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5 An electrospray chemical ionization source for real-time measurement of atmospheric organic
6 and inorganic vapors

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23 Abstract

24 We present an electrospray ion source coupled to an orthogonal continuous-flow atmospheric
25 pressure chemical ionization region. The source can generate intense and stable currents of
26 several specific reagent ions using a range of salt solutions prepared in methanol, thereby
27 providing both an alternative to more common radioactive ion sources and allowing for the
28 generation of reagent ions that are not available in current chemical ionization mass spectrometry
29 (CIMS) techniques, such as alkali metal cations. We couple the orthogonal electrospray chemical
30 ionization (ESCI) source to a high resolution time-of-flight mass spectrometer (HRTof-MS), and
31 assess instrument performance through calibrations using nitric acid (HNO_3), formic acid
32 (HCOOH), and isoprene epoxydiol (*trans*- β -IEPOX) gas standards, and through measurements
33 of oxidized organic compounds formed from ozonolysis of α -pinene in a continuous-flow
34 reaction chamber. When using iodide as the reagent ion, the HRTof-ESCIMS prototype has a
35 sensitivity of 11, 2.4, and 10 cps pptv⁻¹ per million cps of reagent ions and a detection limit (3σ ,
36 5s averaging) of 4.9, 12.5, and 1.4 pptv to HNO_3 , HCOOH , and IEPOX, respectively. These
37 values are comparable to those obtained using an Iodide-adduct HRTof-CIMS with a radioactive
38 ion source and low pressure ion-molecule reaction region. Applications to the α -pinene
39 ozonolysis system demonstrates that HRTof-ESCIMS can generate multiple reagent ions (e.g. I,
40 NO_3^- , acetate, Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , and NH_4^+) having different selectivity to provide a comprehensive
41 molecular description of a complex organic system.

42



43 1. Introduction

44 The Earth's atmosphere contains thousands of inorganic and organic species that, through
45 complex free radical and multiphase chemistry, play a vital role in air quality and climate change
46 (Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006; Goldstein and Galbally, 2007).
47 Characterizing the identity and abundance of many of these species in the atmosphere is essential
48 for understanding their atmospheric processes and subsequent environmental and climate
49 impacts. As a result, there is a critical interest in the development and application of the state-of-
50 art analytical instruments for the analysis of atmospheric composition (Noziere et al., 2015).

51 As a sensitive, selective, and soft-ionization measurement technique, chemical ionization mass
52 spectrometry (CIMS) has received significant use in the real-time *in situ* measurement of
53 atmospheric trace species (Huey et al., 1995; Fortner et al., 2004; Hearn and Smith, 2004; Smith
54 et al., 2004; Crounse et al., 2006; Huey, 2007; Veres et al., 2008; Kercher et al., 2009; Zhao et al.,
55 2010). The recent coupling of chemical ionization to high resolution time-of-flight mass
56 spectrometers (HRTof-MS) enables the simultaneous determination of the abundance and
57 molecular composition of a wide array of atmospheric inorganic and organic compounds with
58 fast time response and high sensitivity (Junninen et al., 2010; Bertram et al., 2011; Yatavelli et
59 al., 2012; Aljawhary et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2014; Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2014; Brophy and
60 Farmer, 2015, 2016; Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2016a; Yuan et al., 2016). The use of HRTof-CIMS
61 has allowed groundbreaking progress in atmospheric organic chemistry, such as the observation
62 of highly oxygenated molecules (HOMs) formed by monoterpene oxidation (Ehn et al., 2014;
63 Jokinen et al., 2015; Berndt et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2016).

64 In CIMS, the analyte molecule reacts with a specific reagent ion via one or more mechanisms,
65 including ligand switching reaction forming an ion-molecule adduct (Huey et al., 1995; Kercher
66 et al., 2009; Aljawhary et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2014; Brophy and Farmer, 2015, 2016), proton
67 addition (abstraction) forming a protonated (deprotonated) ion (Veres et al., 2008; Yatavelli et al.,
68 2012; Aljawhary et al., 2013; Brophy and Farmer, 2015, 2016; Yuan et al., 2016), or by direct
69 charge transfer forming a molecular ion (Huey et al., 1995; Kim et al., 2016). The reagent ions
70 used mainly include I^- , NO_3^- , acetate, CF_3O^- , and SF_6^- for negative ion CIMS, and H_3O^+ , NO^+ ,
71 and benzene cation for positive ion CIMS. Choosing an appropriate reagent ion is essential for a
72 comprehensive characterization of a specific class of molecules while having selectivity to avoid
73 unnecessary congestion of the mass spectrum with unwanted components. For example, previous
74 studies using NO_3^- CIMS have reported a very low yield of HOMs from OH oxidation of
75 monoterpene (Jokinen et al., 2015). However, a recent study using acetate CIMS found a
76 significantly higher HOMs yields from the same system (Berndt et al., 2016). The reason for
77 this difference is presumably a lower sensitivity of NO_3^- to HOMs formed in OH oxidation of
78 monoterpene than that of acetate (Berndt et al., 2016). On the other hand, many atmospheric
79 organic systems consist of a wide range of organic compounds with different functionality and
80 polarity. Therefore, multiple complementary ionization schemes are needed to obtain a broad
81 view of these systems (Aljawhary et al., 2013; Praplan et al., 2015).



82 Some advantages of CIMS are that it is direct, online, reproducible and inherently quantitative in
 83 that the kinetic theory of gases allows a robust upper limit ionization efficiency, and thus
 84 instrument response, to be calculated knowing only the pressure and interaction time of reagent
 85 ions and analyte molecules.. However, the need for gas-phase reagent ions limits the suite of
 86 usable reagent ions to those for which a safe and stable gas-phase precursor exists and which
 87 produce the desired reagent ion cleanly at a high yield when ionized. As such, certain reagent
 88 ions such as metal cations (e.g., Na^+ , K^+ , and NH_4^+), which are commonly used for detection of
 89 atmospheric organic compounds in off-line techniques like electrospray ionization (ESI)-MS
 90 (Nizkorodov et al., 2011; Laskin et al., 2012; Witkowski and Gierczak, 2013), have remained
 91 largely unavailable for CIMS (Fujii et al., 2001). Compared to I^- , NO_3^- , and acetate, these metal
 92 cations are expected to be less selective toward oxidized organic compounds and can be used to
 93 sensitively detect both less oxidized (e.g. compounds containing only carbonyl groups) and
 94 highly polar multi-functional organic species (Gao et al., 2010; Nguyen et al., 2010; Nizkorodov
 95 et al., 2011; Laskin et al., 2012; Witkowski and Gierczak, 2013; Zhao et al., 2015; Tu et al., 2016;
 96 Zhao et al., 2016). In addition, at present most CIMS techniques use a radioactive ion source
 97 such as Po-210 to produce the reagent ions, although more recently some utilize X-ray radiation,
 98 electrical discharge (Hirokawa et al., 2009; Yuan et al., 2016), or electron impact (Inomata and
 99 Hirokawa, 2017). Safety regulations for the transport and use of radioactive materials may limit
 100 the deployment of the instrument with a radioactive ion source in the field, while other methods
 101 may be less intense or lead to higher backgrounds.

102 We have developed a non-radioactive reagent ion source that deploys a custom-built electrospray
 103 setup within an atmospheric pressure orthogonal ion-molecule reaction (IMR) chamber. The
 104 design of the IMR region is similar to that of the Cluster-CIMS developed by Eisele and
 105 coworkers (Zhao et al., 2010). The electrospray chemical ionization (ESCI) source is coupled to
 106 a HRTof-MS for characterization. We present the design and discuss the parameters most
 107 important for optimal performance of the ESCI source. Then, we assess its performance using
 108 the measurement of formic acid, IEPOX, nitric acid, and organic mixtures formed by ozonolysis
 109 of α -pinene in a continuous-flow reaction chamber. Our results demonstrate that the ESCI source
 110 provides a potential alternative to radioactive and X-ray ion source and opens a new avenue for
 111 the generation of reagent ions such as Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , and so on, that were previously unavailable
 112 for CIMS.

