

1 **Primary marine aerosol emissions from the Mediterranean Sea**
2 **during pre-bloom and oligotrophic conditions: correlations to**
3 **seawater chlorophyll-a from a mesocosm study**

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42 Abstract

43 The effect of ocean acidification and changing water conditions on primary (and secondary)
44 marine aerosol emissions is not well understood on a regional or a global scale. To investigate
45 this effect as well as the indirect effect on aerosol that changing biogeochemical parameters
46 can have, $\sim 52 \text{ m}^3$ pelagic mesocosms were deployed for several weeks in the Mediterranean
47 Sea during both winter pre-bloom and summer oligotrophic conditions and were subjected to
48 various levels of CO_2 to simulate the conditions foreseen in this region for the coming
49 decades. After seawater sampling, primary bubble-bursting aerosol experiments were
50 performed using a plunging water jet system to test both chemical and physical aerosol
51 parameters (10-400nm). Comparing results obtained during pre-bloom and oligotrophic
52 conditions, we find the same four log-normal modal diameters (18.5 ± 0.6 , 37.5 ± 1.4 , 91.5 ± 2.0 ,
53 $260 \pm 3.2 \text{ nm}$) describing the aerosol size distribution during both campaigns, yet pre-bloom
54 conditions significantly increased the number fraction of the second (Aitken) mode, with an
55 amplitude correlated to virus-like particles, heterotrophic prokaryotes, TEPs, chlorophyll-a
56 and other pigments. Organic fractions determined from kappa, κ , closure calculations for the
57 diameter, $D_p \sim 50 \text{ nm}$, were much larger during the pre-bloom period (64%) than during the
58 oligotrophic period (38%), and the organic fraction decreased as the particle size increased.
59 Combining data from both campaigns together, strong positive correlations were found
60 between the organic fraction of the aerosol and chlorophyll-a concentrations, heterotrophic
61 and autotrophic bacteria abundance, and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations. As a
62 consequence of the changes in the organic fraction and the size distributions between pre-
63 bloom and oligotrophic periods, we find that the ratio of cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) to
64 condensation nuclei (CN) slightly decreased during the pre-bloom period. The enrichment of
65 the seawater samples with microlayer samples did not have any effect on the size distribution,
66 organic content or the CCN activity of the generated primary aerosol. Partial pressure of CO_2 ,
67 $p\text{CO}_2$, perturbations had little effect on the physical or chemical parameters of the aerosol
68 emissions, with larger effects observed due to the differences between a pre-bloom and
69 oligotrophic environment.

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71 1. Introduction

72 With oceans covering 71% of the Earth's surface, sea spray aerosol comprises a large portion
73 of the natural aerosol emissions, with an estimated contribution between 2,000 and 10,000 Tg
74 yr^{-1} for aerosols with diameter $D_p < 20 \mu\text{m}$ (Gantt and Meskhidze, 2013). Marine aerosol can be

75 produced from primary processes (e.g. sea spray aerosol from breaking waves) and secondary
76 processes (i.e. formation via chemical processing or gas-to-particle conversion). These
77 aerosols can then have a large impact upon the Earth's radiative budget through both direct
78 effects, such as light scattering, and indirect effects, by becoming cloud condensation nuclei
79 (CCN) and affecting cloud formation and cloud properties (Novakov and Corrigan, 1996;
80 Novakov and Penner, 1993). Due to the large flux of marine aerosol into the atmosphere, it is
81 critical to better understand and determine the physical and chemical properties of marine
82 aerosol as a function of changing marine environment water conditions.

83 At wind speeds greater than 4 m s^{-1} , primary marine aerosol is primarily formed via bubble
84 bursting from breaking waves; three main types of drops, film, spume and jet drops, are
85 produced depending on the mechanism (Lewis and Schwartz, 2004). Based on the size of
86 aerosol formed, the chemical composition ranges from primarily inorganic sea spray particles
87 to particles rich in organic material, yet different studies have shown differing compositions
88 over the same size range. Typically, particles of diameter $D_p > 1\mu\text{m}$ have been found to be
89 largely sea salt whereas smaller particles $D_p < 1\mu\text{m}$ contain increasing concentrations of
90 organics with decreasing diameter (Ault et al., 2013; Facchini et al., 2008; Keene et al., 2007;
91 O'Dowd et al., 2004; Prather et al., 2013). For particles in the size range relevant to cloud
92 formation (50-150nm), some have found an absence of hygroscopic salts in particles below
93 200nm (Bigg and Leck, 2008), while other studies have shown the presence of sea salt and
94 other inorganic elements (Ault et al., 2013; Clarke et al., 2006; Murphy et al., 1998; Quinn
95 and Bates, 2011). Marine organic species remain largely uncharacterized (Benner, 2002) and
96 organic concentrations can vary drastically throughout the water column, both temporally and
97 spatially (Russell et al., 2010). Primary emissions can gain organics either as bubbles traverse
98 through the water column or at the ocean surface from the organic rich microlayer (Barger and
99 Garrett, 1970; Bigg and Leck, 2008; Blanchard, 1964; Blanchard and Woodcock, 1957;
100 Garrett, 1967; Lion and Leckie, 1981; Matrai et al., 2008). The sea surface microlayer has
101 been shown to exhibit physical, chemical and biological differences from oceanic subsurface
102 water (Cunliffe et al., 2013).

103 The primary marine aerosol emission flux is characterized by different source functions, the
104 number of aerosols by particle size by area by time (Lewis and Schwartz, 2004). These source
105 functions are dependent on a number of physical parameters, dominated by wind speed and
106 sea surface temperature, but are also affected by the sea state (wave height, shape, etc.) and
107 salinity (Grythe et al., 2014). Aerosol emissions are also dependent on the chemical

108 composition of the seawater due to the presence of a rich and varied mixture of organic
109 material. These organics can affect the waters' ability to form whitecaps (Callaghan et al.,
110 2012) and change bubble lifetime (Garrett, 1967). Large-scale marine aerosol source functions
111 used in models have started to include seawater composition (Langmann et al., 2008;
112 Spracklen et al., 2008; Vignati et al., 2010) by focusing on parameterizations of the
113 correlation between surface water chlorophyll-a (chl_a) concentrations and aerosol organic
114 fractions (O'Dowd et al., 2008; Rinaldi et al., 2013).

115 Previous studies have indicated changing size distribution with increasing organic material
116 (Fuentes et al., 2010b; King et al., 2012; Sellegri et al., 2006). Sellegri et al. (2006) saw a log-
117 normal mode amplitude shift towards smaller diameters with the addition of sodium dodecyl
118 sulfate (SDS) to artificial seawater; Fuentes et al. (2010b) observed similar behavior in tests
119 with artificial seawater and biogenic exudates, while King et al. (2012) saw an additional
120 lognormal mode at 200nm with the addition of organic material to artificial seawater. Water
121 temperature has also shown an effect on aerosol size distribution and number concentration,
122 though different groups have seen varying trends. Mårtensson et al. (2003) saw increasing
123 number concentrations for particles >350nm and decreasing concentrations for particles
124 <70nm with increasing water temperature in measurements of synthetic seawater. For all
125 diameters in between, there was no clear trend. Sellegri et al. (2006) compared artificial
126 seawater at 4° and 23°C and found that the lognormal modal diameters all decreased with
127 decreasing water temperature. Zábory et al. (2012b) measured the size distribution of NaCl
128 and succinic acid/NaCl aerosol produced from an impinging water jet over a temperature
129 range from 0 - 16°C and found that the temperature did not influence the size distribution, yet
130 it did influence the magnitude of aerosols produced (increasing temperatures led to decreased
131 aerosol production). The dominance of small particles (dry diameter 10-250nm) decreased
132 with increasing water temperature over the range 0-10°C. Above 10°C, total number
133 concentrations were stable regardless of the temperature. Similar results were found testing
134 winter Arctic Ocean water (Zábory et al., 2012a) and Baltic seawater (Hultin et al., 2011),
135 though for the Baltic seawater, the number concentration continued to drop until a water
136 temperature of ~14°C.

137 Concentrations of marine organic aerosol seem to be highly dependent on the biological
138 productivity at the ocean surface, following a seasonal bloom cycle. Studies performed at
139 Mace Head in the North Atlantic Ocean and Amsterdam Island in the Southern Indian Ocean
140 determined that the organic concentrations as well as the organic:sea salt ratio were highest in

141 the spring/summer and the lowest in the winter (Sciare et al., 2000, 2009; Yoon et al., 2007).
142 Phytoplankton blooms lead to increased levels of organic material (OM), both dissolved and
143 particulate (Ducklow et al., 1995), with dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentrations often
144 greater than 80 μ M under bloom conditions (Hansell et al., 2009). Different studies have
145 linked the total submicron organic mass fraction of sea spray aerosol to chl_a levels observed
146 by satellite (Albert et al., 2012; O'Dowd et al., 2008; Rinaldi et al., 2013; Vignati et al., 2010);
147 other studies have shown that the organic mass fraction was correlated with dimethylsulfide
148 (DMS) (Bates et al., 2012) or heterotrophic bacteria abundance (Prather et al., 2013) instead.
149 Hultin et al. (2010) measured seawater at depths of 2m during an ocean cruise west of Ireland
150 and did not observe a correlation between chl_a and sea spray production, instead finding a
151 relationship with dissolved oxygen. Rinaldi et al. (2013) found that the correlation between
152 chl_a and OM at Mace Head was higher than the correlation of colored dissolved organic
153 material or seawater particulate organic carbon; however, the optimum correlation between
154 chl_a and OM was observed with an eight day time lag for chl_a, indicating a complex, indirect
155 relationship between biological processes and transferable organic matter. Various studies
156 have shown linear correlations between chl_a concentrations and organic fraction (O'Dowd et
157 al., 2008; Rinaldi et al., 2013); others have observed exponential fitting correlation (Gantt et
158 al., 2011), a power fit correlation (Fuentes et al., 2011), or a Langmuir functional relationship
159 correlation (Long et al., 2011).

