0.03, 0.019, 0.011, and 0.042 $\mu g \ L^{-1}$
(aqueous solution), respectively. The systematic error of the IC systems was generally less than
5%. The detection limits for Na ⁺ , Cl ⁻ , Ca ²⁺ , K ⁺ , and Mg ²⁺ were 0.03, 0.03, 0.019, 0.011, and 0.042
μg L ⁻¹ (aqueous solution), respectively. During
Throughout the whole observationthe observation scampaigns, the mean Na ⁺ and Ca ²⁺ mass
concentrations were 364.64 ng m ⁻³ (ranging from 6.66 to 4580.10 ng m ⁻³) and 21.20 ng m ⁻³
(ranging from 0.27 to 334.40 ng m ⁻³), respectively, which were far above (>10 times) higher than
the detection limits. In comparison with the whole measurement (21.2 ng m ⁻³), the mean Ca ²⁺
mass concentrations were lower at low wind speeds (17.3 ng m ⁻³ at < 7 m s ⁻¹ and 15.0 ng m ⁻³ at <
3m s ⁻¹). Therefore, the impact of ship emissions on the Ca ²⁺ mass concentration could be
negligible under the low wind conditions. Analytical uncertainty of Ca ²⁺ enrichment based on
water-soluble analysis <u>was</u> estimated <u>at</u> less than 11% (<u>Supporting Information</u> , SI text <u>\$3\$1</u>).
It should be clarified that the water-soluble ion mass concentration included the pure

inorganic part (e.g., pure sea salt, NaCl) and mixed organic-inorganic part (e.g., gel-like particles) (Quinn et al., 2015). Numerous studies have reported that primary SSA exhibited moderate hygroscopicity and water solubility due to a certain water-soluble organic fraction (~ 25%, by mass), such as carboxylates, lipopolysaccharides (LPSs), humic substances, and galactose (Oppo et al., 1999; Quinn et al., 2015; Schill et al., 2015; Cochran et al., 2017). For example, Oppo et al. (1999) indicated that humic substances were an important pool of water-soluble natural surfactants (40-60%) in marine surfactant organic matter. In addition, LPSs are preferentially transferred to submicron SSA during bubble bursting and exhibit a certain solubility of 5 g L⁻¹ in pure water. (Facchini et al., 2008; Schill et al., 2015). Therefore, both organic and inorganic parts with a water-soluble nature could be retained, contributing to the water-soluble ion mass concentration (e.g., Ca²⁺).

2.34.2 Single-particle analysis

The size and chemical signature of individual particles were obtained in real time by a SPAMS (Hexin Analytical Instrument Co., Ltd., China) (Fig. S4). A brief description of the SPAMS has been is provided elsewhere (Li et al., 2011). Briefly, the aerosols were drawn into SPAMS by a PM_{2.5} inlet after a silica gel dryer (Fig. 2). A collimated particle beam focused by an aerodynamic lens wasis then accelerated in an accelerating electric field and passed through two continuous laser beams (Nd: YAG laser, 532 nm). The obtained time of flight (TOF) and velocity of individual particles were used to calculate the vacuum aerodynamic diameter (D_{va}) based on a calibration curve. Subsequently, particles with a specific velocity were desorbed and ionized by triggering a pulse laser (an Nd: YAG laser, 266 nm, 0.6 ± 0.06 mJ was used in this study). The ion

fragments were recorded using a bio-polar TOF mass spectrometer. Prior toBefore the use of SPAMS, standard polystyrene latex spheres (0.2-2 μ m, Duke Scientific Corp., Palo Alto, CA) and PbCl₂ and NaNO₃ (0.35 μ m, Sigma-Aldrich) solutions were used for the size and mass spectral calibration, respectively. The hit rate, defined as the ratio of ionized particles to all sampled particles, of the SPAMS is was ~ 11% during the cruise observation campaigns.

During the R/V *Xuelong* cruise observation campaigns, approximately 930,000 particles with mass spectral fingerprints and D_{va} ranging from 0.2 to 2 μ m were measured. An adaptive resonance theory neural network (ART-2a) was used to grouped the particles into several clusters based on their mass spectral fingerprints, using parameters of a vigilance factor of 0.85, a learning rate of 0.05, and a maximum of 20 iterations (Song and Hopke, 1999). The manually obtained clusters were sea salt (SS, 16.5%), aged sea salt (SS-aged, 8.1%), sea salt with biogenic organic matter (SS-Bio, 3.1%), internally mixed organics with calcium (OC-Ca, 48.7%), internally mixed organics with potassium (OC-K, 13.7%), organic-carbon-dominated (OC, 7.0%), and element carbon (EC, 2.9%) (Fig. S5 and Table S3) (Prather et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2014; Su et al., 2021). All single-particle types had marine origins with typical mass spectral characteristics of Na (m/z 23), Mg (m/z 24), K (m/z 39), Ca (m/z 40), and Cl (m/z -35 and -37), except for EC (SI text S4S2). There was little difference in individual particle analysis regarding chemical composition, size, and mixing state of particle clusters obtained from leg I and leg II (SI Text S3).

3 Results

3.1 Ca²⁺ enrichment dominated by environmental factors

We propose that both Na⁺ and Ca²⁺ in our observations originated from marine sources.

The mass concentration of Na⁺ exhibited a strong positive correlation with that of Cl⁻ (r = 0.99, p < 0.001) and Mg²⁺ (r = 0.99, p < 0.001) (Fig. S6), indicating that they had a common origin (i.e., sea spray). However, it is not surprising that the mass concentration of Na⁺ showed a relatively weak correlation with that of Ca²⁺ (r = 0.51, p < 0.001) (Fig. S6). This can be explained by the low water-soluble complexation of Ca²⁺ with organic matter and/or insoluble Ca²⁺ in the form of calcareous shell debris, such as CaCO₃. In addition, the potential impact of long-range transport of anthropogenic aerosols and dust contributing to Ca²⁺ may be limited due to the predominance of polar air masses during the observation campaigns (Fig. S2).

