1	Measurements of higher alkanes using NO ⁺ chemical
2	ionization in PTR-ToF-MS: important contributions of
3	higher alkanes to secondary organic aerosols in China
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Abstract: Higher alkanes are a major class of intermediate-volatility organic compounds 25 (IVOCs), which have been proposed to be important precursors of secondary organic 26 27 aerosols (SOA) in the atmosphere. Accurate estimation of SOA from higher alkanes and their oxidation processes in the atmosphere are limited, partially due to difficulty in their 28 measurements. High-time resolution (10 s) measurements of higher alkanes were performed 29 using NO⁺ chemical ionization in proton transfer reaction time-of-flight mass spectrometer 30 (NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS) method at an urban site of Guangzhou in Pearl River Delta (PRD) and 31 at a rural site in North China Plain (NCP), respectively. High concentrations were observed 32 in both environments, with significant diurnal variations. At both sites, SOA production from 33 higher alkanes is estimated from their photochemical losses and SOA yields. Higher alkanes 34 account for significant fractions of SOA formation at the two sites, with average 35 36 contributions of 7.0±8.0% in Guangzhou and 9.4±9.1% in NCP, which are comparable or even higher than both single-ring aromatics and naphthalenes. The significant contributions 37 38 of higher alkanes in SOA formation suggests that they should be explicitly included in current models for SOA formation. Our work also highlights the importance of NO⁺ PTR-39 ToF-MS in measuring higher alkanes and quantifying their contributions to SOA formation. 40

42 **1. Introduction**

As important components of fine particles, secondary organic aerosols (SOA) not 43 only affect air quality and climate change, but also threaten human health (An et al., 44 2019;Zhu et al., 2017;Chowdhury et al., 2018). Recent studies indicate large discrepancies 45 between simulations and observations for SOA (de Gouw et al., 2008;Dzepina et al., 46 2009: Jiang et al., 2012), which are attributed to limited understanding of complicated 47 chemical and physical processes underlying SOA formation (Hallquist et al., 2009). A 48 volatility basis set (VBS) model was developed to advance SOA modeling by improving the 49 modeling of further multigenerational oxidation processes and incorporating numerous, yet 50 unidentified, low-volatility precursors of SOA (Donahue et al., 2006), which substantially 51 52 improved the agreement between SOA simulations and observations (Hodzic et al., 2010). However, there are still large uncertainties in current VBS models, including rate constants 53 of oxidation reactions, the change of O/C ratio in oxidation, and the relative importance of 54 functionalization and fragmentation (Ma et al., 2017; Hayes et al., 2015). Explicit 55 consideration of individual or a group of important semi-volatile or intermediate volatile 56 57 organic compounds (S/I-VOCs) in the SOA model are urgently needed.

Higher alkanes as a major class of IVOCs (roughly corresponding to alkanes with 58 12-20 carbons) have been proposed as important SOA contributors in urban areas (Robinson 59 60 et al., 2007; Yuan et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2014a). In the typical urban areas, higher alkanes are reported to be mainly from vehicle emissions including diesel exhaust (Zhao et al., 2015) 61 and gasoline exhaust (Zhao et al., 2016), corresponding generally to ~4% of nonmethane 62 hydrocarbons (NMHCs) emissions from on-road vehicles. Higher alkanes are estimated to 63 produce as much as or even more SOA than single-ring aromatics and polycyclic aromatic 64 65 hydrocarbons from the oxidation of vehicle emissions, based on the chemical compositions

measurements of vehicle exhausts (Zhao et al., 2016, 2015). Based on vehicle exhaust tests, 66 higher alkanes were found to contribute ~37% to diesel exhaust-derived SOA and ~0.8% to 67 gasoline exhaust-derived SOA, respectively (Gentner et al., 2012). Previous model studies 68 suggested that SOA simulation can be significantly improved when higher alkanes were 69 70 considered in the model (Pye and Pouliot, 2012; Jathar et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2019). Although the concentrations of higher alkanes might be lower than other VOCs classes (e.g. aromatics) 71 in the atmosphere, higher alkanes are found to have much higher SOA yields and the yields 72 increase steadily with carbon number (Lim and Ziemann, 2005;Lim and Ziemann, 73 74 2009; Presto et al., 2010b). For a given carbon number, SOA yields of higher alkanes reduce with branching of the carbon chain, especially under high-NO_x conditions (Lim and Ziemann, 75 2009;Tkacik et al., 2012;Loza et al., 2014). 76

77 Higher alkanes have been mainly measured by gas chromatography-based techniques, focusing on the compositions (Gong et al., 2011;Caumo et al., 2018), atmospheric 78 concentration levels (Bi et al., 2003; Anh et al., 2018) and gas-particle partitioning (Xie et al., 79 2014; Sangiorgi et al., 2014). While most of previous studies collected offline samples 80 (usually 0.5 day-1 week) for GC-based analysis in the laboratory, hourly online 81 82 measurements of *n*-alkanes using GC-based thermal desorption aerosol gas chromatograph for semi-volatile organic compounds (SV-TAG) was recently developed and applied in 83 84 ambient air (Zhao et al., 2013). Proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS) using 85 H₃O⁺ as reagent ions are capable of measurements for many organic compounds with high time response and sensitivity (de Gouw and Warneke, 2007; Jordan et al., 2009; Yuan et al., 86 2017b). Although H_3O^+ PTR-MS is responsive to large alkanes (>C8), these alkanes usually 87 fragment into small masses with mass spectra difficult to interpret (Jobson et al., 88 2005; Gueneron et al., 2015). Recently, PTR-MS using NO⁺ as reagent ions was 89 demonstrated to provide fast online measurement of higher alkanes (Koss et al., 90

2016;Inomata et al., 2013). The high-time resolution measurements of higher alkanes
provide valuable information for SOA estimation, as the dependence of SOA yields on
organic aerosol concentrations and other environmental parameters (e.g. temperature) (Lim
and Ziemann, 2009;Presto et al., 2010b;Loza et al., 2014;Lamkaddam et al., 2017a) can be
taken into account in more detail.