113 2. Experimental

114 2.1 Instrument description

115 A schematic of the ESCI module is shown in Figure 1. The electrospray setup contains a 15 μm
 116 inner diameter (ID) fused silica spray needle mounted within a cylindrical evaporation chamber
 117 through which a flow of ultra-high purity (UHP) N_2 (referred to as the ion source flow) is passed
 118 to aid in the evaporation of the spray droplets and to transport ions into the IMR. Several spray
 119 needle diameters were tried (from 8 to 30 μm), with the 15 μm giving the best combination of



120 longevity and ion intensity. The emitting end of the spray needle is located 4 mm from the distal
121 wall of the evaporation chamber, which consists of a 13 mm ID stainless steel (SS) tube welded
122 to the center of a circular SS aperture having a 4 mm diameter. The aperture forms the entrance
123 into the IMR which is a portion of a 22 mm ID SS tube embedded in a Teflon block. The ion
124 source flow enters the IMR through the aperture perpendicularly to the direction of a much larger
125 sample flow, typically 10 to 20 standard liters per minute (slpm) drawn through the IMR by a
126 pump. Preliminary fluid dynamic simulations suggest that the mixed sample and ion source flow
127 in the IMR remains laminar when the ratio of the ion source flow to sample flow is ≤ 0.2 and the
128 overall Reynolds number for the sample flow is low (sample flow < 20 slpm).

129 Ions are driven across the perpendicular sample flow to a SS capillary tube located on the
130 opposite wall of the IMR by means of a 2 to 4 kV potential between the evaporation region lens
131 and the capillary tube. The SS capillary projects 3.5 mm into the IMR and acts as the
132 atmospheric pressure interface between the IMR and the vacuum chamber of a commercial
133 HRTof-MS (Tofwerk AG, Thun, Switzerland). The HRTof-MS and its data acquisition
134 procedures have been described in detail previously (Junninen et al., 2010; Bertram et al., 2011;
135 Lee et al., 2014). The evaporation tube, lens and IMR tube are electrically connected, while the
136 mass spectrometer entrance capillary is electrically isolated from the IMR by a ~ 1 mm thick
137 jacket of Teflon.

138 During operation, a dilute salt solution (~ 0.05 wt%) in HPLC-grade methanol (MeOH) is biased
139 at the reservoir to ~ 3 to 5 kV. The reservoir is maintained at approximately 50 mbar above
140 atmosphere using a commercial pressure controller (FLUIGENT, model MFCS-EZ) with 0.05
141 mbar precision. Under laminar flow conditions, the reaction time between reagent ions and
142 sampled trace gases in the IMR is mainly determined by the electric field-induced drift velocity
143 of the reagent ions. For instance, for two reagent ions used in this study, NO_3^- and Na^+ , the ion-
144 molecule reaction time (i.e., ion drift time) in the IMR is estimated to be 0.5-1 ms and 0.4-0.7 ms,
145 respectively, with an ion mobility of $2.37 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ V}^{-1}$ for NO_3^- (Ellis et al., 1978) and $3.4 \text{ cm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$
146 V^{-1} for Na^+ (Bohringer et al., 1987) under typical operation conditions (2-4 kV across the IMR).

147 The ion source and sample flow rates can significantly affect the performance of the ion source.
148 The ion source flow can aid in the generation and transport of the reagent ions into the IMR, but
149 it may disrupt the initially laminar sample flow, especially when the sample flow is small.
150 However, at large sample flows, the time for the ions to exit the IMR via the sample flow may be
151 comparable to the ion drift time across the IMR at a constant potential. As a result, the sample
152 flow may carry away the reagent ions as well as ion-molecule clusters, lowering the apparent
153 ionization efficiency. Therefore, the ion source flow and sample flow need to be carefully
154 optimized.

155 For comparison purposes, our prototype source was designed such that it could incorporate a
156 commercial 10 mCi Po-210 inline ion source (NRD LLC) as in more typical low-pressure CIMS
157 instruments used for atmospheric composition studies (see introduction). With CH_3I in UHP N_2



as a reagent ion source, this set up was able to produce $0.6\text{--}1.8 \times 10^6$ cps of reagent ions at atmospheric pressure using an ion source flow rate of 1–2 slpm and a sample flow rate of 10 slpm, with >2 kV potential across the IMR. Although the commercial Po-210 sources are not optimized for ion transmission at low flow rates and high pressures, this intensity is certainly suitable for use in field or laboratory studies.

2.2 Laboratory characterization

2.2.1 Generation of reagent ions and calibration gas standards

In this study, three negative (i.e., I^- , NO_3^- , and acetate) and four positive reagent ions (i.e., Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , and NH_4^+) were generated by electrospraying their precursor salt solutions prepared in HPLC grade MEOW (Fisher Scientific). Sodium iodide ($\geq 99.5\%$, EMD), sodium nitrate ($\geq 99\%$, Mallinckrodt), potassium acetate (AR(ACS), Macron), ammonium acetate (99.2%, Fisher chemical), and lithium chloride ($\geq 99\%$, Mallinckrodt) were used to produce I^- and Na^+ , NO_3^- , K^+ and acetate, NH_4^+ , and Li^+ respectively. All the salts were used as received.

Three calibration gases, i.e., nitric acid (HNO_3), isotope-labeled formic acid (H^{13}COOH), and isoprene epoxydiols (*trans*- β -IEPOX) were used to calibrate the instrument. Gases of nitric acid and formic acid were generated using a custom-built PTFE permeation tube containing respective acid liquids, kept constantly at 40°C . The permeation rate was determined gravimetrically. IEPOX vapor was generated by passing a flow of UHP N_2 over $\sim 200\ \mu\text{l}$ IEPOX solution in ethyl acetate kept in a glass bulb at room temperature. The concentration of IEPOX in the flow exiting the bulb was determined by an Iodide-adduct HRTof-CIMS employing a radioactive ion source, for which the sensitivity to IEPOX was calibrated using the method as described previously (Lee et al., 2014). These three gases are common in the atmosphere and span a range in their properties important for CIMS such as acidity, polarity, and size.

2.2.2 Optimization of operation conditions, calibration, and background determination

The influence of sample flow and ion source flow on the ion signals was systematically evaluated using I^- as the reagent ion. The room air was directly sampled into the IMR at a flow rate ranging from 2–20 standard liters per minute (slpm). At each sample flow rate, the ratio of ion source flow/sample flow is varied from 0.02–0.2. The HNO_3 and H^{13}COOH gases were added to the sample flow during the optimization.

Calibrations with HNO_3 , H^{13}COOH , and IEPOX were performed using I^- reagent ions under optimized sample flow and ion source flow conditions. Atmospherically relevant concentrations of the calibration gases were obtained by varying the dilution of the source gas in UHP N_2 prior to delivery in the sample flow. The observed ion signals as a function of gas concentration allow the determination of the instrument sensitivity. In addition, the sample flow was humidified to a wide range of relative humidity (0–80% RH, corresponding to water vapor pressure, $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$, of 0–25 mbar) to explore the influence of water vapor on the instrument sensitivity. The determined



194 sensitivities as well as the dependence on P_{H_2O} were compared to the measurements by a
 195 radioactive Iodide-adduct HRTof-CIMS. The background signals of the instrument were
 196 determined routinely by directly sampling dry UHP N_2 .

