Biogenic, anthropogenic, and sea salt sulfate size-segregated aerosols in the Arctic summer

Roya Ghahreman[1], Ann-Lise Norman[1], Jonathan P. D. Abbatt[2], Maurice Levasseur[3], Jennie L. Thomas[4]

[1] Depatrment of Physics and Astronomy, University of Calgary, Calgary, Canada

[2] Department of Chemistry, University of Toronto, Toronto, Canada

[3] Department of Biology, Laval University, Quebec, Canada

[4] Sorbonne Universités, UPMC Univ. Paris 06, Universite Versailles St-Quentin, CNRS/INSU, UMR8190, LATMOS-IPSL, Paris, France

Correspondence to: Ann-Lise Norman (alnorman@ucalgary.ca)

Abstract

Size-segregated aerosol sulfate concentrations were measured on board the Canadian Coast Guard Ship (CCGS) Amundsen in the Arctic during July 2014. The objective of this study was to utilize the isotopic composition of sulfate to address the contribution of anthropogenic and biogenic sources of aerosols to the growth of the different aerosol size fractions in the Arctic atmosphere. Non-sea salt sulfate is divided into biogenic and anthropogenic sulfate using stable isotope apportionment techniques. A considerable amount of the average sulfate concentration in the fine aerosols with diameter <0.49 μm was from biogenic sources (>70%) which is higher than previous Arctic studies measuring above the ocean during fall (<15%) (Rempillo et al., 2011) and total aerosol sulfate at higher latitudes at Alert in summer (>30%) (Norman et al., 1999). The anthropogenic sulfate concentration was less than biogenic sulfate, with

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potential sources being long range transport and, more locally, the Amundsen's emissions. Despite attempts to minimize the influence of ship stack emissions, evidence from larger-sized particles demonstrates a contribution from local pollution.

A comparison of $\delta^{34}S$ values for SO_2 and fine aerosols was used to show that gas-to-particle conversion

5   likely occurred during most sampling periods. $\delta^{34}S$ values for SO_2 and fine aerosols were similar suggesting the same source for SO_2 and aerosol sulfate, except for two samples with a relatively high anthropogenic fraction in particles <0.49 μm in diameter (July 15-17 and 17-19). The high biogenic fraction of sulfate fine aerosol and similar isotope ratio values of these particles and SO_2 emphasize the role of marine organisims (e.g. phytoplankton, algea, bacteria) in the formation of fine particles above the

10 Arctic Ocean during the productive summer months.

1   Introduction

Climate is changing in the Arctic faster than at lower latitudes (IPCC, 2013) and it has the potential to influence the Arctic Ocean and aerosols that form above it. The Arctic ocean is considered a source of

15 primary aerosol, such as sea salt and organic, as well as secondary particles from oxidation of SO_2 to sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) (Bates et al., 1987; Charlson et al., 1987; Andreae, 1990; Yin et al., 1990; Leck and Bigg, 2005a; Leck and Bigg, 2005b; Barnes et al., 2006; Ayers and Cainey, 2007). Aerosols drive significant radiative forcing and influence climate directly (by scattering of short/long wave radiation) and indirectly (by changing number and size of cloud droplets and altering precipitation efficiency) (Shindell, 2007).

20 Recently, it has been shown that their net effect is cooling the Arctic which offsets around 60% of the warming effect of greenhouse gases (Najafi, et al., 2015). However, there are key uncertainties in the estimation of aerosol effects and their sources which arise from limited information on their spatial and temporal distribution.

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Sulfate in the Arctic atmosphere originates from anthropogenic, sea salt and biogenic sources. Anthropogenic aerosols, with a winter-to-springtime maximum known as Arctic Haze, contain particulate organic matter, nitrate, sulfate, and black carbon which originate from North America and Eurasia (Sirois and Barrie, 1999; Quinn et al., 2002; Stone et al., 2014). Sea salt enters the atmosphere via mechanical

5 processes such as sea spray and bubble bursting (Leck and Bigg, 2005a). Although, sea salt is generally found in coarse mode particles, it is sometimes found in smaller sizes as well (Bates et al., 2006). The most important source of biogenic sulfate aerosols in the Arctic summer is the oxidation of dimethyl sulfide (DMS) (Norman et al., 1999).

DMS is mostly produced by the breakdown of its algal precursor dimethylsulfonopropionate (DMSP) by

10 phytoplankton and bacteria DMSP-lyases and transported from the ocean to the atmosphere via turbulence and diffusion which depends on sea surface temperature, salinity and wind speed (Nightingale et al., 2000). Gaseous sulfur compounds from DMS oxidation are able to form new particles or condense on pre-existing aerosol in the atmosphere and thereby become large enough to act as Cloud Condensation Nuclei (CCN) (Charlson et al., 1987). However, there are crucial uncertainties in the details of the

15 potential impact of DMS on climate at a global scale (Quinn and Bates, 2011).

