



# Gas-Ice Partitioning Coefficients of Carbonyls during Diffusional Ice Crystal Growth

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**Keywords:** gas-ice partitioning, diffusional crystal growth, Orbitrap MS, secondary organic aerosol, SOA, convective clouds, entropy-enthalpy compensation, EEC

## Abstract

Carbonyls are highly relevant atmospheric constituents that influence tropospheric photochemistry and oxidative capacity. They can be removed from the upper troposphere via ice phase deposition scavenging. The gas-ice partitioning coefficients for 14 different carbonyl compounds were determined using a flowtube apparatus. Ice crystals were grown from vapor deposition in the presence of gas phase carbonyls at  $-20$ ,  $-30$ , and  $-40$  °C. Using van't Hoff analysis, the entropy and enthalpy of uptake were determined. An inverse relationship between partitioning coefficients and temperature was observed for all species except methyl vinyl ketone. A linear correlation between  $\Delta S$  and  $\Delta H$  arose which was statistically validated and determined with 99% confidence to not be a statistical artifact. This compensation behavior could be an indication of a surface liquid layer or quasi-liquid layer behavior involved in the uptake process and could also indicate a single dominant influence on a compound's uptake. The most significant physicochemical properties correlated with uptake were identified to be vapor pressure and molar mass, which indicate that smaller compounds with higher vapor pressures are more readily taken into the ice phase. The gas-ice partitioning coefficients observed here are below the  $10 \text{ mol m}^{-3} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  threshold given by Crutzen and Lawrence (2000) to be considered a substantial atmospheric removal process.

## 1 Introduction

Scavenging of organic gases by hydrometeors—such as rain, snow, graupel, and cloud droplets—has a cleaning effect on the atmosphere. While Henry's law coefficients are available to describe the interactions with



30 most organic gases with liquid water (Sander, 2023), less is known about its interactions with ice phase deposition. Most precipitation in the midlatitudes as well as all cloud formation in the upper troposphere is formed via ice and subsequently indicates that ice is a significant contributor to the wet deposition of trace atmospheric constituents (Franz and Eisenreich, 2000; Heymsfield et al., 2020; Mülmenstädt et al., 2015). Ice growth in the atmosphere operates under a few distinct processes: (1) the collection of supercooled cloud droplets by ice (riming), (2) direct  
35 liquid freezing, and (3) vapor-to-ice growth by diffusion. The latter process—often referred to as depositional growth—is hereafter referred to as diffusional growth and is the responsible mechanism for all cloud formations in the upper troposphere (Heymsfield et al., 2020; Mülmenstädt et al., 2015). There has been significant research in recent years on the redistribution and revolatization of organics during riming or liquid freezing (Borchers et al., 2024; Jost et al., 2017; Gautam et al., 2025; Seymore et al., 2025), but very little for diffusional growth.

40 Carbonyls as a class of trace atmospheric constituents are highly relevant secondary organic aerosol precursors and intermediates (Ervens and Kreidenweis, 2007; Galeazzo et al., 2024; Srivastava et al., 2022; Yu et al., 2014). Specifically, they are ubiquitous and play vital roles in tropospheric photochemistry and oxidative capacity, which affects radical cycling and ozone formation (Xu et al., 2023). Despite this, there are limited studies describing their removal from the atmosphere via deposition scavenging and only then describe their resultant wet deposition  
45 (Mu and Xu, 2009). Huffman and Snider (2004) attempted to measure uptake of acetone as a representative for ketones as hydrogen bond acceptors, however background contamination prevented thorough characterization. They did, however, publish a volume uptake coefficient for acetone and concluded that it had a significantly lower uptake than the alkanols studied.

The publications by Fries et al. (2007) and Huffman and Snider (2004) concern the ice uptake of aromatic  
50 hydrocarbons and oxyhydrocarbons. These are the first studies to describe the interactions between diffusion-growing ice and depositing organic vapors. Outside of these, the only measurements for diffusional uptake are for select inorganic species (e.g. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, HCl, HNO<sub>3</sub>, etc.) (Bartels-Rausch et al., 2014; Conklin et al., 1993; Diehl et al., 1995; Dominé and Thibert, 1996; Mitra et al., 1990; Santachiara et al., 1998) or adsorption on nongrowing ice (Abbatt et al., 2008; Von Hessberg et al., 2008). These experiments to evaluate gas interactions with ice describe  
55 either “growing ice” or “static ice” which have investigated the effects of volume uptake and surface processes respectively. From this distinction, these publications reveal that many uptake processes are predominately volume



uptake with secondary contributions from certain surface processes, notably (1) bonding to the air-ice interface or (2) uptake into a liquid solution phase coexisting with ice (Conklin et al., 1993; Goss, 1993). Further, they show that equilibrium treatments of both surface and volume uptake can correctly predict the resulting concentrations in snow  
60 (Dominé and Thibert, 1996).

Treating the uptake of organic compounds by ice crystals growing through diffusion as an equilibrium allows for the calculation of ice-gas partitioning coefficients, referred interchangeably as uptake coefficients. These coefficients ( $K_{g,ss}$ ) describe the ratio of the gas phase concentration of the analyte vapor to its concentration in the ice phase. More specifically, with the possibility for a liquid solution phase that coexists with ice, this relationship is  
65 described as:

$$K_{g,ss} = K_{g,l}K_{l,ss} \quad (1)$$

where the equilibrium constants  $K_{g,ss}$  and  $K_{g,l}$  relate the analyte concentrations in the ice solid solution (*ss*) and liquid water (*l*) phases to the analyte partial pressure in the gas phase (*g*). The last equilibrium constant ( $K_{l,ss}$ ) relates the concentrations in the liquid water (*l*) and solid solution (*ss*) phases. The present study reports direct measurements of  
70  $K_{g,ss}$  for carbonyl compounds and neglects thorough investigation of gas to liquid or liquid to ice equilibrium. Hereafter,  $K_{g,ss}$  will be referred to simply as  $K$  and is specifically considered a volume uptake coefficient.

In the present study, laboratory experiments explore the uptake of 14 different carbonyl species by ice crystals during vapor deposition growth. Ice crystals were grown from vapor deposition under controlled humidity conditions in the presence of gaseous carbonyl species. The blended gas mixture was targeted to produce roughly 10  
75 ppbv of each gaseous analyte to maintain analytical reliability, approximately one order of magnitude larger than the partial pressures of these compounds in the unpolluted troposphere. Water vapor saturation was controlled to 50% supersaturation (wrt ice) to achieve realistic growth conditions in natural cirrus clouds. Gas phase concentrations were determined using an integrative denuder technique and subsequent derivation to aid detection for both gas and ice phase concentrations. Ultra-high performance liquid chromatography with ultra-high resolution mass  
80 spectrometry (UHPLC-UHRMS) was then used to analyze the samples and determine their ice-gas partitioning coefficients.



## 2 Methods

### 2.1 Experimental Setup

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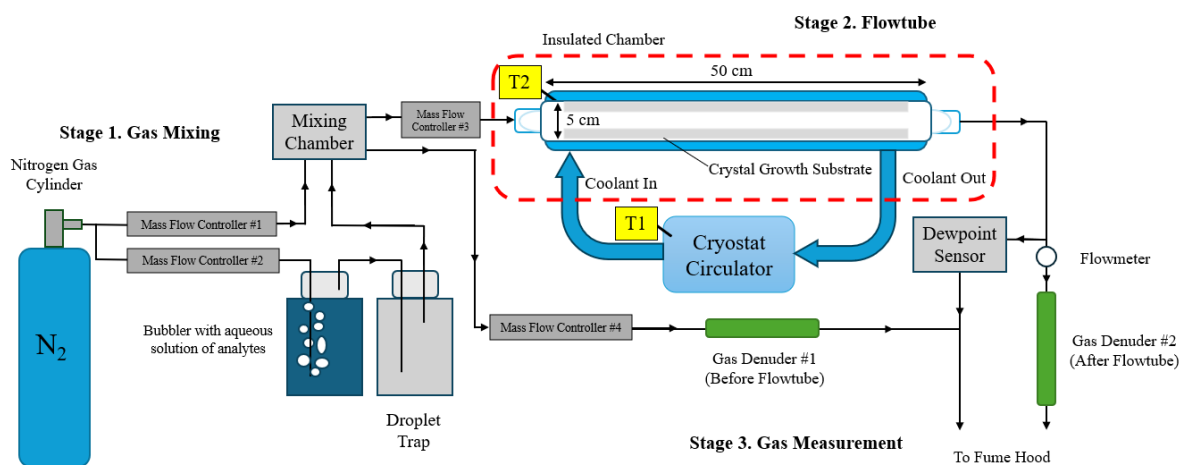
The experimental design in this paper is a variation on the experiment presented by Fries et al. (2007) with gas measurement techniques developed by Kahnt et al. (2011).

