1 Sources and characteristics of size-resolved particulate organic acids and methanesulfonate in a
2 coastal megacity: Manila, Philippines

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19   **Abstract**

20   A 16-month (July 2018 – October 2019) dataset of size-resolved aerosol composition is used to
21   examine the sources and characteristics of five organic acids (oxalate, succinate, adipate,
22   maleate, phthalate) and methanesulfonate (MSA) in Metro Manila, Philippines. As one of the
23   most polluted megacities globally, Metro Manila offers a view of how diverse sources and
24   meteorology impact the relative amounts and size distributions of these species. A total of 66
25   sample sets were collected with a Micro-Orifice Uniform Deposit Impactor (MOUDI), of which
26   54 sets were analyzed for composition. Organic acids and MSA surprisingly were less abundant
27   than in other global regions that are also densely populated. The combined species accounted for
28   an average of 0.80 ± 0.66 % of total gravimetric mass between 0.056 and 18 µm, leaving still
29   33.74 % of mass unaccounted for after considering black carbon and water-soluble ions and
30   elements. The unresolved mass is suggested to consist of non-water-soluble metals as well as
31   both water-soluble and non-water-soluble organics. Oxalate was approximately an order of
32   magnitude more abundant than the other five species (149 ± 94 ng m^{-3} versus others being < 10
33   ng m^{-3}) across the 0.056 – 18 µm size range. Both positive matrix factorization (PMF) and
34   correlation analysis is conducted with tracer species to investigate the possible sources for
35   organic acids and MSA. Enhanced biomass burning influence in the 2018 southwest monsoon
36   resulted in especially high levels of submicrometer succinate, MSA, oxalate, and phthalate.
37   Peculiarly, MSA had negligible contributions from marine sources but instead was linked to
38   biomass burning and combustion. Enhanced precipitation during the two monsoon seasons (8
39   June – 4 October 2018 and 14 June – 7 October 2019) coincided with stronger influence from
40   local emissions rather than long-range transport, leading to notable concentration enhancements
41   in both the sub- and supermicrometer ranges for some species (e.g., maleate and phthalate).
42   While secondary formation via gas-to-particle conversion is consistent with submicrometer
43   peaks for the organic acids and MSA, several species (i.e., phthalate, adipate, succinate, oxalate)
44   exhibited a prominent peak in the coarse mode, largely owing to their association with crustal
45   emissions (i.e., more alkaline aerosol type) rather than sea salt. Oxalate's strong association with
46   sulfate in the submicrometer mode supports an aqueous-phase formation pathway for the study
47   region. However, high concentrations during periods of low rain and high solar radiation
48   suggests photo-oxidation is an important formation pathway.

1. Introduction

Organic acids are ubiquitous components of ambient particulate matter and can contribute appreciably to total mass concentrations in diverse regions ranging from the Arctic to deserts (e.g., Barbaro et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2003; Kawamura et al., 2005). Furthermore, another class of species contributing to ambient aerosol mass is organosulfur compounds, with methanesulfonate (MSA) being an example species (Bardouki et al., 2003b; Ding et al., 2017; Falkovich et al., 2005; Kerminen et al., 1999; Maudlin et al., 2015; Ziemba et al., 2011). The spatiotemporal and size-resolved mass concentration profiles of organic and sulfonic acids are difficult to characterize and can significantly vary depending on the time of day, season, region, and meteorological profile (Adam et al., 2020; Bagtasa et al., 2019; Kobayashi et al., 2004; Maudlin et al., 2015; Mochida et al., 2003; Reid et al., 2013). It is necessary to quantify their relative abundances, and to understand factors affecting their production and eventual removal to be able to quantify their influence on aerosol hygroscopic and optical properties (Beaver et al., 2008; Cai et al., 2017; Freedman et al., 2009; Marsh et al., 2017; Marsh et al., 2019; Myhre and Nielsen, 2004; Peng et al., 2016; Xue et al., 2009). Low molecular weight organic acids are water-soluble and can range widely in hygroscopicity when in their pure salt form depending on factors such as carbon number (Prenni et al., 2001; Saxena and Hildemann, 1996; Sorooshian et al., 2008) and interactions with other components in multi-component aerosol particles (Drozd et al., 2014).

