The responses to the comments of the Associate Editor in our direct reply (shown below) and within the revised manuscript (see marked copy) are provided. The pages and lines indicated below correspond to those in the marked copy.

Response to Associate Editor (Associate Editor's comments are italicized)

1. Associate editor's comment: "I partly agree with the anonymous reviewer #1 that the authors should add some discussions on the advantages and disadvantages of SF6- chemistry compared to other ion chemistries that many people use (e.g. Iodide). Although some discussions are shown in the response to reviewers' comments, they are not available yet in the main text. I would encourage the authors to add 1-2 paragraphs either in or before Conclusions for this purpose, even though quantitative comparison may not be possible."

Author response: As requested, we have added a couple of paragraphs into the revised manuscript pointing out the advantages and disadvantages (specifically, the sensitivities of organic acids) that SF₆-CIMS has over I⁻-CIMS:

Page 13 line 364: "Nevertheless, these sensitivities are compared to formic and acetic acid sensitivities measured by a high-resolution time-of-flight chemical ionization mass spectrometer (Aerodyne Research Inc.) that utilized I⁻ reagent ions during the field study. Only the formic and acetic acid sensitivities were compared since laboratory calibrations were not performed to determine the sensitivities for oxalic, butyric, glycolic, propionic and valeric acids by I⁻-CIMS. Although the formic acid sensitivity measured by I⁻-CIMS (1.33 ± 0.28 Hz ppt⁻¹) was comparable to that measured by SF₆⁻-CIMS, the acetic acid sensitivity measured by I⁻-CIMS (< 0.1 Hz ppt⁻¹) was substantially lower than that measured by SF₆⁻-CIMS. Previous studies have similarly reported low acetic acid sensitivity measured by I⁻-CIMS (Aljawhary et al., 2013; Lee et al., 2014).

Since many recent studies use I⁻ as a reagent ion to measure many compounds, the measured SF₆⁻ sensitivities to organic acids are compared with those of I⁻ reported by Lee et al. (2014, 2018). However, it is important to note that the absolute SF₆⁻ and I⁻ sensitivities values are specific to the respective instruments and their configuration. The sensitivity to individual compounds depend on a variety of instrument parameters (e.g., flow rates, pressures, electric fields, ion source activity) that control ion production and transmission, reaction time, declustering efficiency, etc. Consequently, this analysis serves primarily as a qualitative comparison of SF₆⁻ and I⁻ sensitivity.

Although the I⁻ sensitivity to formic acid (2.9 Hz ppt⁻¹) reported by Lee et al. (2014) is higher than that of SF₆⁻ (1.29 Hz ppt⁻¹), the SF₆⁻ sensitivities for the other organic acids (i.e., acetic, oxalic, glycolic and propionic acids) are substantially higher than those of I⁻ (Table S1a). The SF₆⁻ CIMS method is particularly sensitive to oxalic, propionic and glycolic acids, which are expected to be present at low concentrations in the atmosphere. The sensitivities of SF₆⁻ and I⁻ to SO₂, HNO₃ and HCl can also be compared (Table S1b). The SF₆⁻ sensitivities of SO₂ and HCl are significantly higher than that of I⁻ reported by Lee et al. (2018). However, I⁻ is more sensitive to HNO₃."

Organic Acid	I ⁻ sensitivity	SF6 ⁻ sensitivity (Hz ppt ⁻¹)	
-	(Hz ppt ⁻¹) ^a	X-	X ⁻ •HF
Formic acid	2.9	1.29 ± 0.22	0.29 ± 0.05
Acetic acid	0.1	1.46 ± 0.29	0.30 ± 0.06
Oxalic acid	0.21	6.38 ± 0.32	0.97 ± 0.05
Butyric acid	Not available	0.41 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.004
Glycolic acid	1.1	5.53 ± 0.11	1.64 ± 0.03
Propionic acid	0.066	2.05 ± 0.02	1.26 ± 0.01
Valeric acid	Not available	0.76 ± 0.008	0.35 ± 0.004

Table S1a: Comparison of SF₆⁻ vs. I⁻ sensitivities of organic acids

^aThe I⁻ sensitivities shown here are those reported by Lee et al. (2014). The organic acids were detected as cluster ions with iodide $(I(X)^{-})$.

I ⁻ sensitivity	SF6 ⁻ sensitivity
(Hz ppt ⁻¹) ^b	(Hz ppt ⁻¹)
0.028	2.9
9.0	5.8 for NO ₃ -,
	0.2 for NO ₃ -•HF ^c
0.03	1.4 ^d
	(Hz ppt ⁻¹) ^b 0.028 9.0

^bThe I⁻ sensitivities shown here are those reported by Lee et al. (2018). ^cThe high collision energy used in the CDC promoted the dissociation of NO₃⁻•HF ions, causing the low sensitivity at NO₃⁻•HF.

^dHCl was detected as SF₅Cl⁻.

References:

Aljawhary, D., Lee, A. K. Y., and Abbatt, J. P. D.: High-resolution chemical ionization mass spectrometry (ToF-CIMS): application to study SOA composition and processing, Atmospheric Measurement Techniques, 6, 3211-3224, 10.5194/amt-6-3211-2013, 2013.

Lee, B. H., Lopez-Hilfiker, F. D., Mohr, C., Kurten, T., Worsnop, D. R., and Thornton, J. A.: An Iodide-Adduct High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Chemical-Ionization Mass Spectrometer: Application to Atmospheric Inorganic and Organic Compounds, Environmental Science & Technology, 48, 6309-6317, 10.1021/es500362a, 2014.

Lee, B. H., Lopez-Hilfiker, F. D., Veres, P. R., McDuffie, E. E., Fibiger, D. L., Sparks, T. L., Ebben, C. J., Green, J. R., Schroder, J. C., Campuzano-Jost, P., Iyer, S., D'Ambro, E. L., Schobesberger, S., Brown, S. S., Wooldridge, P. J., Cohen, R. C., Fiddler, M. N., Bililign, S., Jimenez, J. L., Kurtén, T., Weinheimer, A. J., Jaegle, L., and Thornton, J. A.: Flight Deployment of a High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer: Observations of Reactive Halogen and Nitrogen Oxide Species, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 0, doi:10.1029/2017JD028082, 2018. 2. Associate editor's comment: "It should be noted that detection of SO2 using I- chemistry was recently demonstrated (Lee et al., 2018). As a result, the sentence "the major advantage that SF6-has over I- and CH3CO2- is that it allows for the detection of acetic acid and SO2". (L110-L111) is not totally accurate. Detection of acetic acid is also possible using I-, but not ideal, as shown in Lee et al., 2014."

Author response: We agree that the Associate Editor has a good point. Lee et al. (2018) did measure SO_2 in a nocturnal power plant plume using the I⁻ reagent ion with a high-resolution TOF mass spectrometer, but they also showed that the sensitivity was approximately 100 times lower than that for formic acid. Hence, we have cited this paper and have revised the manuscript as follows:

Page 4 line 110: "The major advantage that SF₆⁻ has over I⁻ and CH₃CO₂⁻ in this study is that it offers the possibility of sensitive detection of acetic and oxalic acids and SO₂ (Lee et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2018)."

References:

Lee, B. H., Lopez-Hilfiker, F. D., Mohr, C., Kurten, T., Worsnop, D. R., and Thornton, J. A.: An Iodide-Adduct High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Chemical-Ionization Mass Spectrometer: Application to Atmospheric Inorganic and Organic Compounds, Environmental Science & Technology, 48, 6309-6317, 10.1021/es500362a, 2014.

Lee, B. H., Lopez-Hilfiker, F. D., Veres, P. R., McDuffie, E. E., Fibiger, D. L., Sparks, T. L., Ebben, C. J., Green, J. R., Schroder, J. C., Campuzano-Jost, P., Iyer, S., D'Ambro, E. L., Schobesberger, S., Brown, S. S., Wooldridge, P. J., Cohen, R. C., Fiddler, M. N., Bililign, S., Jimenez, J. L., Kurtén, T., Weinheimer, A. J., Jaegle, L., and Thornton, J. A.: Flight Deployment of a High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer: Observations of Reactive Halogen and Nitrogen Oxide Species, Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 0, doi:10.1029/2017JD028082, 2018.

Real-time measurements of gas-phase organic acids using SF_6 - chemical ionization 1 2 mass spectrometry 3 4 Theodora Nah,^{1,a} Yi Ji,^{1,2} David J. Tanner,¹ Hongyu Guo,¹ Amy P. Sullivan,³ Nga Lee

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Abstract

14 The sources and atmospheric chemistry of gas-phase organic acids are currently poorly

15 understood due in part to the limited range of measurement techniques available. In this 16

work, we evaluated the use of SF_6 as a sensitive and selective chemical ionization reagent 17 ion for real-time measurements of gas-phase organic acids. Field measurements are made

18 using a chemical ionization mass spectrometer (CIMS) at a rural site in Yorkville, Georgia

19 from September to October 2016 to investigate the capability of this measurement

technique. Our measurements demonstrate that SF₆ can be used to measure a range of 20

21 organic acids in the atmosphere. 1-hour averaged ambient concentrations of organic acids

22 ranged from a few parts per trillion by volume (ppt) to several parts per billion by volume

23 (ppb). All the organic acids displayed similar strong diurnal behaviors, reaching maximum

24 concentrations between 5 and 7 pm local time. The organic acid concentrations are

25 dependent on ambient temperature, with higher organic acid concentrations being

26 measured during warmer periods.

27 Introduction

28 Organic acids are ubiquitous and important species in the troposphere. They are 29 major contributors of free acidity in precipitation (Galloway et al., 1982; Keene et al., 1983; 30 Keene and Galloway, 1984), and can also affect the formation of secondary organic 31 aerosols (SOA) (Zhang et al., 2004; Carlton et al., 2006; Sorooshian et al., 2010; Yatavelli 32 et al., 2015). As end products of oxidation, organic acids can also serve as useful tracers of 33 air mass history (Sorooshian et al., 2007; Sorooshian et al., 2010). Organic acids are found 34 in urban, rural and remote marine environments in the gas, aqueous and particle phases.

35 While organic acids are emitted directly from biogenic sources (e.g., microbial activity, 36 vegetation and soil) and anthropogenic activities (e.g., fossil fuel combustion, vehicular 37 emissions and biomass burning) (Kawamura et al., 1985; Talbot et al., 1988; Chebbi and Carlier, 1996; Talbot et al., 1999; Seco et al., 2007; Veres et al., 2010; Paulot et al., 2011; 38 39 Veres et al., 2011; Millet et al., 2015), they can also be formed from photooxidation of non-methane volatile organic compounds and aqueous-phase photochemistry of semi-40 volatile organic compounds (Chebbi and Carlier, 1996; Hansen et al., 2003; Orzechowska 41 42 and Paulson, 2005; Carlton et al., 2006; Sorooshian et al., 2007; Ervens et al., 2008; Paulot 43 et al., 2011; Millet et al., 2015). The chemical aging of organic aerosols has also been proposed as a major source of organic acids (Molina et al., 2004; Vlasenko et al., 2008; 44 45 Paulot et al., 2011). The relative importance of primary and secondary sources of organic 46 acids are currently poorly constrained though their emissions likely depend on the 47 magnitude of biogenic and anthropogenic activities and the meteorological conditions. Wet 48 and dry deposition are the primary sinks of organic acids in the atmosphere (Chebbi and 49 Carlier, 1996).