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Three uptake experiments were performed with three replicates at atmospheric pressure with the experimental apparatus shown in Figure 1. The setup had three main sections: an ambient temperature gas-mixing stage, a chilled crystal growth flowtube, and outflowing gas measurement. In the first stage (Stage 1. Gas Mixing), pressurized dry nitrogen gas was passed through a bubbler with known concentrations of the analytes in aqueous solution. This stream of gas then reached saturation at ambient temperature (maintained at 23 °C and confirmed by measurement) and passed through a glass frit and a droplet catching chamber to ensure no liquid droplets remained in the gas stream. The saturated gas stream was then diluted with dry nitrogen to reach the desired humidity and vapor concentration. The specific saturation and vapor concentration mix was maintained using a Mass Flow Controller (Brooks Instrument B.V. 5850TR/FA1B201). The resulting mixed gas was allowed to homogenize inside a 0.5 L mixing chamber and then was introduced into the insulated chamber with the crystal growth tube. Another Mass Flow Controller was used to ensure a constant volumetric flowrate was maintained through the flowtube and through a branching line for input gas measurement.

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**Figure 1. Experimental Apparatus Design**

The second stage of the apparatus is the flowtube portion of the setup (Stage 2. Flowtube). The flowtube is a quartz-glass tube of 50 cm length and 5 cm diameter with an approximate interior volume of 1 L where ice crystals  
 105 were grown from diffusional vapor deposition. It is capped at both ends with a uniform flow PTFE nozzle with double silicon VMQ O-rings to ensure proper sealing of the gas stream at low temperatures. The flowtube is inserted into a copper thermal exchange coil with a PT100 temperature sensor (T2) mounted between the coil and the tube. The flowtube and coil are housed inside an insulated chamber while ethanol coolant is circulated through the coil from a cryostat circulator (Julabo F81) outside the chamber. Using the coolant bath temperature (T1) and T2, the  
 110 temperature of the flowtube glass substrate can be maintained within 0.1 C of the target temperature using PID control. Prior to each experiment, the flowtube substrate is ethanol cleaned, dried with nitrogen gas, and brought to the target temperature under the flow of dry nitrogen. This prevents ice nucleating contaminants and ambient humidity from depositing on the substrate prior to exposure to the test gas. The flowtube is allowed to cool for 1 hour prior to exposure to ensure temperature stability. This setup was also thermally characterized using a PT100  
 115 sensor mounted on a probe inserted along the center of the tube. The quantitated temperature error was determined using this method and the resulting temperature profiles can be found in Figure S1 of the Supplemental Materials.

After the flowtube is the third stage of the setup where the effluent gas is analyzed (Stage 3. Gas Measurement). Continuous dewpoint measurements along with an integrative measurement of vapor analytes were taken on the before and after flowtube gas streams using a dewpoint hydrometer (Michell Instruments S8000) and a



120 pair of reagent-coated gas denuders. Ice samples were collected from the flowtube, massed, and analyzed for their  
analyte concentration. This data is then able to be used to calculate the uptake coefficient. PTFE tubing was used for  
all the tubing connections and the flow conditions in these experiments remained laminar with a Reynolds number  
of approximately 160, which is well below the critical value of 2300 for pipe flow (Warhaft, 1998). Experiments  
were performed 24 hours at  $-20$  and  $-30$  °C, 48 hours for  $-40$  °C to allow for adequate crystal growth and saturation  
125 of any vapor wall losses.

## 2.2 Crystal Growth Conditions

Ice crystals were grown from vapor deposition under controlled humidity conditions in the presence of  
gaseous carbonyl species. For the experimental temperatures of  $-20$ ,  $-30$ , and  $-40$  °C, ice was grown at 50%  
130 supersaturation (wrt ice) with 10 ppbv of analyte vapor (a 140 ppbv total organics gas concentration). To achieve  
these target conditions, different dilutions of dry nitrogen with the saturated gas stream were mixed using different  
bubbler solutions with the required aqueous concentrations of analytes to reach the target gas concentration. The  
saturation pressure of water vapor over ice ( $e_i$ ) was calculated using the Sonntag parameterization (Sonntag, 1994)  
so that the saturation ratio of water vapor with respect to ice ( $S_{ice}$ ) was maintained at 1.50 at experimental  
135 temperatures of  $-20$ ,  $-30$ ,  $-40$  °C. This  $S_{ice}$  was chosen as it is a high but realistic saturation for the growth  
conditions in natural cirrus clouds (Comstock et al., 2004; Dekoutsidis et al., 2023; Hoareau et al., 2016; Zhao and  
Shi, 2023) with a similarly realistic temperature range that still allows for high enough water vapor pressures and  
crystal growth rates to be experimentally viable. Specifically, the Sonntag parameterization is shown in Eq. 2 as:

$$\begin{aligned} \log e_i = & -6024.5282 / T & (2) \\ & + 24.721994 \\ & + 1.0613868 \cdot 10^{-2} \cdot T \\ & - 1.3198825 \cdot 10^{-5} \cdot T^2 \\ & - 0.49382577 \cdot \log T \end{aligned}$$

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where the air temperature ( $T$ ) is in units of K and  $e_i$  is in units of hPa. For each experimental temperature,  
145 this calculation was performed, and an experimental water vapor pressure was chosen to produce the desired  $S_{ice}$ .  
For the gas stream mixing, this was first theoretically calculated as a dilution of saturated bubbler water vapor  
(19.42 g m<sup>-3</sup> at 23 °C) with dry gas (< 0.03 g m<sup>-3</sup>) to within 10% error. This was also then empirically determined by  
measuring the mixed gas dewpoint using the hygrometer, calculating the water vapor pressure using Eq. 2 and  
adjusting the flowrates accordingly.

150 The crystal growth rate ( $J$ ), which is equivalent to the diffusive flux, was calculated using a Fick diffusion  
term:

$$J = D_T \frac{C_0 - C_f}{l_m} \quad (3)$$

where  $l_m$  is the thickness of the diffusion layer,  $D_T$  is the diffusion coefficient of water vapor ( $2.2 \times 10^{-5}$  m<sup>2</sup>  
s<sup>-1</sup>) and  $C_0$  and  $C_f$  are the input and output water vapor concentrations. The value of  $l_m$  is calculated by the Einstein  
155 equation:

$$l_m = \sqrt{2D_T t_k} \quad (4)$$

where  $t_k$  is the condensation time, i.e. residence time within the flowtube.  $l_m$  was estimated to be 0.025 m,  
which is roughly the interior radius of the flowtube.  $J$  is then multiplied by the interior surface area of the flowtube  
substrate (approximately 785 cm<sup>2</sup>) to produce the total ice growth rate in the flowtube. While the crystal growth rate  
160 was theoretically calculated for all experiments, it was also empirically determined by dividing the collected ice  
mass by the total experiment time.

