

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 summer, higher particle number concentrations but lower mass
28 concentrations of non-refractory submicron particles (NR-PM₁) were observed, driven by Aitken mode
29 particle dominance. In contrast, winter showed a more balanced distribution between Aitken and
30 Accumulation mode particles. Summer particles were more hygroscopic, exhibiting higher activation
31 ratios (ARs) at all supersaturation (SS) levels. Distinct air mass periods were identified: in summer,
32 terrestrial air masses from Luzon ("Luzon" period), the Indochinese Peninsula ("Indochinese Peninsula"
33 period), and marine air masses; in winter, periods were influenced by Mainland China ("Mainland China"
34 period), a mix of Mainland China and marine air masses ("Mixed" period), and purely marine air masses.
35 The "Luzon" period in summer exhibited the highest particle number concentration, especially in the
36 Aitken mode, resulting in the highest CCN number concentration (N_{CCN}). Aerosol hygroscopicity was
37 higher during the "Indochinese Peninsula" period compared to the "Luzon" period, leading to a higher
38 bulk AR due to the combination of higher hygroscopicity and a greater fraction of accumulation mode
39 particles. The "Mainland China" period in winter showed a high nitrate fraction in the NR-PM₁, but the
40 inorganic fraction was similar to it in the "Luzon" period, resulting in comparable hygroscopicity at low
41 SS to the "Luzon" period. However, smaller particle hygroscopicity was significantly lower in the
42 "Mainland China" period compared to summer. The "Mixed" period in winter exhibited a higher fraction
43 of accumulation mode particles, causing a higher bulk AR compared to the "Mainland China" period.
44 Overall, summer terrestrial air masses increased Aitken particle and CCN concentrations, while winter
45 terrestrial air masses led to a higher concentration of large particles and lower hygroscopicity of fine
46 particles. CCN closure analysis, considering aerosol composition and mixing state, revealed that summer
47 aerosol was primarily internally mixed, whereas smaller aerosol in winter was primarily externally mixed.
48 The potential effect of undetected sea salt may lead to an underestimation of aerosol hygroscopicity in
49 summer. This study highlights significant seasonal differences in aerosol properties and the impact of
50 different types of terrestrial air masses on CCN activity in the SCS, contributing to our understanding of
51 regional climate 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⁻² (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 the CCN concentrations (N_{CCN}) (Dusek
64 et al., 2006), while CCN activities may also play a significant role in the N_{CCN} (Quinn et al., 2008; Cai
65 et al., 2018; Ovadnevaite et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018; Crosbie et al., 2015), which are primarily governed
66 by the particle size, chemical composition, mixing state, surface tension, and hygroscopicity (Köhler,
67 1936; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Among these factors, the impact of hygroscopicity on CCN activities
68 has received great attention in recent years (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007; Ajith et al., 2022; Rose et al.,
69 2010). Petters and Kreidenweis (2007) proposed the κ - Köhler theory based on the Köhler theory to
70 quantify the ability of aerosol particles to absorb moisture and become CCN based on the aerosol
71 hygroscopicity parameters (κ). Ajith et al. (2022) showed that 64% of particles can be activated as CCN
72 when κ is equal to 0.37, whereas when κ decreases to 0.23, only 48% of particles can be activated in the
73 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 κ 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 κ value of 0.65 in the southern SCS under
107 marine air mass influence, whereas a unimodal distribution with a κ 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 fraction of high
118 cloud over the SCS varies from approximately 0.3 to 0.7 across different months, indicating that aerosol-
119 cloud 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 summer and winter monsoons on the atmospheric
135 environment of the South China Sea (SCS). The summer and winter cruises were carried out respectively
136 by the vessels "Tan Kah Kee" and "Sun Yat-sen University". The "Tan Kah Kee" is an oceanographic
137 research vessel with a length of 77.7 meters, a beam of 16.24 meters, and a displacement of 3611 tons.
138 The "Sun Yat-sen University" is a comprehensive oceanographic training vessel with a total length of
139 114.3 meters, a beam of 19.4 meters, and a displacement of 6880 tons.

140 The first cruise was from May 5th to June 9th, 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 19th to December
143 29th, 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, remaining only in the northern SCS (Fig. S1), compared to the summer
148 cruise. On both cruises, most of the instruments were housed in a single compartment and the sampling
149 lines were extended from the window of the compartment to the height of the ship's bridge (~17 m above
150 sea level) (Fig. 1a).

151 **2.1.2 Size-resolved cloud condensation nuclei activity measurement**

152 The size-resolved CCN activity was measured with a combination of a scanning mobility particle
153 sizer (SMPS) system and a cloud condensation nuclei counter (model CCNc-200, DMT Inc., USA), the
154 scanning mobility CCN analysis (SMCA) method initially proposed in Moore et al. (2010). The SMPS
155 system consisted of a differential mobility analyzer (DMA; model 3082, TSI, Inc.) and a condensation
156 particle counter (CPC; model 3756, TSI Inc.). The SMPS and the CCNc system were used to measure
157 PNSD and size-resolved CCN number concentration at a mobility size range of 10–500 nm and 10–593
158 nm in summer and winter campaign, respectively. Unfortunately, due to the malfunction of flow sensor
159 in the column B, only the data from column A is presented in this study. During the SMCA measurement,
160 the particles were first passed through a Nafion dryer to remove moisture, then neutralized using a
161 neutralizer. After that, they were subjected to size selection with a DMA. The particles were then split
162 between a CPC (1 L min⁻¹) for particle concentration measurement and a CCNc (0.5 L min⁻¹) for CCN
163 measurement at a specific supersaturation. To maintain sample flow through the DMA, dilution air (0.5
164 L min⁻¹) was added to the CPC inlet stream. The effect of the dilution air was accounted for in the PNSD
165 data processing (Fig. S2). The supersaturation (SS) of the CCNc was set at 0.2 %, 0.4 %, and 0.7 % in
166 summer campaign and 0.1%, 0.2 %, 0.4 %, and 0.7 % in winter campaign, respectively. Before the
167 measurements, the CCNc was calibrated with ammonium sulfate ((NH₄)₂SO₄) particles at each set SS.
168 Detailed description of the instrument configuration and calibration can be found in Cai et al. (2018).

169 **2.1.3 Aerosol chemical composition measurement**

170 The chemical composition of atmospheric non-refractory submicron particulate matter (NR-PM₁),
171 including sulfate, nitrate, organics, ammonium, and chloride, was measured using an online time-of-
172 flight ACSM (ToF-ACSM; Aerodyne Inc., USA). The sampling time of the ToF-ACSM was
173 approximately 10 min. The relative ionization efficiency (RIE) values of the instrument were calibrated
174 using ammonium nitrate (NH₄NO₃) and ammonium sulfate ((NH₄)₂SO₄) both before the start and after
175 the completion of the campaigns. The RIE values for ammonium were 3.31 and 3.33 during the summer
176 and winter, respectively, while the ones for sulfate were 1.02 and 0.81 during the summer and winter,
177 respectively. The collection efficiency (CE) was determined as shown in Sun et al. (2023) and time-
178 independent CE values were used in this study. Detailed CE calculation can be found in the
179 supplementary (Text S1, and Fig. S3). The black carbon concentrations were measured with an
180 aethalometer (AE33, Magee Scientific).

181 **2.1.4 Meteorological parameter measurements**

182 The meteorological elements, including temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, and wind
183 direction, were measured by the combined automatic weather station onboard the vessels. During the
184 winter cruises, meteorology data before 12.22 was missed due to the calibration for the automatic weather
185 station before 12.22. The timeseries of meteorological data were presented in Fig. S4.