50 Formic and acetic acids are the dominant gas-phase monocarboxylic acids in the 51 troposphere (Chebbi and Carlier, 1996). Due to their high vapor pressures, the gas-phase 52 concentrations of formic and acetic acids are usually 1 to 2 orders of magnitudes higher 53 than their particle-phase concentrations. Some field studies report strong correlations 54 between formic and acetic acids, suggesting that these two organic acids have similar 55 sources (Nolte et al., 1997; Souza and Carvalho, 2001; Paulot et al., 2011). A recent 56 modeling study suggested that the dominant sources of formic acid in the southeastern U.S. 57 are primarily biogenic in nature (Millet et al., 2015). These sources include direct emissions 58 from vegetation and soil and photochemical production from biogenic volatile organic 59 compounds (BVOCs). Currently, atmospheric formic and acetic acid concentrations are 60 higher than those predicted by models, indicating that present model estimates of source 61 and sink magnitudes are incorrect (Paulot et al., 2011; Millet et al., 2015). In the case of 62 formic acid, deposition and secondary photochemical production via mechanisms such as photooxidation of isoprene and reaction of stabilized criegee intermediates need to be 63 better constrained in models. Given that formic and acetic acids are major trace gases in 64 65 the atmosphere, there is a need to resolve the discrepancy between measurements and

66 model predictions to close the atmospheric reactive carbon budget and improve our overall

67 understanding of VOC chemistry in the atmosphere.

68 Currently, research on gas-phase organic acids has focused primarily on formic and 69 acetic acids (Andreae et al., 1988; Talbot et al., 1988; Grosjean, 1991; Hartmann et al., 1991; Talbot et al., 1995; Talbot et al., 1999). This is due, in part, to the analytical 70 71 difficulties in measuring gas-phase $> C_2$ organic acids and oxidized organic acids (i.e., 72 containing more than 2 oxygen atoms) in real time. These organic acids have low vapor 73 pressures and are generally present in low concentrations in the gas phase. For example, 74 dicarboxylic acids typically have vapor pressures that are 2 to 4 orders of magnitude lower 75 than their analogous monocarboxylic acids (Chebbi and Carlier, 1996), and are present 76 mainly in the particle and aqueous phases. Rapid and accurate measurements of gas-phase 77 > C2 organic acids and oxidized organic acids are necessary for constraining the regional 78 and global SOA budget since these acids can partition readily between the gas and particle 79 and aqueous phases and subsequently affect SOA formation (Zhang et al., 2004; Carlton 80 et al., 2006; Ervens et al., 2008; Sorooshian et al., 2010; Yatavelli et al., 2015).

81 Chemical ionization mass spectrometry (CIMS) is commonly used to selectively 82 measure atmospheric trace gases in real-time with high sensitivity. CIMS measurements 83 rely on reactions between reagent ions and compounds of interest present in the sampled 84 air to produce analyte ions that are detected by a mass spectrometer. The subset of 85 molecular species detected is determined by the reagent ion employed since the specificity 86 of the ionization process is governed by the ion-molecule reaction mechanism. CIMS is a 87 popular tool for atmospheric measurements since it is versatile and has high time resolution 88 and sensitivity. It is also often a soft ionization technique with minimal ion fragmentation, 89 thus preserving the parent molecule's elemental composition and allowing for molecular 90 speciation. Recent developments in chemical ionization methods and sources have greatly 91 improved our ability to measure atmospheric acidic species. Some of the CIMS reagent 92 ions that have been used to measure atmospheric organic acids include acetate (CH_3CO_2), 93 iodide (I⁻) and CF₃O⁻ anions (Crounse et al., 2006; Veres et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2014; 94 Brophy and Farmer, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2015). However, each of these CIMS reagent 95 ions has its drawbacks, which are generally related to their selectivity and sensitivity

96 towards different atmospheric species. For example, acetic acid is difficult to measure with

97 CH₃CO₂⁻ as the CIMS reagent ion due to interferences from the reagent ion chemistry that

98 complicates the desired ion-molecule reactions. In addition, while many organic acids can

99 be detected using I⁻ as a reagent ion, its sensitivity to different acids can vary by orders of

100 magnitude (Lee et al., 2014).

101 The sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) anion has been used as a CIMS reagent ion to 102 measure atmospheric inorganic species such as sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitric acid (HNO₃) 103 and peroxynitric acid (HO₂NO₂) (Slusher et al., 2001; Slusher et al., 2002; Huey et al., 104 2004; Kim et al., 2007). SF₆⁻ commonly reacts with most acidic gases at the collision rate 105 by either proton or fluoride transfer reactions (Huey et al., 1995). The SF₆ ion chemistry 106 is selective to acidic species, which can simplify the mass spectral analysis of organic acids. 107 However, SF_6 is reactive to both ozone (O₃) and water vapor, which can lead to interfering 108 reactions that limit its applicability to many species in certain environments (Huey et al., 109 2004). For these reasons, this work is focused on assessing the ability of SF₆⁻ to measure a 110 series of organic acids in ambient air. The major advantage that SF_6^- has over I⁻ and 111 CH₃CO₂ in this study is that it offers the possibility of sensitive detection of acetic and 112 oxalic acids and SO₂ (Lee et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2018). CF₃O⁻ has a similar chemistry to 113 SF₆⁻ but it also has issues due to hydrolysis and the ion precursor is not commercially 114 available. We present ambient measurements of gas-phase organic acids conducted in a 115 mixed forest-agricultural area in Georgia in early fall of 2016 to evaluate the performance 116 of a SF_6^- CIMS technique. Gas-phase organic acid measurements are compared to gas-117 phase water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC_g) measurements performed during the field 118 study to estimate the fraction of WSOCg that is comprised of organic acids at this rural site. 119 Laboratory experiments are conducted to measure the sensitivity of SF6 with a series of organic acids of atmospheric relevance. 120

121 **2. Methods**

122 **2.1. Field site**

Real-time ambient measurements of gas-phase organic acids were obtained using a
 chemical ionization mass spectrometer from 3 Sept to 12 Oct 2016 at the SouthEastern

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126 Aerosol Research and Characterization (SEARCH) site located in Yorkville, Georgia. A 127 detailed description of the field site has been provided by Hansen et al. (2003). Briefly, the 128 Yorkville field site (33.931 N, 85.046 W) was located ~55 km northwest of Atlanta (the 129 closest urban center), and was on a broad ridge in a large pasture where there were 130 occasionally grazing cattle. The field site was surrounded by forest and agricultural land. 131 There were no major roads near the field site and nearby traffic emissions were negligible. 132 The closest power plant was Plant Bowen, which was located ~25 km north of the field 133 site. The sampling period was characterized by moderate temperatures (24.0 °C average, 134 32.6 °C max, 9.5 °C min) and high relative humidities (68.9 % RH average, 100 % RH 135 max, 21.6 % RH min). The study-averaged diurnal trends of relative humidity, temperature 136 and solar radiance are shown in Fig. S1. Data reported are displayed in EDT. Volumetric 137 gas concentrations reported are at ambient temperature and relative humidity.

138 2.2. SF₆⁻ CIMS

139 2.2.1. CIMS instrument and air sampling inlet

140 The CIMS instrument was housed in a temperature-controlled trailer during the 141 field study. The inlet configuration and CIMS instrument used in this study is shown in 142 Fig. 1. Since HNO₃ and organic acids may condense on surfaces, an inlet configuration 143 with a minimal wall interaction was used. This inlet configuration was previously described 144 by Huey et al. (2004) and Nowak et al. (2006); hence, only a brief description will be 145 provided here. The inlet was a 7.6 cm ID aluminum pipe that extended ~40 cm into the 146 ambient air through a hole in the trailer's wall. This positioned the inlet ~ 2 m above the 147 ground. A donut-shaped ring was attached to the ambient sampling port of the pipe to 148 reduce the influence of crosswinds on the pipe's flow dynamics. This ring was wrapped 149 with a fine wire mesh to prevent insects from being drawn through the pipe. A flow of 150 ~2800 L min⁻¹ was maintained in the pipe using a regenerative blower (AMETEK Windjammer 116637-03). Part of this flow (7 L min⁻¹) was sampled through a custom-151 152 made three-way PFA Teflon valve, which connected the pipe's center to the CIMS 153 sampling orifice. The valve was maintained at a temperature of 40 °C in an insulated 154 aluminum oven and could be switched automatically between ambient and background

155 modes. In ambient mode, ambient air was passed through a 25 cm long, 0.65 cm ID Teflon 156 tube into the CIMS. In background mode, ambient air was first drawn through an activated 157 charcoal scrubber before being delivered into the CIMS. A small flow of ambient air (~ 0.05 158 L min⁻¹) was continuously passed through the scrubber to keep it at equilibrium with 159 ambient humidity levels. Most of the sampled air flow (6.7 L min⁻¹) was exhausted using a small diaphragm pump. The rest of the sampled air flow (0.3 L min⁻¹) was introduced 160 161 into the CIMS instrument through an automatic variable orifice, which was used to 162 maintain a constant sample air mass flow.

163 The CIMS instrument was comprised of a series of differentially pumped regions: 164 a flow tube, a collisional dissociation chamber, an octopole ion guide, a quadrupole mass 165 filter and an ion detector. These sections were evacuated by a scroll pump (Edward nXDS 166 20i), a drag pump (Adixen MDP 5011) and two turbo pumps (Varian Turbo-V301), 167 respectively. Ambient air was drawn continuously into the flow tube. A flow of 3.7 168 standard liter per minute (slpm) of N2 containing a few ppm of SF6 (Scott-Marrin Inc.) was passed through a ²¹⁰Po ion source into the flow tube. SF₆⁻ anions, which were produced via 169 associative electron attachment in the ²¹⁰Po ion source, reacted with the sampled ambient 170 171 air in the flow tube to generate analyte ions. Arnold and Viggiano (2001) showed that the 172 formation of F⁻•(HF)_n cluster ions from the reaction of SF₆ and water vapor is enhanced at 173 high flow tube pressures. Since these F-•(HF)_n cluster ions could interfere with mass 174 spectral analysis, the flow tube was maintained at a low pressure (~13 mbar, 0.5 % 175 uncertainty) in this study to reduce both the water vapor concentration and reaction time in 176 the flow tube, thus minimizing interferences from SF_6^- reaction with water vapor. The 177 analyte ions exited the flow tube and were accelerated through the collisional dissociation 178 chamber (CDC), which was maintained at ~0.8 mbar (10 % uncertainty). The molecular 179 collisions in the CDC served to dissociate weakly bound cluster ions into their core ions to 180 simplify mass spectral analysis. Flow tube and CDC pressures were controlled by the 181 automatic variable orifice. For this study, the CDC was operated at a relatively high electric 182 field (~113 V cm⁻¹) to efficiently dissociate cluster ions. The resulting ions were then 183 passed into the octopole ion guide (maintained at ~6 x 10⁻³ mbar), which collimated the 184 ions and transferred them into the quadrupole mass spectrometer (maintained at $\sim 10^{-5}$ 185 mbar) for mass selection and detection. It should also be noted that we always used gloves

186 when working on the CIMS during this study to limit contamination of lactic acid

187 emissions from human skin. In addition, we kept people away from the front of the SF_6 -

188 CIMS sampling inlet to minimize lactic acid interferences as well.

Ions monitored during the field study included mass-to-charge ratio (m/z) 45, 59, 65, 73, 75, 79, 82, 87, 89, 101, 102, 103, 108, 117, 131 and 148. The assignment of these ions will be discussed in section 3. The dwell time for each m/z ion was set to 0.5 s and measurements of these ions were obtained every ~13 s, which resulted in a ~4 % (= 0.5/13 x 100 %) duty cycle for each ion monitored. The data presented in this paper was averaged

194 to 1-hour intervals unless stated otherwise.

