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- 1 Single-particle investigation of summertime and wintertime Antarctic sea spray aerosols
- 2 using low-Z particle EPMA, Raman microspectrometry, and ATR-FTIR imaging
- 3 techniques

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ABSTRACT

Two aerosol samples collected at King Sejong Korean scientific research station, Antarctica on Dec. 9, 2011 in the austral summer (sample S1) and July 23, 2012 in the austral winter (sample S2), when the oceanic chlorophyll-a levels were quite different, by ~19 times (2.46 vs. 0.13 μg/L, respectively), were investigated on a single particle basis using quantitative energy-dispersive electron probe X-ray microanalysis (ED-EPMA), called low-Z particle EPMA, Raman microspectrometry (RMS), and attenuated total reflectance Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) imaging techniques to obtain their characteristics based on the elemental chemical compositions, molecular species, and mixing state. X-ray analysis showed that the supermicron summertime and wintertime Antarctic aerosol samples have different elemental chemical compositions, even though all the individual particles analyzed were sea spray aerosols (SSAs); i.e., the contents of C, O, Ca, S, and Si were more elevated, whereas Cl was more depleted, for sample S1 having a much higher chlorophyll-a level than for sample S2. Based on qualitative analysis of the chemical species present in individual SSAs by the combined application of RMS and ATR-FTIR imaging, different organic species were encountered in samples S1 and S2; i.e., Mg hydrate salts of alanine were predominant in samples S1 and S2, whereas Mg salts of fatty acids internally mixed with Mg

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29 hydrate salts of alanine were significant in sample S2. Although CaSO₄ was encountered

30 significantly in both samples S1 and S2, other inorganic species, such as Na₂SO₄, NaNO₃,

31 Mg(NO₃)₂, SiO₂, and CH₃SO₃Mg, were encountered more significantly in sample S1, suggesting

that those compounds may be related to the higher phytoplankton activity in summer.

INTRODUCTION

As more than 70% of the Earth's surface is covered by ocean, sea spray aerosols (SSAs) make a dominant contribution to the total aerosol load in the air (Quinn et al., 2015). The influence of nascent SSAs on the Earth's radiative balance, either directly by scattering light or indirectly by acting as cloud droplets or ice nuclei, needs to be understood to better predict the additional anthropogenic effects on SSAs (Ault et al., 2013a). Recently, it was suggested that SSAs mixed with organic matter occurring at the ocean surface can have a significant influence on the Earth's climate change (Wang et al., 2015). In addition, an understanding of the nascent SSA properties in terms of the physical, chemical, and biological processes in the ocean surface is required to reduce the current uncertainties for climate models (Prather et al., 2013).

SSAs are generated by bubbles bursting at the sea surface, where submicron and supermicron SSAs are believed to be formed mostly from film drops and jet drops, respectively (Quinn et al., 2014; Quinn et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015). Submicron nascent SSAs were reported to have more enriched organic species and less inorganic salts than the supermicron nascent SSAs (Ault et al., 2013b; Prather et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2015). Although the molecular species of the organic matter in nascent SSAs are unknown, a recent mesocosm experiment showed that submicron SSAs were enriched with aliphatic-rich organic species, whereas supermicron SSAs contained more oxidized organic species (Wang et al., 2015). As organic and inorganic matter in sea water could be produced through the biological food web, the chemical compositions in nascent SSAs would be interrelated with the biological activity in sea-water. On the other hand, there have been disputes regarding the correlation between the biological activity in the ocean and SSA organic matter in the marine boundary layer. Some studies reported positive correlations between the levels of chlorophyll-a, which is an indicator of the biological activity in the sea-water, and organic matter in SSAs (Prather et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2013; Rinaldi et al., 2010; O'Dowd et al., 2004), whereas some showed no correlation between them (Quinn et al., 2014; Bates et al.,

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2012). In addition, it was claimed that the chlorophyll-a level showed a complicated correlation with the organic matters in nascent SSAs and the bacterial enzyme activities should also be considered to better understand the overall generation and temporal variations of organic matter (Wang et al., 2015), strongly suggesting the necessity for further studies.

The Antarctic region, which is isolated from anthropogenic sources, is one of the few pristine places to study natural SSAs with a minimal anthropogenic influence (Maskey et al., 2011). A major constituent in the Antarctic troposphere is nascent SSAs (Hara et al., 2012; Maskey et al., 2011) and their chemical compositions can be altered through heterogeneous reactions with SO_4^{2-} and CH₃SO₃- during the summer (Hara et al., 2014). Some studies on the characterization and seasonal cycles of different aerosol species at various Antarctic locations, such as McMurdo (Ross Island), Aboa (Queen Maud Land), Syowa (East Ongul Island), Dome Fuji (Queen Maud Land), O'Higgins (Chile), Admiralty Bay (King George Island), and Mizuho (Atka Bay) stations, have been carried out, and bulk and single-particle analytical techniques showed that the sea-salts and sulfur-containing species were the most abundant constituents in Antarctic aerosol samples (Hara et al., 2013; Hara et al., 2012; Maskey et al., 2011; Préndez et al., 2009; Biancato et al., 2006; Hara et al., 2006; Kerminen et al., 2000; Shaw, 1988). In this study, two Antarctic aerosol samples collected in the summer and winter, having a drastic contrast in their oceanic chlorophyll-a levels, were characterized on a single particle basis using quantitative energy-dispersive electron probe X-ray microanalysis (ED-EPMA), called low-Z particle EPMA, Raman microspectrometry (RMS), and attenuated total reflection Fourier transform infrared (ATR-FTIR) imaging. In the present study, low-Z particle EPMA was applied to investigate the elemental compositional contrast between the summertime and wintertime samples and two vibrational spectroscopic techniques, such as RMS and ATR-FTIR imaging, were employed on a single particle basis to identify the organic and inorganic molecular species present in Antarctic aerosol samples, clearly revealing the different chemical features between two samples.