197 2.2.4 Chamber experiments of α -pinene ozonolysis

198 The capability of the instrument for characterizing atmospherically relevant complex organic
 199 systems was evaluated by measuring the oxidation products from α -pinene ozonolysis using
 200 seven different reagent ions described above. Experiments of α -pinene ozonolysis were carried
 201 out in a 0.75 m^3 PTFE chamber operated in a continuous-flow mode at the University of
 202 Washington. The chamber was first flushed by 12 slpm of zero air generated by a Teledyne zero
 203 air generator (Model 701) for $>72\text{ h}$. Ozone, generated by flowing ultra-zero air (Praxair) at 5
 204 sccm (standard cubic centimeter per minute) past a mercury lamp, was delivered to the chamber
 205 during the zero air flushing. α -Pinene was then added by flowing 100 sccm of UHP N_2 through a
 206 glass diffusion tube containing pure α -pinene and kept in a methanol cold trap at -70°C . The
 207 initial concentrations of O_3 and α -pinene added in the chamber were approximately 75 and 110
 208 ppbv, respectively. The oxidation products formed in the chamber were sampled at 10 slpm by
 209 the HRTof-ESCIMS after 48 h of chamber equilibration.

210 3. Results and Discussion

211 3.1 Ion source and sample flow optimization

212 Figure 2a shows an example using iodide reagent ions of ion signal dependence on the ion source
 213 flow rate during sampling of humid air ($P_{H_2O} = 15\text{ mbar}$) at 10 slpm containing an added
 214 $H^{13}COOH$ standard. As expected, the reagent ion (I^- and $I(H_2O)^-$) signals increase with
 215 increasing ion source flow. The increase of the signal for $I(H^{13}COOH)^-$ is well correlated with
 216 that of the reagent ions. The positive effect of the ion source flow is likely due to more efficient
 217 evaporation and transport of reagent ions from the spray evaporation region into the IMR region.

218 Figure 2b shows the ion signals for I^- , $I(H_2O)^-$, $I(H^{13}COOH)^-$, and $I(HNO_3)^-$ observed during
 219 sampling of humid air ($P_{H_2O} = 15\text{ mbar}$) containing $H^{13}COOH$ and HNO_3 standards at a sample
 220 flow rate ranging from 2-20 slpm. The corresponding ion source flow was controlled to always
 221 be 1/10 of the sample flow. All ion signals increase initially with the increase of the sample flow,
 222 reach maximum values at 12 slpm, and then decrease slightly with further increase of the sample
 223 flow. At small sample flows, the time for the sample flow to pass through the IMR is long
 224 compared to electric field-induced ion drift time across the IMR region, and so the influence of
 225 the sample flow upon ion transit across IMR should be small. However, the corresponding
 226 increase of the ion source flow with the sample flow can promote the generation and
 227 transmission of reagent ions into the IMR, thus leading to the increase of ion signals. At large
 228 sample flows, the influence of the sample flow on the ion transit across IMR becomes significant
 229 and is no longer compensated by the enhancement in ion signals due to the increased ion source
 230 flow, hence resulting in a decrease in ion signals.



For the characterizations and applications discussed below, the sample flow and ion source flow are kept at 10 slpm and 1 slpm, respectively as these are reasonable conditions for use on environmental simulation chambers and in field measurements. We note that the sample flow can be extended to up to 20 slpm without significant loss of ion signal, and the optimal ion source flow of 2 slpm is essentially the same UHP N₂ flow requirement for current Po-210 based ion sources (Lee et al., 2014). Further improvements in the spray environment and associated transfer optics will likely further minimize the ion source flow.

3.2 Sensitivity to selected trace gases

To assess the performance of the HRTof-ESCIMS, we measured the sensitivity to HNO₃, H¹³COOH, and IEPOX using I⁻ as the reagent ion. The iodide-based CIMS has been widely used to detect atmospheric inorganic and organic compounds in previous studies (Huey et al., 1995; Kercher et al., 2009; Lee et al., 2014; Brophy and Farmer, 2015; Lee et al., 2016; Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2016b), though almost exclusively at low pressure (20 – 80 mbar) as opposed to the atmospheric pressure (1013 mbar) implementation used here. The sensitivity of iodide-based CIMS to a given compound mainly depends on the polarity and hydrogen binding energy of a compound to the I⁻ ion (Lee et al., 2014; Iyer et al., 2016). In the atmospheric pressure ESCIMS, the ion molecule reaction time is set by the electric field, and is up to a factor of 30 or more shorter than those in low-pressure CIMS instruments. The shorter reaction time should linearly lower sensitivities. However, the ion-molecule collision frequency is more than a factor of 10 higher in the atmospheric pressure ESCIMS for the same ambient concentrations of analytes. Thus, we would expect the ESCIMS sensitivities to be only slightly lower than those found in the low-pressure CIMS. It is possible that adduct formation is further stabilized by third-body effects and that the ESCIMS could in fact have higher sensitivities for some compounds forming weaker clusters.

Figure 3 shows the signals of I(HNO₃)⁻, I(H¹³COOH)⁻, and I(IEPOX)⁻ per million reagent ion count rate at different atmospherically relevant concentrations of the standards under dry and humid conditions. The signal response is linear within the investigated concentration range for all three trace gases, with the slope of the linear fit to the ion signals corresponding to the sensitivity per million reagent ion count rate. The HRTof-ESCIMS exhibits a sensitivity of 11, 2.4, and 10 cps pptv⁻¹ to HNO₃, HCOOH, and IEPOX, respectively, under dry conditions and 9.1, 0.5, and 1.7 cps pptv⁻¹, respectively, under humid conditions (P_{H_2O} = 14 or 15 mbar). These sensitivities, and those that follow are given per million cps of reagent ion. Lee et al. (2014) explored the sensitivity of a low-pressure Iodide-adduct HRTof-CIMS equipped with a radioactive ion source to a number of atmospheric inorganic and organic compounds. They reported sensitivities to HNO₃, HCOOH, and IEPOX of 4.0, 2.9, and 0.39 cps pptv⁻¹, respectively, at 0.2 mbar water vapor pressure in IMR. Using the same instrument as used by Lee et al. (2014), we have more recently obtained higher values of sensitivities to HCOOH (7 cps pptv⁻¹) and IEPOX (10 cps pptv⁻¹) in the laboratory. Thus, the atmospheric-pressure ESCIMS and low-pressure CIMS approaches are fairly similar in response to the same compounds. The



sensitivity difference in these calibrations is likely attributed to the differences in instrument parameters, including the configurations and pressures of the ion source and IMR, and the ion optic settings within the vacuum chamber that strongly affect ion transmission to the mass spectrometer.

The presence of water vapor can affect sensitivities, either by competing for Γ ions, thus lowering the sensitivity, or by accommodating excess energy from the collision to stabilize the Iodide-molecule clusters, thereby increasing the sensitivity (Lee et al., 2014; Iyer et al., 2016). Moreover, water vapor can affect the transmission of soluble gases through sample tubing. In the current configuration of the ESCIMS, it is difficult to separate these two effects experimentally as done previously in low-pressure IMR regions by using separate delivery lines for calibrants and water vapor. Thus, our results shown here reflect both ionization efficiency and sample transfer aspects because the sample flow delivering the calibrants had to be humidified.