195 2.2.2. Background and calibration measurements during field study

196 Background measurements were performed every 25 min during the field study. 197 During each background measurement, the sampled air flow was passed through an 198 activated charcoal scrubber prior to delivery into the CIMS. The scrubber removed > 99 % 199 of the targeted species in ambient air. Calibration measurements were performed every 5 h during the field study through standard additions of ³⁴SO₂ and either formic or acetic acid 200 201 to the sampled air flow. Each background and calibration measurement period lasted ~4 202 and ~3.5 min, respectively, which not only gave the scrubber (during background 203 measurements) and flow tube ample time to equilibrate when the three-way PFA Teflon 204 valve was switched between ambient and background modes, but also allowed us to obtain good averaging statistics during background and calibration measurements. A 1.12 ppm 205 ³⁴SO₂ gas standard was used as the source of the sulfur standard addition. 1.85 ppb of ³⁴SO₂ 206 207 was added to sampled air flow during calibration measurements. The formic and acetic 208 acid calibration sources were permeation tubes (VICI Metronics) with emission rates of 91 209 and 110 ng min⁻¹, respectively. The emission rates were measured by scrubbing the output 210 of the permeation tube in deionized water via a gas impinger immersed in water, which 211 was then analyzed for formate and acetate using ion chromatography (Thermo Fisher 212 Scientific). Eight samples of each acid were analyzed over the course of the field study and 213 the standard deviations of the permeation rates were ≤ 6 %. 6.75 ppb of formic acid and 214 5.87 ppb of acetic acid was added to sampled air flow during calibration measurements. 215 The CIMS instrument sensitivity measured by the $F_2^{34}SO_2^{-1}$ ion signal (m/z 104) was 216 similarly applied to all the other measured species (except for formic and acetic acids)

217 using relative sensitivities determined in laboratory studies. The $F_2^{34}SO_2^-$ calibrant ion

218 signals were also used to calibrate ambient $F_2^{32}SO_2^{-1}$ ion signals and determine ambient SO_2

219 concentrations as discussed in section 3.2.5.

220 2.2.3. Laboratory calibration

221 To estimate the levels of sensitivities for a series of acids of atmospheric relevance, 222 HNO₃, oxalic, butyric, glycolic, propionic and valeric acid standard addition calibrations 223 were performed in post-field laboratory work. Many of these acids have previously been 224 measured in rural and urban environments (Kawamura et al., 1985; Veres et al., 2011; 225 Brophy and Farmer, 2015). The response of the CIMS acid signals were measured relative 226 to the sensitivity of ³⁴SO₂ in these calibration measurements. The HNO₃ calibration source was a permeation tube (KIN-TEK) with a permeation rate of 39 ng min⁻¹, which was 227 measured using UV optical absorption (Neuman et al., 2003). Solid or liquid samples of 228 oxalic (Sigma Aldrich, \geq 99 %), butyric (Sigma Aldrich, \geq 99 %), glycolic (Sigma Aldrich, 229 99 %), propionic (Sigma Aldrich, \geq 99.5 %) and valeric (Sigma Aldrich, \geq 99 %) acids 230 231 were used in calibration measurements. The acid sample was placed in a glass impinger, 232 which was immersed in an ice bath to provide a constant vapor pressure. A flow of 6 to 10 233 mL min⁻¹ of N₂ was passed over the organic acid in the glass impinger. This organic acid 234 air stream was then diluted with varying flows of N2 (1 to 5 L min⁻¹) to achieve different 235 mixing ratios of the organic acid. Mixing ratios were calculated from either the acid's 236 emission rate from the impinger or the acid's vapor pressure. The emission rate of gas-237 phase oxalic acid from the impinger was measured by scrubbing the output in deionized 238 water using the same method for calibrating the formic and acetic acid permeation tubes, followed by ion chromatography analysis for oxalate. Three samples were analyzed and 239 the emission rate was determined to be 14 ng min⁻¹ with a standard deviation of < 5 %. The 240 241 vapor pressures of butyric and propionic acids at 0 °C were measured using a capacitance 242 manometer (MKS Instruments). The vapor pressures of glycolic and valeric acids at 0 °C 243 were estimated using their literature vapor pressures at 25 °C and enthalpies of vaporization 244 (Daubert and Danner, 1989; Lide, 1995; Acree and Chickos, 2010).

245 Attempts to generate a calibration plot for pyruvic acid using its liquid sample 246 (Sigma Aldrich, 98 %) and the setup described above were unsuccessful as this acid was 247 found to interact very strongly with surfaces. Glyoxylic acid calibrations were not 248 performed due to the presence of impurities in the glyoxylic acid monohydrate solution 249 used (Sigma Aldrich, 98 %), which resulted in the appearance of ions not attributed to 250 glyoxylic acid. We attempted to generate calibration plots for malonic (Sigma Aldrich, \geq 251 99.5 %), succinic (Sigma Aldrich, 99 %) and glutaric (Sigma Aldrich, 99 %) acids by 252 passing N₂ over their solid samples at room temperature. However, it was not possible to 253 generate large enough gas phase concentrations for calibration since these organic acids 254 have very low vapor pressures. The vapor pressures of malonic, succinic and glutaric acids 255 are 5.73 x 10⁻⁴, 1.13 x 10⁻⁴ and 4.21 x 10⁻⁴ kPa at 298 K, respectively (Booth et al., 2010), 256 which are at least 2 orders of magnitude lower than the organic acids that we calibrated. 257 Although heating up the malonic, succinic and glutaric acid samples will likely generate 258 sufficient vapors for calibration, this method of generating calibrant gases will lead to large 259 measurement uncertainties due to vapors condensing out and adhering onto surfaces at 260 room temperature prior to introduction into the CIMS.

261 2.2.4. Detection limits and measurement uncertainties

262 The detection limits of the organic acids were estimated as 3 times the standard 263 deviation values (3σ) of the ion signals measured during background mode. Although each 264 background measurement period lasted ~4 min, ion signals of the different organic acids 265 took up to 1.5 min to stabilize during the switch between ambient, calibration and 266 background measurements during the field study. Thus, ion signals measured during the 267 first 1.5 min were not included in the calculation of the average and standard deviation of 268 ion signals measured during background mode. Table 1 summarizes the average detection 269 limits of calibrated organic acids for 2.5 min averaging periods which corresponds to the 270 length of a background measurement with a 4 % duty cycle for each m/z. The mean 271 difference between successive background measurements ranged from 1 to 40 ppt for the 272 different organic acids. Future work will focus on reducing the instrument background, and 273 therefore improving the detection limits of these organic acids.

274 The uncertainties (1σ) in our ambient measurements of formic, acetic and oxalic 275 acid concentrations originated from CIMS and ion chromatography calibration 276 measurements. The ion chromatography measurement uncertainty was estimated to be 10 277 %. For formic and acetic acids, which were calibrated during the field study using 278 permeation tubes, their CIMS measurement uncertainties were estimated to be 6 and 7 %, 279 respectively, based on one standard deviation of the acids' calibrant ion signals. For oxalic 280 acid, which was calibrated in post-field laboratory work, the CIMS measurement 281 uncertainty was estimated to be 9 % based on one standard deviation of the ${}^{34}SO_2$ 282 sensitivity (3%), the acid's calibrant ion signals (7%) and linear fit of the calibration curve 283 (5 %). Hence, the uncertainties in our ambient measurements of formic, acetic and oxalic 284 acid concentrations were estimated to be 12, 12 and 14 %, respectively.

285 For nitric acid, which was calibrated in post-field laboratory work using a 286 permeation tube and UV optical absorption, the uncertainty in its ambient concentrations 287 was estimated to be 13 % based on uncertainties in UV absorption measurements (10 %) and one standard deviation of the acid's UV absorption signals (3 %), ³⁴SO₂ sensitivity (3 288 289 %) and acid's calibrant ion signals (8%). For propionic acid, which was calibrated in post-290 field laboratory work using vapor pressures measured by a capacitance manometer, the 291 uncertainty in its ambient concentrations was estimated to be 14 % based on the vapor 292 pressure measurement uncertainty (10 %) and one standard deviation of the ³⁴SO₂ sensitivity (3 %), the acid's calibrant ion signals (8 %) and linear fits of the acid's 293 294 calibration curves (3 %). Ambient concentrations and the corresponding uncertainties of 295 glycolic, valeric and butyric acids were not quantified.

296 2.3. WSOCg measurements

WSOC_g was measured with a MIST chamber coupled to a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Sievers 900 series, GE Analytical Instruments). Ambient air first passed through a Teflon filter (45 mm diameter, 2.0 μ m pore size, Pall Life Sciences) to remove particles in the air stream. This filter was changed every 3 to 4 days. The particle-free air was then pulled into a glass Mist Chamber filled with ultrapure deionized water at a flow rate of 20 L min⁻¹. The MIST chamber scrubbed soluble gases with Henry's law constants greater than 10³ M atm⁻¹ into deionized water (Spaulding et al., 2002). The resulting liquid 304 samples from the MIST chamber were analyzed by the TOC analyzer. The TOC analyzer 305 converted the organic carbon in the liquid samples to carbon dioxide using UV light and 306 chemical oxidation. The carbon dioxide formed was then measured by conductivity. The 307 amount of organic carbon in the liquid samples is proportional to the measured increase in 308 conductivity of the dissolved carbon dioxide. Each WSOCg measurement lasted 4 min. Background WSOCg measurements were performed for 45 min every 12 h by stopping the 309 310 sample air flow and rinsing the sampling lines with deionized water. The TOC analyzer 311 was calibrated using different concentrations of sucrose (as specified by the instrument 312 manual) before and after the field study. The limit of detection was 0.4 μ gC m⁻³. The 313 measurement uncertainty was estimated to be 10 % based on uncertainties in the sample 314 air flow, liquid flow and TOC analyzer uncertainty. The MIST chamber and upstream 315 particle filter were located in an air-conditioned building so were generally below ambient 316 temperature. Hence, evaporation of collected particles (which will lead to positive artifacts 317 in WSOCg measurements) are not expected to be significant.

318 2.4. Supporting gas measurements

Supporting gas measurements were provided by a suite of instruments operated by
the SEARCH network. A non-dispersive infrared spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific)
provided hourly CO measurements. A UV absorption analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific)
provided hourly O₃ measurements. A gas chromatography-flame ionization detector (GC-

323 FID, Agilent Technologies) provided hourly VOC measurements.

324 3. Results and discussion

325 **3.1. General SF**⁶ CIMS field performance

326 **3.1.1.** SF₆⁻ ion chemistry with organic acids

327 CIMS measurements of atmospheric constituents use ion-molecule reactions to 328 selectively ionize compounds of interest in the complex matrix of ambient air and produce 329 characteristic ions. The reactions of SF_{6}^{-} with the organic acids (HX) proceed through 330 reactions 1a to 1c, and gave similar products to those reported previously for SF_{6}^{-} reactions

331 with inorganic acids (Huey et al., 1995): SF₅⁻, X⁻ and X⁻•HF where X⁻ is the conjugate base

332 of the organic acid (reactions 1a-c).