The formation of new particles and CCN is particularly important during the summer when anthropogenic aerosols are scarce, scavenging is efficient, and sea-atmosphere gas exchange produces considerable DMS in the Arctic (Gabric et al., 2005; Elliot et al., 2012, Li et al. 1994; Leaitch et al., 2013). Some studies suggested an increase of biological activity, DMS production and emission with an increase of

20 temperature and decrease of sea-ice cover during summer (Sharma et al. 2012; Levasseur, 2013). However, modelling results from Browse et al. (2014) suggest that increased DMS emissions during summertime will not cause a strong climate feedback due to the efficient removal processes for aerosol particles. Such results are highly dependent on aerosol size distributions which are relatively unconstrained particularly with respect to DMS oxidation (Bigg and Leck, 2001, Matrai et al., 2008;

25 Quinn et al., 2009; Leaitch et al., 2013).

Tracers have been used in some studies to indicate different sources for sulfate, such as the use of DMS and MSA for biogenic activities (Savoie et al., 2002). Other studies assumed that non-sea salt sulfur originates from biogenic sources in clean areas with low anthropogenic sulfur emissions (Bates et al., 1992; Hewitt and Davison, 1997). These methods may overestimate the role of biogenic sources if

5   anthropogenic sulfate is present. The isotopic differences of various sources present a way to determine the oceanic DMS contribution to aerosol growth (Norman et al., 1999, 2004; Seguin et al., 2010, 2011; Rempillo et al., 2011). Size-segregated aerosols were collected in July 2014 during an extended transect going from the strait of Belle-Isle to Lancaster Sound in the Canadian Arctic, permitting comparison with measurements from other seasons. Sulfate aerosols have been apportioned into biogenic, anthropogenic

10 and sea salt sulfate using sulfur isotopes, to find the contribution of each source in aerosol formation and growth.

2   Field description and methods

Particles were collected on board the Canadian Coast Guard Ship (CCGS) Amundsen in the Arctic during

15 July 2014 as part of the NETCARE (Network on Climate and Aerosols: Addressing Key Uncertainties in Remote Canadian Environments) project. The route of this expedition and sampling intervals are shown in Figure 1 which took place from 8 to 24 July 2014.

Wind speed, and sea surface and air temperatures were documented each minute and averaged over 10 minutes using the Automatic Voluntary Observing Ships System (AVOS) system available onboard the

20 Amundsen at ~23 m above the sea surface. In addition, a version of the

Lagrangian particle model, FLEXPART-WRF (Brioude et al., 2013), was used to estimate potential emission sensitivities.

A high volume sampler was used to collect aerosol samples at a calibrated flow rate of 1.08±0.05 m^3/min. This high volume sampler was placed facing the bow above the bridge of the ship, around 30 m above

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the sea surface. It was fitted with a cascade impactor to collect size-fractionated particles on quartz filters as well as SO_2. The SO_2 was trapped on a cellulose filter pre-treated with potassium carbonate (K_2CO_3) and glycerol solution (Saltzman et al., 1983; Norman et al., 2004; Seguin et al., 2010). The sampling interval was two days, starting from 10:00 h. The high volume sampler was turned off manually to avoid

5   contamination when the ship's emissions toward the sampler were observed or at times when the ship was stationary. Figure 1 shows sampling intervals: the high volume sampler was off on July 19th because of stormy weather. The 6 ranges of particle aerodynamic diameter of the cascade impactor were: A (>7.2 μm), B (3.0–7.2 μm), C (1.5–3.0 μm), D (0.95–1.5 μm), E (0.49–0.95 μm), and F (<0.49 μm). TOTAL sulfate refers to the sum of sulfate on each of the size fractions. Field blanks were collected on two

10 separate occasions, and loaded and unloaded with the same method as samples processed except the high volume sampler was turned off, to assess whether and how much contamination occurred from procedural handling and analyses. Filters were stored in sealed ziplock bags at < 4 °C before analysis in the lab.

A Li-Cor 7000 CO_2/H_2O Analyzer, with an inlet near the location of the high volume sampler (~ 3 m) and at the same height was used to measure the atmospheric CO_2 mixing ratios. The objective of the CO_2

15 measurement was to determine the influence of smoke stack emissions from the ship for QA/QC of aerosol samples. The CO_2 concentrations are shown in Figure 2a. There were two periods when CO_2 measurements were not saved due to a computer malfunction: 10:30 h on July 10th to 9:00 h on July 11th, and 14:00 h on July 15th to 10:35 h on July 17th. The observation shows a relatively constant CO_2 mixing ratio with some peaks, indicating relatively little smoke stack contamination.

20 Once back in the laboratory, sulfate extracted from filters extracts was analysed for sulfate isotopes and concentration. Filter papers were shredded in distilled deionized water and sonicated for 30 minutes. Then, filter paper fibers were removed by 0.45 mm Millipore filtration, and a portion of the filtrate samples (2×10 mL) was used for ion concentration measurements. Remaining filtrate was treated with 5 mL of 10% $BaCl_2$ and 1 mL HCl to precipitate $BaSO_4$. In addition of $BaCl_2$ and HCl, 2 mL of 30%

25 hydrogen peroxide was added to SO_2 filter solutions to oxidize the SO_2 to sulfate. After extraction, $BaSO_4$

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was dried and samples were packed into tin cups and analyzed with a PRISM II continuous flow isotope ratio mass spectrometer (CF-IRMS) to obtain $\delta^{34}S$ values in parts per thousand (‰) (relative to VCDT, Vienna Cañon Diablo Triolite) (Seguin et al., 2007).