With the experimental humidity determined and the flowrates fixed, the gas dilution factor of the bubbler  
gas is then also fixed. From this, the aqueous concentrations of all the analytes in the bubbler that produce the  
desired vapor concentrations in the flowtube can be determined. Using Henry's law and the compiled Henry's law  
165 constants and calculations from Sander (2023), (provided in Table S1 in the Supplemental Materials), the necessary  
aqueous concentrations to produce 10 ppbv of analyte vapor in the flowtube were determined. 10 ppbv was selected  
as the analyte vapor mixing ratio as it was a low mixing ratio that could still maintain signal in the ice samples. The  
Henry's law constant was first adjusted to ambient conditions using the equation:



$$H_T = H^\theta \cdot \exp\left(\frac{-\Delta_{sol}H}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T^\theta}\right)\right) \quad (5)$$

170 Here, Henry solubility ( $H^\theta$ ) at the reference temperature ( $T^\theta$ ) and the molar enthalpy of dissolution ( $\Delta_{sol}H$ ) are used along with the gas constant ( $R$ ) and ambient temperature ( $T$ ) to correct to the Henry solubility ( $H_T$ ). With the concentration/pressure defined  $H_T$  adjusted to ambient conditions, the aqueous concentration of the analyte in the bubbler can be calculated using the equation:

$$[x]_{aq} = H_T^{cp} \cdot p_x^{FT} \cdot d \quad (6)$$

175 where the dilution factor ( $d$ ) corrects the partial pressure of  $x$  analyte in the flowtube ( $p_x^{FT}$ ) to the partial pressure required in the bubbler due to the gas mixing dilution to provide the aqueous concentration ( $[x]_{aq}$ ). These concentrations are stable in the bubbler, assuming that the mass fraction in the aqueous phase is much larger than the mass fraction in the vapor phase. The actual aqueous concentrations and Henry solubilities used can be found in Table S1 the Supplementary Materials. While these calculations were performed to reach a target gas concentration  
180 of 10 ppbv, the actual gas concentration in the flowtube was determined by dividing the mass of analyte collected on the reagent-coated gas denuders and dividing by the total volume passed through the denuders. Corrections for mass error due to the breakthrough potential of a species through the denuder were made following the same method as (Kahnt et al., 2011). The average breakthrough potential for all species under these conditions was determined to be less than 4%. While Kahnt et al. (2011) observed much higher breakthrough potentials at lower relative humidities,  
185 the absolute humidity in these experiments is lower by 5 orders of magnitude. Since water can both encourage and inhibit the DNPH derivation, any changes in humidity conditions may alter the breakthrough potential of any of the analytes.

### 2.3 Chemicals and Materials

190 The derivation reagent 2,4-dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich (~0.2 M, ~4% Phosphoric acid solution, Darmstadt, Germany). The denuder coating solution was prepared with 10 mM DNPH in acetonitrile (ACN). The following carbonyl compounds were obtained from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO, USA): benzaldehyde ( $\geq 99\%$ ), methacrolein (95%), norcamphor (98%), (1R)-(+)-nopinone (98%), and methyl vinyl ketone (MVK, with 0.5% hydroquinone and 0.1% acetic acid). Formaldehyde (30%, methanol-free) and





195 acetaldehyde ( $\geq 99\%$ ) were obtained from Roth (Karlsruhe, Germany). Hydroxyacetone (95%) and propionaldehyde  
(97%) were obtained from Thermo Scientific (Darmstadt, Germany). Glyoxal (39% in water) and diacetyl ( $>98\%$ )  
were purchased from TCI (Toshima, Tokyo, Japan). Methylglyoxal (40% in water) was purchased from MP  
Biomedicals (Irvine, CA, USA). d/l-camphor (97.5%) was obtained from WHI pharma services (Frankfurt,  
Germany). These compounds were used without further purification. For the aqueous bubbler solution, 98 % LC/MS  
200 grade water (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used for the solvent and  $>99.8\%$  technical grade nitrogen was used for  
the carrier gas.

Supelco carbonyl-DNPH mix 13, a commercially available hydrazone standard solution, was purchased  
from Sigma-Aldrich and used for the analysis of benzaldehyde, MVK, methacrolein, acetaldehyde, formaldehyde,  
acetone, and propionaldehyde. Hydrazone crystals were prepared for benzaldehyde, nonpinone, norcamphor,  
205 camphor, diacetyl, glyoxal, hydroxyacetone, and methylglyoxal. Benzaldehyde-DNPH was purified by  
recrystallization from ethanol and then prepared in ACN. All other synthesized carbonyl-DNPHs were purified using  
a solid phase extraction (SPE) method (Chromabond® C<sub>18</sub>, 6 mL, 1000 mg bedweight) and then referenced to the  
prepared benzaldehyde-DNPH standard with UHPLC-HRMS. This was then referenced to the Supelco standard.  
The difference in the signal was about 23% (n = 6) between commercial and synthesized benzaldehyde-DNPHs  
210 confirming the concentration of the benzaldehyde-DNPH. Since the ice-gas partitioning coefficients are unitless and  
the sample matrices are the same, true quantitation is not necessary for the calculation. However, since these  
standards are referenced to the Supelco standard, true quantitation was performed for benzaldehyde, MVK,  
methacrolein, acetaldehyde, formaldehyde, acetone, and propionaldehyde and pseudo-quantitation (estimating  
concentration by referencing signal intensity to an internal standard) was performed for nonpinone, norcamphor,  
215 camphor, diacetyl, glyoxal, hydroxyacetone, and methylglyoxal.

## 2.4 Sample Collection and Preparation

Three samples were collected from each experiment: input gas denuder extract, output gas denuder extract,  
and ice. The gas denuders were prepared in the method described by Kahnt et al., (2011). Two 5-channel annular  
220 denuders with 750 mm length and 1 mm annular spacing (URG 4531, URG Corporation, Chapel Hill, NC, USA)  
were coated with XAD-4 resin following the method presented by Kahnt et al. (2011) and then coated with DNPH



before immediate use. The resin coating was renewed after five experiments. At the conclusion of the experiment, the denuder samples were directly extracted three times with 50 mL of ACN by capping and inverting twenty times while rotating along its axis. These samples were then left overnight to ensure complete derivatization.

225 Ice samples were collected by methanol extraction of the flowtube. At the conclusion of the experiment, the flowtube and thermal exchange coil were sealed, disconnected from the setup, and taken into a walk-in cold chamber kept at  $-5^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The caps were removed from the flowtube and the interior was rinsed with 14 mL of anhydrous methanol. The flowtube extract was massed and then the water content was determined by measuring the refractive index using an Abbe refractometer. Knowing the percent water content (w/w%) of the extract and the total  
230 mass of the extract (g), the ice yield could be determined (g). This extract was then spiked with 0.1 mL of the DNPH solution and left overnight to ensure complete derivatization. This method prevents deposition by ambient humidity onto the flowtube substrate and is a more efficient recovery method than physical scraping, which was not a viable method due to the low ice masses deposited.

The samples were then all concentrated by rotary evaporation ( $25^{\circ}\text{C}$  at 150 mbar) and were reconstituted in  
235 1 mL of methanol to be purified by SPE (Chromabond® C<sub>18</sub>, 6 mL, 1000 mg bedweight). The cartridges were first flushed with 6 mL ACN, conditioned with 3 mL methanol and 6 mL of ultra-pure water. The denuder extract was loaded on the SPE cartridge and washed with 3 mL of methanol/water solution (5/95%, v/v%) to remove any phosphoric acid. The carbonyl-DNPHs were eluted using 10 mL ACN and stored out of light at  $-25^{\circ}\text{C}$  in a deep freezer. For analysis, 0.25 mL of the output gas denuder extract, 0.5 mL of the input gas denuder extract, and 1 mL  
240 of the ice sample were taken and evaporated to dry in a nitrogen evaporator at  $18^{\circ}\text{C}$ . These were reconstituted to 0.5 mL ACN/H<sub>2</sub>O (50/50, v/v%) for ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography coupled with high resolution mass spectrometry (UHPLC-HRMS). The dilution/concentration for these respective samples were performed to bring the expected concentration into quantitation range.

## 245 2.5 UHPLC-HRMS Analysis

Analysis was performed in triplicate using a Dionex UltiMate 3000 ultra-high-performance liquid chromatography (UHPLC) system coupled to a heated electrospray ionization source (HESI) and a high-resolution Q-Exactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer (HRMS) (all Thermo Fisher Scientific). A Hypersil Gold, C<sub>18</sub>, 50 x 2.0 mm



column with 1.9  $\mu\text{m}$  particle size (Thermo Fisher Scientific) was used for the chromatography. Eluent A consisted of  
250 98 % LC/MS grade water (Thermo Fisher Scientific) with 0.04 % formic acid and ACN (VWR Chemicals), eluent B  
consisted of 98 % ACN and water, and the injection volume was 10  $\mu\text{L}$ . Column temperature was held at 40  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The  
HESI source was used in negative mode, resulting in the formation of deprotonated molecular ions. Sheath gas and  
auxiliary gas pressure was 40 and 20 a. u. (arbitrary unit) respectively. The temperature of the auxiliary gas heater  
was 150  $^{\circ}\text{C}$  and the capillary temperature was 350  $^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The sprayer voltage was set to  $-4.00$  kV. To further enhance  
255 ionization, a post-column flow of 50  $\text{mmol L}^{-1}$   $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$  in MeOH was added after 1 min at a flow rate of  
0.1  $\text{mL min}^{-1}$ . The following  $\text{H}_2\text{O}/\text{ACN}$  chromatography gradient was used: Starting with 30% B isocratically for 1  
min, increasing to 80% at 10 min, then to 100% at 11 min, and back to 30% B at 11.5 min allowed to equilibrate to  
initial conditions for 1 min. The first minute of eluent was ejected to waste to reduce excess unreacted DNPH being  
fed into the HRMS. The mass traces used to identify the species in this experiment can be found in Table S2 in the  
260 Supplementary Materials.