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2. EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

86 **2.1 Samples**

Aerosol samples were collected at a Korean scientific research station in the Antarctic: King Sejong station (62°13′S, 58°47′W), which is located at King George Island, Chile (see Figure S1

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of the Supporting Information). King George Island in the South Ocean is 120 km off the coast of Antarctica, and is dominated by pervasive ice caps, with more than 90% of the island being glaciated. This study examined two aerosol samples collected on Dec. 9, 2011 in the austral summer (sample S1) and July 23, 2012 in the austral winter (sample S2), when the oceanic chlorophyll-a levels were quite different, by ~19 times (2.46 vs. 0.13 µg/L, respectively, which were determined daily for nearby oceanic water using a fluorometer (TD 700, Turner Design, USA)). The samples were collected on Al foil substrates (Sigma-Aldrich, 99.8% purity) using a three stage cascade impactor (PM₁₀ Impactor, Dekati Inc.) during daytime at temperatures, T = 1.1 - 2.1 °C and -1.9 - -1.5 °C and relative humidity, RH = 94.1 - 94.5 % and 87.6 - 92.1 % for samples S1 and S2, respectively. The impactor had aerodynamic cut-sizes of 10, 2.5, and 1 µm for stages 1, 2, and 3, respectively, at a 10 L min⁻¹ sampling flow, and individual particles collected on stages 2 and 3 (PM_{2.5-10} and PM_{1.0-2.5} fractions with the size range of 2.5–10 µm and 1–2.5 µm, respectively) were examined.

Three-day (72 h) backward air-mass trajectories were obtained using the Hybrid Lagrangian Single-Particle Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model from the NOAA Air Resources Laboratory's web server (http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/hysplit4.html). The backtrajectories for samples S1 and S2 show that the air-masses at heights of 500 m, 1000 m, and 1500 m above sea level, which originated from the Pacific Ocean, travelled over the Pacific Ocean and passed over Chile, respectively (see Figure S1 of the Supporting Information).

2.2 Low-Z particle EPMA measurement and data analysis

Low-Z particle EPMA measurements were carried out by scanning electron microscopy (JSM-6390, JEOL) equipped with an Oxford Link SATW ultrathin window energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) detector, which has a spectral resolution of 133 eV for Mn Kα X-rays. The X-ray spectra and elemental X-ray maps were recorded using INCA Energy software. An accelerating voltage of 10 kV and a beam current of 0.5 nA, and a typical measuring time of 20 s were used for the X-ray spectral data acquisition using area mode, where the X-ray signals were obtained by the scanning electron beam over the entire area of each particle. The net X-ray intensities for the chemical elements were obtained by a non-linear, least-square fit of the spectra collected using the AXIL program (Vekemans et al., 1994). The elemental concentrations of the individual particles were

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determined from their X-ray intensities using a Monte Carlo calculation combined with reverse successive approximations (Ro et al., 2003). For the X-ray mapping measurements, an accelerating voltage and beam current are the same as the area mode measurements except for a typical measuring time of 30 min. A more detailed discussion of the EPMA measurement conditions can be found elsewhere (Ro et al., 2005; Ro et al., 1999).

2.3 RMS measurements

The particles collected on Al foil were mounted on the microscope stage of a confocal Raman microspectrometer (XploRA, Horiba Jobin Yvon) equipped with a $100\times$, 0.9 numerical aperture objective (Olympus). Raman point and mapping measurements were carried out under ambient conditions. Optical images of the particles for relocation were obtained using a video camera. Raman scattering was excited at the 532 nm wavelength using an air-cooled diode laser and detected with a multichannel air cooled charge-coupled device (CCD) at an 1800 gr/mm grating. The excitation laser power delivered to the individual particles was approximately 3 mW using a controlled confocal hole of $300\sim500~\mu m$ and a slit, $100~\mu m$ in diameter. The spectral ranges of $100-4000~cm^{-1}$ were performed with a 5 s acquisition time and 5 times accumulation for each measurement. The spectral resolution was $1.8~cm^{-1}$ and the spot size of the laser beam at the sample was estimated to be $\sim1~\mu m^2$. The XYZ computer-controlled Raman mapping was performed by obtaining the Raman spectra in point-by-point XY scanning mode with a $1~\mu m$ step and a 5 s integration time per pixel. The spectra and images were acquired using Labspec6 software. A more detailed discussion of the RMS measurement conditions for single particle analysis can be found elsewhere (Sobanska et al., 2012; Eom et al., 2013; Jung et al., 2014).

2.4 ATR-FTIR imaging measurements

The ATR-FTIR imaging measurements were performed using a Perkin Elmer Spectrum 100 FTIR spectrometer interfaced to a Spectrum Spotlight 400 FTIR microscope. An ATR accessory using a germanium hemispherical IRE crystal, 600 μ m in diameter, was used for ATR imaging. The ATR accessory was mounted on the X–Y stage of the FTIR microscope and the IRE crystal was made to come into contact with the sample through a force lever. A spatial resolution of 3.1 μ m at 1726 cm⁻¹ (λ = 5.79 μ m) is achievable (Van Dalen et al., 2007). A 16 x 1 pixel mercury

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cadmium telluride (MCT) array detector was used to obtain the FTIR images with a pixel size of 1.56 μm. For each pixel, an ATR-FTIR spectrum, ranging from 680 to 4000 cm⁻¹ with a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹, was obtained from eight interferograms, which were co-added and Fourier-transformed. The position of the crystal on the sample was determined using an optical microscope equipped with a light emitting diode and a CCD camera, which allowed relocation of the same single particles that had been analyzed using RMS before ATR-FTIR imaging. Spectral data processing was performed using Perkin Elmer Spectrum IMAGE software. A more detailed discussion of the ATR-FTIR imaging measurement conditions for single particle analysis can be found elsewhere (Song et al., 2010; Song et al., 2013; Jung et al., 2014).

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Single-particle characterization of the summertime and wintertime Antarctic SSAs using low-Z particle EPMA

Figure 1 presents typical secondary electron images (SEIs) of the individual particles on two PM_{2.5-10} (stage 2) samples collected in the austral summer and winter, where the chemical species comprising each particle, determined from X-ray spectral data, is indicated. All the particles on the images are of a marine origin having major Na and Cl contents with small quantities of C, O, Mg, K, Ca, S, and/or Si. Overall, approximately 600 particles of samples S1 and S2 examined by low-Z particle EPMA were of a marine origin. Na, Mg, Cl, S, C, and O were present in all the particles, whereas K, Ca, and Si were encountered more frequently in the summertime sample S1 than in the wintertime sample S2 (93.6 % vs. 79.4 % encountering frequencies for K; 93.9 % vs. 75.5 % for Ca; and 70.1 % vs. 0.7 % for Si, respectively). In particular, Si is present exclusively in sample S1, which might be a good indicator of the phytoplankton influence on the nascent SSAs.