Concentrations of cations (Ca^{2+}, K^+, Na^+, Mg^{2+}) and anions (Cl^-, SO_4^{2-}, PO_4^{3-}, NO_3^-) were obtained by ion chromatography with a detection limit of 0.1 mg/L. No peaks were detected for sulfate in the blank filters.

Three different sources - anthropogenic, biogenic, and sea salt - were considered for sulfur aerosols and the fraction of each source was obtained using:

$$[SO_4^{2-}]_{total} = [SO_4^{2-}]_{bio} + [SO_4^{2-}]_{anthro} + [SO_4^{2-}]_{SS}, \tag{1}$$

$$[SO_4^{2-}]_{total}\delta^{34}S_{total} = [SO_4^{2-}]_{bio}\delta^{34}S_{bio} + [SO_4^{2-}]_{anthro}\delta^{34}S_{anthro} + [SO_4^{2-}]_{SS}\delta^{34}S_{SS}. \tag{2}$$

Also $\delta^{34}S_{NSS}$ is determined using the expression for two sources mixing:

$$[NSS]\delta^{34}S_{NSS} = [measured]\delta^{34}S_{measured} - [SS]\delta^{34}S_{SS}, \tag{3}$$

where SS and NSS refer to sea salt and non-sea salt sulfate respectively, and quantities in brackets, [X], indicate concentrations.

The amount of sea salt sulfate in sea water was calculated by SO_4^{2-} and Na^+ mass ratios:

$$[SO_4^{2-}]_{SS}=0.252[Na^+]. \tag{4}$$

Sulfur isotope apportionment in the Arctic assumes a $\delta^{34}S$ value of +21‰±0.1 (Rees et al., 1978), +18.6‰ ±0.9 (Sanusi et al. 2006; Patris et al. 2002), and +3‰ ± 3 (Li and Barrie, 1993; Nriagu and Coker, 1978; Norman et al., 1999) for sea salt, biogenic and anthropogenic $\delta^{34}S$ values respectively. The partial derivative rule for error propagation and standard deviation were considered for uncertainties of these values.

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3   Results

3.1   The meteorological measurements

Interaction of wind at the ocean's surface may lead to formation of primary course mode sea salt particles. DMS oxidation pathways, the formation of biogenic SO_2, and production of new particles, are influenced

5   by temperature. Wind speed and sea/air temperatures from the Amundsen's AVOS system are shown in Figure 2b and 2c.

3.2   Sulfate aerosols

Total, sea salt, and non-sea salt sulfate concentrations and their standard deviations for the entire sampling program for different size fractions are summarized in Table 1.

10   Similar average sulfate concentrations were found for aerosols in $A_{>7.2 \ \mu m}$ (113 ng/m^3), $B_{3.0-7.2 \ \mu m}$ (100 ng/m^3), and $D_{0.95-1.5 \ \mu m}$ (110 ng/m^3) size fractions. An average sulfate concentration of 34 ng/m^3 was found for the $C_{1.5-3.0 \ \mu m}$ size aerosols. On the other hand, $F_{<0.49 \ \mu m}$ filter (fine aerosol) has the highest average sulfate concentration (~210 ng/m^3) and contains much less sea salt sulfate.

3.2.1   Sea salt sulfate

15   Table 1 includes average sea salt sulfate concentrations for aerosols for different size fractions for this study. As expected, coarse size filters $A_{>7.2 \ \mu m}$ and $B_{3.0-7.2}$ in this study contain more sea salt sulfate than smaller diameter aerosols and the average sea salt sulfate is approximately six times higher than non-sea salt sulfate. In contrast, smaller aerosols on the $D_{0.95-1.5 \ \mu m}$ filter contain lower but significant amounts of sea salt sulfate (~ 55 ng/m^3). Although, on average, more than 75 percent of sulfate for the $C_{1.5-3.0 \ \mu m}$ filter

20   is from sea salt, a considerable decrease in concentration is observed compared to $A_{>7.2 \ \mu m}$, $B_{3.0-7.2}$ and $D_{0.95-1.5 \ \mu m}$ filters. Sea salt sulfate concentrations are low for aerosols collected on the $E_{0.49-0.95 \ \mu m}$ and

$F_{<0.49 \ \mu m}$ filters (~ 5 to 6 ng/m^3). The spatial variability of TOTAL sulfate and sea salt concentrations is shown in Figure 3a.

3.2.2 Non-sea salt sulfate

The average non-sea salt sulfate concentrations for the entire study are reported in Table 1 (spatial variation in non-sea salt sulfate is shown in Figure 3b). Results show approximately uniform TOTAL non-sea salt sulfate concentrations (average 130±21 ng/m^3: range from 102 to 152 ng/m^3), except the first sample collected nearby the Gulf of St Lawrence (July 8th to 10th) which contains the highest non-sea salt sulfate concentration. The majority of sulfate for small aerosols in the $D_{0.95–1.5 \ \mu m}$ (~ 55 ng/m^3), $E_{0.49–0.95 \ \mu m}$ (~ 66 ng/m^3) and $F_{<0.49 \ \mu m}$ (~ 208 ng/m^3) fractions is from non-sea salt sources.

