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Atmospheric Measurement Techniques Discussions

Real-time measurements of gas-phase organic acids using SF_6^- chemical ionization mass spectrometry

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Abstract

The sources and atmospheric chemistry of gas-phase organic acids are currently poorly understood due in part to the limited range of measurement techniques available. In this work, we evaluated the use of SF_6^- as a sensitive and selective chemical ionization reagent ion for real-time measurements of gas-phase organic acids. Field measurements are made using a chemical ionization mass spectrometer (CIMS) at a rural site in Yorkville, Georgia from September to October 2016 to investigate the capability of this measurement technique. Our measurements demonstrate that SF_6^- can be used to measure a range of organic acids in the atmosphere. Ambient concentrations of organic acids ranged from a few parts per trillion by volume (ppt) to several parts per billion by volume (ppb). Assuming that these organic acids are completely water-soluble, the carbon mass fraction of gas-phase water-soluble organic carbon ($WSOC_g$) comprised of these organic acids ranged from 7 to 100 % with a study average of 30 %. All the organic acids displayed similar strong diurnal behaviors, reaching maximum concentrations between 5 and 7 pm local time. The organic acid concentrations are dependent on ambient temperature, with higher organic acid concentrations being measured during warmer periods.

Introduction

Organic acids are ubiquitous and important species in the troposphere. They are major contributors of free acidity in precipitation (Galloway et al., 1982; Keene et al., 1983; Keene and Galloway, 1984), and can also affect the formation of secondary organic aerosols (SOA) (Zhang et al., 2004; Carlton et al., 2006; Sorooshian et al., 2010; Yatavelli

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et al., 2015). As end products of oxidation, organic acids can also serve as useful tracers of air mass history (Sorooshian et al., 2007; Sorooshian et al., 2010). Organic acids are found in urban, rural and remote marine environments in the gas, aqueous and particle phases. While organic acids are emitted directly from biogenic sources (e.g., microbial activity, vegetation and soil) and anthropogenic activities (e.g., fossil fuel combustion, vehicular 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; 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-volatile organic compounds (Chebbi and Carlier, 1996; Hansen et al., 2003; Orzechowska and Paulson, 2005; Carlton et al., 2006; Sorooshian et al., 2007; Ervens et al., 2008; Paulot et al., 2011; Millet et al., 2015). The chemical aging of organic aerosols has also been proposed as a major source of organic acids (Paulot et al., 2011). The relative importance of primary and secondary sources of organic acids are currently poorly constrained though their emissions likely depend on the magnitude of biogenic and anthropogenic activities and the meteorological conditions. Wet and dry deposition are the primary sinks of organic acids in the atmosphere (Chebbi and Carlier, 1996).

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

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65 better constrained in models. Given that formic and acetic acids are major trace gases in
66 the atmosphere, there is a need to resolve the discrepancy between measurements and
67 model predictions to close the atmospheric reactive carbon budget and improve our overall
68 understanding of VOC chemistry in the atmosphere.

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

82 Chemical ionization mass spectrometry (CIMS) is commonly used to selectively
83 measure atmospheric trace gases in real-time with high sensitivity. CIMS measurements
84 rely on reactions between reagent ions and compounds of interest present in the sampled
85 air to produce analyte ions that are detected by a mass spectrometer. The subset of
86 molecular species detected is determined by the reagent ion employed since the specificity
87 of the ionization process is governed by the ion-molecule reaction mechanism. CIMS is a
88 popular tool for atmospheric measurements since it provides high time resolution, linear
89 and reproducible measurements. It is also a soft ionization technique with minimal ion
90 fragmentation, thus preserving the parent molecule's elemental composition and allowing
91 for molecular speciation. Recent developments in chemical ionization methods and sources
92 have greatly improved our ability to measure atmospheric acidic species. Some of the
93 CIMS reagent ions that have been used to measure atmospheric organic acids include
94 acetate ($CH_3CO_2^-$), iodide (I^-) and CF_3O^- anions (Crounse et al., 2006; Veres et al., 2008;

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Lee et al., 2014; Brophy and Farmer, 2015; Nguyen et al., 2015). However, each of these CIMS reagent ions has its drawbacks, which are generally related to their selectivity and sensitivity towards different atmospheric species. For example, acetic acid is difficult to measure with $CH_3CO_2^-$ as the CIMS reagent ion due to interferences from the reagent ion chemistry that complicates the desired ion-molecule reactions. In addition, while many organic acids can be detected using I^- as a reagent ion, its sensitivity to different acids can vary by orders of magnitude (Lee et al., 2014). For these reasons, this work is focused on assessing the ability of SF_6^- to measure a series of organic acids in ambient air.

The sulfur hexafluoride (SF_6^-) anion has been used as a CIMS reagent ion to measure atmospheric inorganic species such as sulfur dioxide (SO_2), nitric acid (HNO_3) and peroxynitric acid (HO_2NO_2) (Slusher et al., 2001; Slusher et al., 2002; Huey et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2007). SF_6^- commonly reacts with most acidic gases at the collision rate by either proton or fluoride transfer reactions (Huey et al., 1995). However, SF_6^- is reactive to both ozone (O_3) and water vapor, which can lead to interfering reactions that limit its applicability to many species in certain environments (Huey et al., 2004). In this work, we present ambient measurements of gas-phase organic acids conducted in a mixed forest-agricultural area in Georgia in early fall of 2016 to evaluate the performance of a SF_6^- CIMS technique. Gas-phase organic acid measurements are compared to gas-phase water-soluble organic carbon ($WSOC_g$) measurements performed during the field study to estimate the fraction of $WSOC_g$ that is comprised of organic acids at this rural site. Laboratory experiments are conducted to measure the sensitivity of SF_6^- with a series of organic acids of atmospheric relevance.

2. Methods

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 Aerosol Research and Characterization (SEARCH) site located in Yorkville, Georgia. A detailed description of the field site has been provided by Hansen et al. (2003). Briefly, the Yorkville field site (33.931 N, 85.046 W) was located ~55 km northwest of Atlanta, and

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was on a broad ridge in a large pasture where there were occasionally grazing cattle. The field site was surrounded by forest and agricultural land. There were no major roads near the field site and nearby traffic emissions were negligible. The sampling period was characterized by moderate temperatures (24.0 °C average, 32.6 °C max, 9.5 °C min) and high relative humidities (68.9% RH average, 100% RH max, 21.6% RH min). The study-averaged diurnal trends of relative humidity, temperature and solar radiance are shown in Fig. S1. Data reported are displayed in EDT. Volumetric gas concentrations reported are at ambient temperature and relative humidity.

2.2. SF_6^- CIMS

2.2.1. CIMS instrument and air sampling inlet

The CIMS instrument was housed in a temperature controlled trailer during the field study. The inlet configuration and CIMS instrument used in this study is shown in Fig. 1. Since HNO_3 and organic acids may condense on surfaces, an inlet configuration with a minimal wall interaction was used. This inlet configuration was previously described by Huey et al. (2004) and Nowak et al. (2006); hence, only a brief description will be provided here. The inlet was a 7.6 cm ID aluminum pipe that extended ~40 cm into the ambient air through a hole in the trailer's wall. This positioned the inlet ~2 m above the ground. A donut-shaped ring was attached to the ambient sampling port of the pipe to reduce the influence of crosswinds on the pipe's flow dynamics. This ring was wrapped with a fine wire mesh to prevent insects from being drawn through the pipe. A flow of ~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-made three-way PFA Teflon valve, which connected the pipe's center to the CIMS sampling orifice. The valve was maintained at a temperature of 40 °C in an insulated aluminum oven and could be switched automatically between ambient and background modes. In ambient mode, ambient air was passed through a 25 cm long, 0.65 cm ID Teflon tube into the CIMS. In background mode, ambient air was first drawn through an activated charcoal scrubber before being delivered into the CIMS. A small flow of ambient air (~0.05 L min^{-1}) was continuously passed through the scrubber to keep it at equilibrium with ambient humidity levels. Most of the sampled air flow (6.7 L min^{-1}) was exhausted

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154 using a small diaphragm pump. The rest of the sampled air flow (0.3 L min^{-1}) was
155 introduced into the CIMS instrument through an automatic variable orifice, which was used
156 to maintain a constant sample air mass flow.