160 The CCN activity of marine aerosol has been tested in various laboratory experiments.
161 Fuentes et al. (2010a) determined a plunging water jet system to be the bubble generation
162 method most representative of ambient marine aerosol. In a separate study, Fuentes et al.
163 (2010b) collected seawater samples from the West African coast for CCN measurements with
164 phytoplankton exudates and saw a shift towards higher number concentrations and smaller
165 diameters in samples with high biological material. They found a variable relationship
166 between chl_a concentrations and OM production, stating that organic enrichment might also
167 be dependent on specific conditions of algal blooms. The same dataset showed an increase in
168 critical supersaturation of 5-24% for the samples with high biological material compared to
169 artificial seawater (Fuentes et al., 2011). Moore et al. (2011) performed laboratory
170 experiments with NaCl or artificial seawater in combination with SDS, *Synechococcus*,
171 *Ostreococcus* or oleic acid and found that 100 \times the normal organic concentration still did not
172 affect the CCN activity or cloud formation properties. King et al. (2012) tested artificial
173 seawater with different organics (palmitic acid, sodium laurate, fructose, mannose, SDS) and

174 found that the number concentration decreased with the presence of stronger surfactants, most
175 likely due to surface layer stabilization. The CCN activity was dependent on the contribution
176 of the varying salts in the particle phase rather than the organics. In recent wave channel
177 experiments with natural seawater, Prather et al. (2013) saw the activation diameter augment
178 from 63 to 118nm after a five-fold increase in bacteria abundance; the size distributions
179 remained essentially unchanged (as did phytoplankton, chl_a and total organic carbon (TOC)
180 abundances and concentrations), leading to the notion that a change in the sea spray chemical
181 composition (the number fraction mode) must have affected the activation diameter. During
182 the same campaign, Collins et al. (2013) observed the hygroscopicity parameter, κ , reduce by
183 $86\pm 5\%$ over the same time period as the bacterial increase.

184 The production of organic matter in oceanic surface water is expected to be substantially
185 modified in the coming decades as a consequence of climate change and ocean acidification
186 (Doney et al., 2012). Ocean acidification is defined as the increase in ocean acidity and
187 associated changes in seawater chemistry, due to the absorbance of a very significant amount
188 of anthropogenic CO₂ by the oceans (2.5 ± 0.5 Gt C or $\sim 26.3\%$ of anthropogenic emissions,
189 Le Quéré et al. (2014)). Since the beginning of the industrial era, the pH in ocean surface
190 waters has already decreased by 0.1 units, on average, equivalent to an increased acidity of
191 26%. Further acidification is expected by 2100, ranging from 0.06 to 0.32 units, equivalent to
192 an increased acidity of 15 to 110%, depending on the considered CO₂ emission scenario
193 (Ciais et al., 2013). Although it is well established that ocean acidification has the potential to
194 significantly impact marine biological processes (see Riebesell and Tortell (2011) and
195 Weinbauer et al. (2011) for a comprehensive review), it is still unclear how these changing
196 biogeochemical water conditions will affect the properties and production of marine aerosols.
197 Furthermore, the effect of such an acidification and consequently the resulting feedback on
198 Mediterranean marine aerosol and the regional climate remains unknown.

199 Mesocosms are defined as experimental enclosures from one to several thousands of litres that
200 maintain natural communities under close-to-natural conditions (Riebesell et al., 2013). They
201 have been increasingly used in both aquatic and terrestrial ecology (Stewart et al., 2013),
202 especially on the effects of environmental and/or anthropogenic disturbances on a large
203 variety of chemical and biological processes. In the context of ocean acidification, mesocosms
204 have been used on several occasions for experimental time periods spanning from a few days
205 to a few weeks, and were found to be efficient in studying the effects of this driver over such
206 short time scales (Riebesell et al., 2008, 2013). Archer et al. (2013) recently showed, during a

207 mesocosm experiment in the Arctic, that with seawater acidification and increased CO₂
208 concentrations, average concentrations of DMS decreased by up to 60% at the lowest pH.
209 Inversely, concentrations of DMSP, the precursor to DMS, increased by up to 50%. In the
210 remote ocean, DMS was predicted by modeling studies to be one of the main precursors for
211 CCN in the marine boundary layer, and studies have shown that regional DMS emission
212 changes could affect CCN sensitivity (Cameron-Smith et al., 2011; Woodhouse et al., 2013).

213 Many past mesocosm experiments which focused on the effects of ocean acidification have
214 been performed in relatively eutrophic conditions or with nutrient addition initially or during
215 the experiment. However, about 60% of the ocean surface is associated with low productivity,
216 termed oligotrophic areas. Decreased nutrient availability and the expansion of low
217 productivity regions are projected with increasing CO₂ concentrations, as enhanced thermal
218 stratification is expected to lead to surface layer nutrient depletion (Irwin and Oliver, 2009;
219 Polovina et al., 2008). Nutrient availability also might have strong effects on the community
220 response to ocean acidification (Hare et al., 2007), so there is a clear need to evaluate the
221 sensitivity of oligotrophic marine environments to this anthropogenic effect. The
222 Mediterranean Sea is one of the most nutrient-poor waters in the world with maximum open
223 sea area chlorophyll concentrations of 2-3mg m⁻³. Its trophic status varies from oligotrophic-
224 mesotrophic in the northwestern basin to extremely oligotrophic in the eastern basin (Moutin
225 and Raimbault, 2002; The Mermex Group, 2011). High biological activity occurs annually in
226 parts of the western Mediterranean, including coastal France in the late winter and early
227 spring (D'Ortenzio and Ribera d'Alcalà, 2009; Siokou-Frangou et al., 2010).

228 In this work, we collected water from three mesocosms deployed in the Northwestern
229 Mediterranean Sea over two campaigns during different seasons as part of the European
230 Mediterranean Sea Acidification in a changing climate (MedSeA; <http://medsea-project.eu>)
231 and the Chemistry-AeRosol Mediterranean Experiment (ChArMEx) projects to test the effects
232 of ocean acidification and changes in the biogeochemistry of the seawater on the physical and
233 chemical properties of primary marine aerosol including size distributions and CCN activity.

234 2. Materials and Methods

235 2.1 Measurement sites and campaigns

236 Mesocosm experiments were performed during two intensive campaigns: the first, during
237 summer oligotrophic conditions (hereafter referred to as non-bloom conditions), occurred

238 from 22 June to 10 July 2012 at the Station de Recherches Sous-marines et Océanographiques
239 in the Bay of Calvi (BC), Corsica; the second, performed during winter pre-bloom conditions,
240 took place from 21 February to 5 March 2013 in the Bay of Villefranche (BV), France. The
241 two bays share many similarities in term of temperature, salinity, phosphate (PO_4^{3-}),
242 nitrate+nitrite (NO_x), and silicate (Si) seasonal variations, and they both show typical bloom
243 conditions in winter-spring and oligotrophic conditions in the summer, corresponding to a
244 stratified water column. Pre-bloom conditions are also observed at both locations (Gazeau et
245 al., submitted). The presence of pre-bloom and non-bloom conditions was confirmed by the
246 order-of-magnitude difference in the average seawater chla concentrations ($\text{chla}_{\text{BC,avg}} =$
247 $0.069 \pm 0.009 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$, $\text{chla}_{\text{BV,avg}} = 1.005 \pm 0.125 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$). Detailed site and experimental
248 information for both campaigns that legitimize the comparison to test in these two locations at
249 different seasons can be found in Gazeau et al. (submitted).

250 Briefly, the mesocosms used in this study (volume of $\sim 52 \text{ m}^3$) were fully described in Guieu et
251 al. (2014). The mesocosms consisted of large bags made of two 500- μm thick films of
252 polyethylene mixed with vinyl acetate (EVA, 19%) with nylon meshing in between to allow
253 maximum resistance and light penetration (HAIKONENE KY, Finland). Natural seawater
254 was filtered through a mesh grid to remove large debris when deploying the mesocosms. In
255 order to avoid actual atmospheric deposition, the mesocosms were covered with UV-
256 transparent ethylene tetrafluoroethylene (ETFE) roofs, except during periods of sampling. In
257 this way, transfer of rainwater/deposition was prevented, while preserving the sunlight
258 irradiance of the mesocosms. The covers were elevated to $\sim 10 \text{ cm}$ above the top of the
259 mesocosms, allowing air to circulate to avoid a confinement effect in the trapped water.
260 Among nine deployed mesocosms, three remained unmodified as controls and six were
261 modified in terms of partial pressure of CO_2 , $p\text{CO}_2$. The $p\text{CO}_2$ levels used were slightly
262 different between the two campaigns, as a consequence of different ambient $p\text{CO}_2$ levels (i.e.
263 ~ 450 vs. $350 \mu\text{atm}$ at BC and BV, respectively). In the Bay of Calvi, the six targeted elevated
264 $p\text{CO}_2$ levels were 550, 650, 750, 850, 1000 and $1250 \mu\text{atm}$. In the Bay of Villefranche, the
265 levels were 450, 550, 750, 850, 1000 and $1250 \mu\text{atm}$. These elevated $p\text{CO}_2$ levels were reached
266 by adding varying volumes of CO_2 saturated seawater to the mesocosms. At both sites,
267 seawater was pumped from near the mesocosms and sieved onto a 5 mm mesh sieve in order
268 to remove large organisms. Pure CO_2 was actively bubbled through the water for several
269 minutes in order to achieve saturation; the water was then transferred to 25L plastic containers
270 for addition to the mesocosms. Depending on the targeted $p\text{CO}_2$ level, 50L to more than 500L

271 were added. A diffusing system was used to ensure a perfect mixing of this CO₂ saturated
272 seawater inside the mesocosms. In order to minimize the stress induced by the addition of
273 large quantities of acidified water, the acidification of the mesocosms was performed over 4
274 days, and the experiments started when the targeted *p*CO₂ levels were reached. The CO₂
275 levels were chosen in order to cover the range of atmospheric CO₂ concentrations projected
276 for the end of the century following various scenarios (RCP 2.6 to RCP 8.5; (IPCC, 2013)).

