



1 **Molecular distribution and stable carbon isotopic compositions of**
2 **dicarboxylic acids and related SOA from biogenic sources in the**
3 **summertime atmosphere of Mt. Tai in the North China Plain**

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28 **Abstract:** Molecular distributions and stable carbon isotopic ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values) compositions of
29 dicarboxylic acids and related SOA in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ aerosols collected on a day/night basis at the
30 summit of Mt. Tai (1534 m a.s.l) in the summer of 2016 were analyzed to investigate the
31 sources and photochemical aging process of organic aerosols in the forested highland region
32 of North China Plain. The molecular distributions of dicarboxylic acids and related SOA are
33 characterized by the dominance of oxalic acid (C_2), followed by malonic (C_3), succinic (C_4)
34 and azelaic (C_9) acids. The concentration ratios of C_2/C_4 , diacid-C/OC and $\text{C}_2/\text{total diacids}$
35 are larger in daytime than in nighttime, suggesting that the daytime aerosols are more
36 photochemically aged than those in nighttime due to the higher temperatures and stronger
37 solar radiation. Both ratios of C_2/C_4 ($R^2 > 0.5$) and C_3/C_4 ($R^2 > 0.5$) correlated strongly with the
38 ambient temperature, indicating that SOA in the mountaintop atmosphere are mainly derived
39 from the photochemical oxidation of local emissions rather than long-range transport. The
40 mass ratios of C_9/C_6 , C_9/Ph , Gly/mGly and the strong linear correlation of major
41 dicarboxylic acids and related SOA with biogenic precursors further suggest that aerosols in
42 this region are mainly originated from biogenic sources (i.e., tree emissions).

43 C_2 concentrations correlated well with aerosol pH, indicating that particle acidity favors
44 the organic acid formation. The stable carbon isotopic compositions ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of the
45 dicarboxylic acids are higher in daytime than in nighttime with the highest value
46 ($-16.5 \pm 1.9\text{‰}$) found for C_2 and the lowest value ($-25.2 \pm 2.7\text{‰}$) found for C_9 . An increase in
47 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C_2 along with increases in C_2/Gly and C_2/mGly ratios was observed, largely
48 due to the isotopic fractionation during photochemical degradation of the precursors.

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50 **Keywords:** Dicarboxylic acids; Glyoxal and methylglyoxal; Secondary organic aerosols
51 (SOA); Biogenic sources; Formation mechanisms

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56 1. Introduction

57 Secondary organic aerosols (SOA) accounts for a substantial fraction (20-90%) of the
58 total PM_{2.5} mass in the troposphere, and up to 80% of which are water-soluble (Hallquist et
59 al., 2009; Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008). Due to the low vapor pressures and high hygroscopicity
60 (approximately less than 10⁻⁷ Pa) (Bilde et al., 2015; Ehn et al., 2014), dicarboxylic acids
61 and related compounds are ubiquitously found in atmospheric waters and particles
62 (Kawamura and Bikkina, 2016; Sorooshian et al., 2007a). Because of the water-soluble and
63 hygroscopic properties, dicarboxylic acids and related compounds play important roles in
64 atmospheric aqueous chemistry and influence radiative forcing of aerosols via acting as
65 cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) (Hoque et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016; Zhang et al.,
66 2016).

67 Although they can be emitted directly from sources such as incomplete combustion of
68 fossil fuels (Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987) and biomass burning (Kawamura et al., 2013a, b;
69 Narukawa et al., 1999), atmospheric dicarboxylic acids and related compounds are largely
70 produced by photochemical oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids, PAHs (Kawamura et al.,
71 1996), cyclic alkanes and other compounds (Kawamura and Usukura, 1993). Oxalic acid
72 (C₂) is the smallest and the most abundant dicarboxylic acid (Wang et al., 2009, 2015).
73 Modeling studies and cloud measurements have suggested that C₂ are largely produced from
74 aqueous-phase oxidation of less oxygenated organic precursors such as glyoxal (Gly),
75 methyglyoxal (mGly) and pyruvic acid (Pyr) in clouds or wet aerosols as well as the
76 photochemical breakdown of longer-chain dicarboxylic acids (Wang et al., 2012, 2015).

77 There is a growing consensus on highlighting the significance of oxalic acid and related
78 SOA formation from the photochemical oxidation of anthropogenic/biogenic volatile
79 organic compounds (VOCs) via the aqueous phase in clouds or liquid water content
80 (LWC)-enriched aerosols from many field observations and laboratory experiments as well
81 as modeling studies (Bikkina et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2017; Ervens et al., 2014; Fu et al.,
82 2008; Lim et al., 2005; Miyazaki et al., 2009; Mochizuki et al., 2017). A ubiquitous layer of
83 dicarboxylic acids was found above the clouds by aircraft measurements in US, indicating



84 that organic acids are important CCN in the free troposphere (Sorooshian et al., 2007a, b).
85 Compared to the aerosols in lowland areas, alpine aerosols have a more important influence
86 on cloud formation, because they are more accessible to clouds due to higher elevation. Mt.
87 Tai is an independent peak located in the center of the North China Plain (NCP), one of the
88 severest air-polluted regions in the world (Wang et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2017). A few
89 studies have been performed on the molecular distributions and sources of dicarboxylic
90 acids at Mt. Tai, but most of them were conducted during the wheat straw burning period
91 (Kawamura et al., 2013a, b; Zhu et al., 2018), and very few information on dicarboxylic
92 acids in Mt. Tai during July and August is available when biogenic activity of vegetation is
93 dominant. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the chemistry of SOA during the typical
94 summer season in this highland area.

95 The stable carbon isotopic composition ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of specific organic acids can provide
96 very useful information on the sources and photochemical aging of organic aerosols,
97 because the isotopic fractionation of carbon occurs upon chemical reactions or phase transfer
98 (Pavuluri and Kawamura, 2016; Zhang et al., 2016). To our best knowledge, the stable
99 carbon isotopic compositions of dicarboxylic acids and related SOA in mountainous regions
100 have not been reported before. In the current work, we first investigated the diurnal
101 variations in molecular distributions and stable carbon isotopic compositions of dicarboxylic
102 acids and related compounds. Then we discussed the impact of temperature (T), relative
103 humidity (RH), particle acidity (pH_{TS}), liquid water content (LWC) and O_3 concentration on
104 oxalic acid and related SOA to explore their sources and formation mechanism in the
105 forested highland of the North China Plain.

106 2. Experimental section

107 2.1 Aerosol sampling

108 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ samples were collected at the Meteorological Observation Station of Mt. Tai,
109 which is located at the summit of Mt. Tai (36.25° N, 117.10°E; 1534 m a.s.l.) in the North
110 China Plain (Fig. 1). About 80% of the mountainous land is covered by vegetation known to
111 comprise 989 species, which is densely wooded in summer (Fu et al., 2010). $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ samples



112 were collected from July 20 to August 20, 2016 each lasting for 12h on a day/night basis
113 using a mid-volume air sampler (KC-120H, Qingdao Laoshan Company, China) equipped
114 with prebaked (450°C, 8 h) quartz fiber filters (Whatman, USA) at an airflow rate of 100 L
115 min⁻¹. The daytime samples were collected from 8:00 to 20:00, while nighttime samples
116 were collected from 20:00 to 8:00 of the next day. Field blank samples were also collected
117 by mounting the blank filter onto the sampler for 15 min without sucking any air before and
118 after the campaign. A total of 57 samples (daytime: 28; nighttime: 29) were collected during
119 the campaign. After sampling, each filter was sealed in an aluminum foil bag and stored at
120 -20°C prior to laboratory analyses. Moreover, the concentration of ozone was
121 simultaneously monitored at the side by an UV absorption analyzer (Model 49C, Thermo
122 Electron Corporation).

123 2.2 Chemical analyses

124 2.2.1 Dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids, and α -dicarbonyls

125 Dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and α -dicarbonyls in PM_{2.5} were determined
126 using the method described by previous studies (Kawamura et al., 1996; Meng et al., 2013,
127 2014). Briefly, one half of the filter was cut into pieces and extracted with pure Milli-Q
128 water under ultrasonication for three times each for 15 min. The water extracts were
129 concentrated to near dryness and then reacted with 14% BF₃/*n*-butanol at 100°C for 1 hr to
130 form butyl esters/dibutoxy acetals. After derivatization, *n*-hexane was added and washed
131 with pure water for three times. Finally, the hexane layer was concentrated to 200 μ L and
132 determined using a capillary gas chromatography (GC; HP 6890) coupled with a
133 split/splitless injector and a flame ionization detector (FID). The GC oven temperature was
134 programmed from 50 (2 min) to 120°C at 15°C min⁻¹, and then to 300 at 5°C min⁻¹ with a
135 final isothermal hold at 300°C for 16 min. Peak identification was performed by comparing
136 the GC retention time with that of authentic standards and confirmed by mass spectrum of
137 the sample using a GC-mass spectrometer (GC-MS). Recoveries of the target compounds
138 were 80% for oxalic acid and 85% to 110% for other species. The target compounds in the



139 field blank samples were lower than 4% of those in the ambient samples. Data presented
140 here were corrected for both field blanks and recoveries.

