

1 **Measurement Report: Cloud condensation nuclei (CCN)**  
2 **activity in the South China Sea from shipborne**  
3 **observations during summer and winter of 2021: seasonal**  
4 **variation and anthropogenic influence.**

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 Understanding seasonal variations in cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activity and the impact of  
25 anthropogenic emissions in marine environments is crucial for assessing climate change. This study  
26 presents findings from two shipborne observations conducted in the South China Sea (SCS) during the  
27 summer and winter of 2021. In the summer, higher particle number concentrations but lower mass  
28 concentrations of non-refractory submicron particle matters (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>) were observed. This was  
29 attributed to the dominance of particles in the Aitken mode during summer, whereas there was a more  
30 balanced distribution of Accumulation mode and Aitken mode particles in winter. Summer particles were  
31 more hygroscopic, exhibiting higher activation ratios (ARs) at high supersaturation (SS) levels, while  
32 hygroscopicity at low SS was similar in both seasons. During the summer, three distinct periods were  
33 identified based on the air mass sources: terrestrial air masses from Luzon Island ("Luzon" period), and  
34 from the Indochinese Peninsula ("Indochinese Peninsula" period), and marine air masses. In winter, the  
35 periods were defined by terrestrial air masses from Mainland China ("Mainland China" period), a mix of  
36 Mainland China and marine air masses ("Mixed" period), and purely marine air masses. The "Luzon"  
37 period in summer exhibited the highest particle number concentration, especially in the Aitken mode,  
38 resulting in the highest CCN number concentration (N<sub>CCN</sub>). Aerosol hygroscopicity was higher during  
39 the "Indochinese Peninsula" period compared to the "Luzon" period, leading to a higher AR due to the  
40 combination of higher hygroscopicity and a greater fraction of accumulation mode particles. The  
41 "Mainland China" period in winter showed a high nitrate fraction in NR-PM<sub>1</sub>, but the inorganic fraction  
42 was similar to it in "Luzon" period, resulting in comparable hygroscopicity at low SS to the "Luzon"  
43 period. However, hygroscopicity at small particle sizes was much lower in the "Mainland China" period  
44 than in the summer periods. The "Mixed" period in winter exhibited a higher fraction of accumulation  
45 mode particles, causing a higher AR compared to the "Mainland China" period. CCN closure analysis,  
46 considering aerosol composition and mixing state, revealed that summer aerosol was primarily internally  
47 mixed, whereas smaller aerosol in winter was primarily externally mixed. The potential effect of  
48 undetected sea salt may lead to an underestimation of aerosol hygroscopicity in summer. This study  
49 highlights significant seasonal differences in aerosol properties and the impact of different types of  
50 terrestrial air masses on CCN activity in the SCS, contributing to our understanding of regional climate  
51 influences.

52 **1.Introduction**

53 Aerosols can act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN), influencing cloud formation, lifespan, and  
54 albedo, thus indirectly impacting global radiative balance (Fletcher et al., 2011; Albrecht, 1989). The  
55 aerosol-cloud interaction currently represents the largest uncertainty in radiative forcing within climate  
56 models, ranging from -1.7 to -0.3 W m<sup>-2</sup> (IPCC, 2021). This uncertainty can be attributed to the significant  
57 spatiotemporal variability in the aerosol size distribution and the ability of atmospheric aerosol particles  
58 acting as CCN (CCN activity) (Fitzgerald, 1973). Thus, field measurements of aerosol size distribution  
59 and physicochemical properties are needed to better understand the radiative forcing exerted by  
60 atmospheric aerosol particles.

61 Previous studies suggest that particle number size distribution (PNSD) is a primary factor  
62 influencing CCN concentrations (Dusek et al., 2006; Rose et al., 2010; Pöhlker et al., 2016; Burkart et  
63 al., 2011). The PNSD can account for 84–96% of the variability in CCN concentrations ( $N_{CCN}$ ) (Dusek  
64 et al., 2006), while CCN activities may also play a significant role in CCN concentrations (Quinn et al.,  
65 2008; Cai et al., 2018; Ovadnevaite et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018; Crosbie et al., 2015), which are primarily  
66 governed by the particle size, chemical composition, mixing state, surface tension, and hygroscopicity  
67 (Köhler, 1936; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Among these factors, the impact of hygroscopicity on CCN  
68 activities has received great attention in recent years (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007; Ajith et al., 2022;  
69 Rose et al., 2010). Petters and Kreidenweis (2007) proposed the  $\kappa$ - Köhler theory based on the Köhler  
70 theory to quantify the ability of aerosol particles to absorb moisture and become CCN based on the  
71 aerosol hygroscopicity parameters ( $\kappa$ ). Ajith et al. (2022) showed that 64% of particles can be activated  
72 as CCN when  $\kappa$  is equal to 0.37, whereas when  $\kappa$  decreases to 0.23, only 48% of particles can be activated  
73 in the tropical coastal area.

74 Significant seasonal variations in PNSD and hygroscopicity under both terrestrial and marine  
75 environments were observed in previous field observations, leading to the seasonal variations in  $N_{CCN}$   
76 (Crosbie et al., 2015; Schmale et al., 2018; Burkart et al., 2011; Bougiatioti et al., 2009; Sihto et al., 2011;  
77 Leena et al., 2016; Ross et al., 2003; Gras and Keywood, 2017; Quinn et al., 2019). Crosbie et al. (2015)  
78 revealed that in the urban area of Arizona particles had larger sizes, higher hygroscopicity, and  $N_{CCN}$  was  
79 also higher during winter, while a higher abundance of smaller particles was observed during summer  
80 owing to stronger photochemical reactions. In pristine environments like mountain, coastal, and forested

81 regions, seasonal variations in  $N_{CCN}$  and PNSD were more pronounced than urban and rural areas  
82 (Schmale et al., 2018). Pöhlker et al. (2016) observed significant differences in  $N_{CCN}$  between the wet  
83 and dry seasons in the Amazon rainforest, while the  $\kappa$  values remained relatively stable. They also noted  
84 increased particle concentrations and aerosol hygroscopicity, both subject to the impact of long-range  
85 transport originating from anthropogenic emissions. Observations in marine areas during different  
86 seasons are relatively scarce compared with those in inland areas. Gras (1995) found that both particle  
87 concentration and  $N_{CCN}$  in the Southern Ocean reached their peaks during summer and gradually decrease  
88 to their valleys in winter. Quinn et al. (2019) showed that sea spray aerosols make a relatively significant  
89 contribution to  $N_{CCN}$  only during winter in the Western North Atlantic, while in other seasons, the primary  
90 contribution comes from biogenic aerosols oxidized from dimethyl sulfide (DMS). Zheng et al. (2020)  
91 revealed that sulfate dominates the particle condensational growth to CCN sizes during summer in the  
92 North Atlantic, while secondary organic aerosols played a significant role in particle growth throughout  
93 all seasons. These results indicate that CCN activity and concentration could vary in a large range during  
94 different seasons. Thus, further observations across different seasons in marine environments are needed  
95 to enhance our understanding of marine CCN activities and their seasonal variations.

96 The South China Sea (SCS), located in Southeast Asia and bordered by China, the Indochinese  
97 Peninsula, and Maritime Southeast Asia, is significantly influenced by air pollutants transported through  
98 terrestrial air masses. Studies have shown that these pollutants play a crucial role in determining aerosol  
99 concentration and properties in the region (Atwood et al., 2017; Xiao et al., 2017; Geng et al., 2019;  
100 Liang et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2023; Qin et al., 2024). For instance, Xiao et al. (2017) reported that 69.7%  
101 of nitrate and 57.5% of sulfate in the SCS originated from fossil fuel combustion, particularly coal  
102 burning in Chinese coastal regions. Additionally, Liang et al. (2021) and Sun et al. (2023) observed an  
103 increase in the organic fraction and concentration of submicron aerosols when the region was influenced  
104 by terrestrial air masses from Mainland China and the Indochinese Peninsula in the northern SCS. Further  
105 studies highlighted the variation in aerosol properties under different air mass influences. Atwood et al.  
106 (2017) found a significant bimodal particle distribution with a  $\kappa$  value of 0.65 in the southern SCS under  
107 marine air mass influence, whereas a unimodal distribution with a  $\kappa$  of 0.4 was observed under  
108 continental air mass influence.

