

Response to the Comments of Referee #3

General comment:

The manuscript presents the concentrations of size resolved organic and inorganic compounds in aerosols collected at a sampling site located in Okinawa Island, Japan. The aerosol data in the region is rare so the data presented here is useful to the readers of ACP. The chemical analysis appears to be performed well, however, the conclusions drawn from the data are often speculative. I listed a series of specific comments that I would like the authors to address before it can be recommended for the publication in ACP.

Response: We thank the reviewer's careful reading and important comments, based on which we tried to improve the quality of our manuscript as below.

Specific comments:

The authors use seven day back trajectories to identify the source regions of air masses, and attributed the origins of organic and inorganic species to the continental Asia. How did the precipitation affect the transport of these species? Were all seven days unaffected by precipitation events? This needs to be discussed in the revised manuscript.

Response: We agree with the referee's comment that precipitation event can affect the transport of pollutants. However, the precipitation event occurred occasionally during the sampling period in Okinawa. The total amount of precipitation was found to be 8.5 mm on March 22 for the sample OKI-1, 9.5 mm on March 25 for the sample OKI-2, 38 mm on March 30 for the sample OKI-3, 18 mm on April 03 and April 06 for the sample OKI-4 and 28 mm on April 13 for the sample OKI-5. We tried to get the satellite image of daily precipitation data for the source region. However, we did not find the daily precipitation map for the source region. Therefore, we downloaded the precipitation anomalies for March and April 2008 as the collection of aerosol samples in Okinawa was performed during 18 March to 13 April 2008.

The global map of precipitation data obtained from the website: [http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/temp-and-precip/global-maps/200803?products\[\]=map-prcp](http://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/temp-and-precip/global-maps/200803?products[]=map-prcp) for March and April 2008, which is shown below, also shows very small precipitation in the source region such as China and Mongolia as well as Siberia. These points were briefly added in the revised MS as follows.

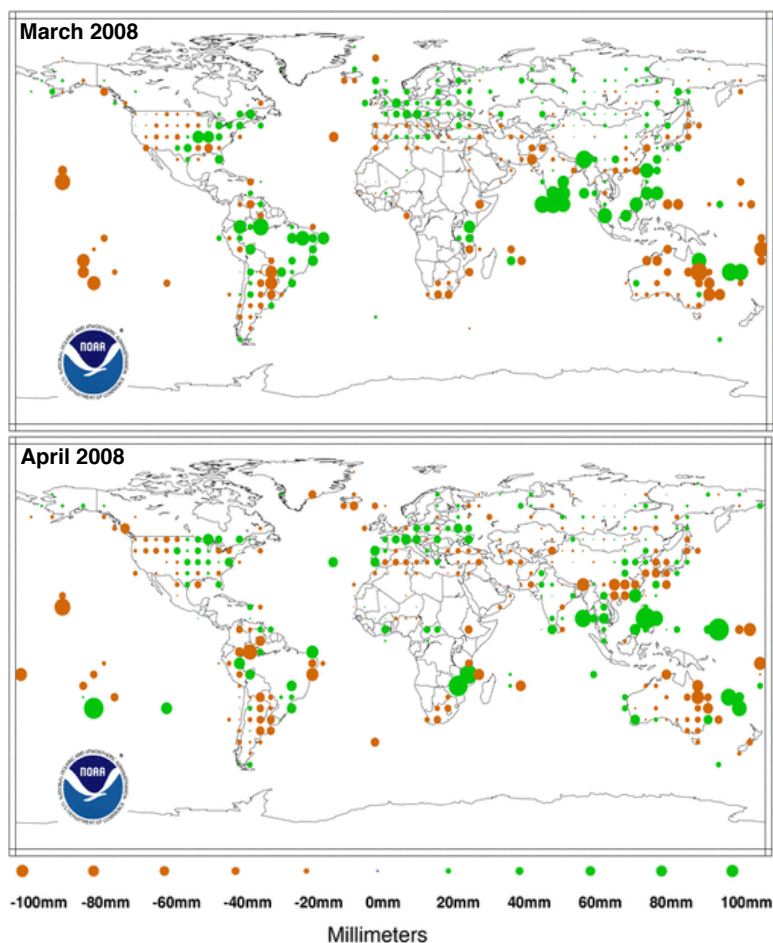
“The precipitation event occurred occasionally during the campaign with the total amounts of 8.5 mm on March 22 for OKI-1, 9.5 mm on March 25 for OKI-2, 38 mm on March 30 for OKI-3, 18 mm on April 03 and April 06 for OKI-4 and 28 mm on April 13 for OKI-5 sample set.”

Please see lines 161-164 in the revised MS.

“The scavenging of aerosols by precipitation that could result in lower concentrations of aerosol particles in Okinawa might be insignificant during the sampling periods.”

Please see lines 192-193 in the revised MS.

Precipitation Anomalies
National Climatic Data Center/NESDIS/NOAA



Pp. 26517 line 22: Phthalate plasticizers may also be emitted from various plastics used in the heavily populated or industrialized regions in China and transported to Okinawa.

Response: Thank you for the important comment. We added following sentences in the revised MS.

“Moreover, the abundant presence of Ph may also be caused by enhanced emission of phthalates from plastics used in heavily populated and industrialized regions in China and the subsequent long-range atmospheric transport to Okinawa. Phthalic acid esters are used as plasticizers in resins and polymers (Simoneit et al., 2005). They can be released into the air by evaporation because they are not chemically bonded to the polymer.” Please see lines 230-234 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26519 line 19: Can the authors exclude the contribution of local limestone dust here? As far as I know, the islands of Okinawa are largely made of limestone that originates from coral. This should be discussed here.

Response: After a review on the literature about limestone dust in Okinawa (Shimada et al., 2015), we found that there is a contribution of local limestone dust in addition to long-range transport from Siberia and Mongolia. However, as shown in Figure 5c, Ca^{2+} showed coarse mode peak in smaller size range either at 2.1-3.3 μm or 3.3-4.7 μm and thus the contribution of local dust to the coarse mode Ca^{2+} in Okinawa may be small. The recent study of Bien et al. (2014) suggested that that Ca^{2+} is mostly associated with upper coarse mode size range of $D_p > 7.0 \mu\text{m}$ when the contribution of locally produced dust is significant. Hence, we have added following sentences in the revised MS.

“There is natural limestone caves formed by elevating coral reefs in Okinawa Island. Although local limestone dust may also be re-suspended to the atmosphere by wind (Shimada et al., 2015), the contribution of local dust to the Ca^{2+} concentration in Okinawa may be small. This interpretation

can be supported by the fact that the peak of Ca^{2+} was appeared in lower coarse size range of 2.1-3.3 or 3.3-4.7 μm . It has been suggested that Ca^{2+} is likely associated with the upper coarse size range when the contribution of locally produced soil particles is significant (Bian et al., 2014). The smaller coarse mode Ca^{2+} is likely associated with long-range transported Asian dust to Okinawa. Moreover, concentrations of Ca^{2+} in coarse mode were found to be much higher in OKI-1 ($0.51 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and OKI-2 ($0.60 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) than that in OKI-5 sample ($0.15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). Backward trajectories also indicated that the air masses originated from Mongolia and Siberia are transported to Okinawa during the collection of OKI-1 and OKI-2 samples whereas OKI-5 sample has an influence of marine air masses.”

Please see lines 279-290 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26521 line 28: The uptake coefficient of SO_2 to an aqueous particle depends strongly on a pH value the particle as well. Have the authors determined the pH value of the particles in this range? If so, is it acidic, neutral or basic? This needs to be included in the discussion.

Response: Unfortunately, we do not have the pH data of the water extracts of size-segregated aerosols. Moreover, indirect proxies are commonly used to represent the acidic or alkaline nature of particle. The most frequently used proxy is the “ion balance”. Average equivalent ratios of total cations to anions in fine mode varied from 0.75 for the size bin of 0.65-1.1 μm to 0.84 for the size bin of 0.43-0.65 μm . This result indicates that fine mode of Okinawa aerosols was apparently acidic.

However, we also agree with the Referee #2 comments that high LWC at 0.65-1.1 μm and high correlation (0.92) of LWC with SO_4^{2-} owing to the fact that the calculated LWC is based on the abundant presence of SO_4^{2-} in fine mode. Therefore, the sentences “The high LWC at 0.65-1.1 μmin fine mode” have been deleted and the correction has been made accordingly as follows.

“High correlation of LWC was found with SO_4^{2-} ($r = 0.92$) in fine mode. This result suggests that the enrichment of SO_4^{2-} in fine mode enhanced the LWC in fine mode of Okinawa aerosols.”

Please see lines 355-357 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26522 line 3: Why should the size distribution of MSA be the reason for the contribution of DMS oxidation to the formation of sulfate during the long range transport? How have the authors excluded the contribution of local DMS emission sources? A better explanation is necessary here.

Response: Based on the comment, we rewrote the sentences as follows.

“Size distribution of methanesulfonate (MSA^-) is similar to that of SO_4^{2-} (Figure 5i) in Okinawa. MSA^- showed a strong correlation with SO_4^{2-} ($r = 0.89$) in fine mode, suggesting that MSA^- should have similar origin with SO_4^{2-} in fine mode. Although MSA^- is believed to be produced by gas-to-particle conversion via the oxidation of dimethyl sulfide (DMS) emitted from the ocean (Quinn et al., 1993; Kerminen et al., 1997b), there is some indirect evidence that liquid-phase production might also be possible (Jefferson et al., 1998). Biomass burning also produces DMS in the atmosphere (Meinardi et al., 2003; Geng and Mu, 2006). MSA^- showed high correlation with K^+ or NH_4^+ ($r = 0.92$) in fine mode, indicating that the enhanced emission of DMS from biomass burning followed by the subsequent oxidation during long-range transport may have contributed significantly to the fine mode MSA in Okinawa. Moreover, MSA^- can also be produced in fine mode by the oxidation of DMS that is emitted from marine phytoplankton in the surrounding ocean. It is noteworthy that East Asian aerosols also travelled over the marine regions including the East China Sea, Sea of Japan and Pacific Ocean during long-range atmospheric transport.”

Please see lines 358-370 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26522 line 10 onwards: I think this section needs to be written in a better way. The uptake of gas-phase NH_3 to form particle-phase NH_4^+ is not affected by the presence of SO_4^{2-} , rather the pH value of the particle-phase. When the counter ions other than H^+ are present in the particles, NH_4^+ is very unlikely to be present unless $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ is thermodynamically favorable. What the authors

meant here is most likely that acidic sulfate can form from the oxidation of gas-phase SO₂, leading to nucleating particles. The uptake of ammonia neutralized freshly nucleating particles, forming ammonium sulfate, and this is thermodynamically more stable than, for example, ammonium nitrate.

Response: Following the suggestions, we revised the text as follows.

“NH₄⁺ in the Okinawa aerosols shows a unimodal size distribution with a peak at 0.65-1.1 μm (Figure 5h), indicating that NH₄⁺ is mainly formed by gas-to-particle conversion via the reaction with H₂SO₄ and HNO₃. Interestingly, the size distribution of NH₄⁺ is similar to that of SO₄²⁻ and diacids such as oxalic acid (Figure 5g and 7a). We also found a strong correlation between SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ on the fine mode ($r = 0.99$).”

Please see lines 374-378 in the revised MS.

“NH₃ is an alkaline gas that neutralizes the acidic particles in the atmosphere. Kerminen et al. (1997a) proposed that particulate NH₄⁺ is secondarily formed via heterogeneous reactions of gaseous NH₃ with acidic species (H₂SO₄ and HNO₃). The reaction of NH₃ with H₂SO₄ is favored over its reaction with HNO₃. The average NH₄⁺/SO₄²⁻ equivalent ratios in fine mode particles in Okinawa varied from 0.36 for the size bin of 1.1-2.1 μm to 0.81 for the size bin of 0.43-0.65 μm, indicating that NH₃ was not abundant enough to neutralize all SO₂ and hence H₂SO₄ and NH₄SO₄ were present in addition to (NH₄)₂SO₄ in fine mode.”

Please see lines 383-389 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26522 line 21: What do the authors mean by heterogeneous reactions? Do the authors mean the reactive uptake?

Response: Following the comment, we rephrase the text as follows.

“It is notable that higher LWC in fine mode can influence the SOA formation via gas to particle conversion of organic precursors via reactive uptake on aerosols.”

Please see lines 406-408 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26522 line 26: What is the excess amount of ammonium over sulfate? What does ISORROPIA II tell about the composition of particles? Is excess ammonium significant enough to produce ammonium oxalate?

Response: Referee #2 also commented on this issue. we calculated the equivalent ratio of NH₄⁺/SO₄²⁻ in size-segregated aerosols to evaluate the excess amount of NH₃ that can react with oxalic acid (C₂) to form ammonium oxalate in fine fraction of Okinawa. The equivalent ratio of NH₄⁺/SO₄²⁻ varied from 0.36 for the size bin of 1.1-2.1 μm to 0.81 for the size bin of 0.43-0.65 μm in fine mode. These values suggest that NH₃ was not sufficient to neutralize all SO₂ and hence there was no NH₃ to further react with C₂ to form ammonium oxalate in fine mode. Therefore, the sentences “The occurrence of ammonium oxalate.....biomass burning aerosols” has been deleted in the revised MS.

ISORROPIA II gives the equilibrium concentration of chemical composition in the gas-phase, solid-phase and liquid-phase. We used ISORROPIA II to estimate liquid water content (LWC) in size-segregated aerosols. However, the significant positive correlation between C₂ and NH₄⁺ ($r = 0.89$) in fine fraction suggested that C₂ is also a secondary photochemical product. This point has been mentioned in the revised MS.

Please see line 502-503 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26523 line 11: What do the authors mean by primary combustion products? Do they originate from internal combustion engines or biomass burning? The former is unlikely to produce a large amount of WSOC.

Response: To avoid any confusion, we have re-written the sentence as “Huang et al. (2006) observed that fine mode WSOC was primarily derived from combustion sources and secondarily

produced in the atmosphere by the photochemical oxidation of VOCs.”

Please see lines 411-413 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26524 line 3: In what way do the fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning in East Asia influence the climate over the western North Pacific? Do the authors mean direct forcing or indirect forcing? The term climate means the statistics of the weather conditions over 30 years. Can the author really indicate their influence on the climate from this data? The authors should be more specific about the mechanisms impacting the climate over the region.

Response: Following the comment, we have revised the content as follows.

“Because WSOC is an important fraction of OC in Okinawa aerosols, high loadings of WSOC in aerosols of continental air mass origin suggest that both fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning in East Asia may have a significant influence on the composition of water-soluble organic aerosols over the western North Pacific Rim.”

Please see lines 428-431 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26524 line 3: How do the authors know that it is formed in cloud processing? Did the air masses collected at the sampling site pass through clouds? Can the authors provide evidence for this - e.g. satellite images and back trajectory data with vertical profiles?

Response: Following the comment, we modified the sentences as below.

“Primary emission from fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning and secondary production from photooxidation of VOCs are considered to be the major sources of OC in atmospheric aerosols (Aggarwal and Kawamura, 2009; Jung et al., 2010). Primary emission from biomass burning or photooxidation of biomass burning derived precursors might be a dominant source of fine mode OC in Okinawa aerosols. This interpretation is supported by the fact that OC showed strong correlation ($r = 0.95$) with K^+ in fine mode. The fine mode OC showed significant positive correlations with SO_4^{2-} ($r = 0.93$) and NH_4^+ ($r = 0.91$), suggesting secondary photochemical formation characteristics of OC in fine mode in Okinawa.”

Please see lines 434-441 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26524 line 18: Why should the smaller particles be subjected to more intensive photochemical oxidation than the larger particles? Please add an explanation for this here.

Response: We modified the sentences as follows.

“Source contributions and secondary processes that may convert VOCs to a more soluble form and surface area of fine particles could cause the higher WSOC/OC ratios in fine mode. Biomass burning-derived OC is highly water-soluble and usually resides in fine mode whereas coarse mode OC contains high molecular weight organic compounds emitted by soil resuspension and emissions of pollens and fungal spores, which are less water-soluble (Wang et al., 2011; Mkoma et al., 2013). Biomass burning significantly contributed to fine mode WSOC in Okinawa and thus WSOC is secondarily produced from oxidation of biomass burning-derived VOCs (Kundu et al., 2010). However, the primary emission of fine mode WSOC from biomass burning could not be excluded. Moreover, accumulation of gas-phase precursors of WSOC may occur preferentially in the particle size with the greatest surface area (Kanakidou et al., 2005). It has been proposed that fine particles offer more surface area and thus reaction rate is more on the surface of fine particles than the coarse particles (Kanakidou et al., 2005). The higher WSOC/OC ratio in fine particles than coarse particles has also been observed in long-range transported East Asian aerosols over Northern Japan (Agarwal et al., 2010).”

Please see lines 450-463 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26524 line 22: Here, correlation does not imply causation. How do the author know the fractions of the WSOC produced in the aqueous phase reactions and WSOC partitioned into the particle phase? Why should the aqueous phase oxidation be more important than the gas-phase oxidation? Can the authors comment on this in the manuscript?

Response: Please note that concentration of WSOC is not included in ISORROPIA II model for the estimation of LWC. LWC calculated using ISORROPIA II in our study is independent of WSOC. Therefore, we believe that the correlation between LWC and WSOC/OC ratio can give some information about the possible aqueous-phase production of WSOC from OC during long-range transport. However, the actual observation of LWC for the aerosol samples, as suggested by referee #2, is not possible at this stage. Therefore, we rephrased the text and included other possibilities for the production of WSOC in fine mode as follows.