141 **2.2.2 Stable carbon isotope composition of dicarboxylic acids and related SOA**

142 The stable carbon isotopic compositions ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$) of shorter-chain dicarboxylic acids and
143 related SOA were measured using the method developed by Kawamura and Watanabe
144 (2004). Briefly, the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of the derivatized samples above were determined by gas
145 chromatography–isotope ratio mass spectrometry (GC-IR-MS; Thermo Fisher, Delta V
146 Advantage). The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values were then calculated for free organic acids using an isotopic
147 mass balance equation based on the measured $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of derivatives and the derivatizing
148 agent ($\text{BF}_3/\text{n-butanol}$) (Kawamura and Watanabe, 2004). To ensure the analytical error of
149 the $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values less than 0.2 ‰, each sample was measured three times. The $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ data
150 reported here are averaged values of the triplicate measurements.

151 **2.2.3 Elemental carbon (EC), organic carbon (OC), inorganic ions, water-soluble 152 organic carbon (WSOC), aerosol liquid water content (LWC), and particle in-situ pH 153 (pH_{IS}).**

154 Briefly, EC and OC in the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ samples were determined by using DRI Model 2001
155 Carbon Analyzer following the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments
156 (IMPROVE) thermal/optical reflectance (TOR) protocol (Chow et al., 2004). As for the
157 measurement of inorganic ions and WSOC, an aliquot of the sample filters was extracted
158 with 30 mL Milli-Q water using an ultrasonic bath for three times each for 15min, and
159 filtered through PTFE filters to remove the particles and filter debris. The water extract was
160 then separated into two parts. One part was analyzed for inorganic ions using an ion
161 chromatography (Dionex 600, Dionex, USA), and the other part of the water extract was
162 used to determine WSOC using a Total Carbon Analyzer (TOC-L CPH, Shimadzu, Japan).
163 As for the calculation of aerosol liquid water content (LWC) and particle in-situ pH (pH_{IS}),
164 the Aerosol Inorganic Model (AIM) using a SO_4^{2-} - NO_3^- - NH_4^+ - H^+ system (AIM-II) were
165 employed (Li et al., 2013).

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167 **3 Results and discussion**

168 **3.1 General description of chemical components in Mt. Tai**

169 The concentrations of dicarboxylic acids and related SOA, EC, OC, WSOC and
170 inorganic ions in PM_{2.5} samples from Mt. Tai are summarized in Table 1. During the
171 campaign the height of boundary layer at Mt. Tai was frequently reduced to ~600 m at night,
172 which kept the sampling site in the free troposphere at night. In contrast, the boundary layer
173 extended far above the mountaintop during the daytime (Zhu et al., 2018). However, as a
174 tracer of combustion source, EC concentration is very low and shows a similar level in the
175 day and night periods, suggesting that the impact of anthropogenic emissions from the
176 lowland region on the mountaintop atmosphere is insignificant. OC and WSOC in the PM_{2.5}
177 samples are higher in daytime than in nighttime (Table 1), largely due to the stronger
178 photochemical oxidation in daytime rather than the changes in the boundary layer heights.
179 OC/EC and WSOC/OC ratios are around 1.4 times higher in daytime than in nighttime (Fig.
180 4), indicating an enhancing SOA production due to the daytime photochemical oxidation
181 (Hegde and Kawamura, 2012).

182 The meteorological conditions in daytime can promote the secondary aerosol formation,
183 resulting in higher concentration of SO₄²⁻ ($13 \pm 6.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, Table 1) compared to that ($9.6 \pm$
184 $3.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in nighttime (Kundu et al., 2010a). On the contrary, NO₃⁻ concentration is higher
185 in the nighttime ($4.2 \pm 2.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, Table 1) than in the daytime ($3.0 \pm 2.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), which is
186 probably caused by the evaporative loss of NH₄NO₃ due to the higher daytime temperature
187 (Table 1) (Pathak et al., 2009). Consequently, the concentrations of NH₄⁺ also present higher
188 values in nighttime ($6.6 \pm 2.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, Table 1) compared to that in daytime ($5.3 \pm 2.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).
189 As shown in Table 1, the remaining four kinds of cations (K⁺, Na⁺, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺), which
190 can be regarded as the key markers of primary sources, did not exhibit significant diurnal
191 variations, again suggesting that the effect of boundary layer heights is minor. In this work,
192 LWC and pH_{IS} are calculated by using AIM-II model, because both species cannot be
193 directly measured. LWC exhibits higher concentrations ($94 \pm 100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in daytime than
194 that ($75 \pm 69 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in nighttime (Table 1). In contrast, pH_{IS} shows lower values (-0.04 ± 0.5)



195 in daytime compared to that (0.4 ± 0.6) in nighttime (Table 1), indicating the daytime
196 aerosols are more acidic.

197 **3.2 Molecular distributions of dicarboxylic acids and related SOA**

198 A homologous series of dicarboxylic acids (C_2 – C_{11}), ketocarboxylic acids (ωC_2 – ωC_9
199 and pyruvic acid), and α -dicarbonyls (glyoxal and methylglyoxal) in $PM_{2.5}$ samples of Mt.
200 Tai were determined (Table 2). The molecular compositions of these compounds are
201 illustrated in Fig. 2.

202 Total dicarboxylic acids are $430 \pm 282 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ (27 – 944 ng m^{-3} , Table 2) in daytime,
203 around two times higher than those in nighttime ($282 \pm 161 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$, 73 – 671 ng m^{-3}). The
204 average concentration levels ($354 \pm 239 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) are lower than those in Asian lowland (e.g.
205 14 Chinese cities ($892 \pm 457 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) (Ho et al., 2007); Chennai in India ($502.9 \pm 117.9 \text{ ng}$
206 m^{-3}) (Pavuluri et al., 2010)) and elevated regions (e.g. Mt. Hua in central China (744 ± 340
207 ng m^{-3}) (Meng et al., 2014); the central Himalayan in Nainital, India (430 ng m^{-3}) (Hegde
208 and Kawamura, 2012)), but higher than those in the continental background area such as
209 Qinghai Lake in Tibetan Plateau ($231 \pm 119 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) (Meng et al., 2013) and marine regions
210 such as North Pacific (68 ng m^{-3}) (Hoque et al., 2017) and the western North Pacific ($99.2 \pm$
211 86.4 ng m^{-3}) (Boreddy et al., 2017).

212 Interestingly, we found that the levels of dicarboxylic acids are equivalent to those at
213 Mt. Fuji in Japan in day and night (day: 424 ng m^{-3} ; night: 266 ng m^{-3}) (Mochizuki et al.,
214 2017), which are dominantly derived from the oxidation of biogenic VOCs such as isoprene
215 and α -pinene in summer. Both mountains are located at the similar latitude in East Asia, and
216 the altitudes of the sampling sites at Mt. Tai and Mt. Fuji are almost the same. Thus, one
217 may expect that the emissions of biogenic VOCs at both sites during the same season are
218 similar. Moreover, O_3 level during the observation period in Mt. Tai is also similar to that at
219 Mt. Fuji, Japan ranging from a few ppb at night to about 60 ppb (Mochizuki et al., 2017) at
220 the noontime, which means that photochemical activity at both sites during the campaigns
221 are similar. Therefore, concentrations of dicarboxylic acids are comparable at both sites with
222 a similar diurnal difference.



223 At the Mt. Tai site, the concentrations of dicarboxylic acids in daytime were about two
224 times higher than in nighttime, which can be ascribed to the stronger photochemical
225 production of dicarboxylic acids and/or higher emissions of the precursors in daytime. As
226 shown in Fig. 2, oxalic acid (C_2) is the dominant species in Mt. Tai, followed by malonic
227 acid (C_3), succinic acid (C_4), and azelaic acid (C_9) during the day and night, respectively.
228 These four species account for 60, 12, 7.2, and 6.9% of the total dicarboxylic acids in the
229 daytime and 53, 11, 8.5, and 7.6 % of the total in the nighttime, respectively. The molecular
230 compositions in Mt. Tai is similar to that in other remote areas such as Mt. Fuji, Japan, Mt.
231 Hua and Qinghai Lake, China in the summer (Meng et al., 2013, 2014; Mochizuki et al.,
232 2017), but different from that in urban regions where phthalic and/or tere-phthalic acids are
233 more abundant than C_9 because of higher emissions of anthropogenic precursors (e.g.,
234 aromatics and plasticizers) (Cheng et al., 2015; He et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2010; Wang et al.,
235 2002, 2017).