109 The SCS experiences a typical monsoon climate with distinct seasonal wind direction changes  
110 (Wang et al., 2009). The northeast monsoon, occurring from November to March, is characterized by

111 stronger average wind speeds and longer period compared to the southwest monsoon, which dominates  
112 from June to August. The transitional periods occur from April to May and September to October. During  
113 the northeast monsoon, air pollutants are primarily transported to the SCS by terrestrial air masses from  
114 China (Xiao et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2014; Geng et al., 2019). In contrast, during the summer, pollutants  
115 mainly originate from terrestrial air masses from the Indochinese Peninsula and Maritime Southeast Asia  
116 (Geng et al., 2019; Liang et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2023). These varying sources of anthropogenic emissions  
117 exerts different impacts on CCN activity differently across seasons. Additionally, the high cloud fraction  
118 over the SCS varies from approximately 0.3 to 0.7 across different months, indicating that aerosol-cloud  
119 interactions in the region may differ between seasons (Lu et al., 2022). However, due to limited  
120 observational data, our understanding of seasonal variations in CCN activity in the SCS remains  
121 incomplete. Conducting comprehensive observational studies on CCN activity across different seasons  
122 is essential for improving our understanding of aerosol-cloud interactions on the SCS.

123 In this study, we conducted two shipborne observations in the SCS during summer (May 5–June 9,  
124 2021) and winter (December 19–29, 2021). Our observations with online instruments focused on  
125 measuring aerosol chemical composition, PNSD, and CCN activation in the region. Our results provide  
126 valuable insights into the differences in CCN activity between winter and summer, as well as the  
127 influence of different types of terrestrial air masses on CCN activity in the SCS across different seasons.

## 128 **2. Methodology**

### 129 **2.1 Cruise information and onboard measurements**

#### 130 **2.1.1 Cruise information**

131 This study consists of two research cruises conducted during the summer and winter of 2021,  
132 respectively. These two cruises were interdisciplinary scientific expeditions, integrating fields such as  
133 marine geology, oceanography, and atmospheric environment. The primary objective in atmospheric  
134 environment was to investigate the impact of different monsoons on the atmospheric environment of the  
135 South China Sea (SCS). The summer and winter cruises were carried out respectively by the vessels "Tan  
136 Kah Kee" and "Sun Yat-sen University". The "Tan Kah Kee" is an oceanographic research vessel with a  
137 length of 77.7 meters, a beam of 16.24 meters, and a displacement of 3611 tons. The "Sun Yat-sen  
138 University" is a comprehensive oceanographic training vessel with a total length of 114.3 meters, a beam  
139 of 19.4 meters, and a displacement of 6880 tons.

140 The first cruise was from May 5<sup>th</sup> to June 9<sup>th</sup>, 2021. The cruise started from Xiamen Port and  
141 traversed from the northern to the central-southern South China Sea, and then circled back near Hainan  
142 Island, and finally returned to Xiamen Port. The second cruise was from December 19<sup>th</sup> to December  
143 29<sup>th</sup>, 2021. It began from Gaolan Port in Zhuhai and reached the vicinity of Yongxing Island, and  
144 ultimately returned to Gaolan Port (Fig. 1a). Unfortunately, due to adverse weather conditions, such as  
145 strong winter monsoon winds causing poor sea conditions, and the fact that it was the first scientific  
146 deployment of the research vessel Sun Yat-sen University, the winter cruise had a shorter duration and  
147 covered a narrower spatial range compared to the summer cruise. On both cruises, most of the  
148 instruments were housed in a single compartment and the sampling lines were extended from the window  
149 of the compartment to the height of the ship's bridge (Fig. 1a).

### 150 **2.1.2 Size-resolved cloud condensation nuclei activity measurement**

151 The size-resolved CCN activity was measured with a combination of a scanning mobility particle  
152 sizer (SMPS) system and a cloud condensation nuclei counter (model CCNc-200, DMT Inc., USA), the  
153 scanning mobility CCN analysis (SMCA) method initially proposed in Moore et al. (2010). The SMPS  
154 system consisted of a differential mobility analyzer (DMA; model 3082, TSI, Inc.) and a condensation  
155 particle counter (CPC; model 3756, TSI Inc.). The SMPS and the CCNc system were used to measure  
156 PNSD and size-resolved CCN number concentration at a mobility size range of 10–500 nm and 10–593  
157 nm in summer and winter campaign, respectively.

158 The supersaturation (SS) of the CCNc was set at 0.2 %, 0.4 %, and 0.7 % in summer campaign and  
159 0.1%, 0.2 %, 0.4 %, and 0.7 % in winter campaign, respectively. Before the measurements, the CCNc  
160 was calibrated with ammonium sulfate ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) particles at each set SS. Detailed description of the  
161 instrument configuration and calibration can be found in Cai et al. (2018).

### 162 **2.1.3 Aerosol chemical composition measurement**

163 The chemical composition of atmospheric non-refractory submicron particulate matter (NR-PM<sub>1</sub>),  
164 including sulfate, nitrate, organics, ammonium, and chloride, was measured using an online time-of-  
165 flight ACSM (ToF-ACSM; Aerodyne Inc., USA). The sampling time of the ToF-ACSM was  
166 approximately 10 min. The relative ionization efficiency (RIE) values of the instrument were calibrated  
167 using ammonium nitrate (NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>) and ammonium sulfate ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) both before the start and after

168 the completion of the campaigns. The RIE values for ammonium were 3.31 and 3.33 during the summer  
169 and winter, respectively, while the ones for sulfate were 1.02 and 0.81 during the summer and winter,  
170 respectively. The collection efficiency (CE) was determined as shown in Sun et al. (2023) and time-  
171 independent CE values were used in this study. Detailed CE calculation can be found in the  
172 supplementary (Text S1, and Fig. S1). The organic carbon (OC)/elemental carbon (EC) concentrations  
173 in PM<sub>2.5</sub> were measured using a semi-continuous OC/EC analyzer (Model-4, Sunset Laboratory Inc.,  
174 USA) based on the thermal optical transmittance technique and detailed measurement process can be  
175 found in Sun et al. (2023). The black carbon concentrations were measured with an aethalometer (AE33,  
176 Magee Scientific).

#### 177 **2.1.4 Trace Gas and meteorological parameter measurements**

178 The concentrations of trace gases (CO, O<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub>) were measured using gas monitors  
179 (T400U, T100U, and T200U; Teledyne API Inc., USA). The meteorological elements, including  
180 temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, and wind direction, were measured by the combined  
181 automatic weather station onboard the vessels. During the winter cruises, meteorology data before 12.22  
182 was missed due to the calibration for the automatic weather station before 12.22. The timeseries of  
183 meteorological data were presented in Fig. S2.

## 184 **2.2 Data analysis**

### 185 **2.2.1 CCN activation**

186 The size-resolved number concentration of total particle and cloud condensation nuclei were  
187 obtained from the SMPS and CCNc through the SMCA method. The activation diameter was determined  
188 by fitting the activation ratio (AR,  $N_{CCN}/N_{CN}$ ) and dry diameter at each supersaturation through the  
189 following equation:

$$190 \quad AR = \frac{B}{1 + \left(\frac{D_P}{D_{50}}\right)^C}, \quad (1)$$

191 where AR is the size-resolved AR,  $D_P$  represents dry particle diameter (nm); B, C, and  $D_{50}$  are the three  
192 fitting parameters, representing the asymptote, the slope, and the inflection point of the sigmoid,  
193 respectively (Moore et al., 2010). The  $D_{50}$  parameter, also known as the critical diameter, corresponds  
194 to the particle size at which 50% of the particles are activated at a specific SS. The fitting results from  
195 SMCA method measured in this study are presented in Fig. S3.

196 The hygroscopicity parameter ( $\kappa$ ) which represents CCN activity according to  $\kappa$ -Köhler equation is  
 197 calculated as follows (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007):

$$198 \quad \kappa = \frac{4A^3}{27D_{50}^3(\ln S_c)^2}, \quad A = \frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w} \quad (2)$$

199 where  $\rho_w$  is the density of pure water (about  $997.04 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$  at 298.15 K),  $M_w$  is the molecular weight of  
 200 water ( $0.018 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$ ),  $\sigma_{s/a}$  corresponds to the surface tension of the solution-air interface and is assumed  
 201 to be equal to the surface tension of pure water ( $\sigma_{s/a}=0.0728 \text{ N m}^{-1}$  at 298.15 K),  $R$  is the universal gas  
 202 constant ( $8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ),  $T$  denotes thermodynamic temperature in kelvin (298.15 K), and  $D_{50}$  is the  
 203 critical diameter (in m).

