Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss., 12, 19089–19133, 2012 www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/12/19089/2012/ doi:10.5194/acpd-12-19089-2012 © Author(s) 2012. CC Attribution 3.0 License.



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# Atmospheric inorganic nitrogen input via dry, wet, and sea fog deposition to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean

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Received: 2 July 2012 - Accepted: 23 July 2012 - Published: 2 August 2012

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Published by Copernicus Publications on behalf of the European Geosciences Union.

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# Abstract

Aerosol, rainwater, and sea fog water samples were collected during the cruise conducted over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean in the summer of 2008, in order to estimate dry, wet, and sea fog deposition fluxes of atmospheric inorganic nitrogen (N). During sea fog events, mean number densities of particles with diameter larger 5 than 0.5 µm decreased by 12–78%, suggesting that particles with diameters larger than 0.5 µm could act preferentially as condensation nuclei (CN) for sea fog droplets. Mean concentrations of nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), methanesulfonic acid (MSA), and non sea-salt sulfate (nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) in sea fog water were higher than those in rainwater, whereas those of ammonium  $(NH_4^+)$  in both sea fog water and rainwater were similar. These results 10 reveals that sea fog scavenged NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and biogenic sulfur species more efficiently than rain. Mean dry, wet, and sea fog deposition fluxes for atmospheric total inorganic N (TIN; i.e.  $NH_4^+ + NO_3^-$ ) over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean were estimated to be  $4.9 \pm 2.6 \,\mu\text{molm}^{-2} d^{-1}$ ,  $33 \pm 47 \,\mu\text{molm}^{-2} d^{-1}$ , and  $7.8 \pm 8.7 \,\mu\text{molm}^{-2} d^{-1}$ , respectively. While NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was the dominant inorganic N species in dry and sea fog deposition, inorganic N supplied to surface waters by wet deposition was predominantly by  $NH_{4}^{+}$ . The contribution of dry, wet, and sea fog deposition to total deposition flux for TIN  $(46 \pm 48 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{m}^{-2}\,\text{d}^{-1})$  were 11 %, 72 %, and 17 %, respectively, suggesting that ignoring sea fog deposition would lead to underestimate of the total influx of atmospheric inorganic N into the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean, especially in summer pe-20 riods.

#### 1 Introduction

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Atmospheric transport of particulate matter from the continents to the oceans is well recognized as a major pathway for supply of natural and anthropogenic materials to open ocean surface waters, including nutrients (Duce et al., 1991; Jickells, 1995). Previous studies have highlighted the significance of the atmosphere as a pathway for





transport of essential nutrients for biological growth such as nitrogen (N), from continents to marine surface waters and its critical role in oceanic biogeochemical cycling (e.g. Duce et al., 1991, 2008; Prospero et al., 1996; Paerl, 1997; Galloway et al., 2004; Dentener et al., 2006; Baker et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2011; Jung et al., 2011).

- <sup>5</sup> While numerous studies have dealt with the input of nutrients via atmospheric deposition, especially dry and wet deposition, relatively little is known about the deposition flux of atmospheric constituent by fog (Lange et al., 2003). Scavenging processes of water-soluble gases (e.g. HNO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>) and aerosols in the atmosphere by fog events are determined by the properties of ionic compositions in fog water and
- <sup>10</sup> by the growth rate of fog droplets during fog events (Aikawa et al., 2007). The chemical compositions of the particles acting as condensation nuclei (CN) determine the initial compositions of the fog droplets, which can be further altered by uptake of watersoluble gases and by aqueous phase chemical reactions (Sasakawa et al., 2003; Raja et al., 2008). In fog, the condensation of water vapor on pre-existent particles in the
- <sup>15</sup> boundary layer shifts the aerosol size distribution towards larger sizes and accelerates their removal from the atmosphere (Jacob et al., 1984; Sasakawa et al., 2003; Herckes et al., 2007; Li et al., 2011). The deposition of fog can contribute significantly to the hydrologic, pollutant, and nutrient cycles in coastal and mountainous regions, since it is an important transfer process for water and various inorganic and organic substances
- from the atmosphere to the biosphere (Lovett et al., 1982; Jacob et al., 1984; Collett et al., 2001; Zhang and Anastasio, 2001; Klemm and Wrzesinsky, 2007). However, quantifying fog deposition flux for atmospheric nutrient or pollutant and assessing its impact are still a challenge in atmospheric science and ecosystem research (Klemm and Wrzesinsky, 2007).
- <sup>25</sup> Considerable effort has been devoted to investigating the chemical and physical properties of fog in valleys, mountains, and urban areas (e.g. Collett et al., 2001, 2002; Burkard et al., 2002; Moore et al., 2004; Lu et al., 2010; Li et al., 2011). However, sea fog has not been extensively investigated (e.g. Sasakawa and Uematsu, 2002, 2005; Sasakawa et al., 2003); although it may stimulate phytoplankton growth over the





oceanic regions where sea fog occurs frequently and atmospheric nutrients derived from natural and anthropogenic sources are transported and/or affected (Sasakawa et al., 2003). It is therefore necessary to clarify the scavenging process of atmospheric nutrients by sea fog and to quantify their deposition flux to the sea surface.

- Rapid growth in human population and industrial activity have led to increases in the concentrations of reactive N species throughout the environment (Galloway et al., 2008). In particular, the increase in nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions in Eastern Asia has been dramatic over the last decade (Akimoto, 2003; Uno et al., 2007). The Western North Pacific receives a large influx of mineral particles and pollutants from the Asian
- <sup>10</sup> continent through atmospheric long-range transport (Uematsu et al., 1983; Gao et al., 1992; Nakamura et al., 2005; Uematsu et al., 2010). Accordingly, estimating deposition flux of atmospheric N and evaluating its impact on marine biogeochemical cycles over the Western North Pacific have become increasingly important. In addition, the sub-arctic Western North Pacific (> 40° N) has a high sea fog frequency, with a maximum
- of ~50 % during the summertime period from June to August (Wang, 1985). Nevertheless, no study has been carried out over this region to estimate atmospheric N input via dry, wet, and sea fog deposition simultaneously. This study therefore aims to (1) investigate general characteristics of sea fog, (2) estimate the fluxes of atmospheric N via dry, wet, and sea fog deposition, (3) estimate the contribution of each deposition
- <sup>20</sup> to atmospheric N input, and (4) evaluate the impact of atmospheric N deposition on the ocean marine ecosystem. In this study, we focus on ammonium  $(NH_4^+)$  and nitrate  $(NO_3^-)$  that are dominant components for N supply to the oceans (Krishnamurthy et al., 2010). The results for atmospheric inorganic N deposition from this study should be valuable for filling the data gap, especially for the atmospheric inorganic N input by sea
- <sup>25</sup> fog deposition to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean.

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#### 2 Methods

Aerosol (n = 11), rain (n = 7), and sea fog (n = 15) samples were collected over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean during Leg 1 of the KH-08-2 cruise (29 July–19 August 2008) aboard R/V *Hakuho Maru* (Fig. 1).