The enrichment factor (EFx), defined as the mass concentration ratio of a specific species X to Na⁺ in aerosols to that in bulk seawater, is generally used to describe the enrichment extent of species X in aerosols.

$$EFx = \frac{([X]/[Na^+])_{aerosol}}{([X]/[Na^+])_{seawater}}$$

An EFx > 1 indicates a positive enrichment; otherwise, it indicates depletion.__The measurements were almost entirely influenced by polar air masses (Fig. S1). Therefore, the long-range transport of anthropogenic aerosols may be limited. All Na⁺ was assumed to originate from SSA. Generally, the ratio of Ca²⁺ to Na⁺ in seawater is 0.038 (w/w) (Boreddy and Kawamura, 2015; Su et al., 2022). During the whole cruise, the hourly average EF_{Ca} was 2.76 ± 6.27 (mean \pm standard deviation (M \pm SD), n = 1051, ranged from 0.01 to 85, median =1.18, interquartile range (IQR) = 1.85). Similar to previous studies (Salter et al., 2016), positive magnesium (Mg²⁺) and potassium (K⁺) enrichment in SSASSAs was also observed (SI text S5S4).

Figure 1–3 shows presents the enrichment factor of Ca²⁺ (EF_{Ca}) at different ambient temperatures (separated by a mean value of -3.5 °C), wind speeds (separated by a mean value of 7

m s⁻¹), and with/withoutin the presence/absence of sea ice during the whole cruisethe entire <u>observation campaign</u>. The results elearly indicated that the highest EF_{Ca} zone $(M \pm SD = 3.83 \pm$ 3.43, median = 2.66, IQR = 3.37, n = 144) appeared occurred at a relatively a lower ambient temperature (< -3.5 °C), lower wind speed (< 7 m s⁻¹) and in the presence of sea ice (Fig. 3dS6). Compared to the contrary conditions (i.e., ambient temperatures \geq -3.5 °C, wind speeds \geq 7 m s⁻¹, and the absence of no sea ice), there was almost calcium depletion (EF_{Ca}, M \pm SD = 1.01 \pm 0.80, median = 0.70, IQR = 0.73, n = 182) (Fig. 3c). Notably, we observed a higher EF_{Ca} during the sea ice period than during the period without sea ice $(3.83 \pm 3.43 \text{ vs. } 2.45 \pm 3.09 \text{ by M} \pm \text{SD}$ and 2.66 vs. 1.18, by median) (Fig. 3d), under the conditions of ambient temperatures < -3.5 °C and wind speeds < 7 m s⁻¹. In addition, we also observed more frequent Ca²⁺ enrichment events during the sea ice period (71.0% in leg I) compared to the period without sea ice (47.7% in leg II) (**Table S2**). Moreover, the increased EF_{Ca} varied with decreasing ambient temperature and wind speed and with increasing sea ice fraction, as shown in Fig. 4. Taken together, our results indicate that the enhanced Ca²⁺ enrichment in SSAs is sensitive to the lower temperature, lower wind speeds, and the presence of sea ice. Under the conditions of ambient temperatures < -3.5 °C and wind speeds < 7 m s⁻¹, a higher EF_{Ca} was observed during the sea ice period than during the period without sea ice (3.83 \pm 3.43 vs. 2.45 ± 3.09 by M ± SD and 2.66 vs. 1.18, by median) (Fig. S6). The EF_{Ca} increased with decreasing ambient temperature and wind speed, as also shown in Fig. 2. In addition, the positive Ca²⁺ enrichment events (71%) were most associated with leg I, that is, air masses blowing from the large fraction of sea-ice-covered ocean (i.e., Ross Sea, 78%) (Table S1). And there was a positive correlation (r = 0.73, p < 0.01) between the sea ice fraction and EF_{Ca} during leg I (sea ice

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period) (Fig. 2), indicating a possible effect of the presence of sea ice on Ca²⁺ enrichment in SSA. Under the conditions of ambient temperatures < -3.5 °C and wind speeds < 7 m s⁻¹, a higher EF_{Ca} was observed during the sea ice period than during the period without sea ice (3.83 ± 3.43 vs. 2.45 ± 3.09 by M ± SD and 2.66 vs. 1.18, by median) (Fig. S6). In contrast, under the conditions of ambient temperatures ≥ -3.5 °C, wind speeds ≥ 7 m s⁻¹, and no sea ice, there was almost calcium depletion (EF_{Ca}, $M \pm SD = 1.01 \pm 0.80$, median = 0.70, IQR = 0.73, n = 182) in the SSA (Fig. S6). We further analyzed the distribution of Ca²⁺ enrichment concerning 96-hour back trajectories with sea ice fraction and chlorophyll-a concentration, as shown in Fig. 5. During the observation campaigns, we identified five areas with the continuous enhancement of Ca²⁺ enrichment, namely, Area 1 and 2 during the leg II, and Area 3,4, and 5 during the leg I. Our results indicated that air masses traveling over the sea ice and marginal ice zone (> 95%, by trajectory coverage) in Areas 3, 4, and 5, as well as those over the sea ice (28%-33%) and land-based Antarctic ice (57-59%) in Area 1 and 2, were strongly associated with the increased calcium enrichment (Table S4). These pieces of evidence further support the influence of sea ice on the increased calcium enrichment, while simultaneously ruling out the influence of long-range transport of anthropogenic aerosol and dust outside the Antarctic. WeWe observednoted that a series of high EF_{Ca} cases in (Area 1) were correlated with were associated with a high concentration of chlorophyll-a (0.99 ± 1.65 µg L⁻¹) during leg II (Fig. S7 and Table S4). However, it is unlikely that the phytoplankton and/or bacteria are responsible for the enhanced EF_{Ca} cases was unlikely to be attributed to phytoplankton and/or bacteria due to the <u>poor_weak</u> correlation (r = 0.12, p < 0.01) between the chlorophyll-a concentration and EF_{Ca} values (Fig. \$8\$7). Moreover, although the ship track of leg II covered large areas with higher