277 For the experiments described here, every morning approximately 5L of surface water (taken
278 within a 15cm depth from the surface) was pumped from each mesocosm using a
279 perfluoroalkoxy alkane (PFA) pump (St-Gobain Performance Plastics) activated by the
280 pressurized air from a diving tank and connected to braided PVC tubing (Holzelock-Tricoflex,
281 I.D. 9.5mm). The water pump was flushed with seawater from the respective mesocosm prior
282 to sampling. Samples were stored in large brown glass bottles outside (avoiding direct
283 sunlight) until the experiments were performed that same day. During the BV campaign, the
284 pump could not be used on 3 March 2013 due to unsafe sea conditions; water was instead
285 manually sampled from the mesocosms with 2.5L glass bottles while wearing long gloves.
286 Additionally, due to dangerous wind and wave conditions, sampling was not performed on 5
287 March 2013 during the BV campaign. Instrumental failures occurred on 4 and 10 July 2012 at
288 BC and on 28 February – 1 March 2013 at BV.

289 For both campaigns, the mesocosms were located off-shore in pelagic waters in order to
290 measure primary marine aerosol properties and biogeochemical parameters of the water while
291 minimizing contamination from anthropogenic sources. The mesocosms were reached via
292 ocean kayak or boat. For both campaigns, sampling operations were performed from a mobile
293 plastic platform that was moved via a rope network. The water temperature variances between
294 BC and BV are quite drastic, given the time of year the experiments took place. From
295 conductivity, temperature and depth (CTD) measurements, at BC the water temperature
296 measured nearest to the surface varied from 21.8-25.2°C; at BV, the temperatures ranged from
297 13.0-13.6°C.

298 For the experiments described here, we focused on three different mesocosms: control
299 mesocosm C3, and acidified mesocosms P3 and P6. Mesocosm P6 was the most acidified of
300 all mesocosms (*p*CO₂~1250µatm), and P3 was acidified to an intermediate level
301 (*p*CO₂~750µatm). This allowed a range of acidification effects to be analyzed.

302 2.2 Experimental methods

303 Bubble-bursting experiments were performed using a square glass tank (20l×20w×25h cm³),
304 filled with 3.6L of seawater (water depth of ~10cm), sealed with a stainless steel lid and
305 continuously flushed with particle-free air (11LPM). The tank was constantly slightly over-
306 pressured with particle-free air to ensure the absence of ambient room air. Aerosols were
307 generated by splashing mesocosm seawater through plunging water jets, separated into 8 jets
308 via a flow distributor. The mesocosm seawater was re-circulated using a peristaltic pump; to
309 minimize an increasing temperature of the seawater caused by constant re-circulation, a
310 stainless steel heat exchanger was used on the seawater exiting the pump. The temperature of
311 the water was recorded with a temperature sensor at the beginning and end of each experiment
312 (for the BV campaign). Since no measurements of the bubble size distribution could be
313 performed in such a small device, all water flow characteristics were performed according to
314 the Fuentes et al. (2010a) settings, to reproduce the same bubble size distribution. The water
315 flowrate was set to 1.8LPM, the height of the jets above the water surface was 9cm and the
316 penetration depth of the jets was ~7.5cm. Particle-free air was blown over the seawater (using
317 a j-shaped tube ~1.5cm above the water surface) to mimic the wind blowing effect on the
318 bubble-bursting process. Some of the water samples were also enriched by the addition of an
319 organic rich microlayer from the same mesocosms (average 100mL, range 50-170mL). The
320 enriched mesocosm samples were tested after the un-enriched sample to compare the effect of
321 additional organic species.

322 Blank measurements were performed during the first ten minutes of each experiment by
323 verifying the aerosol concentration was zero in the particle-free air flushed tank. Between
324 each water sample testing, the aquarium and tubing were rinsed with ultrapure water
325 (>18M Ω), and clean water was re-circulated throughout the experimental setup for 10-15
326 minutes. Experiments were performed on the mesocosm water in different orders each day to
327 make sure there were no experimental biases.

328 The aerosol flow was passed through a diffusion drier and was sent through a neutralizer into
329 a differential mobility particle sizer (DMPS) and miniature continuous-flow streamwise
330 thermal-gradient CCN chamber (CCNc) (Roberts and Nenes, 2005) to determine particle
331 CCN activation properties. The neutralizer used was a variable-amplitude corona discharge
332 which charges particles to the equilibrium charge distribution (Stommel and Riebel, 2004,
333 2005). For the BC experiments, the neutralizer voltage was ~2.8kV and for BV, ~2.0kV.

334 For the CCNc-DMPS system, aerosol flow passed first through a TSI-type DMA (length
335 44cm) selecting particle sizes in 26 channels ranging from 10-400nm by stepping the voltage
336 over an integration time of about 8 ½ minutes. Immediately after the DMA, the aerosol flow
337 was split between the CCNc and a TSI CPC model 3010. The DMA sheath flow rate was
338 9LPM and the sample flow rate was 1LPM in BC; 7.5LPM and 1.35LPM was used in BV,
339 respectively. For the BV campaign, the aerosol flow was split 1LPM for the CPC and
340 0.35LPM to the CCNc. In the CCNc, a total aerosol flow rate of 100sccm with a sheath-to-
341 aerosol flow ratio of 5 was used. The CCNc operated at specific temperature gradient (dT)
342 settings, testing two different supersaturations (SS). For the BC campaign, a temperature
343 gradient of 6°C (dT6) was used in the column and the top temperature of the column varied as
344 the ambient temperature changed ($T_{\text{top}} - T_{\text{amb}} = 2^{\circ}\text{C}$); in BV, dT6 and a temperature gradient
345 of 3°C (dT3) were tested and the top temperature of the column was always set at 30°C. The
346 data is plotted as activated fraction vs. particle diameter and fit with a sigmoid curve, from
347 which we obtain the activation diameter at each dT (see Asmi et al. (2012) for more details).
348 The CCNc system was calibrated with atomized $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ and NaCl solutions at the
349 beginning, end and throughout each campaign. The activation diameter of the calibration was
350 then used to calculate the corresponding supersaturation; this supersaturation was then used
351 for all mesocosm experiments. The activation diameters and corresponding supersaturations
352 for each dT for both campaigns are shown in Table 1 (dT6=0.39% SS, dT3=0.08%). The
353 range of SS values used in this work is typical of those reported in natural clouds. Anttila et
354 al. (2009) found cloud SS values from 0.18 to 0.26% for low-level clouds in Northern
355 Finland, Hegg et al. (2009) obtained a SS range from 0.2 to 0.3% for clouds over the
356 California coast, and Asmi et al. (2012) found SS values from 0.1 to 0.3% at the puy-de-
357 Dôme station in Central France.

358 2.3 Seawater parameters

359 Every day at 8:30 (local time), depth-integrated sampling (0 to 10m) was performed in each
360 mesocosm using 5L Hydro-Bios integrated water samplers. Samples for pigment analyses
361 were filtered (2L) onto GF/F. Filters were directly frozen with liquid nitrogen and stored at -
362 80°C. Measurements were performed on an HPLC from filters extracted in 100% methanol,
363 disrupted by sonication and clarified by filtration (GF/F Whatman). Samples for microbial
364 diversity (2mL) were fixed with 0.5% final concentration glutaraldehyde, frozen in liquid
365 nitrogen, and then transferred to a -80°C freezer. Virus-like particles, heterotrophic and
366 autotrophic prokaryotes abundances were measured with the use of Flow Cytometry (Beckton

367 Dickinson FACS Calibur model). Total organic carbon (TOC) was measured instead of
368 dissolved organic carbon (DOC) in order to avoid contamination during filtration. However,
369 the TOC measurement is referred to hereafter as DOC, due to the low concentration of
370 particulate organic carbon in both sites (averaged over all mesocosms and all sampling times,
371 BC: $4.32 \pm 0.91 \mu\text{Mol}$, BV: $11.49 \pm 5.50 \mu\text{Mol}$, which was typically less than 10% of TOC)..
372 DOC concentrations were determined on 20mL samples by high temperature oxidation with a
373 Shimadzu 5000A TOC Analyzer. Transparent exopolymeric particles (TEPs) concentrations
374 were measured spectrophotometrically according to a dye-binding assay (Engel, 2009).
375 Samples (250mL) were filtered onto 0.4mm pore size polycarbonate filters under low vacuum
376 ($<100\text{mm Hg}$), stained with 1mL of Alcian blue solution (0.02g Alcian blue in 100mL of
377 acetic acid solution of pH2.5) and rinsed with 1mL of distillate water. Filters were then
378 soaked for 3h in 6mL of 80% sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) to dissolve the dye, and the absorbance of
379 the solution was measured at 787nm, using acidic polysaccharide xanthan gum as a standard.

380 3. Results and Discussion

381 In studying the effects of ocean acidification, it was necessary to observe whether changes
382 with biogeochemical processes affected primary marine aerosol emissions and chemical and
383 physical aerosol properties. For many of the parameters studied (e.g. chl_a concentrations, total
384 prokaryotic cells and virus-like particles abundances), there were no strong discernible
385 differences between the control, C3, or the acidified mesocosms, P3 and P6 along the course
386 of the experiments; however, there were often large differences between the two campaigns
387 due to the pre-bloom and non-bloom conditions. While several studies have shown the effects
388 of ocean acidification on biogeochemical parameters in eutrophic waters (Galgani et al., 2014;
389 Schulz et al., 2013), observations from the MedSea experiment showed no effect of ocean
390 acidification on most of the biogeochemical parameters in these oligo- to mesotrophic areas.
391 These results are discussed more fully in Gazeau et al. (submitted). As a consequence, we did
392 not expect any impact on the primary marine aerosol physical aerosol properties. In the
393 following sections, we will relate trends observed with different biogeochemical parameters to
394 those observed in the primary marine aerosol.