157 Detailed descriptions of the CIMS instrument can be found in Liao et al. (2011) and
158 Chen et al. (2016). Briefly, the CIMS instrument was comprised of a series of differentially
159 pumped regions: a flow tube, a collisional dissociation chamber, an octopole ion guide, a
160 quadrupole mass filter and an ion detector. These sections were evacuated by a scroll pump
161 (Varian Triscroll^{TM} 300), a drag pump (Adixen MDP 5011) and two turbo pumps (Varian
162 Turbo-V70), respectively. Ambient air was drawn continuously into the flow tube. A flow
163 of 3.7 L min^{-1} of N_2 containing a few ppm of SF_6 (Scott-Marrin Inc.) was passed through
164 a ^{210}Po ion source into the flow tube. SF_6^- anions, which were produced via associative
165 electron attachment in the ^{210}Po ion source, reacted with the sampled ambient air in the
166 flow tube to generate analyte ions. The flow tube was maintained at a low pressure (~13
167 mbar) to minimize interferences from SF_6^- reaction with water vapor. The analyte ions then
168 exited the flow tube and were accelerated through the collisional dissociation chamber
169 (CDC), which was maintained at ~0.8 mbar. The molecular collisions in the CDC served
170 to dissociate weakly bound cluster ions into their core ions to simplify mass spectral
171 analysis. For this study, the CDC was operated at a relatively high voltage (-50 V) to
172 efficiently dissociate cluster ions. The resulting ions were then passed into the octopole ion
173 guide (maintained at ~6 x 10^{-3} mbar), which collimated the ions and transferred them into
174 the quadrupole mass spectrometer (maintained at ~10^{-5} mbar) for mass selection and
175 detection.

176 **2.2.2. Background and calibration measurements during field study**

177 Background measurements were performed every 25 min during the field study.
178 During each background measurement, the sampled air flow was passed through an
179 activated charcoal scrubber prior to delivery into the CIMS. The scrubber removed > 99 %
180 of the targeted species in ambient air. Calibration measurements were performed every 5 h
181 during the field study through standard additions of $^{34}SO_2$ and either formic or acetic acid
182 to the sampled air flow. Each background and calibration measurement period lasted ~4
183 min. A 1.12 ppm $^{34}SO_2$ gas standard was used as the source of the sulfur standard addition.

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184 The formic and acetic acid calibration sources were permeation tubes (VICI Metronics)
185 with emission rates of 91 and 110 ng min^{-1}, respectively. The emission rates were measured
186 by scrubbing the output of the permeation tube in deionized water via a gas impinge
187 immersed in water, which was then analyzed for formate and acetate using ion
188 chromatography (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Eight samples of each acid were analyzed
189 over the course of the field study and the standard deviations of the permeation rates were
190 ≤ 6 %. The CIMS instrument sensitivity measured by the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ ion signal (m/z 104) was
191 similarly applied to all the other measured species (except for formic and acetic acids)
192 using relative sensitivities determined in laboratory studies. The $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ calibrant ion
193 signals were also used to calibrate ambient $F_2{}^{32}SO_2^-$ ion signals and determine ambient SO_2
194 concentrations as discussed in section 3.2.5.

195 **2.2.3. Laboratory calibration**

196 HNO_3, oxalic, butyric, glycolic, propionic and valeric acid standard addition
197 calibrations were performed in post-field laboratory work. The response of the CIMS acid
198 signals were measured relative to the sensitivity of $^{34}SO_2$ in these calibration
199 measurements. The HNO_3 calibration source was a permeation tube (KIN-TEK) with a
200 permeation rate of 39 ng min^{-1}, which was measured using UV optical absorption (Neuman
201 et al., 2003). Solid or liquid samples of oxalic (Sigma Aldrich, ≥ 99 %), butyric (Sigma
202 Aldrich, ≥ 99 %), glycolic (Sigma Aldrich, 99 %), propionic (Sigma Aldrich, ≥ 99.5 %)
203 and valeric (Sigma Aldrich, ≥ 99 %) acids were used in calibration measurements. The acid
204 sample was placed in a glass impinger, which was immersed in an ice bath to provide a
205 constant vapor pressure. A flow of 6 to 10 mL min^{-1} of N_2 was passed over the organic acid
206 in the glass impinger. This organic acid air stream was then diluted with varying flows of
207 N_2 (1 to 5 L min^{-1}) to achieve different mixing ratios of the organic acid. Mixing ratios
208 were calculated from either the acid's emission rate from the impinger or the acid's vapor
209 pressure. The emission rate of gas-phase oxalic acid from the impinger was measured by
210 scrubbing the output in deionized water using the same method for calibrating the formic
211 and acetic acid permeation tubes, followed by ion chromatography analysis for oxalate.
212 Three samples were analyzed and the emission rate was determined to be 14 ng min^{-1} with
213 a standard deviation of < 5 %. The vapor pressures of butyric and propionic acids at 0 ˚C

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were measured using a capacitance manometer (MKS Instruments). The vapor pressures of glycolic and valeric acids at 0 ˚C were estimated using their literature vapor pressures at 25 ˚C and enthalpies of vaporization (Daubert and Danner, 1989; Lide, 1995; Acree and Chickos, 2010).

Attempts to generate a calibration plot for pyruvic acid using its liquid sample (Sigma Aldrich, 98 %) and the setup described above were unsuccessful as this acid was found to interact very strongly with surfaces. Glyoxylic acid calibrations were not performed due to the presence of impurities in the glyoxylic acid monohydrate solution used (Sigma Aldrich, 98 %), which resulted in the appearance of ions not attributed to glyoxylic acid. We attempted to generate calibration plots for malonic (Sigma Aldrich, ≥ 99.5 %), succinic (Sigma Aldrich, 99 %) and glutaric (Sigma Aldrich, 99 %) acids by passing N_2 over their solid samples at room temperature. However, it was not possible to generate large enough gas phase concentrations for calibration since these organic acids have very low vapor pressures.

2.2.4. Detection limits and measurement uncertainties

The detection limits of the organic acids were approximated from 3 times the standard deviation values (3σ) of the ion signals measured during background mode. Table 1 summarizes the average detection limits of the organic acids for 2.5 min integration periods which corresponds to the length of a background measurement with a 0.04 s duty cycle for each m/z. The mean difference between successive background measurements ranged from 1 to 40 ppt for the different organic acids. Future work will focus on reducing the instrument background, and therefore improving the detection limits of these organic acids.

The uncertainties (1σ) in our ambient measurements of formic, acetic and oxalic acid concentrations originated from CIMS and IC calibration measurements. The IC measurement uncertainty was estimated to be 10 %. For formic and acetic acids, which were calibrated during the field study using permeation tubes, their CIMS measurement uncertainties were estimated to be 6 and 7 %, respectively, based on one standard deviation of the acids' calibrant ion signals. For oxalic acid which was calibrated in post-field

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laboratory work, the CIMS measurement uncertainty was estimated to be 9 % based on one standard deviation of the $^{34}SO_2$ sensitivity (3 %), the acid's calibrant ion signals (7 %) and linear fit of the calibration curve (5 %). Hence, the uncertainties in our ambient measurements of formic, acetic and oxalic acid concentrations were estimated to be 12, 12 and 14 %, respectively.