236 Ketocarboxylic acids are the major intermediates of aqueous phase photochemical
237 oxidation producing dicarboxylic acids in the atmosphere (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993;
238 Pavuluri and Kawamura, 2016), which are $43 \pm 28 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$ in the daytime and $37 \pm 19 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$
239 in the nighttime, respectively, with glyoxylic acid (ωC_2) being the dominant ω -oxoacid,
240 followed by pyruvic acid (Pyr) and 3-oxobutanoic acid (ωC_3) (Table 2 and Fig. 2). Previous
241 studies have proposed that ωC_2 can be initially formed from photochemical oxidation of
242 glyoxal with OH radical and other oxidants in aqueous phase and then further oxidized into
243 oxalic acid (Rapf et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2012). In contrast to the diurnal variations of
244 dicarboxylic and ketocarboxylic acids, the concentrations of α -dicarbonyls exhibit higher
245 concentrations in nighttime than those in daytime (Fig. 2). Because α -dicarbonyls are the
246 major precursors produced from the photochemical oxidation of isoprene and other VOCs in
247 the atmosphere (Carlton et al., 2006, 2007), the opposite pattern suggests that the aerosol
248 aqueous phase oxidation in nighttime is impressed in comparison with that in daytime. The
249 concentrations of Gly are less than mGly, largely because of the stronger biogenic sources



250 and the lower oxidation rate of mGly with OH radical in aerosol phase compared to Gly
251 (Cheng et al., 2013; Meng et al., 2013).

252 Temporal variations in concentrations of total dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids
253 and α -dicarbonyls are illustrated in Fig. 3, along with the meteorological parameters. During
254 the whole sampling periods, the concentrations of total daicarboxylic acids and related SOA
255 fluctuated significantly with a maximum (1060 ng m^{-3}) on August 4 and a minimum (33 ng
256 m^{-3}) on August 7. Our results showed that the levels of water-soluble organic compounds
257 decrease by 30-80% when it was rainy, suggesting that dicarboxylic acids and related SOA
258 can be removed efficiently by the wet precipitation, because these water-soluble compounds
259 are not only easily washed out but also can be efficiently removed by serving as cloud
260 condensation nuclei (CCN) during the wet deposition (Leaitch et al., 1996). Moreover, a
261 reduced secondary formation due to weaker solar radiation and a reduced biogenic emission
262 during the rainy days are also responsible for the lowest concentrations of dicarboxylic acid
263 and related SOA.

264 3.3 Biogenic versus anthropogenic and local versus long-range transport sources

265 Previous studies have proposed that C_2 , C_3 and C_4 are produced by the photochemical
266 degradation of longer-chain diacids, while C_3 is produced by photooxidation of C_4 in the
267 atmosphere (Hoque et al., 2017; Kawamura and Usukura, 1993; Kunwar et al., 2017).
268 Therefore, both ratios of C_2/C_4 and C_3/C_4 can be regarded as indicators of photochemical
269 aging of organic aerosols. The C_2/C_4 and C_3/C_4 ratios in the mountainous atmosphere are 8.0
270 ± 2.7 and 1.6 ± 0.6 , respectively, higher than aerosols freshly emitted from sources such as
271 vehicle exhausts (C_2/C_4 : 7.1; C_3/C_4 : 1.3) (Ho et al., 2006) and biomass burning plumes
272 (C_2/C_4 : 5.0; C_3/C_4 : 0.7) (Kundu et al., 2010b), but lower than photochemically aged aerosols
273 in remote regions such as a continental background site in Tibet Plateau (C_2/C_4 : 11 ± 7.2 ;
274 C_3/C_4 : 2.2 ± 1.3) (Meng et al., 2013) and the North and South Pacific (C_2/C_4 : 8.7; C_3/C_4 :
275 3.0)(Hoque et al., 2017). Compared with those in the nighttime, the higher ratios of C_2/C_4
276 and C_3/C_4 (Fig. 4) in the daytime again indicate that the photochemical modification of
277 aerosols is stronger. A few studies have found that when local sources are dominant over



278 long-range transport, both ratios of C_2/C_4 and C_3/C_4 would correlate strongly with the
279 ambient temperatures (Meng et al., 2013; Pavuluri et al., 2010). In the current work, the
280 ratios of C_2/C_4 ($R^2 > 0.5$) (Fig. 5a) and C_3/C_4 ($R^2 \geq 0.5$) (Fig. 5b) correlated well with the
281 ambient temperatures in both the daytime and the nighttime, clearly suggesting that
282 dicarboxylic acids and related SOA at the Mt. Tai during the campaign are mostly derived
283 from the local photochemical oxidation of BVOCs rather than long-range transport.
284 Aggarwal et al., (2008) found that diacid-C/OC and C_2 /total diacids should increase in
285 daytime when local emission and photooxidation are more significant than long-range
286 transport. In the summit of Mt. Tai the daytime ratios of diacid-C/OC and C_2 /total diacids
287 are $5.5 \pm 2.6\%$ and $60 \pm 7.7\%$, which are about 1.2 and 1.3 times higher than those in the
288 nighttime, respectively (Fig. 4), further indicating the stronger photochemical oxidation in
289 daytime and the dominance of local sources for the SOA production in the troposphere of
290 Mt. Tai.

291 Both ratios of C_9/C_6 and C_9/Ph can be used as indicators to qualitatively evaluate the
292 source strength of anthropogenic versus biogenic precursors for producing dicarboxylic
293 acids and related SOA (Jung et al., 2010), because C_6 and Ph are largely produced by the
294 oxidation of anthropogenic cyclohexene (Hatakeyama et al., 1987) and aromatic
295 hydrocarbons such as naphthalene (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993), respectively. In
296 contrast, C_9 is mainly produced by the oxidation of biogenic unsaturated fatty acids
297 containing a double bond at the C-9 position (Wang et al., 2010). As shown in Fig. 4, both
298 ratios of C_9/C_6 and C_9/Ph are higher in the daytime than those in the nighttime, which is
299 mainly attributed to the stronger biogenic activity of vegetation in daytime in the mountain
300 regions. The average values of C_9/C_6 (14 ± 9.0) and C_9/Ph (7.2 ± 2.2) at the mountaintop of Mt.
301 Tai are higher than those in urban regions such as Xi'an China (C_9/C_6 : 3.1; C_9/Ph :
302 5.6)(Cheng et al., 2013) and also higher than other mountainous in summer such as Mt.
303 Himalayan, India (C_9/C_6 : 2.1; C_9/Ph : 0.2)(Hedge and Kawamura, 2012) and Mt. Fuji, Japan
304 (C_9/C_6 : 3.1) (Mochizuki et al., 2017). Model simulation (Fu et al., 2008) and field
305 observations (Meng et al., 2014) have suggested that the concentration ratio of particulate



306 Gly/mGly is about 1:5 when biogenic sources are predominant and is about 1:1 when
307 anthropogenic sources are predominant such as in urban areas. As shown in Table 3, the
308 ratios of Gly/mGly in the Mt. Tai atmosphere are 1:5.1 in daytime and 1:4.8 in nighttime,
309 further suggesting that Gly and mGly in the Mt. Tai samples are mostly derived from
310 biogenic sources. This result is in agreement with the high abundance of C₉ relative to the
311 total dicarboxylic acids (7.2%), which is about two times higher than that (3.5%) in 14
312 Chinese megacities in the summer (Ho et al., 2007). Moreover, a trace amount of elemental
313 carbon (EC) was found for most of the samples (Table 1), suggesting that the impact of
314 pollutants derived from anthropogenic sources on the mountaintop atmosphere during the
315 campaign are negligible. Consequently, it can be concluded that the summertime SOA of Mt.
316 Tai are mainly derived from local photochemical oxidation of biogenic precursors rather
317 than long-range transport of anthropogenic precursors during the sampling period.