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chlorophyll-a concentrations, but the high EF_{Ca} values were only present at the narrow temporal and spatial scales. Furthermore, results from back trajectories indicated that air masses did not significantly travel through the region with elevated chlorophyll-a concentration.—Therefore, we suggest that the impact of chlorophyll-a concentration—may have a limited impact on Ca²⁺ enrichment may be limited.

3.2 Single-particle characteristics of Ca-containing particles

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To elucidate the mixing state of individual calcareous particles, we set a threshold of m/z 40 [Ca] to reclassify all-the single-particle types that were obtained from the ART-2a algorithm. This means that all reclassified particles contain signals of m/z 40 [Ca]⁺. were further refined with an ion signal of m/z 40 [Ca]*. A total of ~ 580, 000 Ca-containing particles were distributed among all particle types, accounting for $\sim 62\%$ of the total obtained particles. In particular, OC-Ca was the dominant (~ 72%, by occurrence frequency) particle type among all Ca-containing particles, followed by SS-Ca (calcium-containing sea salt, $\sim 12\%$) (Fig. 36h). Each of the remaining particle types accounted for negligible fractions (< 7%) in the total of Ca-containing particles, and were classified as "Other". Tthus, they are were not included in the following discussion. OC-Ca is-was characterized by a prominent ion signature for m/z at 40 [Ca]⁺ in the positive mass spectrum and organic marker ions of biological origin (e.g., organic nitrogen, phosphate, carbohydrate, siliceous materials, and organic carbon) in the negative spectrum (Fig. 36d). Specifically, organic nitrogen (m/z -26 [CN] and -42 [CNO]) shows-showed the largest number fraction (NF) at ~88% (Fig. S5h), which is likely derived from organic nitrogen species, such as amines amino groups, and/or cellulose (Czerwieniec et al., 2005; Srivastava et al., 2005; Köllner et al., 2017; Dall'osto et al., 2019). Higher NFs of phosphate (16%; *m/z* -63 [PO₂]⁻ and -79 [PO₃]⁻), carbohydrates (24%; *m/z* -45 [CHO₂]⁻, -59 [C₂H₃O₂]⁻, and -73 [C₃H₃O₂]⁻), siliceous materials (40%; *m/z* -60 [SiO₂]⁻), and organic carbon (37%; *m/z* 27 [C₂H₃]⁻ and 43 [C₂H₃O₃]⁻) were also observed in OC-Ca relative to other particle types (**Fig. S5h**). These organic ion signatures likely correspond to phospholipids, mono- and polysaccharides, and biosilica structures (e.g., exoskeletons or frustules), which may be derived from the intact heterotrophic cells, fragments of cells, and exudates of phytoplankton and/or bacterial (Prather et al., 2013; Guasco et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2018). Besides, the strong organic ion intensities may truly reflect the amount of organic material in OC-Ca, because the particles were are sufficiently dry during the ionization process (i.e., complete positive and negative mass spectra) (Gross et al., 2000). Notably, the possible ion signals of bromide (*m/z* -79 and -81) were observed in OC-Ca, indicating a potential source of blowing snow (Yang et al., 2008; Song et al., 2022).

The OC-Ca particles were arc most likely classified as a distinct SSASSAs population, probably of marine biogenic origin. Sea salt particles typically exhibit a stronger m/z 23 [Na]⁺ than m/z 40 [Ca]⁺ due to the higher concentration of Na⁺ vs. Ca²⁺ in seawater and also due to the lower ionization potential of Na vs. Ca (5.14 eV vs. 6.11 eV) (Gross et al., 2000). However, the ratio of m/z 23 [Na]⁺ to m/z 40 [Ca]⁺ present in the OC-Ca particles is reversed, verifying a distinct single particle type (Gross et al., 2000; Gaston et al., 2011). Similarly, the ion signal of m/z 39 [K]⁺ does not surpass that of m/z 40 [Ca]⁺ in OC-Ca, although K is ionized more easily thant Ca (4.34 eV vs. 6.11eV) (Gross et al., 2000). The presence of calcium together with organic species (e.g., organic nitrogen, phosphate, etc.) in SSA verifies a marine-biogenic origin of OC-Ca (Köllner et al., 2021).