186 **2.2 Data analysis**

187 **2.2.1 CCN activation**

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

192
$$AR = \frac{B}{1 + \left(\frac{D_P}{D_{50}}\right)^C}, \quad (1)$$

193 where AR indicates the size-resolved AR, D_P represents dry particle diameter (nm); B, C, and D₅₀ are the
194 three fitting parameters, representing the asymptote, the slope, and the inflection point of the sigmoid,
195 respectively (Moore et al., 2010). The D₅₀ parameter, also known as the critical diameter, corresponds to

196 the particle size at which 50% of the particles are activated at a specific SS. The fitting results from
197 SMCA method measured in this study are presented in Fig. S5.

198 The hygroscopicity parameter (κ) which represents CCN activity according to κ -Köhler equation is
199 calculated as follows (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007):

$$200 \quad \kappa = \frac{4A^3}{27D_{50}^3(\ln S_c)^2}, \quad A = \frac{4\sigma_{s/a}M_w}{RT\rho_w} \quad (2)$$

201 where ρ_w is the density of pure water (about 997.04 kg m^{-3} at 298.15 K), M_w is the molecular weight of
202 water ($0.018 \text{ kg mol}^{-1}$), $\sigma_{s/a}$ corresponds to the surface tension of the solution-air interface and is assumed
203 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
204 constant ($8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$), T denotes thermodynamic temperature in kelvin (298.15 K), and D_{50} is the
205 critical diameter (in m). Additionally, it is noting that the estimated κ values refer to particles with the
206 D_{50} , which are the smallest particles that can be activated at a given SS.

207 During part of the summer measurement period, the D_{50} at 0.7% supersaturation ranged between 30
208 and 40. However, due to lower concentrations during these times, instrument noise introduced greater
209 measurement uncertainty, as demonstrated in Fig. S6. Consequently, the average D_{50} and κ at 0.7% SS
210 are not included in Table 1.

211 2.2.2 Closure Method

212 According to Petters and Kreidenweis. (2007), κ can be predicted by a simple mixing rule based
213 on chemical volume fractions:

$$214 \quad \kappa_{sim} = \sum_i \varepsilon_i \kappa_i \quad (3)$$

215 where ε_i and κ_i are the volume fraction and hygroscopicity parameter for the specific dry
216 component in the mixture. We obtained ε from aerosol chemical composition measured by the ToF-
217 ACSM. In this study, κ for $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (0.48), NH_4NO_3 (0.58), and NaCl (1.1) represent the κ of SO_4^{2-} ,
218 NO_3^- , and Cl^- provided by the ToF-ACSM (Huang et al., 2022). Besides, the κ of organic was 0.1 at this
219 study according to [Huang et al. \(2022\)](#). The density of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$, NH_4NO_3 , NaCl and organic are 1769
220 kg m^{-3} , 1720 kg m^{-3} , 2165 kg m^{-3} , and 1400 kg m^{-3} (Huang et al., 2022; Gysel et al., 2007).

221 2.2.3 CCN concentration and activation ratio calculation

222 Due to the malfunction of the column B, the CCN concentration (N_{CCN}) was calculated based on the
223 size-resolved AR at a specific SS from SMCA method and observed particle number concentration. It
224 can be calculated by the following equation (Cai et al., 2018):

$$225 N_{CCN}(SS) = \int_0^{\infty} AR(SS, D_p) N_{CN}(D_p) dD_p \quad (4)$$

226 where $N_{CCN}(SS)$ is the CCN concentration at a specific SS, $AR(SS, D_p)$ is the ratio of N_{CCN} at a specific
227 SS to N_{CN} on a specific diameter from the SMCA method and $N_{CN}(D_p)$ is the particle number
228 concentration at a specific diameter (D_p). Due to the absence of direct measurements for total N_{CCN} , we
229 refer to the N_{CCN} derived from Eq. (4) as observed values ($N_{CCN,obs}$) in this study. Previous research has
230 shown that this method (size-resolved CCN from one column in CCNc-200) provides results closely
231 matching those obtained from direct measurement (from another column in CCNc-200), supporting its
232 reliability (Meng et al., 2014; Lathem and Nenes, 2011).

233 The N_{CCN} (referred as $N_{CCN,sim}(SS)$) can be predicted by D_{50} from closure method ($D_{50,sim}(SS)$)
234 and N_{CN} according to following equation (Jurányi et al., 2011):

$$235 N_{CCN,sim}(SS) = \int_{D_{50,sim}(SS)}^{\infty} N_{CN}(D_p) dD_p \quad (5)$$

236 where the $D_{50,sim}(SS)$ is calculated based on the eq. (2) and (3).

237 The bulk AR at a specific SS can be calculated by:

$$238 AR(SS) = \frac{N_{CCN,obs}(SS)}{N_{CN,tot}} \quad (6)$$

239 where the $N_{CN,tot}$ represents the total particle number concentration.

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

242 (1) Internal-mixed scheme: the aerosol composition from the ToF-ACSM was assumed to be size-
243 independent and internally mixed. All aerosol has an identical chemical composition in the
244 whole size range. N_{CCN} is calculated by κ_{sim} and measured PNSD according to Eq. (2), Eq. (3),
245 and Eq. (5) (Fig. S7a).

246 (2) External-mixed scheme: the aerosol composition from the ToF-ACSM was assumed to be size-
247 independent and externally mixed. Four type of aerosol ($(NH_4)_2SO_4$, NH_4NO_3 , NaCl and
248 organic) are assumed to have a same proportion for all sizes. The D_{50} from each species was

249 calculated according to their κ values mentioned in 2.2.2. N_{CCN} is calculated according to the
250 Eq. (5) (Fig. S7b).

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

$$253 \quad NMB = \frac{\sum(N_{CCN,sim} - N_{CCN,obs})}{\sum N_{CCN,obs}} \quad (6)$$

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

255 **2.2.4 Backward trajectory simulation and cluster analysis**

256 Backward trajectory calculations were performed using the MeteoInfo, an open-source software
257 (Wang, 2014) to determine potential source origins. Weekly GDAS1 (Global Data Assimilation System
258 at a resolution of 1°) files were downloaded from the NOAA Air Resource Laboratory (ARL) website
259 (<https://www.ready.noaa.gov/gdas1.php>). The calculation of backward trajectories is performed every
260 1 hour based on the location mentioned below, generating 72-hour backward trajectories at 500m.

261 To clarify the sources of air masses, the cluster analysis was applied in this study, which was
262 performed by TrajStat, a plug-in module of MeteoInfo, based on k-means method
263 (http://meteothink.org/docs/trajstat/cluster_cal.html). According to the report by the China
264 Meteorological Administration (Chao et al., 2022), the summer monsoon in 2021 broke out during the
265 sixth pentad of May. Therefore, based on the timing of the monsoon onset and the actual trajectory of the
266 ship, we selected two representative midpoints of the ship track for backward trajectory calculations and
267 cluster analysis in summer: the midpoint of the ship's track before the onset of the summer monsoon
268 (May 5-23) and the midpoint of the track after the summer monsoon began (May 24-June 9). In the
269 winter cruise, backward trajectories calculation and cluster analysis was performed at two specific
270 locations: the ship's anchorage near Big Ten-thousand Mountain Island (December 19-22 and December
271 27-29) and the midpoint between Dawan Mountain Island and Yongxing Island (December 23-26). To
272 ensure the accuracy of the backward trajectory calculations and cluster analysis, we compared the
273 trajectories at the midpoints with those from the ship's actual locations to verify consistency in air mass
274 sources (Fig. S8). We further examined the trajectories for each cluster to verify their alignment with the
275 air mass origins they represent (Fig. S9). The results demonstrate that cluster analysis was well-
276 conducted. Additionally, figure S10 illustrates the average altitude variation as the age in hours increases
277 across different periods. During summer, the altitude of the clusters remained below 880 hPa, indicating

278 that they resided within the boundary layer (about 800 hPa). While in winter, the altitude of the clusters
279 was higher than in summer, especially for the cluster during the mixed period (peaked at about 755 hPa).
280 However, these clusters were generally within or close to the boundary layer. These results suggest that
281 the back trajectories could represent the characteristics of the air masses originating from these specified
282 regions.