318 **3.4 Production of dicarboxylic acids and related SOA from biogenic sources**

319 A three-dimensional modeling study has proposed that 79% of oxalic acid is originated
320 from the photochemical oxidation of isoprene and other biogenic hydrocarbons in cloud
321 (Myriokefalitakis et al., 2011). Laboratory experiments and model simulations have
322 demonstrated that the photooxidation of isoprene (Carlton et al., 2006, 2007; Huang et al.,
323 2011) and monoterpenes (Fick et al., 2003; Lee et al., 2006) can produce Gly and mGly via
324 reactions with OH radical and/or O₃ in the aerosol aqueous phase or the gas phase and
325 subsequently partition into cloud droplets, where both carbonyls are oxidized further by OH
326 radical to form oxalic acid (Lim et al., 2005; Tan et al., 2010).

327 In order to further ascertain the contribution of BVOCs to dicarboxylic acids and
328 related SOA during the high biological activity period in Mt. Tai, SOA tracers derived from
329 isoprene-, α -/ β -pinene- and β -caryophyllene in the PM_{2.5} samples collected at the Mt. Tai
330 site were determined. Their total concentrations (the sum of isoprene+ pinene+
331 caryophyllene derived SOA tracers) are 1.3 times higher in the daytime ($106 \pm 56 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$)
332 than those in the nighttime ($79 \pm 38 \text{ ng m}^{-3}$) (unpublished data), which is consistent with the
333 diurnal variation patterns of dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and WSOC (Tables 1



334 and 2). Previous studies reported that 2-methylglyceric acid, which is an isoprene oxidation
335 product, and 3-hydroxyglutaric acid, which is α - β -pinene oxidation product, can serve as
336 organic precursors for the production of dicarboxylic acids and ketocarboxylic acids (Fu et
337 al., 2013). As shown in Table 4, major dicarboxylic acids and related SOA (e.g. C₂, C₂, Gly
338 and mGly) correlated positively with isoprene oxidation products during daytime and
339 nighttime ($R>0.60$, $P<0.01$), indicating that isoprene oxidation products can serve as
340 precursors for the production of oxalic acid via α -dicaronyls oxidation (Myriokefalitakis et
341 al., 2011). Moreover, both α - β -pinene and caryophyllene oxidation products also presented
342 strong correlations with dicarboxylic acids and related SOA ($R>0.55$, $P<0.01$) (Table 4),
343 further highlighting the important contribution of BSOA to dicarboxylic acids and related
344 SOA in Mt. Tai during summer.

345 **3.5 Effects of temperature, relative humidity, and O₃ concentrations on the formation** 346 **of oxalic acid and related SOA**

347 Because oxidants such as OH radicals were not measured in Mt. Tai, O₃ is considered
348 here as an indicator of the total oxidant concentrations in this study. A significant linear
349 correlation of oxalic acid with O₃ concentrations is observed for the daytime samples
350 ($R^2=0.91$), but no correlation ($R^2=0.05$) was found for the nighttime samples (Fig.6a). Such a
351 phenomenon was also observed in Mt. Fuji, Japan (Mochizuki et al., 2017) and Beijing,
352 China (He et al., 2014). Additionally, C₂/Gly, C₂/mGly and C₂/total diacids ratios correlate
353 positively with O₃ concentrations in the daytime, but such correlations were not found in the
354 nighttime (Fig 8(a-c)). Mochizuki et al. (2017) have reported a robust correlation between
355 concentration ratios of oxalic acid to isoprene plus α -pinene (oxalic
356 acid/(isoprene+ α -pinene)) and O₃ concentrations in a large forest region of Mt. Fuji, Japan
357 in the daytime. In the current work, BSOA tracers correlate strongly with O₃ concentrations
358 in the daytime ($R>0.6$, $P<0.01$), but no correlation was found at night (Table 4). These
359 results suggest that the daytime oxalic acid and related SOA in the mountaintop of Mt. Tai
360 are largely derived from O₃ oxidation of BVOCs such as isoprene and α -pinene, while the



361 nighttime oxalic acid and related SOA might be primarily produced by NO₃ radical and
362 other oxidizing agents such as H₂O₂ (Claeys et al., 2004; Herrmann et al., 1999).

363 As shown in Table 4, nearly all of the detected BSOA tracers including
364 2-methylglyceric acid, 3-hydroxyglutaric acid and β-caryophyllinic acid exhibit a strong
365 correlation with the ambient temperature, largely due to the increased production of BSOA
366 from enhanced emissions of BVOCs under the higher temperature conditions. The BSOA
367 tracer concentrations are higher in daytime than in nighttime, largely due to more abundant
368 BVOC emissions because of stronger biogenic activity of vegetation during the daytime. In
369 addition, oxalic acid and C₂/total diacids ratios correlated strongly with temperatures (Fig.6b
370 and Fig.8f), because higher temperature conditions can promote photochemical formation of
371 oxalic acid. Such a temperature dependence is also observed in other regions such as Mt.
372 Hua (Meng et al., 2014) and Beijing (Wang et al., 2017) in China.

373 Online measurements, field observations and chamber studies (Cheng et al., 2017; Gao
374 et al., 2004; McNeill, 2015; Meng et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2012, 2017) have suggested that
375 oxalic acid is primarily derived from the acid-catalyzed heterogeneous oxidation of glyoxal
376 and related precursors in the aqueous phase. Here we investigate the impact of LWC and
377 pH_{IS} on the formation of oxalic acid in Mt. Tai aerosols. As shown in Fig.6c, a strong linear
378 correlation between C₂ and SO₄²⁻ was found for the daytime ($R^2=0.89$) and nighttime
379 ($R^2=0.76$) samples, respectively, which is consistent with the measurements observed in
380 other mountainous region (Meng et al., 2014) and Chinese cities (Wang et al., 2002, 2010,
381 2012, 2017; Yu et al., 2005), indicating that oxalic acid and sulfate are formed via a similar
382 formation pathway such as in-cloud or aqueous-phase (Warneck, 2003). In this study, oxalic
383 acid does not exhibit correlations with relative humidity (RH) and LWC (Fig.6d and 6e), but
384 presents a significant negative correlation with pH_{IS} ($R^2>0.60$) (Fig.6f), largely due to the
385 fact that acidic conditions can promote the formation of oxalic acid and their precursors.
386 Therefore, a robust negative correlation was obtained for pH_{IS} and the precursors of oxalic
387 acid such as Gly, mGly and ωC₂ ($R^2>0.50$). A few studies have pointed out that aerosol
388 acidity are favorable for the formation of biogenic SOA (BSOA) derived from isoprene



389 oxidation such as 2-methylglyceric acid, which can be oxidized into Gly and mGly and then
390 converted to oxalic acid (Meng et al., 2014; Surratt et al., 2007, 2010). Our previous studies
391 have revealed that enhanced RH can reduce particle acidity (pH_{TS}) and is thus unfavorable
392 for oxalic acid formation by acid-catalyzed reactions occurring in the aerosol aqueous phase
393 (Li et al., 2013, 2018; Meng et al., 2014). RH is a key factor controlling the aerosol LWC
394 (Bikkina et al., 2017). Deshmukh et al. (2017) and Bikkina et al. (2017) also found that RH
395 and LWC correlated well with oxalic acid, indicating that humid conditions are favorable for
396 the aqueous phase formation of C_2 . Nevertheless, Zhang et al. (2011) pointed out that low
397 RH conditions can promote SOA yields via the oxidation of isoprene. Higher RH and LWC
398 can promote the partitioning of water-soluble semivolatile organic precursors of oxalic acid
399 (e.g., Gly and mGly) into the aerosol aqueous phase but can also suppress acid-catalyzed
400 formation of oxalic acid because of lower aerosol acidity due to dilution. Therefore, C_2 does
401 not present any correlations with RH or LWC in Mt. Tai.