As ambient relative humidity (RH) at the sampling times were higher than 87.6% and the efflorescence RHs (ERHs) of the inorganic sea salt components (e.g., ERHs of NaCl and CaSO₄ are ~45-47 % and ~80-90 %, respectively (Gupta et al., 2015; Schindelholz et al., 2014; Xiao et al., 2008)), the SSAs would be collected as aqueous droplets at the time of collection. Once

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exposed at a low RH, e.g. by being either handled under the dry ambient conditions or placed in the vacuum chamber of SEM, they would crystallize fractionally, resulting in their heterogeneous mixing states, as shown in Figure 1, having bright and crystalline solids, segregated and somewhat dark regions, and elongated rods (indicated by the yellow arrows in Figure 1), which are more distinctive for the summertime particles. The fractional crystallization of SSAs has also been reported (Ault et al., 2013a; Hara et al., 2013; Hara et al., 2014). To determine the chemical species of the crystalline solids, dark regions, and rods, elemental X-ray and molecular Raman mapping measurements were performed on the same individual SSA particles. Figure 2 presents the SEIs and molecular Raman and elemental X-ray map images of two typical summertime and wintertime SSA particles. As Raman-inactive NaCl and MgCl₂ species cannot generate Raman signals, Raman mapping was performed to determine the spatial distributions of CaSO₄ (using Raman signal in 1000 - 1020 cm⁻¹ range), Na₂SO₄ (using Raman signal in 985 - 995 cm⁻¹ range), and organic species (using Raman signal in 2800 – 3000 cm⁻¹ range). X-ray mapping images of Na, Mg, Ca, Cl, S, C, and O are overlaid in different colors on the SEIs. The combined Raman and X-ray map image data of Figure 2(a) clearly indicate that the upper bright solid (region 1, notated on the SEI of Figure 2(a)) of the summertime SSA particle is composed of NaCl, the bottom-right region 3 is a mixture of MgCl₂ and organic species (having a somewhat dark appearance due to the low secondary electron yield of organic species), and the two elongated rods are of a mixture of CaSO₄ and Na₂SO₄. The wintertime SSA particle in Figure 2(b) is composed of NaCl (at region 1) and the mixture of MgCl₂ and organic species (at region 2). As C and O are overlapping in their X-ray maps of Figure 2, the organic species appear to contain a significant amount of oxygen. Figure 3 shows the X-ray spectra and elemental atomic concentrations obtained from the entire regions of the summertime and wintertime particles using area-mode X-ray data acquisition. The summertime particle contains more C, O, Si, S, and Ca than the wintertime particle. As the amount of sulfate (by assuming all the sulfur exists as sulfate) for the summertime particle is larger than that of Ca, the sulfate first crystallized as CaSO₄ and the remaining sulfate crystallized as Na₂SO₄, resulting in the formation of elongated rods composed of a mixture of CaSO₄ and Na₂SO₄. For the wintertime particle, CaSO₄ was observed weakly at the upper-right region because of the low sulfate content.

Table S1 in the Supporting Information shows the mean elemental concentrations for an

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overall \sim 600 individual particles in PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions of the summertime and wintertime samples, obtained by low-*Z* particle EPMA. As all the particles analyzed in these samples are of a marine origin, the mean atomic concentrations of Na and Cl are largest (ranging in 25.2 – 28.3 % and 24.8 – 29.2 %, respectively), followed by high C and O concentrations (18.8 – 27.1 % and 17.3 – 19.5 %, respectively), compared to those of Mg, Si, S, K, and Ca which are in the range, 0.0 – 2.9 %. Based on the mean elemental weight concentrations, the C and O contents were smaller based on the mean atomic concentrations, even though they were still considerable (9.6 – 14.6 % and 12.0 – 13.6 %, respectively). On the other hand, the organic contents on a molecular basis would be smaller than the elemental C contents but the molecular organic content could not be estimated because the organic molecular species in SSAs have not been identified clearly (Ault et al., 2013b; Laskina, 2015; Quinn et al., 2015). An interesting observation was that all the supermicron Antarctic SSAs both in the summertime and wintertime samples were a mixture of inorganic and organic species.

To better examine the chemical compositional contrast between samples S1 and S2, Table 1 lists the mean elemental concentration ratios to Na for individual particles together with those for bulk sea-water. The atomic concentration ratios of C, O, Si, S, and Ca; Cl; and Mg and K for the summertime sample were higher and lower than and similar to those of the wintertime sample, respectively (also see Fig. S2, which clearly shows different distributions of individual particles having specific elemental concentration ratios between the summertime and wintertime samples), indicating that C, O, Si, S, and Ca; and Cl are enriched and depleted in the summertime sample, respectively. In addition, those enriched and depleted elements have higher and lower concentration ratios than the bulk sea-water ratios, respectively.

As the [C]/[Na] ratios for both samples were high compared to bulk sea-water [C]/[Na] ratio, even the supermicron Antarctic SSAs contain significantly enriched organic species. The [C]/[Na] ratios of sample S1 were higher than those of sample S2, suggesting that the higher organic matter is related to the higher phytoplankton activities, and those for particles in the PM_{1.0}. fractions of samples S1 and S2 (1.12 and 0.83, respectively) were higher than PM_{2.5-10} fractions (0.87 and 0.70, respectively), indicating that the smaller particles contain more organic species, which is consistent with other observations reporting more organics in the smaller SSAs (Quinn et al., 2015).