## 2.6 Calculations

The partitioning coefficient between the gas and ice phase  $K$  was calculated by the equation:

$$K = \frac{\rho_{ice}C_{ice}}{m_{ice}C_{gas}} \quad (7)$$

where  $C_{ice}$  is the absolute mass of the analyte in ice (ng),  $\rho_{ice}$  is the density of ice at the experimental  
265 temperature (0.9194, 0.9200, 0.9208  $\text{g cm}^{-3}$ ),  $C_{gas}$  is the concentration of the analyte in the gas phase ( $\text{ng m}^{-3}$ ), and  
 $m_{ice}$  is the total mass of ice (g). For proper unit conversion, a factor of  $10^6$  is applied for the conversion of  $\text{m}^3$  to  $\text{cm}^3$ .  
Practically speaking,  $K$  is also used as a sorption coefficient or a dimensionless uptake coefficient with respect to  
the removal of trace gases in the upper atmosphere. A larger value for  $K$  indicates more uptake into the ice phase.

Strictly speaking, chemical uptake on growing ice crystals is a stationary state and not an equilibrium.  
270 However, diffusional crystal growth is slow relative to other modes of freezing (day vs. ms timescales) and so the  
system can be approximated as an equilibrium state (Dominé and Thibert, 1996; Fries et al., 2007; Huffman and  
Snider, 2004). Then as a thermodynamic equilibrium,  $K$  can also be used to calculate the Gibbs energy ( $\Delta G$ ) of the  
uptake process at each temperature. This is a direct calculation using the equation:

$$\Delta G = -RT\ln(K) \quad (8)$$



275 where  $T$  is temperature (K) and  $R$  is the ideal gas-constant ( $8.31447 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ ). These values describe the energy available for the uptake process. Positive values of  $\Delta G$  indicate the analyte favors the gas phase while negative values of  $\Delta G$  indicate the analyte favors the ice phase. Even lower, more negative values of  $\Delta G$  would indicate more efficient uptake of the analyte into the ice phase.

Continuing the thermodynamic analysis, the theoretical temperature dependence of the sorption coefficient  
280  $K$  can be determined with the van't Hoff equation, which when substituting with the Gibbs-Helmholtz equation produces the following:

$$\ln(K) = -\frac{\Delta H - T\Delta S}{RT} = -\frac{\Delta H}{R} \frac{1}{T} + \frac{\Delta S}{R} \quad (9)$$

where  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  are the heat of sorption and the sorption entropy respectively. Here the heat of uptake and uptake entropy are used instead. Performing a linear regression of  $\ln(K)$  against  $1/T$  using the van't Hoff equation  
285 provides a slope of  $-\Delta H/R$  and an intercept of  $\Delta S/R$ . Multiplying each of these values by  $-R$  and  $R$  respectively produces the values of  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$ . Increasing values of the uptake enthalpy  $\Delta H$  and the uptake entropy  $\Delta S$  along with decreasing compound vapor pressure—i.e. the volatility of the pure analyte—can indicate that the uptake of the analyte is dependent on the physical parameters of the compounds and ice surface. Specifically, these are the parameters that determine thermodynamic sorption such as temperature, molecular mass, ice surface coverage,  
290 surface morphology and porosity, surface crystallographic phases, quasi-liquid layer behavior, and crystal imperfections (Behr et al., 2006; Fries et al., 2006; Orem and Adamson, 1969; Sokolov and Abbatt, 2002). However, lower values of  $\Delta H$  and poor linear regression can be a sign that the uptake process cannot be exclusively described by thermodynamic sorption.

### 3 Results and Discussion

#### 295 3.1 Ice Crystal Growth

Nine ice samples were grown in the presence of vapor phase carbonyl compounds. While the target gas concentration for each species was 10 ppbv, the actual (excluding glyoxal) concentrations as referenced against denuder #1 was  $11.5 \pm 2.5$  ppbv on average. The actual gas concentrations for each species can be found in the  
300 Supplemental Materials. The typical ice yield at  $-20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  was calculated to be roughly 3.07 g while the actual yield



was measured to be  $5.77 \pm 0.45$  g on average. The corresponding theoretical and actual crystal growth rates were  $128.1 \text{ mg hr}^{-1}$  and  $237.8 \text{ mg hr}^{-1}$  at  $1.55 \pm 0.14$  hPa water vapor pressure ( $49.9 \pm 13.8$  % S wrt ice). For  $-20$  °C, the actual ice yield measurement is strictly an overestimate as the refractive index measurement was closest to the parabolic vertex of the water-MeOH mixture where small deviations in the refractive index produce large differences in the estimated water content. At  $-30$  °C, the calculated ice yield was 1.13 g while the average actual yield was  $1.07 \pm 0.52$  g. The corresponding theoretical and actual crystal growth rates were  $47.1 \text{ mg hr}^{-1}$  and  $44.6 \text{ mg hr}^{-1}$  at  $0.57 \pm 0.05$  hPa water vapor pressure ( $49.6 \pm 14.1$  % S wrt ice). For  $-40$  °C, the calculated ice yield was 0.79 g while the actual was  $0.57 \pm 0.11$  g. The corresponding theoretical and actual crystal growth rates were  $16.4 \text{ mg hr}^{-1}$  and  $11.8 \text{ mg hr}^{-1}$  at  $0.20 \pm 0.01$  hPa water vapor pressure ( $54.9 \pm 5.9$  % S wrt ice).

The lower actual ice yield than calculated is most likely due to deposition losses on non-extractible surfaces of the apparatus such as the caps of the flowtube or excess tubing inside the insulated chamber. Deposition of ambient humidity during sample extraction appears to be much lower than the losses present in the experimental setup. On average, the vapor deposition efficiency—that is the percent difference between the input and exhaust water vapor concentration, presumed to be the percentage of water deposited as ice—was 46%. This value never deviated more than 8% over the course of all experiments. This is potentially a geometric constraint of the flowtube apparatus as this value did not appear to change with temperature, flow rate, nor experiment time.

The size of any individual crystal was too small to reliably determine crystal morphology with nondestructive methods as the entire crystal yield was thinly coated over the entire interior surface of the flowtube (approximately  $785 \text{ cm}^2$ ). This produced an ice coating that was typically less than  $1 \text{ mg cm}^{-2}$  and often not evenly distributed across the surface of the flowtube. While true morphology could not rigorously be determined, nucleation sites where crystal growth was quicker along with areas with needle-like structures were observed.

### 3.2 Ice-Gas Partitioning Coefficients

To establish background signal during uptake experiments, ice crystals were grown from pure LC/MS grade water in three separate experiments at  $-20$  °C without organic gases. The signals in the ice blanks and clean



denuder extract were in the same range as analytical blanks, which were all below detection limits. This demonstrates that no measurable contamination occurred during crystal growth or sample extraction.

At  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $3.949 \times 10^{-3}\text{ K}^{-1}$ ), all compounds showed a  $K < 1$ . At lower temperatures, the  $K$  for all compounds increased except for MVK. This matches the expected behavior for exothermic deposition processes. Table 1 shows the calculated values for  $K$  at each temperature while Figure 2 plots these values against each other as a van't Hoff plot. Values of  $K > 1$  or  $\ln(K) > 0$  indicate net uptake of the compound into the ice phase. Conversely, values of  $K < 1$  or  $\ln(K) < 0$  indicate negligible uptake and that the compound favors remaining in the gas phase. At  $-30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $4.112 \times 10^{-3}\text{ K}^{-1}$ ), formaldehyde is favorable to deposit to the ice phase while acetaldehyde reaches conditions where  $K$  is close to 1 and the amount deposited to the ice phase and that remaining in the vapor phase are roughly equal. While formaldehyde is still mainly present in the gas phase at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $3.949 \times 10^{-3}\text{ K}^{-1}$ ), deposition of formaldehyde in the ice phase is favored from about  $-30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $4.112 \times 10^{-3}\text{ K}^{-1}$ ), while at this temperature acetaldehyde reaches conditions where  $K$  is close to 1 and thus the amount deposited in the ice phase and the amount remaining in the gas phase are approximately equal. At  $-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $4.288 \times 10^{-3}\text{ K}^{-1}$ ), glyoxal and diacetyl also approach the point where  $K$  is approximately equal to 1, while formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, acetone, and propionaldehyde preferentially deposit in the ice phase. Formaldehyde is the only species, however, that strongly favors the ice phase with a  $K$  value in the order of  $10^2$ , while the other values are still around  $10^0$  or far below. Formaldehyde is thought to be the main source of OH radicals in the upper troposphere (Cooke et al., 2010; Fried et al., 2016). It then is likely that this ice uptake could be a significant influence on OH radical formation in the upper troposphere.