Figure 4 shows the dependence of the instrument sensitivities to HNO_3 , H^{13}COOH , and IEPOX on the $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ of the sample flow. The sensitivities to HNO_3 , H^{13}COOH , and IEPOX increase initially with the addition of water vapor at lower $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$, reach the maximum values at 4.1, 2.2, and 2.2 mbar, respectively, and then decrease with the further increase of $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$. Compared to HNO_3 and H^{13}COOH , the positive water vapor effect on the sensitivity at low $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ for IEPOX is significantly smaller. Lee et al. (2014) investigated the effects of water vapor on the sensitivity of a low-pressure Iodide-adduct HRTOF-CIMS in the $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ (water vapor pressure in IMR) range of 0–0.8 mbar, and found a positive water vapor dependence for the sensitivity to HNO_3 and an approximately inverse U-shaped dependence for the sensitivity to HCOOH . In general, the trends for the sensitivities to HNO_3 and HCOOH versus $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ observed by Lee et al. are consistent with those at $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} \leq 4.1$ mbar observed in the present study. In addition, recent measurements using the same low-pressure Iodide-adduct HRTOF-CIMS in our lab show that the addition of water vapor with $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ of 0.26 Torr has no significant impacts on the sensitivity to IEPOX, consistent with the relatively weak humidity dependence of the sensitivity to IEPOX at low $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ observed in the present study. The sharp decrease in the sensitivities at higher $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ as seen in Figure 4 is therefore likely a result of the competitive consumption of Γ ions by water vapor, which dominates over the kinetic stabilization effect of water for the ion-molecule clusters, as well as a larger wall partitioning in the ~50 cm sampling tube under these conditions.

3.3 Instrument backgrounds and detection limits

The background signals for the instrument arise mainly from the impurities in the electrospray solvent and the salts used for the generation of reagent ions, as well as the desorption of gas species adsorbed onto the wall of the sampling tube and IMR. The instrument backgrounds were routinely measured by sampling UHP N_2 . Figure 5 shows a typical high-resolution mass spectrum in the Γ mode recorded when sampling UHP N_2 . The spectrum recorded during the addition of HNO_3 , H^{13}COOH , and IEPOX to the UHP N_2 flow is also displayed for comparison. The typical backgrounds for HNO_3 , H^{13}COOH , and IEPOX were measured to be 800, 240, and



50 cps, respectively. It is noted that the instrument backgrounds can be reduced by using higher purity electrospray solvents and reagent ion precursor salts, or by using a larger sample flow that can dilute the background concentration of the species desorbed from the wall. Moreover, many experiments adding large concentrations of these standards to the sampling tube had been performed over months, and thus it is likely that these backgrounds are anomalously high.

Assuming the uncertainty in the signal and background follows Poisson counting statistics, the signal to noise (S/N) ratio can be determined from eq. (1) (Bertram et al., 2011):

$$\frac{S}{N} = \frac{C_f[X]t}{\sqrt{C_f[X]t + 2Bt}} \quad (1)$$

Where C_f is the instrument sensitivity; $[X]$ is the concentration for a trace gas; B is the background count rate; t is the integration time. We define the detection limit of the HRTof-ESCIMS for a trace gas as the concentration that gives rise to an S/N ratio of 3. Using the measured instrument sensitivities and backgrounds, we calculate a detection limit of 4.9, 12.5, and 1.4 pptv for HNO_3 , H^{13}COOH , and IEPOX, respectively, for 5s averaging, in the I^- mode. These limits of detection are comparable to those for a low-pressure Iodide-adduct HRTof-CIMS in our lab (Lee et al., 2014).

3.4 Application to chamber studies of α -pinene ozonolysis

3.4.1 Raw mass spectra

Gas mixtures formed by ozonolysis of α -pinene in a steady-state chamber were used to assess the capabilities of this technique for characterizing complex organic systems of atmospheric relevance. Three negative ions (i.e., I^- , NO_3^- , acetate) and four positive ions (i.e., Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , NH_4^+) were used as reagent ions for measurements. High resolution peak fitting was performed and reasonable molecular formulae were assigned for detected ions that have intensity higher than 5 cps in all seven ion modes. Many ions are present at < 5 cps, which might be of importance to various mechanisms of particle growth or organic radical chemistry, but the compositions of these ions is beyond the scope of this paper. Overall, the results show that the ions observed in NO_3^- and four positive ion modes are in the form of ion-molecule clusters, whereas those observed in I^- and acetate modes are either ion-molecule clusters or molecular ions. The iodide clusters can be easily distinguished from iodide-free molecular ions due to the large negative mass defects of iodide (Lee et al., 2014), whereas broadly distinguishing between acetate clusters and deprotonated molecule ions remains a challenge when not using isotopically labeled acetate as the reagent ion. Therefore, while chemical formulae for the ions can be obtained, their attribution to a product of α -pinene ozonolysis cannot be made with high confidence (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2015; Brophy and Farmer, 2016).

Examples of high-resolution mass spectra of α -pinene ozonolysis products derived in I^- and NO_3^- modes are given in Figure 6 and the spectra obtained in four positive ion modes are given in



Figure 7. The iodide-mode mass spectrum of the ozonolysis products obtained here is similar to that obtained using the low-pressure Iodide-adduct HRTof-CIMS as discussed previously (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2015). It can be seen that peaks assigned to monomeric products ($\leq C_{10}$) are apparent in all ion modes, while peaks associated with dimeric species are evident only in the positive ion mode (discussed further below). Peak distributions in both monomer and dimer regions is very similar for Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , and NH_4^+ , suggesting these positive ions likely have a similar selectivity to α -pinene ozonolysis products. It is interesting to note that in negative ion modes, ion clusters of precursor salt molecules (e.g., $I(NaI)^-$ and $NO_3(NaNO_3)^-$) were observed with high intensities. These ions can be used as excellent mass calibration species.

3.4.2 Mass defect plots

To better compare the sensitivity and selectivity between this subset of negative and positive reagent ions, the mass defects of identified products are plotted against their exact mass for I^- , NO_3^- , and Na^+ modes. Figure 8 shows the comparisons of mass defect plots between I^- (or NO_3^-) mode and Na^+ mode. In the mass defect plots, the green, yellow, and purple open circles represent the products observed only in one ion mode and their size is proportional to the signal intensity of observed clusters. The blue open markers in the plots represent the products identified in both ion modes of comparison and their size is proportional to the square root of the pinic acid-normalized signal intensity ratio (R) between the two ion modes:

$$R = \frac{S_{A^-,i}/S_{A^-,PA}}{S_{Na^+,i}/S_{Na^+,PA}} \quad (2)$$

Where, $S_{A^-,i}$ and $S_{A^-,PA}$ are the signal intensity of clusters for product i and pinic acid in I^- (or NO_3^-) mode, respectively; $S_{Na^+,i}$ and $S_{Na^+,PA}$ are the signal intensity of product i and pinic acid in Na^+ mode, respectively. As pinic acid ($C_9H_{14}O_4$) is among the most abundant products observed in I^- , NO_3^- , and Na^+ modes (see Figures 6 and 7), the value of R (i.e., the size of the markers relative to that for pinic acid (red solid circles)) can be an indicator of the relative sensitivity of I^- (or NO_3^-) and Na^+ to the oxidation products.

In the monomer region of the mass defect plots, the less oxidized products observed in both modes of comparison generally have a value of $R \leq 1$ (the blue markers have sizes smaller than or close to that of pinic acid). Thus, Na^+ is generally more sensitive to less oxidized species than I^- and NO_3^- , and most of products observed only in the Na^+ mode show very low oxygen contents ($n_O \leq 3$). As many of these species have signal intensities larger than 1000 cps, their absence in I^- and NO_3^- modes suggests that I^- and NO_3^- are extremely insensitive to these least oxidized species, in agreement with the observations in previous studies (Lee et al., 2014; Hyttinen et al., 2015; Iyer et al., 2016). In contrast, the more oxidized products observed in both modes of comparison show a wide range of R values (e.g., $R \leq 1$ or $R \geq 1$, corresponding to the blue markers having sizes smaller or larger than that of pinic acid). This indicates that I^- , NO_3^- , and Na^+ are all sensitive to more oxidized species but have different sensitivities to a specific species.