395 3.1 Aerosol Size Distributions and Number Concentration

396 The marine aerosol size distributions remained fairly stable during a given experiment, which
397 lasted around one hour for each water sample. The aerosol size distribution also remained

398 stable throughout the course of each campaign, with a similar distribution shape. Four
399 lognormal modes were fit to the average size distributions of each campaign, with results
400 summarized in Fig. 1 and Table 2. The average size distributions were taken from 214 size
401 distributions for BC and 182 size distributions for BV, and size envelopes are also included
402 within Fig. 1. In order to investigate the size of the aerosol independently of the concentration,
403 the size distributions were normalized using the total aerosol number concentration. We found
404 that the primary marine aerosol size distributions were best described using the three expected
405 modes: nucleation mode (around 20nm), Aitken mode (around 40nm), and accumulation
406 mode (around 100nm); and an additional fourth mode around 260nm. Using only three modes
407 for the fitting procedure could not satisfactorily represent the primary marine aerosol size
408 distribution. A mode at around 300nm was also found by Sellegri et al. (2006) during
409 bubbling experiments for which the effect of wind on the surface breaking bubbles was
410 simulated in a similar experiment set-up. The 300nm mode was interpreted by the authors as
411 the result of a thicker bubble film where the bubbles are forced to break by the wind instead of
412 reaching a natural breaking thickness. The four average lognormal modal diameters
413 determined (18.5 ± 0.6 , 37.5 ± 1.4 , 91.5 ± 2.0 , 260 ± 3.2 nm) were present in both BC and BV. The
414 lognormal mode fitting was also used to determine the particle number fraction at each
415 lognormal modal diameter. Looking at the number fractions on a daily temporal scale for
416 $SS=0.39\%$, the lognormal mode number fractions remained relatively constant throughout
417 both campaigns, though differences were noted between the campaigns (Fig. 2, Table 2).
418 Throughout the campaign in BC, the fractions of Modes 1-3 were approximately equal in
419 magnitude (0.297), whereas in BV, the magnitude of the Mode 2 (the Aitken mode) fraction
420 relative to the other modes was dominant (0.48). These same trends were observed for all
421 experiments using $SS=0.08\%$ and all the enriched mesocosm samples (Figs. 3-4). When
422 augmenting the bacterial abundance in seawater, Collins et al. (2013) observed an increased
423 particle fraction of the smallest lognormal mode diameter with no change to the shape or
424 magnitude of the size distribution; this was attributed to the replacement of internally mixed
425 salt/organic particle types by insoluble organic type particles. Previous studies have also
426 indicated changing size distributions or mode number fractions with increasing organic
427 material (Fuentes et al., 2010b; Sellegri et al., 2006). In the present study, we will examine
428 which chemical component is linked to the increase of the Aitken mode particles in Section
429 3.3.

430 Many other studies have found different lognormal mode distributions of both artificial and
431 natural seawater samples, though many have similar modal sizes. Differences in the size
432 distribution of laboratory generated primary marine aerosol found in the literature seem to
433 depend on the method used to generate them. Fuentes et al. (2010a) observed 4 modes (modal
434 sizes 14, 48, 124, 334nm) generated from plunging-water jet experiments with artificial
435 seawater. Mode 4 was believed to be linked to splashing water from the jet mechanism.
436 Plunging-water jet experiments were found to most closely mimic the size distribution of
437 ambient primary marine aerosol (Fuentes et al., 2010a) while generating sufficient aerosol for
438 characterization measurements. In a separate study (Fuentes et al., 2010b), 4 modes
439 represented both artificial and natural seawater (modal sizes 15, 45, 125, 340nm) well. Similar
440 to our findings, increasing organic content was found to increase the number fraction of Mode
441 2 while decreasing the relative fractions of the other modes. In similar experiments with Baltic
442 seawater collected between May and September, Hultin et al. (2011) observed either two
443 lognormal modes (site: Askö, 86, 180nm) or three lognormal modes (site: Garpen, 93, 193,
444 577nm). Selleagri et al. (2006) tested synthetic sea salt with a weir and observed 3 lognormal
445 modes (4°C: 30, 85, 200nm; 23°C: 45, 110, 300nm). After adding SDS, they noticed an
446 increase in the fraction of particles at the smallest lognormal diameter. In synthetic seawater
447 experiments with sintered glass filters, Mårtensson et al. (2003) observed one submicron
448 lognormal mode (100nm); Tyree et al. (2007) observed a lognormal mode at the same
449 diameter using artificial and natural seawater with pore diffusers. The Mårtensson et al.
450 (2003) and Tyree et al. (2007) studies using sintered glass filters or pore diffusers report
451 relatively different size distributions compared to those obtained by plunging jet experiments,
452 likely due to the bubble formation processes. Collins et al. (2013) observed three lognormal
453 modes in seawater wave channel experiments (~90, 220, 1000nm), with changing number
454 fractions as described in the above paragraph.

455 Temperature has also been shown to affect size distributions and aerosol number
456 concentrations (Hultin et al., 2011; Mårtensson et al., 2003; Zábory et al., 2012a). The initial
457 and final water temperatures were measured over the course of an experiment (~1hr, BV
458 only); the water temperature was found to increase by $4.6 \pm 1.2^\circ\text{C hr}^{-1}$ on average due to the
459 constant water recirculation through the peristaltic pump and an insufficient heat exchange
460 system (encompassing all experiments, water temperatures ranged from ~11.7-26.8°C from
461 the initial to final measurement). This increase is 2-5× times higher than the $1\text{-}2^\circ\text{C hr}^{-1}$
462 temperature increase measured by Zábory et al. (2012a). Even with this large temperature

463 range, we did not observe that the increase in the water temperature affected the shape of the
464 size distribution. We were not able to make qualitative statements about the relationship
465 between the number concentration and temperature, with the level of uncertainty in the wind
466 flow stability within these experiments. Acidification had no effect on the aerosol size
467 distribution, as no clear differences were found between mesocosms C3, P3, and P6 within a
468 given field campaign.

469 3.2 Activation Diameter

470 By testing two temperature gradients, it is possible to look at the hygroscopic properties of
471 different size particles based on the different supersaturations at which they are activated. The
472 activation diameter time series measured at SS=0.39% (dT6) is shown in Fig. 5. In BC, there
473 is little variation temporally between the control and acidified mesocosms tested
474 ($D_{p,50,avg}=46.47\pm 0.88\text{nm}$), indicating that acidification does not have a large direct effect on
475 CCN activity. Additionally, the enriched samples showed similar behavior to the non-
476 enriched waters, indicating that the addition of the organic-rich microlayer had little effect on
477 the water uptake for the aerosols. For the experiments incorporating the enriched microlayer,
478 the entire organic-rich volume was added a few minutes before starting the water jet system,
479 rather than being continuously introduced to the tank throughout the entire experiment. This
480 could have led to microlayer depletion over the course of an experiment, explaining why no
481 visible difference was seen between the enriched and un-enriched samples. However, no clear
482 difference was seen between the first (when the microlayer was present) and subsequent size
483 distributions during a given microlayer enriched experiment. In past experiments, the addition
484 of organics to bubbling experiments have shown changes in the size distribution (Sellegrì et
485 al., 2006), particle number concentration (Fuentes et al., 2010b; King et al., 2012; Tyree et al.,
486 2007), and CCN activity (Collins et al., 2013; Fuentes et al., 2011). Other experiments have
487 shown no visible change (Moore et al., 2011) from the addition of organics, similar to the
488 experiments performed in this study. In some studies, the concentrations and/or nature of
489 some of the organic surfactants were unrealistic (King et al., 2012; Moore et al., 2011;
490 Sellegrì et al., 2006). At BV, the average activation diameter for SS=0.39% over the course of
491 the experiments was $D_{p,50,avg}= 59.48\pm 1.1\text{nm}$ (Fig. 5), while at SS=0.08% the average
492 activation diameter was $D_{p,50,avg}= 141.91\pm 10.8\text{nm}$ (Fig. 6). Activation diameters larger than
493 the corresponding salt standards (here, shown as NaCl), indicating higher organic presence,
494 are observed more at BV than BC for SS=0.39% due to the organic pre-bloom conditions,
495 whereas the non-bloom water conditions were very stable at BC. For SS=0.08%, the

496 activation diameters are very similar to the NaCl standard, which signifies a lower organic
 497 fraction for larger particles. Activation diameters for individual mesocosms in both campaigns
 498 are shown in Table 3.

499 There is an anti-correlation of the activation diameter at SS=0.39% with the ambient average
 500 air temperature in BV (Fig. 5), though no correlation exists with SS=0.08% (Fig. 6), or in BC
 501 (Fig. 5). However, more daily temperature variance was observed in BV than BC, based on
 502 the time of year of the campaigns. This anti-correlation could indicate an additional
 503 temperature impact on the emission of small particles (~50nm) and their chemical
 504 composition, though this effect is unclear and undocumented in the literature.

505 We investigated if the observed differences in the activation diameters from BC and BV could
 506 be linked to the different operating techniques used for the campaigns. As indicated
 507 previously, T_{top} in BC was variable, changing as the ambient temperature changed. As the
 508 ambient temperature changed throughout the day, the temperature in the column would also
 509 change, leading to possible temperature instabilities throughout the course of an experiment.
 510 On the contrary, in BV, T_{top} was fixed at 30°C, a temperature higher than the daily
 511 temperature variability. In this way, temperature fluctuations in the column were avoided.
 512 However, in observing the measured temperatures throughout the column for both campaigns
 513 and all the experiments, the temperatures of the column remained quite stable for both
 514 methods of operation, so we believe that these effects are very minor. Additionally, it has
 515 been shown that organics can volatilize in the CCN column due to the temperature gradient
 516 (Asa-Awuku et al., 2009), biasing observed CCN activity. It is possible that this occurred for
 517 both campaigns based on the relatively high measured operating temperatures observed in the
 518 column; if organic material was volatilized, the activation diameters would increase from
 519 those shown here.

520 3.3 Kappa and Organic Fraction

521 The hygroscopicity of the aerosol was determined using kappa-Köhler theory (Petters and
 522 Kreidenweis, 2007) following Asmi et al. (2012). Using the activation diameter and numerical
 523 iteration, the kappa value was determined when the maximum of the saturation curve was
 524 equal to the supersaturation in the CCNc, following,

525

$$526 \quad S(D_p) = \frac{D_p^3 - D_{p,50}^3}{D_p^3 - D_{p,50}^3(1-\kappa)} \exp\left(\frac{4\sigma_w M_w}{RT \rho_w D_p}\right) \quad (1)$$

527
 528 where S is the supersaturation, D_p is the diameter of the droplet, $D_{p,50}$ is the dry diameter, R is
 529 the gas constant, T is temperature, and σ_w , M_w , and ρ_w are the surface tension, molecular
 530 weight and density of water, respectively. Lower kappa values correspond to more
 531 hydrophobic, or organic-like, particles. In BC, the average mesocosm kappa value at
 532 SS=0.39% was $\kappa_{\text{avg,BC}}=0.95\pm0.17$, In BV, the average mesocosm kappa values for SS=0.39%
 533 and 0.08% are $\kappa_{\text{avg,BV}}=0.45\pm0.13$ and 0.78 ± 0.14 , respectively. This indicates that the smaller
 534 particles (measured at the higher SS) were higher in organic material. The kappa values
 535 obtained at SS=0.08% are more representative of the kappa that would be obtained for a bulk
 536 chemical composition, as most of the aerosol mass is comprised in the accumulation mode for
 537 submicron particles. Our value then falls well into the suggested range of the kappa average of
 538 marine aerosol, $\kappa_{\text{marine}}=0.72\pm0.24$ (Pringle et al., 2010).. Little variance was seen between the
 539 control and acidified mesocosms.