4   Discussion

4.1   Sea salt sulfate

Sea salt concentrations are variable with season and depend on atmospheric stability (Lewis and Schwartz 2004). Although wind is considered as an important factor to sea-air exchange of sea salt, correlations in this study between wind speed and sea salt sulfate concentrations for coarse and fine mode aerosols were not significant ($R^2 \cong 0.1$), which is consistent with previous studies (Lewis and Schwartz 2004; Rempillo et al., 2011, Seguin et al., 2011).

4.2   Non-sea salt sulfate

The spatial variation of non-sea salt sulfate (anthropogenic plus biogenic aerosols) is shown in Figure 3b. Results show approximately uniform non-sea salt sulfate concentrations for samples in the Labrador Sea and north (130±21 ng/m^3). Sulfate concentrations, especially non-sea salt sulfate, in this research were

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found to be higher than previous Arctic studies above the ocean during fall (2007-2008) (Rempillo et al.,
2011), at higher latitudes at Alert in summer (1993-1994) (Norman et al., 1999) and about the same as at
Barrow, Alaska during July (1997-2008) (Quinn et al., 2009). One reason could be higher biological
activity and biogenic aerosols from phytoplankton during summer as addressed in the next section.

4.3 Sulfur isotope apportionment

Total δ^{34}S (Equation 1) versus the percentage of sea salt sulfate of size fractionated aerosols is shown in
Figure 4. The mixing lines for sea salt/biogenic sulfate (solid line) and sea salt/anthropogenic sulfate
(dashed line) are shown to demonstrate mixing for each pair of sources. Data from this study fall mainly
within the mixing lines which suggests the assignment of the end-member δ^{34}S values is appropriate.
However it can also be seen the data lie in two groups. One cluster has a high percent sea salt sulfate and
the second has a very low percent sea salt sulfate. There is a high contribution of sea salt sulfate for
aerosols on filters $A_{>7.2 \ \mu m}$ and $B_{3.0–7.2}$ and this decreases for smaller size aerosols. Sulfate aerosols on the
$A_{>7.2 \ \mu m}$ filter lie along the sea salt/anthropogenic mixing line and are consistent with sea spray and a small
contribution from the ship's stack emission. Aerosols on the $B_{3.0–7.2}$, $C_{1.5–3.0 \ \mu m}$ and $D_{0.95–1.5 \ \mu m}$ filters and
most of the $E_{0.49–0.95 \ \mu m}$ filters lie between the upper and lower mixing line near to the right hand side of
the Figure 4. This indicates that sulfate is dominated by sea salt for these samples and the remainder is a
mixture of biogenic and anthropogenic sulfate. The δ^{34}S value for aerosols <0.49 microns ($F_{<0.49 \ \mu m}$ filter)
is more variable, it indicates very little sea salt sulfate is present and the majority of the sulfate is derived
from a mixture of biogenic and anthropogenic sulfate. Norman et al. (1999) showed that most data from
Alert during spring, fall, and winter lie between 0 and +7‰ which demonstrates a combination of
anthropogenic and sea salt sulfate aerosols. Also, their data show an increase in δ^{34}S values during
summer and confirm the importance of biogenic sulfate. The δ^{34}S data from Rempillo et al. (2011)
illustrate the dominance of anthropogenic sources during fall 2007 and 2008. In addition, Rempillo et al.
(2011) introduced a new sulfate source, the Smoking Hills (δ^{34}S = -30‰). This new source altered

background δ^{34}S to -30‰ near the Smoking Hills on Cape Bathurst, Northwest Territories (Figure 1) and δ^{34}S = -5‰ further away. There is no evidence for isotope data the contribution of sulfate from the Smoking Hills in this study, however, results from FLEXPART-WRF modeling shows several potential emissions originated or passed near the Smoking Hills.

4.4 Biogenic and anthropogenic sulfate:

The concentration of sulfate for aerosol samples derived from apportionment calculations for non-sea salt sulfate, anthropogenic and biogenic sources is shown in Figure 5. Results show an approximately uniform concentration for sulfate aerosols in the Arctic region, aside from the Gulf of the St Lawrence which has around four times higher concentrations. In addition, the highest concentration for both anthropogenic and biogenic sulfate were found in the $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ filter in the Arctic region.

A considerable amount of the sulfate concentration, ranging from 18 to 625 ng/m^3 for $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ filters, is from biogenic sources. These values are higher than the ones previously measured in the Arctic. For example, the average biogenic TOTAL sulfate concentration at Alert was around 30 ngS/m^3 during July (Norman et al., 1999). Also, Rempillo et al. (2011) reported low biogenic sulfate concentrations with maximum and median equal to 115.2 and 0 ng/m^3 respectively, above the Arctic Ocean in the Canadian Archipelago during fall 2007 and 2008.