#### 5 2.1 Aerosol collection

A high-volume virtual impactor air sampler (AS-9, Kimoto Electric Co., Ltd.) was used to collect marine aerosols on a Teflon filter (PF040, 90 mm in diameter, Advantec). The sampler used an inertial force to separate atmospheric aerosols according to their aerodynamic diameters, which were segregated into fine ( $D < 2.5 \,\mu$ m) and coarse modes  $(D > 2.5 \mu m)$  on the same filter (Nakamura et al., 2005; Jung et al., 2011). 10 The aerosol sampler was put on the front of the upper deck (17 m a.s.l.) of the ship. A wind-sector controller was used to avoid contamination from the ship's exhaust during aerosol sampling. The wind-sector controller system was configured to allow collection of marine aerosol samples only when the relative wind directions were within plus or minus 100° relative to the ship's bow and the relative wind speeds were over 15  $1 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  during the cruise. The flow rate was approximately  $13 \text{ m}^3 \text{ h}^{-1}$  and the total sampling time was 1–3 days, representing a total sampling air volume of 310–930 m<sup>3</sup>. After sampling, the filter was stored frozen at -24 °C prior to chemical analysis. Deployment blanks (n = 3) were obtained by placing Teflon filters in the aerosol sampler for 5 min on idle systems (i.e. no airflow through the filters) and processed as other aerosol 20

samples.

During the KH-08-2 cruise, number densities of ambient particles in four size fractions of *D* > 0.3, 0.5, 1.0, and 2.0 µm were also measured continuously using an optical particle counter (KC-01D, Rion Co., Inc). Meteorological parameters (i.e. wind speed, wind direction, air temperature, sea temperature, dew point, and relative humidity) were continuously monitored by weather monitoring systems equipped on the research vessel.





# 2.2 Rainwater collection

Rainwater sampling was conducted on an event basis during the cruise. Rain samples were collected with a 36.5 cm diameter polyethylene funnel fitted to a 500 ml polyethylene bottle (Jung et al., 2011). Both the funnel and bottle were first soaked in detergent

- <sup>5</sup> (Contaminon B, Wako Pure Chemical Industries) for 24 h, then soaked in 1 N HCl for 24 h, before being rinsed at least three times with Milli-Q water (>  $18 M\Omega cm^{-1}$ ; Millipore Co.) and finally dried in a drying oven (DK 600, Yamato, Japan) prior to deployment. The rain sampler was put on the front of the upper deck of the ship, and was opened just before or as soon as possible after precipitation. During rain collection, the relative
- <sup>10</sup> wind directions were monitored. If rain occurred when the relative wind directions were outside the ranges of the wind-sector controller, the rainwater was not collected. After collection, the rain sampler was washed thoroughly with Milli-Q water and closed. The rainwater samples were immediately separated into three aliquots. Two of the aliquots were used for measurements of pH (Model 290A, Orion) and conductivity (Model 115,
- Orion), respectively. When the amount of precipitation was less than 10 ml, pH and conductivity were not measured. The pH and conductivity meters were calibrated before each measurement. Standard pH 4.01 and 7.00 buffer (Thermo Scientific) and conductivity/total dissolved solids (TDS) standard (1413 µS cm<sup>-1</sup>, Thermo Scientific) solutions were used for calibrations of the pH and conductivity meters, respectively. As the third
- <sup>20</sup> aliquot, remaining rainwater was sealed in pre-cleaned 100 ml high-density polyethylene (HDPE) bottles, and stored in a freezer at -24 °C prior to chemical analyses. Procedural blanks (n = 3) for rainwater were collected by pouring 100 ml of Milli-Q water through the clean funnel-bottle assembly. The procedural blanks were also treated as other rainwater samples.

#### 25 2.3 Sea fog water collection

Sea fog water sampling was conducted on an event basis during the cruise. A fog water sampler (FWG-400, Usui Co. Inc.) was used to collect sea fog water and put on





the front of the upper deck of the ship. The fog water sampler is composed of a net of Teflon strings (0.5 mm in diameter), a net holder and a 500 ml low-density polyethylene (LDPE) bottle. Prior to deployment, both the net and the bottle were first soaked in the detergent for 24 h, then soaked in a 1N HCl for 24 h, then rinsed at least three times with Milli-Q water and finally dried. The net of Teflon strings and the LDPE bottle were 5 set only during the sea fog occurrence and removed once sea fog event ceased. When the ship sails the sea fog occurrence area, sea fog droplets collide with the strings and drop along the strings into the 500 ml LDPE bottle beneath the strings (Sasakawa et al., 2003). After collection, sea fog water samples were immediately separated into three aliquots. Two of the aliquots were used for measurements of pH and conductivity, 10 respectively. The third aliguot was sealed in pre-cleaned 100 ml high-density polyethylene (HDPE) bottles, and stored in a freezer at -24°C prior to chemical analyses. Procedural blanks (n = 5) for sea fog water samples were collected by pouring 100 ml of Milli-Q water through the clean net-bottle assembly. The procedural blanks were also

treated as sea fog water samples.

Size distributions of sea fog droplets were measured with a fog monitor (FM-100, Droplet Measurement Technologies). The fog monitor detects the number and size of individual fog droplets with a diameter from roughly  $2 \mu m$  up to  $50 \mu m$  by the forward scattering principle, and can classify droplets in up to 40 size classes (Klemm et al., 2005). Liquid water content (LWC) for each of the 40 droplet size classes was computed

2005). Liquid water content (LWC) for each of the 40 droplet size classes was computed based on an idealized mean volume of spherical droplets with aerodynamic diameter. Total LWC was obtained from the sum of LWC for all size.

# 2.4 Chemical analysis

Aerosol, rainwater, and sea fog water samples were analyzed for major ionic and inor-<sup>25</sup> ganic N species ( $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ ) using the method described in detail elsewhere (Jung et al., 2011). Briefly, aerosol samples were ultrasonically extracted using 50 ml of Milli-Q water. The extraction solution was then filtered, as were the rainwater and sea fog water samples, through a 13-mm diameter, 0.45-µm pore-size membrane filter (PTFE





syringe filter, Millipore Co.). The filtrates of aerosol extracts, rainwater, and sea fog water samples were analyzed by ion chromatography (IC; Dionex-320, Thermo Scientific Dionex) for anions (Cl<sup>-</sup>, MSA, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) and cations (Na<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, and Ca<sup>2+</sup>). The instrumental detection limits were: Cl<sup>-</sup> 0.035 μM, MSA 0.031 μM, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>
0.1 μM, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> 0.065 μM, Na<sup>+</sup> 0.11 μM, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> 0.17 μM, K<sup>+</sup> 0.16 μM, Mg<sup>2+</sup> 0.15 μM, and Ca<sup>2+</sup> 0.16 μM.

Non sea-salt (nss-) concentrations of some ionic components were calculated by subtracting the component's sea-salt-derived (ss-) concentration from its total concentration. In this study, it was assumed that all  $Na^+$  in aerosols, rainwater and sea fog water were derived from sea-salt. Contributions from sea-salt were calculated from the  $Na^+$  concentration in aerosols, rainwater or sea fog water using the mole ratio of the component of interest to  $Na^+$  in seawater (Keene et al., 1986).