“WSOC also contribute to aerosol LWC although their ability to absorb water is significantly less than that of inorganics (Ansari and Pandis, 2000). Speer et al. (2003) and Engelhart et al. (2011) also noted that inorganic aerosols are associated with 62-80% of aerosol LWC. Moreover, organic species are not taken into account in ISORROPIA II for the calculation of LWC. It is noteworthy that WSOC/OC ratio and LWC significantly correlate in the fine mode with $r = 0.87$ whereas the negative correlation was found in the coarse mode ($r = -0.19$), suggesting the possibility of photochemical production of WSOC from OC in aerosol aqueous-phase in fine mode of Okinawa aerosols. There may also be other important sources of fine mode WSOC in Okinawa aerosols such as primary emission from biomass burning and secondary formation via gas-phase photochemical reactions during long-range atmospheric transport (Hagler et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2010). The strong correlation of WSOC with K^+ in fine mode suggests a substantial contribution of biomass burning to fine mode WSOC in Okinawa aerosols.”

Please see lines 464-475 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26525 line 16: Can the authors comment on the formation mechanisms of C₂ diacid in the gas-phase in the manuscript? Isn't it more likely that they are produced in the aqueous-phase? This also contradicts with the sentence (Pp. 26524 line 22) that the aqueous phase oxidation is favorable for the formation of WSOC. The C₂ diacid is often the most abundant single polar organic compound, so if they are produced in the gas-phase the aqueous phase reactions may not be so important.

Response: Following the referee's comments, we have revised the sentences as follows.

“The condensation mode of C₂ is likely produced photochemically in the gas-phase followed by condensation onto pre-existing particles at 0.1-0.5 μm (Huang et al., 2006). In the atmosphere, the gas-phase oxidation of isoprene, toluene and ethene leads to the formation of semi-volatile gaseous organic precursors such as Gly and MeGly, which are subsequently participated in aqueous-phase photochemical reaction to result in C₂ diacid (Carlton et al. 2006, 2007; Legrand et al. 2007). The fine mode peak of C₂ at the size of 0.65-1.1 μm in Okinawa aerosols suggests a preferential production of C₂ via the oxidation of precursors in the aerosol aqueous-phase during long-range atmospheric transport.”

Please see lines 493-500 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26525 line 19: Here, the authors contradict the paragraph above. Is it formed from the oxidation of gas-phase precursor compounds or cloud processing of precursor compounds? Do the authors mean the oxidation of VOCs leading to C₂ diacid precursors? Then the precursors partition into an aqueous droplet, and subsequent aqueous phase oxidation forms the C₂ diacid.

Response: We have revised the sentence as follows.

“We found that size distribution of C₂ diacid is similar to that of SO₄²⁻ (Figure 5g and 7a), suggesting a secondary formation of C₂ possibly in aerosol aqueous-phase.”

Please see lines 500-501 in the revised MS.

Pp. 26526 line 8: The authors repeatedly indicate the higher LWC is related to more pronounced formation of C₂ diacid in the aqueous phase. I am not convinced by this explanation. What matters for their formation in the particle phase is not absolute LWC in the particle, rather the activities of precursor compounds in relation to those of oxidants. Circumstantial evidence is not sufficient to conclude that the higher LWC favors the formation of diacids in the particles.

Response: Laboratory experiments have proposed the formation of C₂ by aqueous-phase oxidation

of precursors such as shorter-chain diacids (C_3 - C_5) as well as ω -oxoacids (ωC_2) and α -dicarbonyls (Gly and MeGly) (Ervens and Volkamer, 2010, Pavuluri et al., 2015). One interesting finding in our study is that the precursors of C_2 (C_3 - C_5 diacids, ωC_2 and Gly) in Okinawa aerosols are also enriched in fine mode and showed high correlation with LWC. These results indicate that the enrichment of C_2 precursors and presence of LWC in fine mode favors to produce C_2 in fine mode in Okinawa. Therefore, we have revised the text and added some new sentences in the revised MS as follows.

“LWC of a particle can influence the production of C_2 via the changes in gas/particle partitioning of gaseous organic precursors and subsequent heterogeneous reaction in aerosol aqueous-phase.” Please see lines 515-517.

“A strong positive correlation ($r = 0.92$) of C_2 with LWC was found in fine mode. This result supports the possibility of aqueous phase production of C_2 via the oxidation of C_2 precursors in fine mode of Okinawa aerosols.” Please see lines 518-521.

“This result is further supported by the fact that C_3 - C_5 diacids were also enriched in the fine mode (Figure 7b-d) and showed good correlations with LWC ($r = 0.82$ - 0.89) possibly due to the enhanced secondary production from oxidation of its precursor compounds in aerosol aqueous-phase.” Please see lines 524-527.

“It is noteworthy that ωC_2 and Gly are also enriched in fine mode in Okinawa aerosols.” Please see lines 533-534.

Pp. 26526 line 15: This is only one way to produce C_2 diacid. Their good correlations do not necessarily indicate that C_2 diacid is formed from C_3 - C_5 diacids. It is also plausible that they all originate from the photooxidation of a mixture of VOCs during transport.

Response: Based on the comment, we added a new sentence as follows.

“ C_2 can also be produced by gas-phase oxidation of various VOCs including toluene, ethene and isoprene followed by subsequent oxidation in aerosol aqueous-phase during long-range atmospheric transport (Legrand et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2005).” Please see lines 527-529.

Pp. 26529 to pp. 26533 line 3: I found this section quite repetitive and tedious to read. I suggest the authors to discuss compounds that are formed from the same mechanisms instead of compound classes. The authors do not need to address every single compound in the text. Instead, the authors can summarize the compounds that form from the same mechanism in a table, and discuss only about most interesting compound(s) in the text.

Response: Thank you for your suggestion. However, we acknowledge that the data on size distribution of ω -oxoacids, pyruvic acid and α -dicarbonyls are sparse in the literature. ω -Oxoacids (ωC_2 - ωC_9) and α -dicarbonyls (Gly and MeGly) are important precursor of diacids in atmospheric aerosols. Therefore, their size distributions can give information about their sources and formation processes in the atmosphere.

We detected four ω -oxoacids (Table 2) in size-segregated samples. However, we have discussed the size distributions of ωC_2 and ωC_9 in the text because the size distribution of ωC_2 is similar to that of C_2 whereas ωC_9 showed size distribution similar to that of C_9 . This result suggests that ωC_2 is an important precursor of C_2 whereas ωC_9 is important for C_9 diacid in Okinawa.

We measured Gly and MeGly, which are smallest α -dicarbonyls and crucial SOA precursor because they are highly water-soluble and reactive to OH radical. Gly peaked in the fine mode whereas MeGly showed peaks in both fine and coarse modes. This result indicated their different sources and formation processes in Okinawa. Interestingly, size distribution of pyruvic acid is similar to that of MeGly, indicating their similar sources in Okinawa aerosols. Several studies suggested that Pyr is produced via the aqueous-phase oxidation of MeGly that is a gas-phase oxidation product of isoprene emitted from the ocean surface. Gly and MeGly are important precursors of C_2 diacid in aqueous-phase. Therefore, the size distributions of Gly and MeGly can

influence the size distribution of C₂ in the atmosphere.

Based on these results, we strongly believe that the discussion on sources and formation processes of these compounds via investigating their size distributions would be useful to the readers of “Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics” and also very important to the research community for future studies.

However, following the referee’s comments, we decided to delete two sentences: “A bimodal size distribution of 4-oxobutanoic acid.....on sea salt particles” and “Soil dust or sea salt particles.....diameter greater than 2.1 μm (Fig. 5a-c)” in the revised MS.

1 **Dicarboxylic acids, oxoacids, benzoic acid, α -dicarbonyls, WSOC, OC, and ions in spring**
2 **aerosols from Okinawa Island in the western North Pacific Rim: Size distributions and**
3 **formation processes**

4 **D. K. Deshmukh¹, K. Kawamura^{1*}, M. Lazaar^{1,2}, B. Kunwar¹, and S. K. R. Boreddy¹**

5 ¹**Institute of Low Temperature Science, Hokkaido University, Sapporo 060-0819, Japan**

6 ²**Ecole National Supérieure de Chimie de Rennes (ENSCR), Rennes 35708, France**

7 *Corresponding author

8 E-mail address: kawamura@lowtem.hokudai.ac.jp

9 Abstract

10 Size-segregated aerosols (9-stages from <0.43 to >11.3 μm in diameter) were collected at Cape
11 Hedo, Okinawa in spring 2008 and analyzed for water-soluble diacids ($\text{C}_2\text{-C}_{12}$), ω -oxoacids ($\omega\text{C}_2\text{-}$
12 ωC_9), pyruvic acid, benzoic acid and α -dicarbonyls ($\text{C}_2\text{-C}_3$) as well as water-soluble organic carbon
13 (WSOC), organic carbon (OC) and major ions (Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , Cl^- , NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , and
14 MSA^-). In all the size-segregated aerosols, oxalic acid (C_2) was found as the most abundant species
15 followed by malonic and succinic acids whereas glyoxylic acid (ωC_2) was the dominant oxoacid
16 and glyoxal (Gly) was more abundant than methylglyoxal. Diacids ($\text{C}_2\text{-C}_5$), ωC_2 and Gly as well as
17 WSOC and OC peaked at $0.65\text{-}1.1$ μm in fine mode whereas azelaic (C_9) and 9-oxononanoic (ωC_9)
18 acids peaked at $3.3\text{-}4.7$ μm in coarse mode. Sulfate and ammonium are enriched in fine mode
19 whereas sodium and chloride are in coarse mode. Strong correlations of $\text{C}_2\text{-C}_5$ diacids, ωC_2 and Gly
20 with sulfate were observed in fine mode ($r = 0.86\text{-}0.99$), indicating a commonality in their
21 secondary formation. Their significant correlations with liquid water content in fine mode ($r = 0.82\text{-}$
22 0.95) further suggest an importance of the aqueous-phase production in Okinawa aerosols. They
23 may have also been directly emitted from biomass burning in fine mode as suggested by strong
24 correlations with potassium ($r = 0.85\text{-}0.96$), which is a tracer of biomass burning. The coarse mode
25 peaks of malonic and succinic acids were obtained in the samples with marine air masses,
26 suggesting that they may be associated with the reaction on sea salt particles. Bimodal size
27 distributions of longer-chain diacid (C_9) and oxoacid (ωC_9) with a major peak in the coarse mode
28 suggest their production by photooxidation of biogenic unsaturated fatty acids via heterogeneous
29 reactions on sea salt particles.

30 **Keywords:** Water-soluble organic species, ions, size-segregated aerosols, unimodal distribution,
31 bimodal distribution, secondary aerosols.

32 **1 Introduction**

33 Tropospheric aerosol is an important environmental issue because it can dramatically reduce the
34 visibility (Jacobson et al., 2000; Kanakidou et al., 2005), affect the radiative forcing of climate
35 (Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998), and cause a negative impact on human health (Pope and Dockery,
36 2006). All of these effects strongly depend on the abundances of aerosols and their chemical and
37 physical properties in different sizes. Particles in diameter of 0.1-1.0 μm are very active in
38 scattering and absorbing incoming solar radiation and have a direct impact on climate (Ramanathan
39 et al., 2001; Seinfeld and Pankow, 2003). The knowledge of size distributions of chemical
40 components is thus essential to better understand their potential contributions to climate change and
41 pollution control. Their size distribution also provides evidences for the sources and formation
42 pathways of the atmospheric particles.

43 The emission sources and multiple secondary formation pathways of organic aerosols are not
44 well understood. Organic compounds account for up to 70% of fine aerosol mass and potentially
45 control the physicochemical properties of aerosol particles (Davidson et al., 2005; Kanakidou et al.,
46 2005). Low-molecular-weight diacids are one of the most abundant organic compound classes in
47 the atmosphere (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993; Kawamura et al., 1996). They are primarily
48 derived from incomplete combustion of fossil fuel and biomass burning (Kawamura and Kaplan,
49 1987; Falkovich et al., 2005), and secondarily produced in the atmosphere via photooxidation of
50 unsaturated fatty acids and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) from biogenic and anthropogenic
51 sources (Kawamura and Gagosian, 1987; Kawamura et al., 1996; Sempéré and Kawamura, 2003).
52 The ability of organic aerosols to act as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) seems to be closely
53 related to their mass-based size distributions (Pradeep Kumar et al., 2003; Ervens et al., 2007).

54 The increasing atmospheric burden of organic aerosols is associated with natural and
55 anthropogenic emissions in the continental regions. Organic aerosols are eventually transported to
56 the oceanic regions. The rapid industrialization in East Asia is expected to have important
57 influences on global atmospheric chemistry over the next decades (Wang et al., 2013; Tao et al.,
58 2013; Bian et al., 2014). Large amounts of coal burning and biomass burning in East Asia add more
59 anthropogenic aerosols altering the aerosol chemical composition in the remote Pacific atmosphere

60 (Mochida et al., 2007; Miyazaki et al., 2010; Agarwal et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2011; Engling et al.,
61 2013). Water-soluble diacids and related compounds as well as major ions are **previously** studied
62 for their size distributions in remote marine aerosols (Kawamura et al., 2007; Mochida et al., 2007;
63 Miyazaki et al., 2010), whereas their size-segregated characteristics have not been studied in
64 Okinawa Island.

65 We collected size-segregated aerosol samples with 9-size ranges in spring 2008 in Cape Hedo,
66 Okinawa. Cape Hedo is located on the northern edge of Okinawa Island and can serve as a suitable
67 site for the observation of atmospheric transport of East Asian aerosols with insignificant
68 interference from local emission sources (Takami et al., 2007). The samples were analyzed for
69 dicarboxylic acids (C_2 - C_{12}) and related compounds such as ω -oxoacids (ωC_2 - ωC_9) and pyruvic acid
70 (C_3) as well as α -dicarbonyls (C_2 - C_3) to better understand the sources and processing of water-
71 soluble organic compounds at this marine receptor site in the western North Pacific Rim. Size-
72 segregated samples were also analyzed for water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC), organic carbon
73 (OC), and major inorganic ions. The role of liquid water content of aerosol in the size distribution
74 of diacids and related compounds is discussed. The potential factors responsible for their size
75 distributions and the atmospheric implications of the size characteristics are also discussed.

76 **2 Materials and method**

77 **2.1 Site description and aerosol collection**

78 The geographical location of Okinawa Island (26.87°N and 128.25°E) and its surroundings in East
79 Asia are shown in Figure 1. Okinawa is located in the outflow region of **continental** aerosols and on
80 the pathways to the Pacific. Cape Hedo has been used as a supersite of Atmospheric Brown Clouds
81 project to study the atmospheric transport of Chinese aerosols and their chemical transformation
82 during long-range transport from East Asia (Takiguchi et al., 2008; Kunwar and Kawamura, 2014).
83 The sampling site at Cape Hedo is about 60 m a.s.l.

84 Size-segregated aerosol samples were collected at Cape Hedo Atmospheric and Aerosol
85 Monitoring Station (CHAAMS) in March 18 to April 13, 2008. This period is characterized by the
86 westerly wind in the lower troposphere, which is the principal process responsible for the transport

87 of both fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning aerosols in East Asia to the western North
88 Pacific. 9-Stage Andersen Middle Volume Impactor (Tokyo Dylec Company, Japan; 100 L min⁻¹)
89 was used for the collection of size-segregated samples. The sampler was equipped with quartz fiber
90 filters (QFF, 80 mm in diameter) that were pre-combusted at 450°C for 6 h in a furnace to eliminate
91 the adsorbed organic compounds. A total of five sets (OKI-1 to OKI-5) of size-segregated aerosol
92 samples were collected. Each sample set consists of nine filters for the sizes of <0.43, 0.43-0.65,
93 0.65-1.1, 1.1-2.1, 2.1-3.3, 3.3-4.7, 4.7-7.0, 7.0-11.3, and >11.3 μm. The filter was placed in a
94 preheated 50 mL glass vial with a Teflon-lined screw cap and stored in a freezer at the station. The
95 samples were stored in darkness at -20°C prior to analysis in Sapporo. One set of field blank was
96 collected by placing a pre-combusted QFF for 30s without sucking air before installing real QFF
97 into the sampler.

98 2.2 Analytical procedures

99 Diacids and related compounds were analyzed using the method reported in Kawamura and
100 Ikushima (1993), and Kawamura (1993). Aliquot of the filters were extracted with organic-free
101 ultrapure water (specific resistivity >18.2 MΩ-cm) under ultrasonication. The extracts were passed
102 through glass column packed with quartz wool to remove insoluble particles and filter debris. The
103 extracts were concentrated using a rotary evaporator under vacuum and derivatized to dibutyl esters
104 and dibutoxy acetals with 14% BF₃ in *n*-butanol at 100°C. Acetonitrile and *n*-hexane were added
105 into the derivatized sample and washed with organic-free pure water. The hexane layer was further
106 concentrated using a rotary evaporator and dried to almost dryness by N₂ blowdown and dissolve in
107 a known volume of *n*-hexane. A 2 μL aliquot of the sample was injected into a capillary GC
108 (Hewlett-Packard HP6890) equipped with an FID detector. Authentic diacid dibutyl esters were
109 used as external standards for the peak identification and quantification. Identifications of diacids
110 and related compounds were confirmed by GC-mass spectrometry. Recoveries of authentic
111 standards spiked to a pre-combusted QFF were 85% for oxalic acid (C₂) and more than 90% for
112 malonic to adipic (C₃-C₆) acids. The detection limits of diacids and related compounds were ca.
113 0.002 ng m⁻³. The analytical errors in duplicate analyses are within 10% for major species.

114 To measure water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC), a punch of 20 mm diameter of each QFF
115 was extracted with organic-free ultrapure water in a 50 mL glass vial with a Teflon-lined screw cap
116 under ultrasonication for 15 min. The water extracts were subsequently passed through a syringe
117 filter (Millex-GV, Millipore; diameter of 0.22 μm). The extract was first acidified with 1.2 M HCl
118 and purged with pure air in order to remove dissolve inorganic carbon and then WSOC was
119 measured using a total organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Shimadzu TOC-V_{CSH}) (Miyazaki et al.,
120 2011). External calibration was performed using potassium hydrogen phthalate before analysis of
121 WSOC. The sample was measured three times and the average value was used for the calculation of
122 WSOC concentrations. The analytical error in the triplicate analysis was 5% with a detection limit
123 of 0.1 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$.