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The [O]/[Na] ratios of sample S1 are higher than those of sample S2, and those for particles in the PM_{2.5-10} fractions of samples S1 and S2 (0.77 and 0.68, respectively) are higher than the PM_{10.25} fractions (0.71 and 0.66, respectively). Similar observations were made for S and Ca, for which the elemental concentration ratios were somewhat higher in sample S1 and in larger size fractions (see Table 1). In addition, the frequencies of encountering particles having higher [S]/[Na] or [Ca]/[Na] ratios than bulk sea-water were significantly higher in the summertime sample and in the larger size fractions (see encountering frequency data for S and Ca in Table 1), indicating that O, S, and Ca are interrelated with common sources, which is also supported by the observation of elongated CaSO₄ rods in the Raman and X-ray mapping measurements. The enriched S and O in the S1 sample appear to be due to the elevated nss-SO₄²⁻ levels. In the austral summer (November-March) of the Antarctic, higher solar radiation levels and temperatures than the other seasons tend to enhance the phytoplankton activities (as supported by its high chlorophyll-a level for sample S1), which enhances the production and emission of oceanic dimethyl sulfide (DMS) (Wagenbach et al., 1998; Preunkert et al., 2008). The volatile DMS in the atmosphere undergoes complex sequences of gas-phase oxidation reactions, generating a range of sulfur-containing products, such as dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO), methanesulfonic acid (MSA), SO₂, and H₂SO₄ (Gaston et al., 2010). These oxidized products can condense onto preexisting particles, resulting in the formation of nss-SO₄²-containing SSAs. As CaSO₄ can efflorescence at very high RH, the nss-SO₄² can combine easily with Ca, as observed in Figure 1, where the CaSO₄ rods are observed more frequently in sample S1. Si is encountered for the summertime particles, and more abundantly ([Si]/[Na] = 0.03 vs. 0.01) and frequently (encountering frequency = 93.4 % vs. 47.5 %) in the $PM_{1.0-2.5}$ fraction than in the PM_{2.5-10} fraction. As Si is observed mostly in sample S1 and more in the smaller size fraction, it appears to be from fragments of silica cell walls of diatoms, a major group of algae and a common type of phytoplankton in the oceans (Litchman and Klausmeier, 2008; Alpert et al., 2015). In winter, the combination of reduced diatom activities and enhanced sea ice (Kurahashi-Nakamura et al., 2007; Vancoppenolle et al., 2013) would hinder the emission of Si species into the atmosphere, resulting in the scarce observation of Si in the S2 sample. In the SSAs of samples S1 and S2, only Cl is depleted compared to bulk sea-water ([Cl]/[Na] = 1.00 and 1.03 for samples S1 and S2, respectively, vs. 1.16 for sea-water), and the Cl depletion

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is somewhat higher for the summertime SSAs than the wintertime and for PM_{1.0-2.5} fractions than PM_{2.5-10} fractions, suggesting that Cl was liberated by the reactions of NaCl and/or MgCl₂ with nss-SO₄²⁻ and/or CH₃SO₃⁻, which are more abundant in the summer, with more depletion for smaller SSAs having a higher surface to volume ratio and higher reactivity.

3.2 Single-particle molecular speciation of Antarctic SSAs using RMS and ATR-FTIR imaging

Based on low-Z particle EPMA analysis, the C, O, Si, S, and Ca levels were elevated for the summertime SSAs on a single-particle basis. This quantitative elemental X-ray analysis provides useful information on their morphology, elemental chemical compositions, and mixing states of individual Antarctica SSAs. On the other hand, as low-Z particle EPMA has a limitation on molecular speciation and hydrogen detection, the RMS and ATR-FTIR imaging techniques were applied in combination for the analysis of the same individual SSAs to investigate their Raman- and IR-active organic and inorganic molecular species. Raman and ATR-FTIR techniques are useful because their spectra of organic and inorganic compounds are quite specific depending on their chemical species, phase, crystallinity, and neighboring environment. In particular, the complicated vibrational spectral patterns observed in the fingerprint region (< 1500 cm⁻¹) in the Raman and FTIR spectra can be critically useful for the positive or negative identification of specific organic compounds with the same phase and crystallinity. In addition, the differences in their spectra owing to their different signal generation mechanisms (i.e., scattering vs. absorption of energy) and different selection rules would make the two fingerprint techniques rather complementary (Jung et al., 2014).

3.2.1 Organic species

Among the \sim 250 individual SSAs of samples S1 and S2 investigated by RMS and ATR-FTIR imaging techniques, the frequently encountered organic species are Mg hydrate salts of alanine (MgAla) and Mg salts of fatty acids (MgFAs).

Figure 4 shows baseline-corrected Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra of two individual summertime SSAs containing mainly two types of MgAla (detailed identification is given later.)

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299 with some inorganic compounds. If several peaks from inorganic compounds (i.e., Raman peaks at 124 and 467 cm⁻¹ for SiO₂, at 717 and 1052 cm⁻¹ for Mg(NO₃)₂, at 989 cm⁻¹ for Na₂SO₄, at 1008 300 cm⁻¹ for CaSO₄·2H₂O₅ and at 1068 cm⁻¹ for NaNO₃; and ATR-FTIR peaks at 1087 and 1165 cm⁻¹ 301 302 for SiO₂, at 1100 cm⁻¹ for Na₂SO₄ and CaSO₄·2H₂O) are excluded from the consideration, the 303 Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra of two types of SSAs are similar except for their different Raman 304 and ATR-FTIR peak shapes. That is, the Raman peaks of crystalline water are sharp at 3276 and 3390 cm⁻¹ for Type 1 SSA, compared to the relatively broad peak at 3410 cm⁻¹ for Type 2 SSA. 305 The C-H vibration Raman peaks of Type 1 SSA are split at 3000/2988 cm⁻¹ and 2940/2919 cm⁻¹, 306 which correspond to the non-split Raman peaks of Type 2 SSA at 2989 cm⁻¹ and 2939 cm⁻¹. The 307 C-H bending Raman peaks of Type 1 SSA are split into 1433/1457/1479 cm⁻¹, which correspond 308 to the Raman peaks of Type 2 SSA at 1427/1452 cm⁻¹. In the fingerprint region, the characteristic 309 Raman peaks both for Types 1 and 2 SSAs are observed at 869, 1102, 1130, 1254, ~1300, ~1370, 310 and 1640 cm⁻¹. Similarly, the ATR-FTIR peaks of crystal water are sharp and broad at 3265 and 311 3370 cm⁻¹ for Type 1 SSA and 3372 cm⁻¹ for Type 2 SSA, respectively, even though the C-H 312 vibration ATR-FTIR peaks are unclear for both types of SSAs. In the ATR-FTIR spectra, the water 313 bending peaks at ~1640 cm⁻¹ are quite strong for both Types SSAs with the peak of Type 1 SSA 314 315 being much sharper. In the fingerprint region, the characteristic ATR-FTIR peaks for both Types 1 and 2 SSAs at 770, 869, 1127, 1254, 1312, ~1360, 1376, 1428, 1476, and 1507 cm⁻¹ were sharp 316 317 and broad for the Type 1 and Type 2 SSAs, respectively. Similar Raman and ATR-FTIR peak patterns of the Types 1 and 2 spectra except for their different peak shapes strongly indicates that 318 319 they have the same in chemical compositions but with different crystal structures. As amorphous 320 solids tend to provide broader Raman and ATR-FTIR peaks than crystalline solids (Shebanova and 321 Lazor, 2003; Gouadec and Colomban, 2007; Lutz and Haeuseler, 1999; Yan et al., 2008), the Types 322 1 and 2 SSAs are most likely amorphous and crystalline solid particles, respectively.