drying tube (< 5 s) and vacuum system (< 1 ms) could have been insufficient for the complete efflorescence of SSASSAs (Gaston et al., 2011; Sierau et al., 2014). Hence, the OC-Ca could not be attributed to the chemical fractionation of the efflorescence **SSASSAS** in SPAMS analysis. Additionally, based on the single-particle mass spectrometry technique, some particle types with similar chemical characteristics to OC-Ca have been observed in both field and laboratory studies (e.g., atomization of sea ice meltwater collected in the Southern Ocean) (Gaston et al., 2011; Prather et al., 2013; Collins et al., 2014; Guasco et al., 2014; Dall'osto et al., 2019; Su et al., 2021). The OC-Ca may be from local emissions because the measurements were almost entirely influenced by polar air masses (Fig. S1). Other possible sources, such as glacial dust (Tobo et al., 2019), could be excluded because of the lack of crustal mass spectral characteristics (e.g., -76 [SiO₃], 27 [Al]⁺, and 48 [Ti]⁺/64 [TiO]⁺) (Pratt et al., 2009; Zawadowicz et al., 2017). And tThe mean mass concentration ratio of Ca/Na in the aerosol sample was only 0.10, much lower than that in the crust (1.78, w/w). In contrast, SS-Ca was classified as a pure inorganic cluster with predominant contributions of Na-related compounds $(m/z 23 \text{ [Na]}^+, 46 \text{ [Na_2]}^+, 81/83 \text{ [Na_2}^{35/37}\text{Cl]}^+, \text{ and } -93/-95 \text{ [Na}^{35/37}\text{Cl}_2]^-)$ Mg (m/z 24), K (m/z 39), and Ca (m/z 40) in the mass spectra (Fig. 6a3). Organic ion signals such as organic nitrogen (m/z -26 [CN] and -42 [CNO] and phosphate (m/z -63 [PO₂] and -79 [PO₃]) were rarely detected (~1%, by NF). As described above, Tthese compounds related to oceanic biogeochemical processes. In addition, secondary species (e.g., nitrate of m/z -62 [NO₃] and sulfate of m/z -97 [HSO₄] were also not observed, indicating a fresh origin and/or less atmospheric aging. As a subpopulation of SS, SS-Ca may originate from bubble bursting within

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open -water and/or blowing snow.

4 Discussion

401	SS-Ca (calcium-containing sea salt) represents a mixture of NaCl and CaCl ₂ . However, the
402	SS-Ca showed a weak correlation (r = 0.21, p < 0.05, by count and r = 0.03, p < 0.05, by the peak
403	area of m/z 40 [Ca] ⁺) with the mass concentration of Ca ²⁺ (Table S51). In addition, the proportion
404	of SS-Ca is was also small (11.6%, Fig. 6h). These results indicated that CaCl ₂ is not the major
405	cause reason for of the Ca ²⁺ enrichment in SSASSAs, although CaCl ₂ has been proposed as a cause
406	based on laboratory atomizing of pure inorganic artificial seawater (Salter et al., 2016). The
407	contribution of ikaite (CaCO ₃ ·6H ₂ O) could also be excluded due to its low water solubility
408	(Bischoff et al., 1993; Dieckmann et al., 2008; Dieckmann et al., 2010), although ikaite from sea
409	salt fractionation has also been proposed to account for the Ca ²⁺ enrichment in the SSASSAs over
410	the Antarctic coast (Hara et al., 2012). Moreover, the mass spectral signatures of CaCO ₃ (e.g., m/z
411	56 [CaO] ⁺ and -60 [CO ₃] ²⁻ (see Sullivan et al. (2009)) were also rare in the SS-Ca particles (Fig.
412	<u>6a</u> 3).
413	As a major component (~72%, by occurrence frequency) of the Ca-containing particles, OC-
414	Ca was is expected to be partially partly responsible for the calcium enrichment in SSASSAs. First,
415	the OC-Ca and mass concentration of Ca^{2+} exhibited moderately weak positive correlations (r =
416	0.42, $p < 0.05$, by count and $r = 0.49$, $p < 0.05$, by the peak area of m/z 40 [Ca] ⁺) (Table S5) and
417	moderately strong correlations under higher EF_{Ca} values ($EF_{Ca} > 10$, $r = 0.63$, $p < 0.05$, by count
418	and $r = 0.68$, $p < 0.05$, by the peak area of m/z 40 [Ca] ⁺) (Table 1.85 and SI text S6). Also, such
419	correlations were great during leg I ($r = 0.59$, $p < 0.05$, by count and $r = 0.60$, $p < 0.05$, by the
420	peak area of m/z 40 [Ca] ⁺)Second, the OC-Ca showed a size distribution with a peak at 1 μm
421	(Fig. 36i), which is consistent with the significant Ca ²⁺ enrichment that is generally found in

submicron SSASSAs (Cochran et al., 2016; Salter et al., 2016; Mukherjee et al., 2020).

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We further show that calcium may strongly mix with organic matter, probably as organically complexed calcium, in the OC-Ca particles. The calcium was well-correlated well with different kinds of organic matter (e.g., phosphate, r = 0.81, p < 0.05, by peak area), but poorly correlated with chloride (r = 0.21, p < 0.05, by the peak area and r = 0.48, p < 0.05, by mass concentration) (Fig. S69). In addition, different kinds of organic matter (e.g., organic nitrogen, organic carbon, etc.) in the OC-Ca particles also showed enrichment trends below the submicron level, analogously to Ca^{2+} enrichment (Fig. S810). Particularly, EF_{Ca} and organic nitrogen (with the largest NF in OC-Ca) were both affected by the environmental factors of ambient temperature, wind speed, and sea ice fraction, indicating possible organic binding with calcium (Fig. S911). To exclude the potential inorganic water-soluble compounds (i.e., chloride (m/z -35 and -37), nitrate (m/z -62), and sulfate (m/z -97)), we further classified OC-Ca into two subpopulations, OC-Ca-Organic (23.6%, by proportion) and OC-Ca-Inorganic (48.7%, by proportion) (Fig. \$12\$\)120. depending on the presence of inorganic ion signals (i.e., chloride of m/z -35/-37 [Cl], nitrate of m/z -62 [NO₃], and sulfate of m/z -97 [HSO₄]. Both the OC-Ca types and mass concentrations of Ca²⁺ showed enhanced correlations under high EF_{Ca} values (Table \$51). In particular, OC-Ca-Organic exhibited stronger correlations than did OC-Ca-Inorganic (r = 0.51 vs. r = 0.28, p < 0.05, by count and r = 0.51 vs. 0.31, p < 0.05, by peak area of m/z 40 [Ca]⁺, respectively), which indicated indicates the importance of OC-Ca-Organic for the enrichment of Ca²⁺. Although we did not measure the hygroscopicity of the OC-Ca in this study, we infer it to be hygroscopic to some extent. As reported by Cochran et al. (2017), the mixture of sea salt with organic matter can also exhibit a certain hygroscopicity (hygroscopicity parameter, 0.50-1.27). Therefore, it is likely that