540 Using the calculated kappa values, we determined the organic fraction using a kappa closure
 541 equation,

542

$$543 \quad \kappa_{\text{total}} = \varepsilon_{\text{org}}\kappa_{\text{org}} + (1 - \varepsilon_{\text{org}})\kappa_{\text{inorg}} \quad (2)$$

544

545 where ε_{org} is the bulk volume fraction of organic material and κ is the kappa of the organic or
 546 inorganic material. Following Collins et al. (2013), we used $\kappa_{\text{inorg}}=1.25$, a good proxy for
 547 seawater, and $\kappa_{\text{org}}=0.006$. In BC, the organic fraction ranged from -0.21 to 0.46 (average,
 548 0.24 ± 0.14) for SS=0.39%. For BV, the organic fraction ranged from 0.43-0.80 (average,
 549 0.64 ± 0.11) for SS=0.39% and 0.19-0.55 (average, 0.38 ± 0.11) for SS=0.08%. Previous studies
 550 have also found mass organic fractions ranging from 30-80% in sea spray aerosol studies of
 551 water from the Northern Atlantic, Sargasso Sea near Bermuda, and Pacific water near La
 552 Jolla, California (Collins et al., 2013; Facchini et al., 2008; Keene et al., 2007). Negative
 553 organic fractions were calculated during the BC campaign due to the sensitivity of Eq. (2) to
 554 the value of κ_{inorg} over κ_{org} . We show results here using a κ_{inorg} value supported by literature
 555 rather than determine non-realistic κ_{inorg} values to provide positive organic fractions.
 556 Therefore, the values shown in this work can be considered low estimates of the organic
 557 fraction. Table 3 shows average kappa and organic fraction values of each mesocosm for both
 558 campaigns.

559 The organic fraction of the Aitken mode particles (obtained from measurements performed at
 560 SS=0.39%) is significantly increased during the BV experiment compared to the BC
 561 experiment. This indicates that the Mode 2 fraction increase observed in the size distribution
 562 is due to the presence of organic matter, in agreement with the observations of Collins et al.
 563 (2013)

564 The ratio of cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) to condensation nuclei (CN) decreased slightly
 565 during the pre-bloom period for SS=0.39%: at BC, $CCN/CN_{\text{average}}=0.55\pm 0.03$ whereas at BV,
 566 $CCN/CN_{\text{average}}=0.45\pm 0.07$. The change between CCN/CN during the oligotrophic and pre-
 567 bloom conditions was likely due to the combined effects of a higher organic fraction and
 568 higher Mode 2 to Mode 1 ratio during pre-bloom conditions, likely caused by the increasing
 569 organic content of the water due to the pre-bloom. For SS=0.08% measured at BV,
 570 $CCN/CN_{\text{average}}=0.15\pm 0.02$.

571 3.4 Correlations with biological parameters

572 In a recent study, Rinaldi et al. (2013) showed that chla was the best biological surrogate for
 573 predicting organic enrichment in sea spray. Chla parameterizations are currently being used in
 574 models to account for the organic content of seawater. We find a strong linear correlation with
 575 same-day measurements of organic fraction (from SS=0.39%) and total chla concentrations
 576 ($R^2=0.781$, $p<0.00001$) shown in log-log scale in Fig. 7, following

$$577 \quad \text{Organic Fraction}[\%] = 42.28 \times (\text{chla})[\text{mg m}^{-3}] + 22.98 \quad (3)$$

578 Similar correlations were also found with a number of pigments: chlorophyll c1+c2
 579 ($R^2=0.783$, $p<0.00001$), 19'-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin ($R^2=0.711$, $p<0.00001$), alloxanthin
 580 ($R^2=0.699$, $p<0.00001$), sum carotenes ($R^2=0.773$, $p<0.00001$) and 19'-
 581 hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin ($R^2=0.736$, $p<0.00001$) (Fig. 8). Various studies have found linear
 582 correlations between the organic fraction of aerosols measured at a receptor site and chla
 583 concentrations observed by satellite along the back-trajectory (Langmann et al., 2008;
 584 O'Dowd et al., 2008; Rinaldi et al., 2013; Vignati et al., 2010); others have found exponential
 585 fittings (Gantt et al., 2011) with the same methodology or a Langmuir functional relationship
 586 (Long et al., 2011) using a model with experimental data from Facchini et al. (2008) and
 587 Keene et al. (2007). Fig. 7 shows many of the existing chla-organic fraction parameterizations
 588 in the literature, including this work. It is clear that many of the parameterizations from the
 589 Northern Atlantic Ocean also describe the correlation in the Mediterranean Sea fairly well,

590 even though the methodologies for most of them are very different from the one used in this
591 study. The parameterization derived in this work lays at higher organic content when
592 compared to the other parameterizations, even though it does not include secondary organic
593 contributions as do many of the satellite-receptor site studies. This is likely due to the size
594 dependence of the organic fraction that we observed in the BV data. Our parameterization is
595 applicable for Aitken mode type aerosols and would probably shift towards lower organic
596 content for accumulation mode particles. It is also possible that organic components in
597 Mediterranean primary marine aerosol are of multiple origins and not solely linked linearly to
598 chl-a-rich species. Bacteria have also been observed to affect the organic material in seawater
599 (Gruber et al., 2006; Jiao et al., 2010; Ogawa et al., 2001). We find a correlation with
600 heterotrophic prokaryotes ($R^2=0.476$, $p=1.3\times 10^{-5}$), virus-like particles ($R^2=0.161$, $p=0.025$),
601 autotrophic prokaryotes ($R^2=0.499$, $p<0.00001$) and *Synechococcus* abundance ($R^2=0.143$,
602 $p=0.033$), shown in Fig. 9A-D. In a wave channel experiment on natural seawater doped with
603 Zobell growth medium, bacteria and phytoplankton (*Dunaliella tertiolecta*) cultures, Prather
604 et al. (2013) also observed a link between heterotrophic bacteria and organic fraction while no
605 correlation with chl-a was found, highlighting the necessity to study complex systems of all
606 biological material (phytoplankton, prokaryotes, organic matter) for marine aerosol. Most
607 likely, the observed differences between Prather et al. (2013) and this work have to do with
608 the localized biogeochemical nature of the different experiments, causing variance in the
609 chemical composition and organic fraction of the marine aerosol. An additional correlation
610 ($R^2=0.477$, $p=1.2\times 10^{-5}$) exists with TEPs (Fig. 9E), a surface-active complex, variable mixture
611 of organics (Filella, 2014; Passow, 2012). During BC, there is also a sigmoidal correlation
612 between organic fraction and DOC concentrations ($\chi^2=0.411$, $p<0.00003$); data are
613 unavailable for BV (Fig. 9F). Sigmoid fits are also shown in Figs. 8 and 9 for all biological
614 parameters where they could be determined. Sigmoid fits might be more appropriate to use in
615 many cases, to conceptually constrain the organic fraction of the primary marine aerosol to
616 one regardless of the chl-a concentration. We have included both linear and sigmoid fits, with
617 their respective R^2 and χ^2 values for completeness.

618 We also wanted to see if correlations existed between different biogeochemical parameters
619 and the temporal relative mode fractions shown in Fig. 2. Relative fractions of Modes 3 and 4
620 (91.5 and 260nm, respectively) showed no clear correlations to any parameter. However,
621 strong anti-correlations were observed between the Mode 1 (18.5nm) relative fraction and the
622 abundances and concentrations of virus-like particles, heterotrophic prokaryotes and all

623 pigments previously discussed, except for alloxanthin, which had a positive correlation
624 (correlations not shown). The relative fraction of Mode 2 (37.5nm) showed strong positive
625 correlations with the abundances and concentrations of virus-like particles, heterotrophic
626 prokaryotes, TEPs and all the pigments discussed, except for alloxanthin, where no
627 correlation was observed (correlations not shown). This further supports the idea of an
628 increase in the Mode 2 (Aitken mode) relative fraction during periods of high biological
629 activity due to the higher concentrations of organic material, at the expense of Mode 1.

630 The control and acidified mesocosms showed no significant differences in terms of
631 correlations between organic fraction and different biogeochemical parameters. For studies of
632 marine aerosol, this indicates that any acidification effects on these biological parameters
633 impacts the physical and chemical parameters of the aerosol much less than the natural
634 variances caused by organic pre-bloom and bloom periods. It is not yet clear whether this
635 observation can extend beyond the western Mediterranean Sea. However, it is important to
636 note that due to the oligotrophic nature of the Mediterranean, even during the pre-bloom
637 conditions at BV, the chl_a concentrations and abundances of other parameters are still much
638 lower than could occur in places like the North Atlantic Ocean.

639 4. Conclusions

640 By performing marine aerosol bubble-bursting experiments over two large-scale campaigns,
641 we were able to compare the effects of ocean acidification during pre-bloom and oligotrophic
642 conditions on physical and chemical properties of Mediterranean Sea aerosol. It is important
643 to note that there are additional effects, such as wind speed, precipitation levels, and
644 temperatures, that could change with future climate change and that these were not included
645 within this analysis; instead, we focused on ocean acidification effects on Mediterranean Sea
646 plankton communities and subsequent effects on primary marine aerosol. Future studies will
647 need to incorporate additional parameters to determine further effects on primary marine
648 aerosol. Ocean acidification had no direct effect on the physical parameters (size distribution,
649 mode diameter and number fraction) measured in either campaign, with similar trends seen
650 for all three differently acidified mesocosms. Additionally, experiments including the
651 enriched sea surface microlayer, which increased organic concentrations, showed no marked
652 difference from the un-enriched mesocosm samples, indicating that enrichment did not
653 influence the water uptake of the primary aerosol at the thermodynamic equilibrium reached
654 in the CCN chamber.