402 **3.6 Stable carbon isotopic composition of oxalic acid and related SOA**

403 To further understand the formation mechanism of C_2 and related SOA, the stable
404 isotopic composition of major dicarboxylic acids and related SOA in the Mt. Tai aerosols
405 were investigated (Table 5). Generally, an increase in $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values was observed with a
406 decrease in carbon numbers of dicarboxylic acids. The averaged $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value (daytime:
407 $-15.8\pm 1.9\%$; nighttime: $-17.2\pm 1.7\%$) of C_2 is higher than other dicarboxylic acid and
408 related SOA in the Mt. Tai atmosphere, and also higher than those observed in the urban
409 regions such as Xi'an, China (-22.7% to -22.0%) (Wang et al., 2012) and Sapporo, Japan
410 ($18.8\pm 2.0\%$) (Aggarwal and Kawamura, 2008) and the rural regions such as Morogoro,
411 Tanzania ($18.3\pm 1.7\%$) (Mkoma et al., 2014), but lower than those ($11.5\pm 2.8\%$) (Zhang et
412 al., 2016) at a background supersite (the Korea Climate Observatory at Gosan) in East Asia
413 during the summer. Pavuluri et al. (2016) have reported that the average $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C_2
414 from biogenic aerosols are higher than those from anthropogenic aerosols. The relatively
415 higher $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C_2 observed in Mt. Tai further demonstrate that the contribution of
416 biogenic sources to C_2 and related SOA is more significant than anthropogenic sources,



417 which is consistent with our discussion above. The average $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C_4 are more
418 negative than C_2 and C_3 (Fig. 7). Such a phenomenon is also observed in other regions
419 (Aggarwal and Kawamura, 2008; Wang et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2016). Photochemical
420 decomposition (or breakdown) of longer-chain diacarboxylic acids (e.g. C_3 or C_4) in aerosol
421 aqueous phase can form C_2 (Wang et al., 2017), during which C_3 or C_4 release CO_2/CO by
422 reaction with OH radical and other oxidants, resulting in C_2 more enriched in ^{13}C due to
423 kinetic isotope effects (KIE) (Wang et al., 2012). The ^{13}C enrichment in C_2 is more
424 distinguished in daytime than in nighttime (Table 5 and Fig. 7), largely due to the enhanced
425 photochemical oxidation. However, such diurnal variation was not found for C_3 and C_4 .

426 ωC_2 is an important intermediate of aqueous phase photochemical oxidation of
427 precursors such as Gly, mGly, and Pyr during the C_2 formation process (Carlton et al., 2006;
428 Fu et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2012). Thus, the mass ratios of $\text{C}_2/\omega\text{C}_2$, C_2/Gly and C_2/mGly are
429 indicative of organic aerosol aging (Wang et al., 2017). As shown in Fig. 8(g-i), $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values
430 of C_2 correlate robustly with C_2/Gly , C_2/mGly , and $\text{C}_2/\text{total diacids}$, suggesting an
431 enrichment of ^{13}C during the organic aerosol ageing process. During the campaign, ωC_2 is
432 less enriched in ^{13}C in comparison with Gly, mGly, and Pyr, because lighter isotope (^{12}C) is
433 preferentially enriched in the products due to KIEs during the aqueous phase irreversible
434 chemical reactions (Wang et al., 2012). As one of the major precursors of Gly, isoprene
435 emitted directly from vegetation is depleted in ^{13}C with a range from -32‰ to -27‰ (Affek
436 and Yakir, 2003), but during the transport process isoprene could gradually be enriched with
437 ^{13}C ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$ value = -16.8‰) due to isotope fractionation associated with the reaction with OH
438 radical (Rudolph et al., 2003). Moreover, chamber experiments have pointed out that
439 β -pinene is preferably enriched with ^{13}C during its ozonolysis due to KIE (Fisseha et al.,
440 2009). Therefore, the relatively higher values of Gly and mGly can be attributed to the
441 secondary formation from the oxidation of isoprene and other biogenic precursors with
442 stronger enrichment of ^{13}C .

443 4. Summary and conclusions



444 PM_{2.5} aerosols from the summit of Mt. Tai (15340 m a.s.l) in the North China Plain
445 during the summer of 2016 were analyzed for dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids,
446 α -dicarbonyls, EC, OC and WSOC. Molecular compositions of dicarboxylic acids and
447 related compounds in the forested highland are similar to those on the ground surface and
448 other mountainous regions. The concentrations of total dicarboxylic acids and
449 ketocarboxylic acids are higher in daytime than those in nighttime, but α -dicarbonyls presents
450 lower values in daytime, suggesting the mountainous atmospheric environment is more
451 photochemically aged in daytime than in nighttime. The concentrations of oxalic acid and
452 BSOA traces and the mass ratios of C₂/Gly, C₂/mGly, and C₂/total diacids correlate
453 positively with O₃ concentrations in the daytime during the campaign, but such correlations
454 were not found at night, suggesting that in the mountaintop atmosphere O₃ oxidation is the
455 major formation pathway of oxalic acid and related SOA in daytime. Moreover, C₂, C₂/total
456 diacids ratios and BSOA tracers correlate strongly with temperatures, because higher
457 temperature conditions can enhance the emissions of BVOCs and further promote the
458 photochemical formation of C₂. C₂ has a robust correlation with pH_{IS} and SO₄²⁻ during the
459 whole sampling period, indicating that acidic conditions can favor the formation of oxalic
460 acid in aqueous phase.

461 A significant enrichment of ¹³C in dicarboxylic acids was observed as a function of
462 their carbon number. The observed larger $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of lower carbon numbered
463 dicarboxylic acids can be explained by isotopic fractionations resulting from the
464 atmospheric decomposition of relatively longer chain-diacids or their precursors. Increased
465 $\delta^{13}\text{C}$ values of C₂ relative to C₂/Gly and C₂/mGly ratios also suggested an important effect
466 of photochemical aging on the stable carbon isotopic composition of dicarboxylic acids.

467

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750 Table 1. Meteorological parameters and concentrations of inorganic ions, ozone, water
 751 soluble organic carbon (WSOC), organic carbon (OC), elemental carbon (EC), liquid water
 752 content (LWC), and in-situ pH (pH_{IS}) of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ from Mt. Tai in the summer.

	Daytime ($n=28$)	Nighttime ($n=29$)	Total ($n=57$)
I. Meteorological parameters and ozone			
Temperature (°C)	23 ± 2.9 (17–28)	19 ± 2.9 (12–25)	21 ± 3.6 (12–28)
Relative humidity (%)	92 ± 5.0 (80–98)	77 ± 8.2 (65–193)	84 ± 9.9 (65–98)
O_3 (ppb)	32 ± 16 (7.8–61)	22 ± 12 (6.0–48)	27 ± 15 (6.0–61)
II. Inorganic ions ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)			
K^+	0.4 ± 0.2 (0.1–0.8)	0.4 ± 0.2 (0.1–0.7)	0.4 ± 0.2 (0.1–0.8)
Na^+	0.3 ± 0.1 (0.1–0.9)	0.3 ± 0.2 (0.1–1.0)	0.3 ± 0.2 (0.1–1.0)
NH_4^+	5.3 ± 2.9 (0.5–12)	6.6 ± 2.5 (1.2–11)	5.9 ± 2.8 (0.5–12)
Mg^{2+}	0.2 ± 0.1 (0–0.3)	0.2 ± 0.1 (0.1–0.3)	0.2 ± 0.1 (0–0.3)
Ca^{2+}	0.3 ± 0.1 (0–0.5)	0.3 ± 0.2 (0.1–0.7)	0.3 ± 0.2 (0–0.7)
NO_3^-	3.0 ± 2.1 (0.1–8.4)	4.2 ± 2.3 (0.9–10)	3.6 ± 2.3 (0.1–10)
SO_4^{2-}	13 ± 6.9 (3.0–33)	9.6 ± 3.7 (2.9–18)	12 ± 5.8 (2.9–33)
Subtotal	23 ± 12 (4.6–54)	22 ± 8.2 (6.6–40)	22 ± 10 (4.6–54)
III. Other species ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)			
EC	0.2 ± 0.2 (0–0.6)	0.2 ± 0.2 (0–0.8)	0.2 ± 0.2 (0–0.8)
OC	2.4 ± 0.8 (1.1–3.9)	2.1 ± 0.3 (1.5–2.8)	2.2 ± 0.6 (1.1–3.9)
WSOC	1.9 ± 0.8 (0.8–3.6)	1.4 ± 0.5 (0.7–2.3)	1.7 ± 0.7 (0.7–3.6)
pH_{IS}	-0.04 ± 0.5 (-0.9–1.0)	0.4 ± 0.6 (-1.0–1.2)	0.2 ± 0.6 (-1.0–1.2)
LWC	94 ± 100 (10–313)	75 ± 69 (6.3–199)	84 ± 86 (6.3–313)
$\text{PM}_{2.5}$	38 ± 19 (6.1–83)	36 ± 14 (11–66)	37 ± 16 (6.1–83)

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 756 Table 2. Concentrations (ng m^{-3}) of dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and
 757 α -dicarbonyls of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ from Mt. Tai in the summer.