283 **2.2.5 Data quality control**

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

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

290 Secondly, we accounted for the relative positions of the ship's chimney and the sampling tube.
291 During the summer cruise, we excluded data corresponding to a relative wind direction (with respect to
292 the ship's bow) between 150° and 270° and a relative wind speed (with respect to the ship's speed) of less
293 than 2.5 m s⁻¹ (Fig. S11a, Fig. S12a1, and Fig. S13a-c). During the winter cruise, we excluded data for a
294 relative wind direction between 150° and 220° and a relative wind speed of less than 2.5 m s⁻¹ (Fig. S11b,
295 Fig. S12b1, and Figs. S13d-f).

296 Applying these criteria, 74.8% of the data in summer and 92.2% in winter (both at 10-minute
297 resolution) were classified as “clean” and retained for analysis. The timeseries of data before and after
298 quality control is shown in Fig. S14.

299 **3. Results and discussion**

300 **3.1 CCN concentration and aerosol characteristics over SCS in summer and winter**

301 Figure 2 presented the timeseries of PNSD (a1 and a2), NR-PM₁ mass concentrations and fractions
302 (b1 and b2, c1 and c2), number concentrations of CCN (d1 and d2), and hygroscopicity κ -values (e1 and
303 e2) during two campaigns in summer and winter. During the summer cruise, we observed two distinct
304 periods around the onset of the summer monsoon. The South China Sea (SCS) summer monsoon began
305 in the sixth pentad of May (Chao et al., 2022). In winter, the influence of the winter monsoon persisted

306 throughout the entire observation period (Fig. 1c). Despite our measurements being limited to the
307 northern SCS in winter, the impact of the Northeast Monsoon on the SCS was evident.

308 The average particle number concentration in summer (6966 cm^{-3}) was higher than in winter (4988
309 cm^{-3}), primarily due to the higher number concentration of Aitken-mode particles in summer (Fig. 3a-b).
310 In summer, particles were concentrated in smaller sizes, whereas in winter, particle size distribution was
311 relatively balanced between the Aitken mode (2185 cm^{-3}) and the accumulation mode (2176 cm^{-3}) (Fig.
312 3a-b).

313 The average mass concentration of NR-PM₁ was $3.76 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in summer and increased to $9.39 \mu\text{g}$
314 m^{-3} in winter (Fig. 3c-d). In summer, the dominant aerosol component was sulfate (45.5%), followed by
315 organics (35.8%), ammonium (12.9%), nitrate (4.0%), and chloride (1.9%) (Fig. 3c), similar to the
316 pattern observed in the northern SCS during the summer of 2018 (Fig. 3e) (Liang et al., 2021). However,
317 in winter, organics became the predominant aerosol component (37%), with nitrate (22.2%) replacing
318 sulfate (18.9%) as the highest proportion of inorganic components (Fig. 3d). Although N_{CN} were higher
319 in summer than in winter, the particle volume size distribution indicates that a higher fraction of particles
320 was concentrated in larger size in winter, which significantly influenced mass concentration, resulting in
321 a higher NR-PM₁ concentration (Fig. S15).

322 The average number concentration of cloud condensation nuclei (N_{CCN}) in summer was higher than
323 in winter at all supersaturation (SS) levels (Table 1). The ratio of N_{CCN} between summer and winter was
324 smaller at high SS ($N_{\text{CCN, winter}}/N_{\text{CCN, summer}} = 0.51$ and 0.54 at 0.4% SS and 0.7% SS, respectively)
325 compared to low SS ($N_{\text{CCN, winter}}/N_{\text{CCN, summer}} = 0.62$ at 0.2% SS), likely due to the significant difference in
326 number concentration of Aitken-mode particles between the two seasons (Fig. 3a-b). Compared to the
327 observation in the Yellow Sea, a region similarly influenced by terrestrial air masses from mainland
328 China, the N_{CCN} were lower in winter, while in summer, the N_{CCN} were more comparable to those
329 observed in the Yellow Sea (4821 cm^{-3} at 0.63% SS) (Park et al., 2018).

330 The aerosol hygroscopicity (κ) was higher in summer than that in winter (Table 1). Besides, the
331 hygroscopicity pattern varied between seasons: in summer, κ increased with SS (from 0.47 to 0.54
332 between 0.2% SS and 0.4% SS), while in winter, κ decreased with SS (from 0.50 to 0.15 between 0.1%
333 SS and 0.7% SS) (Fig. 3a-b). The winter κ pattern was similar to observations in the Western North
334 Pacific (Table 1) (Kawana et al., 2020). Additionally, the winter κ values were comparable to those in

335 Guangzhou (Cai et al., 2020), adjacent to the SCS, indicating that the northern SCS is influenced by air
336 masses from Mainland China under the significant influence of the Northeast Monsoon during winter.

337 **3.2 Anthropogenic influence on CCN concentration in different season**

338 Cluster analysis revealed distinct periods influenced by various air masses. In summer, three
339 terrestrial air mass sources were identified: Luzon Island (referred to as “Luzon”), Palawan Island, and
340 the Indochinese Peninsula, along with a marine air mass source (Fig. 4a). Given the limited influence of
341 air masses from Palawan Island, this period was excluded from the study. Consequently, the study
342 focused on periods dominated by air masses from Luzon (“Luzon” period), the Indochinese Peninsula
343 (“Indochinese Peninsula” period), and marine sources (“Marine-s” period). In winter, the air mass
344 sources included Mainland China, a mixture of Mainland China and the South China Sea (referred to as
345 “Mixed”), and a marine source (Fig. 4b). These were classified as the “Mainland China” period, “Mixed”
346 period, and “Marine-w” period, respectively.

347 As shown in figure 5, terrestrial air masses could significantly affect the aerosol chemical
348 composition in the SCS, resulting in higher NR-PM₁ mass concentration and a higher fraction of organic
349 compounds compared to those influenced by marine air masses. Additionally, the particles number
350 concentration in the accumulation mode and the N_{CCN} at low supersaturation (SS) were higher during
351 periods influenced by terrestrial air masses (“Luzon” period) than those during marine air mass periods
352 (Table 2). Notably, we were able to obtain an accurate D₅₀ at 0.7% supersaturation only during the “Luzon”
353 period in summer. Due to the relatively lower hygroscopicity compared to other summer periods, the
354 corresponding D₅₀ at 0.7% SS ranged between 40 and 60 nm, with relatively high concentration of CN
355 and CCN (Fig. S6), allowing for a more precise measurement of D₅₀. As a result, the κ at 0.7% SS shown
356 in Fig. 7 was specific to the Luzon period in summer.

357 In summer, the “Luzon” period exhibited the highest N_{CN}, attributed to the elevated particle
358 concentration in the Aitken mode, compared to all other periods in both summer and winter (Fig. 6a and
359 Table 1). This high fraction of Aitken mode particles led to the lowest bulk AR among the summer
360 periods (Fig. 7a), as a larger fraction of particles centered on a size range lower than the D₅₀ (Fig. 7b).
361 Furthermore, the prevalence of a higher fraction of Aitken mode particles during terrestrial air mass
362 periods is commonly correlated with the influence of fresh anthropogenic emissions (Beddows et al.,
363 2015), which could lower the hygroscopicity and consequently suppress the bulk AR.