333	$SF_6^{\bullet} + HX \rightarrow X^{\bullet}HF + SF_5$	(1a)
334	$SF_6^- + HX \rightarrow X^- + HF + SF_5$	(1b)
335	$SF_6 + HX \rightarrow SF_5 + HF + X$	(1c)

The effective branching ratios of the SF_5^- , X⁻ and X⁻•HF product ions can be impacted by the field strength of the CDC. The SF_5^- ion (m/z 127, reaction 1c) is a common reaction product of the reactions of SF_6^- with many species and is probably thermodynamically driven by the formation of HF (Huey et al., 1995). Unfortunately, the production of $SF_5^$ does not allow for the selective detection of any atmospheric species. In addition, the larger the branching ratio of the SF_5^- channel, the lower the CIMS sensitivity is to an individual acid since the effective rate constants for the X⁻ and X⁻•HF channels are lower.

343 The reaction of SF_6^- with formic acid and oxalic acid also produced SF_4^- ions (m/z 344 108). These reactions are probably thermodynamically driven by the formation of CO_2 and 345 HF:

346 $SF_6^- + HC(O)OH \rightarrow SF_4^- + CO_2 + 2HF$	(2	:)
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347 $SF_6^- + HO(O)CC(O)OH \rightarrow SF_4^- + 2CO_2 + 2HF$

348 We used the X⁻ and/or X⁻ HF ions to determine ambient organic acid concentrations 349 since these ions are characteristic of the individual acids. For all the organic acids, the X-350 •HF ion signal is substantially lower than that of the X⁻ ion for the conditions in this study. 351 However, this is probably largely due to the relatively high collision energy used in the 352 CDC, which led to efficient dissociation of the fluoride adducts to form X⁻ ions. 353 Consequently, only the proton transfer channel (1b) is used to quantify most of the organic 354 acids in the field study. The exceptions are formic and acetic acid as discussed in section 355 3.2.1 and 3.2.2

Table 1 shows a summary of the sensitivities of X⁻ and X⁻ HF ions of some common atmospheric organic acids. The average sensitivities of the HCOO⁻ (m/z 45) and HCOO⁻

(3)

358 •HF (m/z 65) ions of formic acid were 1.29 ± 0.22 and 0.29 ± 0.05 Hz ppt⁻¹, respectively, while the average sensitivities of the CH₃COO⁻ (m/z 59) and CH₃COO⁻ HF (m/z 79) ions 359 of acetic acid were 1.46 ± 0.29 and 0.30 ± 0.06 Hz ppt⁻¹, respectively. A weak ²¹⁰Po ion 360 361 source (< 1 mCi) was used by SF₆-CIMS instrument during the field study, hence these 362 sensitivities will be substantially higher if a stronger radioactive source is used. Post-field 363 laboratory work suggest that the sensitivities may increase by as much as a factor of 5 for a new commercial 20 mCi ²¹⁰Po ion source. Nevertheless, these sensitivities are compared 364 365 to formic and acetic acid sensitivities measured by a high-resolution time-of-flight 366 chemical ionization mass spectrometer (Aerodyne Research Inc.) that utilized I⁻ reagent 367 ions during the field study. Only the formic and acetic acid sensitivities were compared 368 since laboratory calibrations were not performed to determine the sensitivities for oxalic, 369 butyric, glycolic, propionic and valeric acids by I-CIMS. Although the formic acid 370 sensitivity measured by I-CIMS (1.33 \pm 0.28 Hz ppt⁻¹) was comparable to that measured 371 by SF₆-CIMS, the acetic acid sensitivity measured by I-CIMS (< 0.1 Hz ppt⁻¹) was substantially lower than that measured by SF6-CIMS. Previous studies have similarly 372 373 reported low acetic acid sensitivity measured by I-CIMS (Aljawhary et al., 2013; Lee et 374 al., 2014).

375 Since many recent studies use Γ as a reagent ion to measure many compounds, the 376 measured SF₆⁻ sensitivities to organic acids are compared with those of I⁻ reported by Lee 377 et al. (2014, 2018). However, it is important to note that the absolute SF_6^- and I^- sensitivities 378 values are specific to the respective instruments and their configuration. The sensitivity to 379 individual compounds depend on a variety of instrument parameters (e.g., flow rates, 380 pressures, electric fields, ion source activity) that control ion production and transmission, 381 reaction time, declustering efficiency, etc. Consequently, this analysis serves primarily as 382 a qualitative comparison of SF6⁻ and I⁻ sensitivity.

Although the I⁻ sensitivity to formic acid (2.9 Hz ppt⁻¹) reported by Lee et al. (2014) is higher than that of SF₆⁻ (1.29 Hz ppt⁻¹), the SF₆⁻ sensitivities for the other organic acids (i.e., acetic, oxalic, glycolic and propionic acids) are substantially higher than those of I⁻ (Table S1a). The SF₆⁻ CIMS method is particularly sensitive to oxalic, propionic and glycolic acids, which are expected to be present at low concentrations in the atmosphere.

The sensitivities of SF₆ and I to SO₂, HNO₃ and HCl can also be compared (Table S1b).

- The SF₆ sensitivities of SO₂ and HCl are significantly higher than that of I⁻ reported by
- Lee et al. (2018). However, I⁻ is more sensitive to HNO₃.

391 3.1.2. Characterization of interferences

392 SF₆ is very sensitive to many trace atmospheric species but its reactions with water 393 vapor and O₃ when sampling ambient air can lead to issues both with selectivity and 394 stability. For example, SF6 reacts nonlinearly with water vapor to form a series of F•(HF)n 395 cluster ions (Huey et al., 1995; Arnold and Viggiano, 2001). SF₆ also reacts efficiently 396 with O_3 to form O_3^- , which is rapidly converted to CO_3^- in ambient air (Slusher et al., 2001). 397 These reactions can deplete SF₆ as well as form a variety of potentially interfering ions 398 from secondary reactions (e.g., F-•(HF)n and CO3- ions) that depend on more abundant 399 atmospheric species. For these reasons, efforts were made to minimize interferences by 400 limiting reaction times and the flow sampled into the CIMS. This was accomplished by 401 sampling only 0.3 L min⁻¹ of air through the variable orifice into the flow tube and maintaining the flow tube at a low pressure (~13 mbar). The 0.3 L min⁻¹ sampled air flow 402 403 is diluted by 3.7 slpm of N₂/SF₆ flow in the flow tube. The ratio of the sampled air flow to 404 the N₂/SF₆ flow introduced into the flow tube is approximately 1:13. While the high N₂/SF₆ 405 flow (3.7 slpm) passed through the radioactive source into the flow tube increased the SF_6^- 406 reagent ion signal, the high dilution of the sampled air flow in the flow tube reduced the 407 CIMS instrument sensitivity by decreasing the number density of the analytes.

408 Figure 2 shows a mass spectrum of ambient air. Interference peaks at m/z 39 (F-•(HF) and CO3⁻, respectively) can be attributed to the presence of water and O3, 409 respectively. The reagent ion ³²SF₆⁻ is present at m/z 146. The ³²SF₆⁻ reagent ion signal was 410 saturated, and this caused the sharp drop in the m/z 146 signal as shown in Fig. 2. Since 411 412 the ${}^{32}SF_6$ reagent ion signal was saturated for the entire field study, we monitored the ion signal of its isotope ³⁴SF₆⁻ to determine if the reaction of SF₆⁻ with ambient water vapor 413 $(5.92 \text{ x } 10^{-6} \text{ to } 2.19 \text{ x } 10^{-5} \text{ g cm}^{-3})$ and O₃ (2.1 to 82.4 ppb) depleted SF₆⁻ reagent ions. 414 415 Figure S2a shows the time series of the ³⁴SF₆⁻ ion signal and ambient water vapor 416 concentration for the entire field study. Despite fluctuations in ambient water vapor and O₃ 417 concentrations, the ³⁴SF₆⁻ ion signal was relatively constant for the entire field study with

418 a standard deviation of < 3%. This indicates that the reaction of SF₆⁻ with ambient water 419 vapor and O₃ did not significantly deplete the ³²SF₆⁻ reagent ions during the field study.

420 The F₂³⁴SO₂⁻ ion signal was used to monitor the CIMS SO₂ sensitivity during the field study. Figure S2b shows the time series of the F2³⁴SO2^{-/34}SF6⁻ ion signal ratio obtained 421 in calibration measurements. There is a ~50 % increase in the $F_2^{34}SO_2^{-/34}SF_6^{-}$ ion signal 422 423 ratio on 28 Sept 2016, indicating an increase in the CIMS instrument sensitivity. The 424 increase in CIMS instrument sensitivity is due to the decrease in ambient water vapor 425 concentrations on 28 Sept 2016 (Fig. S2a). Previous laboratory and field studies showed 426 that this was due to the hydrolysis of F2³⁴SO2, which led to the loss of this ion and 427 diminished sensitivity at higher levels of ambient water vapor (Arnold and Viggiano, 2001; 428 Slusher et al., 2001). However, the SO₂ sensitivity at $F_2^{34}SO_2^{-}$ only varied within a factor 429 of two for the entire field study with a clear relationship to water vapor (Fig. S2c). The SO₂ 430 sensitivity did not show any obvious dependence on ambient O3 concentrations (Fig. S2d).

431 The formic (HCOO⁻ at m/z 45 and HCOO⁻•HF at m/z 65) and acetic (CH₃COO⁻ 432 •HF at m/z 79) acid ions did not show any obvious dependence on ambient water vapor 433 and O3 concentrations during calibration measurements (Fig. S3). Therefore, we do not 434 expect the sensitivities of the X⁻ and X⁻ HF ions of the studied organic acids to depend on ambient water vapor and O3 concentrations. We accounted for water vapor dependence of 435 436 the $F_2^{34}SO_2^{-1}$ ion signal using the linear relationship between the $F_2^{34}SO_2^{-1}$ ion sensitivity 437 and ambient water vapor concentration (Fig. S2c) in our post-field calibrations, where the response of the CIMS acid signals were measured relative to the of the ³⁴SO₂ sensitivity. 438

439 **3.1.3. Background and calibration measurements**

Figure S4 shows an example of the CIMS instrument response during the switch between background, calibration and ambient measurements of formic and acetic acids during the field study. The 13 s time resolution data was used to determine the CIMS instrument time response. Formic (m/z 45, 65 and 108) and acetic (m/z 79) acid ion signals took ~1.5 min to reach a steady state after switches between ambient, calibration and background measurements (Figs. S4a and S4c). 446 The CIMS time response to a compound is governed primarily by the compound's 447 propensity to adhere to surfaces. The decays in the formic and acetic acid ion signals and 448 times required for them to reach steady state after the removal of calibration gases during 449 the switch from standard addition calibration to ambient sampling were used to determine 450 the CIMS response time. The signal decays were fitted using double exponential functions. 451 For formic acid, the m/z 45, 65 and 108 ion signals decayed to $1/e^2$ in 37 ± 2 , 33 ± 2 and 452 32 ± 2 s, respectively (Fig. S4b). For acetic acid, the m/z 79 ion signal decayed to $1/e^2$ in 453 42 ± 2 s (Fig. S4d).