**Table 1. Average Ice-gas partitioning coefficients from uptake experiments at different temperatures**

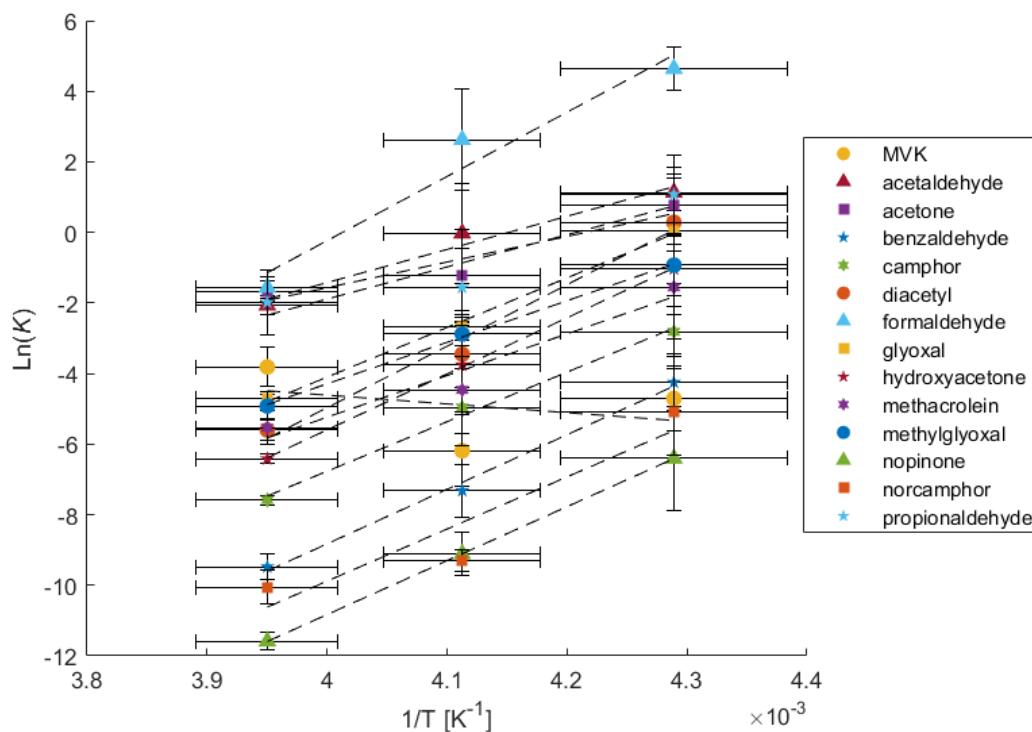
|                | $K$ at $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ | $K$ at $-30\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ | $K$ at $-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ |
|----------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| MVK            | $(2.21 \pm 1.23) \times 10^{-2}$     | $(2.05 \pm 2.08) \times 10^{-3}$     | $(9.01 \pm 8.26) \times 10^{-3}$     |
| Acetaldehyde   | $(1.27 \pm 0.35) \times 10^{-1}$     | $0.98 \pm 1.37$                      | $3.10 \pm 1.62$                      |
| Acetone        | $(1.87 \pm 0.54) \times 10^{-1}$     | $(2.92 \pm 3.84) \times 10^{-1}$     | $2.14 \pm 2.36$                      |
| Benzaldehyde   | $(7.68 \pm 2.86) \times 10^{-5}$     | $(6.64 \pm 4.98) \times 10^{-4}$     | $(1.43 \pm 1.14) \times 10^{-2}$     |
| Camphor        | $(5.08 \pm 0.70) \times 10^{-4}$     | $(6.99 \pm 7.67) \times 10^{-3}$     | $(5.97 \pm 4.25) \times 10^{-2}$     |
| Diacetyl       | $(3.69 \pm 1.13) \times 10^{-3}$     | $(3.17 \pm 2.94) \times 10^{-2}$     | $1.33 \pm 1.10$                      |
| Formaldehyde   | $(2.10 \pm 0.62) \times 10^{-1}$     | $(1.38 \pm 1.98) \times 10^1$        | $(1.03 \pm 0.63) \times 10^2$        |
| Glyoxal        | $(9.01 \pm 1.22) \times 10^{-3}$     | $(6.78 \pm 2.45) \times 10^{-2}$     | $1.05 \pm 1.54$                      |
| Hydroxyacetone | $(1.64 \pm 0.23) \times 10^{-3}$     | $(2.34 \pm 3.12) \times 10^{-2}$     | $(3.55 \pm 4.63) \times 10^{-1}$     |
| Methacrolein   | $(3.94 \pm 1.89) \times 10^{-3}$     | $(1.15 \pm 1.43) \times 10^{-2}$     | $(2.10 \pm 3.06) \times 10^{-1}$     |
| Methylglyoxal  | $(7.29 \pm 2.99) \times 10^{-3}$     | $(5.61 \pm 3.65) \times 10^{-2}$     | $(3.95 \pm 3.40) \times 10^{-1}$     |



|                 |                                  |                                  |                                  |
|-----------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| Nopinone        | $(9.28 \pm 2.39) \times 10^{-6}$ | $(1.10 \pm 0.67) \times 10^{-4}$ | $(1.65 \pm 2.44) \times 10^{-3}$ |
| Norcamphor      | $(4.32 \pm 2.07) \times 10^{-5}$ | $(9.05 \pm 2.72) \times 10^{-5}$ | $(6.15 \pm 7.59) \times 10^{-3}$ |
| Propionaldehyde | $(1.38 \pm 1.25) \times 10^{-1}$ | $(2.11 \pm 2.30) \times 10^{-1}$ | $2.93 \pm 3.23$                  |

Every measured species except for MVK displays a strong correlation of  $\ln(K)$  with inverse temperature  
350 and can likely be exclusively described by thermodynamic sorption. Furthermore, the uptake of these species can  
almost exclusively be attributed to codeposition during crystal growth as sorption on nongrowing crystals has been  
demonstrated to be insignificant or completely reversible for almost all chemical species studied. This specifically  
includes acetone, acetaldehyde, formaldehyde, and benzaldehyde (Fries et al., 2006; Hudson et al., 2002; Roth et al.,  
2004; Winkler et al., 2002). MVK however shows a weak negative trend with inverse temperature with a  
355 nonsignificant correlation.

This observation of strong correlations with inverse temperature could indicate that  $K$  is controlled by  
transport, specifically if analyte transport is limited by accommodation at the ice-air interface (Davidovits et al.,  
2006; Jayne et al., 1991). The absence of this correlation for MVK complicates this view. However, this could be  
explained by kinetic control resulting from transport phenomena occurring in either the gas or solid phases, i.e.  
360 processes that change the rates of transport of MVK relative to water rather than a  $K$  that is controlled by an  
equilibria established between MVK and water. However, without sufficient evidence for a mechanism of kinetically  
controlled transport, the measurements of  $K$  here will be interpreted using equilibrium thermodynamics.