#### 2.5 Backward trajectory analysis

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Air mass backward trajectories (AMBTs) provide a better understanding of air flow
and long-range transport of aerosols. In particular, AMBTs have been used to identify the origin of primary aerosols collected far away from their source region (Chiapello et al., 1997). In this study, 7-day AMBTs were calculated from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) GDAS (Global Data Assimilation System) database using the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectories (HY-SPLIT) model (NOAA Air Resources Laboratory, http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/ hysplit4.html). AMBTs were performed at 500, 1000, and 1500 m a.g.l. Chen and Siefert (2004) reported that atmospheric aerosols may not follow the resulting trajectories because of scavenging processes and gravitational settling; however, the AMBTs provide useful background data on airstreams and the potential origins of the source of the sampled air mass.





#### 3 Results and discussion

#### 3.1 Meteorological conditions associated with sea fog occurrences

Sea fog typically occurs as a result of warm marine air advection over a region where a cold ocean current affects (Lewis et al., 2004). During the sampling period, sea fog
 occurred predominantly when the dominant wind direction was southerly and/or southwesterly and air temperature dropped to its dew point (Fig. 2). This result indicates that the warm and humid air masses form the low and middle latitudes of the North Pacific Ocean passed over the cold sea surface of the Northwestern North Pacific Ocean and they were cooled down to a saturation temperature. Sea fog events, however, did not occur when sea surface temperature was higher than air temperature, although the dominant wind direction was southerly, suggesting that the difference between the air and sea surface temperatures is a key factor controlling sea fog formation (Cho et al., 2000).

According to previous studies (Cho et al., 2000; Fu et al., 2006; Tokinaga and Xie,

- 15 2009), the difference between air and sea surface temperatures is often observed to be positive in frequent sea fog occurrence regions, since the relatively cold sea surface temperature stabilizes the lower atmosphere, making a favorable condition for sea fog formation. Therefore, the meteorological conditions during the sea fog sampling period show that advection of warm and humid air masses from the subtropical North Pacific Openan and the pacifive difference between air and approximate and approximate and the pacifive difference between air and sea surface
- Ocean and the positive difference between air and sea surface temperatures make favorable conditions for sea fog occurrence over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean.

#### 3.2 Effect of sea fog on particle number density

Temporal variations of total LWC, particle number densities for aerosols in the range of

 $_{25}$  0.3–2.0 µm, and fog droplet size distribution for each of the 40 droplet size classes during the cruise are shown in Fig. 3. The total LWC varied from < 0.2–140 mgm<sup>-3</sup>. Mean





particle number densities during non sea fog events were  $25 \pm 31 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  for aerosols in the range of  $0.3 < D < 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $2.6 \pm 3.0 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  for  $0.5 < D < 1.0 \mu\text{m}$ ,  $0.53 \pm 0.70 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ for  $1.0 < D < 2.0 \mu\text{m}$ , and  $0.17 \pm 0.27 \text{ cm}^{-3}$  for  $D > 2.0 \mu\text{m}$ . In comparison, the mean particle number densities during sea fog events decreased by 4% (mean particle number density  $24 \pm 20 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) for aerosols in the range of  $0.3 < D < 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ , 12% $(2.3 \pm 3.1 \text{ cm}^{-3})$  for  $0.5 < D < 1.0 \mu\text{m}$ , 55% ( $0.24 \pm 0.52 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) for  $1.0 < D < 2.0 \mu\text{m}$ , and 78% ( $0.038 \pm 0.091 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ ) for  $D > 2.0 \mu\text{m}$ . The differences of mean particle number densities between two periods were statistically significant (*t*-test, p < 0.05), except that for aerosols in the range of  $0.3 < D < 0.5 \mu\text{m}$ . In addition, the sea fog droplet size distributions during sea fog events were shifted towards the larger droplet sizes. These results suggest that particles with diameters larger than  $0.5 \mu\text{m}$  could act preferentially as CN for sea fog droplets (Sasakawa et al., 2003), and that the formation of liquid

as CN for sea fog droplets (Sasakawa et al., 2003), and that the formation of liquid droplets by condensation of water vapor on pre-existed particles acting as CN leads to the acceleration of particle removal from the atmosphere (Pandis and Seinfeld, 1990).

#### 15 3.3 Chemical composition of aerosols, rainwater, and sea fog water

Sea-salts (Na<sup>+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, and ss-ions) were the dominant components in aerosols, rainwater, and sea fog water, representing approximately 72%, 61%, and 86% of total ionic concentration, respectively (Fig. 4 and Table 1). In aerosols and sea fog water, the mole equivalent ratios of Cl<sup>-</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> were slightly lower than that in seawater (Table 2), suggesting that Cl<sup>-</sup> depletion occurred through the volatilization of hydrogen chloride (HCl) from sea-salt particles that became acidified by the incorporation of nitric (HNO<sub>3</sub>) and/or sulfuric (H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) acids in the marine atmosphere (Graedel and Keene, 1995; Andreae and Crutzen, 1997), and that the acidified sea-salt particles acted as CN of sea fog droplets (Sasakawa and Uematsu, 2002; Raja et al., 2008). Furthermore, the Mg<sup>2+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup>, and Ca<sup>2+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> ratios in aerosols and sea fog water were similar or slightly higher than those in seawater, suggesting that most of Mg<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup> in aerosols and sea fog water were derived from sea-salt particles.

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Two volcanoes on the Aleutians erupted during the cruise. The eruption at Okmok Volcano (53.40° N, 168.17° W) started on 12 July 2008 and ended in late August 2008 (Larsen et al., 2009; Lu and Dzurisin, 2010), and Kasatochi Volcano (52.18° N, 175.51° W) became active on 7 August 2008 (Schmale et al., 2010). During the sampling period, air masses originated from the Asian continent and the Kamchatka Peninsula, indicating that these air masses were likely affected by anthropogenic and crustal sources as well as the eruptions of two volcanoes (Fig. 5a–c).

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Unlike aerosol and sea fog water samples, the Cl<sup>-</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup>, and Ca<sup>2+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> ratios in rainwater were much higher than those in seawater (Table 2). At-<sup>10</sup> mospheric HCl are derived from sea-salt particles, volcanoes, and anthropogenic activities (e.g. fossil fuel combustion and incineration) (Graedel and Keene, 1995). Gioda et al. (2011) observed high Cl<sup>-</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> ratios in rainwater (2.2) and cloud water (3.2), collected in Puerto Rico from December 2004 to March 2007, when ash from the Soufriere Hills volcano reached the sampling site. During the collection of rainwater

- <sup>15</sup> samples, air masses originated from the Asian continent or the subtropical Western North Pacific Ocean and thereafter swept over large regions of the Korean Peninsula and/or the Japanese Islands, indicating that these air masses were most likely affected by strong anthropogenic and crustal sources rather than by the influences of two volcanoes (Fig. 5b). The high Cl<sup>-</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> ratio in rainwater thus is likely due to scaveng-
- ing of HCl derived from sea-salt particles and/or anthropogenic source by rainwater. Sasakawa and Uematsu (2002) reported that NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>/nss-Ca<sup>2+</sup> ratio in rainwater (0.53) collected over the Northwestern North Pacific from 15–29 July 1998, was two orders of magnitude lower than that in sea fog water (11), reflecting that mineral particles, such as calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>), mainly existed over higher altitudes than those where
- sea fog appeared. While sea fog occurs near the sea surface (Fu et al., 2006) and scavenges only lower atmospheric substances (Ali et al., 2004), precipitation removes the substances existing in the whole air column in and below clouds (Deboudt et al., 2004). The high Mg<sup>2+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> and Ca<sup>2+</sup>/Na<sup>+</sup> ratios in rainwater therefore suggest that most of these ionic species in rainwater were derived from other sources, such





as crustal materials and biomass burning, and that scavenging processes of aerosols by sea fog are different to those by rain.