377 In fact, some highly oxidized products having high oxygen contents ($n_O \geq 5$) are observed only in
 378 one of these three ion modes. Note that most of these products have signal intensities lower than
 379 50 cps, suggesting that they likely have very low concentrations, which are below the detection
 380 limit in the other two modes.

381 The selectivity of I^- and NO_3^- toward more oxidized species as suggested here is consistent with
 382 the observations in previous studies (Lee et al., 2014; Berndt et al., 2016), which showed that
 383 these two reagent ions can have distinct sensitivities to the oxidized species having similar
 384 oxygen contents, depending on the identities and locations of the functional groups. It is clear in
 385 Figure 8 that some very small species (e.g., CH_2O_2 , CH_2O_3 , $C_2H_2O_3$, and $C_2H_4O_3$) have a value
 386 of R significantly larger than 1, indicating that I^- and NO_3^- are markedly more sensitive to these
 387 small species than is Na^+ .

388 Comparisons of the mass defect plots in the dimers region show a large difference in the
 389 detection of the gas-phase dimers between I^- (or NO_3^-) and Na^+ modes. These dimers have
 390 compositions ranging, for example, from $C_{15}H_{26}O_3$ to $C_{20}H_{32}O_7$. We note that many of these
 391 dimers have been recently detected in the gas-phase using a low-pressure Iodide-adduct HRTof-
 392 CIMS in a boreal forest environment (Mohr et al., 2017). Thus, while the lower detection
 393 efficiency of dimers in this work using I^- or NO_3^- may be from differences in reagent ion
 394 sensitivities, we suspect that differences in ion optic settings between negative and positive ion
 395 modes that affect ion transmission efficiencies at large mass-to-charge ratios is a more likely
 396 explanation. These settings were not optimized in this work, and improvements to high mass
 397 transmission in negative ion mode are ongoing. Therefore, we refrain from concluding about the
 398 relative detection efficiency of dimers in negative ion mode using the atmospheric pressure ESCI.

399 In summary, these comparisons suggest that there is not a reagent ion that captures all
 400 components of α -pinene ozonolysis with equally high sensitivity. Therefore, to gain a
 401 comprehensive view on a complex organic system, a combination of reagent ions with different
 402 selectivity is needed.

403 3.4.3 Declustering scans

404 Ion-molecule clusters, depending on their binding energies, may break apart due to collision-
 405 induced dissociation (i.e., declustering) during transmission through the ion optics within the
 406 vacuum chamber. In general, clusters with stronger binding energies can more easily survive
 407 declustering in the vacuum chamber, thus the instrument likely has higher sensitivities to the
 408 corresponding analytes, and the observed sensitivities should be closer to those calculated by
 409 ion-molecule collision rates. Declustering scanning, which is performed by systematically
 410 increasing the voltage difference (ΔV) between first and the second quadrupole sections of the
 411 MS, allows for insights into the binding energies of clusters (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2016a).
 412 Figure 9 shows the declustering scans of clusters containing $C_{10}H_{16}O_{2-8}$ and $C_9H_{14}O_{3-8}$ products
 413 in I^- and NO_3^- modes. It is clear that, with the increase of electrical field strength, the cluster



signals for products having higher oxygen contents generally decay more slowly than those having lower oxygen contents. This is consistent with the fact that I^- and NO_3^- ions generally bind more strongly to compounds containing more hydroxy or hydroperoxy moieties (Lee et al., 2014; Hyttinen et al., 2015; Iyer et al., 2016). We note that the trends of decay for $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{O}_{2-8}$ iodide clusters are in excellent agreement with previous measurements using a low-pressure iodide-adduct HRTof-CIMS (Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2016a).

Declustering scans in Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , and NH_4^+ modes show that the cluster signals for the most abundant monomeric products such as $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{O}_{2-5}$ and $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{14}\text{O}_{2-5}$ increase initially with increasing ΔV and then decrease with further increase of ΔV . The initial increase in cluster signals may be associated with ion transmission efficiency of the instrument. As the small positive reagent ions have very low transmission efficiencies through the ion optics, the concentration of the reagent ions in the vacuum chamber may be low. As a result, the declustering of reagent ion-water and -precursor salt molecule clusters may greatly increase the concentration of reagent ions in the vacuum chamber. These reagent ions may quickly bind to the neutral oxidation products that are present in larger abundance, leading to the increase of their cluster signals. Here, we use the declustering scans of dimers instead of C_9 and C_{10} monomers to compare the binding energies of four positive reagent ions.

As can be seen in Figure 10, the decay rate of the cluster signals in four positive ion modes follows the order: $\text{NH}_4^+ > \text{K}^+ > \text{Na}^+ > \text{Li}^+$. This indicates an order of $\text{Li}^+ > \text{Na}^+ > \text{K}^+ > \text{NH}_4^+$ for the binding energies of the clusters, consistent with expectations from charge density considerations. In each ion mode, the cluster signals for smaller dimers generally decay more slowly than those for larger dimers, suggesting these positive ions can more strongly bind to the smaller dimers, likely due to the higher polarity or the smaller steric effect for smaller dimers. It is worth noting that none of the clusters signals drop with the increase of ΔV up to 10 and 6 V in Li^+ and Na^+ modes, respectively. This behavior implies these dimers are most likely covalently-bound species formed during α -pinene ozonolysis, rather than noncovalently-bound species formed due to ion-induced clustering in the instrument, which are not expected to survive at strong declustering strengths. To our knowledge, this result is the first direct confirmation that these dimeric products are strongly bound, providing important support for the interpretation that the detected ions represent real gas-phase products of α -pinene oxidation (Ehn et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2013; Ehn et al., 2014; Kristensen et al., 2016; Trostl et al., 2016; Mohr et al., 2017)

4. Conclusion

We report an electrospray chemical ionization (ESCI) source coupled to a HRTof-MS for the real-time online measurement of atmospheric organic and inorganic species in the gas-phase. The ESCI source is unique in that it does not rely on radioactive materials or X-ray radiation that are subject to safety regulations, and allows the production of reagent ions (e.g., alkaline cations) that are not available in current CIMS techniques. Calibration experiments using nitric acid, formic acid, and IEPOX gas standards show that the HRTof-ESCIMS using iodide reagent ions



452 has sensitivities and limits of detection comparable to those obtained for a low-pressure Iodide-
453 adduct HRTof-CIMS using a radioactive ion source. The detection of oxidized organic
454 compounds formed from α -pinene ozonolysis in a chamber using seven different reagent ions
455 (e.g., I, NO_3^- , acetate, Li^+ , Na^+ , K^+ , and NH_4^+) shows different selectivities for these reagent ions
456 and expected ion-adduct binding energy trends. The data demonstrate the capability of this
457 technique for comprehensively characterizing complex organic systems using a combination of
458 reagent ions.