364 In the “Indochinese Peninsula” period, the N_{CN} was lower than it in the “Marine-s” period (Table
365 2). This difference was mainly due to the variation of Aitken mode particles, while accumulation mode
366 particles were higher during the “Indochinese Peninsula” period than in “Marine-s” period (Table 2). The
367 “Marine-s” period primarily occurred during the transition phase before the onset of summer monsoon,
368 when wind direction shifted from east (Luzon Island direction) to southwest (Indochinese Peninsula
369 direction). Anthropogenic emissions from Luzon Island still affected the marine atmosphere, leading to
370 higher concentrations of Aitken mode particles compared to the “Indochinese Peninsula” period (Table
371 2). The higher fraction of accumulation mode particles and higher hygroscopicity during the
372 “Indochinese Peninsula” period resulted in a higher bulk AR compared to the “Luzon” period. Despite a
373 higher organic fraction in NR-PM₁ during the “Indochinese Peninsula” period (Fig. 5), hygroscopicity
374 was still higher due to a higher oxidation degree of organics, indicated by a higher m/z 44 to 43 ratio
375 (5.87 compared to 5.60 in the “Luzon” period) (Lambe et al., 2011; Jimenez et al., 2009). Additionally,
376 higher wind speeds during this period (7.26 m s⁻¹ compared to 3.18 m s⁻¹ in the “Luzon” period) led to
377 a higher fraction of sea salt (Huang et al., 2022), resulting in a higher aerosol hygroscopicity. Unfortunately,
378 owing to instrument limit, sea salt cannot be detected by the ToF-ACSM.

379 In winter, nitrate accounted for the highest fraction of NR-PM₁ (25.4%) during the “Mainland
380 China” period compared to other periods (Fig. 5d). Due to similar hygroscopicity between nitrate and
381 sulfate, as well as comparable inorganic fractions between the “Mainland China” and “Luzon” periods,
382 κ at 0.2% SS was also similar between these two periods (0.30 and 0.33, respectively) (Fig. 7b). However,
383 aerosol hygroscopicity at small sizes was much lower in the “Mainland China” period than in the “Luzon”
384 period (Fig. 7b), contributing to the low bulk AR in the “Mainland China” period (Fig. 7a). The BC mass
385 concentration was higher during the “Mainland China” period (2.25 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) compared to the “Luzon”
386 period (0.72 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). This suggests that the lower hygroscopicity in smaller particles during the
387 “Mainland China” period may be attributed to a larger fraction of hydrophobic BC. Additionally,
388 hygroscopicity at smaller sizes was consistently lower across all winter periods, including the “Mainland
389 China” period, compared to summer. This phenomenon may be related to the reduced sulfate fraction in
390 smaller sizes during winter, as sulfate production via DMS oxidation is diminished due to lower sea
391 surface temperatures in winter (18.0°C) compared to summer (29.3°C), which in turn inhibits DMS
392 production by phytoplankton (Bates et al., 1987). The similar fractions of Aitken mode and accumulation

393 particles indicated that PNSD could not fully explain the low bulk AR in the “Mainland China” period.
394 Overall, lower N_{CN} and bulk AR in the “Mainland China” period compared to the “Luzon” period resulted
395 in a lower N_{CCN} .

396 During the “Mixed” period, N_{CCN} was lower than in the “Mainland China” period, which can be
397 attributed to the decreased N_{CN} (Table 2). However, accumulation mode particles dominated, unlike in
398 other terrestrial air mass periods (Fig. 6), resulting in a significantly higher bulk AR compared to the
399 “Mainland China” period. Organic aerosol hygroscopicity was also higher during the “Mixed” period,
400 supported by a higher m/z 44 to 43 ratio (3.88 vs. 3.10 in the “Mainland China” period), which explains
401 the greater hygroscopicity despite a higher organic fraction in NR-PM₁. Additionally, the lower BC
402 concentration in the “Mixed” period (1.20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ vs. 2.25 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the “Mainland China” period)
403 suggests a smaller BC fraction. Moreover, the higher wind speeds during the “Mixed” period (10.77 m
404 s^{-1} vs. 7.14 m s^{-1} in the “Mainland China” period) could have increased the sea salt fraction, further
405 enhancing aerosol hygroscopicity..

406 3.3 CCN closure analysis

407 The CCN closure study is widely used to assess the impact of various factors on CCN activity (Patel
408 et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2018; Meng et al., 2014; Deng et al., 2013). In this study, we applied two schemes
409 based on the CCN closure method, as described in Section 2.2.3, which consider aerosol composition
410 and mixing state. The fitting parameters and coefficient of determination (R^2) are presented in Table 3,
411 while the fitting plots for both schemes are shown in Figures S16 and S17. Besides, the NMB from these
412 schemes was presented in Fig. 8.

413 In summer, the NMB was always lower than 0, which indicated that simulated aerosol
414 hygroscopicity was lower than observed value (Fig. 8). Sea salt which cannot be detected by the ToF-
415 ACSM may account for higher fraction in summer due to low aerosol concentration in summer (Fig. 3c),
416 resulting in the underestimation of aerosol hygroscopicity. The NMB exhibits similar trends with changes
417 in SS in all three periods in summer. Better fitting result appeared at high SS, which indicated a greater
418 underestimation of the hygroscopicity of larger particles. Besides, “Internal-mixed” scheme had more
419 precious result than it in “External-mixed” scheme in summer (Fig. 8), suggesting the aerosol was
420 primary internally mixed in summer.

421 In winter, the “External-mixed” scheme always showed a better result than “Internal-mixed” scheme
422 at high SS (0.4% SS and 0.7% SS), indicating that particles in small size were mainly externally mixed.
423 Considering the low hygroscopicity of small-sized particles in winter, it is likely that a significant fraction
424 of these particles consists of externally mixed BC, which probably originated from fresh anthropogenic
425 emissions and remains unmixed with other inorganic salts and organics. As BC ages, inorganic and
426 organic components adhere to it, which would lead to the increase of diameter and particles tended to be
427 internally mixed (Sarangi et al., 2019). This transition resulted in higher hygroscopicity in large-sized
428 particle compared to the smaller-sized particles. Besides, overestimation of aerosol hygroscopicity at
429 high SS could be owing to a higher fraction of non- or less- hygroscopic component (such as organic and
430 BC) at small particle sizes. The predicted N_{CCN} at 0.1% SS are 20%-40% lower than the observed
431 concentrations, whereas the predictions at 0.2% SS more closely match the observed values (Fig. 8). This
432 discrepancy may be due to the higher fraction of sea salt in larger particles. However, due to instrumental
433 limitations, the ToF-ACSM cannot detect BC and sea salt. Future observations including BC and sea salt
434 are needed to better assess their effects on aerosol hygroscopicity in the South China Sea (SCS). In
435 addition, further study of size-resolved aerosol composition can also enhance the understanding on CCN
436 activity in the SCS.

437 **4. Conclusion**

438 In this study, we investigated the seasonal variations of cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activity
439 in the South China Sea (SCS) and explored the impact of anthropogenic emissions. Shipborne
440 observations were conducted during the summer (May 5–June 9) and winter (December 19–29) of 2021.
441 We measured CCN activity, chemical composition, and particle number size distribution (PNSD) using
442 several onboard instruments, including a ToF-ACSM, a CCNc, an SMPS, and an AE33. Observations
443 included periods before and after the summer monsoon onset and periods influenced by the winter
444 monsoon.

445 Our results show that particle number concentration (N_{CN}) and CCN number concentration (N_{CCN})
446 were higher in summer than in winter, while the mass concentration of non-refractory submicron
447 particulate matter (NR- PM_{10}) was lower in summer. This difference is primarily attributed to the
448 predominance of Aitken mode particles in summer, contrasted with a higher concentration of

449 accumulation mode particles in winter. Additionally, aerosol hygroscopicity and bulk AR were found to
450 be higher in summer than in winter.