### 204 2.2.2 Closure Method

205 According to Petters and Kreidenweis. (2007),  $\kappa$  can be predicted by a simple mixing rule based  
 206 on chemical volume fractions:

$$207 \quad \kappa_{sim} = \sum_i \varepsilon_i \kappa_i \quad (3)$$

208 where  $\varepsilon_i$  and  $\kappa_i$  are the volume fraction and hygroscopicity parameter for the specific dry component in  
 209 the mixture. We obtained  $\varepsilon$  from aerosol chemical composition measured by the ToF-ACSM. In this study,  
 210  $\kappa$  from  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  (0.48),  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  (0.58), and  $\text{NaCl}$  (1.1) represent the  $\kappa$  of  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{Cl}^-$  provided  
 211 by the ToF-ACSM (Huang et al., 2022). Besides, the  $\kappa$  of organic was 0.1 at this study. The density of  
 212  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ ,  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ ,  $\text{NaCl}$  and organic are  $1769 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ ,  $1720 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ ,  $2165 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$ , and  $1400 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$   
 213 (Huang et al., 2022; Gysel et al., 2007).

### 214 2.2.3 CCN concentration and activation ratio calculation

215 The CCN concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ ) can be predicted based on particle number size distribution (PNSD)  
 216 and  $D_{50}$  at a specific SS. It can be calculated by the following equation (Cai et al., 2018):

$$217 \quad N_{CCN}(SS) = \int_{D_{50}(SS)}^{\infty} N_{CN}(D_P) dD_P \quad (4)$$

218 where  $N_{CCN}(SS)$  is CCN concentration at a specific SS,  $D_{50}(SS)$  is the activation diameter at a specific  
 219 SS from the SMCA method or from closure method and  $N_{CN}(D_P)$  is the particle number concentration  
 220 under specific diameter from SMPS measurement.

221 The AR can be calculated by:

$$222 \quad AR = \frac{\int_{D_{50}(SS)}^{\infty} N_{CN}(D_P) dD_P}{\int_0^{\infty} N_{CN}(D_P) dD_P} \quad (5)$$



223 It is noting that the AR here is bulk AR.

224 To investigate the impact of the fraction and mixing state of aerosol on  $N_{CCN}$ , two CCN simulation  
225 scheme are applied in this study (Patel et al., 2021).

226 (1) Internal-mixed scheme: the aerosol composition from the ToF-ACSM was assumed to be size-  
227 independent and internally mixed. All aerosol has an identical chemical composition in the  
228 whole size range.  $N_{CCN}$  is calculated by  $K_{sim}$  and measured PNSD according to Eq. (2), Eq. (3),  
229 and Eq. (4).

230 (2) External-mixed scheme: the aerosol composition from the ToF-ACSM was assumed to be size-  
231 independent and externally mixed. Four type of aerosol ( $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ ,  $NH_4NO_3$ , NaCl and organic)  
232 are assumed to have identical concentration at each size.  $N_{CCN}$  is calculated according to the Eq.

233 (4)

234 To access the simulation result from these two schemes, normalized mean bias (NMB) was used in  
235 this study:

$$236 \quad NMB = \frac{\sum(N_{CCN,sim} - N_{CCN,obs})}{\sum N_{CCN,obs}} \quad (6)$$

237 where  $N_{CCN,sim}$  is the simulated  $N_{CCN}$  from two schemes, and  $N_{CCN,obs}$  is the observed  $N_{CCN}$ .

## 238 2.2.4 Backward trajectory simulation and cluster analysis

239 Backward trajectory calculations were performed using MeteoInfo, an open-source software (Wang,  
240 2014) to determine potential source origins. Weekly GDAS1 (Global Data Assimilation System at a  
241 resolution of  $1^\circ$ ) files were downloaded from the NOAA Air Resource Laboratory (ARL) website  
242 (<https://www.ready.noaa.gov/gdas1.php>). The calculation of backward trajectories is performed every  
243 1hour based on the location mentioned below, generating 72-hour backward trajectories at 500m.

244 To clarify the sources of air masses, we applied cluster analysis in this study. During the summer  
245 cruise, we conducted cluster analysis at two key locations: the midpoint of the ship's track before the  
246 outbreak of the summer monsoon (May 5-23) and the midpoint of the track after the summer monsoon  
247 began (May 24-June 9). In the winter cruise, cluster analysis was performed at two specific locations:  
248 the ship's anchorage near Big Ten-thousand Mountain Island (December 19-22 and December 27-29)  
249 and the midpoint between Dawan Mountain Island and Yongxing Island (December 23-26).

## 250 **2.2.5 Data quality control**

251 To ensure reliable atmospheric samples in the SCS and mitigate the influence of research vessel  
252 emissions, we applied the following data processing procedures (Huang et al., 2018; Cai et al., 2020;  
253 Liang et al., 2021).

254 Firstly, we identified organic compounds, black carbon (BC), and small particulate matter (41.4 nm  
255 particles) as indicators of ship emissions, recognizing their sudden peak values as indicative of the ship's  
256 own emissions.

257 Secondly, we accounted for the relative positions of the ship's chimney and the sampling tube.  
258 During the summer cruise, we excluded data corresponding to a relative wind direction (with respect to  
259 the ship's bow) between 150° and 270° and a relative wind speed (with respect to the ship's speed) of less  
260 than 2.5 m s<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. S4a, Fig. S5a1, and Fig. S6a-c). During the winter cruise, we excluded data for a  
261 relative wind direction between 150° and 220° and a relative wind speed of less than 2.5 m s<sup>-1</sup> (Fig. S4b,  
262 Fig. S5b1, and Figs. S6d-f).

263 Applying these criteria, 74.8% of the data in summer and 92.2% in winter (both at 10-minute  
264 resolution) were classified as “clean” and retained for analysis. The timeseries of data before and after  
265 quality control is shown in Fig. S7.

## 266 **3. Results and discussion**

### 267 **3.1 CCN concentration and aerosol characteristics over SCS in summer and winter**

268 Figure 2 presented the timeseries of PNSD (a1 and a2), NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentrations and fractions  
269 (b1 and b2, c1 and c2), number concentrations of CCN (d1 and d2), and hygroscopicity  $\kappa$ -values (e1 and  
270 e2) during two campaigns in summer and winter. During the summer cruise, we observed two distinct  
271 periods around the onset of the summer monsoon. The South China Sea (SCS) summer monsoon began  
272 in the sixth pentad of May (Chao et al., 2022). In winter, the influence of the winter monsoon persisted  
273 throughout the entire observation period (Fig. 1c). Despite our measurements being limited to the  
274 northern SCS in winter, the impact of the Northeast Monsoon on the SCS was evident.

275 The average particle number concentration in summer (6966 cm<sup>-3</sup>) was higher than in winter (4988  
276 cm<sup>-3</sup>), primarily due to the higher number concentration of Aitken-mode particles in summer (Fig. 3a-b).  
277 In summer, particles were concentrated in smaller sizes, whereas in winter, particle size distribution was

278 relatively balanced between the Aitken mode ( $2185 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) and the accumulation mode ( $2176 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) (Fig.  
279 3a-b).

280 The average mass concentration of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> was  $3.76 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in summer and increased to  $9.39 \mu\text{g}$   
281  $\text{m}^{-3}$  in winter (Fig. 3c-d). In summer, the dominant aerosol component was sulfate (45.5%), followed by  
282 organics (35.8%), ammonium (12.9%), nitrate (4.0%), and chloride (1.9%) (Fig. 3c), similar to the  
283 pattern observed in the northern SCS during the summer of 2018 (Fig. 3e) (Liang et al., 2021). However,  
284 in winter, organics became the predominant aerosol component (37%), with nitrate (22.2%) replacing  
285 sulfate (18.9%) as the highest proportion of inorganic components (Fig. 3d).

286 The average number concentration of cloud condensation nuclei ( $N_{\text{CCN}}$ ) in summer was higher than  
287 in winter at all supersaturation (SS) levels (Table 1). The absolute difference in the  $N_{\text{CCN}}$  between summer  
288 and winter was greater at high SS ( $\Delta N_{\text{CCN}}=2099 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  and  $1865 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  at 0.4% SS and 0.7% SS,  
289 respectively) compared to low SS ( $\Delta N_{\text{CCN}}=341 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  at 0.2% SS), likely due to the significant difference  
290 in Aitken-mode particles between the two seasons (Fig. 3a-b).