For nitric acid which was calibrated in post-field laboratory work using a permeation tube and UV optical absorption, the uncertainty in its ambient concentrations was estimated to be 9 % based on uncertainties in UV absorption measurements (3 %) and one standard deviation of the $^{34}SO_2$ sensitivity (3 %) and acid's calibrant ion signals (8 %). For butyric and propionic acids which were calibrated in post-field laboratory work using vapor pressures measured by a capacitance manometer, the uncertainties in their ambient concentrations were estimated to be 14 % based on the vapor pressure measurement uncertainty (10 %) and one standard deviation of the $^{34}SO_2$ sensitivity (3 %), the acids' calibrant ion signals (8 %) and linear fits of the acids' calibration curves (3 %). For glycolic and valeric acids which were calibrated in post-field laboratory work using vapor pressures estimated from literature vapor pressures at 25 ˚C and enthalpies of vaporization, the uncertainties in their ambient concentrations were likely significantly larger compared to the other measured organic acids due to uncertainties in their estimated vapor pressures. We estimate the uncertainties in ambient concentrations of glycolic and valeric acids to be 22 % based on an assumed vapor pressure uncertainty of 20 % and one standard deviation of the $^{34}SO_2$ sensitivity (3 %), the acids' calibrant ion signals (8 %) and linear fits of the acids' calibration curves (2 %).

2.3. $WSOC_g$ 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 μm 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 10^3 M atm^{-1} into deionized water (Spaulding et al., 2002). The resulting liquid

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samples from the MIST chamber were analyzed by the TOC analyzer. The TOC analyzer converted the organic carbon in the liquid samples to carbon dioxide using UV light and chemical oxidation. The carbon dioxide formed was then measured by conductivity. The amount of organic carbon in the liquid samples is proportional to the measured increase in conductivity of the dissolved carbon dioxide. Each $WSOC_g$ measurement lasted 4 min. Background $WSOC_g$ measurements were performed for 45 min every 12 h by stopping the sample air flow and rinsing the sampling lines with deionized water. The TOC analyzer was calibrated using different concentrations of sucrose (as specified by the instrument manual) before and after the field study. The limit of detection was 0.4 μgC m^{-3}. The measurement uncertainty was estimated to be 10 % based on uncertainties in the sample air flow, liquid flow and TOC analyzer uncertainty. The MIST chamber and upstream particle filter were located in an air-conditioned building so were generally below ambient temperature. Hence, evaporation of collected particles (which will lead to positive artifacts in $WSOC_g$ measurements) are not expected to be significant.

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 O_3 measurements. A gas chromatography-flame ionization detector (GC-FID, Agilent Technologies) provided hourly VOC measurements.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. General SF_6^- CIMS field performance

3.1.1. SF_6^- ion chemistry with organic acids

The underlying aspect of CIMS measurements of atmospheric constituents is the use of ion-molecule reactions to selectively ionize compounds of interest in the complex matrix of ambient air and produce characteristic ions. The reactions of SF_6^- with the organic acids (HX) gave similar products to those reported previously for SF_6^- reactions with

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inorganic acids (Huey et al., 1995): SF_5^-, X^- and X^-•HF where X^- is the conjugate base of the organic acid (reactions 1a-c).

$$SF_6^- + HX \rightarrow X^-\bullet HF + SF_5 \quad (1a)$$

$$SF_6^- + HX \rightarrow X^- + HF + SF_5 \quad (1b)$$

$$SF_6^- + HX \rightarrow SF_5^- + HF + X \quad (1c)$$

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 to an individual acid since the effective rate constants for the X^- and X^-•HF channels are lower.

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

$$SF_6^- + HC(O)OH \rightarrow SF_4^- + CO_2 + 2HF \quad (2)$$

$$SF_6^- + HO(O)CC(O)OH \rightarrow SF_4^- + 2CO_2 + 2HF \quad (3)$$

We used the X^- and/or X^-•HF ions to determine ambient organic acid concentrations since these ions are characteristic of the individual acids. For all the organic acids, the X^-•HF ion signal is substantially lower than that of the X^- ion for the conditions in this study. However, this is probably largely due to the relatively high collision energy used in the CDC which led to efficient dissociation of the fluoride adducts to form X^- ions. Consequently, only the proton transfer channel (1b) is used to quantify most of the organic acids in the field study. The exceptions are formic and acetic acid as discussed in section 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 Table 1 shows a summary of the sensitivities of X^- and X^-•HF ions of organic acids relative to that of the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ ion.

3.1.2. Characterization of interferences

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SF_6^- is very sensitive to many trace atmospheric species but its reactions with water vapor and O_3 when sampling ambient air can lead to issues both with selectivity and stability. For example, SF_6^- reacts nonlinearly with water vapor to form a series of $F^-\bullet(HF)_n$ cluster ions (Huey et al., 1995; Arnold and Viggiano, 2001). SF_6^- also reacts efficiently with O_3 to form O_3^-, which is rapidly converted to CO_3^- in ambient air (Slusher et al., 2001). These reactions can deplete SF_6^- as well as form a variety of potentially interfering ions that depend on more abundant atmospheric species. For these reasons, efforts were made to minimize interferences by limiting reaction times and the flow sampled into the CIMS. This was accomplished by sampling only 0.3 L min^{-1} of air through the variable orifice into the flow tube which was maintained at a pressure of ~13 mbar. Figure 2 shows a mass spectrum of ambient air. Interference peaks at m/z 39 ($F^-\bullet(HF)$ and CO_3^-, respectively) can be attributed to the presence of water and O_3, respectively. Figure S2a shows the time series of the $^{34}SF_6^-$ reagent ion signal and ambient water vapor concentration for the entire field study. Despite fluctuations in ambient water vapor concentrations, the $^{34}SF_6^-$ reagent ion signal was relatively constant for the entire field study with a standard deviation of < 3%. This indicates that the reaction of SF_6^- with ambient water vapor (and O_3) did not significantly deplete the SF_6^- reagent ions during the field study.

The $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ ion signal was used to monitor the CIMS SO_2 sensitivity during the field study. Figure S2b shows the time series of the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-/{}^{34}SF_6^-$ ion signal ratio obtained in calibration measurements. There is a noticeable increase in the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-/{}^{34}SF_6^-$ ion signal ratio on 28 Sept 2016, indicating an increase in the CIMS instrument sensitivity. The increase in CIMS instrument sensitivity is due to the decrease in ambient water vapor concentrations on 28 Sept 2016 (Fig. S2a). Previous laboratory and field studies showed that this was due to the hydrolysis of $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$, which led to the loss of this ion and diminished sensitivity at higher levels of ambient water vapor (Arnold and Viggiano, 2001; Slusher et al., 2001). However, the SO_2 sensitivity at $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ only varied within a factor of two for the entire field study with a clear relationship to water vapor (Fig. S2c). The X^- and $X^-\bullet HF$ ions of formic and acetic acids do not show any obvious dependence on ambient water vapor concentration during calibration measurements. Therefore, we do not expect the sensitivities of the X^- and $X^-\bullet HF$ ions of the studied organic acids to depend on ambient water vapor concentrations. We accounted for water vapor dependence of the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ ion

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signal in our post-field calibrations where the response of the CIMS acid signals were measured relative to the of the $^{34}SO_2$ sensitivity.

3.2. Ambient measurements

3.2.1. Formic acid

Figure 2 shows typical mass spectra obtained under background and measurement modes during the field study. The SF_6^- reagent ion is present at m/z 146. One of the prominent species in the mass spectrum is formic acid, which is detected as $HCOO^-$ and $HCOO^-$•HF at m/z 45 and 65, respectively. Our laboratory studies demonstrated that the reaction of formic acid with SF_6^- also produced a large fraction of SF_4^- ions at m/z 108. The reaction of SF_6^- with oxalic acid also produced SF_4^- ions, but its SF_4^- product ion yield is low and gas phase oxalic acid is not present in large concentrations. In addition, SF_4^- is present in the mass spectrum obtained under background mode but the SF_4^- background ion signals are lower than those typically observed in measurement mode at the Yorkville site. As a result, we determined the ambient formic acid concentrations using the $HCOO^-$, $HCOO^-$•HF and SF_4^- ions. Figure 3a shows a scatter plot comparing the ambient formic acid concentrations measured at Yorkville using the $HCOO^-$, $HCOO^-$•HF and SF_4^- ions. 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. The excellent correlation between these three ions and the agreement with laboratory data 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 0.04 to 4 ppb during the field study, with strong and consistent diurnal trends. The day-to-day variability in formic acid concentrations are associated with changes in solar radiation and temperature. Higher formic acid concentrations are measured during warm and sunny days, 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., 2015). Figure 3c shows the study-averaged diurnal profiles of formic acid and solar irradiance. Formic acid started to increase at 7:30, which coincided with a sharp increase

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386 in solar irradiance. Concentrations continued to increase throughout the day and peaked at
387 18:30, which coincided with the approximate time just before solar irradiance reached zero.
388 Formic acid then decreased continuously throughout the night.