454 3.2. Ambient measurements

455 3.2.1. Formic acid

456 Figure 2 shows typical mass spectra obtained under background and measurement 457 modes during the field study. The SF6⁻ reagent ion is present at m/z 146. One of the 458 prominent species in the mass spectrum is formic acid, which is detected as HCOO⁻ and 459 HCOO-HF at m/z 45 and 65, respectively. Our laboratory studies demonstrated that the 460 reaction of formic acid with SF_6 also produced a large fraction of SF_4 ions at m/z 108. 461 The reaction of SF6⁻ with oxalic acid also produced SF4⁻ ions, but its SF4⁻ product ion yield 462 is low and gas phase oxalic acid is not present in large concentrations. In addition, SF4⁻ is 463 present in the mass spectrum obtained under background mode but the SF₄⁻ background 464 ion signals are lower than those typically observed in measurement mode at the Yorkville 465 site. As a result, we determined the ambient formic acid concentrations using the HCOO⁻, HCOO •HF and SF4 ions. Figure 3a shows a scatter plot comparing the ambient formic 466 467 acid concentrations measured at Yorkville using the HCOO⁻, HCOO⁻•HF and SF₄⁻ ions. 468 Linear regression analysis reveals that the formic acid concentrations determined by the three ions are highly correlated ($R^2 = 0.99$) with slopes exhibiting a near 1:1 correlation. 469 470 The excellent correlation between these three ions and the agreement with laboratory data 471 indicates that formic acid is selectively measured by this method.

The time series of formic acid, temperature and solar radiation measured at
Yorkville are shown in Fig. 3b. Formic acid concentrations ranged from 40 ppt to 4 ppb
during the field study, with strong and consistent diurnal trends. The day-to-day variability

475 in formic acid concentrations are associated with changes in solar radiation and 476 temperature. Higher formic acid concentrations are measured during warm and sunny days, 477 similar to formic acid measurements performed in Centreville, rural Alabama during the 2013 Southern Oxidant Aerosol Study (SOAS) (Brophy and Farmer, 2015; Millet et al., 478 479 2015). Figure 3c shows the study-averaged diurnal profiles of formic acid and solar 480 irradiance. Formic acid started to increase at 7:30, which coincided with a sharp increase 481 in solar irradiance. Concentrations continued to increase throughout the day and peaked at 482 18:30, which coincided with the approximate time just before solar irradiance reached zero. 483 Formic acid then decreased continuously throughout the night.

484 The immediate early-morning increase in formic acid observed in this field study 485 is similar to that seen during the SOAS study (Millet et al., 2015). However, there are some 486 differences in the formic acid diurnal cycles measured in this field study and the SOAS 487 study. Formic acid peaked at 15:30 during SOAS, approximately 3 hours before solar 488 irradiance decreased to zero. In contrast, formic acid concentrations only started to 489 decrease at sunset (at 19:30) in this study. This suggests that there may be differences in 490 the types and/or magnitudes of formic acid sources and sinks in this two field studies. Land 491 cover and/or land use differences may have contributed to differences in formic acid 492 sources and sinks at the Centreville and Yorkville field sites. The area surrounding the 493 Yorkville field site is covered primarily by hardwood mixed with farmland and open 494 pastures. In contrast, the Centreville field site is surrounded by forests comprised of mixed 495 oak-hickory and loblolly trees (Hansen et al., 2003). It is also possible that seasonal 496 differences contributed to differences in formic acid sources and sinks in the two field 497 studies. The SOAS campaign took place in the middle of summer (1 June to 15 July 2013) 498 when biogenic emissions are typically higher while this field study took place in early fall 499 when biogenic emissions are lower due to cooler temperatures. For example, the average 500 concentration of isoprene (a formic acid source) in this study (1.21 ppb) is lower than that 501 in SOAS (1.92 ppb (Millet et al., 2015)). Despite these differences, our overall results are 502 similar to the formic acid measurements performed in SOAS in both magnitude and diurnal 503 variability.

504 **3.2.2. Acetic acid**

505 Acetic acid is detected with SF₆⁻ as CH₃COO⁻ and CH₃COO⁻ HF at m/z 59 and 79, 506 respectively. However, these ions are subject to interferences from the reaction of SF6 with 507 water vapor present in the sampled ambient air. Two of these interfering ions $F^{-}(HF)_2$ and F-•(HF)₃ occur at m/z 59 and 79, respectively. As discussed earlier, we minimized the 508 509 impact of these interferences by diluting the sample flow into the CIMS and running the 510 CDC at a high collision energy to dissociate the HF cluster ions. As expected from cluster 511 bond strengths, we found that larger HF cluster ions dissociated more easily than smaller 512 ones. For example, at a CDC electric field of ~ 113 V cm⁻¹ (the configuration used in this 513 field study), virtually all of the F-(HF)₃ cluster ions dissociated while very few of the F-514 •(HF) cluster ions dissociated. This indicates that the m/z 79 channel for acetic acid is more 515 immune to interference from water vapor than the m/z 59 channel. This is supported by the observation that the background ion signal at m/z 59 ($R^2 = 0.50$) is more highly correlated 516 517 with ambient water vapor concentrations than the background ion signal of m/z 79 ($R^2 =$ 518 0.30). In addition, the m/z 59 ion is subjected to interference from the reaction of SF_6^- with 519 O_3 present in the sampled ambient air. SF_6^- reacts with O_3 in the presence of CO_2 to form 520 CO3⁻ at m/z 60 (Slusher et al., 2001). As shown in Fig. 2, the large CO3⁻ peak at m/z 60 is 521 a potential interference to the m/z 59 signal. As the background scrubber also removed O_3 522 from the ambient air, there is a large difference in the m/z 60 ion signal between the 523 measurement and background modes (~100 000 Hz). Thus, even a few percent bleed over 524 of m/z 60 to m/z 59 can lead to an over-estimation of ambient acetic acid concentrations. 525 For these reasons, we used m/z 79 (X⁻•HF) to determine ambient acetic acid concentrations 526 even though this channel has a lower sensitivity than the m/z 59 channel (X⁻).

527 The time series of acetic acid, temperature and solar radiation measured at 528 Yorkville are shown in Fig. 4a. Acetic acid concentrations ranged from 30 ppt to 3 ppb during the field study. The day-to-day variability in acetic acid concentrations resembled 529 530 the behavior of formic acid concentrations, with higher concentrations being measured 531 during warm and sunny days. Figure 4b shows the study-averaged diurnal profiles of acetic 532 acid and solar irradiance. The diurnal profile of acetic acid is similar to that of formic acid 533 with a more pronounced evening maximum. Acetic acid started to increase at 7:30 and 534 built up through the day, peaking at 19:30 and decreased continuously overnight. In general, acetic acid concentrations are well correlated with ($R^2 = 0.67$) and comparable in 535 18

 $536 \qquad \text{magnitude} \ (\sim\!60\ \% \ \text{on average}) \ \text{to formic acid}. \ \text{The study-averaged formic acid/acetic acid}$

537 concentration ratio (1.65) is comparable to ratios from previous field studies in rural and

538 urban environments (Talbot et al., 1988; Talbot et al., 1995; Granby et al., 1997; Khare et

539 al., 1999; Talbot et al., 1999; Baboukas et al., 2000; Singh et al., 2000; Kuhn et al., 2002;

540 Baasandorj et al., 2015; Millet et al., 2015).

541 3.2.3. Larger organic acids

542 In addition to formic and acetic acid, eight other ions were monitored during the 543 field study: m/z 73, 75, 87, 89, 101, 103, 117 and 131. These ions were chosen as they had 544 significant signals when ambient air was sampled and were not obviously formed from 545 SF₆⁻ reaction with water vapor or O₃. Since the CIMS utilized in this study only had unit 546 mass resolution, these ions are the sum of all organic acid isomers and isobaric organic 547 acids of the same molecular weight as well as other product ions from species that might react with SF₆. We will refer to organic acids with m/z 75, 87, 101, 103, 117 and 131 by 548 549 their ion masses. We assign the m/z 73 ion as the X⁻ ion of propionic acid because it does 550 not have organic acid isomers and isobaric species at that m/z. In addition, real-time ion 551 chromatography measurements of aerosol composition performed during the field study 552 demonstrated the presence of particulate oxalic acid (Nah et al., 2018). For this reason, we 553 assign the m/z 89 ion as the X⁻ ion of oxalic acid. As shown in Nah et al. (2018), the gas-554 particle ratios of the organic acids depend of their thermodynamic conditions, which are 555 dependent on the acid's physicochemical properties, ambient temperature, particle water 556 and pH. Since the measured gas-particle partitioning ratios of oxalic acid (calculated using 557 the CIMS and ion chromatography measurements) are in good agreement with their 558 corresponding thermodynamic predictions (Nah et al., 2018), this indicated that our 559 assignment of the m/z 89 ion to oxalic acid is reasonable. In addition, the high sensitivity 560 of SF₆⁻ to oxalic acid also helps limit interferences due to other acids. Particulate formic 561 acid and acetic acid were also detected by ion chromatography during the field study, but 562 were at much lower concentrations relative to the gas phase (Nah et al., 2018).

563 Figures 5 and S5 show the time series and diurnal profiles of oxalic and propionic 564 acids and organic acids with ions m/z 75, 87, 101, 103, 117 and 131 measured during the 565 field study. These organic acids displayed very similar day-to-day variability as formic and acetic acids, with higher concentrations (or ion signals) being measured on warm and sunny

567 days. The diurnal profiles of all the measured organic acids have similar diurnal trends,

568 with their concentrations (or ion signals) reaching a maximum between 17:30 and 19:30

569 and rapidly decreasing after sunset.

570 3.2.4. Comparison with WSOCg

571 WSOCg measurements were performed during the field study using a MIST 572 chamber coupled to a TOC analyzer. The study average WSOC_g was $3.6 \pm 2.7 \ \mu$ gC m⁻³, 573 slightly lower than that measured during the SOAS study (4.9 μ gC m⁻³) (Xu et al., 2017), 574 and approximately four times lower than that measured in urban Atlanta, Georgia (13.7 575 μ gC m⁻³) (Hennigan et al., 2009). Despite being comparable in magnitude, the diurnal 576 profiles of WSOCg measured in this study and the SOAS study are different. WSOCg measured in the SOAS study decreased at sunset, while WSOCg measured in this study 577 578 decreased 2 hours after sunset. Differences in WSOCg concentrations and diurnal profiles 579 at the three different sites may be due to differences in emission sources as a result of 580 different measurement periods, land use and/or land cover.

581 To estimate the fraction of WSOCg that is comprised of organic acids, the total 582 organic carbon contributed by formic, acetic, oxalic and propionic acids is compared to the 583 WSOCg measurements. This comparison primarily serves as a check to determine if the 584 peak assignments are plausible by ensuring that the estimated sum of organic carbon 585 contributed by these four organic acids is less than or equal to the measured WSOCg. Figures 6a and 6b show the time series and diurnal profiles of WSOCg and the organic 586 587 carbon contributed by the four organic acids. Formic and acetic acids comprised majority 588 of the total organic carbon contributed by the four organic acids (study averages of 41 and 589 54 %, respectively). The carbon mass fraction of WSOCg comprised of these four organic 590 acids ranged from 2 to 100 %. Based on the orthogonal distance regression slope shown in Fig. 6c, the study-averaged carbon mass fraction of WSOCg comprised of the four organic 591 592 acids is 22 %. The total organic carbon contributed by the four organic acids are moderately 593 correlated with $WSOC_g(R^2 = 0.42)$. This is likely due to the presence of other water-soluble 594 gas phase species (with different day-to-day variability from the organic acids) that 595 contribute to the WSOCg. This is supported by slight differences in the diurnal profiles of

 $596~WSOC_g$ and the organic carbon contributed by the organic acids (Fig. 6b). While the

597 diurnal profiles of WSOCg and the organic carbon contributed by the four organic acids

598 have similar general shapes, WSOCg peaked at 21:30, approximately 2 hours after the solar

599 irradiance have decreased to zero. In contrast, the organic carbon contributed by the four

600 organic acids start to decrease at sunset (at 19:30).