124 Organic and elemental carbon (OC and EC) was determined using a Sunset Lab carbon analyzer
125 following the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) thermal
126 evolution protocol as described in detail by Wang et al. (2005a). A filter disc of 1.5 cm^2 was placed
127 in a quartz tube inside the thermal desorption chamber of the analyzer and then stepwise heating
128 was applied. Helium (He) gas is applied in the first ramp and is switched to mixture of He/O₂ in the
129 second ramp. The evolved CO₂ during the oxidation at each temperature step was measured with
130 non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) detector system. The detection limits of OC and EC were ca. 0.05
131 and 0.02 $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$, respectively. The analytical errors in the triplicate analysis of the filter sample
132 were estimated to be 5% for OC and EC. EC was detected only in fine fractions. The concentration
133 of total carbon (TC) was calculated by summing the concentrations of OC and EC in each size
134 fraction.

135 For the determination of major ions, a punch of 20 mm diameter of each filter was extracted with
136 organic-free ultrapure water under ultrasonication. These extracts were filtered through a disc filter
137 (Millex-GV, Millipore; diameter of 0.22 μm) and injected to ion chromatograph (Compact IC 761;
138 Metrohm, Switzerland) for measuring MSA^- , Cl^- , SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , and Mg^{2+}
139 (Boreddy and Kawamura, 2015). Anions were separated on a SI-90 4E Shodex column (Showa
140 Denko; Tokyo, Japan) using a mixture of 1.8 mM Na_2CO_3 and 1.7 mM NaHCO_3 solution at a flow
141 rate of 1.2 mL min^{-1} as an eluent and 40 mM H_2SO_4 for a suppressor. A Metrosep C2-150 Metrohm

142 column was used for cation analysis using a mixture of 4 mM tartaric acid and 1 mM dipicolinic
143 acid solution as an eluent at a flow rate of 1.0 mL min⁻¹. The injected loop volume was 200 µL. The
144 detection limits for anions and cations were ca. 0.1 ng m⁻³. The analytical error in duplicate analysis
145 was about 10%.

146 Field blanks were extracted and analyzed like the real samples. However, blank levels were 0.1-
147 5% of the concentrations of real samples. The reported concentrations of organic and inorganic
148 species were corrected for the field blanks. All the chemicals including authentic standards were
149 purchased from Wako Pure Chemical Co. (Japan), except for 14% BF₃/n-butanol (Sigma-Aldrich,
150 USA).

151 2.3 Backward air mass trajectories and meteorology

152 The backward trajectories of air masses were computed for the sampling period using the Hybrid
153 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model 4.0 developed by the National
154 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Air Resources Laboratory (ARL) (Draxler and
155 Rolph, 2013). The seven-day trajectories at 500 m above the ground level for the samples collected
156 in Okinawa are shown in Figure 2.

157 Meteorological data including ambient temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and
158 precipitation for each sample period were obtained from Japan Meteorological Agency
159 ([http://www/data/jma.go.jp](http://www.data/jma.go.jp)). During our campaign, the temperature, relative humidity and wind
160 speed ranged from 11.9 to 26.6°C (ave. 20.0±2.61°C), 43.0 to 91.0% (ave. 70.0±12.0%), 0.10 to
161 10.2 m s⁻¹ (ave. 3.73±1.99 m s⁻¹), respectively. The precipitation event occurred occasionally during
162 the campaign with the total amounts of 8.5 mm on March 22 for OKI-1, 9.5 mm on March 25 for
163 OKI-2, 38 mm on March 30 for OKI-3, 18 mm on April 03 and April 06 for OKI-4 and 28 mm on
164 April 13 for OKI-5 sample set.

165 2.4 Estimation of liquid water content (LWC) of aerosol

166 LWC of aerosol was calculated for the size-segregated samples collected in Okinawa Island using
167 the ISORROPIA II model (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007). ISORROPIA II is a computationally
168 efficient and rigorous thermodynamic equilibrium model that exhibits robust and rapid convergence

169 under all aerosol types with high computational speed (Nenes et al., 1998). ISORROPIA II implies
170 the Zdanovskii-Stokes-Robinson equation and treats only the thermodynamics of K^+ - Ca^{2+} - Mg^{2+} -
171 NH_4^+ - Na^+ - SO_4^{2-} - NO_3^- - Cl^- - H_2O aerosol system to estimate the LWC. Therefore, the measured
172 organic species such as diacids and related compounds are not included in ISORROPIA II. The
173 model was run as “reverse problem”, in which temperature, relative humidity and aerosol phase
174 concentrations of water-soluble inorganic ions were used as input for the estimation of aerosol
175 LWC.

176 3 Results and discussion

177 3.1 Size-segregated aerosol chemical characteristics

178 We use 2.1 μm as a split diameter between the fine and coarse mode particles. Table 1 presents the
179 concentrations of inorganic and carbonaceous species in the fine and coarse mode aerosols. Figure 3
180 shows the average concentrations of inorganic ions and organic matter (OM) in size-segregated
181 aerosols. Abundances of OM in the atmosphere are generally estimated by multiplying the
182 measured OC mass concentrations with the conversion factor of 1.6 for urban aerosols and 2.1 for
183 aged aerosols (Turpin and Lim, 2001). CHAAMS is located in the outflow region of East Asian
184 aerosols and local anthropogenic activities are insignificant. Because the aerosols reaching to
185 Okinawa are subjected to undergo the atmospheric oxidation during the long-range transport, the
186 fraction of oxygenated organic species is often high (Takami et al., 2007; Takiguchi et al., 2008;
187 Kunwar and Kawamura, 2014). Therefore, we used the conversion factor of 2.1, instead of 1.6 for
188 calculation of OM.

189 Okinawa was strongly affected by continental air masses from Siberia and Mongolia as well as
190 North China and Korea (Figure 2). It is difficult to specify the source regions of air masses for each
191 sample set because the sampling duration was 3-5 days. Each sample contains mixed continental
192 and oceanic air masses. The scavenging of aerosols by precipitation that could result in lower
193 concentrations of aerosol particles in Okinawa might be insignificant during the sampling periods.
194 OM was enriched in fine size fractions than the coarse size fractions (Figure 3). The elevated level
195 of OM in fine fractions in Okinawa (Table 1) suggests a substantial contribution of organic aerosols
196 primarily from combustion sources and secondarily from photochemical processes during long-

197 range atmospheric transport. The OM in fine mode aerosol in Okinawa might be consists of
198 oxygenated organic compounds such as diacids, ω -oxoacids and α -dicarbonyls.

199 Sulfate is the most abundant anion in fine fractions with a peak in 0.65-1.1 μm size whereas
200 chloride is the dominant anion in coarse fractions with a maximum in $>11.3 \mu\text{m}$ (Figure 3). The
201 cation budget is largely controlled by ammonium in fine fractions whereas sodium is the most
202 abundant cation in coarse fractions. The high abundance of SO_4^{2-} in fine particles suggests a
203 significant contribution of anthropogenic sources including industrial emissions in East Asia via
204 long-range transport of aerosols over the western North Pacific Rim. SO_4^{2-} is an anthropogenic
205 tracer of industrial activities whereas NH_4^+ is the secondary product of NH_3 that is largely derived
206 from the agricultural usage of nitrogen-based fertilizers (Pakkanen et al., 2001) and volatilization
207 from soils and livestock waste in East Asia (Huang et al., 2006). The dominant presences of Na^+
208 and Cl^- in coarse fractions suggest a substantial contribution from sea salt. Na^+ and Cl^- are emitted
209 from the ocean surface as relatively larger particles. Substantial amount of NO_3^- was detected in
210 coarse mode, suggesting a formation of $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$ or NaNO_3 in coarse fractions through the reactive
211 adsorption of gaseous HNO_3 onto pre-existing alkaline particles.

212 Diacids and related compounds detected in Okinawa are listed in Table 2 together with their
213 concentrations in the fine and coarse modes. Their molecular distributions in size-segregated
214 aerosols are shown in Figure 4. Oxalic acid (C_2) was found as the most abundant diacid followed by
215 malonic (C_3) and succinic (C_4) acids in all size-segregated aerosols. The predominance of C_2 in
216 size-segregated aerosols suggested that this diacid is produced by the photooxidation of VOCs and
217 other organic precursors in gas and aqueous-phase (Warneck, 2003; Carlton et al., 2006) during
218 long-range transport. The abundant presence of C_3 over C_4 diacid also indicates that this diacid was
219 produced via atmospheric photooxidation of organic precursors during long-range transport to
220 Okinawa (Kawamura and Sakaguchi, 1999; Kunwar and Kawamura, 2014). They can also be
221 emitted from primary sources such as fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning. Fossil fuel
222 combustion and biomass burning also emit numerous VOCs to the atmosphere, which are
223 ultimately oxidized to diacids via gas and aqueous-phase oxidation.

224 Phthalic (Ph) and adipic (C₆) acids are the next abundant diacids whereas ketomalonic acid (kC₃)
225 is more abundant than C₆ diacid in the size ranges of 0.43-0.65 μm to 0.65-1.1 μm. Ph and C₆
226 diacids originate from various anthropogenic sources and thus they can be used as anthropogenic
227 tracers. Ph primarily originates from coal burning and vehicle emission whereas photooxidation of
228 aromatic hydrocarbons such as naphthalene (NAP) and o-xylene derived from incomplete
229 combustion of fossil fuel form Ph via secondary processes (Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987).
230 Moreover, the abundant presence of Ph may also be caused by enhanced emission of phthalates
231 from plastics used in heavily populated and industrialized regions in China and the subsequent
232 long-range atmospheric transport to Okinawa. Phthalic acid esters are used as plasticizers in resins
233 and polymers (Simoneit et al., 2005). They can be released into the air by evaporation because they
234 are not chemically bonded to the polymer. Kawamura and Usukura (1993) reported that C₆ diacid is
235 an oxidation product through the reaction of cyclohexene with ozone (O₃). The high abundances of
236 Ph and C₆ diacids in Okinawa suggest the significant influence of anthropogenic sources in East
237 Asia via long-range transport of aerosols over the western North Pacific Rim.

238 Azelaic acid (C₉) is always more abundant than the adjacent suberic (C₈) and decanedioic (C₁₀)
239 acids in all the size-segregated aerosols. Kawamura and Gagosian (1987) proposed that C₉ is a
240 photooxidation product of biogenic unsaturated fatty acids such as oleic acid (C_{18:1}) containing a
241 double bond at C-9 position. Unsaturated fatty acids can be emitted from sea surface microlayers
242 and from local vegetation in Okinawa (Kunwar and Kawamura, 2014). Moreover, air masses in
243 spring are suggested to originate mostly from Russia and Mongolia as well as Korea based on
244 seven-day backward trajectory analyses. Such continental air masses can also bring C₉ via
245 atmospheric processing of biogenic unsaturated fatty acids during long-range transport. The
246 abundant presence of C₉ indicates that atmospheric oxidation of biogenic unsaturated fatty acids
247 also occurs in Okinawa aerosols during long-range transport. ω-Oxocarboxylic acids and α-
248 dicarbonyls were detected in the Okinawa aerosols. Glyoxylic acid (ωC₂) was identified as the most
249 abundant ω-oxoacid whereas glyoxal (Gly) was more abundant than methylglyoxal (MeGly) in all
250 the sizes. ωC₂ and Gly are the oxidation product of several anthropogenic and biogenic VOCs and
251 primary generated by fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning (Zimmermann and Poppe, 1996;

252 Volkamer et al., 2001), and are further oxidized to C_2 diacid (Myriokefalitakis et al., 2011). The
253 predominance of ωC_2 and Gly indicates their importance as key precursors of C_2 in Okinawa
254 aerosols.

255 3.2 Inorganic species

256 The particle size distributions of major ions are shown in Figure 5. Pearson correlation coefficients
257 (r) among the measured ions in different size modes are given in Table 3. Na^+ and Cl^- are mainly
258 derived from the ocean surface as sea salt particles in the marine atmosphere (Kumar et al., 2008;
259 Geng et al., 2009). The size distributions of Na^+ and Cl^- were found to be bimodal with two peaks
260 in coarse mode (Figure 5a and b). Their peaks at 2.1-3.3 or 3.3-4.7 μm and at $>11.3 \mu m$ suggest that
261 they are of marine origin due to bubble bursting of surface seawater. Andreas (1998) suggested that
262 the sea spray fall into two types that are defined as film and jet bubbles; film bubbles correspond to
263 the size of 0.5-5 μm whereas jet bubbles produce the size of 5-20 μm . Their coarse mode peaks at
264 2.1-3.3 μm or 3.3-4.7 as well as $>11.3 \mu m$ in Okinawa aerosols are associated with film and jet
265 bubbles. We found that size distribution of Mg^{2+} is similar to those of Na^+ and Cl^- with a significant
266 positive correlation to coarse mode Na^+ and Cl^- ($r = 0.98$), suggesting their similar origin and
267 sources.

268 A significant contribution of Ca^{2+} in coarse mode particles demonstrates its contributions from
269 soil dust (Kerminen et al., 1997a; Tsai and Chen, 2006). A lifting of soil dust in continental sites
270 followed by subsequent long-range atmospheric transport to remote marine site is also proposed as
271 an important source of Ca^{2+} (Wang et al., 2005b). Ca^{2+} showed unimodal distribution with a peak at
272 either 2.1-3.3 or 3.3-4.7 μm (Figure 5c). The coarse mode Ca^{2+} is mostly derived from crustal
273 $CaCO_3$, which heterogeneously reacts with acidic gases (HNO_3 and SO_2) (Kerminen et al., 1997a).
274 This formation mechanism is further supported by a strong correlation of coarse mode Ca^{2+} with
275 NO_3^- ($r = 0.98$). There is no correlation between Ca^{2+} and Na^+ or Cl^- (-0.12 or -0.27), revealing that
276 sea salt contribution of Ca^{2+} is negligible in Okinawa aerosols. This result suggests that the long-
277 range transport of soil dust is an important contributor of Ca^{2+} in the marine aerosols from the
278 western North Pacific Rim.

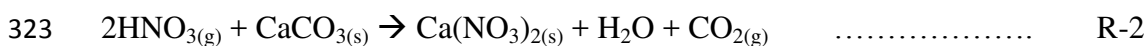
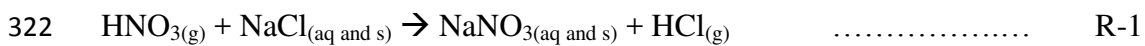
279 There is natural limestone caves formed by elevating coral reefs in Okinawa Island. Although
280 local limestone dust may also be re-suspended to the atmosphere by wind (Shimada et al., 2015),
281 the contribution of local dust to the Ca^{2+} concentration in Okinawa may be small. This
282 interpretation can be supported by the fact that the peak of Ca^{2+} was appeared in lower coarse size
283 range of 2.1-3.3 or 3.3-4.7 μm . It has been suggested that Ca^{2+} is likely associated with the upper
284 coarse size range when the contribution of locally produced soil particles is significant (Bian et al.,
285 2014). The smaller coarse mode Ca^{2+} is likely associated with long-range transported Asian dust to
286 Okinawa. Moreover, concentrations of Ca^{2+} in coarse mode were found to be much higher in OKI-1
287 ($0.51 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and OKI-2 ($0.60 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) than that in OKI-5 sample ($0.15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). Backward
288 trajectories also indicated that the air masses originated from Mongolia and Siberia are transported
289 to Okinawa during the collection of OKI-1 and OKI-2 samples whereas OKI-5 sample has an
290 influence of marine air masses. Such air mass origin again indicates a long-range transport of Asian
291 dust from East Asia to the western North Pacific.

292 Potassium is enriched in biomass burning aerosols and therefore its abundances in fine particles
293 can serve as a diagnostic tracer of biomass burning (Yamasoe et al., 2000). Moreover, contributions
294 of K^+ from sea salt and dust sources are highly variable in regional case studies with its dominance
295 in coarse mode particles. Fresh biomass burning particles mostly reside in the condensation mode at
296 0.1-0.5 μm in diameter whereas the fine mode K^+ of biomass burning origin can be subjected to in-
297 cloud processing (Kaufman and Fraser, 1997; Kleeman and Cass, 1999), in which K^+ can act as
298 effective CCN together with abundant water-soluble organic compounds.

299 A unimodal size distribution of K^+ was observed in most sets of samples (OKI-1 to OKI-4) with
300 a peak at 0.65-1.1 μm in diameter (Figure 5e). Freshly emitted biomass burning aerosol particles
301 usually exist at the size of 0.1-0.5 μm and thus the peak of K^+ at 0.65-1.1 μm shows that the fine
302 mode K^+ in Okinawa was associated with aged aerosols. Fresh biomass burning aerosols emitted in
303 East Asia might have undergone growth to a relatively large size by absorbing water vapor from the
304 atmosphere during long-range atmospheric transport to Okinawa. The peak of K^+ at 0.65-1.1 μm in
305 fine mode is conceivably a result of a combination of K^+ derived from fresh biomass burning with
306 other water-soluble species such as SO_4^{2-} during long-range transport. This interpretation is

307 supported by the fact that K^+ showed a positive correlation with LWC ($r = 0.83$) in fine mode. The
 308 fine mode nss- K^+ accounted for 95% of the total K^+ in the OKI-2 sample set and 88% of that in the
 309 OKI-3 sample set when air masses are coming from Siberia and Mongolia as well as North China.
 310 The abundant presence of fine mode nss- K^+ in the OKI-2 and OKI-3 samples further indicates the
 311 long-range atmospheric transport of biomass burning aerosols from the Asian continent to the
 312 western North Pacific Rim. The coarse mode K^+ was strongly correlated with the coarse mode Cl^- (r
 313 $= 0.90$). This result suggests that the coarse mode K^+ in the sample sets OKI-1 and OKI-5 may be
 314 derived from sea salt particles.