389 The immediate early-morning increase in formic acid observed in this field study
390 is similar to that seen during the SOAS study (Millet et al., 2015). However, there are some
391 differences in the formic acid diurnal cycles measured in this field study and the SOAS
392 study. Formic acid peaked at 15:30 during SOAS, approximately 3 hours before solar
393 irradiance decreased to zero. In contrast, formic acid concentrations only started to
394 decrease at sunset (at 19:30) in this study. This suggests that there may be differences in
395 the types and/or magnitudes of formic acid sources and sinks in this two field studies. Land
396 cover and/or land use differences may have contributed to differences in formic acid
397 sources and sinks at the Centreville and Yorkville field sites. The area surrounding the
398 Yorkville field site is covered primarily by hardwood mixed with farmland and open
399 pastures. In contrast, the Centreville field site is surrounded by forests comprised of mixed
400 oak-hickory and loblolly trees (Hansen et al., 2003). It is also possible that seasonal
401 differences contributed to differences in formic acid sources and sinks in the two field
402 studies. The SOAS campaign took place in the middle of summer (1 June to 15 July 2013)
403 when biogenic emissions are typically higher while this field study took place in early fall
404 when biogenic emissions are lower due to cooler temperatures. For example, the average
405 concentration of isoprene (a formic acid source) in this study (1.21 ppb) is lower than that
406 in SOAS (1.92 ppb (Millet et al., 2015)). Despite these differences, our overall results are
407 similar to the formic acid measurements performed in SOAS in both magnitude and diurnal
408 variability.

409 **3.2.2. Acetic acid**

410 Acetic acid is detected with SF_6^- as CH_3COO^- and CH_3COO^-•HF at m/z 59 and 79,
411 respectively. However, these ions are subject to interferences from the reaction of SF_6^- with
412 water vapor present in the sampled ambient air. Two of these interfering ions F^-•$(HF)_2$ and
413 F^-•$(HF)_3$ occur at m/z 59 and 79, respectively. As discussed earlier, we minimized the
414 impact of these interferences by diluting the sample flow into the CIMS and running the
415 CDC at a high collision energy to dissociate the HF cluster ions. As expected from cluster

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bond strengths, we found that larger HF cluster ions dissociated more easily than smaller ones. For example, at a CDC electric field of ~113 V cm^{-1} (the configuration used in this field study), virtually all of the $F^-•(HF)_3$ cluster ions dissociated while very few of the $F^-•(HF)$ cluster ions dissociated. This indicates that the m/z 79 channel for acetic acid is more 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 with ambient water vapor concentrations than the background ion signal of m/z 79 (R^2 = 0.30). In addition, the m/z 59 ion is subjected to interference from the reaction of SF_6^- with O_3 present in the sampled ambient air. SF_6^- reacts with O_3 in the presence of CO_2 to form CO_3^- at m/z 60 (Slusher et al., 2001). As shown in Fig. 2, the large CO_3^- peak at m/z 60 is a potential interference to the m/z 59 signal. As the background scrubber also removed O_3 from the ambient air, there is a large difference in the m/z 60 ion signal between the measurement and background modes (~100,000 Hz). Thus, even a few percent bleed over of m/z 60 to m/z 59 can lead to an over-estimation of ambient acetic acid concentrations. For these reasons, we used m/z 79 ($X^-•HF$) to determine ambient acetic acid concentrations even though this channel has a lower sensitivity than the m/z 59 channel (X^-).

The time series of acetic acid, temperature and solar radiation measured at Yorkville are shown in Fig. 4a. Acetic acid concentrations ranged from 0.03 to 3 ppb during the field study. The day-to-day variability in acetic acid concentrations resembled the behavior of formic acid concentrations, with higher concentrations being measured during warm and sunny days. Figure 4b shows the study-averaged diurnal profiles of acetic acid and solar irradiance. The diurnal profile of acetic acid is similar to that of formic acid with a more pronounced evening maximum. Acetic acid started to increase at 7:30 and 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 magnitude (~60 % on average) to formic acid. The study-averaged formic acid/acetic acid concentration ratio (1.65) is comparable to ratios from previous field studies in rural and urban environments (Talbot et al., 1988; Talbot et al., 1995; Granby et al., 1997; Khare et al., 1999; Talbot et al., 1999; Baboukas et al., 2000; Singh et al., 2000; Kuhn et al., 2002; Baasandorj et al., 2015; Millet et al., 2015).

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3.2.3. Larger organic acids

In addition to formic acid and acetic acid, eight other ions were monitored during the field study: m/z 73, 75, 87, 89, 101, 103, 117 and 131. These ions were chosen as they had significant signals when ambient air was sampled and were not obviously formed from SF_6^- reaction with water vapor or O_3. Since the CIMS utilized in this study only had unit mass resolution, these ions are the sum of all organic acid isomers and isobaric organic acids of the same molecular weight as well as other product ions from species that might react with SF_6^-. However, real-time ion chromatography measurements of aerosol composition performed during the field study demonstrated the presence of particulate oxalic, malonic, succinic and glutaric acids (Nah et al., 2018). For this reason, for m/z 89, 103, 117 and 131 ions, we assigned them as X^- ions of oxalic, malonic, succinic and glutaric acids, respectively. As these organic acids have low vapor pressures, their gas-phase concentrations are expected to be lower than their particle-phase concentrations, though their gas-particle ratios will depend on thermodynamic conditions (Nah et al., 2018). Particulate formic acid and acetic acid were also detected by ion chromatography during the field study, but were at much lower concentrations relative to the gas phase (Nah et al., 2018). For simplicity, we also denoted m/z 73, 75, 87 and 101 ions as X^- ions of propionic, glycolic, butyric and valeric acids, respectively, for the remainder of this paper. These organic acids have previously been measured in rural and urban environments (Kawamura et al., 1985; Veres et al., 2011; Brophy and Farmer, 2015). However, we note that these assignments are speculative. Post-field calibration measurements were used to estimate the ambient concentrations of these organic acids.

Figure 5 shows the time series and diurnal profiles of oxalic, butyric, glycolic, propionic and valeric acids measured during the field study. Daytime concentrations of these organic acids ranged from a few tens of ppt to several hundred ppt. The time series of ion signals of malonic, succinic and glutaric acids are shown in Fig. S3. Concentrations of these organic acids are not available since calibrations were not performed for these compounds. The eight 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 days. The diurnal profiles of all the measured organic acids have similar diurnal

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trends, with their concentrations reaching a maximum between 17:30 and 19:30 and rapidly decreasing after sunset.

3.2.4. Comparison with $WSOC_g$

$WSOC_g$ measurements were performed during the field study using a MIST chamber coupled to a TOC analyzer. The study average $WSOC_g$ was 3.6 ± 2.7 μgC m^{-3}, slightly lower than that measured during the SOAS study (4.9 μgC m^{-3}) (Xu et al., 2017), and approximately four times lower than that measured in urban Atlanta, Georgia (13.7 μgC m^{-3}) (Hennigan et al., 2009). Despite being comparable in magnitude, the diurnal profiles of $WSOC_g$ measured in this study and the SOAS study are different. $WSOC_g$ measured in the SOAS study decreased at sunset, while $WSOC_g$ measured in this study decreased 2 hours after sunset. Differences in $WSOC_g$ concentrations and diurnal profiles at the three different sites may be due to differences in emission sources as a result of different measurement periods, land use and/or land cover.