601 3.2.5. SO₂ and HNO₃ observations

602 In addition to evaluating the field performance of the SF6⁻ CIMS technique in gas-603 phase organic acid measurements, another focus of this study was to investigate the 604 possible sources of the measured organic acids. For this reason, HNO₃ and SO₂ (two 605 common anthropogenic tracers) were also measured by SF6⁻ CIMS during the field study. 606 Correlations between the concentrations of organic acids and those of HNO₃ and SO₂ were 607 then examined to determine if the organic acids were anthropogenic in nature (section 3.3). While their reactions with SF₆⁻ have multiple product channels (Huey et al., 1995), only 608 609 the NO₃⁻ HF (m/z 82) and F₂SO₂⁻ (m/z 102) ions were used for quantitative purposes:

 $610 \qquad SF_6^- + HNO_3 \rightarrow NO_3^- HF + SF_5 \qquad (4)$

611 $SF_6 + SO_2 \rightarrow F_2SO_2 + SF_4$ (5)

612 Figure S6 shows the time series of SO₂ and HNO₃ measured during the field study. 613 As expected at a rural site, SO₂ and HNO₃ concentrations are low most of the time (study 614 averages of 230 and 180 ppt, respectively). However, there were occasional periods when 615 the site was impacted by anthropogenic pollution. In particular, there are spikes in both 616 SO₂ and HNO₃ concentrations lasting between 1 to 3 hours throughout the study that corresponded to the site being impacted by power plant or urban emissions. Outside of 617 618 these anthropogenic spikes, HNO₃ showed a clear diurnal profile with a maximum at 619 approximately 12:30, consistent with local photochemical production.

620 3.3. Potential sources of organic acids

621 Correlation analysis on organic acid concentrations can provide insights on their 622 sources. Figure 7 shows that the concentration of formic acid is strongly correlated with 623 those of the other measured organic acids ($R^2 = 0.68$ to 0.89). This suggests that these

624 organic acids have the same or similar sources at Yorkville. The sources of organic acids 625 can be biogenic or anthropogenic in nature. To determine if the primary sources of organic 626 acids are of biogenic or anthropogenic origin, we first examined the correlations of organic acid concentrations with those of anthropogenic pollutants CO, SO₂, O₃ and HNO₃, CO 627 628 and SO₂ are common tracers for combustion sources. The organic acid concentrations (or ion signals) are poorly correlated with CO (Fig. S7, $R^2 = 0.04$ to 0.15) and SO₂ (Fig. S8, 629 630 $R^2 = 0.01$ to 0.23), indicating that primary emissions from combustion are a minor source 631 of organic acids in Yorkville. HNO3 and O3 are common photochemical tracers of urban 632 air masses. The organic acid concentrations (or ion signals) are weakly correlated with O₃ 633 (Fig. S9, $R^2 = 0.11$ to 0.31) and HNO₃ (Fig. S10, $R^2 = 0.33$ to 0.60). In addition, there is 634 no noticeable increase in organic acid concentrations during periods of elevated CO, SO₂, 635 O₃ and HNO₃ concentrations when the site was impacted by pollution plumes. Formic acid/CO ratios (which have been used in some studies to determine the contribution of 636 polluted air masses) ranged between 1.0 x 10⁻³ to 2.5 x10⁻² ppb ppb⁻¹. The ratio peaked 637 638 consistently in the mid-afternoon, which coincided with when formic acid and CO reached 639 their maximum and minimum, respectively. In addition, there were no spikes in the formic 640 acid/CO ratio during the study, suggesting that contributions of polluted air masses to the 641 daily increase in formic acid are minimal. Together, these results indicate that the primary 642 sources of organic acids in Yorkville are likely not anthropogenic in nature.

643 Diurnal profiles of the measured organic acids suggest that their sources are linked 644 to higher daytime temperatures and/or photochemical processes. Figure 8 compares the 645 concentrations (or ion signals) of organic acids against ambient temperatures measured during the study. Since there was a noticeable decrease in mean ambient temperatures 646 647 starting on 28 Sept 2016, we grouped the datasets into two time periods (3 to 27 Sept and 28 Sept to 12 Oct) to better evaluate the effect of temperature on organic acid 648 649 concentrations. The average temperature in the first time period (3 to 27 Sept) is 24.8 °C (32.6 °C max, 18.1 °C min), while the average temperature in the second time period (28 650 Sept to 12 Oct) is 19.5 °C (28.4 °C max, 9.5 °C min). We find that organic acid 651 652 concentrations are on average higher and more highly correlated with temperatures in the 653 warmer first time period ($R^2 = 0.40$ to 0.61) compared to the cooler second time period (R^2

654 = 0.18 to 0.55). These observations can be explained by temperature-dependent emissions 655 of organic acids and their BVOC precursors. Previous studies have shown that emissions 656 of organic acids and their BVOC precursors depend strongly on light and temperature, with 657 substantially lower concentrations being emitted in the dark and/or at low temperatures 658 (Kesselmeier et al., 1997; Kesselmeier, 2001; Sindelarova et al., 2014). We find that the 659 concentration of isoprene, which was the dominant BVOC in Yorkville, has a somewhat 660 similar diurnal profile as the organic acids and decreased with temperature on 28 Sept 2016 661 (Fig. S11). In addition, the concentrations of formic and acetic acids are moderately correlated with that of isoprene ($R^2 = 0.42$ and 0.40, respectively) (Fig. S12). 662

663 Multiphase photochemical aging of ambient organic aerosols can also be a source of gas-phase organic acids (Eliason et al., 2003; Ervens et al., 2004; Molina et al., 2004; 664 Lim et al., 2005; Park et al., 2006; Walser et al., 2007; Sorooshian et al., 2007; Vlasenko 665 et al., 2008; Pan et al., 2009; Sorooshian et al., 2010). Organic acids may be formed in the 666 particle phase during organic aerosol photochemical aging, with subsequent volatilization 667 668 into the gas phase. Real-time ion chromatography measurements of aerosol composition 669 demonstrated the presence of particulate formic, acetic, oxalic, malonic, succinic and 670 glutaric acids (Nah et al., 2018). However, since the ratios of gas-phase formic and acetic 671 acid mass concentration to the total organic aerosol mass concentration are large (study 672 averages of 40 and 35 %, respectively) (Nah et al., 2018), it is unlikely that organic aerosol 673 photochemical aging is a large source of formic and acetic acids. In contrast, the ratios of 674 gas-phase oxalic, malonic, succinic and glutaric acids mass concentration to the total 675 organic aerosol mass concentration are expected to be small, suggesting that organic 676 aerosol photochemical aging may be an important source of these gas-phase organic acids.

677 In summary, the temperature dependence and diurnal profile of organic acid 678 concentrations combined with poor correlations between organic acid concentrations and 679 those of anthropogenic pollutants CO, SO₂, O₃ and HNO₃ strongly suggest that the primary 680 sources of gas-phase organic acids at Yorkville are biogenic in nature. However, our data 681 alone does not allow us to determine if the organic acids are a result of direct emissions or 682 photochemical oxidation of other BVOC emissions and/or organic aerosols. Partitioning 683 of these organic acids between the gas and particle phases is discussed in another paper

684 (Nah et al., 2018).

685 **4. Summary**

686 SF₆⁻ reacted with all of the studied organic acids to produce product ions that were 687 characteristic of the individual acids (i.e., X⁻ or X⁻•HF). These reactions all occurred at less 688 than the maximum collisional rate due to significant yields of SF5⁻ and SF4⁻, which reduced 689 the sensitivity of the method. For the conditions employed in this study, the sensitivities of 690 X⁻ and X⁻•HF ions of the organic acids ranged from 0.12 to 6.38 Hz ppt⁻¹. The detection 691 limits of the organic acids were approximated from 3 times the standard deviation values 692 (3σ) of the ion signals obtained during background measurements. Limits of detection 693 ranged from 1 to 60 ppt for 2.5 min integration periods for the organic acids studied. It 694 should be noted that the SF_6 CIMS method is particularly sensitive to oxalic, propionic 695 and glycolic acids, which are expected to be present at low concentrations in the 696 atmosphere. Water vapor and O3 can lead to interferences with this method but for the 697 conditions employed in this study, they were largely limited to acetic acid measurements 698 at m/z 59. However, fluctuations in ambient water vapor can also lead to changes in 699 sensitivity for the detection of some species (e.g., SO₂). Uncertainties in organic acid 700 concentrations originate primarily from calibration measurements and ranged from 12 to 701 14 %. Overall, the tractable mass spectra obtained by the SF₆⁻ CIMS method coupled with 702 reasonable limits of detection and the high correlations observed between the individual 703 organic acids demonstrated the potential of this method. Obvious next steps for the SF6⁻ 704 CIMS method are to compare it to other measurement methods for organic acids and to 705 deploy the SF₆⁻ ion chemistry to a higher resolution time-of-flight mass spectrometer to 706 reduce the potential for interferences.

The SF₆⁻ CIMS method was deployed for measurements of gas phase organic acids in a mixed forest-agricultural area in Yorkville, Georgia from Sept to Oct 2016. The organic acids measured in the field study were formic, acetic, propionic and oxalic acids. Ambient concentrations of these organic acids ranged from a few ppt to several ppb. All the organic acids exhibited similar strong diurnal trends. Organic acid concentrations built up throughout the day, peaked between 17:30 and 19:30 before decreasing continuously

713 overnight. Strong correlations between organic acid concentrations indicated that these 714 organic acids likely have the same or similar sources at Yorkville. We concluded that the 715 organic acids were likely not due to anthropogenic emissions since they were poorly 716 correlated with anthropogenic pollutants and their concentrations were not elevated when 717 the site was impacted by pollution plumes. Higher organic acid concentrations were 718 measured during warm and sunny days. Organic acid concentrations were strongly 719 correlated with temperature during the first month of the study when ambient temperatures 720 were high. Together, our results suggested that the primary sources of organic acids at 721 Yorkville were biogenic in nature. Direct biogenic emissions of organic acids and/or their 722 BVOC precursors were likely enhanced at high ambient temperatures, resulting in the 723 observed variability of organic acid concentrations. Another potential source is the 724 production of organic acids in the particle phase from the multiphase photochemical aging 725 of organic aerosols followed by evaporation to the gas phase, though this source is likely 726 not a large source of formic and acetic acids. However, given the inability of current models 727 and photochemical mechanisms to explain formic acid observations in the Southeastern 728 U.S. (Millet et al., 2015), it is unlikely that our observations of formic acid and larger 729 organic acids can be explained as well. Further work (i.e., laboratory, field and modeling 730 studies) is needed to determine how organic acids are formed in the atmosphere.

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741 7. Competing financial interests

742 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

743 8. Data availability

744 Data can be accessed by request (greg.huey@eas.gatech.edu).

745 9. References

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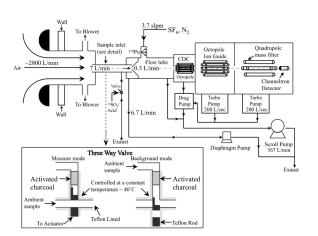
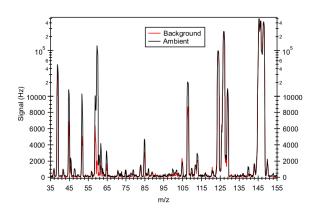


Figure 1: The CIMS instrument and inlet configuration used in the field study. The
automated three-way sampling valve is shown in the inset. The figure was adapted from
Liao et al. (2011).