Two possible sources for anthropogenic sulfate are ship's emissions and long range transport (LRT). In the Arctic CO_2 above background is likely from ship's emissions. The question is what is the appropriate background CO_2 mixing ratio? Sensitivity tests were performed assuming three different levels for background CO_2 (380, 385, 400 ppm). The result of sensitivity tests indicates that CO_2 mixing ratio (Figure 2a) reached 380, 385 and 400 ppm for less than 1.5, 0.5 and 0.1% of sampling time respectively and were relatively uniform in comparison with similar measurements by Rempillo et al. (2011) which reached more than 2000 ppm when stack emissions impacted the samples, on average, 5% of the sampling

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time (O. Rempillo, Personal communication June 2015). Therefore, the direct impact of ship stack emissions on most aerosol samples in this study collected is expected to be small. This was confirmed by nearly white filter samples after collection for all size fractions during this study compared to filters which appeared grey or black when contaminated by ship stack sulfate in 2007 and 2008. Furthermore, weak

5   correlations were observed between anthropogenic sulfate and CO_2 for the $A_{>7.2\ \mu m}$, $B_{3.0-7.2\ \mu m}$, $D_{0.95-1.5\ \mu m}$, $E_{0.49-0.95\ \mu m}$, and $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ samples suggesting that some portion of the anthropogenic sulfate was locally derived from the ship's emissions. However, the correlations were poor so CO_2 is not considered as an adequate tracer to distinguish local sulfate from long range transport (LRT).

Long range transport of SO_2 and particles is a second potential mechanism affecting the concentration of

10   anthropogenic sulfate during this study. The lifetime for SO_2 in the Arctic is more than one week (Thornton et al., 1989) and this potentially acts as a reservoir from which new anthropogenic aerosols could form. Long range transport of anthropogenic sulfur dominates in the Arctic winter and early spring because of the stable atmosphere and weak removal of particles, and concentrations significantly decrease during summer because of a lower number of sources within the polar front and stronger scavenging

15   (Quinn et al., 2002; Stone et al., 2014). The backward configuration modeling of FLEXPART-WRF shows that potential emissions originated from the east for the first few days (12th, 13th), and expanded to cover a broader region after that (data not shown). The Hudson Bay area is an important source of DMS (Richards et al., 1994), and air parcels originating from Hudson Bay may contain more biogenic SO_2 and sulfate. On the other hand, air parcels originating from the south (North America) may contain more

20   pollution from LRT.

Figure 5a shows the time series of anthropogenic sulfate concentration for size segregated aerosols. The size fraction of aerosols is different for two distinct anthropogenic sources: long range transport and ship emissions. The contribution of anthropogenic sulfate from long range transport is highest for the first sample collected in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and is pronounced in the $E_{0.49-0.95\ \mu m}$ and $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ filters. On

25   the other hand, the anthropogenic aerosol sulfate concentrations on filters $A_{>7.2\ \mu m}$, $B_{3.0-7.2\ \mu m}$, and $C_{1.5-3.0}$

μm were highest for samples collected from July 17th to 19th, which suggests more sulfate from the ship's emissions. Although the high volume sampler was turned off when the ship was stationary on each of these days, some anthropogenic aerosols from ship emissions may have influenced the results for aerosol sulfate in that time period (July 17th to 19th).

4.5 Aerosol growth:

The oxidation of SO_2 occurs in the gas phase, in solution, and also on the surface of particles. The rate of this oxidation depends on factors such as the presence of the aqueous phase in the form of clouds and fogs, the concentration of oxidants such as H_2O_2 and O_3, and sunlight intensity. The $\delta^{34}S$ value of aerosols reflects the proportion of $\delta^{34}S$ values for pre-existing aerosols and SO_2, by oxidation of local SO_2 on the surface of, or within, pre-existing aerosols (Seguin et al., 2011). Although the $\delta^{34}S$ value for pre-existing aerosols is not clear, it is reasonable to assume that particles with different sizes and the same $\delta^{34}S$ value originate from the same source (Seguin et al., 2011). However, sulfur isotope fractionation can confound apportionment. Harris et al., (2013) reported sulphur isotope fractionation due to SO_2 oxidation, which depends on temperature and oxidation pathways. By solving isotope fractionation equations (Harris et al., 2013) for the average temperature during sampling for this study (~5°C), $\delta^{34}S$ values of sulfate are (10.6 ± 0.7)‰, (16.1 ± 0.1)‰, and (-6.22 ± 0.02)‰ for homogeneous, heterogeneous, and TMI oxidation, respectively. However, a comparison of the $\delta^{34}S$ values for SO_2 and the $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ filter (or any other size fractions) does not support consistent isotope fractionation during SO_2 oxidation for samples collected during this campaign.

