



Fog composition at
Baengnyeong Island
in the Eastern Yellow
Sea

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Fog composition at Baengnyeong Island in the Eastern Yellow Sea: detecting markers of aqueous atmospheric oxidations

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Abstract

Samples of fog water were collected at Baengnyeong Island (BYI) in the Yellow Sea during the summer of 2014. The most abundant chemical species in the fog water were NH_4^+ (mean of 2220 μM), NO_3^- (1260 μM), SO_4^{2-} (730 μM), and Na^+ (551 μM), with substantial contributions from other ions consistent with marine and biomass burning influence on some dates. The pH of the samples ranged between 3.48 and 5.00, with a mean of 3.94, intermediate within pH values of fog/cloud water reported previously in Southeast Asia. Back trajectories (72 h) showed that high relative humidity (> 80 %) was encountered upwind of the sampling site by all but one of the sampled air masses, and that the fog composition at BYI can be impacted by several different source regions, including the Sea of Japan, Northeastern China, and the East China Sea. Sulfur in the collected fog was highly oxidized: low S(IV) concentrations were measured (mean of 2.36 μM) in contrast to SO_4^{2-} and in contrast to fog/cloud S(IV) concentrations from pollutant source regions; organosulfate species were also observed and were most likely formed through aging of mainly biogenic volatile organic compounds. Low molecular mass organic acids were major contributors to total organic carbon (TOC; 36–69%), comprising a fraction of TOC at the upper end of that seen in fogs and clouds in other polluted environments. Large contributions were observed from not only acetic and formic acids, but also oxalic, succinic, maleic, and other organic acids that can be produced in aqueous atmospheric organic processing (AAOP) reactions. These samples of East Asian fog water containing highly oxidized components represent fog downwind of pollutant sources and can provide new insight into the fate of regional emissions. In particular, these samples demonstrate the result of extensive photochemical aging during multiday transport, including oxidation within wet aerosols and fogs.

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1 Introduction

The chemistry of the atmosphere occurs within multiple phases, one of which is the aqueous phase. Atmospheric water includes fog droplets, cloud droplets, and wet aerosol particles, all of which can act as miniature aqueous reaction vessels. Distinct chemical phenomena occur within the atmospheric aqueous phase: formation of organic hydrates and protonation/deprotonation occur frequently, time spent by reactants in proximity to one another increases, and interactions involving metals such as the Fenton reactions and iron-oxalate complexes are possible (Lelieveld and Crutzen, 1991; Zuo and Hoigné, 1994). The study of carbonaceous species is particularly pertinent to understanding particle, gas, and aqueous phase atmospheric processes because the composition and formation of organics are complex. Particle phase organics in particular cannot yet be modeled well by laboratory or computer experiments (Aiken et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2015; Heald et al., 2005, 2010), and can account for a large fraction of aerosol mass (Fu et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2012). Uptake of organic components into atmospheric water represents a pathway for removal from the atmosphere, via deposition and/or chemical degradation (Collett et al., 2008). Aqueous atmospheric organic processing (AAOP) can yield low molecular mass products with typically increased volatilities, effectively reducing pollutant concentrations in an air mass via chemical water treatment (Brinkmann et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2003). Some reactions of organic material within atmospheric water form aqueous secondary organic aerosol (aqSOA) by oxidation of dissolved organic precursors to form lower volatility products that remain in the particle phase as fog drops evaporate (Ervens et al., 2011).

The most common approach to studying AAOP reactions in the lab is to introduce $\cdot\text{OH}$ oxidant into a bulk solution of a standard carbonaceous “precursor” molecule such as glyoxal and monitor the reactant as it proceeds (Lim et al., 2010). Some assumptions of this common type of simulation can also be studied within a lab: for example, real cloud water constituents have been shown to cause an effective kinetic slowing,

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via oxidant competition, of a given organic chemical reaction (Boris et al., 2014). However, while these commonly applied lab simulations are useful for studying specific AAOP reactions, more accurate representations of fogs and clouds are needed to validate simulation results and elucidate more complex phenomena. Daumit et al. (2014) demonstrated that microphysical dynamics of in-droplet diffusion and bidirectional air-water mass transfer are inaccurate in simple “bulk reactions”: carrying out a reaction within a photoreactor does not allow species to continuously partition into and out of solution (Ervens et al., 2003). Bulk photoreactions also do not correctly simulate differences in chemical constituents between droplets within a cloud (Bator and Collett, 1997; Collett et al., 1994) gradients inside individual droplets (Ervens et al., 2014), or physical processes of fogs and clouds such as evaporation and deposition (Collett et al., 2008; Herckes et al., 2002; Pandis et al., 1990).

High aerosol concentrations near major cities in China have been attributed in large part to secondary aerosol formation processes and various sources of carbonaceous aerosol (Bian et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2005). Cloud water collected on Mount Tai in Shandong Province (west of the Yellow Sea) contained some of the highest total organic carbon (TOC) concentrations measured in the world (Herckes et al., 2013; Shen et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2011), consistent with strong regional organic pollutant sources, including agricultural burning (Desyaterik et al., 2013). AAOP reactions could produce measurable quantities of aqSOA and low molecular mass organic acids during atmospheric transport of chemicals, especially at high concentrations and within humid environments as observed in Southeast Asia. Anthropogenic emissions from mainland China and Korea frequently impact remote sites around the Yellow Sea (Kim et al., 2011). Oxygenated organic species observed within atmospheric water and aerosol samples at coastal sites in South Korea (Decesari et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2015) are evidence for AAOP reactions occurring in this part of the world.

Fog water was collected at BYI to characterize the composition of fog formed in aged air masses intercepted in the Eastern Yellow Sea. Frequent sea fog events are observed at BYI, particularly during the late spring and early summer (Cho et al., 2000;

longitude, and air mass relative humidity (RH) as estimated by the model were out-
putted at each one-hour interval. Periods during which large-scale fires may have im-
pacted fog samples were detected using MODIS archived graphics retrieved from the
Naval Research Lab 7 SEAS Data Repository (http://www.nrlmry.navy.mil/aerosol-bin/7seas/view_7seas_by_date_t.cgi) and NASA FIRMS (produced by the University of
Maryland and provided by NASA FIRMS operated by NASA/GSFC/ESDIS; <https://earthdata.nasa.gov/earth-observation-data/near-real-time/firms/active-fire-data/>).