459 The ESCI source presented here is in its early stages of development. Continued characterization
460 of the sensitivity and selectivity of different reagent ions, especially their dependence on
461 humidity are needed. Further optimizations of the ion source are also required to improve its
462 performance especially the long-time stability, which is particularly important for field
463 applications. Versions of our prototype source allowed 10 to 24 hours of continuous operation
464 before ion signal degraded, which is certainly suitable for many laboratory experiment durations.
465 A short immersion of the spray tip into HPLC grade MEOW was enough to return to the same
466 ion signal for another 10 to 24 hours, suggesting the reason was simply salt build-up on the spray
467 needle tip altering the spray characteristics. Thus, it is likely that more dilute spray solutions,
468 shorter spray needle tips, a conventional coaxial sheath gas flow around the needle tip, and off-
469 axis spray geometry would greatly improve source stability. Moreover, shifting the spray source
470 further upstream of the entrance capillary would increase ion-molecule reaction times and thus
471 sensitivity, as in Zhao et al. (2013). Finally, applying a dry UHP N_2 counter flow at the mass
472 spectrometer entrance capillary would prevent ambient particles and possible charged spray
473 droplets that are not completely evaporated from entering and blocking the capillary tube. This
474 counter flow could also prevent free water molecules entering the vacuum chamber and promote
475 the dissociation of reagent ion-water clusters, which may lead to an increase of the instrument
476 sensitivity, especially in positive ion mode.

477

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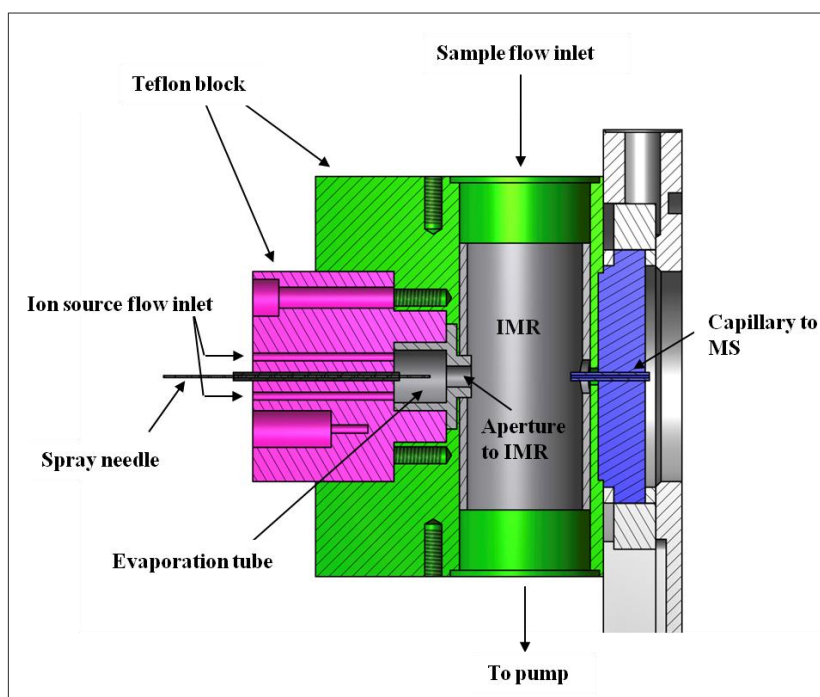
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689 **Figure 1** Schematic of the electrospray chemical ionization (ESCI) source module. Also shown
 690 are the orthogonal atmospheric pressure IMR and the entrance capillary serving as the
 691 atmospheric pressure interface between the IMR and the vacuum chamber of HRTof-MS. See
 692 text for detailed description of the source.

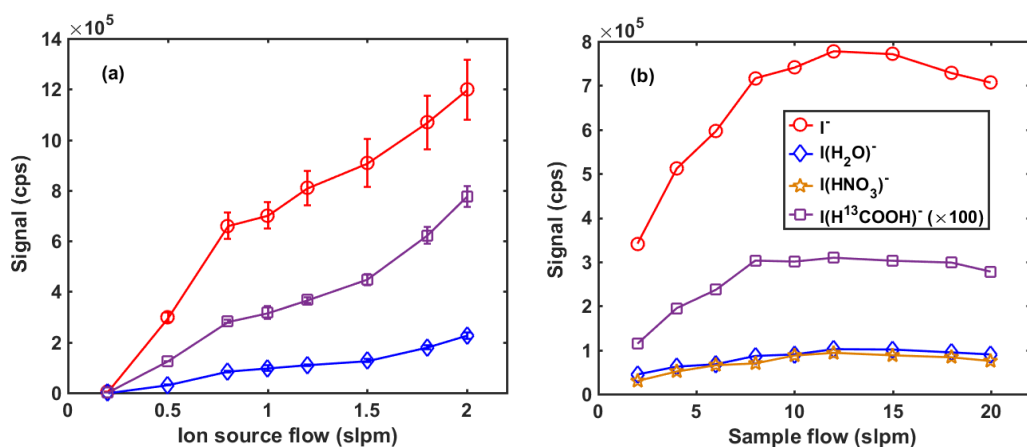
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699 **Figure 2** Dependence of ion signals on the ion source flow and sample flow. (a) Ion signals
 700 observed as a function of ion source flow during the sampling of humid room air (15 mbar water
 701 vapor pressure) containing $H^{13}COOH$ at a flow of 10 slpm. (b) Ion signals observed during the
 702 sampling of humid room air containing $H^{13}COOH$ and HNO_3 at flow rates of 2-20 slpm (the
 703 ratio of ion source flow/sample flow is fixed to be 1:10). The signals for $I(H^{13}COOH)^-$ in (a) and
 704 (b) are magnified by 100 times.

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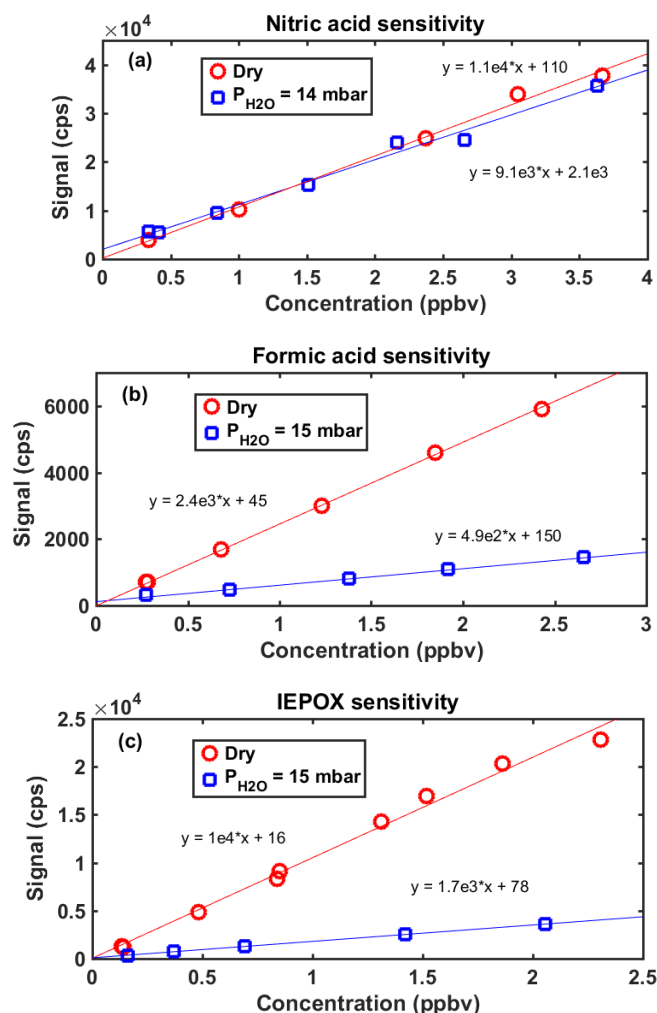
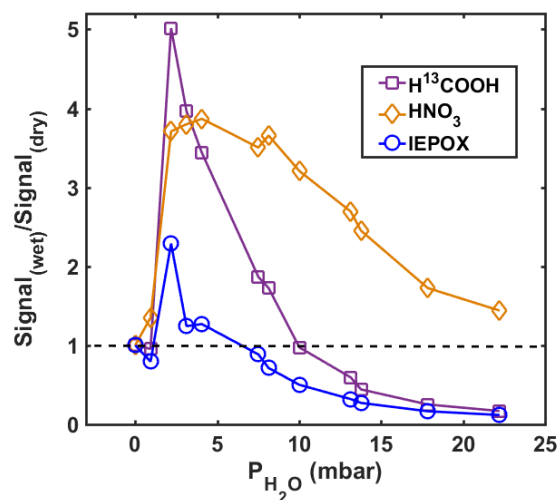


Figure 3 Normalized sensitivity to (a) nitric acid, (b) formic acid, and (c) IEPOX under dry and humid (14 or 15 mbar water vapor pressure) conditions. Signals are normalized by the ratio of observed total reagent ion count rates to a million ion count rate. The normalized signals were observed to be a linear function of the delivered concentration. The slope derived from a linear fit corresponds to the sensitivity per million reagent ion count rates.