# 3.4 The pH of rainwater and sea fog water

The pH values of rainwater and sea fog water varied from 3.5–4.5 and 3.4–5.9, with averages of 4.1  $\pm$  0.37 and 4.2  $\pm$  0.64, respectively (Table 1). Several compounds, such as H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, HCl, NH<sub>3</sub>, and CaCO<sub>3</sub>, contribute to the acid-base balance of rainwater and fog water (Millet et al., 1996).

The mean nss-Cl<sup>-</sup> concentration in rainwater was two orders of magnitude greater than those of nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Table 1), suggesting that nss-Cl<sup>-</sup> exerted a larger
influence on acidity of rainwater collected over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean. Assuming the nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and nss-Cl<sup>-</sup> in rainwater existed in the form of free acids, the expected pH of rainwater was 3.4, whereas the mean pH value measured in rainwater was 4.1. This discrepancy indicates that rainwater had experienced some neutralization. From the difference between the sum of nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, nss-Cl<sup>-</sup>, and the mean H<sup>+</sup> concentration obtained from the mean pH value, it was estimated that approximately 61 % of these acidic substances was in neutralized forms. The mean concentrations of nss-Ca<sup>2+</sup> and nss-Mg<sup>2+</sup> in rainwater were 15 times and 3.8 times higher than that of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>4</sup>, respectively (Table 1). Moreover, the mole equivalent ratios

of  $NH_4^+/nss-Ca^{2+}$  and  $NH_4^+/nss-Mg^{2+}$  in rainwater were lower than 1, suggesting that nss-Ca<sup>2+</sup> and nss-Mg<sup>2+</sup> played key roles in neutralization of rainwater acidity.

In sea fog water, nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> were the dominant acidic species (Fig. 4 and Table 1). The mole equivalent ratio of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in sea fog water was 0.57 (Table 2). This result suggests that nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> was the major component to lower the pH of sea fog, and that the pH of sea fog water was controlled by nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> derived mainly from marine biological activity than that of rainwater since mean concentrations of methane-sulfonic acid (MSA) and nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in sea fog water were an order of magnitude greater than those in rainwater (Table 1). For sea fog water, it was estimated that approximately





48 % of nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was in neutralized forms. While nss-Ca<sup>2+</sup> and nss-Mg<sup>2+</sup> were the dominant neutralization substances in rainwater,  $NH_4^+$  was the major basic component in sea fog water (Fig. 4 and Table 2), suggesting that neutralization of sea fog water was predominantly caused by  $NH_4^+$ , and that nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in sea fog water were probably in fully or partially neutralized forms, such as ammonium sulfate ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>), ammonium bisulfate (NH<sub>4</sub>HSO<sub>4</sub>) and ammonium nitrate (NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>).

# 3.5 Concentrations of $NH_4^+$ and $NO_3^-$ in aerosols, rainwater, and sea fog water

# 3.5.1 Aerosols

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Total concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in bulk (fine + coarse) aerosols ranged from 2.9– 9.8 neqm<sup>-3</sup> and 0.64–5.6 neqm<sup>-3</sup>, respectively (Fig. 6a and b). Mean concentrations of aerosol inorganic N species were  $5.6 \pm 1.9$  neqm<sup>-3</sup> for  $NH_4^+$  and  $2.5 \pm 1.4$  neqm<sup>-3</sup> for  $NO_3^-$ , accounting for ~70 % by  $NH_4^+$  and ~30 % by  $NO_3^-$  of aerosol total inorganic N (i.e. TIN =  $NH_4^+ + NO_3^-$ ) (Table 1). Ammonium is primarily associated with fine mode aerosol and produced by heterogeneous reactions involving NH<sub>3</sub> derived from intensive agricultural activity (Aneja et al., 2001), biomass burning (Andreae and Merlet, 2001) and a relatively weak marine source (Jickells et al., 2003). It is also known that  $NO_3^-$  in the marine atmosphere is predominantly associated with coarse mode aerosol as a result of a chemical reaction between HNO<sub>3</sub> derived primarily from NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from combustion processes and sea-salt (Andreae and Crutzen, 1997). Mean percentages of total aerosol concentration in the fine mode for  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  were ~ 84% and ~36 %, respectively. These values were similar to the results of Nakamura et al. (2005), who reported the size distributions of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in aerosols collected over the East

China Sea.
 During the sampling period, over a dozen sea fog events occurred and aerosol
 <sup>25</sup> samples, A03–A06 and A08–A09, were largely affected by these fog appearance. As shown in Fig. 6a and b, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, which mainly existed in coarse mode aerosols, was





more efficiently scavenged by sea fog than  $NH_4^+$ , showing that coarse particles act predominantly as CN of sea fog droplets rather than the fine particles (see Sect. 3.6). Sasakawa and Uematsu (2002) reported that mean concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in aerosols collected over the Northwestern North Pacific Ocean from 15–29 July 1998, were  $11 \pm 2.9$  neqm<sup>-3</sup> and  $3.7 \pm 2.2$  neqm<sup>-3</sup>, respectively. In comparison, the mean aerosol  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  concentrations in this study were a factor of 2 and 1.5 lower than their results, respectively. The low mean  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  concentrations in aerosols thus are likely due to strong influences of sea fog.

# 3.5.2 Rainwater

- <sup>10</sup> When sea fog and rain events occurred simultaneously, only rainwater was collected (Fig. 3). That sample was then considered as a rainwater sample (i.e. rainwater sample number 3 and 4), although the rainwater sample contains sea fog water as well as rainwater, since sea fog water is deposited by rainwater during that time. Concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in rainwater ranged from 4.1–55  $\mu$ eq l<sup>-1</sup> and 1.2–18  $\mu$ eq l<sup>-1</sup>, respectively
- <sup>15</sup> (Fig. 6c and d). Mean concentrations of inorganic N species were 25 ± 20 μeql<sup>-1</sup> for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and 7.9 ± 6.9 μeql<sup>-1</sup> for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Table 1). These values were in the range of the observed NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (1.7–67 μeql<sup>-1</sup>) and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (2.4–26 μeql<sup>-1</sup>) concentrations in rainwater collected over the Northwestern North Pacific Ocean from 15–29 July 1998 (Sasakawa and Uematsu, 2002). Inorganic N in rainwater was composed of ~77 % NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and ~23 % NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (mean values), suggesting that NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is more abundant in rainwater collected over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean, and that it is a more important inorganic N species supplied by wet deposition.

#### 3.5.3 Sea fog water

Concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in sea fog water ranged from 4.2–45  $\mu$ eq l<sup>-1</sup> and 1.8– 139  $\mu$ eq l<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Fig. 6e and f). Contributions of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  to TIN in sea fog





water were found to represent ~39 % (mean concentration  $22 \pm 13 \mu eq I^{-1}$ ) and ~61 % (mean concentration  $50 \pm 40 \mu eq I^{-1}$ ), respectively (Table 1). Sasakawa and Uematsu (2002) reported that mean NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> concentrations in sea fog water collected over the Northwestern North Pacific Ocean from 15–29 July 1998, were  $25 \pm 17 \mu eq I^{-1}$  and  $25 \pm 22 \mu eq I^{-1}$ , respectively. The mean NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> concentration observed in this study was comparable to their result; however, the mean concentration of NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> was a factor

of 2 higher than their result for  $NO_3^-$ . This different concentration is likely attributable to the duration, frequency of sea fog events, and changes in the quality of air mass.