In this study, we utilize NO⁺ chemical ionization in PTR-ToF-MS (here referred as 96 NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS) to measure higher alkanes at two different sites in China, one urban site 97 in Pearl River Delta region and one rural site in North China Plain region. We use the datasets 98 along with measurements of other pollutants to estimate contributions to SOA formation 99 from higher alkanes and other SOA precursors. The observation-constrained SOA formation 100 of this study is a step forward upon previous modelling studies, which proposed the 101 important roles of S/I-VOCs (Jiang et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2019) including 102 higher alkanes (Yuan et al., 2013) in SOA formation in China. 103

104 **2. Methods**

Field campaigns were conducted at an urban site of Guangzhou in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) region during September-November 2018 and at a rural site of Baoding in North China Plain (NCP) during November-December 2018, respectively. The detailed description of the measurement sites can be found in Supporting Information (SI, Figure S1).

109 2.1 NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS measurements

Proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometry (PTR-MS) is a technique that allows for
fast and sensitive measurements of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) at trace levels in air.
PTR-MS using H₃O⁺ chemistry has been demonstrated to measure alkenes, aromatics, and
even oxygenated VOCs (Yuan et al., 2017a;Wu et al., 2020). Here, PTR-MS with NO⁺

chemistry was used to detect higher alkanes, through hydride abstraction by NO⁺ forming
mass (m-1) ions (m is the molecular mass) (Koss et al., 2016;Inomata et al., 2013).

A commercially available PTR-ToF-MS instrument (Ionicon Analytik, Austria) with 116 a mass resolving power of 4000 m/ Δ m was used for this work. To generate NO⁺ as reagent 117 ions, ultra-high-purity air (5.0 sccm) was directed into the hollow cathode discharge ion 118 119 source. The pressure of the drift tube was maintained at 3.8 mbar. Voltages of ion source and drift chamber were explored (Figure S2) in the laboratory to optimize the generation of NO⁺ 120 ions relative to H_3O^+ , O_2^+ , and NO_2^+ and minimize alkane fragmentation. The intensities of 121 primary ion NO⁺ and impurites (O_2^+ , H_3O^+ and NO_2^+) and the ratio of O_2^+ to NO⁺ during two 122 campaigns are shown in Figure S3 and Figure S4, respectively. The ratio of O_2^+/NO^+ (Figure 123 S4 (a)) is basically stable at 2-4% during the PRD campaign except during Oct. 26-Nov. 2, 124 2018 (7-10%). For the NCP campaign, the ratio of O_2^+/NO^+ (Figure S4 (b)) fluctuates between 125 10-40% in the early stage of campaign and keeps stable at \sim 20% in the later stage of the 126 campaign. Such fluctuations are attributed to the humidity effect in the ambient air (Figure 127 S5). Ion source voltages of Us and Uso were selected as 40 V and 100 V, while Udrift and 128 Udx were set to 470 V and 23.5 V, resulting in an E/N (electric potential intensity relative to 129 gas number density of 60 Td. NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS data was analysed using Tofware software 130 (Tofwerk AG) for high-resolution peak-fitting. A description of the algorithm can be found 131 132 in Stark et al. (2015) and Timonen et al. (2016). Figure 1 shows the high-resolution peak fitting to the averaged mass spectra on a typical day (12 October 2018) for m/z 169, m/z 211 133 and m/z 281, at which masses produced by dodecane ($C_{12}H_{25}^+$), pentadecane ($C_{15}H_{31}^+$) and 134 eicosane $(C_{20}H_{41}^{+})$ are detected. It is observed that the ions from higher alkanes lie at the right-135 most position at each nominal mass, with signals either the largest or among the largest ions 136 at these nominal masses, which help to achieve high precision for determined signals of higher 137 alkanes from high-resolution peak fitting (Cubison and Jimenez, 2015;Corbin et al., 2015). 138

In this study, we normalize the raw ion count rate of higher alkanes to the primary ion 139 (NO⁺) at a level of 10⁶ cps to account for fluctuations of ion source and detector. Calibrations 140 were conducted every 1-2 days under both dry conditions (RH<1%) and ambient humidity 141 conditions using a gas standard with a series of *n*-alkanes (Apel Riemer Environmental Inc.) 142 during NCP campaign (Figure 2(a)). Sensitivities of *n*-alkanes (C8-C15) standards were 143 obtained during the campaign (Figure S6), which is defined as the normalized signal of hydride 144 145 abstraction ions for each higher alkane at 1 ppbv with a unit of ncps/ppb. The fluctuations of sensitivities during the NCP campaign may be influenced by the variations of O_2^+ signals 146 (Figure 2), because the reactions of O_2^+ with alkanes can be proceeded by both charge transfer 147 and hydride abstraction (Amador et al., 2016) that may affect the ion signals of alkanes with 148 NO⁺ reactions. Therefore, we use the daily ambient calibrations results to quantify the 149 concentration of higher alkanes during the NCP campaign to reflect the variations of sensitivity 150 151 from day to day. For the measurements without daily calibrations, we used closest calibration results according to corresponding ambient O_2^+/NO^+ ratios and ambient humidity. Since we got 152 the alkanes standard at the very late period of the PRD campaign, we did not have the daily 153 calibrations for this campaign. Therefore, we use the sensitivity of each alkane under 154 corresponding O_2^+/NO^+ condition obtained from lab experiments after this campaign and also 155 consider the humidity effects (Figure 3(b, c)) to quantify the concentration of higher alkanes 156 during the PRD campaign. Humidity-dependent behaviours of *n*-alkanes (C8-C15) were 157 158 performed in the laboratory under different humidity (0-33 mmol/mol) by diluting higher alkanes standard into humidified air to reach approximately 1 ppb mixing ratio. As shown in 159 Figure 3(b, c) and Figure S7 (a), the normalized signal of all product ions (m-1) and the 160 fragment ions of *n*-alkanes (C8-C15) standards are decreasing with the increase of humidity. 161 These decreasing patterns are probably due to the decreasing primary reagent ions (NO⁺ and 162

163 O_2^+) as the humidity increases Figure S7(b). Thus, the humidity correction should be applied 164 for the quantitation of higher alkanes using NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS.