655 Pre-bloom conditions at BV showed marked increases in the activation diameters and organic
656 fractions (~64%) for all the mesocosms at SS=0.39% compared to non-bloom conditions at
657 BC (~24%). At BV, larger particles (SS=0.08%) had smaller organic fractions (~38%). The
658 organic fraction was strongly correlated with chl_a and additional pigment concentrations, with
659 weaker correlations observed for heterotrophic and autotrophic prokaryotes, virus-like
660 particles, and *Synechococcus* abundances, and TEPs and DOC concentrations. Many of these
661 correlations corresponded specifically with the increase in Mode 2 (the Aitken mode) and
662 were anti-correlated with Mode 1 during the pre-bloom period. The CCN/CN_{average} ratio also
663 decreased during the pre-bloom period at BV as a probable consequence of the increased
664 organic content during a pre-bloom period. The parameterization of the primary marine
665 aerosol organic fraction as a function of chl_a derived in the present work is a high estimate
666 compared to the gathered parameterizations from the literature (with a higher organic fraction
667 for a given chl_a content), which may confirm that species other than chl_a-rich species
668 contribute to the organic content of marine aerosols in the Mediterranean atmosphere.

669 Author Contribution

670 K.S., F.G., C.G. designed the experiments and A.N.S., C.R., E.A., K.S. carried them out.
671 Enriched microlayer data were provided by A.E. and W.L.; pigment data were provided by
672 A.S. and F.G.; TEPs data were provided by S.M., M.-L.P., F.I., and S.A.; bacteria and virus
673 data were provided by S.M., M.-L.P., A.T., and P.P; and DOC data were provided by J.L and
674 C.G. A.N.S. and K.S. prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

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1011 Table 1. Calibration information at varying temperature gradients for NaCl (35g/L) in tank

Temperature Gradient	Activation Diameter (nm)	Supersaturation, SS (%)
dT6	42.497±1.82	0.39
dT3	122.915±8.65	0.08

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1013

1014 Table 2. Modal diameter (nm) and number fraction averages from the size distributions for
1015 both campaigns, including data from both supersaturations and microlayer enriched
1016 experiments. Lognormal modal diameters and number fractions from Fuentes et al. (2010a)
1017 are also shown.

	BC (SS=0.39% and enriched)		BV (SS=0.39%+0.08% and enriched)		Artificial Sea Water Fuentes et al., (2010)	
	Diameter	Fraction	Diameter	Fraction	Diameter	Fraction
Mode 1	17 ± 1.2	0.32	20 ± 0.07	0.19	14	0.38
Mode 2	38 ± 1.3	0.30	37 ± 2.5	0.48	48	0.32
Mode 3	91 ± 2.1	0.27	92 ± 3.4	0.24	124	0.17
Mode 4	260 ± 2.0	0.11	260 ± 6.0	0.09	334	0.13

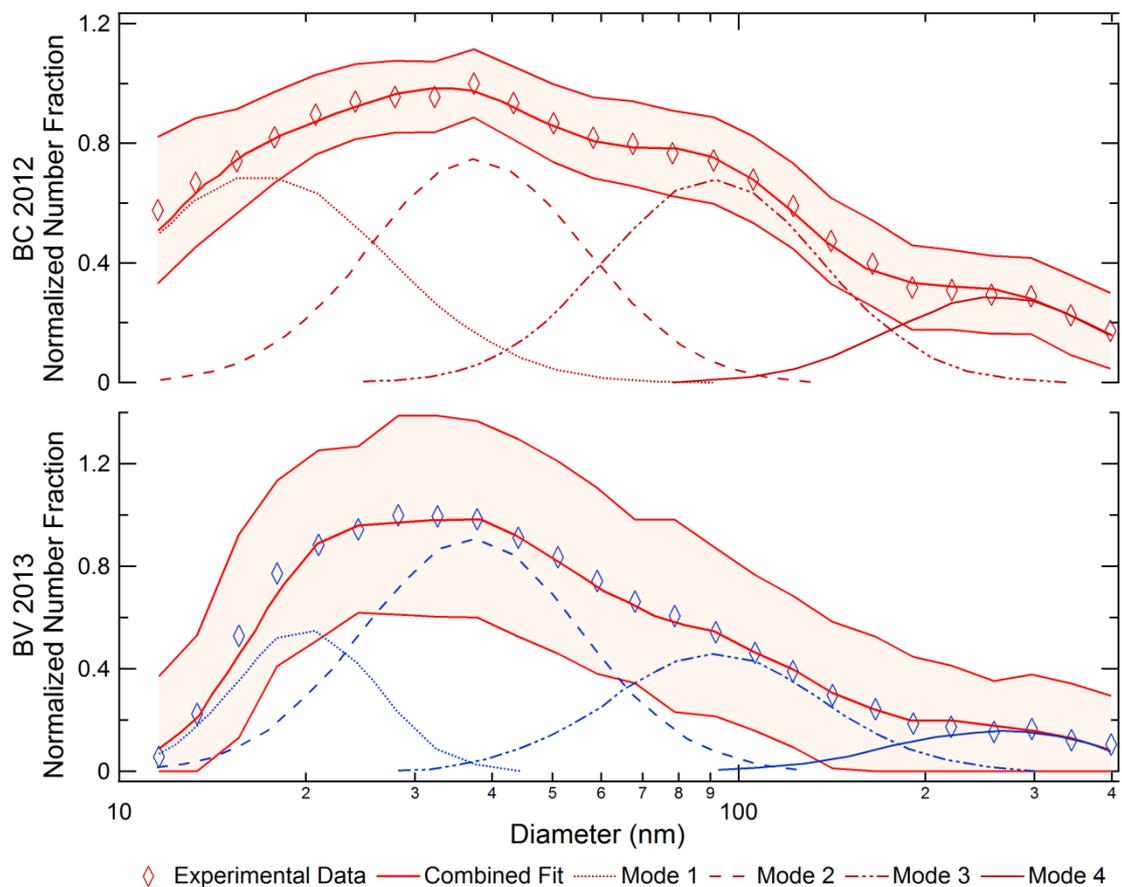
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1020 Table 3. Average activation diameters, kappa values and organic fractions for both campaigns
1021 and supersaturations.

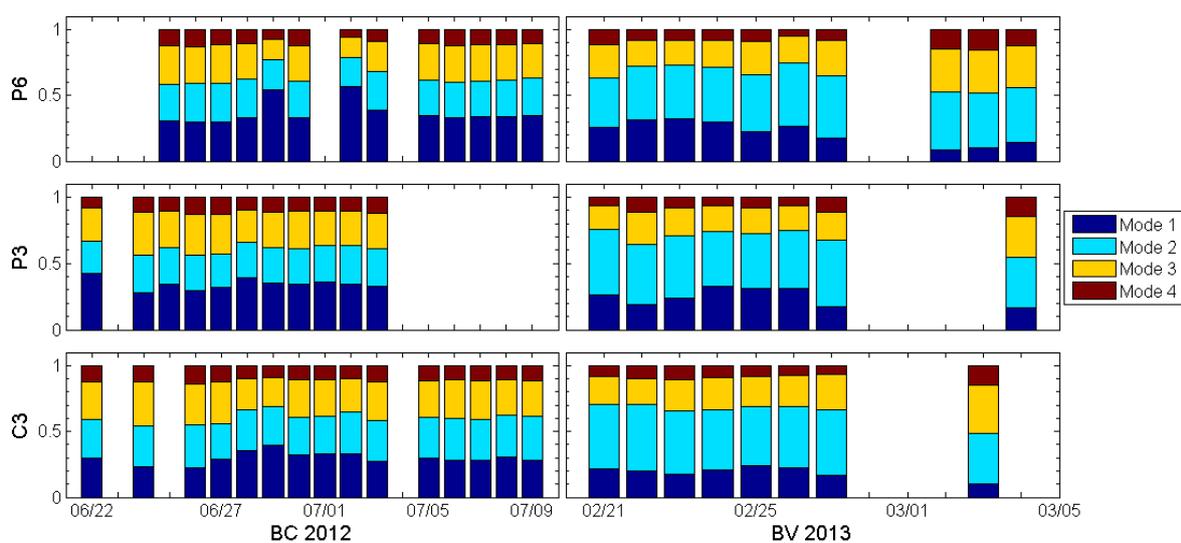
	Mesocosm	Activation Diameter (nm)	κ	Organic Fraction	
BC	SS = 0.39%	C3	47.5 ± 1.6	0.88 ± 0.11	0.29 ± 0.09
		C3, enriched	46.8 ± 4.1	0.92 ± 0.08	0.26 ± 0.07
		P3	45.8 ± 1.8	1.00 ± 0.19	0.20 ± 0.16
		P3, enriched	48.9 ± 6.1	0.81 ± 0	0.35 ± 0
		P6	45.7 ± 1.6	1.00 ± 0.23	0.20 ± 0.18
		P6, enriched	46.7 ± 3.4	0.93 ± 0.08	0.26 ± 0.06
BV	SS=0.39%	C3	61.8 ± 2.2	0.40 ± 0.09	0.68 ± 0.07
		C3, enriched	51.9 ± 4.8	0.68 ± 0	0.46 ± 0
		P3	61.2 ± 2.1	0.41 ± 0.12	0.67 ± 0.10
		P6	59.1 ± 1.9	0.47 ± 0.15	0.63 ± 0.12
		P6, enriched	53.9 ± 3.6	0.61 ± 0.10	0.52 ± 0.08
		Outside	54.2 ± 3.6	0.59 ± 0.14	0.53 ± 0.11
		Outside, enriched	55.5 ± 3.0	0.55 ± 0.07	0.56 ± 0.05
	SS=0.08%	C3	146.0 ± 16.6	0.72 ± 0.14	0.43 ± 0.12
		C3, enriched	148.5 ± 37.1	0.69 ± 0	0.45 ± 0
		P6	137.1 ± 15.5	0.87 ± 0.13	0.31 ± 0.11