Figure S3 shows the Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra of aerosols generated by the nebulization of a mixture solution of 0.2 M alanine and 0.1 M MgCl₂ standard chemicals and collected on Al foil. All the fresh aerosol particles immediately after nebulization showed the first pair of Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra in Figure S3 on a single particle basis, which resemble the Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra shown in Figure 4(b) when the Raman and ATR-FTIR peaks from the inorganic compounds are excluded. In particular, the ATR-FTIR spectra in Figure 4(b) and

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Figure S3 appear similar. When the aerosols were measured ~1 year later after the generated aerosols had been sealed in a plastic box and stored in a desiccator, approximately half of the generated aerosols showed a second pair of Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra, as shown in Figure S3, and the other half showed a third pair. The third spectra pair appears similar to those in Figure 4(a) for a crystalline solid SSA, whereas the second spectra pair appears to be between the first and third spectra pairs in Figure S3, strongly suggesting that the fresh aerosols generated from the alanine and MgCl₂ solution are a somewhat amorphous form of MgAla, whereas the second and third spectra pairs suggest a more crystalline nature of MgAla. The Raman peaks of the aerosols generated at 3409 and 1637 cm⁻¹ are not from free water because these Raman peaks were unchanged even at very low RH (< 5%) when the in-situ Raman measurement was performed by changing the RH in the hygroscopic measurement system described in a previous study (Gupta et al., 2015). This means that the intensities and shapes of the Raman peaks should be reduced and changed, respectively, when the RH is decreased to a very low level if these peaks are from free water. In other words, the peaks are from the hydrate crystal water bound for divalent Mg compounds as the narrow peak shapes and peak positions resemble those of the known spectra of MgCl₂ 6H₂O and MgCl₂ 4H₂O solids with hydrate crystal water (Gupta et al., 2015).

Based on a comparison of the Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra obtained for the summertime SSAs and aerosols generated from the mixture solution of standard alanine and MgCl₂, the organic species are most probably the Mg hydrate salts of alanine (MgAla), even though the precise molecular formula could not be confirmed. The Raman spectrum, which is the same as that of crystalline MgAla, was also observed for nascent SSAs produced using breaking waves, even though their molecular species were not identified (Ault et al., 2013b; Wang et al., 2015). In a previous study, the ATR-FTIR spectra were obtained from other summertime Antarctica SSAs, which appear very similar to that of amorphous MgAla (Maskey et al., 2011). Interestingly, almost all the ATR-FTIR spectra obtained in the previous work were for amorphous MgAla, whereas among the 254 individual SSAs analyzed in this study, the number of crystalline and amorphous MgAla-containing SSAs were 246 and 8, respectively, based on their Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra. How crystallization from SSAs occurred to form these organic Mg hydrate salts in the Antarctic environment is unclear because crystalline salts could not be made under very dry conditions and by oven-drying overnight. On the other hand, crystalline salts were encountered

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from the generated aerosol sample stored for ~ 1 year in a desiccator. Some efficient efflorescence seeds should be present in the Antarctic SSAs, which have much more complicated chemical compositions than the mixture solution of pure alanine and MgCl₂. The identification of an accurate molecular formula and structure of MgAla and an investigation of the crystallization mechanism requires further study.

The dominant dissolved amino acid in sea-water is glycine followed by alanine, aspartic acid or serine (Ogawa and Tanoue, 2003; Dittmar et al., 2001). In sea-water, MgAla species would be present as dissolved organic matter (DOM) in the form of alanine before being airborne. On the other hand, based on the Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra of standard powdery glycine and aerosol particles nebulized from aqueous mixtures of glycine/MgCl₂ and glycine/alanine/MgCl₂ as well as other common target chemicals for organic matter in nascent SSAs such as sodium dodecyl sulfate, a dipeptide of alanine and glycine, a polypeptide, and lipopolysaccharides, which are shown in Figure S4, it is clear that MgAla-containing SSAs are composed of almost pure alanine without glycine and others. As the Raman and ATR-FTIR sensitivities for alanine and glycine are comparable and the same Raman spectrum for MgAla was also observed in the nascent SSAs produced from breaking waves, there must be some unknown processes for the generation of MgAla SSAs from sea-water.

Figure 5 shows the baseline-corrected Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra of two individual SSAs of sample S2 containing mainly MgFAs and both MgAla and MgFAs. As shown in Figure S5, the Raman spectra of powdery standard Mg palmitate, palmitic acid, Mg stearate, and stearic acid appear similar except for minor differences in relative peak intensities, which is not sufficient to identify the organic species having the Raman spectrum of Figure 5(a). On the other hand, Mg palmitate/stearate and palmitic/stearic acids have very different ATR-FTIR spectra as shown in Figure S5. Owing to their additional strong peaks at ~1700 cm⁻¹ for the -COOH functional group and very different peak patterns in the fingerprint region of 700 – 1600 cm⁻¹, palmitic/stearic acids can be clearly distinguishable from Mg palmitate/stearate. The ATR-FTIR spectrum of Mg palmitate is different from that of Mg stearate based on the strong hydrate peaks at 3374 and 3256 cm⁻¹ for Mg palmitate and the clearly different peak patterns in the wavenumber range, 1200 - 1600 cm⁻¹, between those of Mg palmitate and stearate. Figure S6 shows the ATR-FTIR spectra of Mg palmitate, Mg stearate, a mixture of Mg palmitate and stearate (by 3:1), and MgFAs-containing

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SSA, where the spectra of the mixture particle and the SSA match quite well, indicating that the exemplar Antarctic SSA is a mixture of Mg palmitate and stearate. Therefore, this type of SSA is called the Mg salts of fatty acids (MgFAs) above. The same Raman spectrum as that of MgFAs was also observed for the nascent SSAs produced using breaking waves (Ault et al., 2013b; Wang et al., 2015). As the pKa of palmitic and steric acids is 4.95, the palmitic/stearic acid moieties degraded from the lipids would exist predominantly as surfactant palmitate/stearate in SSML and/or on sea-surface and would crystallize as their Mg salts after the MgFAs-containing SSAs were airborne by bubble busting.