the organically complexed calcium is slightly water-soluble and is partially responsible for calcium enrichment, while current studies may neglect it. Therefore, the organically complexed calcium was most likely water-insoluble and/or slightly water-soluble and partly responsible for calcium enrichment, while current studies may neglect it. The possible processes contributing to the calcium enrichment induced by OC-Ca are illustrated incan only be speculated on (Fig. 47). Ca²⁺ tends to bind with organic matter of biogenic origin, such as exopolymer substances (EPSs), and subsequently assemble as marine microgels (Verdugo et al., 2004; Gaston et al., 2011; Krembs et al., 2011; Orellana et al., 2011; Verdugo, 2012; Orellana et al., 2021). Large amounts of microgels, driven by sea ice algae, microorganisms, and/or exchanges of organic matter with the seawater below, stick to the sea ice due to its porous nature. And they are likely to present in the snow, frost flowers, and brine channels. Due to its porous nature, the sea ice sticks to the abundant microgels that are driven by sea ice algae, microorganisms, and/or exchanges of organic matter with the seawater below, which are likely present in the snow, frost flowers, and brine channels (Krembs et al., 2002; Gao et al., 2012; Vancoppenolle et al., 2013; Arrigo, 2014; Boetius et al., 2015; Kirpes et al., 2019). A low wind speed may not only be conducive to the formation of frost flowers and snow but also produce less sea salt (i.e., small yields of Na⁺ relative to Ca²⁺) (Rankin et al., 2002). Correspondingly, a high wind speed ($\geq 7 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) can yields more sea salt by blowing-snow events and/or wave breaking (Yang et al., 2008; Song et al., 2022), presenting a dilution effect of Na⁺ on Ca²⁺. In this case, the calcium enrichment in <u>SSASSAs</u> could reasonably be attributed to <u>the</u> possible gel-like calcium-containing particles released by low-wind-blown sea ice.the gel-like

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calcium particles This inference is supported by the observation of air masses blown over a large

fraction of sea ice/land-based Antarctic ice, as well as a moderate negative correlation (r = 0.50, p < 0.001) between wind speed and sea ice fraction. In addition, we also observed a (higher</p> proportion of OC-Ca at low wind speeds (< 7 m s⁻¹, 61.5%) than relative toat high wind speeds (≥ 7 m s⁻¹, 38.5%)). -Coincidently, Song et al. (2022) also reported that a low wind-blown sea ice process can drive the biogenic aerosol response in the high Arctic-area. In addition, the enhanced presence of film drops was observed at lower wind speeds (< 6 m s⁻¹) (Norris et al., 2011), which suggests that the bubble bursts within the sea ice leads and open_water may also be responsible for the release of OC-Ca and its calcium enrichment involved (Leck and Bigg, 2005b, a; Bigg and Leck, 2008; Leck and Bigg, 2010; Leck et al., 2013; Kirpes et al., 2019). As expected, the results of the Ca²⁺ enrichment in SSAs obtained from ion mass concentration via IGAC did not fully align with results from SPAMS datasets. We propose two possible explanations for this discrepancy: (i) It could be attributed to a difference in the size of particles collected by the two different instruments ($\sim 10 \mu m$ for IGAC and 0.2–2 μm for SPAMS). In addition, SPAMS cannot measure the Aitken-mode particles (Sierau et al., 2014), and can measure only the tail of accumulation-mode particles with a relatively low hit rate (~11% in this study). (ii) The types of datasets obtained via IGAC (ion mass concentration) and SPAMS (mass spectral characteristics) are different. The former method partially reflects the Ca²⁺ distribution based on water-soluble Ca²⁺, while the OC-Ca measured by SPAMS may have low water solubility. The latter method is still challenging to use for quantitative measurements due to potential inhomogeneities in the transmission efficiencies of the aerodynamic lenses and desorption/ionization, as well as the matrix effects of individual particles due to the potential inhomogeneities in the transmission efficiencies of the aerodynamic lenses and

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desorption/ionization, and the matrix effects of individual particles (Gross et al., 2000; Qin et al., 2006; Pratt and Prather, 2012). Therefore, it may not be straightforward to compare the particle count and peak area with the absolute mass concentration use the particle count and peak area in comparison with the absolute mass concentration. Although there is a discrepancy between the two instruments, we believe our results to be reliable and representative. On the one side, the quantitative results concluded by IGAC confirm the enrichment of Ca2+ in SSAs and demonstrate their dependence on and relevance to the environmental factors. On the other side, the individual particle analysis ranging in size from 0.2 to 2 μm is highly appropriate for revealing the calcium distribution in SSAs, as previous studies have shown increasing Ca²⁺ enrichment in SSAs below 1 µm (Oppo et al., 1999; Hara et al., 2012; Cochran et al., 2016; Salter et al., 2016; Mukherjee et al., 2020). Our study successfully identifies a unique calcareous particle type (i.e., OC-Ca) and its specific mixing state. A comprehensive understanding of the characteristics of OC-Ca to the mechanisms of calcium enrichment is essential for further recognizing the CCN and IN activation in remote marine areas. Another limitation is that only several environmental factors were considered for calcium enrichment in this study. Some potential factors, such as surface net solar radiation, snowfall, total cloud cover, surface pressure, total precipitation, boundary layer height, seawater salinity, etc., may also affect the calcium enrichment in SSAs through regulating the yield of sea salt (i.e., Na⁺

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mass concentration)(Song et al., 2022). However, they were not available in this study because of the lack of measurement during the cruise. Meanwhile, the satellite data with low temporal-spatial resolution cannot match per hour in each starting condition. We hope that future research will further investigate the enrichment of specific species in SSAs under a wider range of

meteorological or oceanographic conditions.