1022



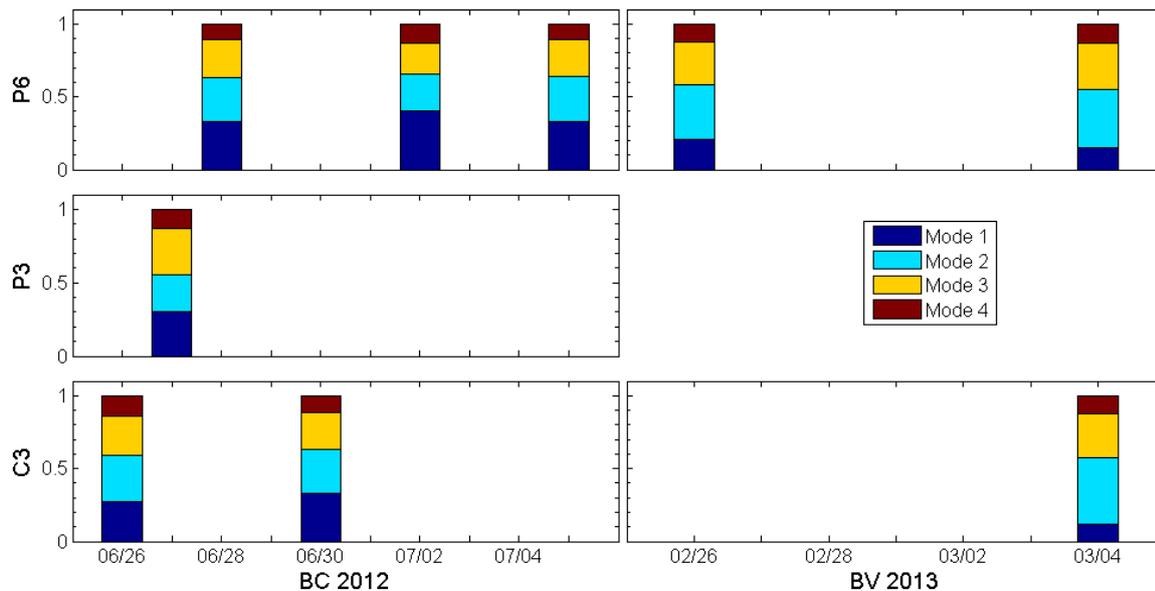
1023

1024 Figure 1. Average size distributions for each campaign (Bay of Calvi, BC, and Bay of
 1025 Villefranche, BV) fit with 4 lognormal modes. Each campaign average is taken from the
 1026 supersaturations (SS=0.08% & 0.39%) used for all three mesocosms and includes all enriched
 1027 samples as well.

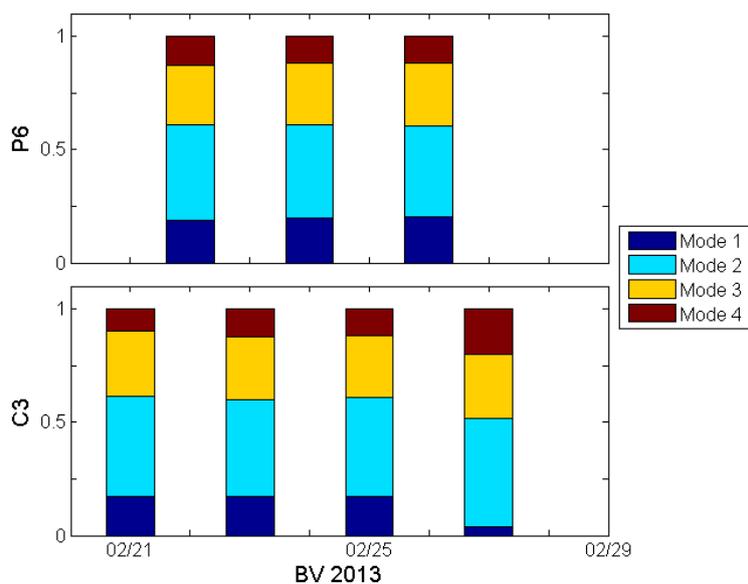


1028

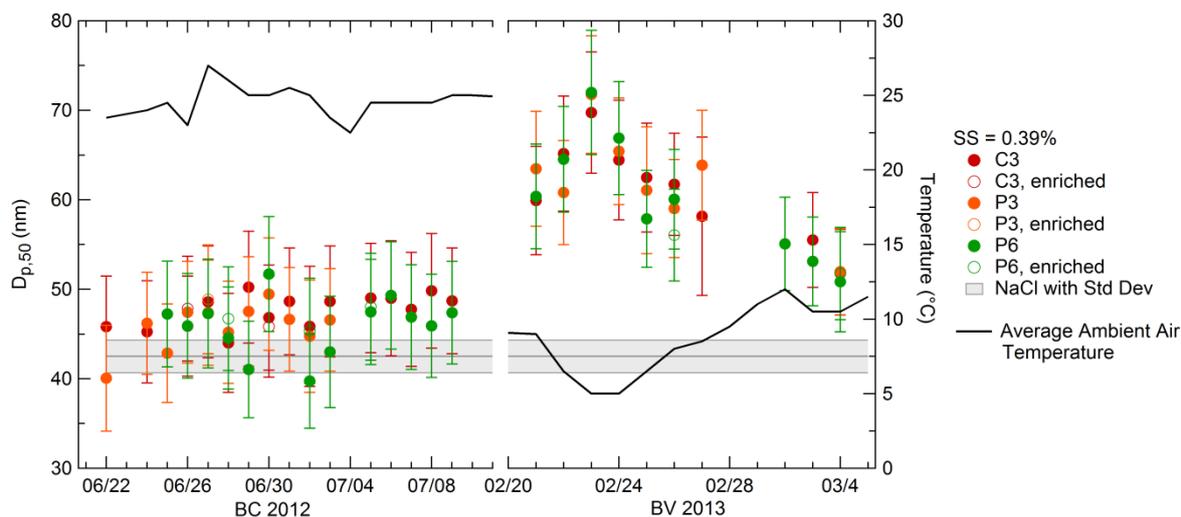
1029 Figure 2. Number fraction of DMPS lognormal modes from all mesocosms (SS=0.39%) at BC
 1030 and BV.



1031
 1032 Figure 3. Number fraction of DMPS lognormal modes from microlayer enriched samples
 1033 (SS=0.39%) at BC and BV.

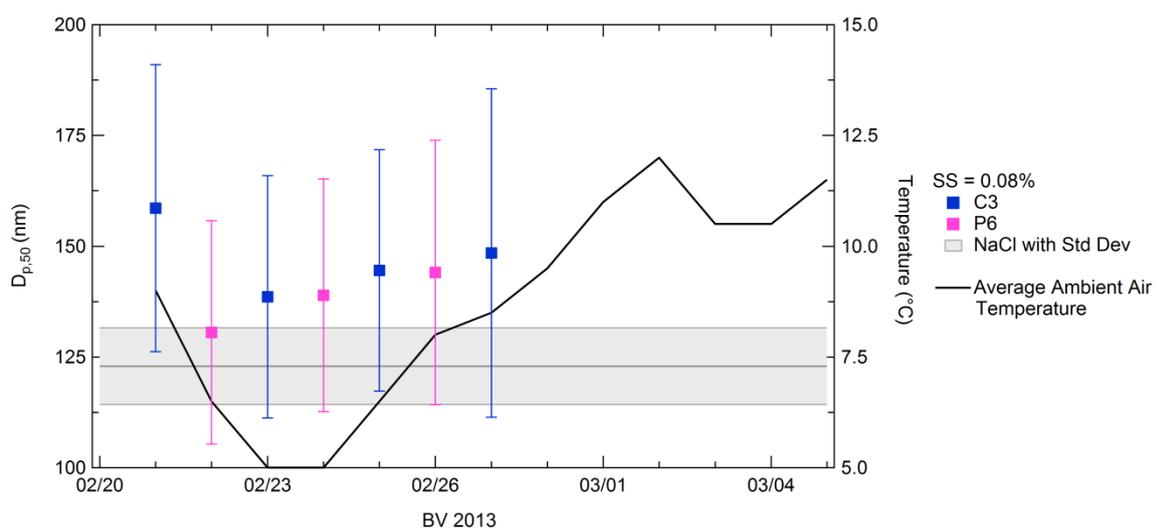


1034
 1035 Figure 4. Number fraction of DMPS lognormal modes tested at SS=0.08% for mesocosms C3
 1036 and P6 at BV.



1037

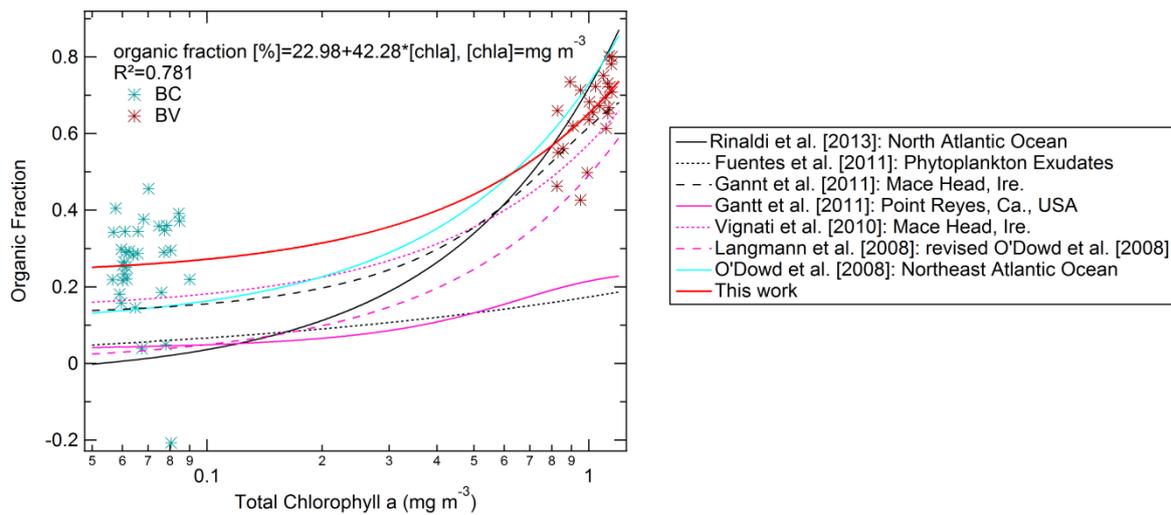
1038 Figure 5. Activation diameter and ambient air temperatures for BC and BV. Data is shown for
 1039 SS=0.39% (dT6), including the microlayer enriched experiments. The shaded bar indicates the
 1040 NaCl activation diameter at the given supersaturation.