The fragmentation patterns for selected *n*-alkanes and their branched isomers are 165 measured with NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS by introducing commercially acquired pure chemicals 166 (Figure S8). Figure 4(a) shows the fractions of hydride abstraction m-1 ions in the mass 167 168 spectra of C8-C20 *n*-alkanes in NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS. Generally, larger *n*-alkanes show less degree of fragmentation in the mass spectra with higher fractions contributed by m-1 ions. 169 The fractions of m-1 ions account for more than 60% of total ion signals for >C12 *n*-alkanes. 170 We also observe good correlation between the fractions of m-1 ions in mass spectra and the 171 determined sensitivities for C8-C15 *n*-alkanes. As C16-C21 *n*-alkanes exhibit similar degrees 172 of fragmentation as C15, sensitivities of the alkanes were assumed to be same as that of C15 173 *n*-alkane (Figure 4(b)). Comparison of the degree of fragmentation between *n*-alkanes and 174 their branched isomers (Figure S9) show the substituted groups affect little on the degrees of 175 176 fragmentations for product ions, at least for branched isomers with up to 4 substituted methyl groups. Previous studies demonstrated that the branched alkanes from emissions of fossil fuel-177 related sources are primarily with one or two alkyl branches (Chan et al., 2013;Isaacman et 178 al., 2012). Therefore, we conclude that the branched isomers of higher alkanes should have 179 similar response factors to their normal analogues. As a result, the concentration of higher 180 181 alkanes by NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS should be regarded as the summed concentrations of *n*-alkanes and branched alkanes that have the same chemical formulas. 182

Detection limits are calculated as the concentrations at which signal counts are 3 times of standard deviation of measured background counts (Bertram et al., 2011;Yuan et al., 2017b). As shown in Table 1, detection limits are determined to be on the order of 0.7-1.3 ppt for higher alkanes for 1 min integration times. Delay time is calculated as the time it takes for the signal to drop to 10% of its initial value caused by the step-function change in sample

concentration (Pagonis et al., 2017). The delay times of higher alkanes for the field 188 measurements in this study and some other measurements (e.g. emission source 189 measurements and tubing losses test in the laboratory are summarized in Figure S10. It is 190 found that delay times for various alkanes are in a range of few seconds to few minutes, among 191 of which, higher-volatility alkanes (C8-C15) are better than 1 min and lower-volatility alkanes 192 (C16-C21) are relatively long reaching several minutes. These results suggest that alkanes 193 194 with higher carbon number, especially C20 and C21 might be influenced by the tubing delay effect during the measurements. However, as shown later in section 3.1, the lower-volatility 195 196 alkanes exhibit very similar diurnal variations as higher-volotility alkanes during both campaigns in PRD and NCP, implying that the tubing effects should not sinificantly affect on 197 temperoal variations of higher alkanes reported in this study. 198

During these two campaigns, PTR-ToF-MS automatically switches between H₃O⁺ and 199 NO⁺ chemistry every 10-20 minutes with a 10 s resolution of measurement. Switching 200 between H_3O^+ and NO^+ ion mode are provided by the PTR-MS Manager (v3.5) software 201 developed by the Ionicon Anlytik (Table S1). The pressures of drift chamber are held constant 202 at 3.8 mbar in both modes during the campaigns (Figure S11(a)). It usually takes <10 s for 203 204 H_3O^+ ions and ~60 s for NO⁺ ions to re-stabilize after automatically switching between the two measurement modes (Figure S11(b)). The ambient measurement data during the transition 205 206 period (~1 min) was discarded. Ambient air was continuously introduced into PTR-ToF-MS through a Teflon tubing (1/4") with an external pump at 5.0 L/min, with tubing length of ~8 207 m and ~3 m during the PRD and the NCP campaign, respectively. The inlet tubing was heated 208 all the way to the sampling inlet to avoid water vapour condensation by an insulating tube 209 with a self-controlled heater wire (40 °C) wrapping outside. The calculated residence time for 210 the inlet was ~ 3 s for PRD campaign and ~ 1 s for NCP campaign, respectively. The tubing 211 loss experiments were conducted in the laboratory by introducing standards of higher alkanes 212

213 (*n*-C8-C15), monoaromatics (benzene, toluene, o-xylene, 1,2,4-trimethylbenzene), 214 isoprenoids (isoprene, α -pinene) and naphthalene into PTR-ToF-MS through a 8 m Teflon 215 tubing (1/4") at room temperature with an external pump at 5.0 L/min (Figure S12). The 216 tubing loss of these compounds is found to be <5% except *n*-C15 (~8%) and naphthalene 217 (~10%). Background measurement of 3 minutes was conducted in each cycle of NO⁺ and 218 H₃O⁺ measurements by introducing the ambient air into a catalytic converter with a 219 temperature of 367 °C.

220 **2.2 Other measurements**

During the Guangzhou campaign, an online GC-MS/FID system was used to measure 221 C2-C11 *n*-alkanes, alkenes and aromatics with a time resolution of one hour (Yuan et al., 222 2012). Non-refractory components in particulate matter with diameter less than 1µm (PM₁) 223 including nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, chloride, and organics were measured with an 224 Aerodyne high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometric (HR-ToF-AMS) and a 225 time-of-flight aerosol chemical speciation monitor (ToF-ACSM) in PRD and NCP, 226 respectively. Trace gaseous species (CO, NO, NO₂, O₃, and SO₂) were measured using 227 commercial gas analyzers (Thermo Scientific). Photolysis frequencies were measured using 228 a spectroradiometer (PFS-100, Focused Photonics Inc.). In addition, temperature, pressure, 229 relative humidity and wind were continuously measured during two campaigns. 230

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3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Ambient concentrations and diurnal variations of higher alkanes