Compounds	Daytime ($n=28$)	Nighttime ($n=29$)	Total ($n=57$)
I. Dicarboxylic acids			
Oxalic, C_2	272 ± 190 (11–623)	156 ± 105 (34–415)	213 ± 162 (11–623)
Malonic, C_3	49 ± 30 (4.0–101)	31 ± 17 (7.4–69)	40 ± 26 (4.0–101)
Succinic, C_4	30 ± 23 (2.0–83)	24 ± 16 (4.7–67)	27 ± 20 (2.0–83)
Glutaric, C_5	7.0 ± 5.5 (0.4–19)	5.6 ± 3.9 (1.1–14)	6.3 ± 4.8 (0.4–19)
Adipic, C_6	2.2 ± 1.7 (0.1–5.6)	2.2 ± 1.8 (0.2–7.7)	2.2 ± 1.7 (0.1–7.7)
Pimelic, C_7	3.0 ± 1.9 (0.3–7.3)	2.9 ± 1.3 (0.3–6.1)	3.0 ± 1.6 (0.3–7.3)
Suberic, C_8	4.3 ± 2.2 (0.9–9.0)	3.8 ± 2.8 (0.4–13)	4.0 ± 2.5 (0.4–13)
Azelaic, C_9	24 ± 14 (4.2–55)	19 ± 8.6 (4.5–41)	22 ± 12 (4.2–55)
Sebacic, C_{10}	5.9 ± 4.3 (0.1–14)	5.6 ± 2.7 (0.7–11)	5.8 ± 3.6 (0.1–14)
Undecanedioic, C_{11}	2.4 ± 1.7 (0.2–5.8)	1.1 ± 0.8 (0–3.8)	1.7 ± 1.4 (0–5.8)
Methylmalonic, iC_4	2.1 ± 1.7 (0.1–5.2)	2.1 ± 1.5 (0–5.3)	2.1 ± 1.6 (0–5.3)
Methylsuccinic, iC_5	2.7 ± 2.0 (0.1–7.1)	2.2 ± 1.7 (0.2–6.1)	2.4 ± 1.8 (0.1–7.1)
Methylglutaric, iC_6	2.6 ± 2.1 (0.5–9.1)	2.3 ± 1.9 (0–9.0)	2.5 ± 2.0 (0–9.1)
Maleic, M	2.0 ± 1.2 (0.1–4.3)	3.0 ± 2.0 (0.7–8.2)	2.5 ± 1.7 (0.1–8.2)
Fumaric, F	4.2 ± 2.7 (0.2–9.4)	4.0 ± 3.0 (0.5–13)	4.1 ± 2.8 (0.2–13)
Methylmaleic, mM	2.9 ± 1.7 (0.1–6.6)	2.7 ± 2.1 (0.5–9.9)	2.8 ± 1.9 (0.1–9.9)
Phthalic, Ph	3.0 ± 1.5 (0.6–5.6)	3.3 ± 2.3 (0.7–11.2)	3.2 ± 1.9 (0.6–11.2)
Isophthalic, iPh	1.6 ± 1.0 (0.1–3.3)	1.3 ± 0.8 (0.2–3.5)	1.4 ± 0.9 (0.1–3.5)
Terephthalic, tPh	1.9 ± 1.3 (0.1–5.0)	2.4 ± 1.5 (0.1–6.1)	2.2 ± 1.4 (0.1–6.1)
Ketomalonic, kC_3	2.6 ± 1.5 (0–5.8)	2.7 ± 1.5 (0.5–6.4)	2.7 ± 1.5 (0–6.4)
Ketopimelic, kC_7	3.6 ± 2.8 (0.2–9.3)	3.9 ± 2.6 (0.2–12)	3.7 ± 2.7 (0.2–12)
Subtotal	430 ± 282 (27–944)	282 ± 161 (73–671)	354 ± 239 (27–944)
II. Ketocarboxylic acids			
Pyruvic, Pyr	14 ± 8.8 (1.4–28)	11 ± 5.5 (2.2–23)	12 ± 7.4 (1.4–28)
Glyoxylic, ωC_2	18 ± 12 (0.9–38)	15 ± 9.5 (3.5–35)	16 ± 11 (0.9–38)
3-Oxopropanoic, ωC_3	4.0 ± 2.7 (0.1–7.7)	4.1 ± 2.2 (0.5–8.3)	4.1 ± 2.4 (0.1–8.3)
4-Oxobutanoic, ωC_4	2.9 ± 1.9 (0.2–6.8)	2.5 ± 1.7 (0.6–7.1)	2.7 ± 1.8 (0.2–7.1)
7-Oxoheptanoic, ωC_7	1.0 ± 0.6 (0–2.7)	1.3 ± 1.0 (0.1–4.8)	1.2 ± 0.9 (0–4.8)
8-Oxooctanoic, ωC_8	1.5 ± 0.9 (0.1–3.3)	1.5 ± 0.7 (0.2–3.4)	1.5 ± 0.8 (0.1–3.4)
9-Oxononanoic, ωC_9	2.0 ± 1.4 (0.1–4.4)	1.8 ± 1.1 (0.2–4.3)	1.9 ± 1.3 (0.1–4.4)
Subtotal	43 ± 28 (2.9–88)	37 ± 19 (7.6–77)	40 ± 24 (2.9–88)
III. α-Dicarbonyls			
Glyoxal, Gly	3.1 ± 1.8 (0.3–6.0)	4.6 ± 2.6 (0.4–12)	3.8 ± 2.3 (0.3–12)
Methylglyoxal, mGly	16 ± 9.5 (1.8–33)	22 ± 15 (1.4–62)	19 ± 13 (1.4–62)
Subtotal	19 ± 11 (2.6–39)	27 ± 17 (2.1–69)	23 ± 15 (2.1–69)
Total detected	491 ± 320 (33–1060)	346 ± 194 (96–807)	417 ± 271 (33–1060)



759 Table 3. Concentrations of α -dicarbonyls in PM_{2.5} from Mt. Tai and Mt. Hua in China and
 760 the global budgets of atmospheric Gly and mGly.

Site	Sources/Season	Abundance		Mass ratio
		Gly	mGly	Gly/mGly
Global budget (Tg a ⁻¹)	Biogenic	22.8 ^a	113.5 ^a	1:5
	Anthropogenic	22.2 ^a	26.5 ^a	1:1
Mt. Hua (ngm ⁻³)	Biogenic, Summer	2.3 ^b	10 ^b	1:4.4
	Anthropogenic, Winter	8.8 ^b	1.3 ^b	1:1.5
Mt. Tai (ngm ⁻³ , this study)	Summer, Daytime	3.1	15.8	1:5.1
	Summer, Nighttime	4.6	22.1	1:4.8

761 Note: ^aData are calculated from Fu et al., 2008;

762 ^bData are cited from Meng et al., 2014.

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764 Table 4. Correlation coefficients (*R*) matrix among major low molecular weight dicarboxylic
 765 acids and related SOA, BSOA tracers, temperature (T), and O₃ concentrations in Mt. Tai
 766 during the summer campaign.

	C ₂	C ₃	C ₄	ω C ₂	Pyr	Gly	mGly	O ₃	T
(a) Daytime									
2-methylglyceric acid	0.98 ^a	0.96 ^a	0.86 ^a	0.95 ^a	0.73 ^a	0.96 ^a	0.94 ^a	0.92 ^a	0.85 ^a
2-methylthreitol	0.83 ^a	0.80 ^a	0.64 ^a	0.74 ^a	0.77 ^a	0.77 ^a	0.82 ^a	0.85 ^a	0.72 ^a
2-methylerythritol	0.84 ^a	0.87 ^a	0.70 ^a	0.78 ^a	0.83 ^a	0.83 ^a	0.84 ^a	0.80 ^a	0.71 ^a
<i>cis</i> -pinonic acid	0.83 ^a	0.75 ^a	0.73 ^a	0.75 ^a	0.74 ^a	0.71 ^a	0.77 ^a	0.80 ^a	0.72 ^a
3-hydroxyglutaric acid	0.81 ^a	0.76 ^a	0.69 ^a	0.74 ^a	0.78 ^a	0.74 ^a	0.73 ^a	0.73 ^a	0.75 ^a
MBTCA	0.84 ^a	0.77 ^a	0.83 ^a	0.82 ^a	0.75 ^a	0.74 ^a	0.77 ^a	0.82 ^a	0.67 ^a
β -Caryophyllinic acid	0.75 ^a	0.70 ^a	0.79 ^a	0.70 ^a	0.70 ^a	0.71 ^a	0.72 ^a	0.65 ^a	0.57 ^a
(b) Nighttime									
2-methylglyceric acid	0.87 ^a	0.72 ^a	0.74 ^a	0.70 ^a	0.64 ^a	0.44 ^b	0.51 ^a	0.09	0.59 ^a
2-methylthreitol	0.81 ^a	0.71 ^a	0.58 ^a	0.71 ^a	0.66 ^a	0.60 ^a	0.47 ^b	0.05 ^a	0.65 ^a
2-methylerythritol	0.83 ^a	0.72 ^a	0.62 ^a	0.79 ^a	0.73 ^a	0.67 ^a	0.61 ^a	0.23	0.74 ^a
<i>cis</i> -pinonic acid	0.83 ^a	0.65 ^a	0.57 ^a	0.75 ^a	0.61 ^a	0.56 ^a	0.54 ^a	0.22	0.63 ^a
3-hydroxyglutaric acid	0.79 ^a	0.62 ^a	0.69 ^a	0.71 ^a	0.60 ^a	0.58 ^a	0.50 ^a	0.43 ^b	0.62 ^a
MBTCA ^c	0.82 ^a	0.80 ^a	0.78 ^a	0.73 ^a	0.75 ^a	0.61 ^a	0.55 ^a	0.30	0.60 ^a
β -caryophyllinic acid	0.68 ^a	0.74 ^a	0.61 ^a	0.73 ^a	0.71 ^a	0.73 ^a	0.58 ^a	0.32 ^a	0.53 ^a

767 ^a*P*<0.01; ^b*P*<0.05.