315 NO_x is known to be a precursor of NO_3^- , which can be converted to HNO_3 and then react with
 316 NH_3 to form NH_4NO_3 . A unimodal size distribution of NO_3^- was observed with a peak at 2.1-3.3 or
 317 3.3-4.7 μm in diameter. It should also be noted that the NO_3^- concentration in the coarse mode is
 318 much higher than that in the fine mode (Table 1). This result suggests that either dust or sea salt
 319 particle is the source of coarse mode NO_3^- in Okinawa. Coarse mode NO_3^- is the product of
 320 heterogeneous reaction of gaseous NO_2 or HNO_3 with alkaline metals such as Na^+ and Ca^{2+} as
 321 shown in Reactions 1 and 2 (Kouyoumdjian and Saliba, 2006; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006).



324 As discussed earlier, the air masses originated from Siberia are transported over Mongolia and
 325 North China. Asian dust can be transported from the Asian continent to Okinawa. Therefore, it is
 326 possible that the gaseous HNO_3 might already have reacted with $CaCO_3$ (mineral dust particle) to
 327 form NO_3^- before arriving to Okinawa through R-2. We found that coarse mode Na^+ , which is
 328 derived from sea salts, is negatively correlated ($r = -0.30$) with the coarse mode NO_3^- . Although this
 329 correlation is not significant ($p = 0.51$), the negative correlation may indicate some reactive loss of
 330 NO_3^- from sea salt particles in coarse mode in Okinawa. NO_3^- peaked at the same particle size of
 331 Ca^{2+} . Therefore, NO_3^- in Okinawa coarse mode aerosols is probably resulted from the pickup of
 332 HNO_3 gas by soil dust particles enriched with Ca^{2+} via heterogeneous reaction near the source
 333 regions. This process is further supported by a good correlation between NO_3^- and Ca^{2+} (0.98) in the
 334 coarse mode.

335 The particle size distributions of SO_4^{2-} , which is the major source of acid deposition (Pakkanen
336 et al., 2001), have been the subject of numerous studies in the past few decades (Huang et al., 2006;
337 Kouyoumdjian and Saliba, 2006). Condensation mode SO_4^{2-} arises from gas-phase oxidation of SO_2
338 followed by gas-to-particle conversion whereas fine mode SO_4^{2-} is formed through aqueous-phase
339 oxidation of SO_2 in aerosols and cloud droplets (Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998). SO_4^{2-} on the coarse
340 mode can be attributed to a combination of sulfate and heterogeneous reactions of SO_2 on soil dust
341 or sea salt particles (Seinfeld and Pandis, 1998; Pakkanen et al., 2001). A unimodal size distribution
342 of SO_4^{2-} was observed with a peak at 0.65-1.1 μm . The occurrence of SO_4^{2-} at the size of 0.65-1.1
343 μm cannot be explained by gas-phase nucleation or condensation of SO_2 . It has also been suggested
344 that in-cloud process produce SO_4^{2-} as larger particles by the oxidation of SO_2 in cloud droplets
345 (Gao et al., 2012), which can become fine particles after the dryness of cloud droplets. This result
346 suggests that the peak of SO_4^{2-} at 0.65-1.1 μm in Okinawa is involved with oxidation of SO_2 with
347 OH radical and O_3 in aerosol aqueous-phase.

348 Secondary inorganic aerosols are major contributors to LWC (Ansari and Pandis, 1999;
349 Engelhart et al., 2011). Calculated LWC for each sample from Okinawa and average LWC in size-
350 segregated aerosols are shown in Figure 6. The most remarkable result of the calculation is the
351 different LWC among the particles of different sizes. We clearly found two peaks of LWC in fine
352 and coarse modes. The difference in LWC in size-segregated aerosols is undoubtedly due to the
353 difference in their chemical composition. We observed that the highest LWC was found at the size
354 of 0.65-1.1 μm in the fine mode in Okinawa samples. As shown in Figure 3, SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ are the
355 major ions among the measured inorganic species in fine fractions in Okinawa. High correlation of
356 LWC was found with SO_4^{2-} ($r = 0.92$) in fine mode. This result suggests that an enrichment of SO_4^{2-}
357 in fine mode is enhanced the amount of LWC in fine mode of Okinawa aerosols.

358 Size distribution of methanesulfonate (MSA^-) is similar to that of SO_4^{2-} (Figure 5i) in Okinawa.
359 MSA^- showed a strong correlation with SO_4^{2-} ($r = 0.89$) in fine mode, suggesting that MSA^- should
360 have similar origin with SO_4^{2-} in fine mode. Although MSA^- is believed to be produced by gas-to-
361 particle conversion via the oxidation of dimethyl sulfide (DMS) emitted from the ocean (Quinn et
362 al., 1993; Kerminen et al., 1997b), there is some indirect evidence that liquid-phase production

363 might also be possible (Jefferson et al., 1998). Biomass burning also produces DMS in the
364 atmosphere (Meinardi et al., 2003; Geng and Mu, 2006). MSA^- showed high correlation with K^+ or
365 NH_4^+ ($r = 0.92$) in fine mode, indicating that the enhanced emission of DMS from biomass burning
366 followed by the subsequent oxidation during long-range transport may have contributed
367 significantly to the fine mode MSA in Okinawa. Moreover, MSA^- can also be produced in fine
368 mode by the oxidation of DMS that is emitted from the marine phytoplankton in the surrounding
369 ocean. It is noteworthy that East Asian aerosols also travelled over the marine regions including the
370 East China Sea, Sea of Japan and Pacific Ocean during long-range atmospheric transport. This size
371 distribution of MSA^- observed over Okinawa is consistent with previous studies from the China Sea
372 by Gao et al. (1996), who suggested that MSA is produced through the oxidation of S-containing
373 species in the marine atmosphere.

374 NH_4^+ in the Okinawa aerosols shows a unimodal size distribution with a peak at 0.65-1.1 μm
375 (Figure 5h), indicating that NH_4^+ is mainly formed by gas-to-particle conversion via the reaction
376 with H_2SO_4 and HNO_3 . Interestingly, the size distribution of NH_4^+ is similar to that of SO_4^{2-} and
377 diacids such as oxalic acid (Figure 5g and 7a). We also found a strong correlation between SO_4^{2-}
378 and NH_4^+ on the fine mode ($r = 0.99$). Ion balance calculations are commonly used to evaluate the
379 acid-base balance of aerosol particles. Average equivalent ratios of total cations (Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ ,
380 Mg^{2+} and Ca^{2+}) to anions (Cl^- , NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-}) in fine fractions varied from 0.75 for the size bin of
381 0.65-1.1 μm to 0.86 for the size bin of 1.1-2.1 μm , indicating that fine mode aerosols in Okinawa
382 were apparently acidic.

383 NH_3 is an alkaline gas that neutralizes the acidic particles in the atmosphere. Kerminen et al.
384 (1997a) proposed that particulate NH_4^+ is secondarily formed via heterogeneous reactions of
385 gaseous NH_3 with acidic species (H_2SO_4 and HNO_3). The reaction of NH_3 with H_2SO_4 is favored
386 over its reaction with HNO_3 . The average $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ equivalent ratios in fine mode particles in
387 Okinawa varied from 0.36 for the size bin of 1.1-2.1 μm to 0.81 for the size bin of 0.43-0.65 μm ,
388 indicating that NH_3 was not abundant enough to neutralize all SO_2 and hence H_2SO_4 and NH_4SO_4
389 were present in addition to $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ in fine mode. Interestingly, the average $\text{NH}_4^+/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$
390 equivalent ratios in coarse mode particles ranged from 0.01 for the size bin $>11.3 \mu\text{m}$ to 0.09 for the

391 size bins of 2.1-3.3 and 3.3-4.7 μm , suggesting that coarse mode aerosols in Okinawa were also
392 NH_4^+ -poor. This result further indicates that there was not enough NH_3 to neutralize HNO_3 , and
393 thus shortfall of NH_3 may be the restrictive factor for the formation of NH_4NO_3 in Okinawa
394 aerosols. Therefore, NO_3^- reacts with coarse particles that contain alkaline species (Ca^{2+}) in
395 Okinawa aerosols.

396 The size distribution of SO_4^{2-} also depends on the concentration of NH_4^+ , richness of NH_3 in the
397 air, and the presence of coarse mode particles. SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ often coexist in fine mode because
398 H_2SO_4 condenses on this mode as fine particles that have more surface area (Jacobson, 2002).
399 Although NH_3 was not abundant enough to neutralize all SO_4^{2-} , most of SO_4^{2-} was neutralize by
400 NH_3 in fine mode and exists in the form of NH_4HSO_4 in addition to $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$. Hence, SO_4^{2-} is
401 enriched in fine mode rather than being associated with dust particles. An enrichment of NO_3^- in the
402 dust fraction in our study is supported by the laboratory studies of Hanisch and Crowley (2001a)
403 and (2001b), who found a large and irreversible uptake between HNO_3 and various authentic dust
404 samples including samples from Chinese dust region. We found that NH_4^+ showed a good
405 correlation ($r = 0.87$) with LWC in the fine mode. This result implies that the abundant presence of
406 NH_4^+ in fine mode also enhanced the LWC in fine mode of Okinawa aerosols. It is notable that
407 higher LWC in fine mode can influence the SOA formation via gas to particle conversion of
408 organic precursors via reactive uptake on aerosols.

409 3.3 Water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) and organic carbon (OC)

410 The mass-based size distribution of WSOC is characterized by a major peak at 0.65-1.1 μm in
411 fine mode and by a small peak at 3.3-4.7 μm in coarse mode (Figure 8 and Table 1). Huang et al.
412 (2006) observed that fine mode WSOC was primarily derived from combustion sources and
413 secondarily produced in the atmosphere by the photochemical oxidation of VOCs. It is well
414 recognized that biofuel combustion and biomass burning produce a large amount of WSOC (Mayol-
415 Bracero et al., 2002). The WSOC concentrations showed high correlation with fine mode SO_4^{2-} ($r =$
416 0.96). Because production of SO_4^{2-} is strongly linked to photochemical activity, this result suggests
417 an important secondary production of WSOC in fine mode particles during long-range atmospheric
418 transport from East Asia. The WSOC concentrations also showed high correlation with K^+ ($r =$

419 0.93) and NH_4^+ (0.91) in the fine mode. This result suggests that direct emission from biomass
420 burning or fast oxidation of biomass burning-derived precursors contributes significantly to the
421 formation of fine mode WSOC in Okinawa aerosols during long-range transport.

422 Fine mode WSOC concentrations in OKI-1 to OKI-4 aerosol samples are 3-5 times higher (1.09
423 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for OKI-4 to 1.61 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for OKI-2) than that in the sample OKI-5 (0.31 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). It is also
424 noteworthy that fine mode fraction of WSOC in the samples OKI-1 to OKI-4 contributed 70-75%
425 of total WSOC. We noted that the former 4 sample sets are more influenced by continental air
426 masses than the last set (Figure 2). These results suggested that WSOC is more enriched in the
427 samples with an influence of continental air masses from Siberia and Mongolia as well as North
428 China and Korea. Because WSOC is an important fraction of OC in Okinawa aerosols, high
429 loadings of WSOC in aerosols of continental air mass origin suggest that both fossil fuel
430 combustion and biomass burning in East Asia may have a significant influence on the composition
431 of water-soluble organic aerosols over the western North Pacific Rim.

432 The mass-size distribution pattern of OC is similar to that of WSOC with a major peak in the
433 size range of 0.65-1.1 μm whereas a small peak was appeared in the size range of 3.3-4.7 μm in
434 diameter (Figure 8). Primary emission from fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning and
435 secondary production from photooxidation of VOCs are considered to be the major sources of OC
436 in atmospheric aerosols (Aggarwal and Kawamura, 2009; Jung et al., 2010). Primary emission from
437 biomass burning or photooxidation of biomass burning derived precursors might be a dominant
438 source of fine mode OC in Okinawa aerosols. This interpretation is supported by the fact that OC
439 showed strong correlation ($r = 0.95$) with K^+ in fine mode. The fine mode OC showed significant
440 positive correlations with SO_4^{2-} ($r = 0.93$) and NH_4^+ ($r = 0.91$), suggesting secondary photochemical
441 formation characteristics of OC in fine mode in Okinawa.

442 A significant portion of OC may be oxidized to WSOC during the atmospheric transport from
443 East Asia to the western North Pacific. The mass ratio of WSOC/OC has been proposed as a
444 measure of photochemical processing or aging of organics especially in long-range transported
445 aerosols (Aggarwal and Kawamura, 2009). The WSOC/OC ratios varied from 0.51-0.76 with an
446 average of 0.67 ± 0.09 in the fine mode and 0.43-0.63 with an average of 0.55 ± 0.09 in the coarse

447 mode. The higher WSOC/OC ratio in fine mode suggests that organics are more significantly
448 subjected to photochemical processing in fine mode aerosols during long-range transport from the
449 Asian continent to Okinawa than coarse mode aerosols.

450 Source contributions and secondary processes that may convert VOCs to a more soluble form
451 and surface area of fine particles could cause the higher WSOC/OC ratios in fine mode. Biomass
452 burning-derived OC is highly water-soluble and usually resides in fine mode whereas coarse mode
453 OC contains high molecular weight organic compounds emitted by soil resuspension and emissions
454 of pollens and fungal spores, which are less water-soluble (Wang et al., 2011; Mkoma et al., 2013).
455 Biomass burning significantly contributed to fine mode WSOC in Okinawa and thus WSOC is
456 secondarily produced from oxidation of biomass burning-derived VOCs (Kundu et al., 2010).
457 However, the primary emission of fine mode WSOC from biomass burning could not be excluded.
458 Moreover, accumulation of gas-phase precursors of WSOC may occur preferentially in the particle
459 size with the greatest surface area (Kanakidou et al., 2005). It has been proposed that fine particles
460 offer more surface area and thus reaction rate is more on the surface of fine particles than the coarse
461 particles (Kanakidou et al., 2005). The higher WSOC/OC ratio in fine particles than coarse particles
462 has also been observed in long-range transported East Asian aerosols over Northern Japan (Agarwal
463 et al., 2010).

464 WSOC also contribute to aerosol LWC although their ability to absorb water is significantly less
465 than that of inorganics (Ansari and Pandis, 2000). Speer et al. (2003) and Engelhart et al. (2011)
466 also noted that inorganic aerosols are associated with 62-80% of aerosol LWC. Moreover, organic
467 species are not taken into account in ISORROPIA II for the calculation of LWC. It is noteworthy
468 that WSOC/OC ratio and LWC significantly correlate in the fine mode with $r = 0.87$ whereas the
469 negative correlation was found in the coarse mode ($r = -0.19$), suggesting the possibility of
470 photochemical production of WSOC from OC in aerosol aqueous-phase in fine mode of Okinawa
471 aerosols. There may also be other important sources of fine mode WSOC in Okinawa aerosols such
472 as primary emission from biomass burning and secondary formation via gas-phase photochemical
473 reactions during long-range atmospheric transport (Hagler et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2010). The strong

474 correlation of WSOC with K^+ in fine mode suggests a substantial contribution of biomass burning
475 to fine mode WSOC in Okinawa aerosols.

476 This result may also indicate that shorter-chain organic compounds with polar functional group
477 such as diacids and oxoacids as well as α -dicarbonyls may contribute more to fine mode WSOC via
478 oxidation of various organic precursors in gas and aqueous-phase during long-range transport
479 (Carlton et al., 2007; Miyazaki et al., 2010). Kawamura et al. (2005, 2007) proposed that shorter-
480 chain diacids and related polar compounds are significantly produced via photochemical oxidation
481 of various precursors and thus they are abundantly present in fine particles contributing more to
482 WSOC fraction.

483 3.4 Dicarboxylic acids

484 The size distributions of selected diacids and related compounds are shown in Figure 7. C_2 showed
485 a peak at 0.65-1.1 μm in fine mode (Figure 7a). The monomodal distribution suggests that the
486 heterogeneous uptake of C_2 on sea-salt particles did not occur (Kerminen et al., 1999; Mochida et
487 al., 2003a). The shift of smaller diacids (C_2 - C_4) from submicron to supermicron mode has been
488 observed in marine aerosols collected from the western North Pacific in spring when a strong
489 outflow of Asian dusts occurred. Mochida et al. (2003a, 2007) reported that a supermicron peak of
490 diacids was emerged by the uptake of gaseous diacids on sea salt particles based on the similarity
491 between sea salt surface area and diacids size distributions or heterogeneous oxidations of organic
492 precursors on the sea salt particles.

493 The condensation mode of C_2 is likely produced photochemically in the gas-phase followed by
494 condensation onto pre-existing particles at 0.1-0.5 μm (Huang et al., 2006). In the atmosphere, the
495 gas-phase oxidation of isoprene, toluene and ethene leads to the formation of semi-volatile gaseous
496 organic precursors such as Gly and MeGly, which are subsequently participated in aqueous-phase
497 photochemical reaction to result in C_2 diacid (Carlton et al. 2006, 2007; Legrand et al. 2007). The
498 fine mode peak of C_2 at the size of 0.65-1.1 μm in Okinawa aerosols suggests a preferential
499 production of C_2 via the oxidation of precursors in the aerosol aqueous-phase during long-range
500 atmospheric transport. We found that size distribution of C_2 diacid is similar to that of SO_4^{2-} (Figure

501 5g and 7a), suggesting a secondary formation of C_2 possibly in aerosol aqueous-phase. The good
502 correlations of C_2 with SO_4^{2-} ($r = 0.92$) and NH_4^+ ($r = 0.89$) in fine mode further supports that C_2 is
503 a secondary photochemical product. The fine mode C_2 can also be produced primarily from fossil
504 fuel combustion and biomass burning in East Asia and long-range transported to Okinawa. C_2
505 diacid showed a significant positive correlation with fine mode K^+ ($r = 0.85$), indicating that
506 biomass burning contributed significantly to fine mode C_2 diacid in Okinawa aerosols.