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716 **Figure 4** Normalized signal of $I(HNO_3)^-$, $I(H^{13}COOH)^-$, and $I(IEPOX)^-$ as a function of water
 717 vapor pressure (P_{H_2O}) in the IMR. The signal of iodide-analyte clusters is first normalized by the
 718 total reagent ion (I^- and $I(H_2O)^-$) signals. The resulting normalized signal at each P_{H_2O} was then
 719 normalized again to the respective value under dry conditions ($P_{H_2O} = 0$, dry UHP N_2).

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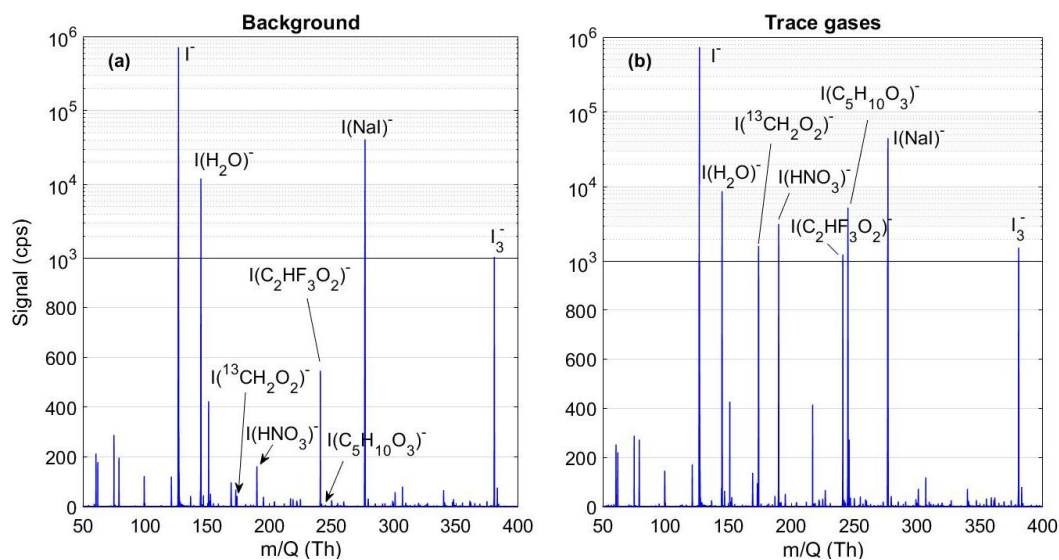


Figure 5 High resolution mass spectra collected when sampling (a) UHP N_2 and (b) UHP N_2 containing HNO_3 , $H^{13}COOH$, and IEPOX gases.

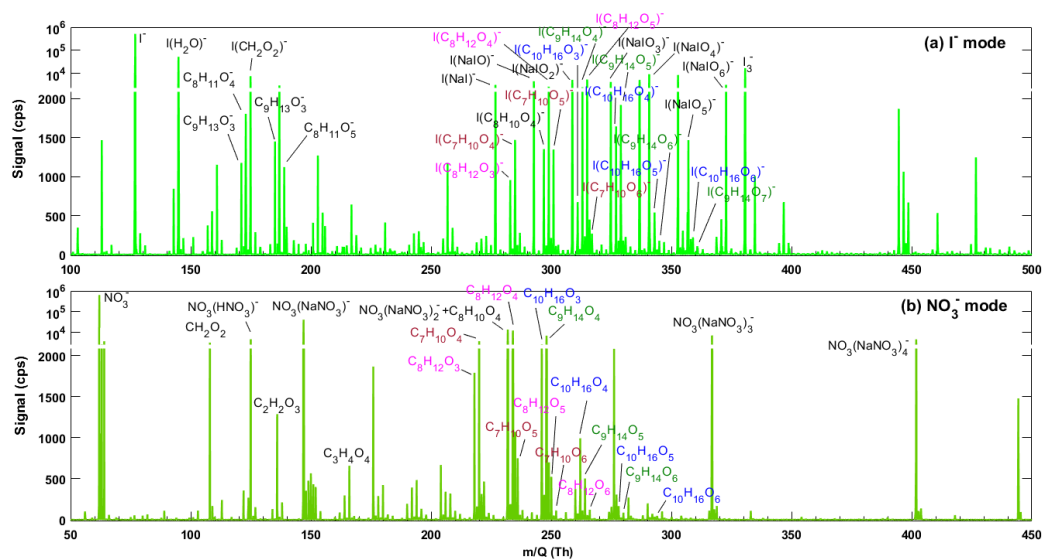
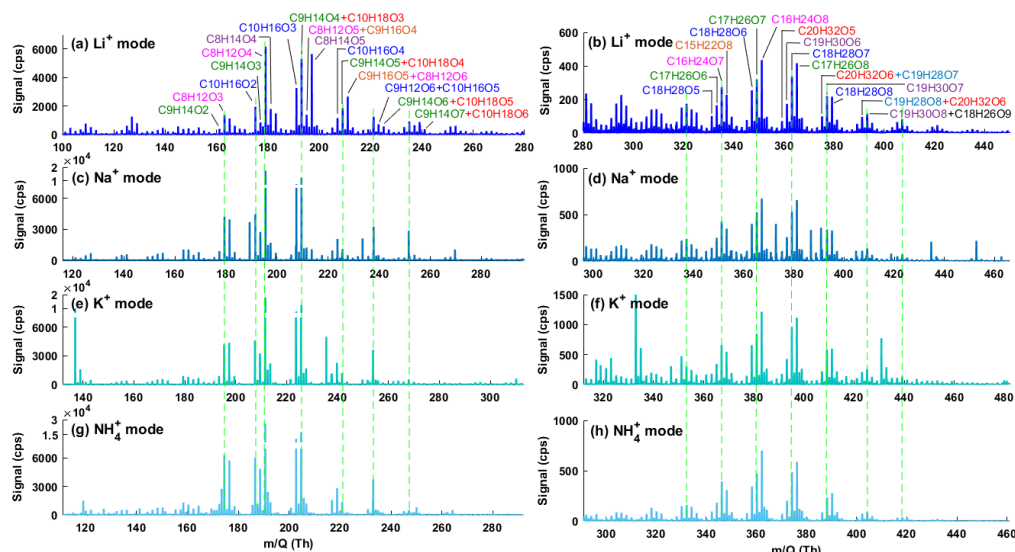


Figure 6 High resolution mass spectra obtained during ozonolysis of α -pinene in a steady-state chamber using (a) I^- and (b) NO_3^- modes. For NO_3^- mode, the chemical formulae of organic ion clusters are shown without the corresponding NO_3^- adduct for clarity as, unlike I^- mode, organic ions without a NO_3^- adduct were negligible components of the spectrum.