# 3.6 Difference of scavenging process between rain and sea fog

<sup>10</sup> Mean concentrations of  $NO_3^-$ , MSA, and nss- $SO_4^{2-}$  in sea fog water were higher than those in rainwater (Tables 1 and 3), suggesting that they were more effectively scavenged by sea fog droplets with their higher surface-to-volume ratios and longer atmospheric residence times (Sasakawa and Uematsu, 2002, 2005; Gioda et al., 2011).

The sea fog water/rainwater ratio for  $NH_4^+$  was 0.88 (Table 3), suggesting that  $NH_4^+$ <sup>15</sup> was not scavenged by sea fog as efficiently as  $NO_3^-$ , MSA, and nss- $SO_4^{2-}$ . The mean  $NO_3^-$  concentration in sea fog water was 6.3 times higher than that in rainwater, whereas the mean  $NH_4^+$  concentration in sea fog water was similar to that in rainwater. Sasakawa et al. (2003) reported that coarse particles (e.g. sea-salt particles and  $NaNO_3$ ) act predominantly as CN of sea fog droplets rather than  $NH_4^+$  and nss- $SO_4^{2-}$ 

<sup>20</sup> particles, such as  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  and  $NH_4HSO_4$  since aerosol  $NH_4^+$  and nss- $SO_4^{2-}$  are largely associated with the fine mode ( $D < 2.5 \,\mu$ m) particles (Nakamura et al., 2005). In addition,  $NH_3$  readily reacts with acids in the atmosphere to form  $NH_4^+$  aerosols that can act as cloud CN (Quinn et al., 1987). In this study, it was observed that larger particles ( $D > 0.5 \,\mu$ m) preferentially became activated and the fog droplet size distribution was shifted towards the larger droplet sizes (Fig. 3), and that  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  were largely





associated with fine and coarse mode aerosols, respectively (Fig. 6a and b). Therefore,

higher  $NO_3^-$  concentration in sea fog water than in rainwater is likely due to preferential behaviors of coarse particles as CN in sea fog.

While MSA is formed exclusively from dimethylsulfide (DMS) produced by phytoplankton in the ocean, nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> has a variety of sources, including DMS oxidation,
volcanic and industrial sulfur emissions (Gondwe et al., 2003). Dimethylsulfide is emitted into the atmosphere, where it undergoes chemical transformation to eventually form gaseous (e.g. MSA and SO<sub>2</sub>) and/or particulate (e.g. MSA and nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) sulfur species (e.g. Charlson et al., 1987; Bardouki et al., 2003). Mean concentrations of MSA and nss-SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in sea fog water were 15 times and 13 times higher than those in rainwater, respectively (Tables 1 and 3). During the sampling period, SeaWiFS satellite images revealed high chlorophyll *a* levels (http://oceancolor.gsfc.nasa.gov) in the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean (see Supplement, Fig. S1). Considering sea fog occurs near the sea surface where DMS is emitted, these results suggest that sea fog scavenged biogenic sulfur species more effectively than rain (Sasakawa and Uematsu, 2005).

If aerosol particles exert the primary influence as CN of sea fog droplets, the mole equivalent ratios between aerosols and sea fog water would be similar (Sasakawa and Uematsu, 2002; Gioda et al., 2011). The mole equivalent ratio of  $NO_3^-/Na^+$  in sea fog water was higher than that in aerosols (Table 2). This result suggests that not only aerosol NO<sub>3</sub>, but also gaseous HNO<sub>3</sub> was scavenged by sea fog water. Nitric acid is 20 highly soluble in water. Once a large amount of liquid water has amassed, the gas phase HNO<sub>3</sub> is rapidly dissolved (Fahey et al., 2005). In order to estimate the fraction of gaseous HNO<sub>3</sub> scavenged by sea fog water, the  $NO_3^-/Na^+$  ratios in aerosols were compared to those in sea fog water (Fig. 7). In 8 sea fog samples, the higher  $NO_3^-/Na^+$  ratios than in aerosols were observed when air masses originated from the 25 Asian continent or from the subtropical Western North Pacific Ocean circulated around the vicinity of the Japanese Islands and thereafter reached the sea fog sampling sites (Fig. 5c). In this study, it was estimated that 25-94% (mean 74%) of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in the 8 sea fog water samples was derived from the dissolution of HNO<sub>3</sub>, suggesting that sea fog





over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean is an important removal mechanism for gas phase  $HNO_3$ . In comparison, the  $NH_4^+/Na^+$  ratios in sea fog water for all periods were lower than those in aerosols (Fig. S2), indicating that sea-salt particles exerted a greater influence on the  $NH_4^+/Na^+$  ratios in sea fog water due to condensation oc-<sup>5</sup> curred preferably on coarse particles as mentioned above.

#### 3.7 Deposition flux estimates

# 3.7.1 Dry deposition

10

Dry deposition fluxes ( $F_d$ ) were calculated from aerosol concentrations ( $C_a$ ) in the coarse (c) and fine (f) modes and dry deposition velocities ( $V_d$ ) for each size mode (Duce et al., 1991; Baker et al., 2007):

 $F_{\rm d} = C_{\rm a}^{\rm c} \times V_{\rm d}^{\rm c} + C_{\rm a}^{\rm f} \times V_{\rm d}^{\rm f} \tag{1}$ 

Here, dry deposition velocities of  $2 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for coarse mode and  $0.1 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for fine mode were used since these two values are known to be best estimates based on experimental and model studies (e.g. Duce et al., 1991; Baker et al., 2003; Nakamura et al., 2005). This estimate results in an uncertainty of a factor of 2–3 in the calculated flux since

<sup>15</sup> This estimate results in an uncertainty of a factor of 2–3 in the calculated flux, since deposition velocity includes terms for gravitational settling, impaction and diffusion of particles, all of which vary in complex functions of particle size and meteorological conditions (e.g. wind speed and relative humidity) (Duce et al., 1991).

#### 3.7.2 Wet deposition

<sup>20</sup> Wet deposition fluxes ( $F_w$ ) were estimated from the concentration of the species of interest in rainwater ( $C_r$ ) and the precipitation rate (P) (Baker et al., 2010):

 $F_{\rm w} = C_{\rm r} \times P$ 



(2)

The precipitation rate was calculated from the monthly averaged precipitation rate (mmd<sup>-1</sup>) using the CMAP model output (http://www.cdc.noaa.gov/cdc/data.cmap.html) (Xie and Arkin, 1997). Similar to estimates for dry deposition flux, the choice of precipitation rates based on limited data causes the greatest uncertainty in wet deposition

<sup>5</sup> flux estimates, particularly in the open ocean (Spokes et al., 2000). However, Baker et al. (2010 and references therein), who used the same method for estimating wet deposition flux, argued that the uncertainty arising from selection of precipitation rate is minor since the precipitation rate data agreed relatively well with other studies in terms of total rainfall amount.