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**Figure 2.** Van't Hoff plot of inverse temperature ( $K^{-1}$ ) against the natural log of the calculated partitioning coefficient  $K$  (unitless)

### 370 3.3 Thermodynamic Results

Tables 2 and 3 apply the thermodynamic analysis from Eqs. 7 and 8 to the data given in Table 1 and the linear regressions seen in Figure 1. Table 3 contains the slopes, intercepts, and regression coefficients ( $r^2$ ) for the linear regressions in Figure 1 as well as the calculated uptake enthalpy ( $\Delta H$ ) and uptake entropy ( $\Delta S$ ) produced by Eq. 8. Table 2 provides the  $\Delta G$  values produced by applying Eq. 7 to the partitioning coefficients given in Table 1. In Table 2, a  $\Delta G > 0$  indicates unfavorable uptake of the species into the ice phase while  $\Delta G < 0$  indicates favorable uptake into the ice phase. At  $-20$  °C, it is not favorable for uptake into the ice phase to occur for any species. At  $-30$  °C, it is thermodynamically favorable for formaldehyde to be taken into the ice phase. At  $-40$  °C, glyoxal, diacetyl, formaldehyde, acetaldehyde, acetone, and propionaldehyde are thermodynamically favorable to be taken into the ice





380 phase. Interpolating for these species, it becomes favorable to deposit acetaldehyde, acetone, and propionaldehyde  
 into the ice phase between  $-32\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $-35\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  while formaldehyde begins to deposit at  $-24.3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Both glyoxal and  
 diacetyl deposit at approximately  $-40\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Since cirrus clouds often can occur at temperatures such as  $-60\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  
 lower, this data implies that uptake at those temperatures could significantly affect the availability of these species.  
 With these carbonyls being the typical source of atmospheric OH radicals, this would significantly reduce the  
 385 availability of OH radicals within cirrus clouds.

The other species—MVK, benzaldehyde, camphor, hydroxyacetone, methacrolein, methylglyoxal,  
 nopinone, and norcamphor—were unfavorable to deposit into the ice phase under any of the conditions studied here.  
 Extrapolating based on the linear regression in Table 3, the estimated temperature below which it is favorable to  
 deposit the species (excepting MVK) is presented in Table 2. For these species, they would presumably become  
 390 favorable to deposit into the ice phase within the range of  $-43$  to  $-61\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ , which is within the natural range for cirrus  
 clouds. With MVK having both a poor regression ( $r^2 = 0.1235$ ) and nonexothermic behavior, the temperature at  
 which  $\Delta G = 0$  cannot be meaningfully extrapolated.

**Table 2. Calculated  $\Delta G$  of uptake at different temperatures.**

| Temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) | $\Delta G$ ( $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) |        |        | Calculated $T$ where $\Delta G = 0$<br>( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) |
|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--------|--------|---|
|                                    | $-20$                               | $-30$  | $-40$  |   |
| MVK                                | 8.0                                 | 12.5   | 9.1    | –   |
| Acetaldehyde                       | 4.3                                 | 0.1    | $-2.2$ | $-32.2$   |
| Acetone                            | 3.5                                 | 2.5    | $-1.5$ | $-35.4$   |
| Benzaldehyde                       | 19.9                                | 14.8   | 8.2    | $-54.3$   |
| Camphor                            | 16.0                                | 10.0   | 5.5    | $-49.9$   |
| Diacetyl                           | 11.8                                | 7.0    | $-0.6$ | $-39.6$   |
| Formaldehyde                       | 3.3                                 | $-5.3$ | $-9.0$ | $-24.3$   |
| Glyoxal                            | 9.9                                 | 5.4    | $-0.1$ | $-40.1$   |
| Hydroxyacetone                     | 13.5                                | 7.6    | 2.0    | $-43.4$   |
| Methacrolein                       | 11.7                                | 9.0    | 3.0    | $-47.3$   |
| Methylglyoxal                      | 10.4                                | 5.8    | 1.8    | $-43.9$   |



|                 |      |      |      |       |
|-----------------|------|------|------|-------|
| Nopinone        | 24.4 | 18.4 | 12.4 | -60.7 |
| Norcamphor      | 21.2 | 18.8 | 9.9  | -56.5 |
| Propionaldehyde | 4.2  | 3.1  | -2.1 | -34.8 |

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**Table 3. Slopes ( $\Delta H/R$ ), intercepts ( $\Delta S/R$ ), and regression coefficients ( $r^2$ ) of regression lines from Figure 1, calculated uptake enthalpy ( $\Delta H$ ), and uptake entropy ( $\Delta S$ ).**

|                 | $-\Delta H/R$ (K) | $\Delta S/R$ | $r^2$  | $\Delta H$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> ) | $\Delta S$ (J mol <sup>-1</sup> K <sup>-1</sup> ) |
|-----------------|-------------------|--------------|--------|------------------------------------|---|
| MVK             | -2486.8           | 5.33         | 0.1235 | 20.68                              | 44.4  |
| Acetaldehyde    | 9392.4            | -38.99       | 0.9672 | -78.09                             | -324.2  |
| Acetone         | 7256.3            | -30.59       | 0.8972 | -60.33                             | -254.4  |
| Benzaldehyde    | 15452.5           | -70.64       | 0.9941 | -128.48                            | -587.3  |
| Camphor         | 14040.3           | -62.93       | 0.9934 | -116.74                            | -523.2  |
| Diacetyl        | 17426.7           | -74.67       | 0.9830 | -144.89                            | -620.9  |
| Formaldehyde    | 18197.2           | -73.02       | 0.9508 | -151.30                            | -607.1  |
| Glyoxal         | 14049.0           | -60.30       | 0.9960 | -116.81                            | -501.3  |
| Hydroxyacetone  | 15872.3           | -69.09       | 0.9997 | -131.97                            | -574.4  |
| Methacrolein    | 11804.2           | -52.45       | 0.9450 | -98.15                             | -436.1  |
| Methylglyoxal   | 11766.5           | -51.36       | 0.9987 | -97.83                             | -427.0  |
| Nopinone        | 15285.4           | -71.97       | 1.0000 | -127.09                            | -598.4  |
| Norcamphor      | 14765.6           | -68.95       | 0.8752 | -122.77                            | -573.2  |
| Propionaldehyde | 9111.8            | -38.34       | 0.8690 | -75.76                             | -318.7  |

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All linear regressions calculated in Table 3 except for MVK have  $r^2$  greater than 0.86 which indicate good linearity. The weakest regressions include norcamphor, propionaldehyde, and acetone which are between 0.869 and 0.897 while all the other regressions are above 0.945; those above 0.993 are benzaldehyde, camphor, glyoxal, hydroxyacetone, methylglyoxal, and nopinone. It can then be concluded that the ice-gas partitioning of all the species studied here except for MVK can be explained by the thermodynamic parameters of bulk uptake. The



405 calculated  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  are then accurate descriptions of the thermodynamic process for these species' uptake in the ice phase.  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  are negative for all species except MVK and are within the ranges of  $-60$  to  $-151$   $\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$  and  $-254$  to  $-621$   $\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$  respectively. These values indicate that at increasingly colder temperatures the uptake of all these species becomes more efficient and uptake decreases at warmer temperatures.

For MVK, since the linearity of the regression is poor, thermodynamic discussion of its measured  
410 partitioning coefficients is limited. Taking the calculated  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  at face value suggests that MVK behaves endothermically, and that uptake decreases at colder temperatures. This positive correlation with temperature has also been seen in the uptake of  $\text{C}_1$ – $\text{C}_4$ -alkanols (Huffman and Snider, 2004), which is contributed to weakened water-water bonding when incorporated into ice due to supposed hydrogen bonding. MVK as a ketone is a hydrogen bond acceptor, as are the other ketones and aldehydes in this study, so this weak correlation is unlikely related to  
415 hydrogen bonding effects. More importantly, MVK is demonstrated to efficiently undergo functionalization and oligomerization in the aqueous phase through photooxidation (Renard et al., 2014). It is then a possibility that this photodegradation process is the main cause of the weak correlation that MVK has with inverse temperature. However, other similar compounds such as glyoxal and methacrolein also have demonstrated efficient functionalization and oligomerization through photooxidation but they do not exhibit the same poor regression as  
420 MVK.