Although NO⁺ chemistry has been shown to be valuable in measuring many organic species,
the applications in real atmosphere of different environments are still rare (Koss et al., 2016).
Here, we compared the measurements of various VOCs from NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS with both

H₃O⁺ PTR-ToF-MS and GC-MS/FID during the two campaigns. Overall, good agreements 236 between PTR-ToF-MS (both H₃O⁺ and NO⁺ chemistry) and GC-MS/FID are obtained for 237 aromatics and oxygenated VOCs except benzene (Figure S13, S14). Benzene measurements in 238 H₃O⁺ chemistry show large difference with benzene measured from NO⁺ chemistry in the 239 earlier period of PRD campaign (11 Sep.-14 Oct. 2018), but good agreement was obtained for 240 the rest of measurement period. Considering good agreement of benzene between NO⁺ PTR-241 242 ToF-MS and GC-MS/FID, we used benzene data from NO⁺ measurement in this study. The time series and diurnal variations of alkanes (C8-C11) between NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS and GC-243 244 MS/FID are shown in Figure 5 (and Figure S15). Similar temporal trends for these alkanes are observed from the two instruments. However, the diurnal patterns of total alkanes from NO⁺ 245 PTR-ToF-MS have a deeper afternoon trough than the *n*-alkanes measured by GC-MS, 246 implying that *n*-alkanes may have different temporal variations compared with those of total 247 alkanes. The concentrations at each carbon number from NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS are ~3-6 times 248 those from GC-MS/FID. This is expected, as dozens to hundreds of isomers exists for alkanes 249 with carbon number at this range (Goldstein and Galbally, 2007) and GC-MS/FID only 250 measured one or a few isomers. Based on measurements from NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS and GC-251 MS/FID, we compute the molar concentration fractions of *n*-alkanes for each carbon number 252 (Figure 6 and Table S1). We found the fractions are in the range of 11%-21% for carbon 253 number of 8-11, which are comparable with results of ambient air in California, tunnel test and 254 vehicle exhausts (Figure 6 and Table S2) (Chan et al., 2013; Worton et al., 2014; Gentner et 255 al., 2012). These results indicate the importance of branched alkanes in concentrations of 256 higher alkanes and their potential contributions to SOA formation. It also has strong 257 implication for the merits of NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS in measuring sum of the alkanes with the same 258 formula for estimation of SOA contributions, as discussed later. 259

Table 2 summarizes means and standard deviations of concentrations of C8-C21 260 higher alkanes measured in PRD and in NCP, respectively. The mean concentrations of n-261 alkanes measured at a suburban site in Paris (Ait-Helal et al., 2014) and an urban site in 262 Pasadena, U.S. are also included in Table 1 for comparison. According to the fraction of n-263 alkanes, the mean concentrations of *n*-alkanes in China are found to be comparable to that 264 from Paris and higher than in Pasadena. In general, concentrations of higher alkanes 265 266 concentration decrease with the increase of carbon number, with octanes (C8) at ~0.5 ppb and heneicosanes (C21) at ~0.002 ppb. This decreasing pattern of carbon distribution are as the 267 268 results of lower emissions from sources (Gentner et al., 2012), larger reactivity towards OH radicals (Atkinson et al., 2008;Keyte et al., 2013) and larger fractions partitioning to particles 269 (Liang et al., 1997; Xie et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2013) in the atmosphere. 270

The diurnal variations of selected higher alkanes are shown in Figure 7. C12 alkanes 271 and C15 alkanes exhibit similarly strong diurnal variations at both sites, with a relatively 272 273 high levels at night and minimum concentrations detected in the late afternoon at both sites. Such diurnal patterns are consistent with other primary VOCs species (e.g. aromatics). In 274 PRD, the diurnal variations of higher alkanes were as the result of faster chemical removal 275 in the daytime and shallow boundary layer heights at night. Since OH concentrations in NCP 276 during winter were much lower than that in PRD during autumn (Figure S16), diurnal 277 278 variations of higher alkanes in NCP were mainly influenced by the change of boundary layer. The diurnal profiles of other higher alkanes are similar to C12 and C15 alkanes (Figure S17). 279

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3.2 Estimation of the contributions of higher alkanes to SOA formation

A time-resolved approach based on consideration of photo-oxidation processes with OH radical (Ait-Helal et al., 2014) was applied to estimate contributions of higher alkanes to SOA during these two campaigns. In order to evaluate the relative importance to SOA from different precursors, the same method was also used for monoaromatics, naphthalenes,and isoprenoids.

This method considers the amount of chemical removal based on the parameterized photochemical age, which was widely used to quantify contributions of different VOC precursors to SOA formation (Zhao et al., 2014a;Ait-Helal et al., 2014;de Gouw et al., 2009). The contributions to SOA formation from different compounds are determined by the ratios of calculated SOA production amounts from individual precursors (SI, Appendix 2) and SOA concentrations derived from factor analysis of OA measurements by AMS (SI, Appendix 3). In this method, SOA formation for a given compound can be estimated by

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$$[SOA_i]_t = [VOC_i]_t \times (e^{k_{VOC_i} \times ([OH] \times \Delta t)} - 1) \times Yield_i$$
(1)

where $[SOA_i]_t$ is the calculated SOA production (µg m⁻³) for a given specific compound VOC_i 294 at time t, $[VOC_i]_t$ is the VOC_i concentration measured at time t (µg m⁻³), Yield_i is the SOA 295 yield data summarized from chamber studies, k_{VOC_i} is the rate constant of VOC_i with the OH 296 radical (cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹). [OH] is the OH concentration (molecules cm⁻³), Δt is the 297 photochemical age. In this study, we calculate the $[OH] \times \Delta t$ (molecules cm⁻³ s), which was 298 considered as OH exposure in some studies (Jimenez et al., 2009). The OH exposure is 299 estimated by the ratio m+p-xylene and ethylbenzene with different reactivity for anthropogenic 300 VOCs and by the oxidation processes of isoprene for biogenic VOCs, respectively (Apel et al., 301 2002; Roberts et al., 2006) (see details in SI, Appendix 4 and Figure S18). Since biogenic 302 emissions were pretty weak during cold winter (mean temperature 0.5±3.6 °C) during NCP 303 campaign, measured concentrations of isoprene and monoterpenes are attributed to be of 304 anthropogenic origin during the winter campaign in NCP campaign, especially given the fact 305 that they showed similar variations, diurnal profiles and strong correlation with CO and 306 anthropogenic VOCs species (Figure S19). A previous study in Helsinki also found the 307

importance of anthropogenic emission in monoterpene concentrations (Hellén et al., 2012).