291 Aerosol hygroscopicity ( $\kappa$ ) was similar at low SS but differed significantly at high SS between  
292 summer and winter (Table 1). The hygroscopicity pattern varied between seasons: in summer,  $\kappa$  increased  
293 with SS (from 0.49 to 0.72 between 0.2% SS and 0.4% SS), while in winter,  $\kappa$  decreased with SS (from  
294 0.50 to 0.15 between 0.1% SS and 0.7% SS) (Fig. 3a-b). The winter  $\kappa$  pattern was similar to observations  
295 in the Western North Pacific (Table 1) (Kawana et al., 2020). Additionally, the winter  $\kappa$  values were  
296 comparable to those in Guangzhou, adjacent to the SCS, indicating that the northern SCS is influenced  
297 by air masses from Mainland China under the significant influence of the Northeast Monsoon during  
298 winter.

### 299 **3.2 Anthropogenic influence on CCN concentration in different season**

300 Based on cluster analysis, we identified periods affected by different types of air masses. In summer,  
301 three terrestrial air mass sources were confirmed: from Luzon Island (referred to as “Luzon”), Palawan  
302 Island, and the Indochinese Peninsula, along with a marine air mass source (Fig. 4a). Due to the small  
303 fraction of air masses from Palawan Island, this period was excluded from the study. Consequently, the  
304 periods affected by air masses from Luzon, the Indochinese Peninsula, and marine sources were referred  
305 to as the “Luzon” period, “Indochinese Peninsula” period, and “Marine-s” period, respectively. In winter,  
306 the identified air mass sources included Mainland China, a Mainland China-SCS mixed source (referred

307 to as “Mixed”), and a marine source (Fig. 4b). These were named as the “Mainland China” period,  
308 “Mixed” period, and “Marine-w” period, respectively.

309 Terrestrial air masses significantly affected the marine atmosphere in the SCS, resulting in higher  
310 NR-PM<sub>1</sub> mass concentration and a higher fraction of organic compounds compared to those influenced  
311 by marine air masses (Fig. 5). Additionally, the number concentration of particles ( $N_{CN}$ ) in the  
312 accumulation mode and the number concentration of cloud condensation nuclei ( $N_{CCN}$ ) at low  
313 supersaturation (SS) were higher during periods influenced by terrestrial air masses than those during  
314 marine air mass periods (Table 2).

315 In summer, the “Luzon” period had the highest  $N_{CN}$ , particularly in the Aitken mode, among all  
316 periods in both summer and winter (Fig. 6a and Table 1). The high fraction of Aitken mode particles  
317 contributed to the lowest activation ratio (AR) among the summer periods (Fig. 7a), further exacerbated  
318 by low hygroscopicity during this period (Fig. 7b). This high fraction of Aitken mode particles likely  
319 indicates a high fraction of primary organic aerosol, which lowers aerosol hygroscopicity.

320 The  $N_{CN}$  during the “Indochinese Peninsula” period was lower than during the “Marine-s” period  
321 (Table 2). This difference was mainly due to the variation of Aitken mode particles, while accumulation  
322 mode particles were higher during the “Indochinese Peninsula” period than in “Marine-s” period (Table  
323 2). The “Marine-s” period occurred primarily during the transition before the summer monsoon onset,  
324 when wind direction shifted from east (Luzon Island direction) to southwest (Indochinese Peninsula  
325 direction). Anthropogenic emissions from Luzon Island still affected the marine atmosphere, leading to  
326 higher concentrations of Aitken mode particles compared to the “Indochinese Peninsula” period (Table  
327 2). The higher fraction of accumulation mode particles and higher hygroscopicity during the  
328 “Indochinese Peninsula” period resulted in a higher AR compared to the “Luzon” period. Despite a higher  
329 organic fraction in NR-PM<sub>1</sub> during the “Indochinese Peninsula” period (Fig. 5), hygroscopicity was still  
330 higher due to a higher oxidation degree of organics, indicated by a higher m/z 44 to 43 ratio (5.87  
331 compared to 5.60 in the “Luzon” period) (Lambe et al., 2011; Jimenez et al., 2009). Additionally, higher  
332 wind speeds during this period (7.26 m s<sup>-1</sup> compared to 3.18 m s<sup>-1</sup> in the “Luzon” period) led a higher  
333 fraction of sea salt (Huang et al., 2022), resulting a higher aerosol hygroscopicity. Unfortunately, owing  
334 to instrument limit, sea salt cannot be detected by the ToF-ACSM.

335 In winter, nitrate had the highest fraction in NR-PM<sub>1</sub> (25.4%) during the “Mainland China” period  
336 among other periods. Due to similar hygroscopicity between nitrate and sulfate and similar inorganic

337 fractions between the “Mainland China” and “Luzon” periods,  $\kappa$  at 0.2% SS was comparable (0.30 and  
338 0.33, respectively) (Fig. 7b). However, aerosol hygroscopicity at small sizes was much lower in the  
339 “Mainland China” period than in the “Luzon” period (Fig. 7b), contributing to the low AR in the  
340 “Mainland China” period (Fig. 7a). This lower hygroscopicity could be due to lower sulfate concentration,  
341 oxidized by DMS, in winter than in summer, as higher sea surface temperatures in summer (29.3°C)  
342 compared to winter (18.0°C) promote DMS production by phytoplankton (Bates et al., 1987). The similar  
343 fractions of Aitken mode and accumulation particles indicated that PNSD could not fully explain the low  
344 AR in the “Mainland China” period. Lower  $N_{CN}$  and AR in the “Mainland China” period compared to  
345 the “Luzon” period resulted in a lower  $N_{CCN}$ .

346 During the “Mixed” period, the  $N_{CCN}$  was lower than in the “Mainland China” period, attributed to  
347 decreased  $N_{CN}$  (Table 2). However, particles were primarily concentrated in the accumulation mode,  
348 distinct from other terrestrial air mass periods (Fig. 6), leading to a significantly higher AR than the  
349 “Mainland China” period. Organic aerosol hygroscopicity was higher during the “Mixed” period than  
350 the “Mainland China” period, supported by a higher m/z 44 to 43 ratio (3.88 compared to 3.10 in the  
351 “Mainland China” period), explaining the higher hygroscopicity despite a higher organic fraction in NR-  
352  $PM_{10}$ . Additionally, lower BC concentration in the “Mixed” period (1.20  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  compared to 2.25  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$   
353 in the “Mainland China” period) suggested a lower fraction of BC, which was hydrophobic. Higher wind  
354 speeds in the “Mixed” period (10.77  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  compared to 7.14  $\text{m s}^{-1}$  in the “Mainland China” period) could  
355 increase sea salt fraction, further enhancing aerosol hygroscopicity.

### 356 3.3 CCN closure analysis

357 CCN closure study was widely applied to investigate the impacts of different factors on the CCN  
358 activity (Patel et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2018; Meng et al., 2014; Deng et al., 2013). In this study, two  
359 schemes considering aerosol composition and mixing state based on CCN closure method mentioned in  
360 2.2.3 were applied. The fitting parameter and coefficient of determination ( $R^2$ ) was shown in Table 3 and  
361 the fitting plots from two schemes were shown in Fig. S8 and Fig. S9. Besides, the NMB from these two  
362 schemes was presented in Fig. 8.

363 In summer, the NMB always lower than 0, which indicated that simulated aerosol hygroscopicity  
364 was lower than observed value (Fig. 8). Sea salt which cannot be detected by the ToF-ACSM may  
365 account for higher fraction in summer due to low aerosol concentration in summer (Fig. 3c), resulting in

366 the underestimation of aerosol hygroscopicity. The NMB exhibits different trends with changes in SS in  
367 “Luzon” and “Indochinese Peninsula” period. Better fitting result appeared in high SS in “Indochinese  
368 Peninsula” period, while it appeared in low SS in “Luzon” period (Fig. 8), which indicated that aerosol  
369 fraction had different trend as particle size increased in these two periods. Besides, “Internal-mixed”  
370 scheme had more precious result than it in “External-mixed” scheme in summer (Fig. 8), suggesting the  
371 aerosol was primary internally mixed in summer.