Noticeable, it is still quite a challenge to obtain quantitative measurements using SPAMS due to the potential inhomogeneities in the transmission efficiencies of the acrodynamic lenses and description/ionization, and the matrix effects of individual particles (Gross et al., 2000; Qin et al., 2006; Pratt and Prather, 2012). SPAMS cannot measure the Aitken mode particles (Sierau et al., 2014), it can measure only the tail of accumulation mode particles with relatively low hit rate (-11% in this study). Additionally, there is a difference in the size of collected particles between SPAMS (0.2–2 µm) and IGAC (~10 µm). Meanwhile, IGAC may partly reflect the Ca²⁺ distribution based the water-soluble Ca²⁺ as OC Ca may have a low water-solubility. Therefore, it may not be straightforward to use the particle count and peak area in comparison with the absolute mass concentration. Nevertheless, our results successfully identified a unique calcareous particle type (i.e., OC Ca) and its specific mixing state, which provides some insights into the mechanisms behind calcium enrichment.

5 Conclusions and atmospheric implications

We investigated the distribution of calcium in SSASSAs through the R/V *Xuelong* cruise observation campaigns over the Ross Sea, Antarctica. The most significant Ca²⁺ enrichment in SSASSAs occurred under relatively lower ambient temperatures (< -3.5 °C) and wind speeds (< 7 m s⁻¹) and with the presence of sea ice. With the help of individual particle mass spectral analysis, we first proposed that a single-particle type of OC-Ca (internally mixed organics with calcium), probably resulting from the preferential binding of Ca²⁺ with organic matter, could partiallypartly account for the calcium enrichment in SSASSA. We speculate inferred—that OC-Ca is likely

produced from the effects of low wind-blown sea ice on microgels induced by Ca²⁺ and/or the bubble bursts in the open-water and/or sea ice leads. However, the impact of environmental factors and OC-Ca on calcium enrichment in SSASSA still cannot be well predicted by multiple linear regression and random forest analysis (SI text S57), which may be ascribed to other unknown mechanisms and/or organically complexed calcium with—a low water solubility. In addition, our conclusions based on limited spatial,—and temporal, meteorological, and oceanographic conditions may not be accessible to other seasons and oceanic basins.

We suggest that the environmental behaviors of the possible gel-like calcium-containing particles (i.e., OC-Ca) should be paid more attention behind the mechanisms of calcium enrichment. Under the stimulation of specific environmental factors (e.g., pH, temperature, chemical compounds, pollutants, and UV radiation), their physicochemical properties would be changed (e.g., water-solubility enhanced by the cleavage of polymers) (Orellana and Verdugo, 2003; Orellana et al., 2011). To our knowledge, this is the first report of a calcium dominated single-particle type OC Ca in the Antarctic. Such particles may be preferred candidates for CCN and/or IN (Willis et al., 2018; Lawler et al., 2021). To our knowledge, this is the first report of a calcium-dominated single-particle type OC-Ca in the Antarctic. In the context of global warming and sea ice retreat, this work provides insight into the chemical composition and distribution of submicron SSASSAs in the Antarctic summer atmosphere, which would be helpful for a better understanding of aerosol-cloud-climate interactions.

Data Availability Statement

The data are available at Zenodo (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7276073). Details can be

552 accessed by contacting the corresponding author Guohua Zhang (zhanggh@gig.ac.cn) and the first 553 author Bojiang Su (subojiang21@mails.ucas.ac.cn). 554 **Declaration of Competing Interest** 555 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal 556 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper. 557 **Author Contributions** 558 The idea for the study was conceived by BJS. BJS analyzed the data, prepared the figures, and wrote the manuscript under the guidance of GHZ and XYB. LL and JPY contributed to the 559 560 observation data. All co-authors contributed to the discussions of the results and refinement of the 561 manuscript. 562 Acknowledgment This work was supported by the Guangdong Basic and Applied Basic Research Foundation 563 564 (2019B151502022), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (42077322 and 42130611), the Youth Innovation Promotion Association CAS (2021354), and the Guangdong Foundation for 565 566 Program of Science and Technology Research (2020B1212060053). The authors would like to 567 thank the editor and reviewers for their valuable time and feedback.