2.2 Fog collection and handling

A size-fractionating Caltech Active Strand Cloudwater Collector (sf-CASCC; Demoz
et al., 1996) was used to collect small and large fog droplets (diameters predomi-
nantly 4–16 μm , and $> 16 \mu\text{m}$, respectively). The sf-CASCC is a polycarbonate struc-
ture outfitted with a fan at the rear to pull droplet-laden air into the body of the collector
(at $19 \text{ m}^3 \text{ min}^{-1}$). Droplets were impacted onto rows of forward-tilted Teflon rods and
strands and pulled by gravity and aerodynamic drag into Teflon sampling troughs at the
bottom of the collector. Fog water was collected for durations of one to three hours; four
events (1, 2, 5, and 18 July) were long enough for collection of multiple fog samples.
A Gerber Particulate Volume Monitor (PVM-100; Gerber, 1991) was used to determine
the liquid water content (LWC) of the atmosphere during the study; an approximate
threshold of 30 mg m^{-3} was used to initiate fog sampling. When fog was not present,
the sf-CASCC inlet and outlet were covered to prevent collection of contaminants onto
the inner surfaces of the collector. The sf-CASCC was cleaned after each fog event:
a high power sprayer was used to rinse deionized water ($\sim 2\text{--}3 \text{ L}$) through the collector
body. Field blanks were collected after each cleaning, and were stored and analyzed in
the same manner as samples. Limits of detection (LODs) were calculated using these
blanks and are tabulated in Table 1. Deep cleanings were also performed periodically
by removing the Teflon strands, rods, and troughs from the body of the sf-CASCC and
scrubbing all surfaces with Triton X-100 detergent, then thoroughly rinsing all surfaces

analysis. Levoglucosan and other carbohydrates were measured using high performance anion exchange chromatography with pulsed amperometric detection (HPAEC-PAD) as described previously (Sullivan et al., 2008).

Deionized water used in analyses and sample collection at BYI was obtained from a distillation and ion exchange/ultraviolet light purification system at the ARC. The calculated charge balance and sample volume were used to determine whether measurements made from a given fog sample were accurate and should be included in results (most samples not containing balanced ionic charges consisted of small liquid volumes). If charge balance, which included all organic and inorganic ionic species, was not within 1.0 ± 0.3 (positive/negative charge), that sample was not included (four of 17 samples were excluded). Directly after sample collection, liquid water from samples with only small collected volumes were dispensed to aliquots according to volume needed and importance of analysis to the study purpose; therefore, in some cases, only some analyses could be carried out for a given sample. For those samples with insufficient volumes (< 2 mL) of the small droplet fraction due to a predominance of large droplets in the sampled fog, the large droplet fraction was assumed to be representative of the entire fog water sample in data analyses. Chemical and physical interactions differ between droplet sizes, and the collection of different sizes of droplets helps preserve real differences in drop composition as compared to bulk fog sampling (Hoag et al., 1999; Moore et al., 2004a, b; Reilly et al., 2001). Mean fog constituent concentrations were calculated from the two droplet fractions (e.g., [(small drop sample volume \times small sample concentration) + (large drop volume \times large drop concentration)]/total sample volume); mean, median, maximum, and minimum values calculated over the size fraction weighted values of all samples were used in further discussion of the fog chemical composition.

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3 Results and discussion

3.1 Fog characteristics and major contributing species

Fog water was collected during nine fog events (17 total samples) at the BYI ARC during July 2014; seven events and 13 samples were included in mean chemical concentrations calculated over the duration of the sampling campaign and will be discussed here (Fig. 1). Events on 2 and 18 July persisted for several hours, allowing collection of up to five samples per event. Air masses sampled during the seven fog events traveled either from the south over the Yellow Sea as documented in Zhang et al. (2009) from the east over the Sea of Japan, or from the north over Northeastern China (Fig. 2). A moderately acidic pH was observed (study mean 3.94, ranging between 3.48 and 5.00). This value is intermediate between values in fog and cloud samples from South-east Asia (Mount Tai: pH 3.68, Wang et al., 2011; Jeju Island, Korea: pH 5.2, Kim et al., 2006; Daekwanreung, Korea: pH 4.7 Kim et al., 2006; and Shanghai, China: pH 5.97, Li et al., 2011). Major inorganic species contributing to the measured acidity of the fog water at BYI (Table 1; Fig. 3) were NH_4^+ (mean concentration of 2220 μM), followed by NO_3^- (1260 μM), and SO_4^{2-} (730 μM); these concentrations were elevated for fog and cloud samples collected globally (e.g., Collett et al., 2002; Raja et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). Sea salt was also an abundant constituent of the fog water (mean concentrations of 551 μMNa^+ and 253 μMCl^-), as was organic matter (mean 276 μM , estimated using a molecular mass of 100 g mol^{-1} and $\text{OM/OC} = 1.8$; Zhang et al., 2005). The mean NH_4^+ concentration measured at BYI was within the upper range of measured NH_4^+ in fog and cloud samples (similar to e.g., the Po Valley, Italy, Fuzzi et al., 1992; and Baton Rouge, Louisiana, Raja et al., 2008). Although agriculture was a main land use on Baengnyeong Island, no correlation between wind direction and fog NH_4^+ concentrations was observed (Fig. SI-1), suggesting long-range transport of fine particle NH_4^+ as an important source.

3.2 Marine source contribution

Evidence of a marine contribution to fog composition was clear. Upwind trajectories of all air masses sampled included some duration over the Yellow Sea, and in some cases the Sea of Japan (Fig. 2). The study mean Na^+ concentration was $551 \mu\text{M}$. Measured Ca^{+2} (study mean $77.4 \mu\text{M}$) was contributed in part by sea salt particle scavenging: 21 % was attributed to sea salt (Fig. SI-2) using a molar ratio to Na^+ in seawater of 0.022 (Lee, 2007; Radojevic and Bashkin, 2006). Depletion of particle phase Cl^- appears to have occurred in scavenged sea salt particles, likely due to displacement of HCl to the gas phase by NO_3^- and SO_4^{-2} (Mouri and Okada, 1993). Measured Cl^-/Na^+ molar ratios ranged as low as 0.08, with a mean value of 1.20, which is within measurement error (Table 1) of the typical sea salt ratio of 1.16 (Radojevic and Bashkin, 2006). In some samples, the Cl^- concentration was in excess of the sea salt ratio, indicating possible contributions from other sources such as incineration and coal combustion (McCulloch et al., 1999). Small contributions of K^+ (study mean concentration $82.5 \mu\text{M}$) and SO_4^{-2} (study mean concentration $730 \mu\text{M}$) were estimated to derive from scavenged sea salt particles: only 12 % of the measured K^+ and 6 % of the SO_4^{-2} were attributed to a marine source on average. Elevated concentrations of cations including K^+ in aerosol have also been associated with the influence of biomass burning activities (Andreae, 1983; Lee et al., 2010), mineral dust from arid regions (Zhang et al., 1993), and/or construction in urban areas (Li et al., 2011).