#### 10 3.7.3 Sea fog deposition

Sea fog deposition fluxes ( $F_f$ ) were estimated by multiplying sea fog water flux ( $F_{fw}$ ) of each event by the concentration of the species of interest in each sea fog water sample ( $C_f$ ) (Thalmann et al., 2002):

 $F_{\rm f} = F_{\rm fw} \times C_{\rm f}$ 

<sup>15</sup> The  $F_{fw}$  was estimated by Eq. (4), where LWC( $D_p$ ) represents the mean LWC for each of the 40 droplet size classes during each sea fog event and  $V(D_p)$  indicates the deposition velocity for sea fog droplets with an aerodynamic diameter (Klemm et al., 2005). The sum of sea fog water flux for all size classes then yielded the  $F_{fw}$ .

$$F_{\rm fw} = \sum LWC(D_{\rm p}) \times V(D_{\rm p})$$

Size distribution of mean LWC for each sea fog event is shown in Fig. 8. For  $V(D_p)$ , the modeled values reported by Matsumoto et al. (2011), who calculated the deposition velocities for the particles with diameters larger than  $3 \mu m$ , were used (i.e.  $4.69 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for  $3 < D < 5 \mu m$ ,  $10.1 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for  $5 < D < 10 \mu m$ ,  $13.5 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for  $10 < D < 20 \mu m$ ,  $15.6 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for  $20 < D < 30 \mu m$  and  $19.0 \text{ cm s}^{-1}$  for  $30 < D < 50 \mu m$ ). This ambiguity in values used for sea fog deposition velocities leads to the greatest uncertainty in sea fog flux estimates.



(3)

(4)

In this study, it was assumed that all sea fog droplets measured with the fog monitor were deposited to the sea surface without changes in size distribution of LWC; however, due to evaporation and coalescence of sea fog droplets, their size and deposition velocities are subject to change, suggesting that the deposition velocities used here <sup>5</sup> leads to the uncertainty in sea fog deposition flux estimates. The fog water sampler used in this study has a 50 % efficiency collection diameter of 6 µm under flow rate  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  (Minami and Ishizaka, 1996). It is difficult, however, to calculate the precise collection efficiency of this fog sampler in this study, because the relative wind directions and the relative wind speeds change extremely with the movements of the ship (Sasakawa and Uematsu, 2005). Hence, the estimates of sea fog deposition fluxes in this study contain the uncertainties that are related to the changes in size distribution of LWC and the collection efficiency.

# 3.8 Contributions of dry, wet, and sea fog deposition to atmospheric input of nitrogen to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean

<sup>15</sup> Temporal variations of dry, wet, and sea fog deposition fluxes for NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> during the sampling period are shown in Fig. 9. The estimated dry deposition fluxes for atmospheric inorganic N species ranged from 0.67–3.1 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> for NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and from 0.62–8.6 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> for NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub>, contributing ~43 % by NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and ~57 % by NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> to the dry deposition flux for TIN. Mean dry deposition fluxes for NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> were estimated to be 1.9 ± 0.67 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> and 3.0 ± 2.2 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Although the mean concentration of total NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> in aerosols collected over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean was approximately 2 times higher than that of total NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> (Table 1), inorganic N supplied to surface waters by atmospheric dry deposition was mainly from NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> that was largely associated with coarse mode particles, since fluxes to the more rapidly (Fig. 6a and b).





Wet deposition of atmospheric inorganic N was highly variable from one event to the next depending on the concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in the precipitation as well as the frequency and amount of precipitation. Wet deposition fluxes of atmospheric inorganic N species ranged from 3.5 to 98 (mean  $25 \pm 35$ )  $\mu$ molm<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> for NH\_4^+ and from 1.0 to 32 (mean  $8.0 \pm 12$ )  $\mu$ molm<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> for NO\_3^-, accounting for ~ 77% by NH\_4^+ and ~ 23% by NO\_3^- of TIN from wet deposition flux. While NO\_3^- was the dominant inorganic N species in dry deposition, inorganic N supplied to surface waters by atmospheric wet deposition was predominantly by NH\_4^+ (72–89% of the wet deposition fluxes for TIN).

Likewise wet deposition, sea fog deposition of atmospheric inorganic N was highly variable depending on the size distribution of LWC, the amount of LWC, and the duration of sea fog event as well as the concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in the sea fog water. The estimated sea fog deposition fluxes for atmospheric inorganic N species ranged from 0.18–5.2 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and from 0.13–22 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup> for NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, contributing ~39 % by NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and ~61 % by NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to the sea fog deposition flux for TIN. Mean sea

<sup>15</sup> fog deposition fluxes for NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> were estimated to be  $2.1 \pm 1.9 \,\mu$ molm<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> and  $5.7 \pm 6.9 \,\mu$ molm<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, indicating that inorganic N supplied to surface waters by sea fog deposition was mainly by NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub>, since aerosol NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub> were scavenged more effectively by sea fog.

While dry deposition is a continuous process occurring at all times over all surfaces,
wet and sea fog deposition are highly episodic. The relative importance of dry, wet, and sea fog deposition obviously varies greatly on short time scales, and varies spatially on longer time scales with global rainfall patterns (Jickells, 2006) and trends in fog frequency (Gultepe et al., 2007). Mean total (dry + wet + sea fog) deposition flux of atmospheric TIN in the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean was estimated to
be 46 ± 48 µmol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>, with 72 % of this in the form of wet deposition (Table 4). This indicates that wet deposition plays an important role in the supply of atmospheric inorganic N to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean compared to dry and sea fog deposition, although the relative contributions are highly variable. The estimate of the





proportion of atmospheric N input via wet deposition were comparable to previously published values: the Pacific 86% (Duce et al., 1991), the Atlantic 78–85% (Baker et al., 2010), and the world oceans 71% (Duce et al., 1991).

Fog can lead to substantial N deposition if the event persists long enough (several hours) with sufficient LWC (dense fog), particularly for those formed in continental air masses (Jordan and Talbot, 2000). Although the mean contribution of sea fog deposition to total atmospheric TIN input to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean was ~ 17% (Table 4), in some cases, atmospheric TIN deposition flux via sea fog exceeded the combined dry and wet deposition flux of TIN (Fig. 9), suggesting that sea fog can deposit as much N as a high N deposited by rain event, and that sea fog is an important transfer process for atmospheric inorganic N from the marine atmosphere to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean.