To estimate the fraction of $WSOC_g$ that is comprised of organic acids, the total organic carbon contributed by formic, acetic, oxalic, butyric, glycolic, propionic and valeric acids is compared to the $WSOC_g$ measurements. Figures 6a and 6b show the time series and diurnal profiles of $WSOC_g$ and the organic carbon contributed by the measured organic acids. Formic and acetic acids comprised majority of the total organic carbon contributed by the measured organic acids (study averages of 31 and 38 %, respectively). Assuming that the measured organic acids are completely water-soluble, the carbon mass fraction of $WSOC_g$ comprised of these organic acids ranged from 7 to 100 %. Based on the orthogonal distance regression slope shown in Fig. 6c, the study-averaged carbon mass fraction of $WSOC_g$ comprised of the measured organic acids is 30 %. The total organic carbon contributed by the measured organic acids are moderately correlated with $WSOC_g$ (R^2 = 0.38). This is likely due to the presence of other water-soluble gas phase species (with different day-to-day variability from the organic acids) that contribute to the $WSOC_g$. This is supported by slight differences in the diurnal profiles of $WSOC_g$ and the organic carbon contributed by the organic acids (Fig. 6b). While the diurnal profiles of $WSOC_g$ and the organic carbon contributed by the organic acids have similar general shapes, $WSOC_g$ peaked at 21:30, approximately 2 hours after the solar irradiance have decreased

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506 to zero. In contrast, the organic carbon contributed by the organic acids start to decrease at
507 sunset (at 19:30).

508 **3.2.5. SO_2 and HNO_3 observations**

509 In addition to evaluating the field performance of the SF_6^- CIMS technique in gas-
510 phase organic acid measurements, another focus of this study was to investigate the
511 possible sources of the measured organic acids. For this reason, HNO_3 and SO_2 (two
512 common anthropogenic tracers) were also measured by SF_6^- CIMS during the field study.
513 Correlations between the concentrations of organic acids and those of HNO_3 and SO_2 were
514 then examined to determine if the organic acids were anthropogenic in nature (section 3.3).
515 While their reactions with SF_6^- have multiple product channels (Huey et al., 1995), only
516 the NO_3^-•HF (m/z 82) and $F_2SO_2^-$ (m/z 102) ions were used for quantitative purposes:

517 $$SF_6^- + HNO_3 \rightarrow NO_3^-\bullet HF + SF_5 \quad (4)$$

518 $$SF_6^- + SO_2 \rightarrow F_2SO_2^- + SF_4 \quad (5)$$

519 Figure S4 shows the time series of SO_2 and HNO_3 measured during the field study.
520 As expected at a rural site, SO_2 and HNO_3 concentrations are low most of the time (study
521 averages of 0.23 and 0.18 ppb, respectively). However, there were occasional periods when
522 the site was impacted by anthropogenic pollution. In particular, there are spikes in both
523 SO_2 and HNO_3 concentrations throughout the study that corresponded to the site being
524 impacted by power plant or urban emissions. Outside of these anthropogenic spikes, HNO_3
525 showed a clear diurnal profile with a maximum at approximately 12:30, consistent with
526 local photochemical production.

527 **3.3. Potential sources of organic acids**

528 Correlation analysis on organic acid concentrations can provide insights on their
529 sources. Figure 7 shows that the concentration of formic acid is strongly correlated with
530 those of the other measured organic acids (R^2 = 0.68 to 0.89). This suggests that these
531 organic acids have the same or similar sources at Yorkville. The sources of organic acids
532 can be biogenic or anthropogenic in nature. To determine if the primary sources of organic
533 acids are of biogenic or anthropogenic origin, we first examined the correlations of organic

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534 acid concentrations with those of anthropogenic pollutants CO, SO_2, O_3 and HNO_3. CO
535 and SO_2 are common tracers for combustion sources. The organic acid concentrations are
536 poorly correlated with CO (Fig. S5, R^2 = 0.03 to 0.15) and SO_2 (Fig. S6, R^2 = 0.01 to 0.24),
537 indicating that primary emissions from combustion are a minor source of organic acids in
538 Yorkville. HNO_3 and O_3 are common photochemical tracers of urban air masses. The
539 organic acid concentrations are weakly correlated with O_3 (Fig. S7, R^2 = 0.11 to 0.32) and
540 HNO_3 (Fig. S8, R^2 = 0.33 to 0.56). In addition, there is no noticeable increase in organic
541 acid concentrations during periods of elevated CO, SO_2, O_3 and HNO_3 concentrations when
542 the site was impacted by pollution plumes. Together, these results indicate that the primary
543 sources of organic acids in Yorkville are likely not anthropogenic in nature.

544 Diurnal profiles of the measured organic acids suggest that their sources are linked
545 to higher daytime temperatures and/or photochemical processes. Figure 8 compares the
546 concentrations of organic acids against ambient temperatures measured during the study.
547 Since there was a noticeable decrease in mean ambient temperatures starting on 28 Sept
548 2016, we grouped the datasets into two time periods (3 to 27 Sept and 28 Sept to 12 Oct)
549 to better evaluate the effect of temperature on organic acid concentrations. The average
550 temperature in the first time period (3 to 27 Sept) is 24.8 °C (32.6 °C max, 18.1 °C min),
551 while the average temperature in the second time period (28 Sept to 12 Oct) is 19.5 °C
552 (28.4 °C max, 9.5 °C min). We find that organic acid concentrations are on average higher
553 and more highly correlated with temperatures in the warmer first time period (R^2 = 0.40 to
554 0.63) compared to the cooler second time period (R^2 = 0.18 to 0.59). These observations
555 can be explained by temperature-dependent emissions of organic acids and their BVOC
556 precursors. Previous studies have shown that emissions of organic acids and their BVOC
557 precursors depend strongly on light and temperature, with substantially lower
558 concentrations being emitted in the dark and/or at low temperatures (Kesselmeier et al.,
559 1997; Kesselmeier, 2001; Sindelarova et al., 2014). We find that the concentration of
560 isoprene, which was the dominant BVOC in Yorkville, has a somewhat similar diurnal
561 profile as the organic acids and decreased with temperature on 28 Sept 2016 (Fig. S9). In
562 addition, the concentrations of formic and acetic acids are moderately correlated with that
563 of isoprene (R^2 = 0.42 and 0.40, respectively) (Fig. S10).

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564 Multiphase photochemical aging of ambient organic aerosols can also be a source
565 of gas-phase organic acids (Eliason et al., 2003; Ervens et al., 2004; Molina et al., 2004;
566 Lim et al., 2005; Park et al., 2006; Walser et al., 2007; Sorooshian et al., 2007; Vlasenko
567 et al., 2008; Pan et al., 2009; Sorooshian et al., 2010). Organic acids may be formed in the
568 particle phase during organic aerosol photochemical aging, with subsequent volatilization
569 into the gas phase. Real-time ion chromatography measurements of aerosol composition
570 demonstrated the presence of particulate formic, acetic, oxalic, malonic, succinic and
571 glutaric acids (Nah et al., 2018). However, since the ratios of gas-phase formic and acetic
572 acid mass concentration to the total organic aerosol mass concentration are large (study
573 averages of 40 and 35 %, respectively) (Nah et al., 2018), it is unlikely that organic aerosol
574 photochemical aging is a large source of formic and acetic acids. In contrast, the ratios of
575 gas-phase oxalic, malonic, succinic and glutaric acids mass concentration to the total
576 organic aerosol mass concentration are small, suggesting that organic aerosol
577 photochemical aging may be an important source of these gas-phase organic acids.

578 In summary, the temperature dependence and diurnal profile of organic acid
579 concentrations combined with poor correlations between organic acid concentrations and
580 those of anthropogenic pollutants CO, SO_2, O_3 and HNO_3 strongly suggest that the primary
581 sources of gas-phase organic acids at Yorkville are biogenic in nature. However, our data
582 alone does not allow us to determine if the organic acids are a result of direct emissions or
583 photochemical oxidation of other BVOC emissions and/or organic aerosols. Partitioning
584 of these organic acids between the gas and particle phases will be discussed in a
585 forthcoming paper (Nah et al., 2018).