Organic acids are generally believed to effectively scatter light and have a cooling effect on climate (McGinty et al., 2009; Myhre and Nielsen, 2004), although their overall impact on properties such as refractive index in multicomponent aerosols is poorly characterized. Refractive indices for species investigated in this work range widely from 1.43 (MSA) to 1.62 (phthalic acid). MSA is assumed to be purely scattering similar to sulfate (Hodshire et al., 2019) and to have hygroscopic properties close to those of ammonium sulfate (Asmi et al., 2010; Fossum et al., 2018). However, its hygroscopic and optical behavior is not fully understood, and is still an active area of research (Liu et al., 2011; Peng and Chan, 2001; Tang et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2015; Zeng et al., 2014).

Decades of research into atmospheric organic acids and MSA have yielded rich insights into their sources, production mechanisms, and fate in the atmosphere (Baboukas et al., 2000; Bardouki et al., 2003a; Gondwe et al., 2004; Kawamura and Bikkina, 2016; Limbeck et al., 2001; Norton et al., 1983; Ovadnevaite et al., 2014; Sorooshian et al., 2009; van Pinxteren et al., 2015). MSA is produced predominantly from the oxidation of dimethylsulfide (DMS) emitted from oceans (Bates et al., 2004; Davis et al., 1998; Kerminen et al., 2017), but it also can be linked to biomass burning, urban, and agricultural emissions (Sorooshian et al., 2015). Sources of organic acids include primary emissions from biomass burning, biogenic activity, and the combustion of fossil fuels (Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987) and secondary formation via gas-to-particle conversion processes stemming from both biogenic (Carlton et al., 2006) and anthropogenic emissions (Sorooshian et al., 2007b). Secondary processing can include both aqueous phase chemistry in clouds (Blando and Turpin, 2000; Ervens, 2018; Ervens et al., 2014; Hoffmann et al., 2019; Rose et al., 2018; Sareen et al., 2016; Warneck, 2005) and photo-

90   oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in cloud-free air (Andreae and Crutzen, 1997;
91   Gelencsér and Varga, 2005). These various sources and production pathways result in mono- and
92   dicarboxylic acids being prevalent across a range of aerosol sizes (Bardouki et al., 2003b;
93   Kavouras and Stephanou, 2002; Neusüss et al., 2000; Yao et al., 2002). Little is reported in terms
94   of the size-resolved nature of organic acids and MSA over long periods (> 6 months) of time
95   with high sampling frequency (weekly or better). Although insights have already been gathered
96   from size-resolved measurement studies (Table S1), most measurement reports are based on bulk
97   mass concentration measurements (Chebbi and Carlier, 1996; Kawamura and Bikkina, 2016).
98   Studying the seasonal variations of size-resolved organic acid and MSA aerosols could prove
99   vital in improved understanding of their formation and removal mechanisms, and associated
100 sensitivity to seasonally dependent sources and meteorological factors.

101 The Philippines is an important region to study aerosols due to the wide range in both
102 meteorological conditions and diverse local and regional emissions sources (Alas et al., 2018;
103 Bagtasa and Yuan, 2020; Braun et al., 2020; Hilario et al., 2020a; Kecorius et al., 2017). In
104 addition to aerosol sources from nearby regions (Hilario et al., 2020b), the Philippines also has a
105 significant source of local pollution largely consisting of vehicular emissions due to high
106 population density (Madueño et al., 2019), the use of outdated vehicles (Biona et al., 2017), ship
107 exhaust from high density shipping lanes (Streets et al., 1997; Streets et al., 2000), and more
108 lenient air regulations leading to significant air pollution due to rapid growth and urbanization
109 (Alas et al., 2018; Kecorius et al., 2017). This leads to Metro Manila containing some of the
110 highest black carbon (BC) concentrations in Southeast Asia, and quite possibly the world (Alas
111 et al., 2018; Hopke et al., 2011; Kecorius et al., 2017; Kim Oanh et al., 2006). Past aerosol
112 characterization work for that region has focused mainly on gravimetric analysis for total bulk
113 mass (e.g., $PM_{2.5}$, PM_{10}) (Bagtasa et al., 2018; Bagtasa et al., 2019; Cohen et al., 2009; Kim
114 Oanh et al., 2006), water-soluble inorganic and organic ion speciation (AzadiAghdam et al.,
115 2019; Braun et al., 2020; Cruz et al., 2019; Kim Oanh et al., 2006; Simpas et al., 2014; Stahl et
116 al., 2020a), and BC analysis (Alas et al., 2018; Bautista et al., 2014; Kecorius et al., 2017;
117 Takahashi et al., 2014). In an analysis of two size-resolved aerosol sets in Manila, a significant
118 portion of the total mass unaccounted for by the water-soluble inorganic, water-soluble organic,
119 and BC components was attributed to (but not limited to) organics and non-water soluble metals
120 (Cruz et al., 2019). However, a concentrated effort to characterize the contributions of the water-
121 soluble organic acids to the total aerosol mass in Manila over the course of a full year has not
122 been undertaken.