3.3 Inorganic sulfur

Aqueous sulfur oxidation in the pH range measured in this study (3.48–5.00) is expected to be dominated by reaction with hydrogen peroxide (Rao and Collett, 1995). The mean concentrations of S(IV) and total peroxides (2.36 and $7.8 \mu\text{M}$, respectively; Table 1) were low compared to the mean S(IV) and peroxides concentrations measured during summer 2007 and 2008 field campaigns at Mount Tai, China (Shen et al., 2012), consistent with a low potential for additional S(IV) oxidation within the BYI fog

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et al., 2015) was used to illustrate the distribution of identified organic species (CHO, CHNO, CHOS, CHNOS; Fig. 6) and to distinguish series of compounds differing by functional groups: carbonyl (-2H , $+1\text{O}$; slope = -2); carboxylic acid (-2H , $+2\text{O}$; slope = -1); methyl/methylene (also slope = -1); alcohol (or oxidation of an aldehyde to a carboxylic acid group; slope = 0); or water (slope = $+2$). In BYI fog samples, series of: (1) saturated di-acids (C_5 through C_7 ; slope = -0.5), (2) hydroxy-di-acids (C_5 – C_7 ; slope = -0.7), (3) hydroxy-mono-unsaturated di-acids (C_7 – C_9 ; slope = -0.8), (4) mono-unsaturated di-acids (C_4 through C_9 ; slope = -1), (5) phthalate derivatives with differing oxygen contents (slope = 0); and (6) nitrophenols (slope = -1) are visible in the van Krevelen diagram (Fig. 6). Mean O : C and H : C of ambient aerosol samples (mass-normalized, from aerosol mass spectrometry; Heald et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2015) typically fall on a line within van Krevelen space at a slope of -1 and y intercept of 2 for samples with fresh emissions and a slope of -0.5 for rural/remote samples. Within the molecular level analysis employed here, the slopes between -1 and -0.5 appear to correspond to homologous series of compounds differing by a methylene or methyl group, with differing levels of unsaturation and/or number of hydroxyl groups. The space within the van Krevelen diagram occupied by these identified series indicates they are chemically similar to aged aerosol from previous studies (Chen et al., 2015) and may be analogous to ring-opened and oxygenated species present within the fragmentation scheme of the atmospheric aging process (Kroll et al., 2009).

3.7 Nitrophenols

Four identified nitrophenol species were quantified via HPLC(-)-ESI-HR-ToF-MS (Table SI-4): 4-nitrophenol (36.4 ± 1.8 nM; max 297 nM), 2-methyl-4-nitrophenol (3.8 ± 0.5 nM; max 42.7 nM), 2,4-dinitrophenol (20.7 ± 0.1 nM; max 74.8 nM), and 2-methyl-4,6-dinitrophenol (0.7 ± 0.1 nM; max 5.1 nM). Concentrations detected in most previous fog and cloud water field studies were ~ 1 – 300 nM (Harrison et al., 2005), in the same range as identified in this study. However, the concentrations of 4-nitrophenol measured within cloud water from Mount Tai were as high as $15 \mu\text{M}$ (Desyaterik et al.,

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Praplan et al. (2014) as an oxidation product of the anthropogenic species 1,3,5-trimethylbenzene. Several pairs of organosulfates appear to have originated from loss of a hydroxyl group: for example, m/z^- 195.03 and 211.03, corresponding to $C_6H_{12}O_5S$ and $C_6H_{12}O_6S$; the latter species was noted to possibly be formed from the sulfonation of a fatty acid (Surratt et al., 2008). CHONS species were also found in the fog samples from BYI, two of which were identified previously as monoterpene oxidation products (Surratt et al., 2008): m/z^- 294.07 with formula $C_{10}H_{17}NO_7S$ and m/z^- 310.06 with formula $C_{10}H_{17}NO_8S$. A compound with the formula $C_{10}H_{17}NO_7S$ was also identified with Fresno fog samples (Mazzoleni et al., 2010). Several CHO species were additionally identified as both biogenic and anthropogenic secondary organic species; for example, 3-methyl-1,2,3-butanetricarboxylic acid (MBTCA) was tentatively identified (m/z^- 189.08 and formula $C_8H_{14}O_5$), as was diaterpenylic acid (m/z^- 189.078; $C_8H_{14}O_5$), which are gas-phase oxidation products of α -pinene (Szmigielski et al., 2007a; Yasmeen et al., 2010).

3.9 Atmospheric aqueous organic processing

Many features of the fog water at BYI, including the organic composition and the humid conditions encountered prior to arrival at the collection site, suggest that components in the fog were highly oxidized. The oxidation may have occurred in the fogs themselves or during upwind transport of wet aerosol later scavenged by the fog. The RH of fog-producing air masses arriving at BYI was high, with only a few time periods at $< 50\%$, and mean 65–91% (Fig. SI-3). Only the air mass intercepted during the fog event on 30 June did not encounter $RH > 80\%$ within 72 h of fog formation at BYI. Mixtures of organic and inorganic components including products of aqueous atmospheric aging can easily take up water (growth factors = 1.71 at $\sim 85\%$ RH for several organic acids; Wise et al., 2003 and ≤ 1.16 at 85% RH for chamber-generated secondary organic aerosol; Varutbangkul et al., 2006). It is therefore likely that the aerosol LWC was sufficient to allow radical or even non-radical reactions to occur upwind of the BYI fog collection site (Lim et al., 2010, 2013). The high abundance and large diversity of