507 Several sources are known to C_2 in atmospheric aerosols. They include primary sources and
508 secondary formation via photooxidation of anthropogenic and biogenic precursors (Kawamura and
509 Sakaguchi, 1999). C_2 is produced by the photooxidation of C_3 (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993). C_2
510 and C_3 are formed by the photooxidation of C_4 whereas C_4 is produced by the photooxidation of
511 glutaric acid (C_5) (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993). The fine mode predominance of C_2 in Okinawa
512 aerosols was probably associated with an enhanced aqueous oxidation of anthropogenic precursors
513 emitted in East Asia during long-range transport. Lim et al. (2005) and Legrand et al. (2007)
514 reported the formation of diacids in aqueous-phase. Here we investigate the impact of LWC of
515 aerosols on the formation of diacids in Okinawa aerosols. LWC of a particle can influence the
516 production of C_2 via the changes in gas/particle partitioning of gaseous organic precursors and
517 subsequent heterogeneous reaction in aerosol aqueous-phase. We found that the fine mode peak of
518 C_2 is consistent with that of LWC in Okinawa samples (Figure 6b and 7a). A strong positive
519 correlation ($r = 0.92$) of C_2 with LWC was found in fine mode. This result supports the possibility
520 of aqueous phase production of C_2 via the oxidation of C_2 precursors in fine mode of Okinawa
521 aerosols.

522 The robust correlations of C_2 with C_3 - C_5 diacids ($r = 0.89$ - 0.92) indicate that they have similar
523 sources and origin or C_2 diacid might be produced via decay of longer-chain diacids during long-
524 range transport. This result is further supported by the fact that C_3 - C_5 diacids were also enriched in
525 the fine mode (Figure 7b-d) and showed good correlations with LWC ($r = 0.82$ - 0.89) possibly due
526 to the enhanced secondary production from oxidation of its precursor compounds in aerosol
527 aqueous-phase. C_2 can also be produced by gas-phase oxidation of various VOCs including toluene,
528 ethene and isoprene followed by subsequent oxidation in aerosol aqueous-phase during long-range

529 atmospheric transport (Legrand et al., 2007; Lim et al., 2005). The gas-phase photooxidation of
530 these VOCs produce Gly and MeGly, which are easily hydrated and partitioned into the aerosol
531 phase with lifetime less than 3 h (Legrand et al., 2007; Kampf et al., 2012). The aqueous-phase
532 oxidation of Gly and MeGly produces ω C₂, which can further oxidize in aqueous-phase to form C₂
533 diacid (Lim et al., 2005). It is noteworthy that ω C₂ and Gly are also enriched in fine mode in
534 Okinawa aerosols. Their size distributions are discussed in more details in subsequent sections. Fine
535 mode C₂ showed a significant positive correlation with ω C₂ ($r = 0.99$) and Gly (0.93) whereas weak
536 correlation was found with MeGly (0.62). These results suggest that ω C₂ and Gly are important
537 precursors of C₂ diacid and increased LWC in fine mode is favorable for aqueous phase oxidation
538 of ω C₂ and Gly to result in C₂.

539 C₃ peaked at 0.65-1.1 μ m in diameter (Figure 7b), being similar to C₂ diacid (Figure 7a), except
540 for two sets of samples (OKI-1 and OKI-5) that showed peaks at 2.1-3.3 or 3.3-4.7 μ m in the coarse
541 mode. C₄ showed two peaks at the size bins of 0.65-1.1 and 2.1-3.3 μ m in OKI-1 and OKI-5
542 samples (Figure 7c). The coarse mode peaks of this diacid in samples OKI-1 and OKI-5 may be
543 associated with sea salt particles because the samples have an influence of marine air masses during
544 the sampling period. Kawamura and Ikushima (1993) proposed that the ratio of malonic to succinic
545 acid (C₃/C₄) is a tracer to indicate the extent of photochemical processing of longer chain diacids
546 such as C₅ diacid. Because C₄ is oxidized to C₃, an increase in the C₃/C₄ ratio indicates an increased
547 photochemical processing. The averaged C₃/C₄ ratio in sum of all the size fractions was found to be
548 1.5 \pm 0.1 in Okinawa aerosols. This result suggests that the extent of photochemical processing is
549 much greater in Okinawa than Los Angeles (0.35) (Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987) but similar to that
550 of urban Tokyo (1.5) (Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993), whereas it is lower than those of marine
551 aerosols at Chichijima Island in the western North Pacific (2.0) (Mochida et al., 2003b) and the
552 remote Pacific including tropics (3.9) (Kawamura and Sakaguchi, 1999). Figure 9a shows changes
553 in the C₃/C₄ ratios as a function of particle size. The C₃/C₄ ratios exhibit higher values at 1.1-2.1 μ m
554 in fine mode and at 2.1-3.3 and 3.3-4.7 μ m in coarse mode. This result suggests that C₃ production
555 via C₄ decomposition occurs more efficiently at these size ranges by aqueous-phase processing.

556 It is noteworthy that emission sources can also control the size distributions of organic
557 compounds. A bimodal size distribution of C₉ diacid was observed in Okinawa aerosols with a
558 major peak on coarse mode at 3.3-4.7 μm and minor peak on fine mode at 0.65-1.1 μm (Figure 7f).
559 C₉ is a tracer of biogenic sources. Kawamura and Gagosian (1987) reported that C₉ is derived from
560 the photooxidation of unsaturated fatty acids such as oleic (C_{18:1}) and linoleic (C_{18:2}) acids that are
561 produced from the sea surface microlayers to the marine atmosphere with sea salt particles. These
562 unsaturated fatty acids, which are coated in sea salt particles, predominantly reside in the coarse
563 size range (Mochida et al., 2007; Aggarwal et al., 2010). The major peak of C₉ on coarse mode is
564 due to the heterogeneous particle-phase oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids on the sea salt surface.
565 We found significant correlation of C₉ with Na⁺ ($r = 0.85$) in coarse mode. This correlation is
566 consistent with the idea that the precursors of C₉ are emitted from the ocean surface together with
567 sea salt particles in coarse mode. Unsaturated fatty acids can also be directly emitted as fine
568 particles from food cooking emission in China and long-range transported to the western North
569 Pacific (Schauer et al., 1996; Wang et al., 2011). The minor peak of C₉ in fine mode can be
570 explained by the oxidation of fine-mode unsaturated fatty acids derived from food cooking or
571 gaseous unsaturated fatty acids.

572 A unimodal size distribution was obtained for Ph with a fine mode peak at 0.65-1.1 μm, except
573 for one sample set (OKI-5) that showed a bimodal distribution with almost equal peaks at 0.65-1.1
574 and 2.1-3.3 μm (Figure 7g). This aromatic diacid is a tracer of anthropogenic sources. Ph is directly
575 emitted from combustion sources and secondarily produced in the atmosphere by the
576 photooxidation of polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons such as naphthalene (NAP) and o-xylene
577 derived from incomplete combustion of fossil fuel (Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987). NAP is largely
578 exists in gas-phase and has been suggested to be a major precursor of Ph in the atmosphere
579 (Schauer et al., 1996). The major peak of Ph on fine mode might be due to the preferential
580 production of Ph via gas-phase photooxidation of NAP followed by subsequent condensation onto
581 pre-existing fine mode particles during long-range transport. The high levels of NAP were found in
582 gas-phase and aerosols in source regions in East Asia (Liu et al., 2007; Tao et al., 2007), which
583 indicated NAP as a potential precursor of Ph diacid in Okinawa aerosols. The high levels of

584 precursors (NAP) in the source regions might favor the significant secondary production of Ph
585 during long-range transport in the western North Pacific. Moreover, the enrichment of Ph in fine
586 mode further suggests that preferential origin of this diacid is related to combustion sources either
587 by primary emission and/or secondary production from the precursor compounds, which is
588 consistent with other anthropogenic constituents such as SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and K^+ . The comparable
589 coarse mode peak in the OKI-5 sample set suggests an adsorption of gaseous Ph onto coarse
590 particles. Terephthalic acid (tPh), which is a tracer of plastic burning (Kawamura and Pavuluri,
591 2011), showed a unimodal distribution peaking at the size bin of 0.65-1.1 μm (Figure 7h). tPh is
592 mostly emitted from the burning of plastic wastes such as plastic bags and bottles, and then
593 deposited on pre-existing fine particles.

594 Ph diacid originates from various anthropogenic sources whereas C_9 diacid is produced by the
595 oxidation of biogenic unsaturated fatty acids (Kawamura and Gagosian, 1987; Kawamura and
596 Ikushima, 1993). Therefore, Ph/ C_9 ratio is mostly used as marker to know the source strength of
597 anthropogenic and biogenic sources of diacids. The higher Ph/ C_9 ratio shows more influence of
598 anthropogenic sources whereas lower ratio shows more influence of biogenic sources. Figure 9b
599 shows the changes in the ratios of Ph/ C_9 as a function of particle sizes. The higher Ph/ C_9 ratios were
600 obtained on the fine mode particles than coarse mode particles. The results suggest that fine
601 aerosols are significantly influenced by anthropogenic sources whereas the coarse aerosols are more
602 influenced by biogenic sources. The significant contribution of Ph on the fine mode demonstrates
603 that this aromatic diacid is mainly produced by the photooxidation of aromatic hydrocarbons such
604 as naphthalene emitted from fossil fuel combustion in gas-phase followed by condensation of the
605 product onto pre-existing fine particles during long-range transport in the atmosphere.

606 It is important to understand whether anthropogenic or biogenic organic precursors are oxidized
607 to increase the atmospheric level of shorter-chain ($\text{C}_2\text{-C}_5$) diacids and related compounds (ωC_2 and
608 Gly) in fine mode of Okinawa aerosols. The strong correlation of $\text{C}_2\text{-C}_5$ diacids with Ph ($r = 0.83\text{-}$
609 0.90) was found in fine mode. This result suggests that anthropogenic precursors are more
610 important sources of $\text{C}_2\text{-C}_5$ diacids than biogenic precursors in fine mode. The weak correlations of
611 $\text{C}_2\text{-C}_5$ diacids with C_9 ($r = 0.09\text{-}0.38$) further suggest that biogenic precursors such as unsaturated

612 fatty acids are not a major source of shorter-chain diacids in fine mode. The higher influences of
613 anthropogenic VOCs than biogenic VOCs can also be evidenced by a lack of correlation ($r = 0.25$ -
614 0.36) between C_2 - C_5 diacids and MeGly in fine mode. Myriokefalitakis et al. (2011) proposed that
615 about 80% of MeGly is formed in the atmosphere by the oxidation of biogenic VOCs such as
616 isoprene. Strong correlations of ωC_2 and Gly with Ph ($r = 0.90$ and 0.85) also suggest that
617 anthropogenic precursors are their major sources in fine mode of Okinawa aerosols.

618 3.5 ω -Oxocarboxylic acids and pyruvic acid

619 ω -Oxocarboxylic acids (ωC_2 - ωC_9) are secondarily produced in the atmosphere and also directly
620 emitted from fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning. They are further oxidized into diacids via
621 the oxidation of aldehyde group of the compounds (Kawamura et al., 1996; Warneck, 2003). The
622 size distribution of glyoxylic acid (ωC_2) shows a unimodal pattern with a peak at 0.65 - $1.1 \mu m$
623 (Figure 7i). Mochida et al. (2007) reported a strong bimodal pattern of oxoacids with a peak in the
624 coarse aerosol mode off the coast of East Asia. They suggested that the coarse mode was likely due
625 to either uptake of oxoacids or their heterogeneous reactions on sea salt particles. The fine mode
626 maxima of oxoacids indicate that they are secondarily produced in the atmosphere by the
627 photochemical oxidation of gaseous precursors during long-range transport to Okinawa.
628 Interestingly, we found that size distribution of C_2 diacid is similar to that of ωC_2 oxoacid (Figure
629 7a and i). Those similarities suggest that both C_2 and ωC_2 are simultaneously produced via gas and
630 aqueous-phase oxidation of their precursors. The diacids may be produced by the oxidation of
631 corresponding ω -oxoacids in aerosols during long-range transport.

632 The important precursor of ωC_2 in atmospheric aerosols is Gly and MeGly (Lim et al., 2005;
633 Myriokefalitakis et al., 2011). We found that ωC_2 is strongly correlated with Gly ($r = 0.92$) and
634 moderately correlated with MeGly (0.55) in the fine mode. The former result suggests that Gly is a
635 key precursor of ωC_2 in Okinawa aerosols. The significant positive correlation of ωC_2 with LWC
636 (0.95) in fine mode suggests the formation of ωC_2 via oxidation of Gly in the aerosol aqueous-
637 phase. The strong correlation of fine mode ωC_2 with SO_4^{2-} (0.96) further confirms secondary
638 formation of ωC_2 from the precursors originated from anthropogenic and biogenic sources during

639 long-range transport to Okinawa. Although the enhanced ωC_2 concentrations in fine mode might be
640 a result of aqueous oxidation, ωC_2 may be rather controlled by biomass burning activity. This is
641 supported by the significant positive correlation of ωC_2 with K^+ ($r = 0.90$) in the fine mode.

642 A bimodal size distribution was observed for 9-oxononanoic acid (ωC_9) (Figure 7k). We found
643 that the peak at 3.3-4.7 μm in coarse mode is larger than that at 0.65-1.1 μm in fine mode. The size
644 distribution of ωC_9 is similar to that of C_9 diacid. ωC_9 is another counterpart of photooxidation
645 product of biogenic unsaturated fatty acids such as oleic ($\text{C}_{18:1}$) acid having a double bond at C-9
646 position (Kawamura and Gagosian, 1987). Although air masses during the sampling period are
647 mostly originated from Siberia, Mongolia, Korea and North China (Figure 2), where unsaturated
648 fatty acids of higher plant origin are abundantly supplied to this marine receptor site, sea surface
649 microlayers in the surroundings of Okinawa can also emit unsaturated fatty acids abundantly. The
650 positive correlation of ωC_9 with Na^+ ($r = 0.83$) can also be seen in coarse mode. This suggests that
651 the major peak of ωC_9 on the coarse mode may be due to the heterogeneous oxidation of
652 unsaturated fatty acids of marine phytoplankton origin on the surface of sea salt particles. This
653 result further suggests enhanced input of biogenic organic precursors derived from the ocean on the
654 coarse size range in Okinawa aerosols.

655 Pyruvic acid (Pyr) showed a bimodal size distribution with a major peak on coarse mode at the
656 size of 3.3-4.7 or 7.0-11.3 μm and a minor peak on fine mode at the size of 0.65-1.1 μm . The larger
657 peak of Pyr on coarse mode may suggest that pyruvic acid is possibly produced by the
658 heterogeneous photooxidation of isoprene emitted from the ocean surface probably on sea salt
659 particles. Several studies suggested that Pyr is produced via the aqueous-phase photooxidation of
660 MeGly that is a gas-phase oxidation product of isoprene emitted from the ocean surface (Lim et al.,
661 2005; Carlton et al., 2006).

662 3.6 α -Dicarbonyls

663 Gly and MeGly are gas-phase oxidation products of numerous VOCs such as benzene, toluene and
664 xylene (Volkamer et al., 2001) as well as ethylene and isoprene (Zimmermann and Poppe, 1996)
665 and terpenes (Lim et al., 2005). Gly may be associated with pollution sources whereas MeGly may

666 be involved with biogenic sources. Gly peaked at 0.65-1.1 μm in the fine mode in the Okinawa
667 samples. The fine mode peak of Gly is similar to those of K^+ and SO_4^{2-} (Figure 5e and g),
668 suggesting their similar sources and formation pathways in the aerosols. Although gas-phase
669 oxidation of isoprene has been reported as the largest global source of Gly (Zimmermann and
670 Poppe, 1996), oxidation of anthropogenic aromatic hydrocarbons from fossil fuel combustion and
671 biomass burning is also suggested as alternative source of Gly in the atmosphere (Jung et al., 2010).
672 The peak of Gly at 0.65-1.1 μm may be associated with the combustion sources and the subsequent
673 gas-phase oxidation of the precursors during long-range transport to Okinawa. A good correlation
674 of Gly with K^+ or NH_4^+ ($r = 0.86$) in fine mode further suggests that biomass burning is a major
675 source of fine mode Gly in Okinawa aerosols.

676 In contrast, we found a bimodal size distribution of MeGly with two peaks on the fine and coarse
677 modes. Biogenic VOCs such as isoprene emitted from the ocean surface are subjected to oxidation
678 leading to the formation of MeGly in the atmosphere through aqueous-phase chemistry (Carlton et
679 al., 2006; Ervens et al., 2008). The peak of MeGly on coarse mode suggests that MeGly might be
680 produced by the aqueous-phase oxidation of isoprene emitted from the ocean surface on sea salt
681 particles. MeGly could act as a precursor of secondary organic aerosols (SOA) in the atmosphere
682 (Kroll et al., 2005; Liggiio et al., 2005). Gly and MeGly are largely present in gaseous phase and
683 only small portion is in ambient aerosols (Kawamura et al., 2013), although hydrated Gly and
684 MeGly likely exist in aerosols. However, aerosol phase α -dicarbonyls are important in terms of
685 heterogeneous oxidation to result in oxalic acid, which is the most abundant organic species in
686 aerosols. The oxidation of α -dicarbonyls in aerosol phase should promote their transfer from gas to
687 particle phase, affecting the gas/aerosol partitioning of Gly and MeGly, which may have a
688 significant effect on the chemical and physical properties of aerosols.