123 The aim of this study is to use a 16 month-long dataset of size-resolved composition in Quezon
124 City in Metro Manila to address the following questions: (i) how much do organic acids and
125 MSA contribute to the region's aerosol mass concentrations?; (ii) what are the seasonal
126 differences in the mass size distribution profile of organic acids and MSA, and what drives the
127 changes?; and (iii) what are the sources and predominant formation mechanisms of these species
128 in the sub- and super-micrometer diameter ranges? The results of this study are put in broad
129 context by comparing findings to those in other regions.

130

2. Methods

2.1 Study site description

Metro Manila is comprised of 16 cities and a municipality totaling to a population of about 12.9 million people and a collective population density of 20,800 km^{-2} (Alas et al., 2018; PSA, 2016). Quezon City is the most populated city in Metro Manila containing 2.94 million people with a population density of 18,000 km^{-2} (PSA, 2016), which is amidst the highest in the world. Because of these reasons, Metro Manila is a fitting location for examining locally produced anthropogenic aerosols superimposed on a variety of other marine and continentally influenced air masses transported from upwind regions (Kim Oanh et al., 2006).

Measurements were conducted over a 16-month period between July 2018 and October 2019 at Manila Observatory (MO; 14.64° N, 121.08° E) on the third floor (~85 m a.s.l.) of an office building, which is on the Ateneo de Manila University campus in Quezon City, Philippines (Fig. 1). Sampling was conducted approximately 100 m away from the nearest road on campus and therefore campus emissions do not impact sampling to a large degree, qualifying the monitoring site as an urban mixed background site (Hilario et al., 2020a) capturing local, regional, and long-range transported emissions. The following four seasons were the focus of the sampling period: the 2018 southwest monsoon (SWM18, 8 June – 4 October 2018) (PAGASA, 2018b, c), a transitional period (Transitional, 5 – 25 October 2018), the northeast monsoon (NEM, 26 October 2018 – 13 June 2019) (PAGASA, 2018a), and the 2019 southwest monsoon (SWM19, 14 June – 7 October 2019) (PAGASA, 2019b, a). These seasons have also been defined in other works (i.e., Akasaka et al., 2007; Cruz et al., 2013; Matsumoto et al., 2020) and can predominately be separated into two general seasons, wet (SWM) and dry (NEM). Generally, there is a second transitional period in May that transitions between the NEM and SWM (Bagtasa and Yuan, 2020), however, recent studies suggest that the transition is abrupt (Matsumoto et al., 2020). Consequently, the second transitional period was combined with the NEM season.

2.2 Instrument description

Ambient aerosol was collected with a Micro-Orifice Uniform Deposit Impactor II (MOUDI II 120R, MSP Corporation, Marple et al. (2014)) using Teflon substrates (PTFE membrane, 2 μm pores, 46.2 mm diameter, Whatman). The MOUDI-II is a 10-stage impactor with aerodynamic cutpoint diameters (D_p) of 10, 5.6, 3.2, 1.8, 1.0, 0.56, 0.32, 0.18, 0.10, and 0.056 μm with a nominal flow rate of ~30 L min^{-1}. A total of 66 MOUDI sets were collected on a weekly basis usually over a 48-hour period; however, only 54 sets where analyzed for ions and 47 of those sets were also analyzed for elements. A 48-hour period was chosen because it offered an optimal compromise between gathering samples with fine temporal resolution and samples with a sufficiently large chemical signal to exceed analytical limits of detection. Details of the sample sets are shown in Table S2 can be found in more detail in Stahl et al. (2020a), but a brief summary of the storage and extraction methods will be described here. Substrates were stored in a freezer at -20 °C after samples were collected from the MOUDI until extractions could be carried out, which on average was approximately 2 weeks. The stored substrates were then