4 Conclusions

The fogs at BYI were on average slightly acidic and the chemical composition was dominated by NH_4NO_3 from long-range transport, with contributions from anthropogenic nss-SO_4^{-2} , marine NaCl , and a variety of organic compounds. Biomass burning activities throughout Eastern Russia and Southeast Asia appear to have contributed K^+ and organic species, including nitrophenols, in some periods. Organosulfate species deriving from oxidation products of monoterpenes (e.g., Surratt et al., 2008; Nguyen et al., 2014) were observed, several of which have been identified in aqueous atmospheric samples in the past (Altieri et al., 2009; Mazzoleni et al., 2010). Low concentrations of S(IV) , high concentrations of SO_4^{-2} , and generally low concentrations of peroxides suggest that chemical components of the fog water were highly oxidized during up-wind transport and/or within the local fog. Low molecular mass organic acids such as acetate, formate, and succinate accounted for 36–69 % of TOC, a typically higher fraction than observed in fogs from other environments, with acetate, formate, succinate, oxalate, and maleate each contributing > 5 % of TOC on average. Further analysis of the fog organic matter via HPLC(-)-ESI-HR-ToF-MS revealed homologous series of dicarboxylic acids and nitrophenols. The position within van Krevelen space occupied by identified organics matches well with the fragmentation aging regime (at high oxidation state) shown by Kroll and coworkers (2009).

Future studies of fog or cloud water composition in the region should include the characterization of carbonyl species which have been cited as some of the most important AAOP reactants (Ervens et al., 2011) and are direct oxidation precursors of organic acids. Additional studies to analyze the evolution of gaseous, particulate, and aqueous phase organics during fog events as well as the advancement of laboratory simulated reactions will be essential in more fully characterizing AAOP reactions and aqSOA formation.

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Data availability

Processed data are available in the Supplement to this article. Raw data are archived at the Colorado State University Atmospheric Science Department and are available on request.

5 **The Supplement related to this article is available online at doi:10.5194/acpd-15-24871-2015-supplement.**

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Table 1. Mean, minimum, and maximum concentrations of organic and inorganic species quantified in fog samples collected at BYI.

Chemical	Unit	No. Samples	Aqueous concentration			LOD	Uncertainty (95% CI)	Air equivalent concentration	
			Mean	Min	Max			Mean	Unit
pH	–	11	3.94	3.48	5.00	–	–	11.8	nmol m ⁻³
Peroxides	μM	11	7.8	0.4	58.9	0.2	0.2	0.45	nmol m ⁻³
S(IV)	μM	11	2.36	0.25	6.27	0.18	0.01	0.12	nmol m ⁻³
HCHO	μM	10	7	< LOD	21	5	2	0.65	nmol m ⁻³
TOC	mgCL ⁻¹	8	15.3	3.60	24.8	0.26	0.03	480	ngC m ⁻³
Cl ⁻	μM	14	253	22	900	3	3	9.29	nmol m ⁻³
NO ₂ ⁻	μM	14	2.1	< LOD	5.6	0.9	0.9	0.18	nmol m ⁻³
NO ₃ ⁻	μM	14	1260	185	4900	1	10	49.0	nmol m ⁻³
SO ₄ ²⁻	μM	14	730	72.0	2270	7.2	0.4	26.6	nmol m ⁻³
Na ⁺	μM	14	551	24	2920	2	2	7.55	nmol m ⁻³
NH ₄ ⁺	μM	14	2220	253	6090	7	4	97.8	nmol m ⁻³
K ⁺	μM	14	83	16	172	1	2	3.17	nmol m ⁻³
Mg ⁺²	μM	14	73	13	276	0.5	1	2.53	nmol m ⁻³
Ca ⁺²	μM	14	77	12	217	0.2	1	3.23	nmol m ⁻³
Acetate	μM	11	138	19.3	640	2.36	0.01	4.77	nmol m ⁻³
Formate	μM	11	120	1.77	532	1.47	0.05	8.47	nmol m ⁻³
Oxalate	μM	11	41.5	5.86	110	1.47	0.03	1.99	nmol m ⁻³
Succinate	μM	11	22.9	3.31	52.6	0.74	0.01	1.29	nmol m ⁻³
Maleate	μM	11	21.1	3.04	58.8	0.29	0.02	0.72	nmol m ⁻³
Malonate	μM	11	10.7	1.48	24.8	0.45	0.01	0.46	nmol m ⁻³
Pyruvate	μM	11	9.19	0.79	38.8	0.23	0.02	0.48	nmol m ⁻³
MSA	μM	11	7.75	1.77	18.6	0.18	0.01	0.30	nmol m ⁻³
Glutarate	μM	11	6.5	0.92	18.3	0.66	0.02	0.30	nmol m ⁻³
Valerate	μM	11	1.03	0.21	3.78	0.06	0.01	0.11	nmol m ⁻³
Propionate	μM	11	0.88	0.35	1.36	0.06	0.01	0.11	nmol m ⁻³
Adipate	μM	11	0.09	< LOD	0.24	0.04	0.04	0.01	nmol m ⁻³
Salicylate	μM	11	0.06	< LOD	0.15	0.04	0.04	0.006	nmol m ⁻³
Benzoate	μM	11	0.06	< LOD	0.15	0.02	0.02	0.005	nmol m ⁻³
Pinate	μM	11	0.009	< LOD	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.0005	nmol m ⁻³
Azelate	μM	11	0.02	< LOD	0.09	0.03	0.03	0.0009	nmol m ⁻³
All Organic Acids	μM	11	379	138	1000	–	–	19.0	nmol m ⁻³

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**Table 2.** Chemical formulae and possible structures of organic components identified via HPLC-(-)-ESI-HR-ToF-MS within BY1 fog water samples. Formulae with multiple isomers (different retention times) are marked with an asterisk (*). Multiple plausible formulae were identified for species prefixed with “e.g.”. Only species with mass spectral abundances ≥ 500 a.u. were included.