Based on equation (1), SOA production from higher alkanes (C8-C21 alkanes), 309 monoaromatics (benzene, toluene, C8 aromatics, C9 aromatics, styrene), naphthalenes 310 (naphthalene, methylnaphthalenes, dimethylnaphthalenes) and isoprenoids (isoprene, 311 monoterpenes) were calculated. The concentration data of higher alkanes, isoprenoids and 312 benzene were taken from measurements of NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS. The concentration data of 313 naphthalenes (Figure S20) and monoaromatics except benzene were taken from 314 measurements of H₃O⁺ PTR-ToF-MS. The detail about the H₃O⁺ PTR-ToF-MS measurements 315 can be found in Wu et al. (2020). The OH reaction rate constant of each compound was taken 316 from literature (Atkinson, 2003). SOA yield data used here for higher alkanes (Lim and 317 Ziemann, 2009; Presto et al., 2010a; Loza et al., 2014; Lamkaddam et al., 2017b), 318 monoaromatics (Li et al., 2016;Ng et al., 2007;Tajuelo et al., 2019), naphthalenes (Chan et al., 319 320 2009) and isoprenoids (Ahlberg et al., 2017;Carlton et al., 2009;Edney et al., 2005;Kleindienst et al., 2006; Pandis et al., 1991) were summarized from reported values in the literature, with 321 the consideration of the influence of organic aerosol concentration (Figure S21) to SOA yields 322 (Donahue et al., 2006) (Figure S22-23). SOA yields under high NO_x conditions are used in 323 this study, as relatively high NO_x concentrations in PRD (42.6±33.7 ppb) and in NCP 324 (81.7±57.0 ppb) (Figure S24) would cause RO₂ radicals from organic compounds mainly 325 reacting with NO (Bahreini et al., 2009). 326

Both OH reaction rate constants and SOA yields of *n*-alkanes reported in the literature are applied for higher alkanes, as most of the chamber studies have focused on n-alkanes. Considering the SOA yields of branched alkanes are lower than *n*-alkanes, which is depending on chemical structures of the carbon backbone (Lim and Ziemann, 2009;Tkacik et al., 2012;Loza et al., 2014), the estimation of SOA from alkanes in this study might be a little overestimated. As shown above, temperature (mean temperature 0.5 ± 3.6 °C) in NCP winter campaign was significantly lower than the temperature (usually 25 °C) at which SOA yields
are derived from chamber studies. Temperature can significantly influence SOA yields, with
higher yields at lower temperature (Takekawa et al., 2003;Lamkaddam et al., 2017b). It might
cause underestimation of SOA production from various precursors in winter of NCP.

The calculated results of SOA production for different higher alkanes are shown in 337 Figure 8. Although lower concentrations of heavier alkanes were observed for both 338 campaigns, the calculated SOA production are largest for C12-C18 (Figure 8(b)). This is 339 because of two reasons: (1) Alkanes with larger carbon number have larger SOA yields. The 340 calculated average SOA yields (Table S3) during the two campaigns are both larger than 0.2 341 for >C12 alkanes and increase to near unity for C20-C21 alkanes. (2) Larger alkanes are 342 relatively more reactive than lighter ones, which results in larger proportions of calculated 343 concentrations that have been chemically consumed in the atmosphere (the concentrations 344 labelled "consumed" in Figure 8(a)). The distribution of contributions from alkanes with 345 different carbon number to SOA formation shown here is in good agreement with the 346 previous results referred from volatility calculation for precursors (de Gouw et al., 347 2011;Liggio et al., 2016). The peaks in alkanes SOA productions occur around C15 in both 348 campaigns of PRD and NCP, which is a great result that shows the importance of IVOCs on 349 SOA. 350

Along with higher alkanes, SOA production for monoaromatics, naphthalenes and isoprenoids are shown in Figure 9 (and Figure S25-27). Compared to monoaromatics, higher alkanes are associated with lower concentrations (Figure S28). However, higher alkanes play an important role in SOA formation due to their high SOA yields (Figure S29). The total average SOA production from C8-C21 alkanes are $0.6\pm0.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ and $0.7\pm0.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ in PRD and NCP, respectively. The formed SOA from higher alkanes account for $7.0\pm8.0\%$ and $9.4\pm9.1\%$ of SOA formation in PRD and NCP, respectively. The contributions of

monoaromatics to SOA formation are 6.2±7.7% and 9.4±17.4% in PRD and NCP, 358 respectively. Naphthalenes have been proposed to be important precursors of SOA from 359 laboratory chamber studies (Kleindienst et al., 2012). In this study, we determine 2.8±4.6% 360 of SOA in PRD and 11.1±14.3% of SOA in NCP are contributed by naphthalenes. The SOA 361 contribution from naphthalenes determined for NCP is comparable to the results $(10.2\pm1.0\%)$ 362 obtained during haze events in Beijing in a recent study (Huang et al., 2019). Significant 363 364 contribution from monoterpenes to SOA (8.7±14.6%) is observed in NCP. As mentioned above, we attribute these isoprene and monoterpenes to anthropogenic emissions in this region. 365 366 The SOA precursors considered in this study in total could explain 14.9%-29.0% and 16.4-125.3% of SOA formation in PRD and NCP, respectively. The influence of chamber-based 367 vapour wall losses on SOA yields was examined in previous studies (Zhang et al., 2014) and 368 369 the results show that the literature reported SOA yields are low by factors of ~1.1-2.2 for the 370 high NO_x conditions (Table S4). This suggests that the SOA estimations in this study might be correspondingly underestimated. The low explained percentages of SOA formations in 371 both of PRD and NCP (Figure 9(c, d)) imply that some other SOA precursors (e.g. 372 alkylcyclohexanes, alkylbenzenes, cyclic and polycyclic aliphatic materials) (Zhao et al., 373 2015; Drozd et al., 2019) or formation pathways (e.g. aqueous reactions) (Kuang et al., 2020) 374 are contributing significantly to SOA formation. Compared to a previous study in northern 375 376 China (Yuan et al., 2013), the missing gap of SOA formation declined after explicitly 377 considering higher alkanes and naphthalenes in SOA production.