3.2.2 Inorganic species

The Raman and IR active inorganic species encountered in the Antarctic SSAs were CaSO₄, Na₂SO₄, Na₂NO₃, Mg(NO₃)₂, NH₄NO₃, CH₃SO₃Mg (Mg methanesulfonate), and SiO₂ and their standard Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra are shown in Figure S7. The inorganic species present in the SSAs could be identified clearly by matching both the Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra of the SSAs with those of the standard inorganic compounds, even though the inorganic species in the SSAs were observed together with organic species so that the Raman and ATR-FTIR peaks of inorganic species sometimes appear weak compared to those of organic species. On the other hand, even under that situation, RMS is a powerful tool as the Raman peaks of inorganic compounds are quite useful for identifying them.

3.3 Single-particle characterization of Antarctic SSAs using RMS and ATR-FTIR imaging

Table 2 shows relative encountering frequencies of the organic and inorganic species for ~250 individual Antarctic SSAs. The encounter frequency of certain chemical species was determined by counting the number of individual SSAs containing the species, regardless of its content as the Raman and ATR-FTIR spectral data were used for qualitative molecular speciation. Based on X-ray analysis, C and O were present in all the analyzed Antarctic SSAs. Indeed, organic salt species were detected for all the particles of samples S1 and S2, showing that organic species are ubiquitously present, even in supermicron SSAs. As shown in Table 2, organic salt species

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were categorized into three groups containing (i) MgAla, (ii) MgFAs, and (iii) mixtures of the two organic salts. The Raman and IR active inorganic salts were always observed together with organic salt species, so that the relative encountering frequencies of inorganic species are shown in each organic group.

All the particles of sample S1 contained only MgAla together with other inorganic species. In particular, CaSO₄ and Na₂SO₄ are mixed almost internally with MgAla (for PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, the encountering frequencies of CaSO₄ were 98.3% and 92.9%, respectively, and those of Na₂SO₄ were 98.3% and 88.6%, respectively), indicating that SO₄²⁻ is mostly in the form of a CaSO₄ and Na₂SO₄ mixture. For the PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, the overall encountering frequencies of Mg(NO₃)₂ are 51.7% and 77.1%, respectively, and those of NaNO₃ were 0.0% and 38.6%, respectively, where the NO₃⁻ moiety was observed more in the PM_{2.5-10} fraction. The reason for why the NO₃⁻ moiety is more abundant in the PM_{2.5-10} fraction is unclear. The SiO₂ concentration was 46.6% and 27.1% in the PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, respectively. SiO₂ appears to be in colloidal form because SiO₂ species are not water-soluble and were observed more in the PM_{1.0-2.5} fraction than in PM_{2.5-10}. A small number of Mg methanesulfonate was observed only in the PM_{1.0-2.5} fraction of sample S1. Higher phytoplankton activities in the summer enhance the production and emission of oceanic DMS, resulting in the production of MSA, which is a strong acid that can exist as an anion in sea-water and is observed as Mg salts in SSAs, even though its encountering frequency is not high compared to other sulfates.

A significant portion of SSAs of sample S2 contain only MgAla (overall 76.6% and 33.9% for PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, respectively) (see Table 2). Considering the encountering frequencies of MgAla mixed with MgFAs (21.9% and 54.8% for PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, respectively), MgAla is also almost ubiquitous in sample S2 (overall 98.5% and 88.7% for PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, respectively). MgFAs mixed internally with MgAla was encountered significantly in sample S2 (overall 23.5% and 66.1% for PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, respectively). For the PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, the encountering frequencies of CaSO₄ were 98.5% and 88.6% overall, respectively, whereas those of Na₂SO₄ were 26.6% and 8.0%, respectively, indicating that SO₄²⁻ is mostly in the form of CaSO₄. For the PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, the overall encountering frequencies of Mg(NO₃)₂ were 43.8% and 75.8%, respectively, and those of NaNO₃ were 12.5% and 27.4%, respectively, where the NO₃⁻ moiety was also

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observed more in the PM_{2.5-10} fraction. SiO₂ was encountered much less frequently, 7.9% and 3.2% in the PM_{1.0-2.5} and PM_{2.5-10} fractions, respectively, compared to those of sample S1 (i.e., 46.6% and 27.1%, respectively). The observation of a higher encountering frequency of SiO₂ in sample S1 is consistent with that of X-ray analysis, where the detection of the Si X-ray signal was 70.1 % and 0.7 % for samples S1 and S2, respectively.

The relative encountering frequency data for the organic and inorganic species of samples S1 and S2 clearly show their different chemical compositional features. MgAla is predominant for samples S1 and S2. The MgFAs were not encountered in sample S1, but were encountered in sample S2, mostly as internal mixtures with MgAla. As alanine is water-soluble and anions of fatty acids are surfactants, they would be present mostly at the bulk sea-water and SSML/sea-surface, respectively, before becoming airborne. Therefore, alanine- and fatty acids-containing SSAs are expected to be airborne through jet- and film-drop production during bubble busting, resulting in the generation of supermicron and submicron SSAs, respectively (de Leeuw et al., 2011; Quinn et al., 2015). In this study, supermicron SSAs were investigated for which MgAla is almost ubiquitous in samples S1 and S2, indicating that the supermicron SSAs were generated as jet-drops. As MgFAs was observed mostly together with MgAla in sample S2, the MgFAs-containing SSAs originating from film-drops might agglomerate with MgAla-containing supermicron SSAs in the air.