451 Backward trajectory and cluster analyses identified distinct influences from various air masses. In
452 summer, we identified periods affected by terrestrial air masses from Luzon Island (the “Luzon” period)
453 and the Indochinese Peninsula (the “Indochinese Peninsula” period), alongside a period influenced by
454 marine air masses (the “Marine-s” period). In winter, the periods were influenced by terrestrial air masses
455 from Mainland China (the “Mainland China” period), a mix of Mainland China and marine sources (the
456 “Mixed” period), and marine air masses (the “Marine-w” period). Terrestrial air mass periods exhibited
457 higher NR-PM₁ mass concentrations, organic fractions, and N_{CCN}, particularly at low supersaturation,
458 compared to those influenced by marine air masses.

459 During the “Luzon” period, high N_{CCN} was observed, attributed to high N_{CN}, especially in the Aitken
460 mode. This high concentration in the Aitken mode resulted in a low bulk AR at 0.2% SS, indicating a
461 higher fraction of primary organic aerosol with low hygroscopicity. This caused lower overall
462 hygroscopicity compared to other summer periods. The lower ratio of m/z 44 to 43 also suggested a
463 lower oxidation degree of organics in this period. In the "Indochinese Peninsula" period, higher fraction
464 of the accumulation mode particles compared to the "Luzon" period led to a higher bulk AR, combined
465 with increased hygroscopicity.

466 In winter, the "Mainland China" period was characterized by a high nitrate fraction in the NR-PM₁.
467 The similar inorganic fractions in the NR-PM₁ between the “Mainland China” and “Luzon” periods
468 resulted in comparable aerosol hygroscopicity at low supersaturation (0.2% SS). However, at higher
469 supersaturation levels (0.4% and 0.7% SS), the “Mainland China” period demonstrated significantly
470 lower hygroscopicity, which led to a reduced bulk AR at elevated supersaturation. During the "Mixed"
471 period, accumulation mode particles predominated, leading to a high bulk AR. This indicated an aging
472 process during transport, with more oxidized organics and higher aerosol hygroscopicity. The lower black
473 carbon (BC) fraction and the higher sea salt fraction from high wind speed contributed to higher
474 hygroscopicity in the "Mixed" period compared to the "Mainland China" period, despite the high organic
475 fraction.

476 The CCN closure analysis, considering aerosol composition and mixing state, revealed that aerosols
477 in summer were primarily internally mixed, while in winter, small-sized aerosols were primarily
478 externally mixed. This distinction is crucial for climate models predicting N_{CCN} in the SCS. The

479 underestimation of aerosol hygroscopicity in summer suggests that the effect of sea salt should be
480 considered.

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

488

489 *Data availability.* Data from the measurements are available at [https://doi.org/](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25472545)
490 [10.6084/m9.figshare.25472545](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25472545) (Ou et al., 2024).

491

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

493

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497

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499

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506

507

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710 2017.

711 Table 1. The number concentration of particle and cloud condensation nuclei at different supersaturation (SS), the hygroscopicity and bulk activation ratio (AR), and activation
 712 diameter (D_{50}) at different SS in different studies.

Location	period	N_{CN} (cm^{-3})	N_{CCN} (cm^{-3})	Hygroscopicity (κ)	Bulk AR	D_{50} (nm)	Reference
South China Sea	2021.05.05- 2021.06.09	6966±9249	2640±3639 (0.20% SS)	0.47±0.21 (0.20% SS)	0.37±0.16 (0.20% SS)	96±19 (0.20% SS)	This study
			4392±6415 (0.40% SS)	0.54±0.21 (0.40% SS)	0.63±0.17 (0.40% SS)	57±9 (0.40% SS)	
			5215±6862 (0.70% SS)	0.87±0.17 (0.70% SS)			
Northern South China Sea	2021.12.19- 2021.12.29	4988±3474	1086±691 (0.10% SS)	0.50±0.21 (0.10% SS)	0.23±0.09 (0.10% SS)	145±18 (0.10% SS)	This study
			1625±1110 (0.20% SS)	0.31±0.10 (0.20% SS)	0.33±0.12 (0.20% SS)	107±13 (0.20% SS)	
			2218±1503 (0.40% SS)	0.19±0.05 (0.40% SS)	0.44±0.13 (0.40% SS)	79±7 (0.40% SS)	
Northern South China Sea	2018.08.06- 2018.08.27	3463	1544 (0.34% SS)	0.40±0.08 (0.34% SS)	/	/	Cai et al., 2020
				0.38±0.09 (0.18% SS)			
				0.38±0.08 (0.59% SS)			
Remote South China Sea	2012.09.14- 2012.09.26	503±455	450±388 (0.14% SS)		0.47±0.16 (0.14% SS)		Atwood et al., 2017
			675±516 (0.38% SS)	0.54±0.14 (0.14% 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)		
Western North Pacific	2015.03.04- 2015.03.26	/	/		0.40±0.22 (0.11% SS)		Kawana et al., 2020
				0.75±0.21 (0.11% SS)	0.50±0.22 (0.24% SS)	/	
				0.51±0.16 (0.24% SS)	0.70±0.23 (0.60% SS)		
Guangzhou	2014.11- 2014.12	/	3103±1913 (0.10% SS)	0.37±0.11 (0.10% SS)	0.26±0.10 (0.10% SS)	156 ± 19 (0.1% SS)	Cai et al., 2018
			5095±2972 (0.20% SS)	0.29±0.09 (0.20% SS)	0.41±0.14 (0.20% SS)	107 ± 17 (0.2% SS)	
			6524±3783 (0.40% SS)	0.18±0.07 (0.40% SS)	0.53±0.15 (0.40% SS)	78 ± 15 (0.4% SS)	

			7913±4234 (0.70% SS)	0.15±0.06 (0.70% SS)	0.64±0.13 (0.70% SS)	58 ± 11 (0.7% SS)	
Yellow Sea	2017.04- 2017.05	7622± 4038	4821±1763 (0.63% SS)	/	/	/	Park et al., 2018

713

714 Table 2. The number concentration of particle, cloud condensation nuclei, and bulk activation ratio in
 715 different periods.

Cluster	Summer			Winter		
	Indochinese Peninsula	Luzon	Marine	Mainland China	Marine	Mixed
N_{CCN} (cm^{-3})						
0.1% SS	\	\	\	1359±669	439±223	945±400
0.2% SS	1200±787	4066±4748	1135±800	2058±1095	614±318	1460±514
0.4% SS	1650±1187	7804±8608	1812±1052	2792±1478	830±424	1801±640
0.7% SS	2239±1367	10480±9741	2515±1523	3514±1841	1024±463	2101±757
N_{CN} (cm^{-3})						
Total	2699±2147	14674±13844	3033±2366	6875±3263	1728±465	2918±1204
Nucleation	111±206	1543±3341	238±426	893±925	214±281	141±191
Aikten	1156±1261	8653±8815	1668±1526	3089±2017	732±337	806±427
Accumulat ion	1434±1444	3764±4157	1121±929	2923±2440	781±313	1975±831
Bulk AR						
0.1% SS	\	\	\	0.21±0.07	0.26±0.10	0.32±0.04
0.2% SS	0.49±0.13	0.31±0.17	0.40±0.13	0.30±0.09	0.36±0.14	0.51±0.05
0.4% SS	0.73±0.09	0.55±0.18	0.68±0.14	0.40±0.10	0.49±0.16	0.63±0.06
0.7% SS	0.98±0.15	0.76±0.16	0.90±0.13	0.50±0.09	0.61±0.18	0.73±0.06