568 Figure captions

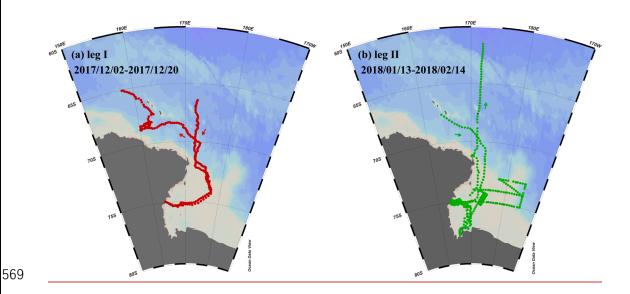


Figure 1

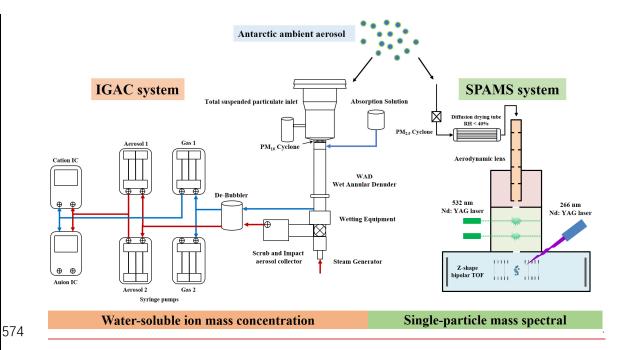
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Observation campaigns through R/V *Xuelong* in the Ross Sea, Antarctic. (a) Leg I took place from

December 2-20, 2017. (b) Leg II was conducted from January 13 to February 14, 2018.



<u>Figure 2</u>

A schematic of the aerosol sampling system of IGAC and SPAMS during the research cruise over

the Ross Sea, Antarctic.

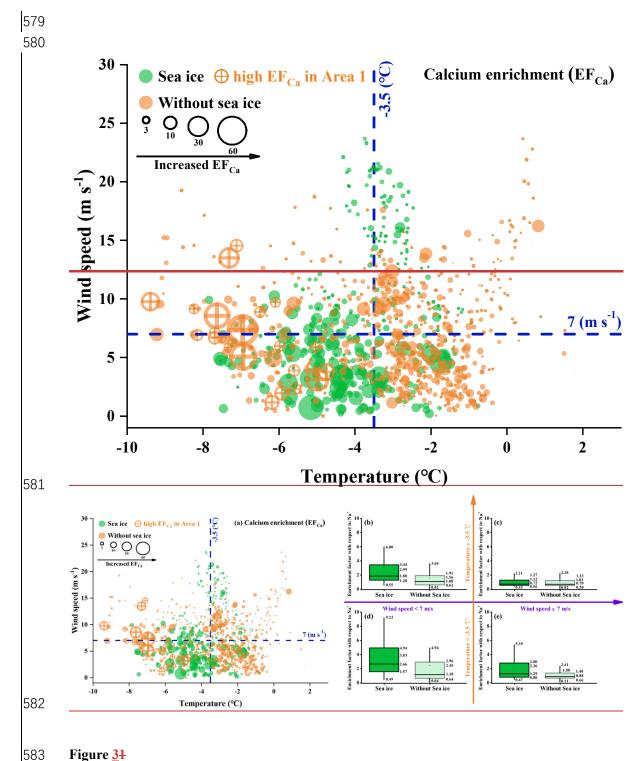


Figure 31

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(a) Bubble chart of the hourly Ca2+ enrichment factor (EFca) with respect to Na+ with different environmental factors (ambient temperature, wind speed, and sea ice fraction). The green and orange dots represent the EF_{Ca} values for the periods with and without sea ice, respectively. The orange marked dots represent a series of high EF_{Ca} cases that were correlated with a high concentration of chlorophyll-a during leg II of the cruise. (b)-(e) Data support of the bubble chart represented by box and whisker plots. In the box and whisker plots, the marked values from top to bottom are the 90th and 75th percentiles, mean, median, and 25th and 10th percentiles, respectively.

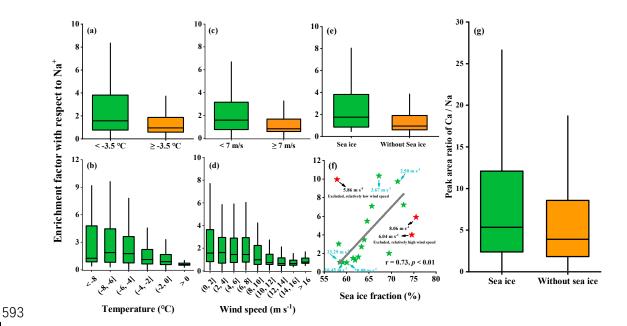


Figure 42

Enrichment factors of Ca²⁺ with respect to Na⁺ varied as a function of the ambient temperature (a-b), wind speed (c-d), and sea ice fraction (e-f) during cruise observation campaigns. (g) A box and whisker plot of the single-particle peak area ratio of Ca/Na in OC-Ca for the periods with and without sea ice. In the box and whisker plots, the lower, median, and upper lines of the box denote the 25th, 50th₂ and 75th percentiles, respectively. The lower and upper edges denote the 10th and 90th percentiles, respectively. The black solid star (f) exhibited an anomalous trend due to its nature of the relatively high or low wind speed. The first point exhibited a high EF value because of its relatively low wind speed (5.86 m s⁻¹). The second and third points exhibited low EF values because of their relatively high wind speeds of 6.04 m s⁻¹ and 8.06 m s⁻¹, respectively. These three points have been excluded from the correlation analysis.

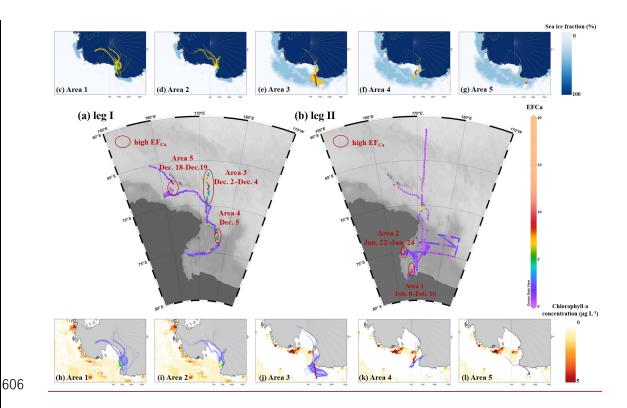


Figure 5

Distribution of EF_{Ca} during (a) leg I and (b) leg II. Five distinct areas with continuous enhanced Ca^{2+} enrichment events, along with 96-hour back trajectories (one trajectory per hour in each starting condition), sea ice fraction (c-g, yellow traces), and chlorophyll-a concentration (h-l, light-blue traces). Lines in red and green referred to ship tracks for corresponding areas during the leg I and leg II, respectively.