In a recent mesocosm experiment, the organic matter in SSAs generated from the wave braking of natural sea-water was monitored for 29 days after adding nutrients at the beginning of the experiment during which two phytoplankton blooms occurred (Wang et al., 2015). The aliphatic-rich organic matter level in the nascent SSAs was enhanced during the first bloom, whereas the oxygen-rich organic matter level increased at the early period of the experiment before the first bloom and remained somewhat constant thereafter, including the second bloom period. The MgAla and MgFAs observed in this study are the aliphatic-rich and oxygen-rich organic matters in their work, respectively, because the Raman spectra of MaAla and MgFAs are the same as those for oxygen- and aliphatic-rich organic matters and the O/C atomic ratios of alanine, palmitic, and stearic acids are 0.67, 0.13, and 0.11 (in their work, O/C > 0.5 for oxygen-rich organic matters and <0.25 for aliphatic-rich organic matters). In this study, the summertime Antarctic SSAs contain oxygen-rich organic matter, such as MgAla, whereas the wintertime SSAs contain

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aliphatic-rich organic matter, such as MgFAs as well as oxygen-rich organic matter. The aliphatic-rich organic matter was observed only during the first bloom in the mesocosm experiment, whereas supermicron MgFAs-containing SSAs were encountered only in the wintertime sample S2 collected during no bloom event, suggesting that the chemical features of organic matter in nascent SSAs cannot be correlated consistently with the phytoplankton activity. As microalgae can produce more lipid and less protein under environmental stress, such as limited nutrients and low temperature (Wu et al., 2011; Yu et al., 2009; Olson and Ingram, 1975), MgFAs, which were biodegraded from lipid, may be observed more frequently in the wintertime oligotrophic Antarctic Ocean with a lower temperature.

4. Summary

X-ray analysis of a single particle analysis showed that the supermicron summertime and wintertime Antarctic samples have different elemental chemical compositions, even though all the individual particles analyzed were SSAs; i.e., contents of C, O, Ca, S, and Si are more elevated, whereas Cl is more depleted, for the summertime sample S1 with a much higher chlorophyll-a level than for the wintertime sample S2. The combined application of RMS and ATR-FTIR imaging to the same individual SSAs made the molecular speciation of the encountered organic and inorganic species feasible. Based on qualitative analysis of the chemical species present in the individual SSAs by RMS and ATR-FTIR imaging, different organic species were encountered in samples S1 and S2, i.e., Mg hydrate salts of alanine is predominant in the S1 and S2 samples, whereas Mg salts of fatty acids mixed internally with Mg hydrate salts of alanine are significant in sample S2. Although CaSO₄ are encountered significantly in both samples S1 and S2, the other inorganic species, such as Na₂SO₄, NaNO₃, Mg(NO₃)₂, SiO₂, and CH₃SO₃Mg were encountered more significantly in sample S1, suggesting that they reflect the high phytoplankton activity in the summer.

In this study, there were new observations regarding the chemical compositional features of nascent Antarctic SSAs and some of them need to be explained in further studies. First, although just two SSA samples collected in the summer and winter were investigated, their chemical compositional features were clearly different in terms of their chemical species and/or levels of inorganic and organic moieties, which are related to their different oceanic biological environments

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510 enriched significantly by organic matter, and thus the effects of organic matter in supermicron SSAs need to be considered more seriously in a radiative forcing model study. Third, based on the 511 512 Raman and ATR-FTIR measurements, the organic moieties in SSAs are believed to be present as 513 the salt forms of surprisingly simple organic compounds, such as alanine and palmitic/stearic acids, 514 which appear to be the biodegraded final products from proteins and lipids, respectively, but the 515 reason for why alanine and palmitic/stearic acids are predominant as the final products is unclear. 516 In addition, the Mg hydrate salts of alanine are almost ubiquitous in both the summertime and 517 wintertime supermicron SSAs but the Mg salts of fatty acids were encountered only in the 518 wintertime supermicron SSAs, which will require further study to better understand the generation 519 processes of Antarctic SSAs. 520 521 Acknowledgements 522 This study was supported by Basic Science Research Programs through the National Research 523 Foundation of Korea (NRF) funded by the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology 524 (NRF-2015R1A2A1A09003573). 525 526 References 527 Alpert, P. A., Kilthau, W. P., Bothe, D. W., Radway, J. C., Aller, J. Y., and Knopf, D. A.: The 528 529 influence of marine microbial activities on aerosol production: A laboratory mesocosm 530 study, J. Geophys. Res., 2015, 10.1002/2015JD023469. Ault, A. P., Moffet, R. C., Baltrusaitis, J., Collins, D. B., Ruppel, M. J., Cuadra-Rodriguez, L. A., 531 532 Zhao, D., Guasco, T. L., Ebben, C. J., Geiger, F. M., Bertram, T. H., Prather, K. A., and 533 Grassian, V. H.: Size-Dependent Changes in Sea Spray Aerosol Composition and Properties with Different Seawater Conditions, Environ. Sci. Technol., 2013a, 47, 5603– 534 5612. 535 536 Ault, A. P., Zhao, D., Ebben, C. J., Tauber, M. J., Geiger, F. M., Prather, K. A., and Grassian, V. 537 H.: Raman microspectroscopy and vibrational sum frequency generation spectroscopy as 538 probes of the bulk and surface compositions of size-resolved sea spray aerosol particles,

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Table 1. Atomic concentration ratios of the chemical elements to Na for individual particles in the summertime and wintertime PM_{2.5-10} and PM_{1.0-2.5} fractions.