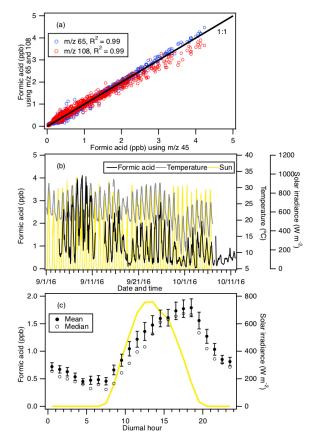
1010 Figure 2: Mass spectrum of ambient air and background measured in Yorkville, Georgia

1011 on 8 Sept 2016 using SF_6. Note that the 32 SF_6 reagent ion signal (at m/z 146) is saturated,

1012 causing the sharp drop in its signal. As a result, the ion signal of its isotope ${}^{34}SF_{6}$ (at m/z

1013 150) was monitored to determine if the reaction of SF_6^- with ambient water vapor and O_3

1014 depleted SF₆⁻ reagent ions.



1016 Figure 3: (a) Scatter plot comparison of ambient formic acid concentrations determined 1017 using mass peaks m/z 45, 65 and 108. The three datasets correlated well with one another 1018 $(R^2 = 0.99)$. Linear regression of the data gave slopes of 1 (for m/z 65) and 0.95 (for m/z 1019 108), indicating that all three mass peaks can be used to determine the formic acid 1020 concentration. (b) Time series of formic acid concentration, temperature and solar 1021 irradiance. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. (c) Diurnal profiles of formic acid 1022 concentration (symbols) and solar irradiance (yellow line). All the concentrations represent 1023 averages in 1-hour intervals and the standard errors are plotted as error bars.

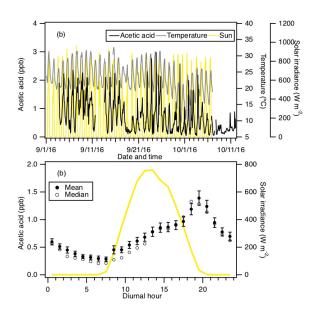
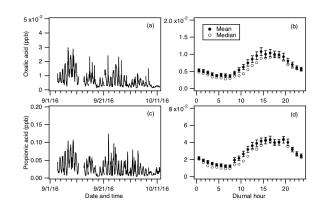


Figure 4: (a) Time series of acetic acid concentration, temperature and solar irradiance.
All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. (c) Diurnal profiles of acetic acid (symbols)
and solar irradiance (yellow line). All the concentrations represent averages in 1-hour
intervals and the standard errors are plotted as error bars.

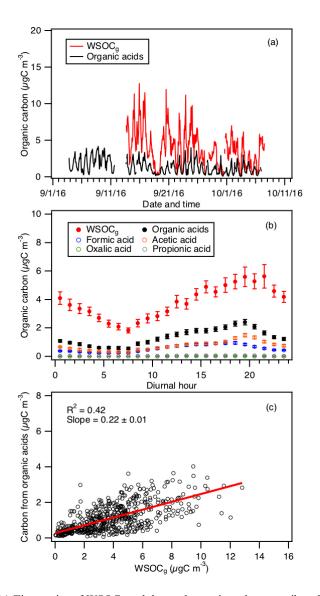


1033 Figure 5: Time series of concentrations of (a) oxalic and (c) propionic acids measured

1034 during the field study. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. Their corresponding

1035 diurnal profiles are shown in (b) and (d), respectively. The diurnal profile concentrations

1036 represent averages in 1-hour intervals and the standard errors are plotted as error bars.

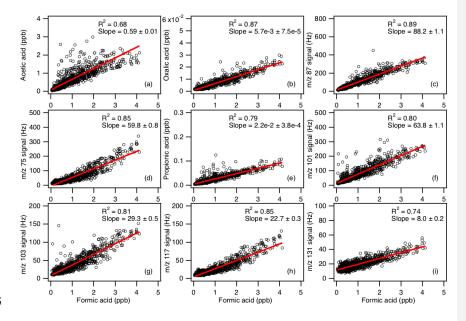


1038Figure 6: (a) Time series of $WSOC_g$ and the total organic carbon contributed by formic,1039acetic, oxalic and propionic acids. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. (b) Diurnal1040profiles of $WSOC_g$ and the total organic carbon contributed by formic, acetic, oxalic and1041propionic acids. Also shown are the diurnal profiles of the organic carbon contributed by

1042 the individual organic acids. All the concentrations represent the mean hourly averages and

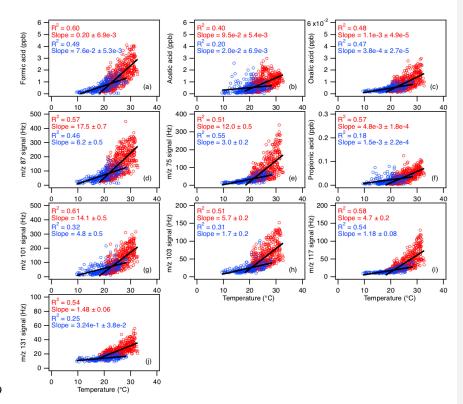
1043 the standard errors are plotted as error bars. (c) Scatter plot of total organic carbon

1044 contributed by formic, acetic, oxalic and propionic acids with WSOCg.



1046 Figure 7: Scatter plots of concentrations (or ion signals) of the measured organic acids

- 1047 with formic acid concentration. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. Red lines
- 1048 shown are linear fits to the data.



1050 Figure 8: Scatter plots of concentrations (or ion signals) of the measured organic acids

- with ambient temperature. The red symbols are data collected from 3 to 27 Sept, while theblue symbols are data collected from 28 Sept onwards. All the data are displayed as 1-hour
- 1053 averages. Black lines shown are linear fits to the datasets.

1059**Table 1:** Summary of organic acids of interest, their detection limits and sensitivities of1060their X⁻ and X⁻•HF ions^a

Organic Acid	Detection limit	Sensitivity (Hz ppt ⁻¹)			
	(ppt) ^b	X-	X-•HF		
Formic acid	30	1.29 ± 0.22	0.29 ± 0.05		
Acetic acid	60	1.46 ± 0.29	0.30 ± 0.06		
Oxalic acid	1	6.38 ± 0.32	0.97 ± 0.05		
Butyric acid	30	0.41 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.004		
Glycolic acid	2	5.53 ± 0.11	1.64 ± 0.03		
Propionic acid	6	2.05 ± 0.02	1.26 ± 0.01		
Valeric acid	10	0.76 ± 0.008	0.35 ± 0.004		

1061 ^aOnly organic acids with calibration measurements are shown.

1062 ^bDetection limits are approximated from 3 times the standard deviation values (3σ) of the

1063 ion signals measured during background mode. Shown here are the average detection limits

1064 of the organic acids for 2.5 min averaging periods which corresponds to the length of a 1065 background measurement at a 4 % duty cycle for each mass. 1 **Supplementary Information:**

2 Real-time measurements of gas-phase organic acids using SF₆⁻ chemical ionization 3 mass spectrometry

- 4
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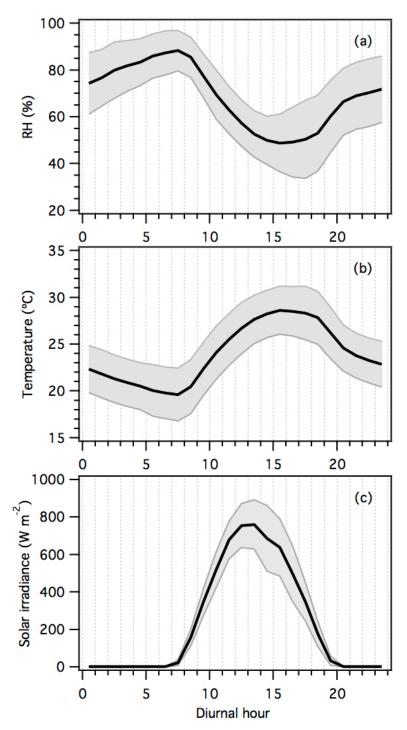




Figure S1: Diurnal trends of (a) relative humidity, (b) temperature, and (c) solar radiance.
The lines within the shaded area represents the average values. The upper and lower
boundaries of the shaded areas mark one standard deviation.

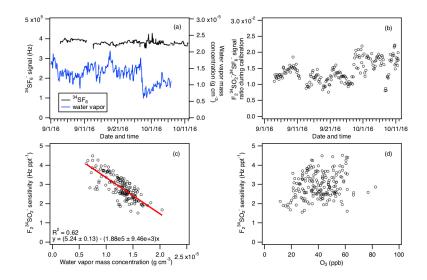


Figure S2: (a) Time series of ${}^{34}SF_6$ ⁻ reagent ion signal and ambient water vapor concentration for the entire field study. The ambient water vapor mass concentrations are determined from ambient relative humidities and temperatures. (b) Time series of $F_2{}^{34}SO_2{}^ /{}^{34}SF_6{}^-$ ion signal ratio obtained during calibration measurements. Panels (c) and (d) show the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2{}^-$ ion sensitivity obtained from calibration measurements as a function of ambient water vapor and O₃ concentrations. Data in panels (a) to (d) are displayed as 1hour averages.

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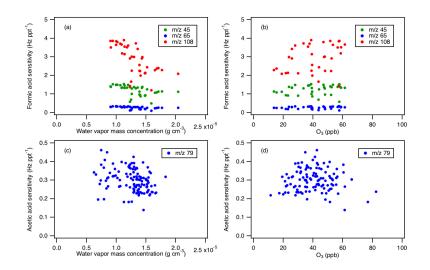
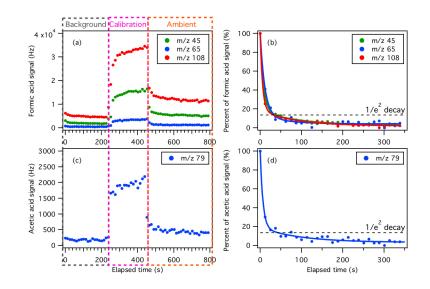


Figure S3: Panels (a) and (b) show the sensitivities of formic acid ions (HCOO⁻ at m/z 45, HCOO⁻•HF at m/z 65, and SF₄⁻ at m/z 108) obtained from calibration measurements as a function of ambient water vapor and O₃ concentrations. Panels (c) and (d) show the acetic acid sensitivity (CH₃COO⁻•HF at m/z 79) obtained from calibration measurements as a function of ambient water vapor and O₃ concentrations.

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Figure S4: Example of the CIMS instrument response during switches between background, calibration and ambient measurements of (a) formic, and (c) acetic acids. Panels (b) and (d) show the percent of formic and acetic acid ion signals after the removal of a 6.75 ppb of formic acid and 5.87 ppb of acetic acid standard addition calibration as a function of time. The data shown here is 13 s time resolution data. Double exponential fits to each m/z ion are shown as colored solid lines. Black dashed lines show the times for the ions to decay to $1/e^2$.