As shown in Figure 9, we find that C8-C21 higher alkanes contribute significantly to SOA formation at both an urban site in autumn of PRD and a rural site in winter of NCP. The contributions from higher alkanes are either comparable or higher than both monoaromatics and naphthalenes. Another estimation method by considering SOA instantaneous production rates obtained similar results (Figure S30), which confirms the results from the photochemical age based on parameterization method shown above. The importance of higher alkanes in SOA formation has been also proposed in several previous SOA modelling studies (Pye and Pouliot, 2012;Zhao et al., 2014b). These results, along with our results from observations in ambient atmosphere, underline that the inclusion of higher alkanes in SOA models in the atmosphere should be considered if possible.

388

4. Concluding remarks

In this study, we utilized a NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS to measure C8-C21 alkanes in two different environments in China. Based on a series of laboratory experiments, we show that NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS can provide online measurements of higher alkanes with high accuracy and fast response. The measured concentrations of higher alkanes were relatively high during the two campaigns. The diurnal profiles of higher alkanes are similar to anthropogenic VOCs, implying they are emitted from anthropogenic sources.

On the basis of measurements of higher alkanes by NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS, we successfully 395 take into account their contributions in SOA formation. The time-resolved measurements of 396 higher alkanes by NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS provide the opportunity to accurately apply the 397 photochemical age-based parameterization method. As there is no separation before detection 398 in PTR-ToF-MS, the measured concentrations of NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS represent all of the 399 compounds that contribute to the product ions (m-1 ions), which include concentrations from 400 both *n*-alkanes and branched alkanes. With the total concentration of both *n*-alkanes and 401 branched alkanes quantified, the contribution from higher alkanes at each carbon number can 402 403 be estimated as a whole. This is an important supplementary method to the traditional analytical method by GC techniques for higher alkanes, as fully chemical separation and 404 detection of numerous isomers of higher alkanes remain as a challenge, even using the most 405 406 advanced GC×GC-ToF-MS instruments (Chan et al., 2013;Alam et al., 2016).

407 Higher alkanes were found to have significant contributions to SOA in both PRD and NCP regions with a similar or even higher contributions than that of monoaromatics and 408 naphthalenes. The importance of higher alkanes to SOA formation also call for more work 409 to investigate emissions and chemistry of these compounds in the atmosphere. It was shown 410 that fossil-related combustions such as vehicle exhausts are major sources for higher alkanes 411 (Zhao et al., 2016). While, recent studies have shown that non-combustion sources, such as 412 the use of solvents, have a potentially significant impact on high-alkane emissions 413 (McDonald et al., 2018;Khare and Gentner, 2018). However, such quantitative information 414 on emissions of higher alkanes is still limited. The measurements of higher alkanes by NO⁺ 415 PTR-ToF-MS with fast response could help to fill these research gaps. 416

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429 **Data availability**

430 Data is available from the authors upon request

431 **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest

433 **Author contributions**

BY and MS designed the research. CMW, CHW, SHW, JPQ, BLW, WC, CW, WS and
WYX contributed to data collection. CMW performed the data analysis, with contributions
from ZLW, WWH, SXY and CSY. CMW and BY prepared the manuscript with contributions
from other authors. All the authors reviewed the manuscript.

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756	Table 1. Fractions of product ions (m-1) ions in mass spectra, sensitivities and detection
757	limits of higher alkanes in NO ⁺ PTR-ToF-MS.

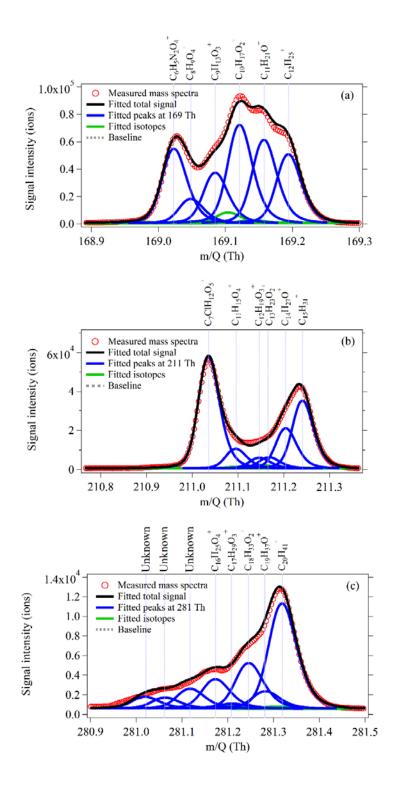
		Fractions of Sensitivities		Detection limit for	Detection limit for	
Compounds	Ions	(m-1) ions	(ncps/ppb)	10 s integration	1 min integration	
		(%)	(neps, pps)	(ppt)	(ppt)	
<i>n</i> -Octane	$C_8H_{17}^+$	24	104.6	3.5	1.3	
<i>n</i> -Nonane	$C_9H_{19}^+$	32	106.3	3.2	1.2	
<i>n- n-</i> Decane	$C_{10}H_{21}^+$	39	120.9	3.5	1.3	
<i>n</i> -Undecane	$C_{11}H_{23}^+$	44	140.9	3.3	1.2	
<i>n</i> -Dodecane	$C_{12}H_{25}^{+}$	62	156.3	2.4	0.9	
<i>n</i> -Tridecane	$C_{13}H_{27}^+$	61	186.6	2.1	0.8	
<i>n</i> -Tetradecane	$C_{14}H_{29}^+$	64	220.7	1.9	0.7	
<i>n</i> -Pentadecane	$C_{15}H_{31}^+$	84	205.5	1.7	0.6	
<i>n</i> -Hexadecane	$C_{16}H_{33}^+$	95	/	1.6	0.6	
<i>n</i> -Heptadecane	C17H35 ⁺	82	/	1.8	0.7	
n-Octadecane	$C_{18}H_{37}^+$	90	/	1.8	0.7	
<i>n</i> -Nonadecane	C19H39 ⁺	71	/	1.2	0.4	
<i>n</i> -Eicosane	$C_{20}H_{41}^+$	86	/	1.9	0.7	
n-Heneicosane	$C_{21}H_{43}^+$	/	/	2.0	0.7	