sample		Summertime sample S1		Wintertime sample S2		
size fraction		PM _{1.0-2.5} (stage 3)	PM _{2.5-10} (stage 2)	PM _{1.0-2.5} (stage 3)	PM _{2.5-10} (stage 2)	
number of particles analyzed		146	148	154	156	
average size (μm)		2.0 (±0.6)	2.9 (±1.5)	1.7 (±0.8)	3.2 (±1.5)	
Elemental ratios	Sea-water ratios in atomic conc.*	Atomic concentration ratios				
[C]/[Na]	0.01	1.12 (±0.35)	0.87 (±0.33)	0.83 (±0.33)	0.70 (±0.24)	
[O]/[Na]	114.03**	0.71 (±0.23)	0.77 (±0.25)	0.66 (±0.22)	0.68 (±0.24)	
[Mg]/[Na]	0.11	0.09 (±0.02)	0.11 (±0.04)	0.11 (±0.03)	0.10 (±0.03)	
[Cl]/[Na]	1.16	0.98 (±0.05)	1.01 (±0.05)	1.02 (±0.10)	1.04 (±0.04)	
[K]/[Na]	0.02	0.02 (±0.01)	0.02 (±0.01)	0.01 (±0.01)	0.02 (±0.01)	
[S]/[Na]	0.06	0.065 (±0.015)	0.070 (±0.019)	0.058 (±0.013)	0.059 (±0.016)	
[Ca]/[Na]	0.02	0.022 (±0.009)	0.027 (±0.011)	0.018 (±0.029)	0.023 (±0.012)	
[Si]/[Na]	0.00	0.03 (±0.02)	0.01 (±0.01)	0.00	0.00	
Encountering frequency of particles with [S]/[Na] > 0.06		52.7%	69.7%	43.8%	41.9%	
Encountering frequency of particles with [Ca]/[Na] > 0.02		48.4%	69.7%	31.5%	48.6%	
Encountering frequency of particles with [Si]/[Na] > 0.00		93.4%	47.5%	-	-	

^{*} refs.: Haynes, W. M., 2015; Hara et al., 2005

^{** [}O]/[Na] value for sea-water is not meaningful as H_2O content in sea-water is considered.

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Table 2. Relative encountering frequencies (in %) of the organic and inorganic species of individual summertime and wintertime SSAs.

	sample	Summertime sample S1		Wintertime sample S2	
	size fraction	PM _{1.0-2.5} (stage 3)	PM _{2.5-10} (stage 2)	PM _{1.0-2.5} (stage 3)	PM _{2.5-10} (stage 2)
Organic salt group	number of particles analyzed	58	70	64	62
containing Mg hydrate salts of alanine (MgAla)	overall	100.0	100.0	76.6	33.9
	with CaSO ₄	98.3	92.9	76.6	29.0
	with Na ₂ SO ₄	98.3	88.6	18.8	4.8
	with Mg(NO ₃) ₂	51.7	77.1	32.8	22.6
	with NH ₄ NO ₃	3.4	-	6.3	-
	with NaNO ₃	-	38.6	7.8	14.5
	with Mg methanesulfonate	3.4			
	with SiO ₂	46.6	27.1	6.3	1.6
containing Mg	overall			1.6	11.3
salts of fatty acids (MgFAs)	with CaSO ₄			1.6	6.4
	with Mg(NO ₃) ₂			1.6	3.2
containing both MgAla and MgFAs	overall			21.9	54.8
	with CaSO ₄			20.3	53.2
	with Na ₂ SO ₄			7.8	3.2
	with Mg(NO ₃) ₂			9.4	50.0
	with NH ₄ NO ₃			1.6	-
	with NaNO ₃			4.7	12.9
	with SiO ₂			1.6	1.6

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Figure 1. Typical secondary electron images (SEIs) of aerosol particles on stages 2 of the austral (a) summertime and (b) wintertime samples collected at King Sejong station, Antarctica.

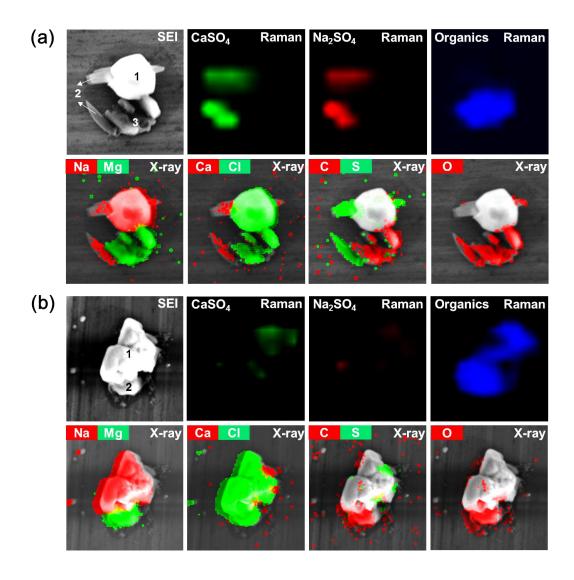


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Figure 2. Secondary electron, molecular Raman map, and elemental X-ray map (overlaid on SEIs) images of two typical (a) summertime and (b) wintertime SSAs.

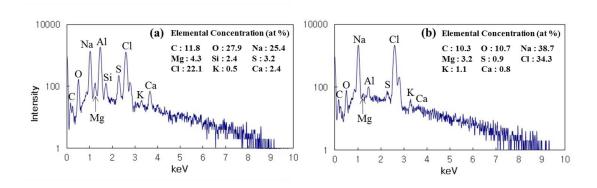


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Figure 3. X-ray spectra and elemental atomic concentrations (in atomic %) of (a) the summertime and (b) wintertime SSA particles shown in Figure 2.

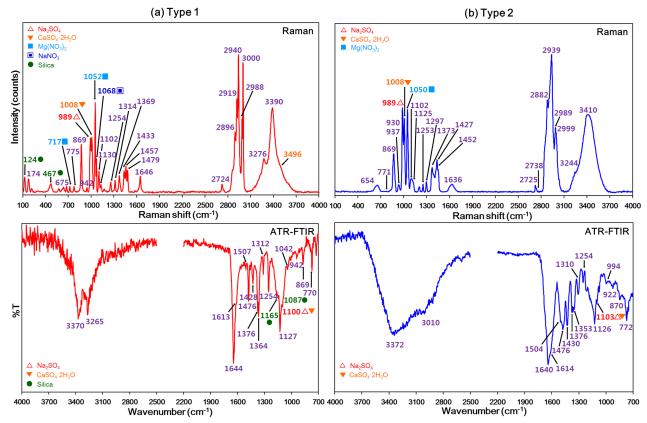


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Figure 4. Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra of two typical individual summertime SSAs. The ATR-FTIR data from the $2200-2390 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ region, where the atmospheric CO₂ peaks are present, were deleted for clarity.



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Figure 5. Raman and ATR-FTIR spectra of two typical individual wintertime SSAs. The ATR-FTIR data from the 2200–2390 cm⁻¹ region, where atmospheric CO₂ peaks are present, were deleted for clarity.