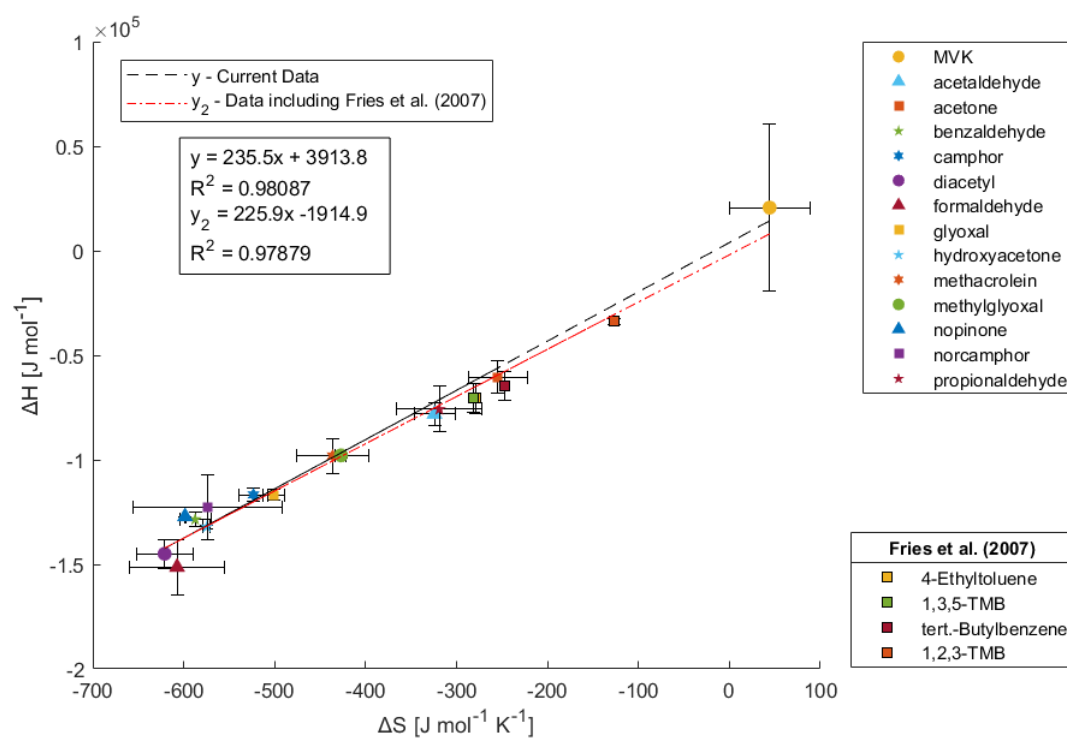
### 3.4 Entropy-Enthalpy Compensation

Plotting the calculated  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$ , as seen in Figure 3, demonstrates an apparent entropy-enthalpy  
425 compensation (EEC) effect, where  $\Delta H$  scales proportionately with  $\Delta S$ . This relationship appears to also extend to the calculated  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  for MVK. This form of linear correlation between  $\Delta S$  and  $\Delta H$ , where it arises for a series of homologous compounds employed in a process, is referred to as the strong form of EEC (Sharp, 2001). This compensation effect appears to have good linearity with an  $r^2$  of 0.9809 with no noticeable outliers with a compensation temperature (i.e. slope;  $T_c = d\Delta H/d\Delta S$ ) of 235.5 K. EEC however has been known to arise  
430 artifactually with high  $r^2$  and is often controversial (Grunwald and Steel, 1995; Krug et al., 1976; Leffler, 1955; Leung et al., 2008; Liu and Guo, 2001; Moulik et al., 2019; Pan et al., 2015; Sharp, 2001). This is because methods such as van't Hoff analysis are indirect and do not measure  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  independently. Thus, for measurements on a



limited temperature range, true observation of  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  can be obscured by trivial correlation arising from larger errors in determining  $\Delta H$  than  $\Delta G$  rather than some extra-thermodynamic mechanism of EEC (Sharp, 2001).

435 Additionally, the assumption in van't Hoff analysis that  $\Delta H^\circ$  is constant (i.e., the heat capacity change is negligible) may be invalid (Leung et al., 2008). Therefore, it is critical to evaluate EEC occurrence through statistical methods. For brevity, many of the specifics of this analysis has been moved to the Supplementary Materials under Section S1. The most relevant aspects and conclusions are presented here.



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Figure 3. Enthalpy versus entropy plot using the  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta S$  determined from the Van 't Hoff plots in Figure 2

To rigorously investigate EEC, the simple statistical verification of EEC provided by Griessen and Dam  
 445 (2021) is applied to this data. The calculated dimensionless coalescence location parameter and Compensation



Quality Factor pair ( $k$ ,  $CQF$ ) for this data is  $(-0.278, 0.062)$ ; which when plotted on Griessen and Dam's confidence contours, lies outside the 99% confidence contour for  $n = 12$  (This dataset is  $n = 14$ ). This indicates that there is 99% confidence that the EEC seen here is not of statistical origin. For good measure, if the data from Fries et al. (2007) is included in the ( $k$ ,  $CQF$ ) calculation, the calculated ( $k$ ,  $CQF$ ) pair is  $(-1.264, 0.205)$  and lies even further from the  
450 99% confidence contour for  $n = 12$  (This dataset is  $n = 18$ ). From this statistical analysis, it can then be rigorously stated that the EEC seen in ice-gas partitioning is not artifactual in origin and likely has an extra-thermodynamic mechanism.

While an initial explanation of this mechanism might stem from a discussion on specific functional group-driven interactions, the appearance of this EEC effect includes aromatic hydrocarbons in addition to the ketones and  
455 aldehydes studied here. This could indicate that instead there may be weak, nonspecific supramolecular interactions. A few such explanations for EEC that are applicable to ice-gas equilibrium have been discussed in literature. Firstly, EEC due to solvation effects (i.e. solvent reorganization) are commonly discussed (Dragan et al., 2017; Leung et al., 2008; Lumry and Rajender, 1970; Pan et al., 2015). These discussions often center around the concept that any process that changes the free volume of nearby liquid water is inherently compensatory due to "structure making"  
460 and "structure breaking" of hydration shells. This explanation of EEC for ice-gas partitioning during depositional ice growth implies a surface liquid layer or quasi-liquid layer behavior. Indeed, there is already evidence for this as Huffman and Snider (2004) observe that at temperatures colder than approximately  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  there is overlap with models describing uptake into a surface liquid layer.

Regardless of the specific mechanism of the EEC in this system, its presence does support (but does not  
465 necessarily prove) that there is a single source of additivity for the series of compounds studied (Lumry, 1995). Contrarily, there are also those who believe that EEC is not explainable and that it is an arbitrary phenomenon that arises from narrow free energy ranges (Moulik et al., 2019).

### 3.5 Partitioning Coefficients versus Heat of Vaporization and Molar Mass

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The values for  $K$  and  $\ln K$  at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  were regressed with several physiochemical properties, specifically molar mass (MM), HPLC retention time (RT), vapor pressure ( $P_{\text{vap}}$  at  $25^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), heat of vaporization ( $\Delta H_{\text{vap}}^{\circ}$ ) (Chickos et al.,



1995), van der Waals volume (Zhao et al., 2003), and Henry solubility (Sander, 2023). These regressions were also made for  $K$  and  $\ln K$  at  $-30$  and  $-40$  °C, however all the notable trends are the same. Further, regressions were made  
475 with uptake  $\Delta H$  and  $\Delta G$ , however the only significant correlations were from  $\ln K$  against  $\ln P_{vap}$ , MM,  $\Delta H_{vap}^0$ , and van der Waals volume ( $n = 14$ ,  $r^2 = 0.749, 0.737, 0.711, 0.702$  respectively).  $\ln P_{vap}$  positively correlates while the rest of these properties all correlate negatively with  $\ln K$ , indicating a relationship where larger compounds have lower uptake into ice and higher vapor pressures indicate more uptake. These correlations for MM and  $\Delta H_{vap}^0$  at  $-20$  °C are displayed in Figure 4 while the same for  $-30$  and  $-40$  °C are provided in the Supplemental Material as Figures  
480 S3 and S4. The higher  $r^2$  for the regression against MM suggests that molecular size is the main contributor for uptake of carbonyls as opposed to solubility or hydrogen bonding potential. The ability for ketones and aldehydes to hydrogen bond is limited as they are only capable of being bond acceptors. If hydrogen bonding between analyte and water played a significant role in the uptake process, then it would be expected that Henry solubilities would be more relevant contributors. Since carbonyls are unable to form hydrogen bonds between themselves, it's likely that  
485 the correlation from  $\Delta H_{vap}^0$  is driven mostly from molecular size, as  $\Delta H_{vap}^0$  is a property describing a pure substance. In this case, MM and  $\Delta H_{vap}^0$  positively correlate with an  $r^2$  of 0.746 so their similar regressions are proxies of each other. Further, the residuals of the regressions for both properties are very similar. Almost all compounds stay on the same side of both regressions, i.e. few compounds change between positive and negative residuals. The exceptions to this are MVK, methylglyoxal, and hydroxyacetone. MM and van der Waals volume also positively correlate with  
490 an  $r^2$  of 0.987, so van der Waals volume is considered a proxy for MM.  $\ln P_{vap}$  however negatively correlates with MM with an  $r^2$  of 0.778, so  $\ln P_{vap}$  can also be considered a collinear factor to MM.