m/z^-	Formula (M)	Difference (ppm)	t_R (min)	Abund. (a.u.)	Possible identification
85.0311	C ₄ H ₆ O ₂	-18.2	3.18	11 000	Methacrylic acid
105.0367				9.32	1200
113.027	C ₅ H ₆ O ₃	-22.32	3.67	500	Oxo-pentenoic acid
117.0565	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₃	-6.72	4.54	1700	Hydroxy-pentanoic acid*
117.057	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₃	-10.63	3.43	6900	Hydroxy-pentanoic acid*
121.0306	C ₇ H ₆ O ₂	-9.34	9.82	1700	Hydroxy-benzaldehyde
127.0415	C ₆ H ₈ O ₃	-11.58	5.79	990	Oxo-hexenoic acid
129.0206	C ₅ H ₆ O ₄	-9.72	3.67	800	Pentenedioic acid*
129.021	C ₆ H ₆ O ₄	-22.33	3.18	600	Pentenedioic acid*
129.057	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₃	-1.11	5.96	2100	Methyl-oxo-pentanoic acid*
129.0571	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₃	-10.78	7.00	2700	Methyl-oxo-pentanoic acid*
131.0362	C ₅ H ₈ O ₄	-9.57	3.18	6100	Methyl-succinic acid
131.0362	C ₅ H ₈ O ₄	-9.34	4.34	11 000	Glutaric acid
131.0727	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₃	-10.13	9.82	1100	Hydroxy-Hexanoic acid*
131.073	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₃	-12.18	7.95	1800	Hydroxy-Hexanoic acid*
137.0255	C ₇ H ₆ O ₃	-8.18	16.17	6900	Salicylic acid
138.0207	C ₆ H ₅ NO ₃	-7.4	13.18	39 100	4-Nitrophenol
143.0359	C ₆ H ₈ O ₄	-6.53	3.18	21 000	Hexenedioic acid*
143.0374	C ₆ H ₈ O ₄	-16.85	6.86	2700	Hexenedioic acid*
143.0729	C ₇ H ₁₂ O ₃	-10.47	11.43	1000	Methyl-pentenedioic acid
145.0513	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₄	-4.54	8.93	1200	Methyl-glutaric acid*
145.0515	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₄	-5.98	7.10	1900	Adipic acid
145.052	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₄	-9.04	9.52	2700	Methyl-glutaric acid*
149.0258	C ₆ H ₆ O ₃	-9.29	9.32	3200	Formyl-benzoic acid
152.0358	C ₇ H ₇ NO ₃	-3.3	17.85	1500	Methyl-nitrophenol
152.0365	C ₇ H ₇ NO ₃	-7.9	19.33	7900	2-Methyl-4-nitrophenol
154.0164	C ₆ H ₅ NO ₄	-11.95	10.46	2700	Nitroguaiacol
157.052	C ₇ H ₁₀ O ₄	-8.5	6.32	2900	Heptenedioic acid*
157.053	C ₇ H ₁₀ O ₄	-14.71	5.22	1100	Heptenedioic acid*
159.0676	C ₇ H ₁₂ O ₄	-8.35	10.79	1400	Pimelic acid
163.0416	C ₆ H ₈ O ₃	-9.22	12.63	1100	Previously identified (Desyaterik et al., 2013)
165.0205	C ₆ H ₆ O ₄	-7.2	10.13	31 300	Phthalic acid
165.0211	C ₆ H ₆ O ₄	-11.59	12.06	2300	Benzenedicarboxylic acid
166.0525	C ₈ H ₉ NO ₃	-8.98	23.61	3000	Dimethyl-nitrophenol
171.0673	C ₈ H ₁₂ O ₄	-5.88	8.33	2900	Octenedioic acid*
171.0683	C ₈ H ₁₂ O ₄	-11.71	6.95	1700	Octenedioic acid*
171.9831				19.71	2700
173.0467	C ₇ H ₁₀ O ₅	-6.39	4.22	3200	Isoprene photooxidation product (Nguyen et al., 2011)
179.0368	C ₉ H ₈ O ₄	-10.26	15.23	3700	Phthalic acid, methyl ester
181.0162	C ₈ H ₆ O ₅	-11.01	5.65	1300	Hydroxy-benzene-dicarboxylic acid*
181.0162	C ₈ H ₆ O ₅	-10.71	8.81	1200	Hydroxy-benzene-dicarboxylic acid*
181.019	C ₅ H ₁₀ O ₅ S	-8.7	2.82	1900	Previously identified (Nguyen et al., 2014a)

Table 2. Continued.

m/z^-	Formula (M)	Difference (ppm)	t_R (min)	Abund. (a.u.)	Possible identification
182.0117	C ₇ H ₇ NO ₅	-11.77	18.75	990	Carboxy-nitrophenol
182.9989	C ₈ H ₆ O ₅ S	-10.81	1.92	6700	
183.0065	C ₆ H ₄ N ₂ O ₅	-9.43	15.08	11 000	2,4-Dinitrophenol
185.0833	C ₆ H ₁₄ O ₄	-7.62	13.54	2300	Pinic acid*
185.0841	C ₇ H ₁₄ O ₄	-11.55	9.70	2000	Nonenedioic acid*
187.0631	C ₈ H ₁₂ O ₅	-10.1	5.10	1200	Alpha-pinene oxidation product (Claeys et al., 2009)*
187.0635	C ₈ H ₁₂ O ₅	-12.35	7.76	1600	Alpha-pinene oxidation product*
189.078	C ₈ H ₁₄ O ₅	-6.03	6.54	1300	Diaterpenylic acid; known oxidation product of alpha-pinene (Yasmeen et al., 2010)
195.0343	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₅ S	-5.4	6.17	1200	
195.0347	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₅ S	-7.33	7.00	2000	
197.0216	C ₇ H ₈ N ₂ O ₅	-5.87	21.23	1300	Methyl-dinitrophenol
201.0788	C ₉ H ₁₄ O ₅	-9.87	10.74	1200	Alpha-pinene oxidation product (Kahnt et al., 2013)
203.0582	C ₈ H ₁₂ O ₆	-10.03	8.75	2300	Methyl-butane-tricarboxylic acid (MBTCA); gas-phase pinonic acid oxidation product (Szmigielski et al., 2007b)
211.0305	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆ S	-11.1	7.40	1300	
211.0306	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆ S	-11.09	6.86	1200	
211.031	C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆ S	-13.18	9.40	3000	
225.0093	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₇ S	-8.16	2.50	2300	Methylglyoxal oxidation product (Sareen et al., 2010)
228.0214	C ₈ H ₇ NO ₇	-28.14	12.97	900	Oxygenated nitrophenol
239.0249	C ₇ H ₁₂ O ₇ S	-7.57	4.10	1200	1,3,5-trimethylbenzene oxidation product (Praplan et al., 2014)
239.0482			21.56	3500	
241.0048	C ₆ H ₁₀ O ₆ S	-9.92	2.18	2800	
253.0419	C ₈ H ₁₄ O ₇ S	-9.69	7.59	800	Limonene oxidation product (Nguyen et al., 2014a; Surratt et al., 2008)*
267.0567	C ₉ H ₁₆ O ₇ S	-8.69	10.55	1800	Limonene oxidation product (Nguyen et al., 2014; Mazzoleni et al., 2010)*
267.0576	C ₉ H ₁₆ O ₇ S	-12.47	10.85	600	Limonene oxidation product (Nguyen et al., 2014; Mazzoleni et al., 2010)*
267.0579	C ₉ H ₁₆ O ₇ S	-12.94	9.92	850	Limonene oxidation product (Nguyen et al., 2014; Mazzoleni et al., 2010)*
267.0579	C ₉ H ₁₆ O ₇ S	-13.64	11.00	500	Limonene oxidation product (Nguyen et al., 2014; Mazzoleni et al., 2010)*
269.0363	C ₉ H ₁₄ O ₆ S	-9.98	7.44	500	
284.0473	C ₁₁ H ₁₁ NO ₃	-21.51	14.96	600	
294.0677	C ₁₀ H ₁₇ NO ₇ S	-8.07	24.87	7800	Monoterpene oxidation product (Surratt et al., 2008)*
294.068	C ₁₀ H ₁₇ NO ₇ S	-9.2	26.71	7600	Monoterpene oxidation product*
297.0601	e.g., C ₁₇ H ₁₄ O ₃ S	-10.86	8.87	700	
310.0631	C ₁₀ H ₁₇ NO ₈ S	-9.35	19.56	600	Monoterpene oxidation product (Mazzoleni et al., 2010; Surratt et al., 2008)*
333.0208	C ₁₄ H ₁₀ N ₂ O ₆ S	-6.23	20.65	700	
361.1649	C ₁₅ H ₂₆ N ₂ O ₈	-8.83	12.32	500	
497.3325	C ₂₃ H ₅₀ N ₂ O ₇ S	-11.74	16.74	600	
514.3221	C ₂₂ H ₄₆ N ₃ O ₈ S	-10.35	16.74	1600	
635.3506	e.g., C ₂₆ H ₅₆ N ₂ O ₁₃ S	-11.82	18.46	5900	