768 ^cMBTCA: 3-Methyl-1,2,3-butanetricarboxylic acid.

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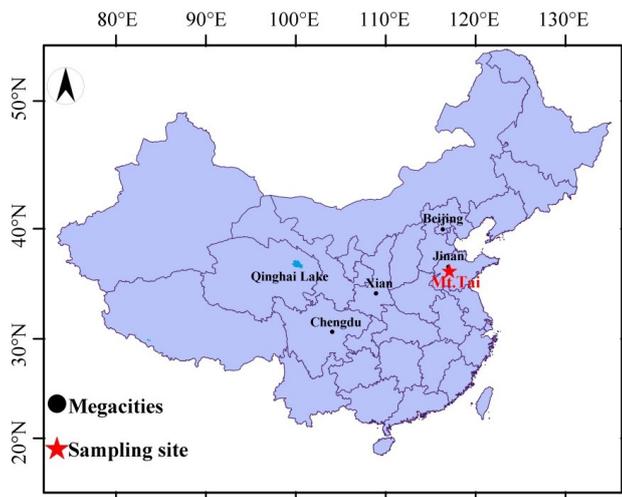

 774 Table 5. Stable carbon isotopic compositions ($\delta^{13}\text{C}$, ‰) of major dicarboxylic acids and
 775 related SOA in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ of Mt. Tai in the North China Plain.

Compounds	Daytime ($n=28$)	Nighttime ($n=29$)	Total ($n=57$)
I. Dicarboxylic acids			
Oxalic, C_2	-15.8 ± 1.9 (-19.4 to -13.0)	-17.2 ± 1.7 (-20.1 to -12.1)	-16.5 ± 1.9 (-20.1 to -12.1)
Malonic, C_3	-19.1 ± 2.3 (-23.8 to -15.9)	-18.5 ± 1.8 (-21.1 to -15.3)	-18.8 ± 2.0 (-23.8 to -15.3)
Succinic, C_4	-22.0 ± 2.3 (-25.6 to -18.5)	-21.4 ± 2.2 (-24.6 to -18.4)	-21.7 ± 2.2 (-25.6 to -18.4)
Adipic, C_6	-23.7 ± 2.5 (-27.3 to -19.9)	-24.8 ± 2.4 (-27.9 to -21.4)	-24.2 ± 2.5 (-27.9 to -19.9)
Azelaic, C_9	-24.7 ± 2.6 (-28.7 to -21.0)	-25.7 ± 2.7 (-30.3 to -21.9)	-25.2 ± 2.7 (-30.3 to -21.0)
Phthalic, Ph	-24.3 ± 2.5 (-28.1 to -20.6)	-25.2 ± 2.6 (-29.2 to -20.9)	-24.8 ± 2.5 (-29.2 to -20.6)
II. Ketocarboxylic acids			
Pyruvic, Pyr	-19.4 ± 2.1 (-23.1 to -16.5)	-21.2 ± 2.2 (-24.5 to -17.8)	-20.3 ± 2.3 (-24.5 to -16.5)
Glyoxylic, ωC_2	-18.6 ± 1.9 (-21.5 to -15.6)	-20.2 ± 2.1 (-23.1 to -16.9)	-19.4 ± 2.2 (-23.1 to -15.6)
3-Oxopropanoic, ωC_3	-20.2 ± 2.1 (-23.5 to -17.0)	-24.0 ± 2.5 (-27.7 to -20.8)	-22.2 ± 3.0 (-27.7 to -17.0)
III. α-Dicarbonyls			
Glyoxal, Gly	-16.7 ± 1.7 (-19.4 to -14.0)	-18.1 ± 1.8 (-21.3 to -15.2)	-17.4 ± 1.9 (-21.3 to -14.0)
Methyglyoxal, mGly	-17.9 ± 1.8 (-21.0 to -15.0)	-19.6 ± 2.0 (-22.5 to -16.5)	-18.8 ± 2.1 (-22.5 to -15.0)

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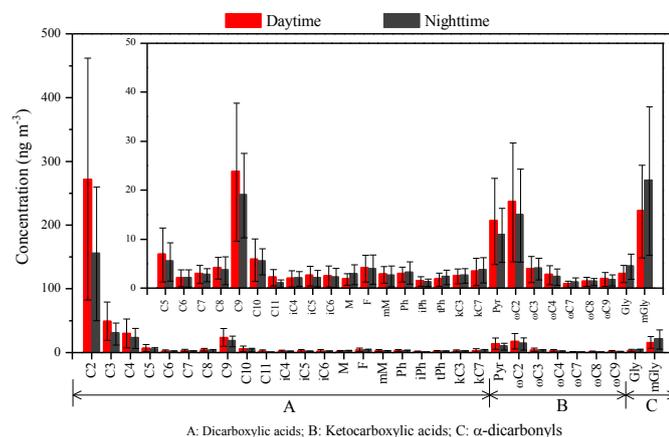


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779 Fig.1. Location of the sampling site (Mt. Tai; 36.25° N, 117.10°E; 1534 m a.s.l.).

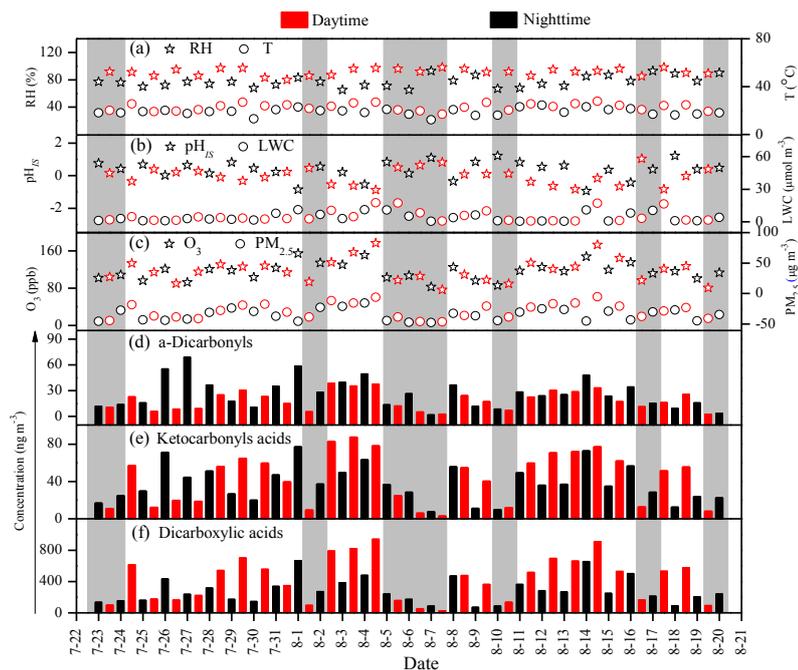
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782 Fig.2. Molecular distributions of dicarboxylic acids and related compounds in PM_{2.5} of Mt.

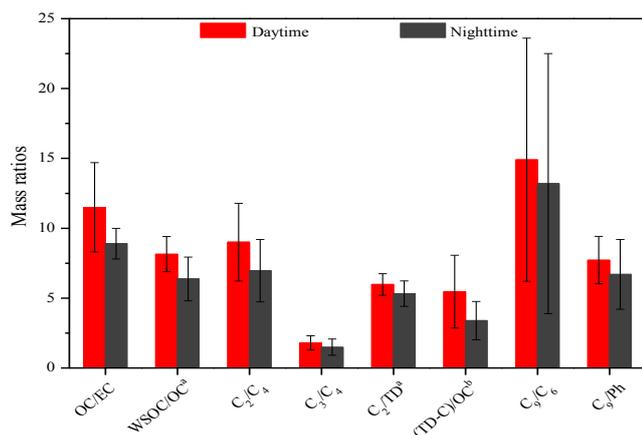
783 Tai in North China Plain.