689 **3.7 Benzoic acid**

690 The size distribution of benzoic acid is presented in Figure 70. Two sample sets (OKI-1 and OKI-2)
691 showed unimodal size distribution of benzoic acid with a peak at 0.65-1.1 or 1.1-2.1 μm in the fine
692 mode. Benzoic acid is directly emitted from the automobile emissions (Kawamura et al., 1985) and

693 secondarily produced by photochemical oxidation of automobile-derived aromatic compounds (Ho
694 et al., 2006). Although benzoic acid is semi-volatile and mainly found in gas-phase (Kawamura et
695 al., 2000; Fraser et al., 1998), it can be observed in particulate phase via gas-to-particle conversion
696 by forming salts such as ammonium benzoate or potassium benzoate. Duan et al. (2008) reported
697 high level of ambient toluene ($11 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in China during an ozone episode in 2006 and suggested
698 that photooxidation of toluene is one of major sources of benzoic acid in the atmosphere.

699 The major peak of benzoic acid at small size bin of 0.65-1.1 or 1.1-2.1 μm suggest that a
700 significant portion of this compound in the Okinawa aerosols is likely produced by gas-to-particle
701 conversion via the reaction with NH_3 and alkaline metals and the subsequent deposition onto pre-
702 existing fine particles during long-range transport. We observed an additional small peak of benzoic
703 acid at 4.7-7.0 μm on the coarse mode for the sample sets of OKI-3 to OKI-5. Because benzoic acid
704 mainly exists in gas-phase in the atmosphere due to the relatively high volatility (Fraser et al., 1998),
705 the small peak on the coarse mode indicates a potential adsorption of gaseous benzoic acid onto
706 larger particles that may contain alkaline Na, K and Ca, or uptake by sea spray water droplets
707 emitted from sea surface.

708 **4 Summary and conclusions**

709 Nine-stage aerosol particles from <0.43 to $>11.3 \mu\text{m}$ in diameter, collected in spring 2008 at Cape
710 Hedo, Okinawa in the western North Pacific Rim, were analyzed for water-soluble diacids and
711 related compounds as well as major ions. The molecular distributions of diacids were characterized
712 by the predominance of oxalic acid (C_2) followed by malonic (C_3) and succinic (C_4) acids in all
713 stages, suggesting that they are most likely produced by the photooxidation of VOCs and particulate
714 organic precursors in the source region and/or during long-range atmospheric transport. The
715 abundant presence of SO_4^{2-} as well as phthalic and adipic acids in Okinawa suggested the
716 significant contributions of anthropogenic sources including industrial emissions in East Asia via
717 long-range atmospheric transport.

718 SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ , and diacids up to 5-carbon atoms as well as glyoxylic acid (ωC_2) and glyoxal (Gly)
719 showed good correlations with peaks in fine mode (0.65-1.1 μm). WSOC and OC also peaked on

720 fine mode with an additional minor peak on coarse mode. Similar size distributions and strong
721 correlations of diacids (C_2 - C_5), ωC_2 and Gly with SO_4^{2-} in fine mode suggest their secondary
722 formation possibly in the aerosol aqueous-phase. They may have also been directly emitted from
723 biomass burning as suggested by strong correlations with K^+ in fine mode. The strong correlations
724 of fine mode SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ with LWC imply that abundant presences of SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ in fine
725 mode promote to enhance the LWC in fine mode of Okinawa aerosols, which is favorable for the
726 aqueous oxidation of precursor compounds to result in C_2 (r is 0.91 for LWC and C_2). The robust
727 correlations of C_2 with C_3 - C_5 diacids as well as ωC_2 and Gly indicate that they are the key
728 precursors of C_2 diacid in Okinawa aerosols.

729 We observed an enrichment of C_3 and C_4 diacids on coarse mode particles in the aerosols with
730 marine air mass origin, indicating that their formation is associated with the heterogeneous
731 reactions on sea salt particles. Longer-chain diacid (C_9) and ω -oxoacid (ωC_9) showed bimodal size
732 distribution with a major peak on coarse mode, suggesting that they are produced by photooxidation
733 of unsaturated fatty acids mainly derived from phytoplankton via heterogeneous reactions on sea
734 spray particles. We observed that WSOC and OC in fine particles are photochemically more
735 processed in the atmosphere than in coarse particles during long-range transport. This study
736 demonstrates that anthropogenic and biomass burning aerosols emitted from East Asia have
737 significant influence on the molecular compositions of water-soluble organic aerosols in the
738 western North Pacific Rim.

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Table 1. Concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of carbonaceous species and major inorganic ions in the fine and coarse mode aerosols in Okinawa Island in the Western North Pacific.

Inorganic ions	Fine mode ^a				Coarse mode ^b			
	Mean	S.D. ^c	Min. ^d	Max. ^e	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.
Water-soluble inorganic ions								
Cations								
Na ⁺	0.44	0.20	0.21	0.72	2.42	0.89	1.60	3.65
NH ₄ ⁺	2.40	1.18	0.74	3.69	0.03	0.01	0.03	0.05
K ⁺	0.14	0.06	0.04	0.21	0.09	0.02	0.07	0.12
Mg ²⁺	0.07	0.02	0.04	0.10	0.34	0.11	0.24	0.49
Ca ²⁺	0.06	0.02	0.04	0.09	0.41	0.19	0.15	0.60
Total cations	3.12	1.22	1.28	4.37	3.29	1.02	2.55	4.82
Anions								
MSA ⁻	0.04	0.01	0.03	0.06	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.01
Cl ⁻	0.12	0.13	0.02	0.29	4.27	2.25	1.77	7.25
NO ₃ ⁻	0.14	0.08	0.04	0.23	1.61	0.54	0.94	2.41
SO ₄ ²⁻	10.1	4.85	2.88	14.9	1.46	0.44	0.69	1.81
Total anions	10.4	4.73	3.33	15.1	7.35	2.20	5.69	10.6
Total water-soluble ions								
Total water-soluble ions	13.5	5.95	4.61	19.5	10.6	3.22	8.33	15.4
Carbonaceous components								
WSOC	1.12	0.49	0.31	1.61	0.33	0.13	0.15	0.52
OC	1.62	0.59	0.62	2.12	0.60	0.17	0.36	0.82
OM	3.43	1.31	1.30	4.87	1.25	0.36	0.75	1.73
EC	0.05	0.03	0.00	0.09	-	-	-	-
TC	1.67	0.65	0.62	2.41	0.60	0.17	0.36	0.82

^aFine mode represents aerosol size of $D_p < 2.1 \mu\text{m}$.^bCoarse mode represents aerosol size of $D_p > 2.1 \mu\text{m}$.^cStandard deviation.^dMinimum.^eMaximum.

Table 2. Concentrations (ng m⁻³) of water-soluble dicarboxylic acids and related polar compounds in the fine and coarse mode aerosols in Okinawa Island in the Western North Pacific.

Compounds	Abbreviation	Chemical formula	Fine mode ^a				Coarse mode ^b			
			Mean	S.D. ^c	Min. ^d	Max. ^e	Mean	S.D.	Min.	Max.
Dicarboxylic acids										
Saturated normal-chain diacids										
Oxalic	C ₂	HOOC-COOH	135	37.4	76.0	176	40.2	14.7	22.1	60.0
Malonic	C ₃	HOOC-CH ₂ -COOH	19.5	6.84	7.56	23.6	12.4	3.52	6.87	15.5
Succinic	C ₄	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₂ -COOH	13.4	4.98	5.08	17.5	8.02	2.21	4.66	10.1
Glutaric	C ₅	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₃ -COOH	3.30	1.54	1.00	4.75	1.89	0.57	1.07	2.66
Adipic	C ₆	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₄ -COOH	3.49	1.09	2.47	4.98	2.50	1.24	1.45	4.23
Pimelic	C ₇	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₅ -COOH	0.46	0.24	0.04	0.63	0.32	0.11	0.20	0.44
Suberic	C ₈	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₆ -COOH	0.07	0.07	0.00	0.16	0.04	0.02	0.02	0.07
Azelaic	C ₉	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₇ -COOH	1.20	0.72	0.51	2.41	1.15	0.60	0.49	2.10
Decanedioic	C ₁₀	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₈ -COOH	0.17	0.11	0.01	0.30	0.08	0.07	0.03	0.19
Undecanedioic	C ₁₁	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₉ -COOH	0.47	0.33	0.13	0.76	0.25	0.10	0.14	0.38
Dodecanedioic	C ₁₂	HOOC-(CH ₂) ₁₀ -COOH	0.07	0.03	0.03	0.09	0.05	0.02	0.02	0.07
Branched-chain diacids										
Methylmalonic	iC ₄	HOOC-CH(CH ₃)-COOH	0.43	0.23	0.09	0.71	0.47	0.37	0.09	0.99
Methylsuccinic	iC ₅	HOOC-CH(CH ₃)-COOH	0.81	0.27	0.37	1.00	0.59	0.13	0.45	0.80
2-Methylglutaric	iC ₆	HOOC-CH(CH ₃)-(CH ₂) ₂ -COOH	0.35	0.24	0.05	0.70	0.19	0.20	0.04	0.53
Unsaturated aliphatic diacids										
Maleic	M	HOOC-CH=CH-COOH - <i>cis</i>	0.81	0.25	0.41	1.05	0.73	0.23	0.37	0.95
Fumaric	F	HOOC-CH=CH-COOH - <i>trans</i>	0.31	0.09	0.20	0.42	0.21	0.08	0.12	0.30
Methylmaleic	mM	HOOC-C(CH ₃)=CH-COOH - <i>cis</i>	0.34	0.27	0.11	0.76	0.57	0.48	0.11	1.37
Unsaturated aromatic diacids										
Phthalic	Ph	HOOC-(C ₆ H ₄)-COOH - <i>o-isomer</i>	6.29	2.85	1.99	9.3	2.79	0.81	1.85	3.9
Isophthalic	iPh	HOOC-(C ₆ H ₄)-COOH - <i>m-isomer</i>	0.46	0.07	0.35	0.55	0.17	0.06	0.09	0.22
Terephthalic	tPh	HOOC-(C ₆ H ₄)-COOH - <i>p-isomer</i>	2.21	1.15	0.32	3.30	0.64	0.38	0.09	1.17
Multifunctional diacids										
Malic	hC ₄	HOOC-CH(OH)-CH ₂ -COOH	0.14	0.05	0.11	0.21	0.14	0.06	0.07	0.20
Ketomalonic	kC ₃	HOOC-C(O)-COOH	4.92	3.79	0.46	9.28	0.49	0.17	0.32	0.77
4-Ketopimelic	kC ₇	HOOC-CH ₂ -CH ₂ -HC(O)(CH ₃) ₂ -COOH	2.57	0.83	1.26	3.20	0.43	0.16	0.26	0.69
Total diacids			196	58.1	98.3	253	74.1	24.3	41.4	105
ω -Oxocarboxylic acids										
Glyoxylic	ω C ₂	OHC-COOH	14.1	5.92	4.77	20.2	4.81	2.00	2.23	7.20
3-Oxopropanoic	ω C ₃	OHC-CH ₂ -COOH	0.08	0.05	0.00	0.12	0.05	0.04	0.02	0.12
4-Oxobutanoic	ω C ₄	OHC-(CH ₂) ₂ -COOH	2.23	1.12	0.86	3.56	0.68	0.35	0.41	1.22
9-Oxononanoic	ω C ₉	OHC-(CH ₂) ₇ -COOH	0.74	0.20	0.54	1.07	1.06	0.34	0.57	1.41
Total oxoacids			17.1	7.04	6.27	25.0	6.60	2.33	3.26	9.52
Ketoacid										
Pyruvic	Pyr	CH ₃ -C(O)-COOH	2.61	0.76	1.67	3.48	2.32	1.20	0.76	4.09
α -Dicarbonyls										
Glyoxal	Gly	OHC-CHO	2.74	1.12	1.45	4.40	0.84	0.26	0.50	1.17
Methylglyoxal	MeGly	CH ₃ -C(O)-CHO	1.09	0.98	0.25	2.53	0.65	0.16	0.45	0.87
Total α -dicarbonyls			2.83	1.59	1.03	4.68	1.49	0.37	0.96	1.86
Aromatic monoacid										
Benzoic acid		H ₅ C ₆ -COOH	16.5	11.0	4.57	28.3	1.98	1.01	0.70	3.38

^aFine mode represents aerosol size of D_p < 2.1 μ m.^bCoarse mode represents aerosol size of D_p > 2.1 μ m.^cStandard deviation.^dMinimum.^eMaximum.

Table 3. Pearson correlation coefficients^a (*r*) matrix among the selected measured chemical species/components in the fine and coarse mode aerosols in Okinawa Island in the Western North Pacific Rim.

Fine mode ^b																								
	Na ⁺	NH ₄ ⁺	K ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	MSA ⁻	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	WSOC	OC	C ₂	C ₃	C ₄	C ₅	C ₆	Ph	ωC ₂	Pyr	Gly	MeGly	LWC		
Na ⁺	1.00																							
NH ₄ ⁺	-0.25	1.00																						
K ⁺	-0.32	0.99	1.00																					
Mg ²⁺	0.98	-0.16	-0.23	1.00																				
Ca ²⁺	-0.21	0.62	0.33	-0.15	1.00																			
MSA ⁻	-0.32	0.92	0.92	-0.17	0.53	1.00																		
Cl ⁻	0.65	-0.85	-0.85	0.58	-0.33	-0.78	1.00																	
NO ₃ ⁻	0.65	-0.56	-0.55	0.68	0.22	-0.36	0.76	1.00																
SO ₄ ²⁻	-0.10	0.99	0.98	-0.02	0.59	0.89	-0.78	-0.49	1.00															
WSOC	0.10	0.91	0.93	0.16	0.30	0.79	-0.57	-0.27	0.96	1.00														
OC	0.12	0.91	0.95	0.16	0.25	0.80	-0.57	-0.32	0.93	0.99	1.00													
C ₂	0.12	0.89	0.85	-0.13	0.22	0.80	-0.53	-0.30	0.92	0.99	0.98	1.00												
C ₃	-0.05	0.90	0.89	-0.05	0.20	0.66	-0.68	-0.53	0.90	0.93	0.96	0.89	1.00											
C ₄	-0.12	0.96	0.95	-0.09	0.15	0.76	-0.75	-0.55	0.96	0.95	0.96	0.92	0.99	1.00										
C ₅	-0.12	0.99	0.96	-0.05	0.33	0.87	-0.80	-0.53	0.99	0.93	0.93	0.91	0.95	0.97	1.00									
C ₆	0.64	0.01	0.02	0.61	0.42	-0.16	0.46	0.47	0.10	0.20	0.39	0.38	0.33	0.23	0.09	1.00								
Ph	0.41	0.78	0.73	0.46	0.42	0.63	-0.40	-0.16	0.87	0.92	0.93	0.90	0.83	0.83	0.86	0.23	1.00							
ωC ₂	0.11	0.92	0.90	0.19	0.19	0.82	-0.57	-0.25	0.96	0.99	0.99	0.99	0.90	0.93	0.95	0.36	0.93	1.00						
Pyr	0.01	0.93	0.88	0.12	0.39	0.88	-0.73	-0.33	0.96	0.88	0.87	0.85	0.80	0.86	0.96	0.03	0.38	0.91	1.00					
Gly	0.01	0.86	0.86	0.15	0.09	0.92	-0.52	-0.07	0.86	0.89	0.82	0.93	0.70	0.78	0.85	0.21	0.85	0.92	0.85	1.00				
MeGly	0.15	0.35	0.39	0.26	0.13	0.52	0.06	0.50	0.36	0.53	0.35	0.62	0.25	0.31	0.31	0.48	0.36	0.55	0.29	0.75	1.00			
LWC	0.16	0.87	0.83	0.30	0.53	0.88	-0.53	-0.13	0.92	0.90	0.87	0.92	0.82	0.83	0.89	0.18	0.90	0.95	0.95	0.95	0.55	1.00		
Coarse mode ^c																								
	Na ⁺	NH ₄ ⁺	K ⁺	Mg ²⁺	Ca ²⁺	MSA ⁻	Cl ⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	WSOC	OC	C ₂	C ₃	C ₄	C ₅	C ₆	Ph	ωC ₂	Pyr	Gly	MeGly	LWC		
Na ⁺	1.00																							
NH ₄ ⁺	0.60	1.00																						
K ⁺	0.96	0.77	1.00																					
Mg ²⁺	0.98	0.63	0.33	1.00																				
Ca ²⁺	-0.12	0.03	-0.06	-0.29	1.00																			
MSA ⁻	-0.15	-0.66	-0.03	-0.25	-0.02	1.00																		
Cl ⁻	0.98	0.59	0.90	0.98	-0.27	-0.22	1.00																	
NO ₃ ⁻	-0.30	-0.23	-0.15	-0.39	0.98	0.28	-0.55	1.00																
SO ₄ ²⁻	0.33	0.32	0.56	0.28	0.63	0.25	0.16	0.67	1.00															
WSOC	-0.18	-0.26	0.06	-0.20	0.23	0.55	-0.36	0.92	0.72	1.00														
OC	-0.11	-0.10	0.13	-0.10	0.21	0.36	-0.28	0.92	0.72	0.97	1.00													
C ₂	-0.05	0.26	0.30	0.15	0.63	0.09	-0.08	0.88	0.76	0.93	0.82	1.00												
C ₃	0.32	0.33	0.53	0.31	0.68	0.18	0.15	0.75	0.92	0.88	0.82	0.93	1.00											
C ₄	0.33	0.39	0.60	0.35	0.53	0.16	0.33	0.32	0.88	0.31	0.55	0.36	0.63	1.00										
C ₅	0.05	0.05	0.22	-0.06	0.62	0.32	-0.05	0.43	0.75	0.28	0.38	0.22	0.45	0.91	1.00									
C ₆	0.85	0.20	0.25	0.91	-0.16	-0.59	0.85	-0.31	0.18	-0.08	-0.25	0.25	0.30	0.19	-0.23	1.00								
Ph	-0.52	-0.54	-0.29	-0.54	0.73	0.59	-0.66	0.93	0.54	0.56	0.33	0.63	0.58	0.21	0.40	-0.58	1.00							
ωC ₂	0.23	0.37	0.85	0.68	0.12	0.42	0.59	0.23	0.73	0.53	0.52	0.53	0.76	0.60	0.32	0.23	0.21	1.00						
Pyr	-0.09	-0.01	0.13	-0.08	0.81	0.23	-0.26	0.93	0.73	0.99	0.93	0.96	0.90	0.33	0.28	-0.01	0.22	0.49	1.00					
Gly	0.26	0.26	0.78	0.57	0.05	0.52	0.58	0.06	0.69	0.28	0.33	0.22	0.55	0.76	0.57	0.24	0.12	0.89	0.21	1.00				
MeGly	0.55	0.69	0.67	0.58	0.48	-0.20	0.48	0.18	0.77	0.16	0.13	0.25	0.58	0.93	0.75	0.46	-0.05	0.49	0.22	0.59	1.00			
LWC	0.61	0.03	0.53	0.56	-0.70	0.48	0.63	-0.51	-0.10	-0.19	-0.13	-0.29	-0.08	-0.03	-0.22	0.23	-0.31	0.57	-0.28	0.63	-0.13	1.00		

See Table 1 and 2 for abbreviation.