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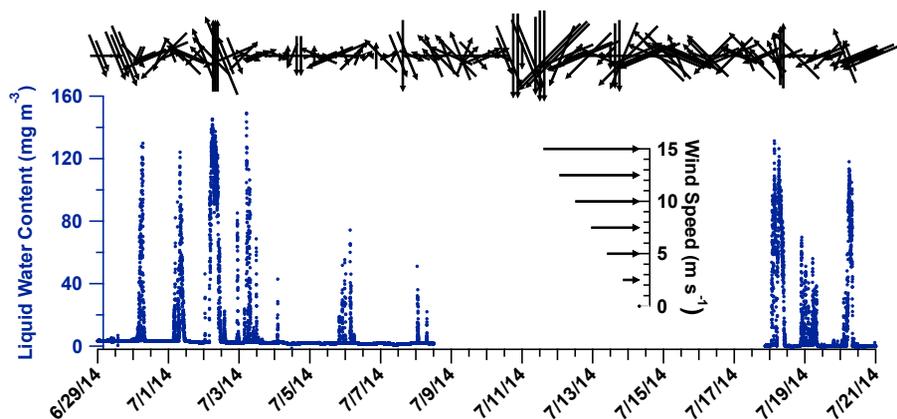


Figure 1. Wind speed and direction during fog sampling period, shown as vector arrows (top): speed is displayed as the length of each arrow and direction is displayed as tilt, pointing away from wind origin. LWC measured during the entire study period is shown in blue along the bottom of the plot. Fog was not collected in mid-July during the monsoonal period.

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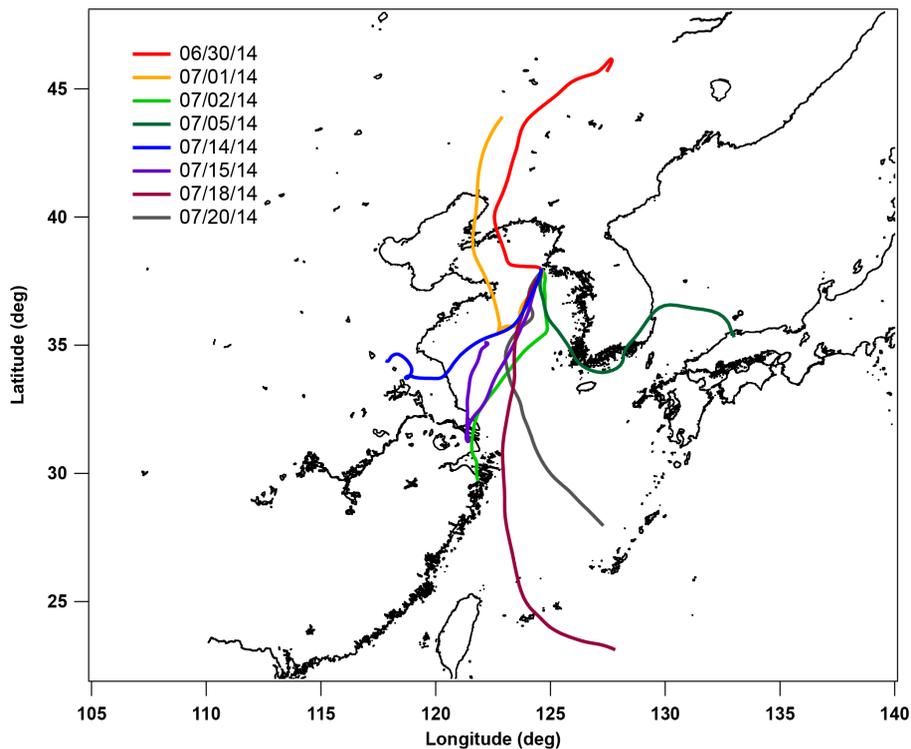


Figure 2. Back trajectories of air masses intercepted during fog events (72 h at one hour time resolution; HySPLIT). Each trajectory was initiated at the approximate beginning of a fog event.