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717

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

Cluster	Summer			Winter		
	Luzon	Indochinese Peninsula	Marine	Mainland China	Mixed	Marine
Internal scheme						
0.1% SS	\	\	\	0.91 (0.97)	0.72 (0.95)	0.71 (0.94)
0.2% SS	0.83 (0.89)	0.89 (0.81)	0.76 (0.96)	1.13 (0.96)	1.01 (0.99)	0.94 (0.97)
0.4% SS	0.90 (0.96)	0.90 (0.98)	0.89 (0.97)	1.34 (0.97)	1.14 (0.98)	1.04 (0.98)
0.7% SS	0.91 (0.93)	0.96 (0.92)	0.88 (0.98)	1.38 (0.97)	1.16 (0.99)	1.04 (0.96)
External scheme						
0.1% SS	\	\	\	0.80 (0.97)	0.62 (0.95)	0.59 (0.94)
0.2% SS	0.74 (0.88)	0.77 (0.79)	0.80 (0.96)	1.01 (0.97)	0.90 (0.99)	0.81 (0.97)
0.4% SS	0.78 (0.93)	0.80 (0.97)	0.82 (0.96)	1.23 (0.97)	1.05 (0.98)	0.95 (0.98)
0.7% SS	0.80 (0.92)	0.89 (0.92)	0.80 (0.98)	1.24 (0.98)	1.11 (0.99)	1.00 (0.96)

720

721

722 FIGURE CAPTION

723 Figure 1. The cruises of two shipborne observations, and the location of sample line and chimney of Tan
724 Kah Kee, and Sun Yat-sen scientific vessel (a); Wind rose of the wind direction and wind speed in
725 summer and winter cruises; The radius represents the frequency of wind direction occurrences, and the
726 shaded areas indicate wind speed (b) and (c). The red circles are the midpoints of the ship trajectory
727 selected for backward trajectory and cluster analysis in summer and the orange squares are the midpoints
728 of the ship trajectory selected for backward trajectory and cluster analysis in winter.

729 Figure 2. Timeseries of (a) particle number size distribution, (b) mass concentration of NR-PM₁, and (c)
730 its fraction, (d) mass concentration of organic carbon and elemental carbon, (e) number concentration of
731 total particle and cloud condensation nuclei under the supersaturation of 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.4%, and 0.7%,
732 and (f) aerosol hygroscopicity. The number 1 in figure number means timeseries in summer and number
733 2 means it in winter.

734 Figure 3. Particle number size distribution in summer (a) and winter (b); The red markers represent the
735 activation diameters and hygroscopicity parameters corresponding to 0.1%, 0.2%, 0.4%, and 0.7%
736 supersaturations in this study (without 0.1% in summer). The green markers represent the hygroscopicity
737 parameters reported in Atwood et al. (2017) for the southern South China Sea during summer. The gray
738 markers represent the hygroscopicity parameters documented in Cai et al. (2018) for the Pearl River
739 Delta region during winter. The fraction of NR-PM₁ in summer (c) and winter (d) in this study, in northern
740 SCS reported by Liang et al. (2021) (e), and in North Pacific reported by Choi et al. (2017) (f).

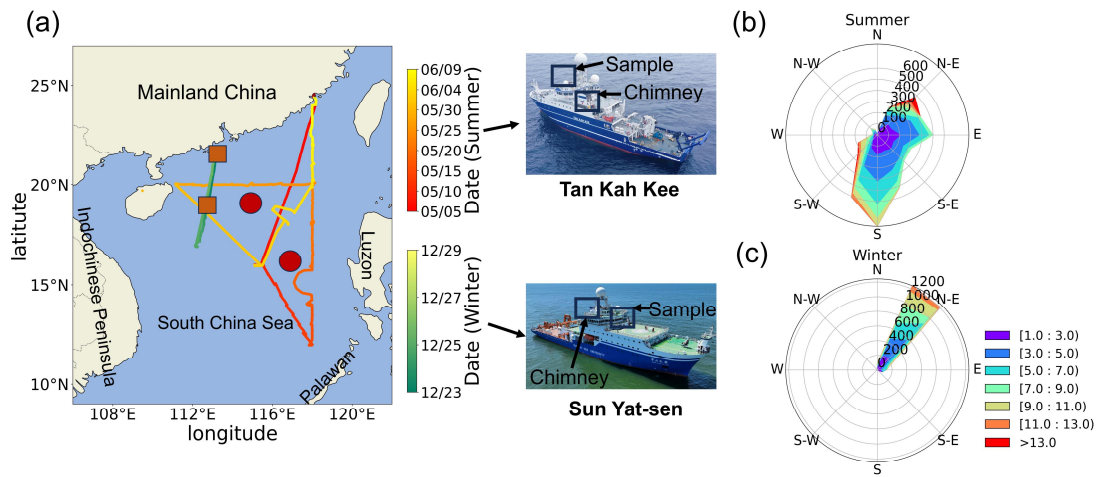
741 Figure 4. The cluster analysis result in summer (a) and winter (b). The solid line in summer means cluster
742 analysis from May 5 to May 24 and the dash line in summer means cluster analysis from May 25 to June
743 9; The solid line in winter means cluster analysis from Dec 19 to Dec 21 and Dec 27 to Dec 29, and the
744 dash line in winter means cluster analysis from Dec 22 to Dec 26.

745 Figure 5. The fraction of NR-PM₁ in “Luzon” period (a), “Indochinese Peninsula” period (b), and
746 “Marine-s” period (c) in summer. The fraction of NR-PM₁ in “Mainland China” period (d), “Mixed”
747 period (e), and “Marine-w” period (f) in winter.

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

751 Figure 7. The bulk activation ratio (AR) at different supersaturation (SS) in different periods (a); The
752 aerosol hygroscopicity (κ) at different supersaturation (SS) in different periods (b).
753 Figure 8. The normalized mean bias (NMB) calculated by “Internal-mixed” scheme and “External-mixed”
754 scheme according to CCN closure method. The marker of circle means “Internal-mixed” scheme and the
755 marker of triangle means “External-mixed” scheme. Different colors means different supersaturations.
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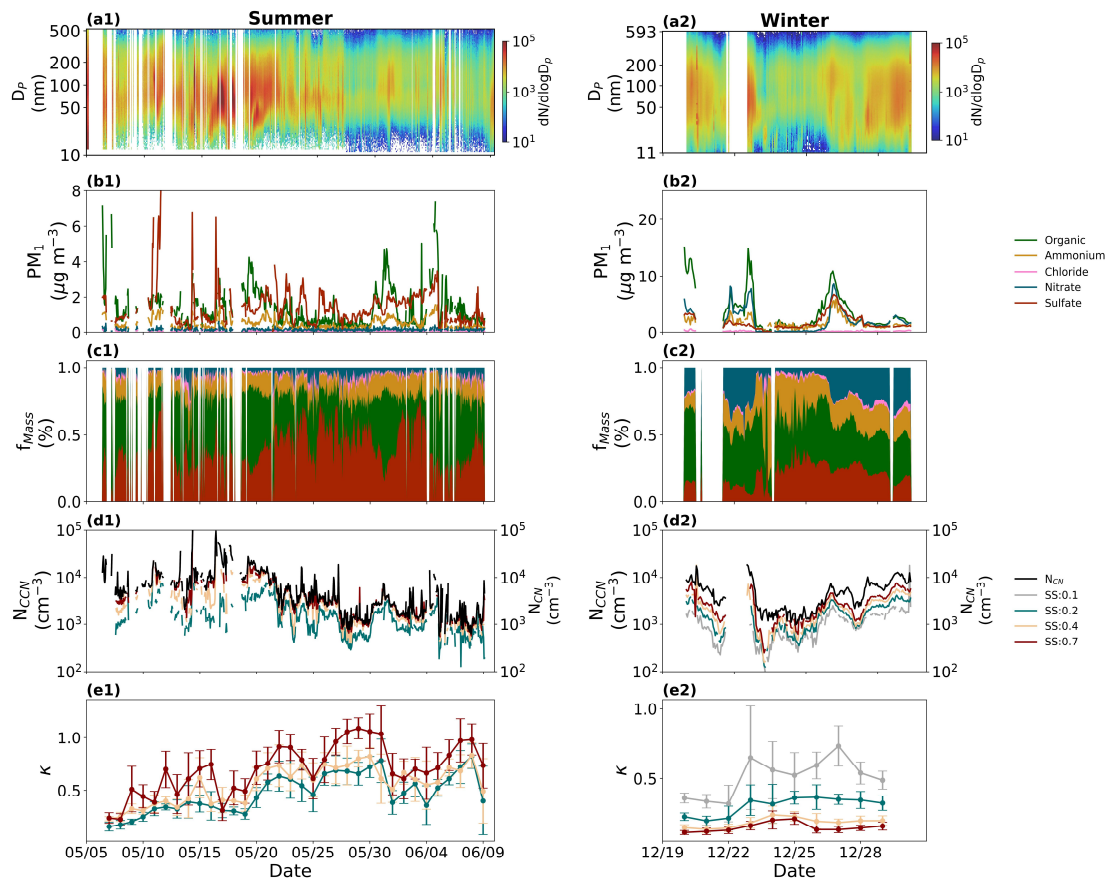
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760 Fig. 1