Compoundo	Formula	PRD, China ^a	PRD, China ^b	NCP, China ^a	Paris, France ^c	Pasadena, US ^d
Compounds		(ppt)	(ppt)	(ppt)	(ppt)	(ppt)
Octane	C8H18	482±488	50±49	412±270	/	/
Nonane	C9H20	208±186	43±32	252±162	14±13	/
Decane	C10H22	174±199	29±28	224±147	24±22	/
Undecane	$C_{11}H_{24}$	129±138	21±17	170±119	19±16	/
Dodecane	C12H26	122±120	/	129±86	22±21	8±1
Tridecane	C13H28	66±60	/	89±59	13±12	6±1
Tetradecane	C14H30	50±47	/	57±39	27±23	9±2
Pentadecane	C15H32	45±42	/	46±33	23±18	5±0.8
Hexadecane	C16H34	36±33	/	32±24	22±19	4±1
Heptadecane	C17H36	21±20	/	18±14	/	3±0.4
Octadecane	C18H38	13±14	/	11±9	/	1.6±0.5
Nonadecane	C19H40	5±9	/	4±7	/	0.7±0.2
Eicosane	C20H42	0.7±4	/	3±6	/	0.24±0.08
Heneicosane	C ₂₁ H ₄₄	0.5±5	/	2±5	/	0.15±0.1

Table 2. Mean concentrations of alkanes (C8-C21) in different sites worldwide.

761 ^a: alkanes measured with NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS; ^b: *n*-alkanes measured with GC-MS; ^c: *n*-alkanes from Ait-Helal

762 et al. (2014); ^d: *n*-alkanes from Zhao et al. (2014a).



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Figure 1. High-resolution (HR) peak-fitting to the averaged mass spectra on a typical day (12 October 2018) for m/z 169 (**a**), m/z 211 (**b**) and m/z 281 (**c**), at which masses produced by dodecane ($C_{12}H_{25}^+$), pentadecane ($C_{15}H_{31}^+$) and eicosane ($C_{20}H_{41}^+$) in NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS.

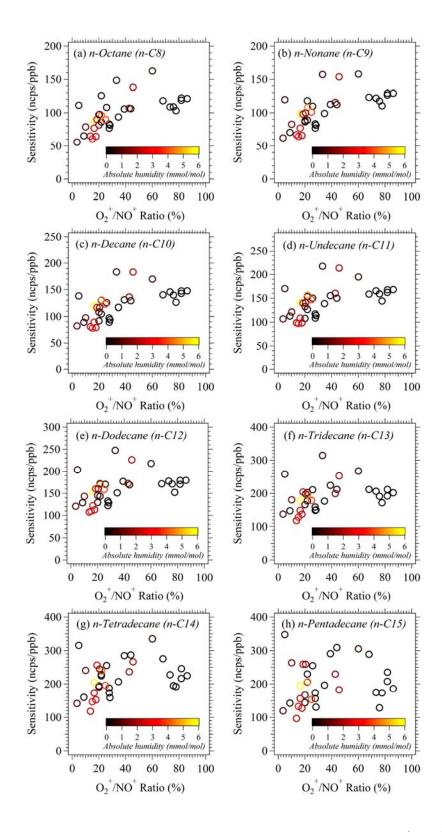


Figure 2. The relationship of sensitivities of *n*-alkanes (C8-C15) versus O_2^+/NO^+ ratios during the NCP campaign. The data points are color-coded using absolute humidity during the calibration.

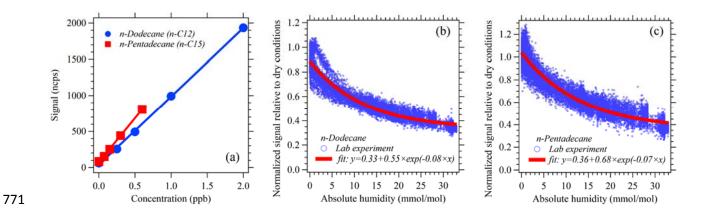


Figure 3. (a) Calibrations of *n*-Dodecane and *n*-Pentadecane under dry conditions; (b)

Humidity dependence of *n*-Dodecane. (c) Humidity dependence of *n*-Pentadecane.

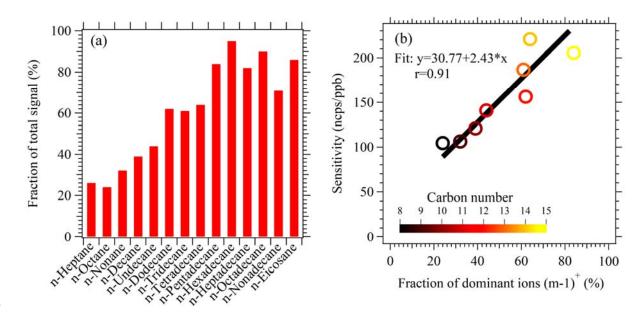




Figure 4. (a) The fractions of product ions (m-1) from hydride abstraction of C8-C20 *n*-alkanes

in NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS. (**b**) Scatterplot of sensitivities under dry conditions versus the fractions

of hydride abstraction ions for C8-C15 *n*-alkanes.