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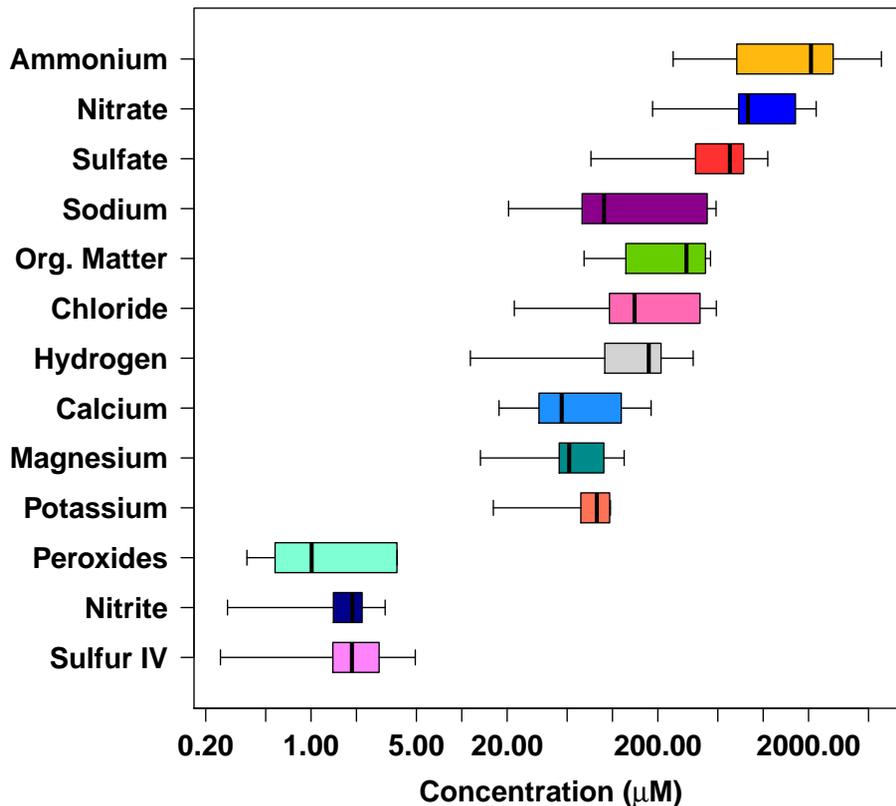


Figure 3. Concentrations of major components quantified in BYI fog samples. Boxes show 25th and 75th percentiles with the median bar in the center, and whiskers show 10th and 90th percentiles. Total organic matter was calculated from measured TOC using a ratio of 1.8 g/1.0 g OM/OC (Zhang et al., 2005) and an estimated mean molecular mass of 100 g mol^{-1} . Note that for most ions, $N = 14$, for pH, S(IV) and peroxides, $N = 11$, for formaldehyde, $N = 10$, and for total organic matter, $N = 8$.

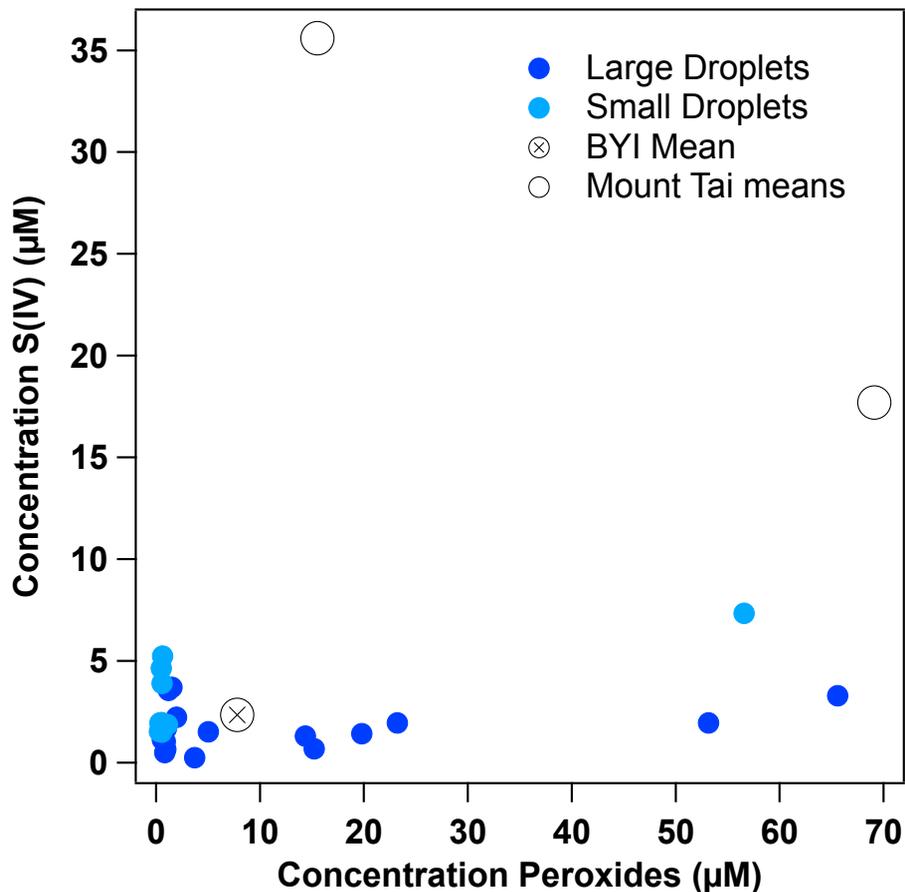


Figure 4. Droplet size-segregated concentrations of S(IV) and peroxides quantified in BYI fog samples. S(IV) concentrations were low in BYI fog as compared to those measured at Mount Tai (summer 2007 and 2008; Shen et al., 2012). For both species, $N = 11$.