# 3.9 Potential impact of atmospheric inorganic nitrogen deposition on primary production over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean

- <sup>15</sup> The potential impact of atmospheric deposition on marine ecosystems depends on the nutrient status of the receiving waters, and is related to both the total amount and ratio of atmospherically supplied nutrients and to the limiting nutrient for the existing local water column (Baker et al., 2006). It is known that NH<sup>+</sup><sub>4</sub> and NO<sup>-</sup><sub>3</sub> can be readily utilized by a variety of aquatic microorganisms (Gilbert et al., 1991). In order to evaluate the
- impact of atmospheric N on the marine ecosystem, potential primary production was estimated using the result for total deposition flux of TIN and the Redfield C/N ratio of 6.6. Assuming that phytoplankton can take up all the N coming from atmospheric deposition with no losses, and that there is no co limitation by other nutrients (i.e. P and Fe), total mean deposition flux of atmospheric TIN over the subarctic Western North Pacific
- <sup>25</sup> Ocean (46 ± 48  $\mu$ mol m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) was found to be maximally responsible for the carbon uptake of 300 ± 320  $\mu$ mol C m<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>. Elskens et al. (2008) reported that the integrated new primary production in the upper part of the euphotic zone (0–50 m) at station K2 (47° N, 161° E) in the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean from 30 July 2005 to 18 August





2005 ranged from 67–119 mgCm<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> (5.6–9.9 mmolCm<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>). Wong et al. (2002) estimated that the annual new production from the surface (upper 50 m) of the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean, which covers the sampling area of this study, to be 32.8–82.8 gCm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>. To facilitate evaluation, we have converted gCm<sup>-2</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup> units

- for the annual new production reported by Wong et al. (2002) to the μmol Cm<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup> units used in this study. Based on these, the result of this study suggests that inorganic N deposited to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean from the atmosphere can support 1.6–5.3 % of the new primary production. Atmospheric inorganic N deposition, however, could be an important N source in the ocean where sporadic atmospheric N
- deposition events caused by the transport of the continental dust affect and the supply of deep nutrient-rich water is restricted by the stratification of the surface ocean that is enhanced by global warming.

#### 4 Conclusions

The subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean (> 40° N) has a high frequency of sea
fog, with a maximum of ~50 % during the summertime period (June–August). The fog deposition is an important transfer process for atmospheric substances from the atmosphere to the biosphere. It is therefore suggested that sea fog may play a key role in supplying atmospheric nutrients to this region. Nevertheless, no study has been carried out over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean to quantify sea fog deposition
flux for atmospheric N. This is the first study to estimate atmospheric inorganic N fluxes via dry, wet, and sea fog deposition simultaneously over the subarctic Western North

- Pacific Ocean. The mean dry, wet, and sea fog deposition simultaneously over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean. The mean dry, wet, and sea fog deposition fluxes for TIN were estimated to be  $4.9 \pm 2.6 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{m}^{-2}\,\text{d}^{-1}$ ,  $33 \pm 47 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{m}^{-2}\,\text{d}^{-1}$ , and  $7.8 \pm 8.7 \,\mu\text{mol}\,\text{m}^{-2}\,\text{d}^{-1}$ , respectively. Wet deposition delivered more atmospheric inorganic N to the subarctic
- <sup>25</sup> Western North Pacific Ocean than dry and sea fog deposition, contributing ~72 % to total deposition flux for TIN ( $46 \pm 48 \,\mu$ molm<sup>-2</sup>d<sup>-1</sup>), although the relative contributions are highly variable.





The mean contribution of sea fog deposition to total deposition flux for TIN was ~ 17%. Despite the relatively lower contribution of sea fog deposition, in some cases, atmospheric inorganic N input via sea fog deposition exceeded the combined dry and wet deposition fluxes. Thus, it is suggested that sea fog can result in substantial N deposition if the event persists long enough and has sufficient LWC (dense sea fog), and that ignoring sea fog deposition would lead to underestimate of the total influx of atmospheric inorganic N into the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean, especially in summer periods.

5

A schematic diagram of atmospheric inorganic N input to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean via dry, wet, and sea fog deposition is shown in Fig. 10. In dry deposition, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> was the dominant inorganic N species, accounting for ~57 %. This reflects higher deposition velocity of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> than that of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> since NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is largely associated with coarse mode particles in the marine atmosphere. In comparison, inorganic N supplied to surface waters by atmospheric wet deposition was predominantly by NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (72–89 % of the wet deposition fluxes for TIN), suggesting that NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is more important

<sup>15</sup> (72–69 % of the wet deposition fluxes for TN), suggesting that NH<sub>4</sub> is more important inorganic N species supplied by wet deposition over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean. The contributions of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to the sea fog deposition flux for TIN were ~39 % and ~61 %, respectively, indicating that sea fog scavenged more effectively not only coarse mode particles (e.g. sea-salt particles and NaNO<sub>3</sub>) that acted as
 <sup>20</sup> CN of sea fog droplets, but also gaseous HNO<sub>3</sub>.

In this study, atmospheric inorganic N input via dry, wet, and sea fog deposition to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean was estimated by simplified calculation (e.g. using assumption for sea fog water flux) during limited sampling period in the summer, but these results contributed to the understanding of atmospheric N cycle

in open ocean environment. Further studies, however, are required to understand the biogeochemical cycles of N more clearly and should focus on long-term monitoring of atmospheric reactive N species, including organic N, in the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean.





# Supplementary material related to this article is available online at: http://www.atmos-chem-phys-discuss.net/12/19089/2012/ acpd-12-19089-2012-supplement.pdf.

Acknowledgements. We are grateful to the captains and crews of R/V Hakuho Maru for their
 enthusiastic assistance during Leg 1 of the KH-08-2. This study was supported by funds from the Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research in Priority Areas "Western Pacific Air-Sea Interaction Study (W-PASS)" under Grant No.18067005 from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), Japan. This work was partly supported by the Sasakawa Scientific Research Grant from The Japan Science Society. This research is a contribution to the Surface Ocean Lower Atmosphere Study (SOLAS) Core Project of the International Geosphere-Biosphere Programme (IGBP). S. Yoon and S. Kim were supported by the Korea Meteorological Administration and Research and Development Program under Grant CATER 2012–3020.

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	Aerosol (	(neqm <sup>-3</sup> )		Rain (µe	ql <sup>-1</sup> )		Sea fog (	ueql <sup>-1</sup> )	
	Mean	Std <sup>b</sup>	n <sup>c</sup>	Mean	Std <sup>b</sup>	n <sup>c</sup>	Mean	Std <sup>b</sup>	n <sup>c</sup>
pН	_	_	_	4.1	0.37	5	4.2	0.64	15
Na⁺	33	22	11	580	820	7	390	570	15
$NH_4^+$	5.6	1.9	11	25	20	7	22	13	15
K <sup>+</sup>	0.59	0.46	11	19	20	7	9.3	13	15
Mg <sup>2+</sup>	5.9	4.3	11	220	290	7	83	130	15
Ca <sup>2+</sup>	1.8	1.2	11	400	540	7	20	27	15
CI⁻	28	25	11	1100	1200	7	400	580	15
$NO_3^-$	2.5	1.4	11	7.9	6.9	7	50	40	15
SO4-	22	8.3	11	66	82	7	120	71	15
MSĀ	0.62	0.50	11	0.42	0.69	6	6.2	6.7	15
nss-SO₄-	18	9.0	11	5.5	6.9	5	72	58	14
nss-K <sup>+ ~</sup>	0.068	0.10	9	7.0	7.8	7	1.7	1.5	14
nss-Ca <sup>2+</sup>	0.66	0.57	11	380	520	7	4.6	5.2	12
nss-Mg <sup>2+</sup>	0.12	0.35	2	95	160	5	1.1	2.3	5
nss-Cl <sup>-</sup>	-	-	_	420	610	7	-	-	-

**Table 1.** Mean concentrations of major ionic species in aerosols (n = 11), rainwater (n = 7), and sea fog water (n = 15) collected over the subarctic Western North Pacific during the cruise<sup>a</sup>.