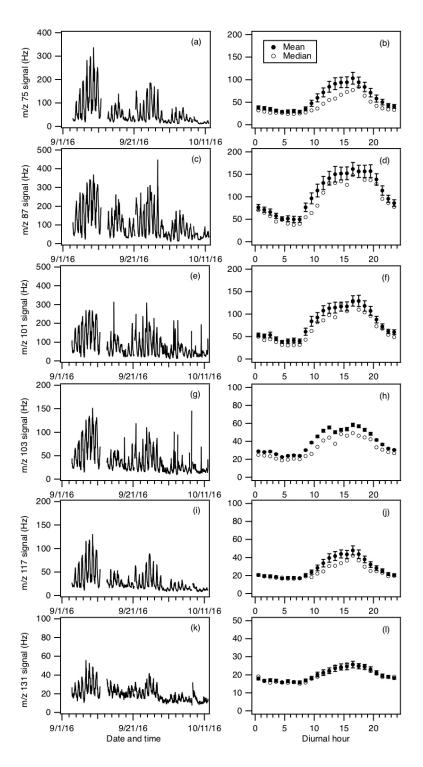
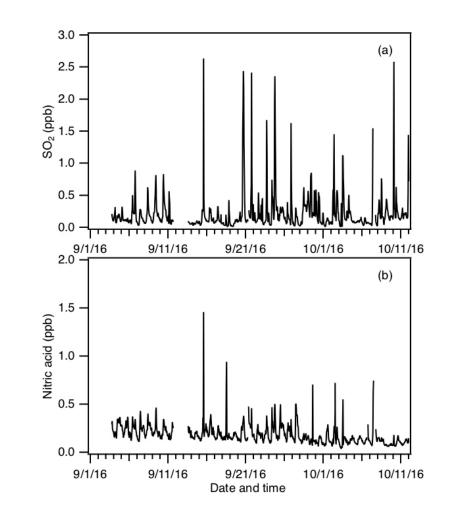




Figure S5: Time series and diurnal profiles of ion signals of organic acids with m/z 75, 87, 101, 103, 117 and 131 measured during the field study. The data are displayed as 1-hour averages. All the signals represent averages in 1-hour intervals and the standard errors are plotted as error bars.



55 Figure S6: Time series of (a) SO₂ and (b) HNO₃ concentrations measured during the field

56 study. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages.

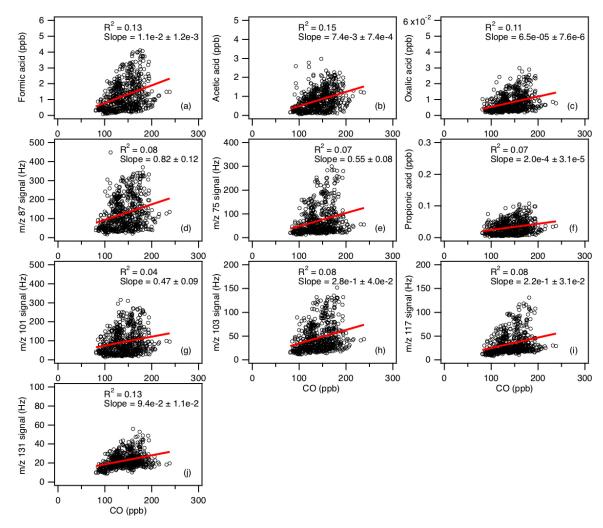


Figure S7: Scatter plots of concentrations (or ion signals) of the measured organic acids
with CO concentration. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. Red lines shown are
linear fits to the data.

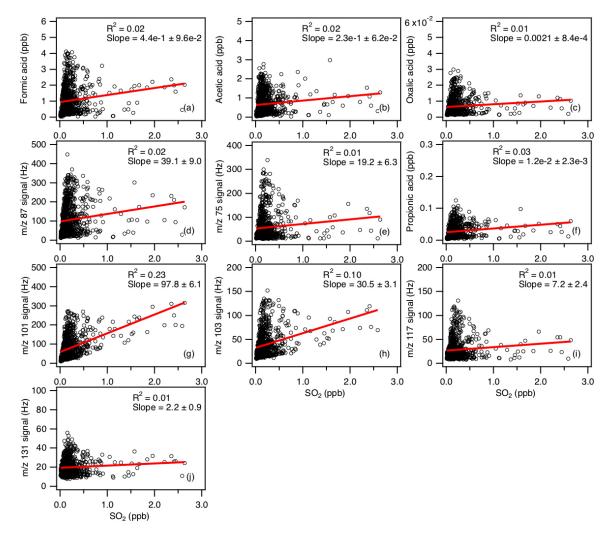


Figure S8: Scatter plots of concentrations (or ion signals) of the measured organic acids
with SO₂ concentration. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. Red lines shown are
linear fits to the data.

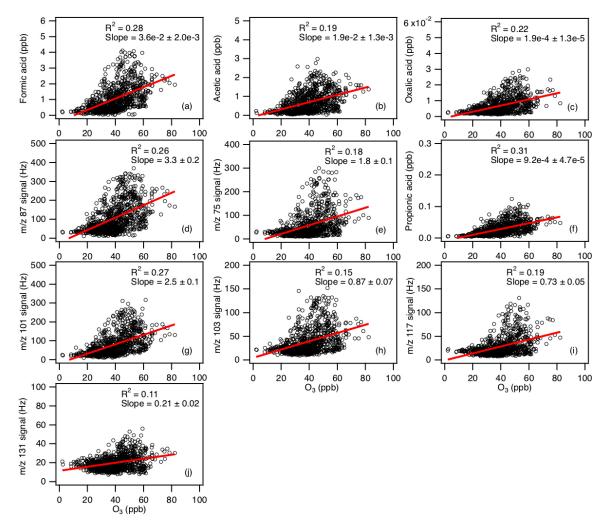
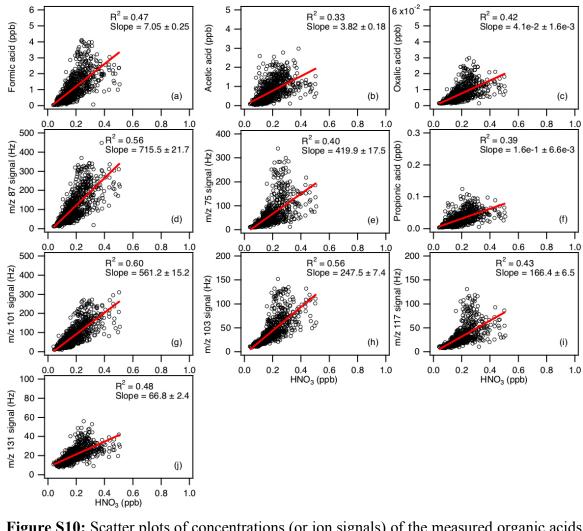


Figure S9: Scatter plots of concentrations (or ion signals) of the measured organic acids
with O₃ concentration. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. Red lines shown are
linear fits to the data.



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Figure S10: Scatter plots of concentrations (or ion signals) of the measured organic acids with HNO₃ concentration. To exclude periods when the site was affected by urban or power plant emissions, data where $HNO_3 > 0.5$ ppb are excluded from these scatter plots. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. Red lines shown are linear fits to the data.

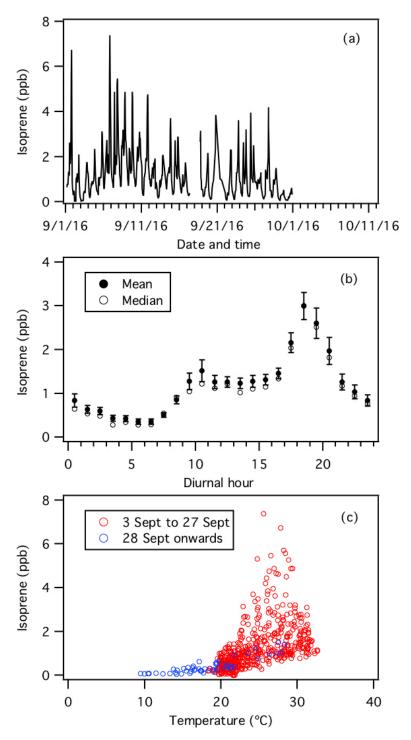




Figure S11: (a) Time series of isoprene concentration during the field study. (b) Diurnal profile of isoprene. All the concentrations represent averages in 1-hour intervals and the standard errors are plotted as error bars. (c) Scatter plot of isoprene concentration with ambient temperature. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages.

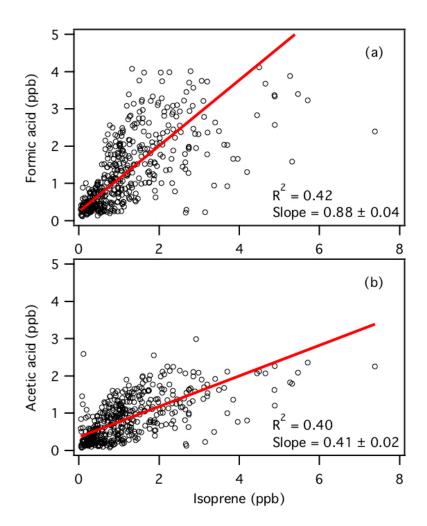


Figure S12: Scatter plots of concentrations of (a) formic and (b) acetic acids with isoprene
concentration. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. Red lines shown are linear
fits to the data.

93	Table S1a: Comparison of SF ₆ ⁻ vs. I ⁻ sensitivities of organic acids							
	Organic Acid	vity (Hz ppt ⁻¹)						
		<u>(Hz ppt⁻¹)</u> ^a	<u>X-</u>	<u>X-•HF</u>				
	Formic acid	<u>2.9</u>	1.29 ± 0.22	0.29 ± 0.05				
	Acetic acid	<u>0.1</u>	1.46 ± 0.29	0.30 ± 0.06				
	Oxalic acid	<u>0.21</u>	6.38 ± 0.32	0.97 ± 0.05				
	Butyric acid	Not available	0.41 ± 0.01	0.12 ± 0.004				
	<u>Glycolic acid</u>	<u>1.1</u>	5.53 ± 0.11	1.64 ± 0.03				
	Propionic acid	$\frac{0.066}{1111}$	$\frac{2.05 \pm 0.02}{0.76 \pm 0.020}$	$\frac{1.26 \pm 0.01}{2.25 \pm 0.001}$				
0.4	<u>Valeric acid</u>	Not available	0.76 ± 0.008	0.35 ± 0.004				
94 95	^a The I ⁻ sensitivities shown here are those reported by Lee et al. (2014). The organic acids were detected as cluster ions with iodide $(I(X)^{-})$.							
96	were detected as cluster folls with founde (I(X)).							
97	Table S1b: Comparison of SF ₆ ⁻ vs. I ⁻ sensitivities of inorganic compounds							
	Inorganic	<u>I sensitivity</u>		<u>6 sensitivity</u>				
	<u>compound</u>	<u>(Hz ppt⁻¹)^b</u>		(Hz ppt^{-1})				
	<u>SO</u> 2	0.028		<u>2.9</u>				
	\underline{HNO}_3	<u>9.0</u>		$\frac{.8 \text{ for NO}_3}{.8 \text{ for NO}_3}$				
	HCl	0.03	<u>0.2</u>	$\frac{\text{for NO}_3 - \text{HF}^{c}}{1.4^{d}}$				
98	^b The I ⁻ sensitivities shown here are those reported by Lee et al. (2018).							
99	^c The high collision energy used in the CDC promoted the dissociation of NO ₃ ⁻ •HF ions,							
100	causing the low sensitivity at NO ₃ -•HF.							
101	$^{\rm d}$ HCl was detected as SF ₅ Cl ⁻ .							
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103	References							
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		Flight Deployment of a High-Resolution Time-of-Flight Chemical Ionization Mass						
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114	Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 0, doi:10.1029/2017JD028082, 2018.							

93 Table S1a: Comparison of SF_6^- vs. I⁻ sensitivities of organic acids