The isotope ratios ($\delta^{34}S$ value) for $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ and SO_2 filters are shown in Figure 6 along with the 1:1 line. Four of six samples lay close to the 1:1 line which suggests they have the same source or mixture of sources (and same isotope ratio value). However, there are two samples, collected on July 15-17 and 17-19, with different $\delta^{34}S$ values for SO_2 and $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ filter sulfate, which are shown with an asterisk on

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Figure 6. The anthropogenic fraction of sulfate for the $F_{<0.49 \mu m}$ filter for these two sampling periods is relatively high. Although, the anthropogenic fraction of sulfate in $F_{<0.49 \mu m}$ filters for these two sampling periods was higher than the remainder of samples (refer to section 4.4), SO_2 was predominantly biogenic (more than 80%).

5   Conditions for aerosol nucleation based on biogenic SO_2 concentratrions were evaluated by Rempillo et al. (2011). They showed that the threshold value of biogenic SO_2 to form new particles was 11 nmol/m^3 for the clean Arctic atmosphere in fall. Sulfur dioxide concentrations in this study were higher than this threshold throughout the July 2014 campaign (average around 32 nmol/m^3) except for July 11-13. This is consistent with the measurements of Mungall et al. (2015) who reported high DMS concentrations in both

10   the ocean and atmosphere during the same cruise. When $\delta^{34}S$ values for aerosol size fractions and SO_2 are similar, then it is likely that local SO_2 oxidation lead to substantial sulfate content. There are two periods that this is clearly the case and biogenic sulfate was dominant:

  1. July 11-13 (shown in Figure 5 as the data for July 12th) with $\delta^{34}S$ values for $E_{0.49-0.95 \mu m}$ and $D_{0.95-1.5 \mu m}$ filters of +14.2 and +13.1 ‰ respectively and,

15   2. July 13-15 (shown as the data for July 14th on Figure 5) with $\delta^{34}S$ values for SO_2, $F_{<0.49 \mu m}$ and $E_{0.49-0.95 \mu m}$ filters of +16.7, +16.8 and +15.8 ‰ respectively.

In contrast, anthropogenic sulfate contributed to aerosol growth on July 9-11 (shown in Figure 5 as data for July 10th) with $\delta^{34}S$ values for $E_{0.49-0.95 \mu m}$ and $D_{0.95-1.5 \mu m}$ filters equal to +5.4 and +5.0 ‰ respectively.

It is interesting to note that $\delta^{34}S$ values for July 17-19 on the $E_{0.49-0.95 \mu m}$ filters (0.49-0.95 µm) and SO_2

20   indicate almost pure biogenic sulfur ($\delta^{34}S_E$ = +17.8 ‰, $\delta^{34}S_{SO2}$ = +17.6 ‰). However, the $\delta^{34}S$ value for sulfate on the $F_{<0.49 \mu m}$ filters (<0.49 µm) was lower, +10.2 ‰. This suggests aerosols <0.49 µm (F) for this sampling period originated, in part, from anthropogenic sources, but aerosol growth to 0.49 to 0.95 µm (E) was dominated by oxidation of biogenic SO_2 at this time.

5   Conclusion

Size segregated aerosol sulfate concentrations were measured in the Arctic and sub-Arctic during July 2014. Sulfate was apportioned between sea salt, biogenic and anthropogenic sources using sulfur isotopes. Around 85% of coarse mode (>0.95 μm) aerosol sulfate was from sea salt. However there was little to no sea salt sulfate in fine aerosols (<0.49 μm), and approximately 92% of the sulfate in these aerosols was non-sea salt. Approximately uniform non-sea salt sulfate concentrations were found for TOTAL sulfate (130 ± 21 ng/m^3) in the Arctic atmosphere. The dominant source for fine aerosols and SO_2 was biogenic sulfur, arising from oxidation of DMS, which is likely due to high ocean-atmosphere gas exchange and the large ice-free surface in the Arctic during July (Levasseur, 2013).

A comparison of $\delta^{34}S$ values for fine (<0.49 microns) aerosols and SO_2 samples was used to show that the growth of pre-existing fine particles occurred primarily from the oxidation of SO_2 from DMS during all sampling events except two where a relatively high anthropogenic fraction in the smallest submicron size (<0.49 microns, F filter) was found (July 15-17 and 17-19). The dominance of ocean biogenic sources in fine aerosol sulfate and the similarity of the sulfur isotope composition for SO_2 and these fine particles highlight the contribution of marine life to the formation/growth of fine particles above the Arctic Ocean during the productive month of July.

Acknowledgements

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Table 1. Average TOTAL, sea salt and non-sea salt sulfate concentrations (ng/m^3) and sulfur isotopic values for size segregated aerosols filters.

Filter (Size) (μm)	Average Sulfate (STDEV) (ng/m^3)	Average $\delta^{34}S$ (STDEV)	SS Sulfate (STDEV) (ng/m^3)	NSS Sulfate (STDEV) (ng/m^3)
A (>7.20)	113 (93)	+18.9 (1.1)	99 (85)	14 (13)
B (3.00–7.20)	100 (82)	+18.2 (1.2)	86 (75)	14 (8)
C (1.50–3.00)	34 (20)	+18.0 (0.6)	27 (20)	8 (1)
D (0.95–1.50)	110 (200)	+16.0 (2.3)	55 (93)	55 (110)
E (0.49–0.95)	71 (130)	+12.3 (5.8)	5 (5)	66 (120)
F (<0.49)	210 (320)	+14.0 (1.5)	6 (6)	208 (320)

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Figure 1. The route of CCGS *Amundsen* from 8 to 24 July 2014. Circles indicate sampling intervals for the high volume sampler.