586 **4. Summary**

587 SF_6^- reacted with all of the studied organic acids to produce product ions that were
588 characteristic of the individual acids (i.e., X^- or X^-•HF). These reactions all occurred at less
589 than the maximum collisional rate due to significant yields of SF_5^- and SF_4^-, which reduced
590 the sensitivity of the method. For the conditions employed in this study, the sensitivities of
591 X^- and X^-•HF ions of the organic acids relative to that of the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ ion (study-averaged
592 sensitivity 2928 ± 669 Hz ppb^{-1}) ranged from 0.04 to 2.18. The detection limits of the
593 organic acids were approximated from 3 times the standard deviation values (3σ) of the ion

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signals obtained during background measurements. Reasonable limits of detection for 2.5 min integration periods (1 to 60 ppt) were obtained for all the organic acids studied. Water vapor and O_3 can lead to interferences with this method but for the conditions employed in this study, they were largely limited to acetic acid measurements at m/z 59. However, fluctuations in ambient water vapor can also lead to changes in sensitivity for the detection of some species (e.g., SO_2). Uncertainties in organic acid concentrations originate primarily from calibration measurements and ranged from 9 to 22 %. Overall, the tractable mass spectra obtained by the SF_6^- CIMS method coupled with reasonable limits of detection and the high correlations observed between the individual organic acids demonstrated the potential of this method. Obvious next steps for the SF_6^- CIMS method are to compare it to other measurement methods for organic acids and to deploy the SF_6^- ion chemistry to a higher resolution time-of-flight mass spectrometer to reduce the potential for interferences.

The SF_6^- 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 and acetic acids. In addition, measurements tentatively assigned to oxalic, butyric, glycolic, propionic, valeric, malonic, succinic and glutaric acids were performed. 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 overnight. Strong correlations between organic acid concentrations indicated that these organic acids likely have the same or similar sources at Yorkville. We concluded that the organic acids were likely not due to anthropogenic emissions since they were poorly correlated with anthropogenic pollutants and their concentrations were not elevated when the site was impacted by pollution plumes. Higher organic acid concentrations were measured during warm and sunny days. Organic acid concentrations were strongly correlated with temperature during the first month of the study when ambient temperatures were high. Together, our results suggested that the primary sources of organic acids at Yorkville were biogenic in nature. Direct biogenic emissions of organic acids and/or their BVOC precursors were likely enhanced at high ambient temperatures, resulting in the observed variability of organic acid concentrations. Another potential source is the production of organic acids in the particle phase from the

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625 multiphase photochemical aging of organic aerosols followed by evaporation to the gas
626 phase, though this source is likely not a large source of formic and acetic acids. However,
627 given the inability of current models and photochemical mechanisms to explain formic acid
628 observations in the Southeastern U.S. (Millet et al., 2015), it is unlikely that our
629 observations of formic acid and larger organic acids can be explained as well. Further work
630 (i.e., laboratory, field and modeling studies) is needed to determine how organic acids are
631 formed in the atmosphere.

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641 **7. Competing financial interests**

642 The authors declare no competing financial interests.

643 **8. References**

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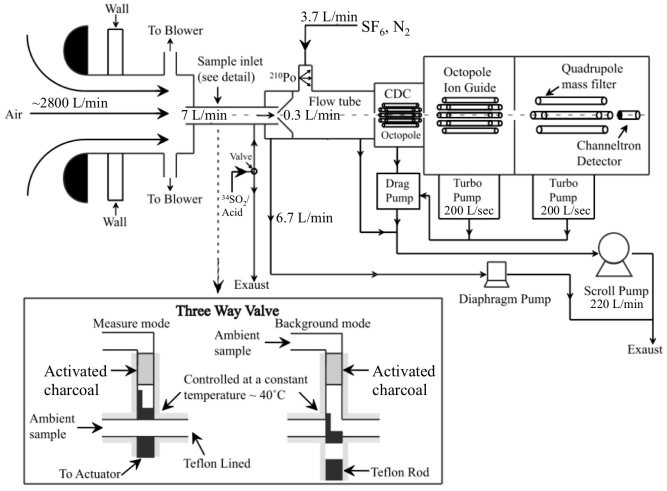

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881 **Figure 1:** The CIMS instrument and inlet configuration used in the field study. The
882 automated three-way sampling valve is shown in the inset. The figure was adapted from
883 Liao et al. (2011).

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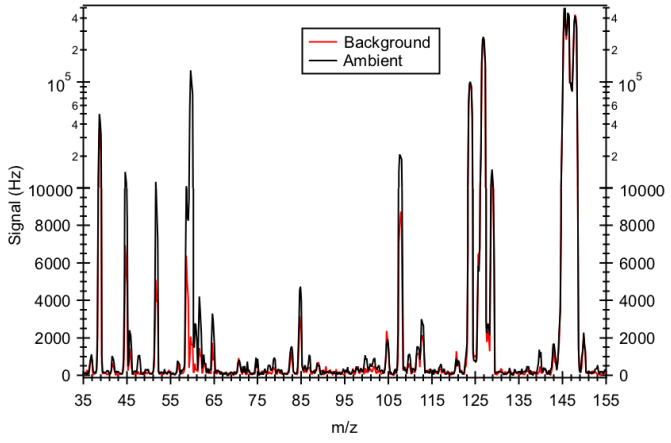

Figure 2: Mass spectrum of ambient air and background measured in Yorkville, Georgia on 8 Sept 2016 using SF_6^-.

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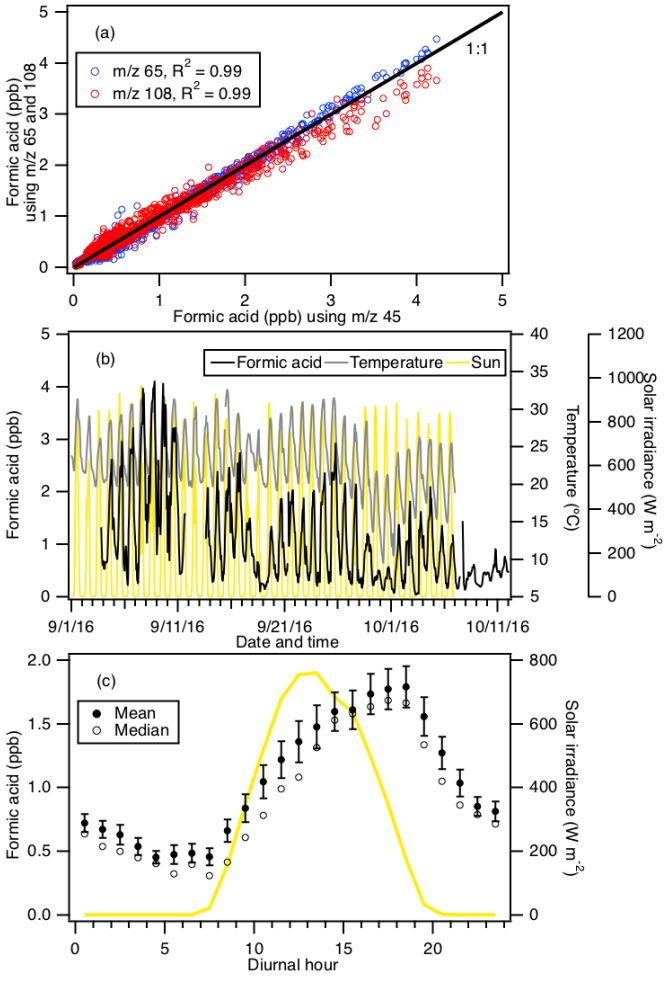

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895 **Figure 3:** (a) Scatter plot comparison of ambient formic acid concentrations determined
896 using mass peaks m/z 45, 65 and 108. The three datasets correlated well with one another
897 (R^2 = 0.99). Linear regression of the data gave slopes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