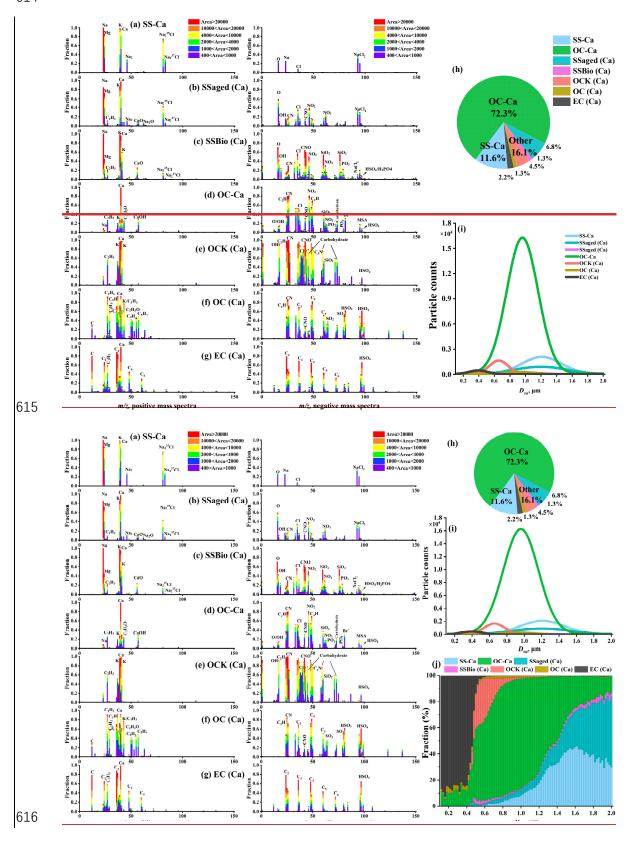
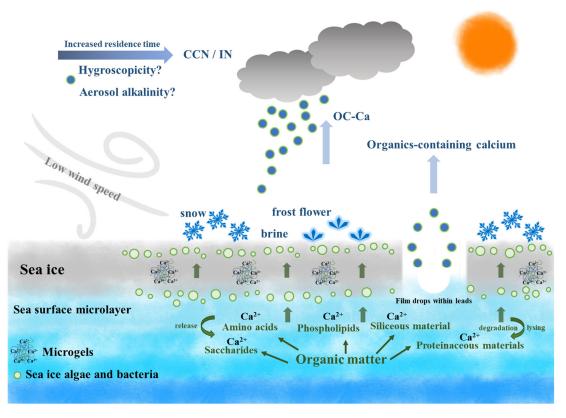


Figure 3<u>6</u>

(a) – (g) Average digitized single-particle mass spectra of seven chemical classes of Ca-containing particles. New single-particle types are reclassified with m/z 40 [Ca²⁺] based on previous ART-2a results. (h) Relative proportion and (i) unscaled size-resolved number distributions of these single-particle types using Gaussian Fitting. (j) Number fractions of single-particle types per size bin versus particle size.



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Figure 47

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Schematic of the production of OC-Ca and its possible atmospheric implications beyond calcium enrichment. Ca²⁺ tends to bind with organic matter whining sea ice/seawater, and subsequently assemble to marine microgels, likely present in the snow, frost flowers, and brine channels. With the low wind-blown sea ice process and/or bubble bursting within sea ice leads, these gel-like particles (i.e., OC-Ca) may be released to the Antarctic atmosphere, as a potential source of CCN/IN. Notably, the dataset via SPAMS cannot directly identify marine microgels. OC-Ca was likely associated with marine microgels, as calcium and biological organic material were extensively internally mixed. This OC-Ca type has previously been observed in the laboratory simulation of (Collins et al., 2014).

634 **Table captions**

	Count (Correlation coefficient, r)				Peak area (Correlation coefficient, r, m/z 40 [Ca] ²⁺)			
EF _{Ca}	OC-Ca-Inorganic	OC-Ca-Organic	OC-Ca	SS-Ca	OC-Ca-Inorganic	OC-Ca-Organic	OC-Ca	SS-Ca
0 - 5	0.08	0.31	0.18	0.07	0.18	0.44	0.41	0.04
5 - 10	0.15	0.37	0.27	0.04	0.14	0.36	0.33	0.06
> 10	0.58	0.59	0.63	0.10 ^a	0.53	0.68	0.68	0.10
Leg I	0.45	0.59	0.55	0.02	0.53	0.60	0.60	0.03
Leg II	0.06	0.22	0.14	0.45	0.14	0.39	0.39	0.11
Total	0.28	0.51	0.42	0.21	0.31	0.51	0.49	0.03

a: p -value > 0.05 (Pearson method, two-tailed test)

636 <u>Table 1</u>

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Correlation analysis between the OC-Ca (by count and by the peak area of m/z 40 [Ca]⁺) and its

two subpopulations OC-Ca-Organic and OC-Ca-Inorganic, SS-Ca (by count and by the peak area

of m/z 40 [Ca]⁺), and mass concentration of Ca²⁺ in the variation of EF_{Ca}, with the *p*-value < 0.05.

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