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785 Fig.3. Diurnal variations of relative humidity (RH), temperature (T), in-situ acidity of
 786 particles (pH_{ps}), liquid water content of particles (LWC), concentrations of O_3 , $PM_{2.5}$,
 787 α -dicarbonyls, ketocarboxylic acids, and dicarboxylic acids (rainy days are highlighted in
 788 shadow).

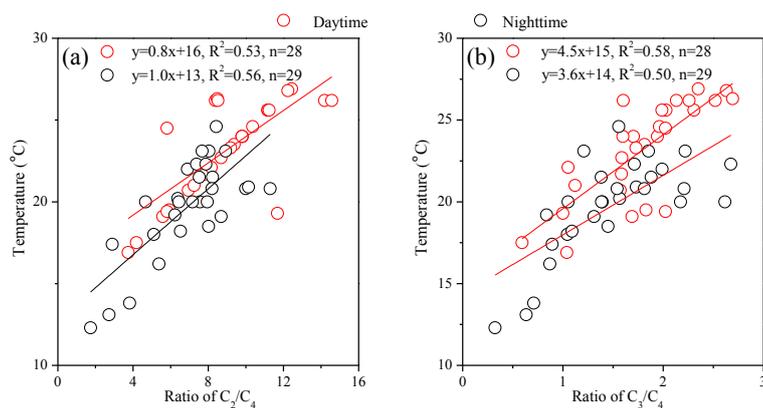
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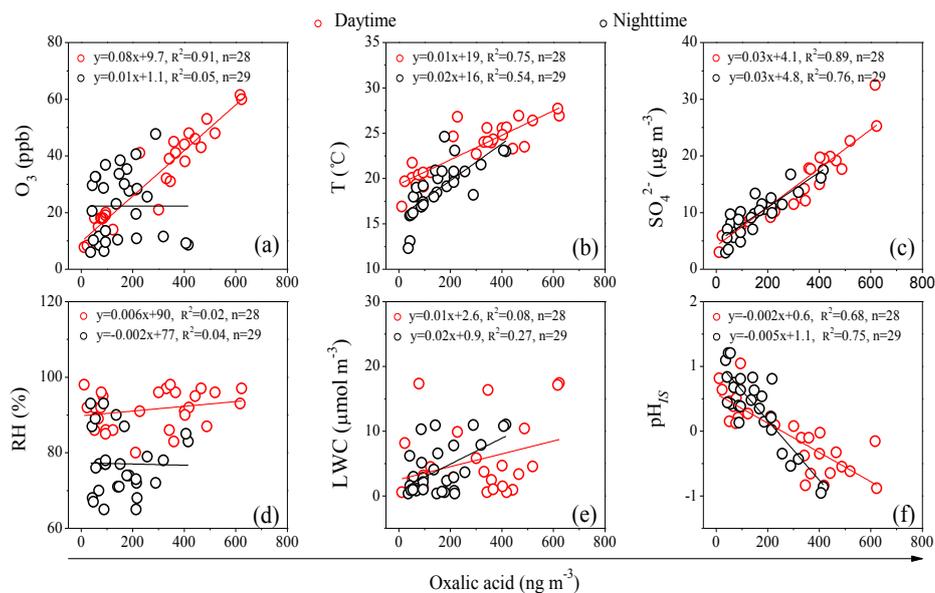
791 Fig.4. Diurnal variations of mass ratios of OC/EC, WSOC/OC, C_2/C_4 , C_3/C_4 , C_2/TD ,
 792 (TD-C)/OC, C_9/C_6 , C_9/Ph . (TD: total dicarboxylic acids; TD-C: the carbon concentration of
 793 total dicarboxylic acids; ^a the mass ratios expanding 10 times; ^b the mass ratios expanding
 794 100 times).

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797 Fig.5. Linear fit regression for temperature (T) with mass ratios of (a) C_2/C_4 and (b) C_3/C_4
 798 (See the abbreviations in Table 1).



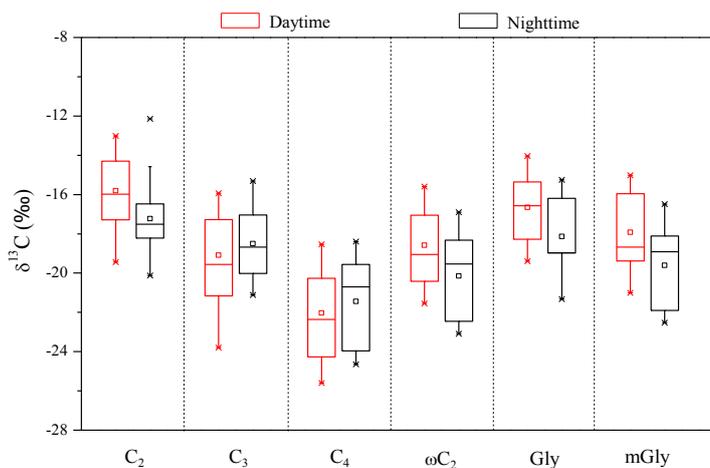
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800 Fig. 6. Linear fit regressions of oxalic acid (C_2) with (a) O_3 , (b) temperature (T), (c) SO_4^{2-} , (d)

801 relative humidity (RH), (e) aerosol liquid water content (LWC), and (f) in-situ acidity of

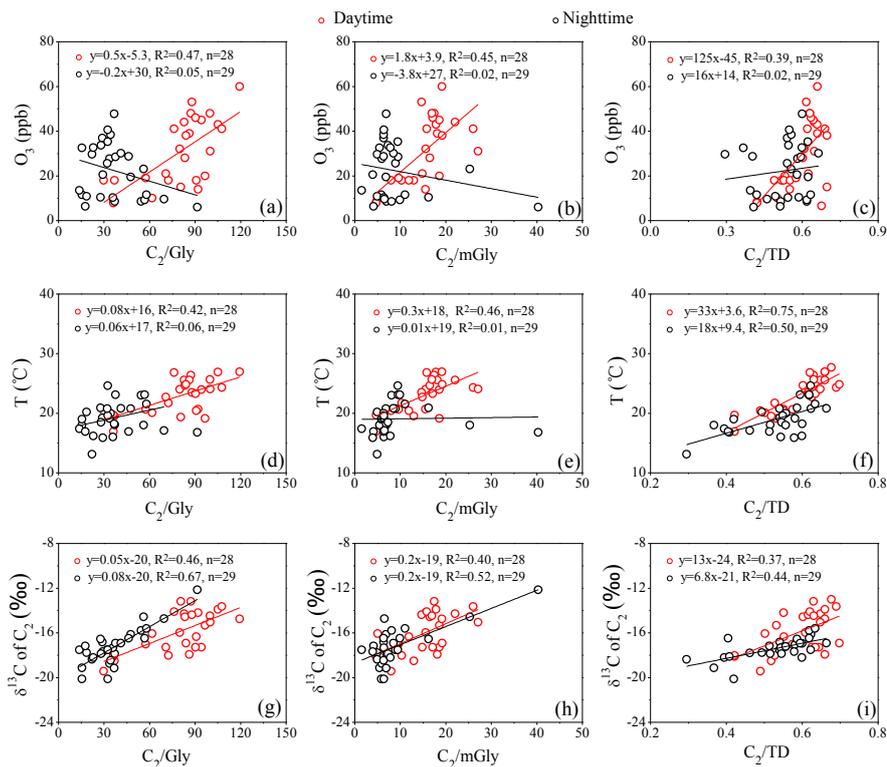
802 particles (pH_{IS}).

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 805 Fig. 7. Diurnal variations of stable carbon isotope composition of low molecular weight
 806 dicarboxylic acids (C_2 – C_4), the smallest ketocarboxylic acids (ωC_2) and α -dicarbonyls (Gly,
 807 mGly) in $PM_{2.5}$ collected at the summit of Mt. Tai during the summer.



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809 Fig.8. Correlation analysis for the mass ratios of C_2/Gly , $C_2/mGly$ and C_2/TD with (a-c)
 810 concentrations of O_3 ; (d-f) temperature and (g-i) $\delta^{13}C$ of C_2 during the daytime and
 811 nighttime (C_2/TD : mass ratio of oxalic acid to total dicarboxylic acids; T: temperature).

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