The negative relationship of uptake with molecular size and positive relationship with vapor pressure is a unique finding that may seem counterintuitive if not considering inclusion into the ice lattice structure. One might expect that compounds with a higher affinity for the gas phase will remain in the gas phase and therefore have lower  
495 uptake coefficients. However, the reverse is observed. Compounds with higher vapor pressures and lower masses are more readily taken into the ice phase. If in order to be taken into the ice phase, a compound must be incorporated into the ice crystal lattice structure, then this trend becomes more reasonable. Smaller compounds may induce less deviation in lattice structure relative to the preferred ice crystal structure. It may then be energetically less favorable for a larger compound to fit into the ice crystal as it forces a larger crystallographic defect. This trend might not be  
500 expected if analytes are phase separated from the ice crystal in grain boundaries. This trend has been similarly



hypothesized by Jost et al. (2017) for rime growth ice, but recent studies have not found this trend in rime growth ice nor bulk phase liquid freezing (Borchers et al., 2024; Gautam et al., 2024; Seymore et al., 2024). Huffman and Snider (2004) did not observe any specific dependence of uptake on compound saturation partial pressure nor molecular mass for acetone, toluene, or the C<sub>1</sub>–C<sub>3</sub> alkanols, but they observed a similar negative correlation with  $\Delta H_{vap}^0$  as also seen here. Fries et al. (2007) did not observe any trends between the physical properties of aromatic hydrocarbons and their uptake.

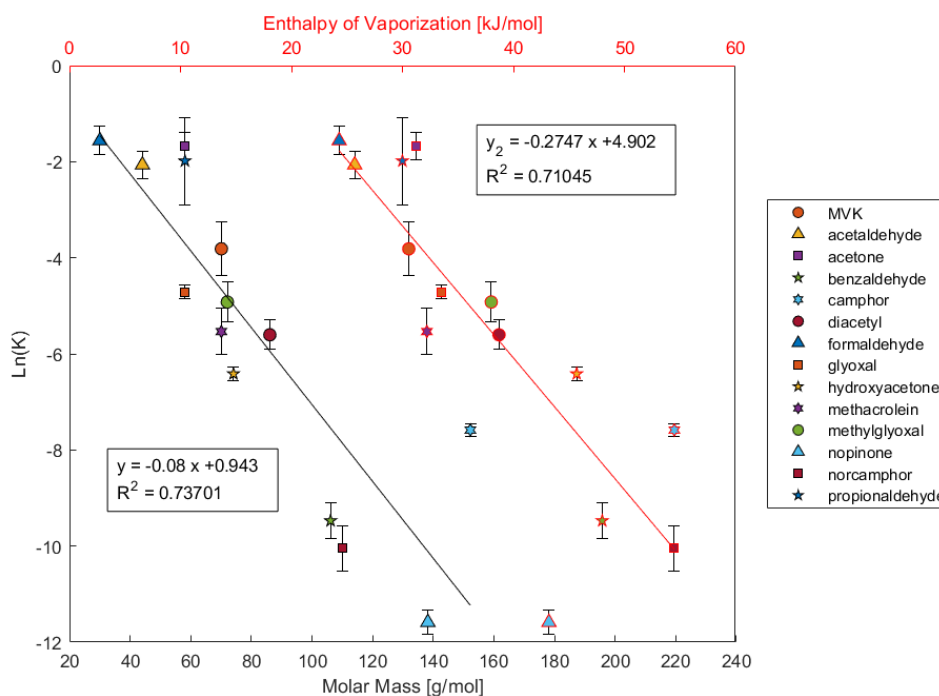


Figure 4. Scatterplot of  $\ln(K)$  at  $-20\text{ °C}$  versus the heat of vaporization (red line) and molar mass (black line).

#### 510 4 Conclusions

The uptake of carbonyls by ice crystals grown by deposition was studied at temperatures between  $-20\text{ °C}$  and  $-40\text{ °C}$ . Ice was grown from the vapor phase in the presence of gas phase carbonyls using a flowtube apparatus where ice saturation was controlled for a realistic saturation prevalent in natural cirrus clouds. Uptake of the



carbonyl compounds from the gas phase during crystal growth was observed. Performing this experiment at  
515 different temperatures allowed for the entropy and enthalpy of uptake to be determined. A linear correlation between  
 $\Delta S$  and  $\Delta H$  arose which was statistically validated and determined with 99% confidence that the EEC seen is not a  
statistical artifact. This compensation behavior could be an indication of a surface liquid layer or quasi-liquid layer  
behavior involved in this process; or it could also indicate a single dominant influence on a compound's uptake. The  
most significant chemical properties correlated with uptake were identified to be molecular size and vapor pressure.  
520 Their relationship to uptake is indicative of incorporation into the ice crystal structure, as smaller compounds have  
higher observed uptakes.

In agreement with previous studies, these results indicate that deposition into the ice phase is a possible  
uptake process for organic compounds in cirrus clouds. Since ice growth in the troposphere at low temperatures is a  
major contributor to precipitation, in-cloud scavenging is a plausible explanation for the occurrence of organics in  
525 fresh snow (Roth et al., 2004; Su et al., 2021). Therefore, interactions of ice and organic compounds can influence  
atmospheric transport and removal of those compounds from the atmosphere by deposition. The partitioning  
coefficients observed here are however below,—by at least 3 orders of magnitude—the  $10 \text{ mol m}^{-3} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  threshold  
from Crutzen and Lawrence (2000) to be considered a substantial atmospheric removal process. For reference, the  
partitioning coefficients reported here can be converted from dimensionless coefficients to  $\text{mol m}^{-3} \text{ Pa}^{-1}$  by dividing  
530 by  $RT$ . Further, the uptake coefficients for carbonyls are on average smaller than those for aromatic hydrocarbons  
studied by (Fries et al., 2007), which have already been estimated to be removed primarily by photochemical  
processes rather than ice phase scavenging. While this removal process cannot be considered substantial in terms of  
mass transport, it may be relevant as an influence on vertical tracer transport.

These measurements are exclusively a description of the gas to ice solid solution equilibrium and neglect  
535 investigation of gas to liquid or liquid to ice equilibrium. These partitioning coefficients do not directly describe  
whether a compound is actually incorporated into the ice crystal lattice or if it phase separates into crystal grain  
boundaries, but only its uptake into the bulk phase. However, the negative correlation of molecular size and uptake  
may suggest incorporation into the ice crystal lattice or void space. It is also difficult to say if this data describes  
uptake into a liquid solution phase that coexists with ice, but the observed compensation effect may insinuate its





540 presence. While the measurements here are for multicomponent mixtures of compounds, single component uptake is likely the same, which is also supported by Huffman and Snider (2004).

Further investigation to determine the contribution of liquid layer influence should focus on measuring on ice-specific surface area and the volume of solution associated with the liquid layer. Additionally, similar experiments with other families of compounds are required to better understand the root of the compensation effect  
545 seen here. Crystallographic analysis of this data may also yield more information about the ice uptake process. With more investigation to reveal the main contributors of additivity, it seems possible that the EEC seen here could be used to help model the uptake process with a significant degree of accuracy.

#### **Acknowledgements**

This work was funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) – TRR 301 –  
550 Project-ID 428312742.

This work was supported by the Max Planck Graduate Center with the Johannes Gutenberg University of Mainz (MPGC) as well as by internal funding from the Max Planck Institute for Chemistry (MPIC). We would also like to acknowledge the mechanical workshop of the Johannes Gutenberg University Institute of Atmospheric Physics (JGU-IPA) and the glass workshop of the Max Planck Institute for Polymer Research (MPIP) for their technical  
555 expertise and contributions.

Special thanks to Jan Wallner for his contributions testing the experimental setup.

#### **Author Contributions**

JS, MS, AT, SM participated in designing the experiments; JS, AT, SM participated in constructing the experimental apparatus; JS prepared the solutions for experiments, performed the experiments, and collected the samples; JS, CB  
560 conducted the analytical measurements; JS analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript draft; JS, MS, AT, CB, TH reviewed and edited the manuscript.

#### **Competing Interests**

The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests



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