372 In winter, the “External-mixed” scheme always showed a better result than “Internal-mixed” scheme  
373 at high SS (0.4% SS and 0.7% SS), indicating that particles in small size were mainly externally mixed.  
374 Considering the low hygroscopicity of small-sized particles in winter, it is likely that a significant fraction  
375 of these particles consists of externally mixed BC, which probably originated from fresh anthropogenic  
376 emissions and remains unmixed with other inorganic salts and organics. As BC ages, inorganic and  
377 organic components adhere to it, which would lead to the increase of diameter and particles tended to be  
378 internally mixed (Sarangi et al., 2019). This transition resulted in higher hygroscopicity in large-sized  
379 particle compared to the smaller-sized particles. Besides, overestimation of aerosol hygroscopicity at  
380 high SS could be owing to a higher fraction of non- or less- hygroscopic component (such as organic and  
381 BC) at small particle sizes. The predicted  $N_{CCN}$  at 0.1% SS are 10%-20% lower than the observed  
382 concentrations, whereas the predicted value at 0.2% SS more closely aligns with the observed  
383 concentrations (Fig. 8). It could be owing to the higher fraction of sea salt at larger particle size. However,  
384 due to instrument limitations, black carbon and sea salt cannot be detected by the ToF-ACSM. More  
385 observations containing sea salt and black carbon are needed in the future to better assess their effects on  
386 aerosol hygroscopicity in SCS. In addition, further study size-resolved aerosol composition can also  
387 enhance the understanding on CCN activity in the SCS.

#### 388 **4. Conclusion**

389 In this study, we investigated the seasonal variations of cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activity  
390 in the South China Sea (SCS) and explored the impact of anthropogenic emissions. Shipborne  
391 observations were conducted during the summer (May 5–June 9) and winter (December 19–29) of 2021.  
392 We measured CCN activity, chemical composition, and particle number size distribution (PNSD) using  
393 several onboard instruments, including a ToF-ACSM, a CCNc, an SMPS, and an AE33. Observations

394 included periods before and after the summer monsoon outbreak and periods influenced by the winter  
395 monsoon.

396 Our results show that particle number concentration ( $N_{CN}$ ) and CCN number concentration ( $N_{CCN}$ )  
397 were higher in summer than in winter, while the mass concentration of non-refractory submicron  
398 particulate matter (NR- $PM_{10}$ ) was lower in summer. This can be attributed to the predominance of Aitken  
399 mode particles in summer, compared to the higher concentration of accumulation mode particles in winter.  
400 Additionally, aerosol hygroscopicity and activation ratio (AR) were found to be higher in summer than  
401 in winter.

402 Backward trajectory and cluster analysis identified distinct air mass influences. In summer, we  
403 confirmed periods affected by terrestrial air masses from Luzon Island ("Luzon" period) and the  
404 Indochinese Peninsula ("Indochinese Peninsula" period), as well as a period influenced by marine air  
405 masses ("Marine-s" period). In winter, the periods were influenced by terrestrial air masses from  
406 Mainland China ("Mainland China" period), mixed air masses from Mainland China and marine sources  
407 ("Mixed" period), and marine air masses ("Marine-w" period). Periods influenced by terrestrial air  
408 masses showed higher NR- $PM_{10}$  mass concentration, organic fraction, and  $N_{CCN}$ , especially at low  
409 supersaturation (SS), compared to those influenced by marine air masses.

410 During the "Luzon" period, high  $N_{CCN}$  was observed, attributed to high  $N_{CN}$ , especially in the Aitken  
411 mode. This high concentration in the Aitken mode resulted in a low AR at 0.2% SS, indicating a higher  
412 fraction of primary organic aerosol with low hygroscopicity. This caused lower overall hygroscopicity  
413 compared to other summer periods. The lower ratio of m/z 44 to 43 also suggested a lower oxidation  
414 degree of organics in this period. In the "Indochinese Peninsula" period, a higher particle fraction in the  
415 accumulation mode compared to the "Luzon" period led to a higher AR, combined with increased  
416 hygroscopicity.

417 In winter, the "Mainland China" period showed a high nitrate fraction in NR- $PM_{10}$ . Similar inorganic  
418 fractions in NR- $PM_{10}$  between the "Mainland China" and "Luzon" periods resulted in similar aerosol  
419 hygroscopicity at low SS (0.2% SS). However, at higher SS (0.4% SS and 0.7% SS), the "Mainland  
420 China" period exhibited much lower hygroscopicity, causing a lower AR at high SS. During the "Mixed"  
421 period, accumulation mode particles predominated, leading to a high AR. This indicated an aging process  
422 during transport, with more oxidized organics and higher aerosol hygroscopicity. The lower black carbon

423 (BC) fraction and the higher sea salt fraction from high wind speed contributed to higher hygroscopicity  
424 in the "Mixed" period compared to the "Mainland China" period, despite the high organic fraction.

425 The CCN closure analysis, considering aerosol composition and mixing state, revealed that aerosols  
426 in summer were primarily internally mixed, while in winter, small-sized aerosols were primarily  
427 externally mixed. This distinction is crucial for climate models predicting  $N_{CCN}$  in the SCS. The  
428 underestimation of aerosol hygroscopicity in summer suggests that the effect of sea salt should be  
429 considered.

430 Our study highlights significant seasonal differences in CCN activity in the SCS and the influence of  
431 different types of terrestrial air masses. Future measurements including size-resolved aerosol  
432 composition and obtain more precise measurements of BC and sea salt are needed to better understanding  
433 CCN activity in this region. Additionally, our observation in winter focused on the CCN activity over the  
434 northern SCS, while the influence of air masses from Mainland China in remote SCS was still unclear.  
435 Further observations in remote SCS areas could help clarify the anthropogenic influence during winter  
436 under the effect of the winter monsoon.

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439 *Data availability.* Data from the measurements are available at [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25472545)  
440 [10.6084/m9.figshare.25472545](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25472545) (Ou et al., 2024).

441

442 *Supplement.* The supplement related to this article is available online at xxx.

443

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447

448 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

449



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457

458 **Reference**

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663 2017.



664 Table 1. The number concentration of particle and cloud condensation nuclei at different supersaturation (SS), the hygroscopicity and activation ratio (AR) at different SS in  
 665 different studies.

Location	period	$N_{CN}$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	$N_{CCN}$ ( $\text{cm}^{-3}$ )	Hygroscopicity ( $\kappa$ )	AR	Reference
South China Sea	2021.05.05-2021.06.09	6966±9249	2019±2993 (0.20% SS)	0.49±0.42 (0.20% SS)	0.43±0.17 (0.20% SS)	This study
			4445±7018 (0.40% SS)	0.74±0.51 (0.40% SS)	0.68±0.19 (0.40% SS)	
			4786±6402 (0.70% SS)	0.89±0.12 (0.70% SS)	0.89±0.12 (0.70% SS)	
Northern South China Sea	2021.12.19-2021.12.29	4988±3474	1100±1287 (0.10% SS)	0.50±0.21 (0.10% SS)	0.23±0.10 (0.10% SS)	This study
			1678±1046 (0.20% SS)	0.31±0.10 (0.20% SS)	0.35±0.12 (0.20% SS)	
			2346±1767 (0.40% SS)	0.19±0.05 (0.40% SS)	0.48±0.14 (0.40% SS)	
			2921±1917 (0.70% SS)	0.15±0.05 (0.70% SS)	0.60±0.16 (0.70% SS)	
Northern South China Sea	2018.8.6-2018.8.27	3463	1544 (0.34% SS)	0.38±0.09 (0.18% SS) 0.40±0.08 (0.34% SS) 0.38±0.08 (0.59% SS)	/	Cai et al., 2020
Remote South China Sea	2012.9.14-2012.9.26	503±455	450±388 (0.14% SS)	0.54±0.14 (0.14% SS)	0.47±0.16 (0.14% SS)	Atwood et al., 2017
			675±516 (0.38% SS)	0.50±0.21 (0.38% SS)	0.72±0.17 (0.38% SS)	
			698±555 (0.53% SS)	0.50±0.21 (0.38% SS)	0.79±0.15 (0.53% SS)	
			724±512 (0.71% SS)	0.85±0.13 (0.71% SS)	0.85±0.13 (0.71% SS)	
Western North Pacific	2015.3.4-2015.3.26	/	/	0.75±0.21 (0.11% SS) 0.51±0.16 (0.24% SS) 0.45±0.16 (0.60% SS)	0.40±0.22 (0.11% SS) 0.50±0.22 (0.24% SS) 0.70±0.23 (0.60% SS)	Kawana et al., 2020
Guangzhou	2014.11-2014.12	/	3103±1913 (0.10% SS)	0.37±0.11 (0.10% SS)	0.26±0.10 (0.10% SS)	Cai et al., 2018
			5095±2972 (0.20% SS)	0.29±0.09 (0.20% SS)	0.41±0.14 (0.20% SS)	
			6524±3783 (0.40% SS)	0.18±0.07 (0.40% SS)	0.53±0.15 (0.40% SS)	