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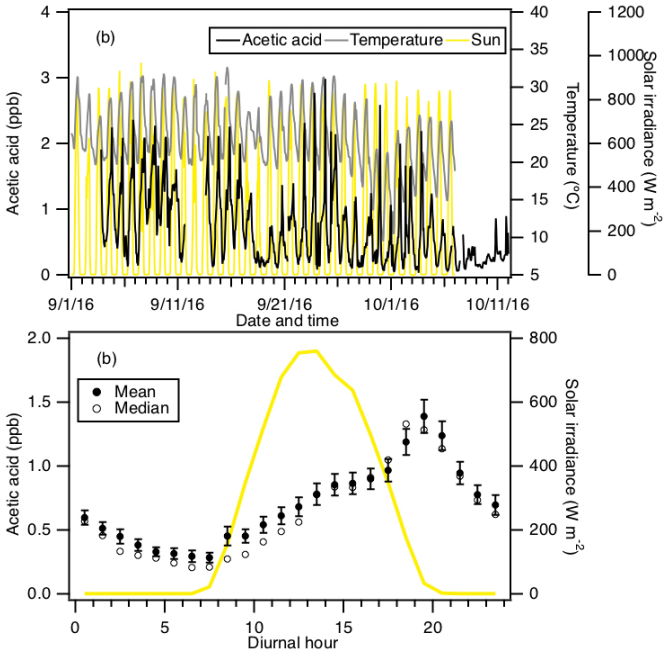

Figure 4: (a) Time series of acetic acid concentration, temperature and solar irradiance. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. (c) Diurnal profiles of acetic acid (symbols) and solar irradiance (yellow line). All the concentrations represent averages in 1-hour intervals and the standard errors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

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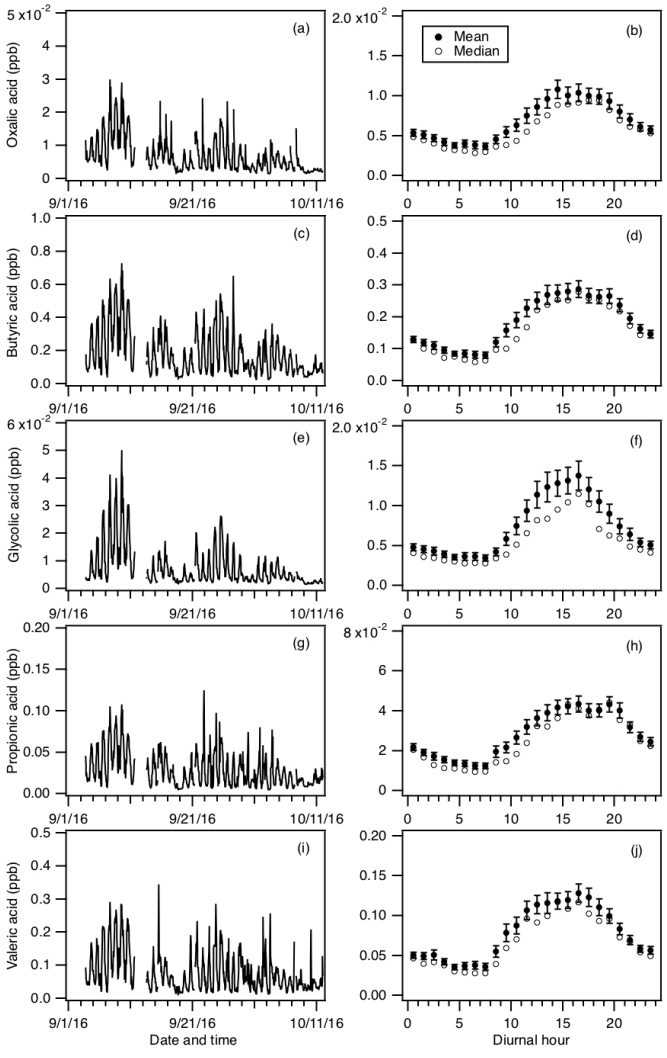

Figure 5: Time series of concentrations of (a) oxalic, (c) butyric, (e) glycolic, (g) propionic, and (i) valeric acids measured during the field study. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. Their corresponding diurnal profiles are shown in (b), (d), (f), (h) and (j), respectively. The diurnal profile concentrations represent averages in 1-hour intervals and the standard errors are plotted as error bars.

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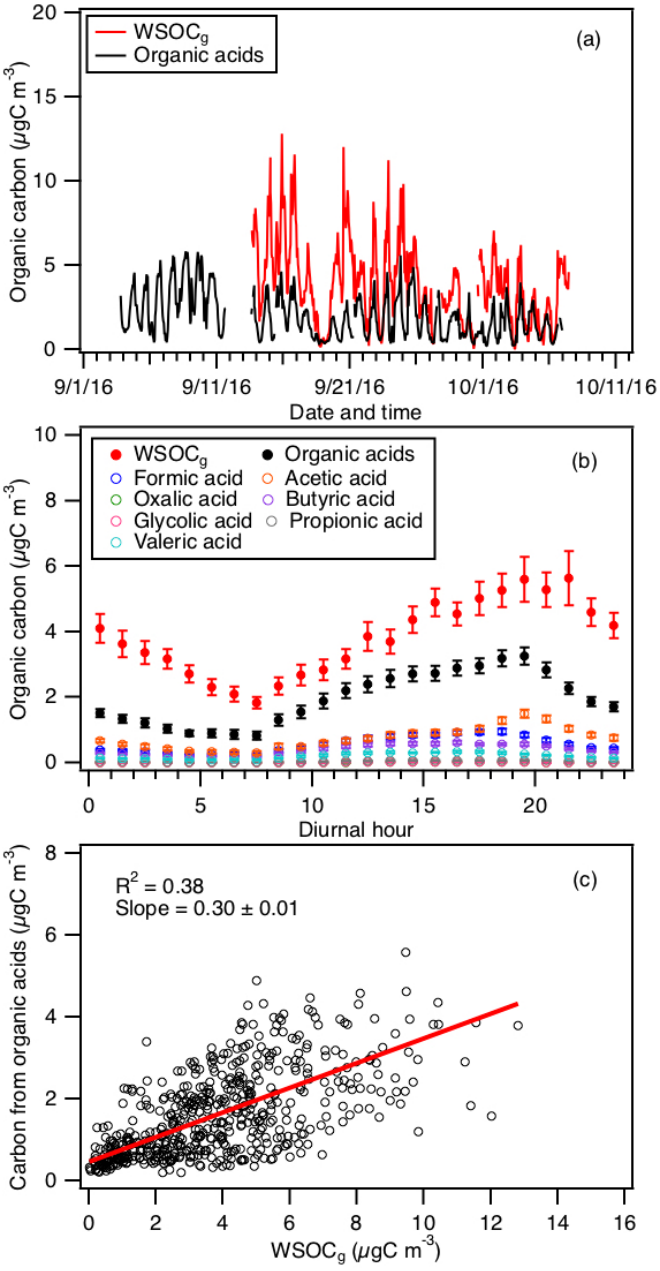

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915 **Figure 6:** (a) Time series of $WSOC_g$ and the total organic carbon contributed by the
916 measured organic acids (i.e., formic, acetic, oxalic, butyric, glycolic, propionic and valeric
917 acids). All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. (b) Diurnal profiles of $WSOC_g$ and
918 the total organic carbon contributed by the measured organic acids. Also shown are the