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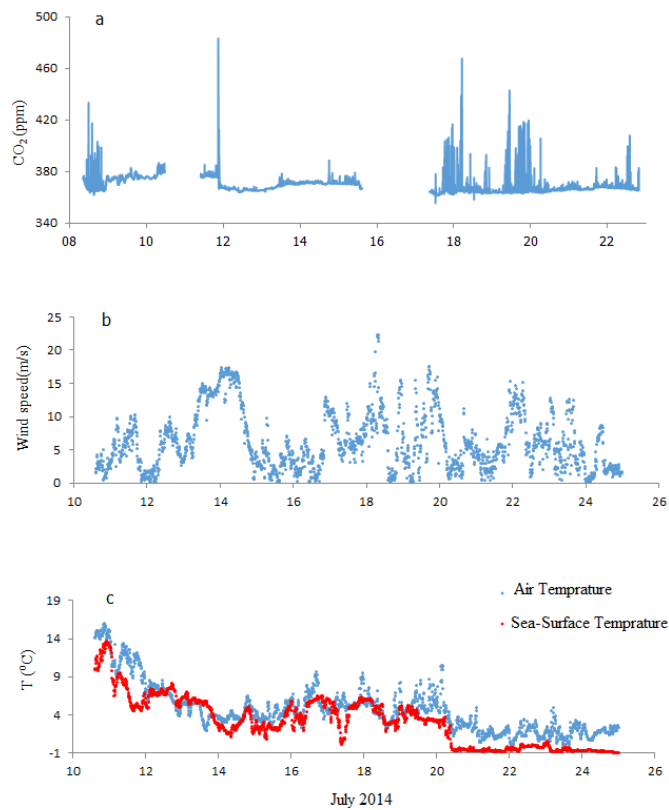and Physics
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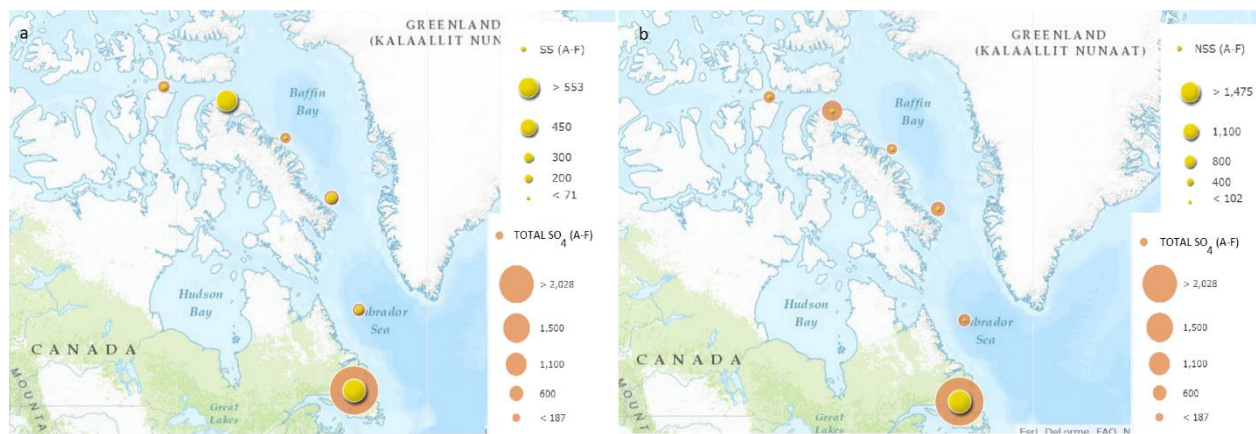Figure 2. (a) CO_2 mixing ratio (ppm); (b) Wind speed (m/s) (c) Sea surface and Air temperatures (˚C).