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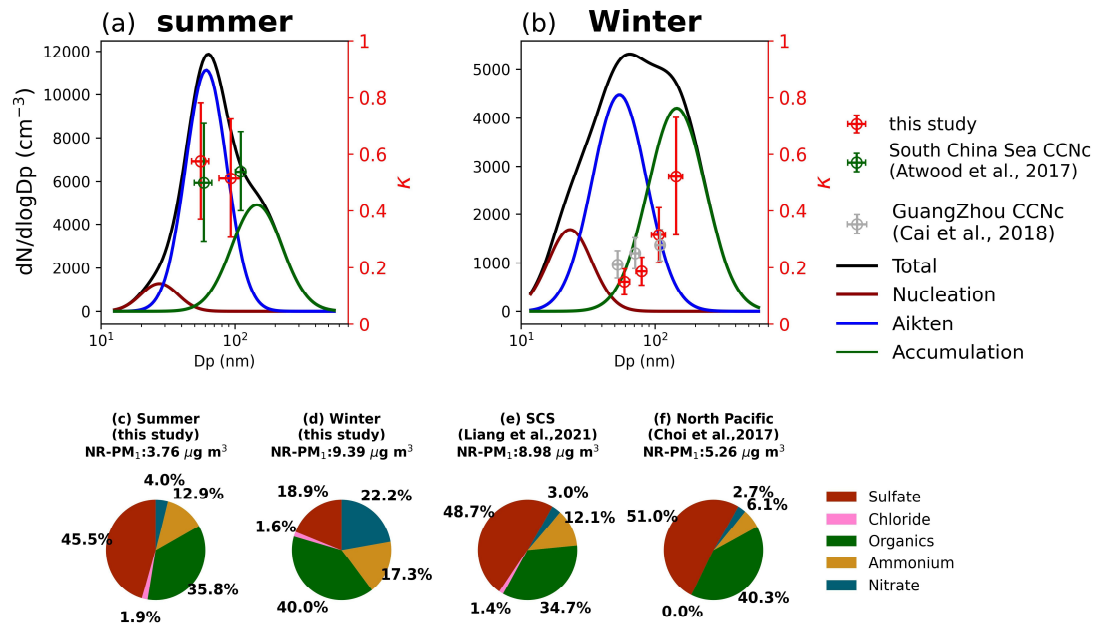


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764 Fig. 2

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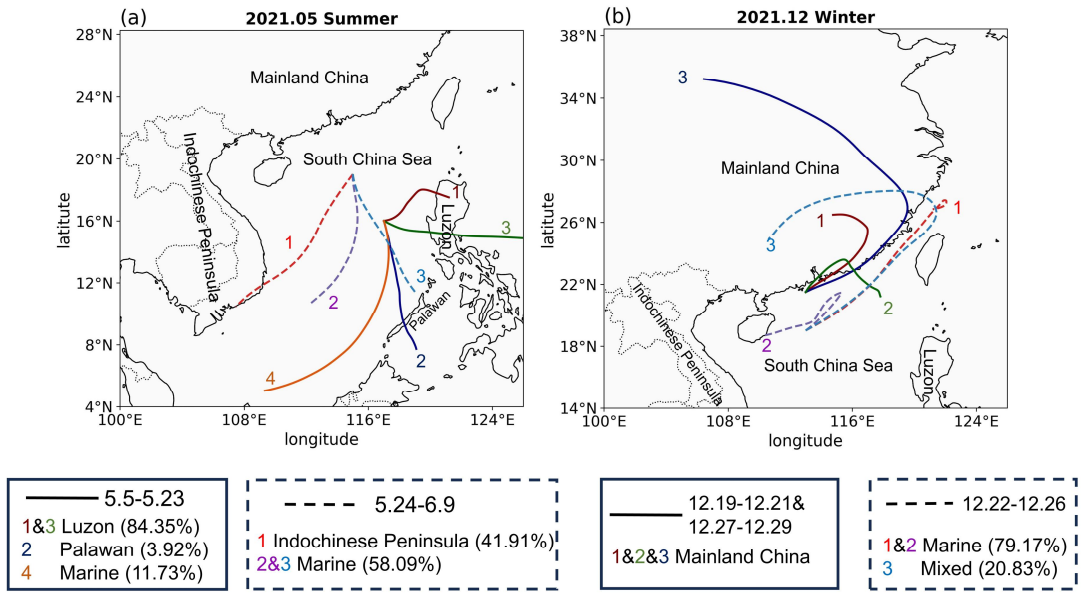
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768 Fig. 3

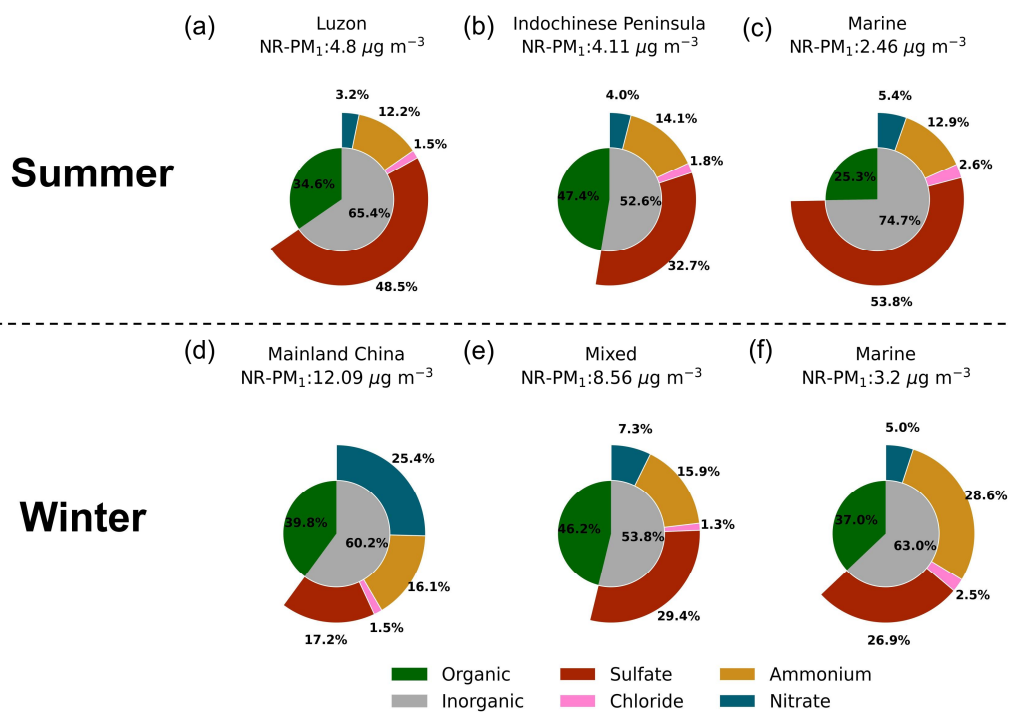
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771 Fig. 4