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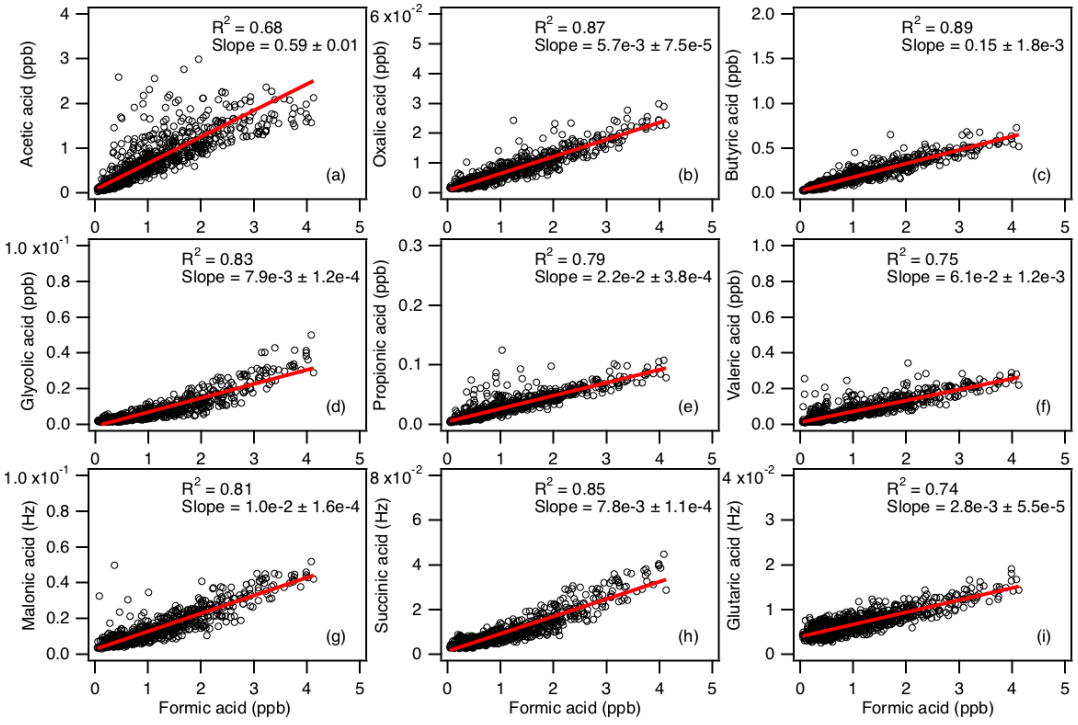
919 diurnal profiles of the organic carbon contributed by the individual measured organic acids.
920 All the concentrations represent the mean hourly averages and the standard errors are
921 plotted as error bars. (c) Scatter plot of total organic carbon contributed by the measured
922 organic acids with $WSOC_g$.



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924 **Figure 7:** Scatter plots of concentrations (or signals) of (a) acetic, (b) oxalic, (c) butyric,
925 (d) glycolic, (e) propionic, (f) valeric, (g) malonic, (h) succinic, and (i) glutaric acids with
926 formic acid concentration. All the data are displayed as 1-hour averages. The data for
927 malonic, succinic and glutaric acids are presented as Hz normalized by the instrument's
928 sensitivity to $F_2{}^{34}SO_2$ since these organic acids were not calibrated. Red lines shown are
929 linear fits to the data.

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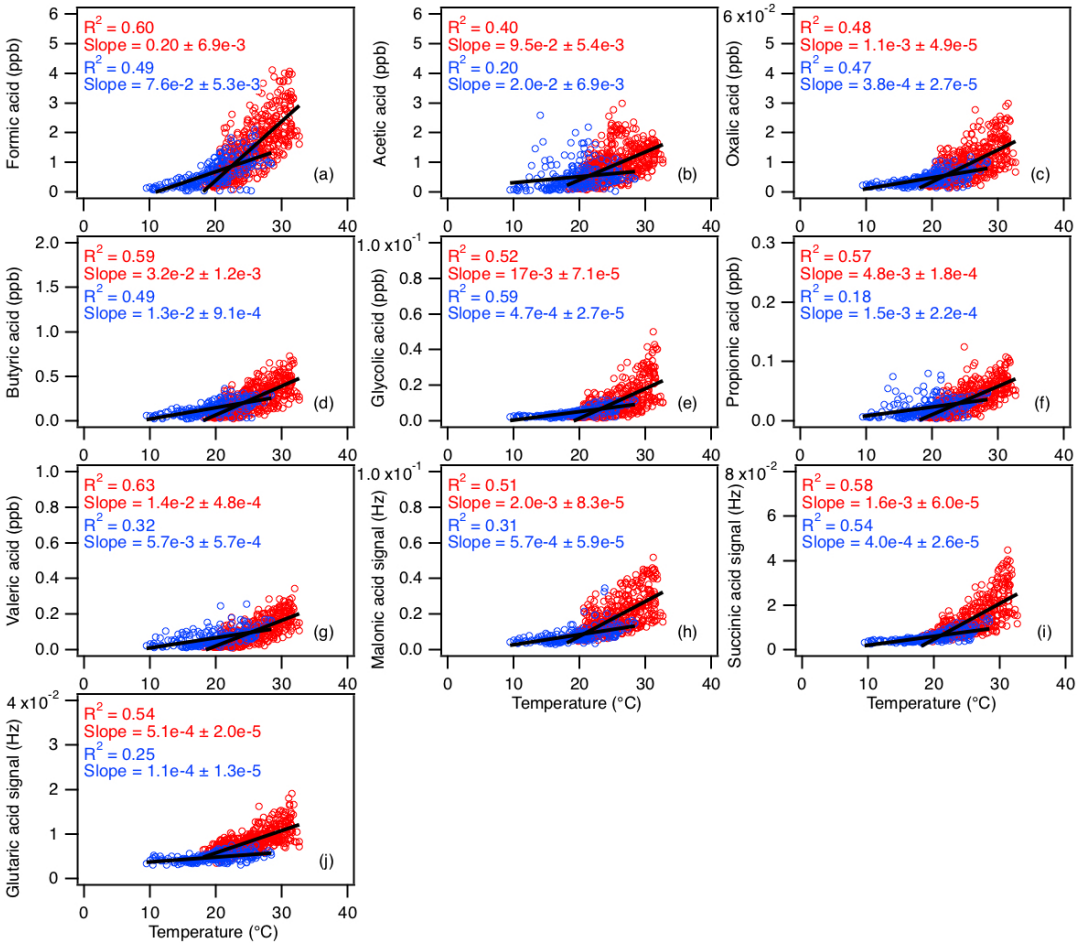

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931 **Figure 8:** Scatter plots of concentrations (or signals) of (a) formic, (b) acetic, (c) oxalic,
932 (d) butyric, (e) glycolic, (f) propionic, (g) valeric, (h) malonic, (i) succinic, and (j) glutaric
933 acids with ambient temperature. The red symbols are data collected from 3 to 27 Sept,
934 while the blue symbols are data collected from 28 Sept onwards. All the data are displayed
935 as 1-hour averages. The data for malonic, succinic and glutaric acids are presented as Hz
936 normalized by the instrument's sensitivity to $F_2{}^{34}SO_2$ since these organic acids were not
937 calibrated. Black lines shown are linear fits to the datasets.

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Table 1: Summary of organic acids of interest, their detection limits and sensitivities of their X^- and X^-•HF ions relative to the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ ion[a]

Organic Acid	Detection limit (ppb)[b]	Sensitivity relative to the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ ion[c]	
		X^-	X^-•HF
Formic acid	0.03	0.44	0.10
Acetic acid	0.06	0.50	0.10
Oxalic acid	1×10^{-3}	2.18	0.33
Butyric acid	0.03	0.14	0.04
Glycolic acid	2×10^{-3}	1.89	0.56
Propionic acid	6×10^{-3}	0.70	0.43
Valeric acid	0.01	0.26	0.12

[a]Only organic acids with calibration measurements are shown.
[b]Detection limits are approximated from 3 times the standard deviation values (3σ) of the ion signals measured during background mode. Shown here are the average detection limits of the organic acids for 2.5 min integration periods which corresponds to the length of a background measurement at a 0.04 s duty cycle for each mass.
[c]Study-averaged sensitivity of the $F_2{}^{34}SO_2^-$ ion = 2928 ± 669 Hz ppb^{-1}