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7913±4234 (0.70% SS)    0.15±0.06 (0.70% SS)    0.64±0.13 (0.70% SS)

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666

667 Table 2. The number concentration of particle and cloud condensation nuclei in different periods.

Cluster	Summer			Winter		
	Indochines e Peninsula	Luzon	Marine	Mainland China	Marine	Mixed
$N_{CCN} (cm^{-3})$						
0.1% SS	\	\	\	1460±167 0	464±243	929±444
0.2% SS	1290±785	4093±4864	1112±682	2105±974	649±362	1499±548
0.4% SS	1634±1121	8241±7478	1885±114 2	3014±193 4	831±439	1900±696
0.7% SS	1968±1111	10776±1054 0	2477±154 1	3668±184 1	1052±49 3	2296±829
$N_{CN} (cm^{-3})$						
Total	2699±2147	14674±1384 4	3033±236 6	6875±326 3	1728±46 5	2918±120 4
Nucleation	111±206	1543±3341	238±426	893±925	214±281	141±191
Aikten	1156±1261	8653±8815	1668±152 6	3089±201 7	732±337	806±427
Accumulatio n	1434±1444	3764±4157	1121±929	2923±244 0	781±313	1975±831

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669

670 Table 3. The slope and coefficient of determination (in parentheses) in CCN closure analysis at  
 671 different supersaturations in different periods.

Cluster	Summer			Winter		
	Luzon	Indochinese Peninsula	Marine	Mainland China	Mixed	Marine
Internal scheme						
0.1% SS	\	\	\	0.81 (0.94)	0.64 (0.92)	0.65 (0.95)
0.2% SS	0.82 (0.82)	0.73 (0.80)	0.79 (0.91)	1.05 (0.96)	0.93 (0.97)	0.79 (0.89)
0.4% SS	0.79 (0.92)	0.76 (0.62)	0.80 (0.92)	1.23 (0.97)	1.04 (0.98)	1.01 (0.95)
0.7% SS	0.80 (0.88)	0.85 (0.52)	0.80 (0.90)	1.26 (0.97)	1.06 (0.99)	0.97 (0.91)
External scheme						
0.1% SS	\	\	\	0.97 (0.95)	0.96 (0.92)	0.97 (0.95)
0.2% SS	0.73 (0.83)	0.63 (0.76)	0.75 (0.90)	0.98 (0.96)	0.99 (0.97)	0.94 (0.89)
0.4% SS	0.69 (0.85)	0.69 (0.65)	0.74 (0.91)	0.99 (0.97)	0.99 (0.98)	0.97 (0.95)
0.7% SS	0.70 (0.85)	0.80 (0.53)	0.72 (0.88)	0.99 (0.97)	0.99 (0.99)	0.96 (0.92)

672

673

674 FIGURE CAPTION

675 Figure 1. The cruises of two shipborne observations, and the location of sample line and chimney of Tan  
676 Kah Kee, and Sun Yat-sen scientific vessel (a); Wind rose of the wind direction and wind speed in  
677 summer and winter cruises; The radius represents the frequency of wind direction occurrences, and the  
678 shaded areas indicate wind speed (b) and (c).

679 Figure 2. Timeseries of (a) particle number size distribution, (b) mass concentration of NR-PM<sub>1</sub>, and (c)  
680 its fraction, (d) mass concentration of organic carbon and elemental carbon, (e) number concentration of  
681 total particle and cloud condensation nuclei under the supersaturation of 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.4%, and 0.7%,  
682 and (f) aerosol hygroscopicity. The number 1 in figure number means timeseries in summer and number  
683 2 means it in winter.

684 Figure 3. Particle number size distribution in summer (a) and winter (b); The red markers represent the  
685 activation diameters and hygroscopicity parameters corresponding to 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.4%, and 0.7%  
686 supersaturations in this study (without 0.1% in summer). The green markers represent the hygroscopicity  
687 parameters reported in Atwood et al. (2017) for the southern South China Sea during summer. The gray  
688 markers represent the hygroscopicity parameters documented in Cai et al. (2018) for the Pearl River  
689 Delta region during winter. The fraction of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> in summer (c) and winter (d) in this study, in northern  
690 SCS reported by Liang et al. (2021) (e), and in North Pacific reported by Choi et al. (2017) (f).

691 Figure 4. The cluster analysis result in summer (a), and winter (b). The solid line in summer means cluster  
692 analysis from May 5 to May 24 and the dash line in summer means cluster analysis from May 25 to June  
693 9; The solid line in winter means cluster analysis from Dec 19 to Dec 21 and Dec 27 to Dec 29, and the  
694 dash line in winter means cluster analysis from Dec 22 to Dec 26.

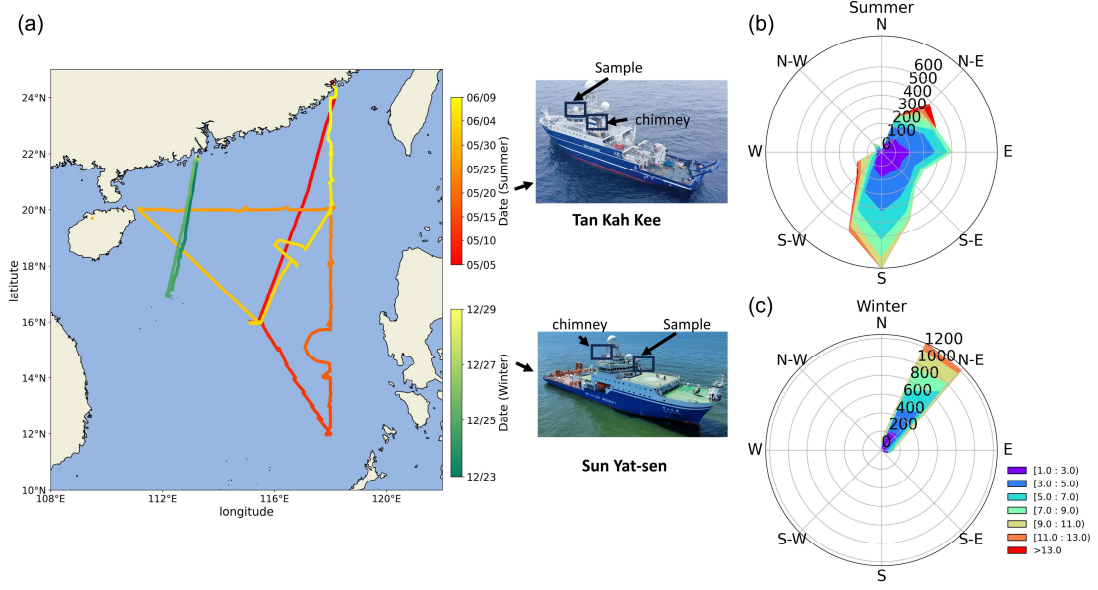
695 Figure 5. The fraction of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> in “Luzon” period (a), “Indochinese Peninsula” period (b), and  
696 “Marine-s” period (c) in summer. The fraction of NR-PM<sub>1</sub> in “Mainland China” period (d), “Mixed”  
697 period (e), and “Marine-w” period (f) in winter.

698 Figure 6. The particle number size distribution (PNSD) in “Luzon” period (a), “Indochinese Peninsula”  
699 period (b), and “Marine-s” period (c) in summer. The PNSD in “Mainland China” period (d), “Mixed”  
700 period (e), and “Marine-w” period (f) in winter.

701 Figure 7. The activation ratio (AR) at different supersaturation (SS) in different periods (a); The  
702 aerosol hygroscopicity ( $\kappa$ ) at different supersaturation (SS) in different periods (b).