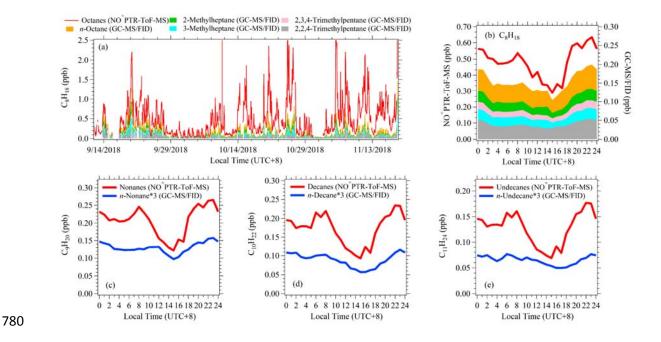


Figure 5. Comparisons of times series and diurnal variations of alkanes measured by NO⁺
PTR-ToF-MS and GC-MS/FID in PRD. (a) Time series of C8 alkanes measured by NO⁺ PTRToF-MS, C8 *n*-alkane and four branched isomers measured by GC-MS/FID. (b) Diurnal
variations of C8 alkanes. (c-e) Diurnal variations of C9-C11 alkanes with NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS
and C9-C11 *n*-alkanes with GC-MS/FID.

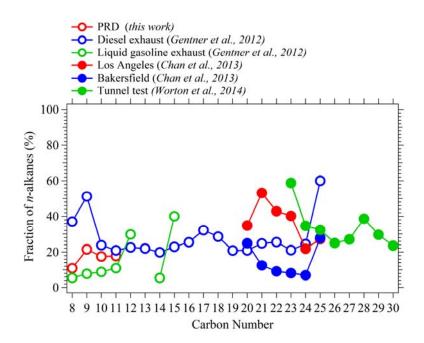


Figure 6. Fractions of *n*-alkanes in higher alkanes with same formulas in gas phase (hollow dots) and particle phase (solid dots) derived from this study, ambient air in Los Angeles,
Bakersfield, Caldecott Tunnel and in vehicle exhausts (Chan et al., 2013; Gentner et al., 2012;
Worton et al., 2014).

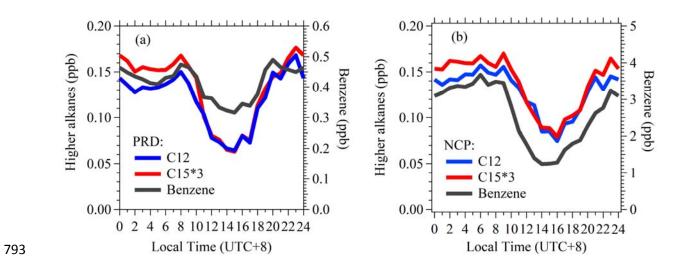
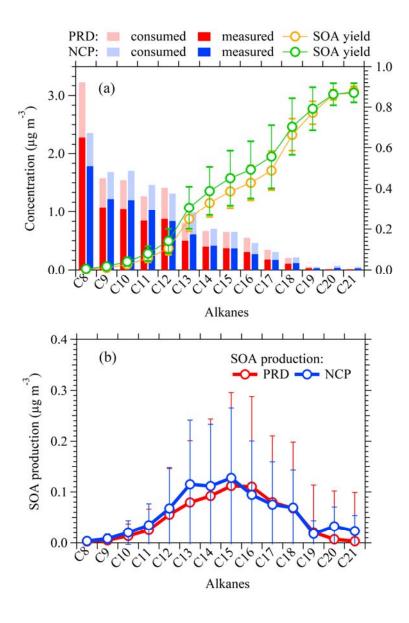


Figure 7. Diurnal variations of C12 alkanes, C15 alkanes and benzene in PRD (a) and NCP

(b).



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Figure 8. (a) Measured concentrations by NO⁺ PTR-ToF-MS, calculated consumed concentrations and average SOA yields for C8-C21 alkanes in PRD and NCP. The consumed concentrations represent the chemical losses of higher alkanes , which are calculated by using the estimated SOA from each alkane dividing the corresponding SOA yields. The error bars represent standard deviations (1 δ) over the averaging period of calculated SOA yields. (b) Calculated average SOA productions for C8-C21 alkanes in PRD and NCP. The error bars represent standard deviations (1 δ) over the averaging period of calculated SOA production.



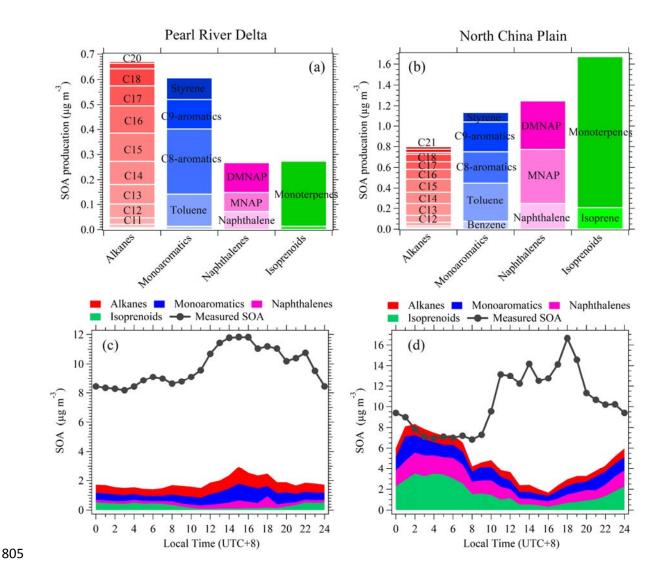


Figure 9. The mean concentrations of SOA produced from higher alkanes (C8-C21 alkanes), monoaromatics (benzene, toluene, C8 aromatics, C9 aromatics and styrene), naphthalenes (naphthalene, methylnaphthalenes, dimethylnaphthalenes) and isoprenoids (isoprene and monoterpenes) in PRD (**a**) and NCP (**b**). Diurnal variations of SOA production from higher alkanes, monoaromatics, naphthalenes and isoprenoids as well as the measured SOA concentrations in PRD (**c**) and NCP (**d**).