Figure 3. TOTAL sulfate (ng/m^3), sea salt (a) and non-sea salt (b) sulfate concentrations of aerosols on A$_{>7.2\ \mu m}$-F$_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ filters.
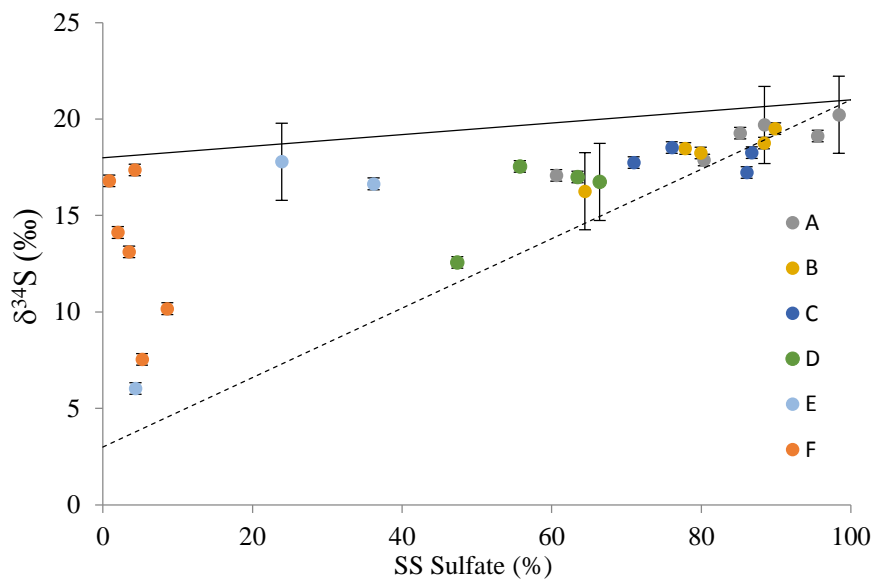
Figure 4. Total $\delta^{34}S$ versus the percentage of sea salt sulfate of size fractionated aerosols. The mixing lines show sea salt/biogenic sulfate (solid line) and sea salt/anthropogenic sulfate (dashed line) contributions.
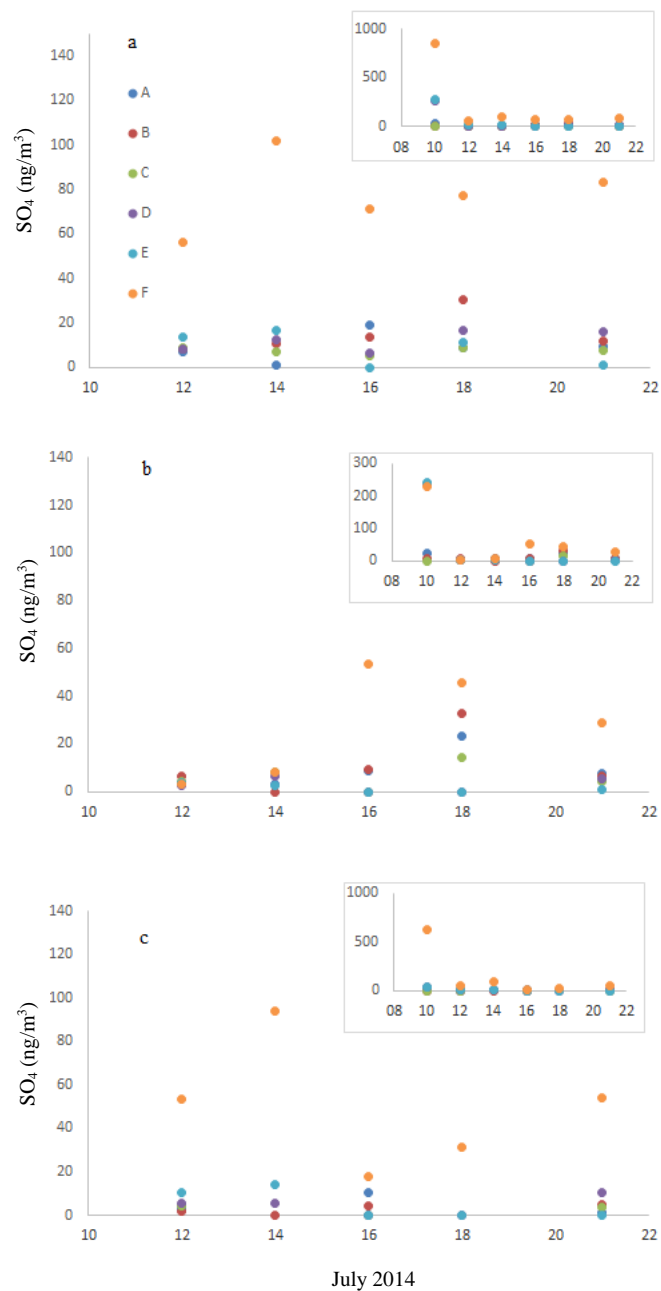
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Figure 5. Non-sea salt (a), anthropogenic (b) and biogenic (c) sulfate concentrations for size segregated aerosols in the Arctic. Inserts contain the first sampling period (9-11 July) in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.
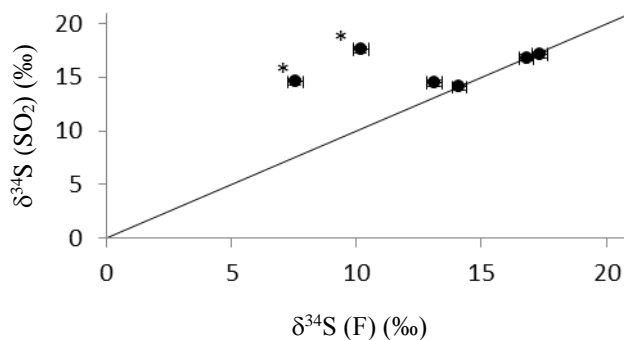

Figure 6. The isotope ratio ($\delta^{34}S$ value) for $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ and SO_2 filters along with the 1:1 line. Two samples with different $\delta^{34}S$ values for SO_2 and $F_{<0.49\ \mu m}$ filter sulfate are shown with asterisks.

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