^aCorrelation is significant at 0.05 level for the values where *r* is > 0.80.^bFine mode represents aerosol size of $D_p < 2.1 \mu\text{m}$.^cCoarse mode represents aerosol size of $D_p > 2.1 \mu\text{m}$.

1045 **Figure Captions**

1046 **Figure 1.** A map of East Asia with the location of Okinawa Island (26.87°N and 128.25°E) and
1047 major megacities in Asia.

1048 **Figure 2.** NOAA HYSPLIT seven-day backward air mass trajectories at 500 m a.g.l. for the aerosol
1049 samples (OKI-1 to OKI-5) at Okinawa Island. The dates given in each panel in figure are the
1050 starting and ending date of collection of aerosol samples in Okinawa Island.

1051 **Figure 3.** Average size-segregated chemical composition of spring aerosols collected at Okinawa
1052 Island.

1053 **Figure 4.** Average molecular distributions of water-soluble dicarboxylic acids and related
1054 compounds in size-segregated aerosols collected at Okinawa Island.

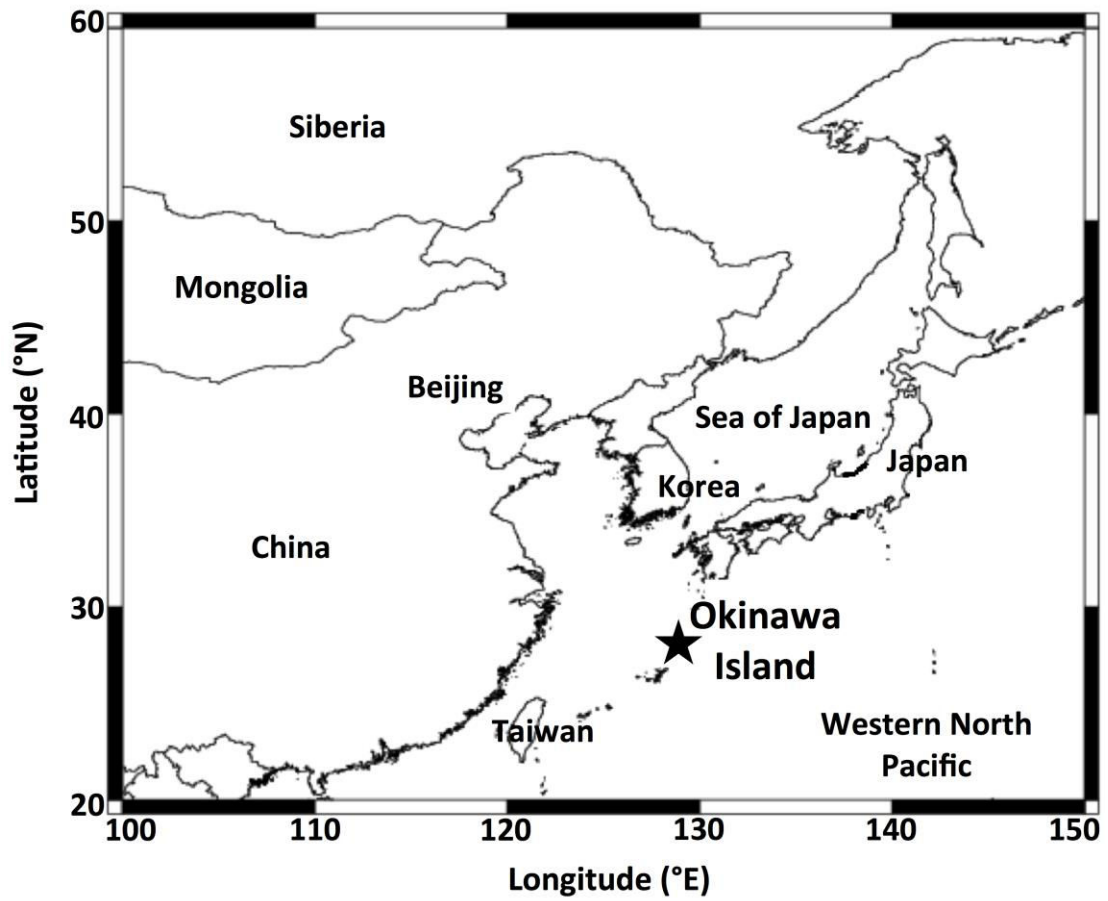
1055 **Figure 5.** Size distributions of water-soluble inorganic ions in the aerosol samples collected at
1056 Okinawa Island.

1057 **Figure 6.** Aerosol liquid water contents for each sample in size-segregated aerosols and mean liquid
1058 water contents of size-segregated aerosols at Okinawa Island.

1059 **Figure 7.** Size distributions of selected water-soluble dicarboxylic acids and related compounds in
1060 the aerosol samples collected at Okinawa Island.

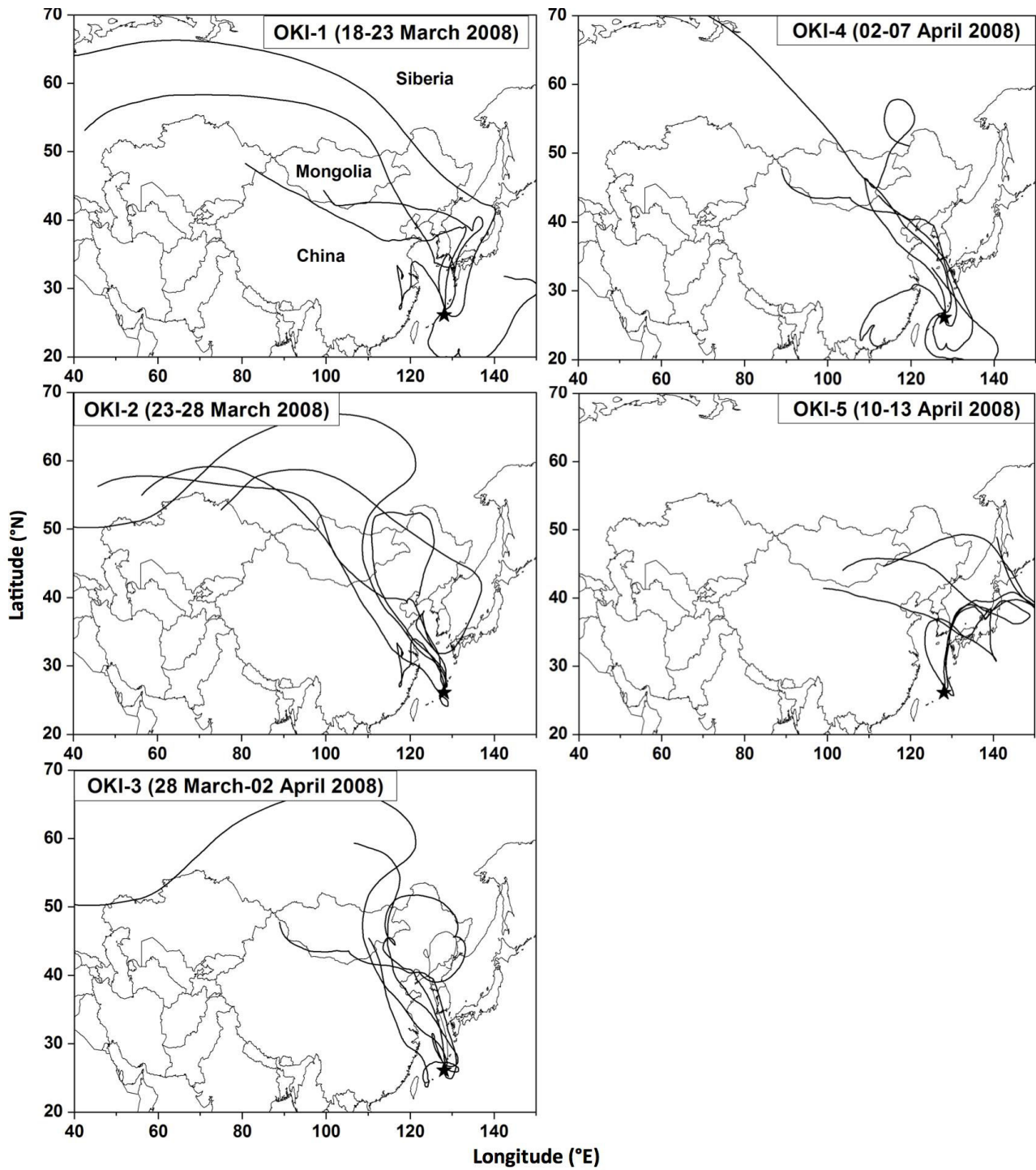
1061 **Figure 8.** Size distributions of water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) and organic carbon (OC) in
1062 the aerosol samples collected at Okinawa Island.

1063 **Figure 9.** Mass concentration ratio of malonic to succinic acid and phthalic to azelaic acid in size-
1064 segregated aerosols collected at Okinawa Island.



1065

1066 **Figure 1.** A map of East Asia with the location of Okinawa Island (26.87°N and 128.25°E) and
1067 major megacities.



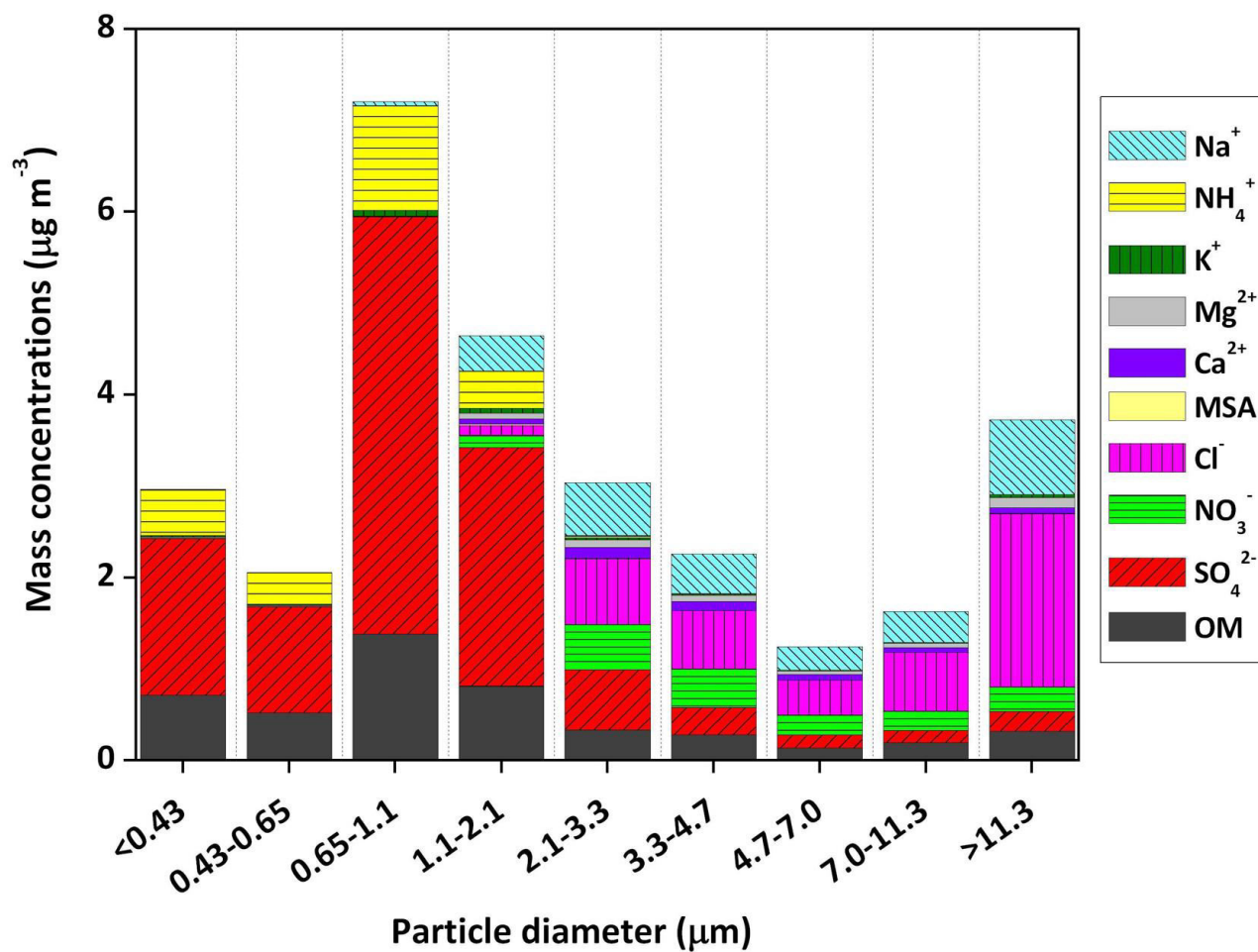
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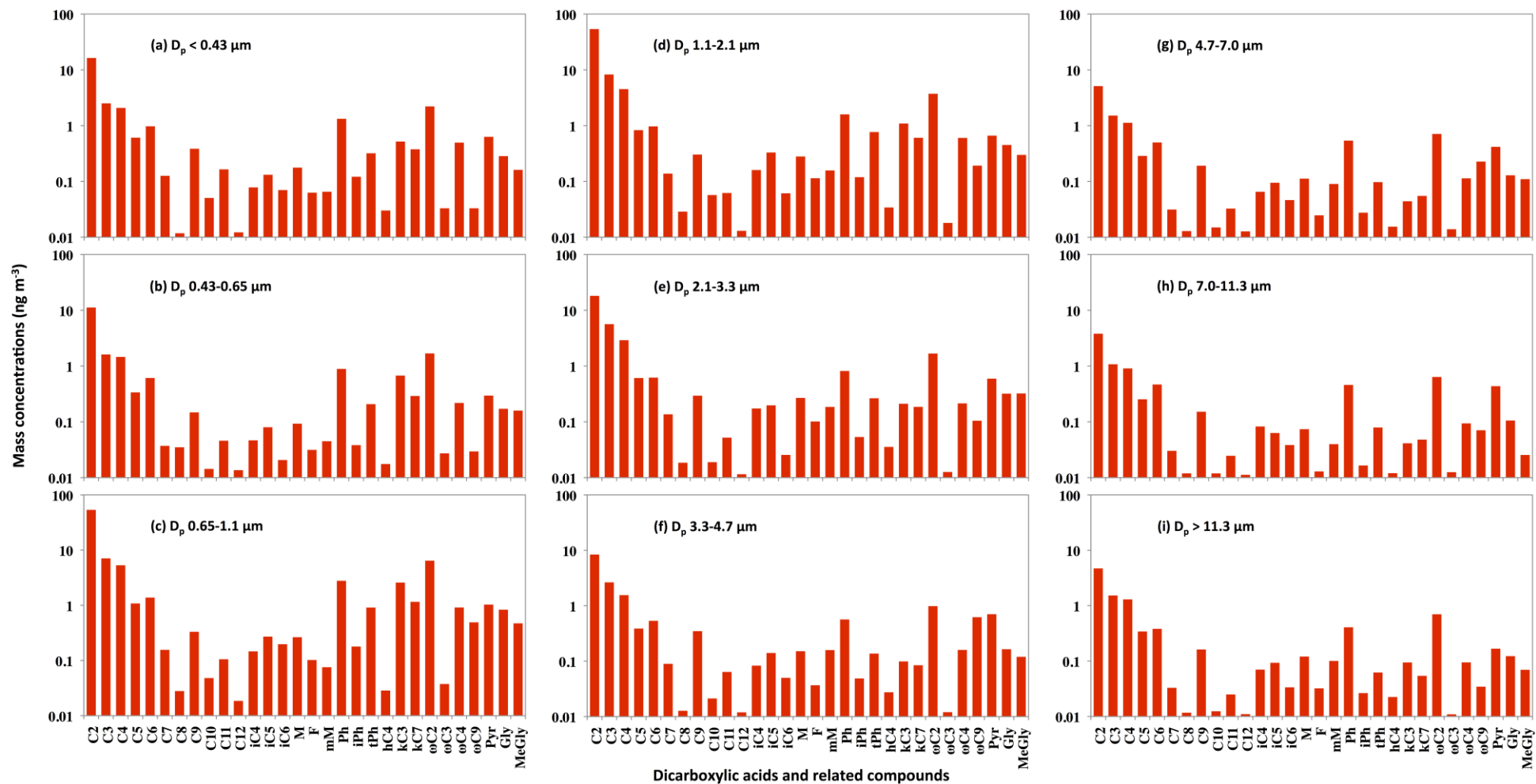
Figure 2. NOAA HYSPLIT seven-day backward air mass trajectories at 500 m a.g.l. for the aerosol samples (OKI-1 to OKI-5) at Okinawa Island. The dates given in each panel in figure are the starting and ending date of collection of aerosol samples in Okinawa Island.