<sup>a</sup> Negative values that arise for non sea-salt ionic species as a result of analytical uncertainty and samples where concentration of each ionic component was below the detection limit have been included in the calculation of the average as 0.

<sup>b</sup> Std represents standard deviation.

<sup>c</sup> Sample number of each ionic component detected (or calculated) in aerosols, rainwater, and sea fog water.



	Aerosol	Rain	Sea fog	Seawater <sup>b</sup>
Cl⁻/Na⁺	0.79	2.7	1.0	1.17
Mg <sup>2+</sup> /Na <sup>+</sup>	0.19	0.42	0.19	0.22
K <sup>+</sup> /Na <sup>+</sup>	0.021	0.051	0.031	0.021
Ca <sup>2+</sup> /Na <sup>+</sup>	0.073	1.2	0.069	0.044
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> /Na <sup>+</sup>	1.4	0.15	0.92	0.12
nss-SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> /Na <sup>+</sup>	1.3	0.047	0.86	_
$NO_3^-/Na^+$	0.099	0.029	0.43	_
$NH_4^{+}/Na^{+}$	0.34	0.10	0.16	_
$NO_3^-/nss-SO_4^{2-}$	0.19	0.81	0.57	_
NH <sup>+</sup> <sub>4</sub> /nss-Ca <sup>2+</sup>	12	0.14	28	_
$NH_4^+/nss-Mg^{2+}$	17	0.82	11	_

**Table 2.** Mole equivalent ratios for major ionic species in aerosols, rainwater, and sea fog water<sup>a</sup>.

 $^{\rm a}$  The samples with negative value of non sea-salt ionic component were excluded.

<sup>b</sup> Seawater ratios from Keene et al. (1986).

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	Sea fog water/Rainwater
Na <sup>+</sup>	0.67
$NH_4^+$	0.88
ss-K <sup>+</sup>	0.63
ss-Mg <sup>2+</sup>	0.66
ss-Ca <sup>2+</sup>	0.77
ss-Cl⁻	0.59
$NO_3^-$	6.3
ss-SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup>	0.79
MSA	15
nss-SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2–</sup>	13
nss-K <sup>+</sup>	0.24
nss-Ca <sup>2+</sup>	0.012
nss-Mg <sup>2+</sup>	0.012

Table 3. Sea fog water/rainwater ratios for major ionic species in terms of concentrations  $(\mu eq l^{-1})$ .



<b>Table 4.</b> Mean dry, wet, sea fog, and total deposition fluxes of $NH_4^+$ and $NO_3^-$ , and the contribu-
tion of each deposition to total inorganic N input in the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean
during the cruise.

	Dry deposition $(\mu mol m^{-2} d^{-1})$	Wet deposition $(\mu mol m^{-2} d^{-1})$	Sea fog deposition $(\mu mol m^{-2} d^{-1})$	Total deposition $(\mu mol m^{-2} d^{-1})$
$NH_4^+$	1.9 ± 0.67	25 ± 35	2.1 ± 1.9	29 ± 35
	(4.1 %)	(54 %)	(4.6%)	(63 %)
$NO_3^-$	$3.0 \pm 2.2$	8.0 ± 12	$5.7 \pm 6.9$	17 ± 14
0	(6.5%)	(17%)	(12%)	(37 %)
TIN <sup>a</sup>	$4.9 \pm 2.6$	$33 \pm 47$	$7.8 \pm 8.7$	$46 \pm 48$
	(11%)	(72 %)	(17%)	(100 %)

<sup>a</sup> TIN represents total inorganic nitrogen. In this study, total inorganic nitrogen is defined as including  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ ; i.e.  $TIN = NH_4^+ + NO_3^-$ .

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**Fig. 1.** Cruise track of Leg 1 of the KH-08-2. White circles, pink triangles, and blue diamonds indicate aerosol, rain, and sea fog sampling locations during the cruise, respectively. Each aerosol sampling start point represents the end of the previous sampling period. Dotted line indicates that no aerosol sampling was conducted. Black, pink, and blue numbers represent the sample numbers of aerosol, rain, and sea fog, respectively.







**Fig. 2.** Temporal variations of meteorological parameters (i.e. wind speed, wind direction, air temperature, sea surface temperature, dew point, and relative humidity) during the cruise. Sea fog (red circle) and rain (violet triangle) events indicate the occurrences of observed sea fog and rain events, respectively.







**Fig. 3.** Temporal variations of total LWC, particle number densities for aerosols in four size groups, and LWC for each of the 40 droplet size classes during the cruise. The green and pink shaded areas indicate sea fog water and rainwater sampling durations, respectively. The black and pink numbers indicate sea fog and rainwater sample number, respectively. When sea fog and rain events occurred simultaneously, only rainwater sample was collected. Then that sample was considered as a rainwater sample (i.e. rainwater sample number 3 and 4). Since rainwater sample number 1 was collected on 30 July, it was not presented here.







Fig. 4. Mean contributions of each major ionic component to total ionic concentration in (a) aerosols (n = 11), (b) rainwater (n = 7), and (c) sea fog water (n = 15) collected over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean during the cruise.

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**Fig. 5.** The 168 h (7 days) air mass backward trajectories for starting altitudes of 500 (triangle symbols), 1000 (circle symbols) and 1500 m (square symbols) above ground level (a.g.l.) during the collections of aerosol (**a**), rain (**b**), and sea fog (**c**) samples were calculated from the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) database of the National Ocean and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) and simulated by using the Hybrid Single-Particle Langrangian Integrated Trajectory (HY-SPLIT) model (web site http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/hysplit4.html). White circles, pink triangles and yellow diamonds indicate aerosol, rain and sea fog sampling locations during the cruise, respectively. Kasatochi and Okmok Volcanoes are black diamonds.







**Fig. 6.** Concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  against sample I.D. in aerosols (a), (b), rainwater (c), (d), and sea fog water (e), (f) collected over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean. Solid triangle lines in (a) and (b) show the percentage of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in fine ( $D < 2.5 \mu m$ ) aerosol particles.







Fig. 7. The mole equivalent ratios of  $NO_3^-/Na^+$  in aerosols (red open bars) and sea fog water (gray bars) during the cruise. The widths of red open and gray bars indicate the sampling duration of aerosol and sea fog water samples, respectively.

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Fig. 9. Temporal variations of dry, wet, and sea fog deposition fluxes for  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  over the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean during the cruise.



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**Fig. 10.** Schematic diagram of atmospheric inorganic N input to the subarctic Western North Pacific Ocean during 29 July–19 August 2008. The numbers in circles represent concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  in aerosols (in neqm<sup>-3</sup>), rainwater (in  $\mu$ eql<sup>-1</sup>) and sea fog water (in  $\mu$ eql<sup>-1</sup>). The mean percentages of total (fine + coarse) aerosol concentrations in fine ( $D < 2.5 \,\mu$ m, white) and coarse ( $D > 2.5 \,\mu$ m, yellow) modes for  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  are shown in circles for aerosol. The orange and blue arrows and numbers (in  $\mu$ molm<sup>-2</sup> d<sup>-1</sup>) indicate  $NH_4^+$  (orange) and  $NO_3^-$  (blue) fluxes via dry, wet, and sea fog deposition.