1041

1042 Figure 6. Activation diameter and ambient air temperatures for BV. Data is shown for
 1043 SS=0.08% (dT3). The shaded bar indicates the NaCl activation diameter.

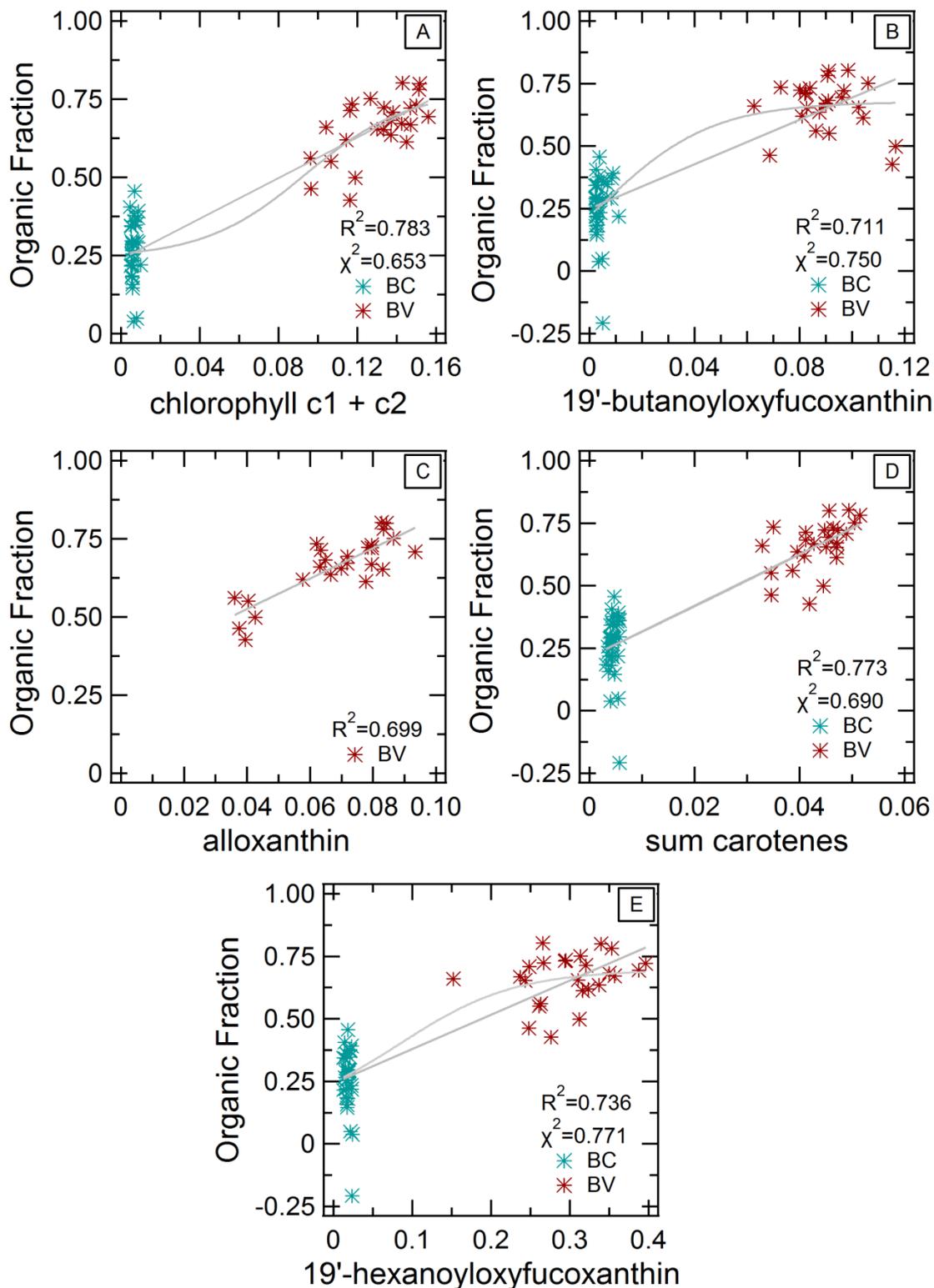
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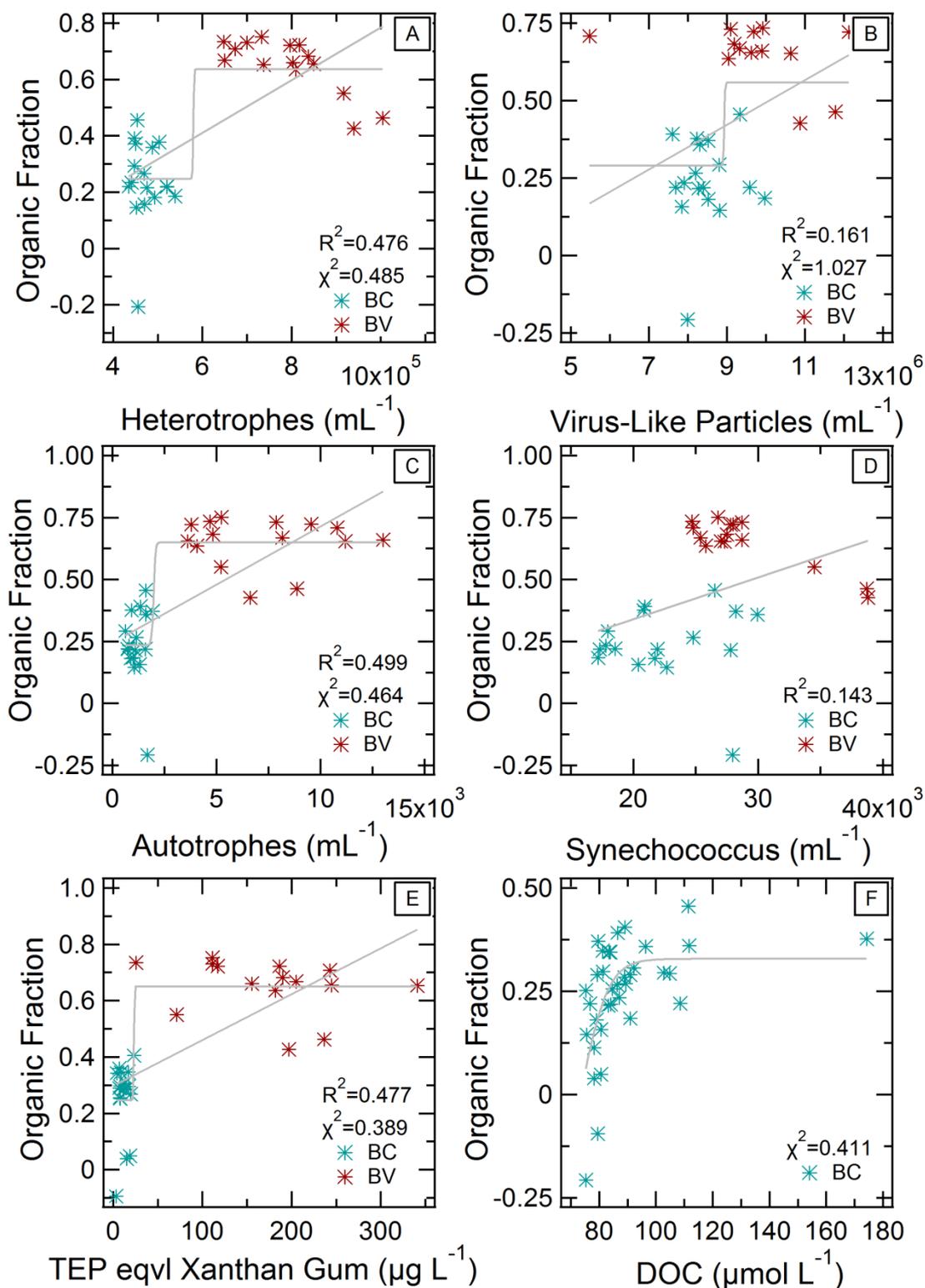
1046 Figure 7. Organic fraction calculated from kappa ($\kappa_{\text{org}}=0.006$ and $\kappa_{\text{inorg}}=1.25$) at $SS=0.39\%$ vs.
 1047 total chlorophyll-a concentrations (mg m^{-3}) for all 3 mesocosms during both BC and BV, fit
 1048 with published parameterizations of the organic fraction-chla relationship.

1049



1050

1051 Figure 8. Organic fraction calculated from kappa ($\kappa_{\text{org}}=0.006$ and $\kappa_{\text{inorg}}=1.25$) at SS=0.39% vs.
 1052 chlorophyll c1+c2 (A), 19'-butanoyloxyfucoxanthin (B), alloxanthin (C), sum carotenes (D)
 1053 and 19'-hexanoyloxyfucoxanthin (E) concentrations (mg m^{-3}) for all 3 mesocosms during
 1054 both BC and BV. Linear fits with R² values are shown for all figures, and sigmoid fits with χ^2
 1055 values are shown for all panels except for (C).



1056
 1057 Figure 9. Organic fraction calculated from kappa ($\kappa_{\text{org}}=0.006$ and $\kappa_{\text{inorg}}=1.25$) at $\text{SS}=0.39\%$ vs.
 1058 heterotrophic prokaryotes (A), virus-like particles (B), autotrophic prokaryotes (C), and
 1059 *Synechococcus* (D) abundances, and TEP equivalent (xanthan gum) (E), and DOC (F)
 1060 concentrations for all 3 mesocosms during both BC and BV. Linear fits with R^2 values are
 1061 shown for all figures except for (F), and sigmoid fits with χ^2 values are shown for all panels
 1062 except for (D).