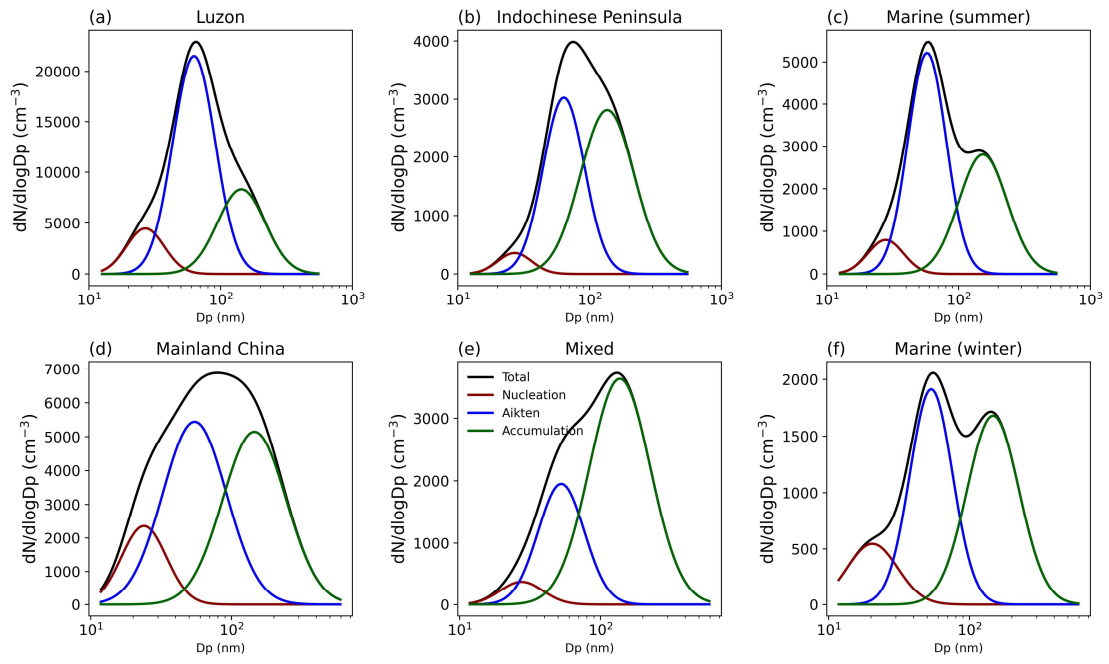
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775 Fig.5

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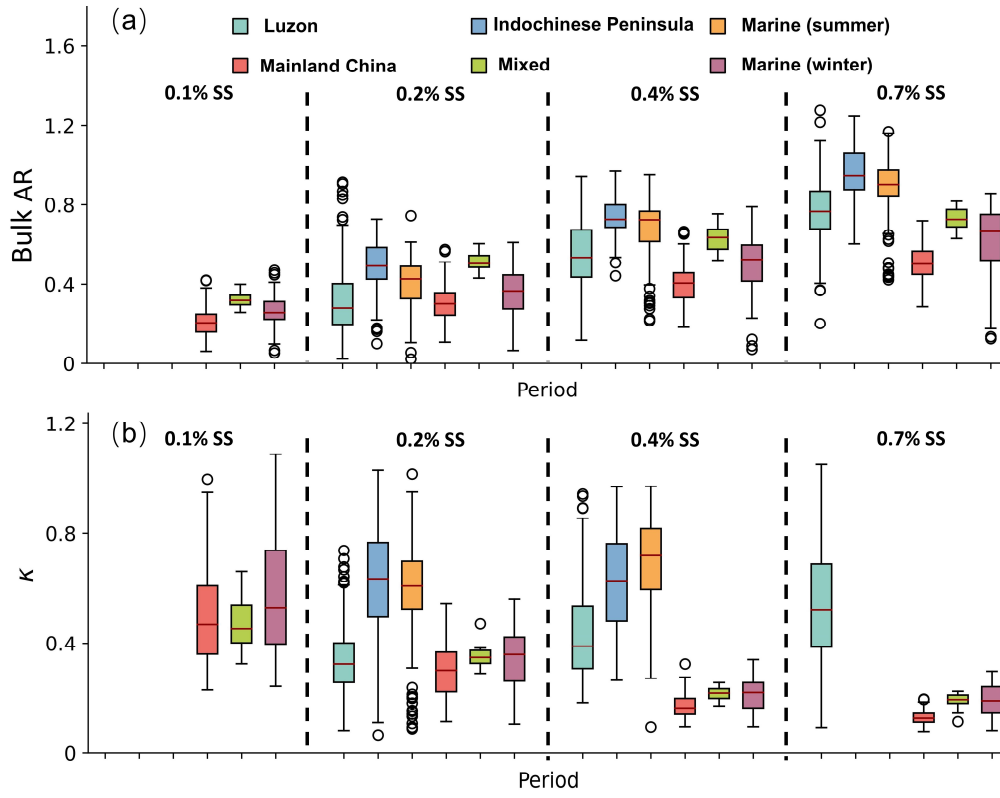


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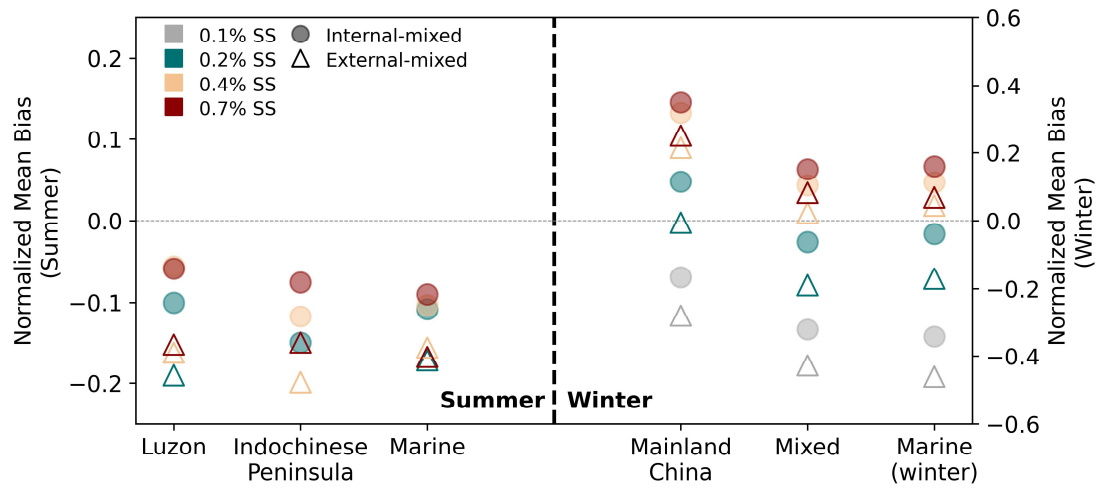
Fig. 6



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783 Fig. 7

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786 Fig. 8