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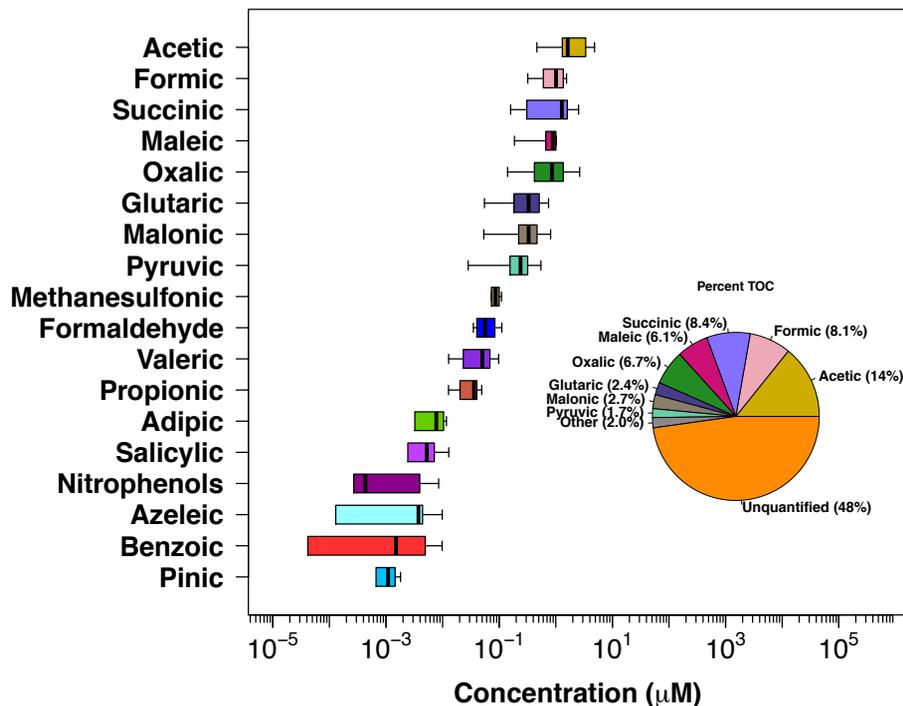


Figure 5. Concentrations of major carbonaceous components quantified in BYI fog samples. Box-and-whisker plot shows 25th and 75th percentiles with the median bar in the center, and whiskers at the 10th and 90th percentiles. Note that for C_1 – C_5 organic acids, $N = 11$, for formaldehyde, $N = 10$, and for components with C_6 or greater, $N = 11$. Pie chart shows carbonaceous composition as a percentage of TOC (only those samples with results from all organic analyses included, $N = 7$).

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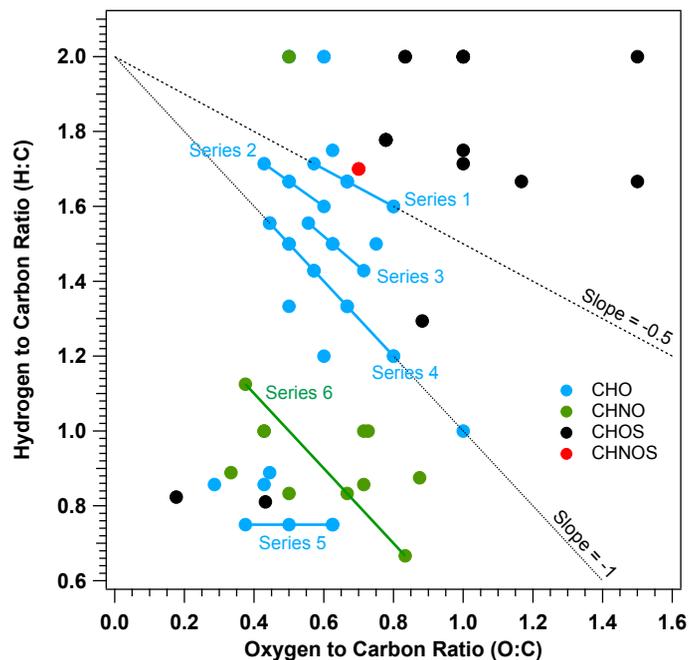


Figure 6. Polar organic compounds identified within fog samples using HPLC(-)-ESI-HR-ToF-MS detection illustrated via a van Krevelen diagram. Colors represent groupings of compounds by elemental composition; solid lines show homologous series of di-carboxylic acids (blue, series 1–5) and nitrophenols (green, series 6); dashed grey lines show slopes typical of samples in previous studies (Chen et al., 2015) of -0.5 for remote/rural (top) and -1 for urban (bottom).

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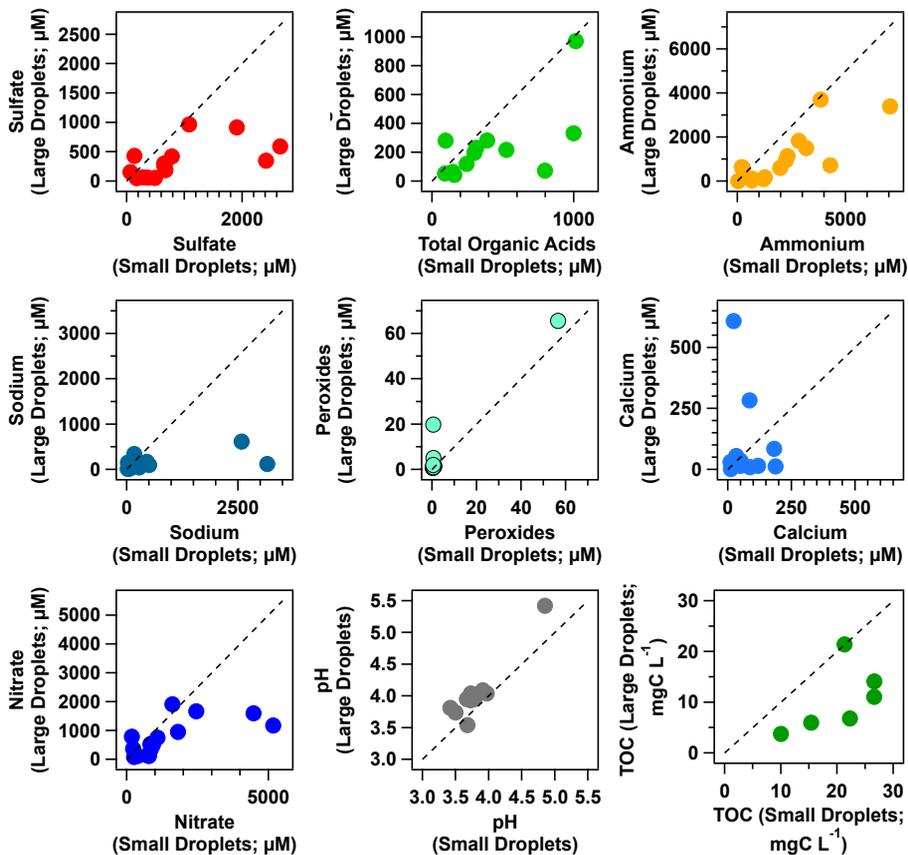


Figure 7. Scatter plots showing size distribution of major species in BYI fog water samples. All species shown, with the exception of peroxides, were enriched in small droplets.

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