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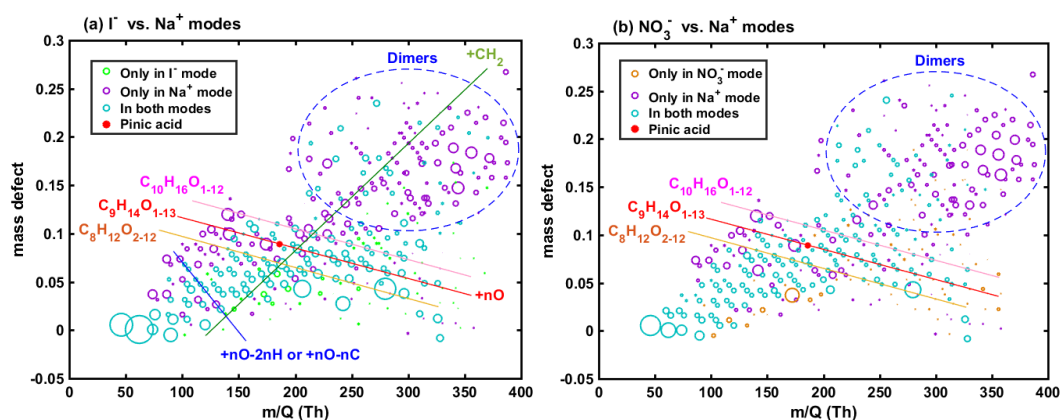
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Figure 7 High resolution mass spectra of α -pinene ozonolysis products in (a, c, e, g) monomers and (b, d, f, h) dimers regions observed in (a, b) Li^+ mode, (c, d) Na^+ mode, (e, f) K^+ mode, and (g, h) NH_4^+ mode. The chemical formulae of the detected organics are given for major peaks observed in the mass spectra. To allow direct comparison, the reagent ion adduct has been removed from the detected cluster in each spectrum.

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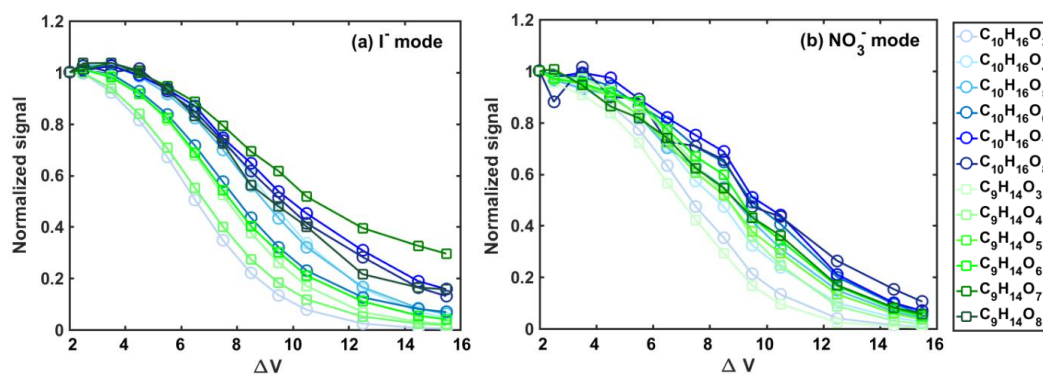
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741 **Figure 8** Comparisons of mass defect plots derived in (a) I^- and Na^+ modes, and (b) NO_3^- and
 742 Na^+ modes during ozonolysis of α -pinene in a steady-state chamber. To compare the mass defect
 743 plot obtained in two different ion modes, the reagent ions in observed clusters are excluded for
 744 the mass defect calculation, and the signals are normalized to the corresponding pinic acid
 745 intensity in each mode (see text for details). The purple circles do not necessarily mean such ions
 746 were undetected in the negative mode as they may have very small signal (< 5 cps) and be
 747 excluded for the high-resolution fitting.

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751 **Figure 9** Declustering scans of products $C_{10}H_{16}O_{2-8}$ and $C_9H_{14}O_{3-8}$ formed by the ozonolysis of
 752 α -pinene in (a) I^- and (b) NO_3^- modes. ΔV denotes the voltage differences between the end of
 753 first and the entrance to the second quadrupole sections of the mass spectrometer. Signals at
 754 each ΔV are normalized to that obtained at the weakest declustering strength (i.e., $\Delta V=2$ V).

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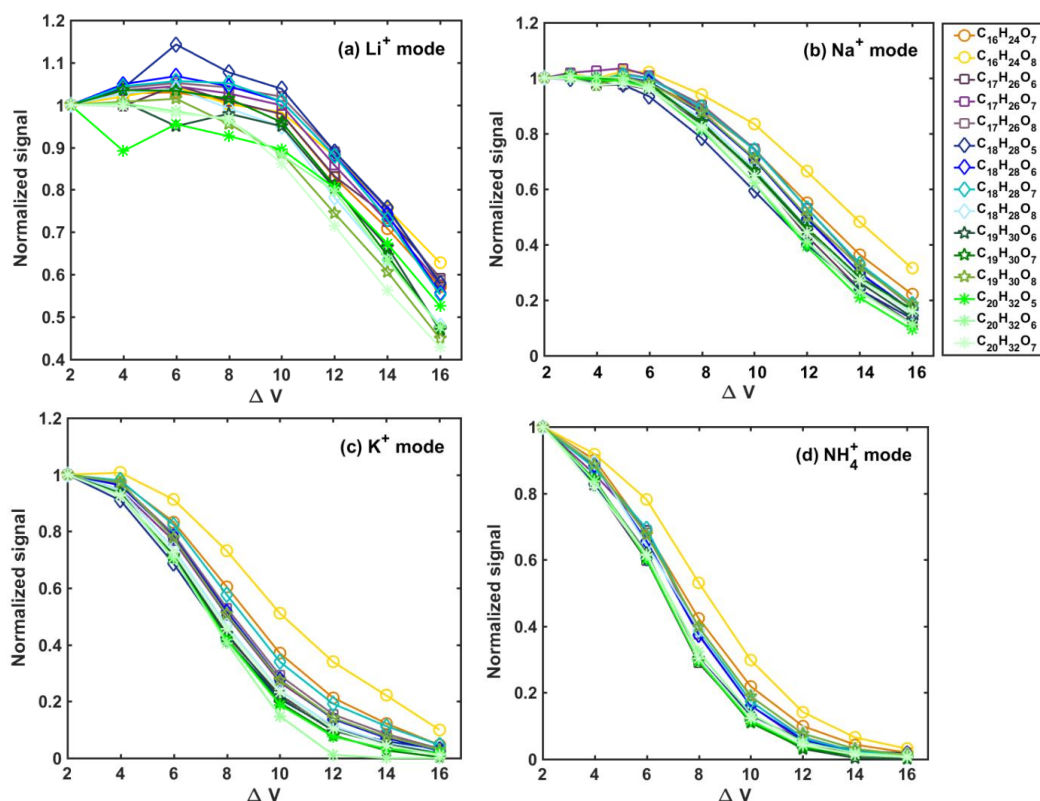


Figure 10 Declustering scans of 15 most abundant dimers formed by the ozonolysis of α -pinene in (a) Li^+ mode, (b) Na^+ mode, (c) K^+ mode, and (d) NH_4^+ mode. ΔV denotes the voltage differences between the first and second quadrupole sections of the mass spectrometer. Signals at each ΔV are normalized to that obtained at the weakest declustering strength (i.e., $\Delta V = 2$ V).