1072

1073 **Figure 3.** Average size-segregated chemical composition of spring aerosols collected at Okinawa

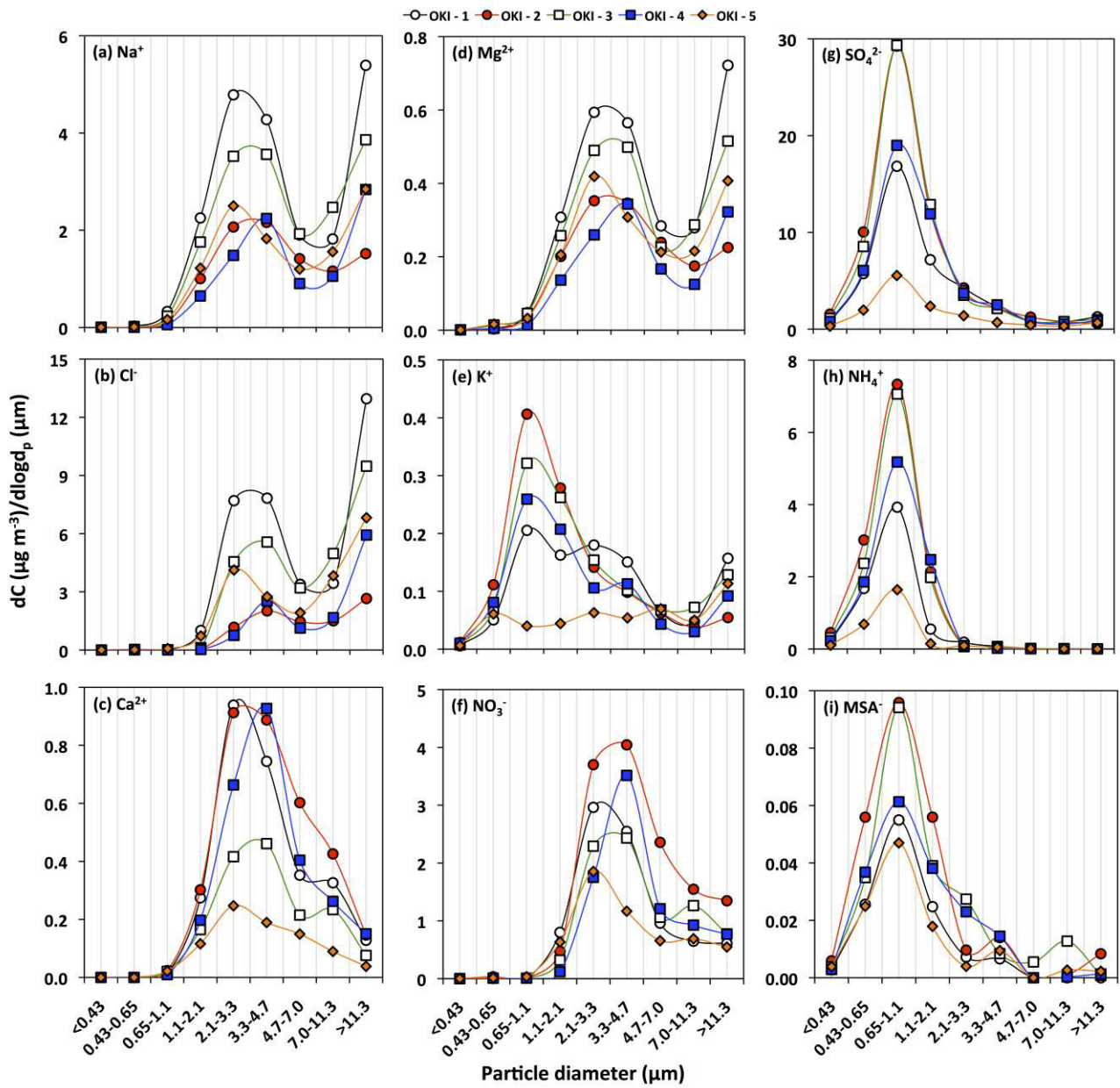
1074 Island.



1075

1076 **Figure 4.** Average molecular distributions of water-soluble dicarboxylic acids and related compounds in size-segregated aerosols collected at Okinawa

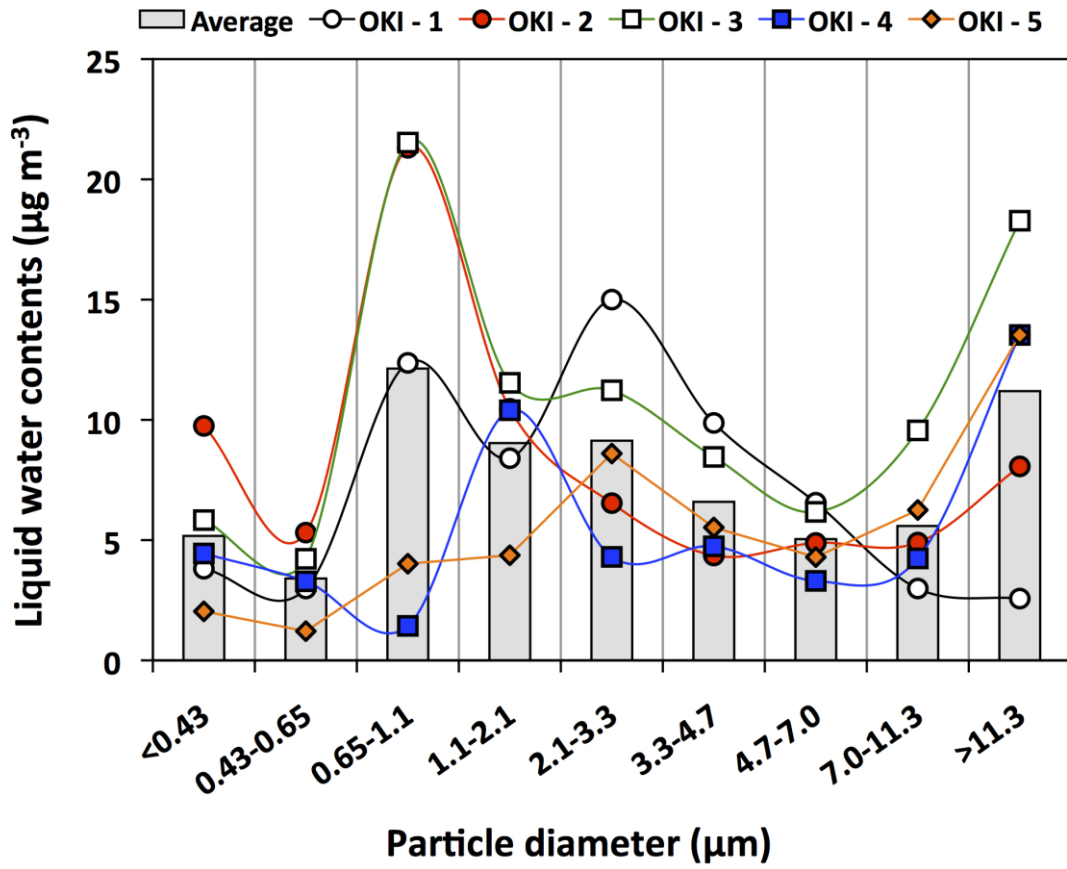
1077 Island.



1078

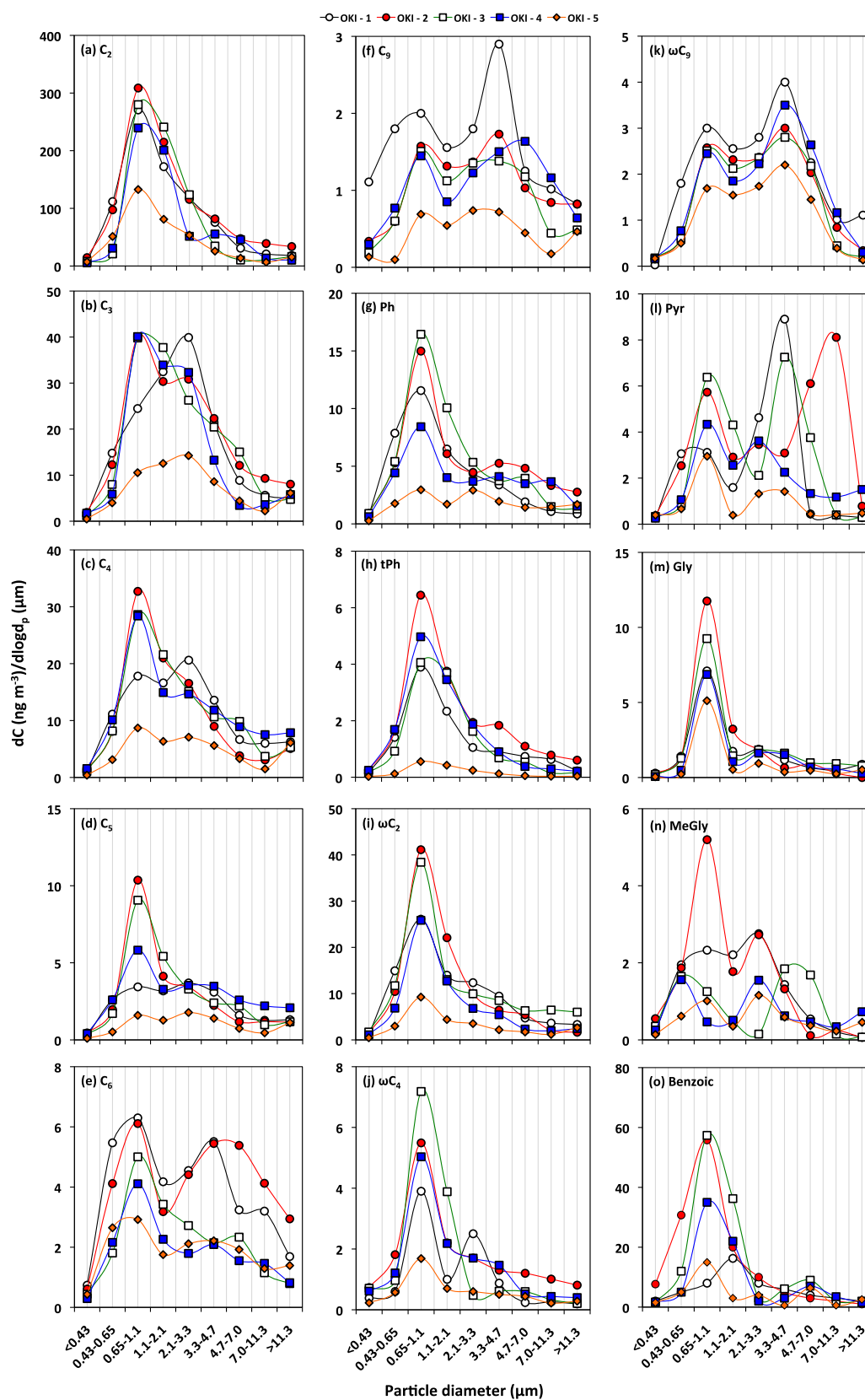
1079 **Figure 5.** Size distributions of water-soluble inorganic ions in the aerosol samples collected at

1080 Okinawa Island.



1081

1082 **Figure 6.** Aerosol liquid water contents for each sample in size-segregated aerosols and mean liquid
 1083 water contents of size-segregated aerosols at Okinawa Island.

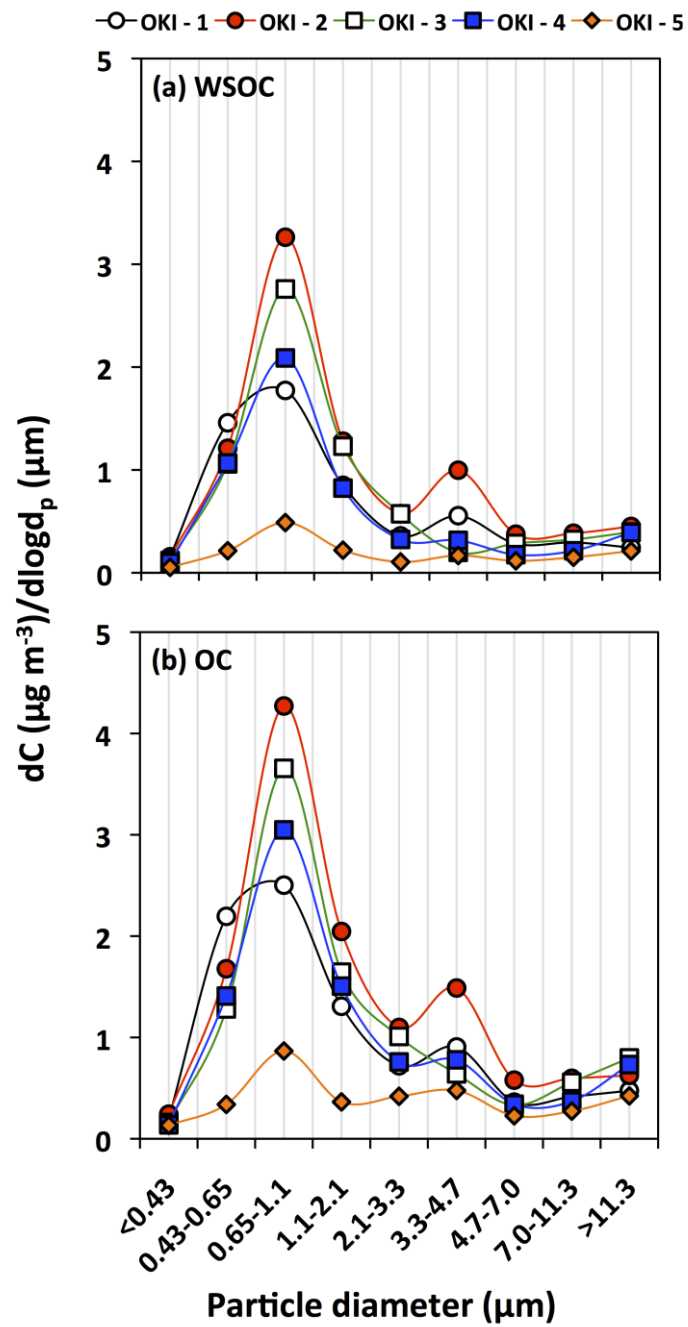


1084

1085 **Figure 7.** Size distributions of selected water-soluble dicarboxylic acids and related compounds in

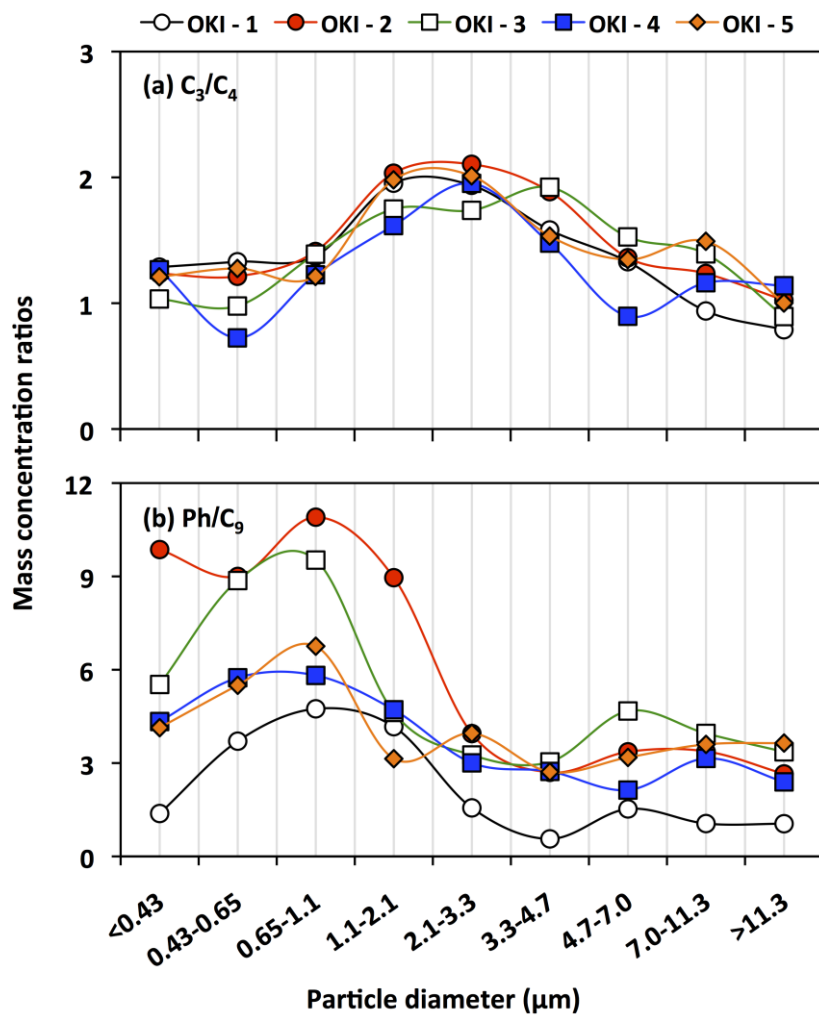
1086 the aerosol samples collected at Okinawa Island.

1087



1088

1089 **Figure 8.** Size distributions of water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) and organic carbon (OC) in
 1090 the aerosol samples collected at Okinawa Island.



1091

1092 **Figure 9.** Mass concentration ratio of malonic to succinic acid and phthalic to azelaic acid in size-
 1093 segregated aerosols collected at Okinawa Island.