703 Figure 8. The normalized mean bias (NMB) calculated by “Internal-mixed” scheme and “External-mixed”  
704 scheme according to CCN closure method. The marker of circle means “Internal-mixed” scheme and the  
705 marker of triangle means “External-mixed” scheme. Different colors means different supersaturations.  
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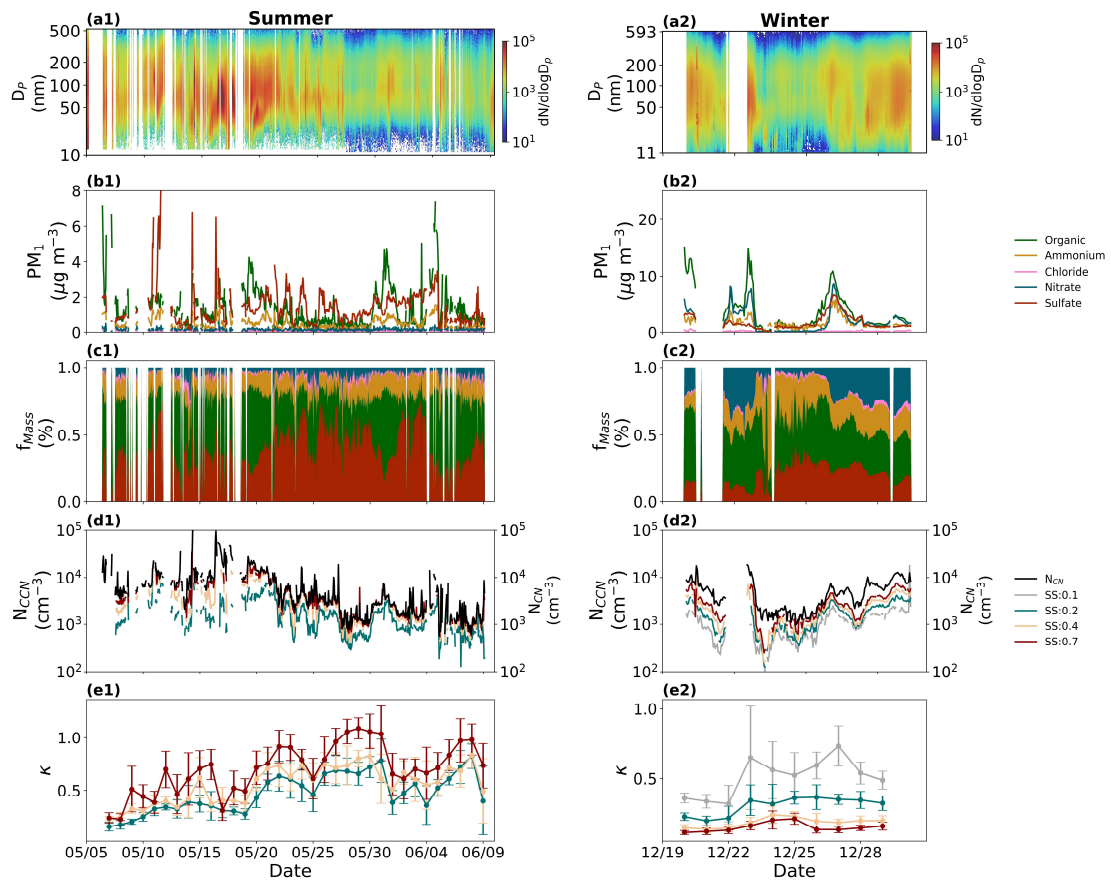
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710 Fig. 1

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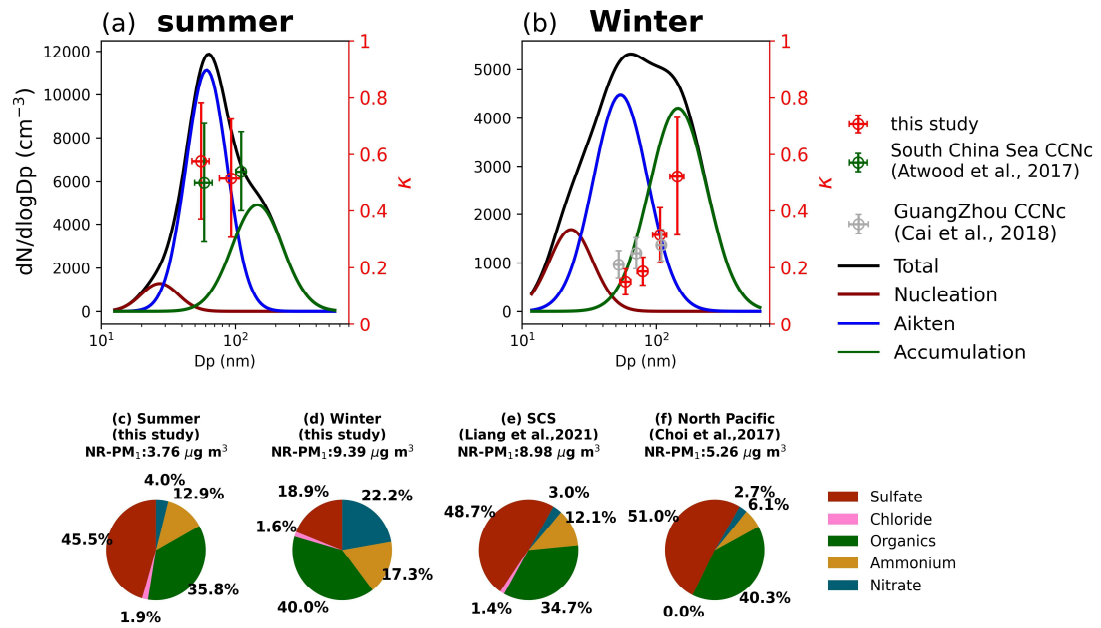
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714 Fig. 2

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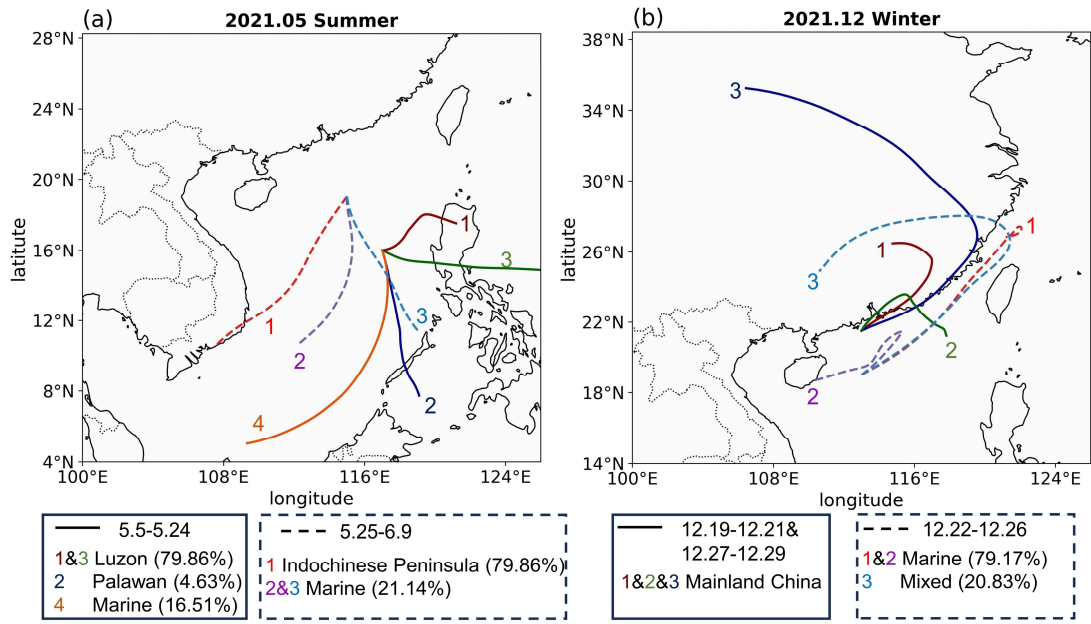
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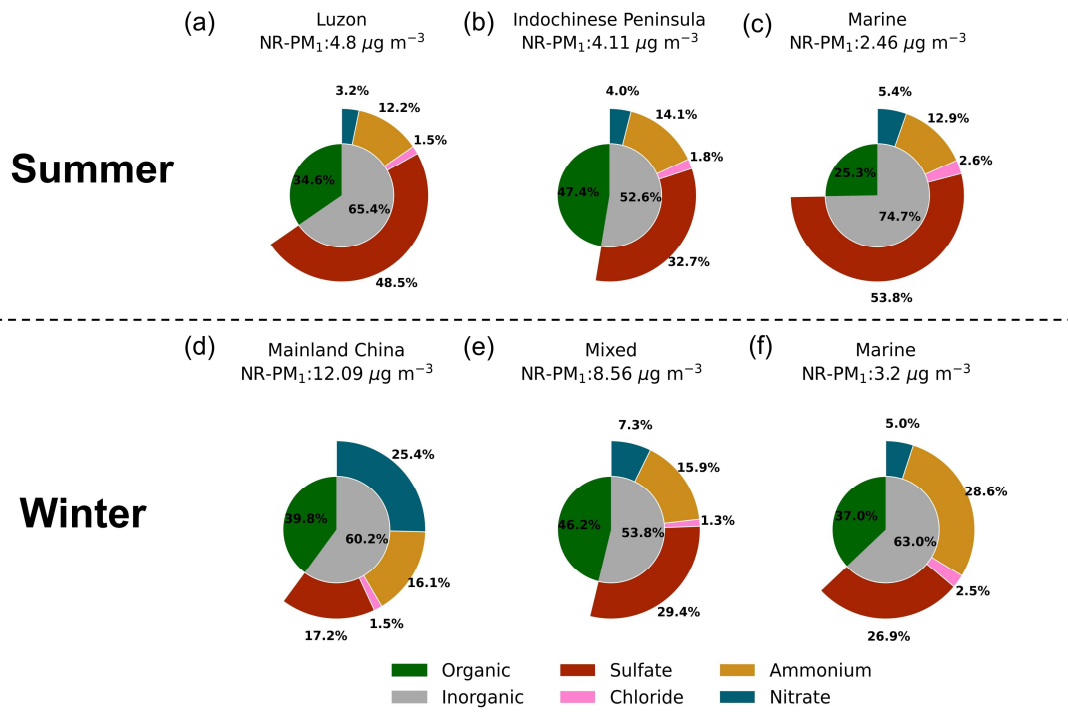
718 Fig. 3

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Fig. 4

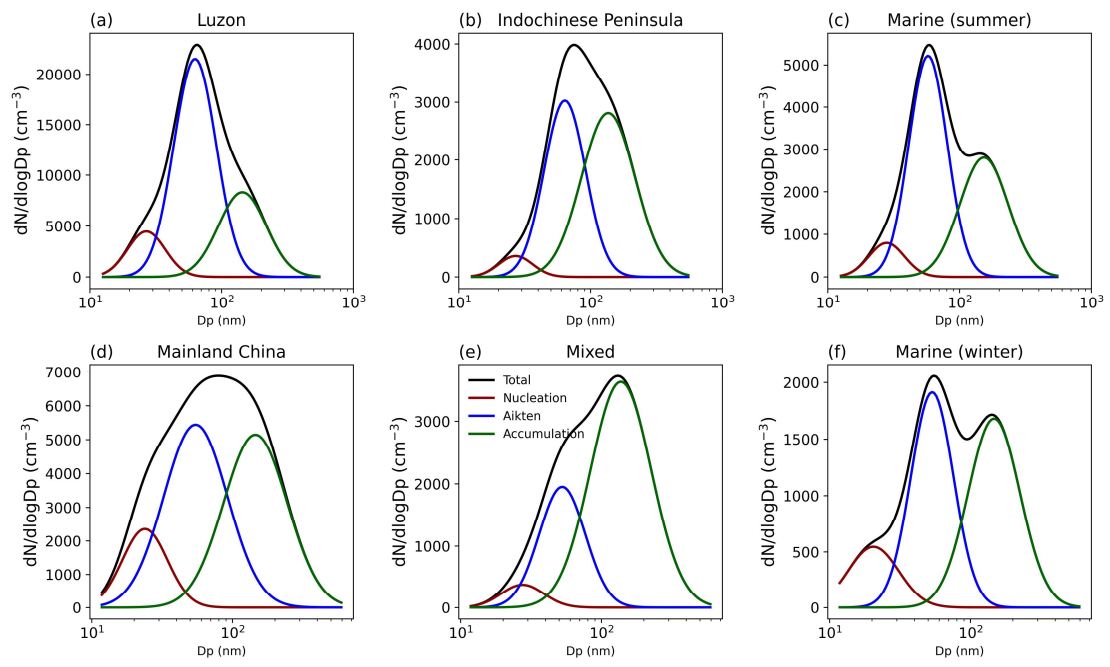


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725 Fig.5

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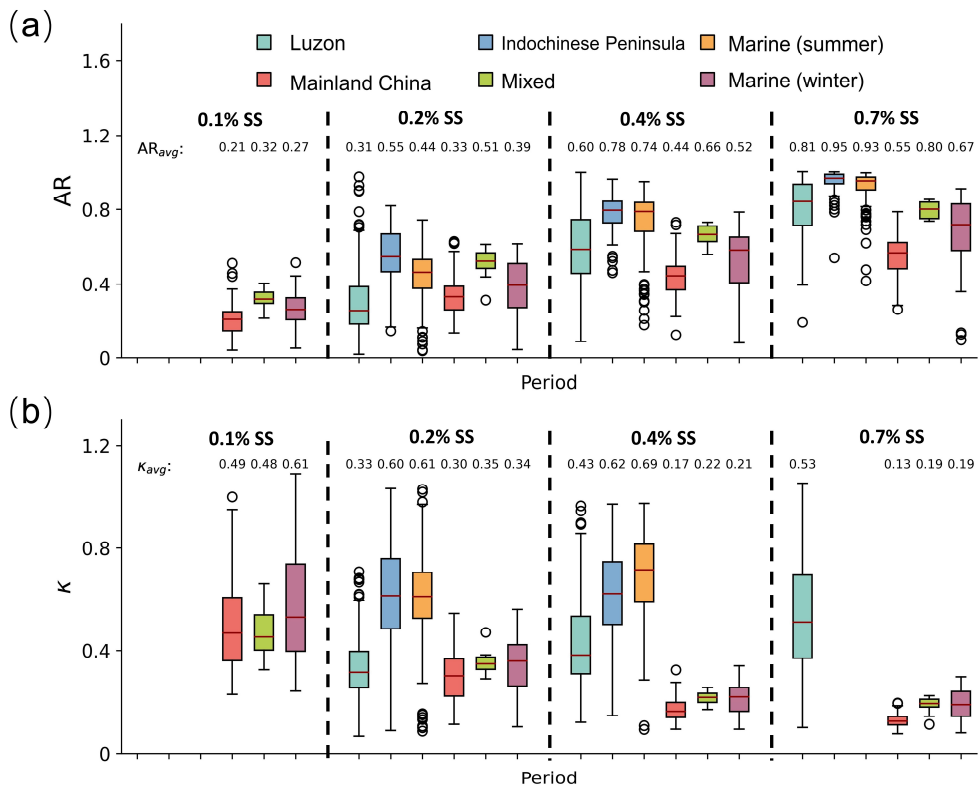


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Fig. 6

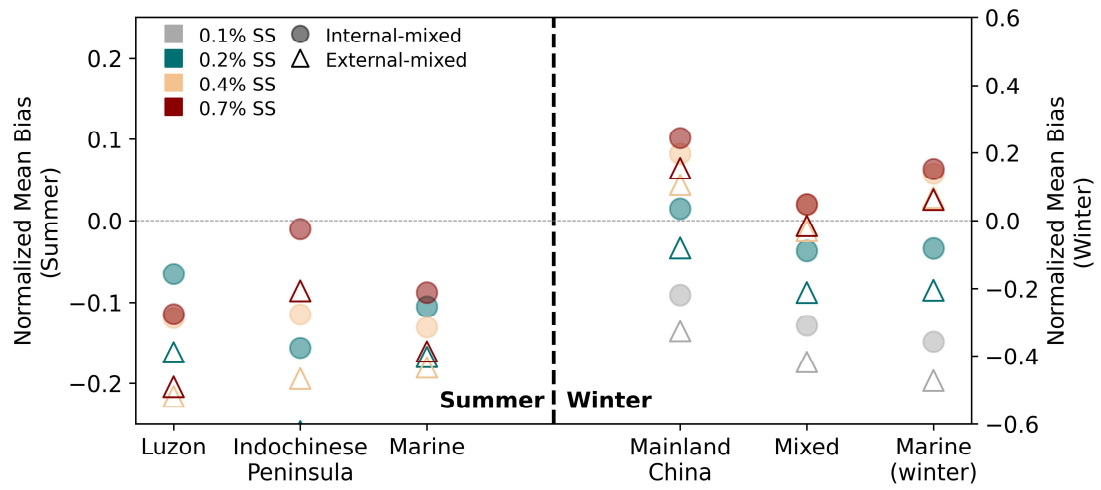


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Fig. 7

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736 Fig. 8

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