171   extracted by sonication in Milli-Q water (18.2 MΩ-cm) for 30 minutes. After sonication,
172   solutions were immediately analyzed to prevent degradation while the remaining extracts were
173   stored in a refrigerator for additional analyses. There have been studies that discuss the effects of
174   sonication oxidation degrading organic species (i.e., Miljevic et al., 2014). It was determined
175   through experimental tests that no significant degradation occurred during the sonication process
176   for the species being analyzed in this study.

177   Water-soluble organic acids, MSA, and inorganic ions were speciated and quantified using ion
178   chromatography (IC; Thermo Scientific Dionex ICS-2100 system) with a flowrate of 0.4 mL
179   min^{-1}. The anionic species of relevance to this study were MSA, chloride (Cl^-), nitrate (NO_3^-),
180   sulfate (SO_4^{2-}), adipate, succinate, maleate, oxalate, and phthalate. These anions were resolved
181   using potassium hydroxide (KOH) eluent, an AS11-HC 250 mm column, and an AERS 500e
182   suppressor. The cationic species of relevance to this study was sodium (Na^+), which was detected
183   using methanesulfonic acid eluent, a CS12A 250 mm column, and a CERS 500e suppressor. The
184   IC instrument methods for anion and cation analysis can be found in Stahl et al. (2020a). Water-
185   soluble elements were measured using a triple quadrupole inductively coupled plasma mass
186   spectrometry (ICP-QQQ; Agilent 8800 Series). The quantified elements of relevance to this
187   study include Al, As, Cd, K, Ni, Pb, Rb, Ti, and V. Limits of detection (LOD) and recoveries
188   were calculated for all ionic and elemental species and provided in Table S3. Aside from the
189   species that are the focus of this study (organic acids and MSA), the other elements and ions
190   were included as they are useful tracers for different aerosol sources to aid in source
191   apportionment. Although pyruvate was speciated with IC, it is not considered with the other
192   organic acids because it was below the LOD for 48 of the 54 sets. It should also be noted that
193   only a subset of species used for analyses were listed here. The full suite of species can be seen
194   in Stahl et al. (2020a).

195   Eleven of the 66 MOUDI sets included simultaneously operated MOUDIs next to each other to
196   complement the chemical speciation analysis with gravimetric analysis. A Sartorius ME5-F
197   microbalance (sensitivity of ± 1 µg) was used in an air-buffered room with controlled
198   temperature (20 – 23 °C) and relative humidity (RH: 30 – 40 %). Each substrate was passed near
199   an antistatic tip for approximately 30 seconds to minimize bias due to electrostatic charge.
200   Multiple weight measurements were conducted before and after sampling, with the difference
201   between weighings being less than 10 µg for each condition, respectively. The difference
202   between substrate weights before and after sampling was equated to total gravimetric mass.

203   Black carbon was measured using a Multi-wavelength Absorption Black Carbon Instrument
204   (MABI; Australian Nuclear Science and Technology Organisation). The MABI optically
205   quantifies black carbon concentrations by detecting the absorption at seven wavelengths (405,
206   465, 525, 639, 870, 940, and 1050 nm); however, the wavelength at 870 nm is used here as black
207   carbon is the primary absorber at that wavelength (Cruz et al., 2019; Ramachandran and Rajesh,
208   2007; Ran et al., 2016).

209   Meteorological parameters were measured at MO during the study period using a Davis Vantage
210   Pro2^{TM} Plus automatic weather station, which was located on the roof. Measured parameters of
211   relevance included temperature, accumulated rain, RH, and solar radiation. Data were collected

212 in five-minute increments and were cleaned based on the method of Bañares et al. (2018) to
213 verify values were in acceptable ranges. The meteorological parameters, except for rain, were
214 averaged over each sampling period while rain was summed over time to obtain the accumulated
215 precipitation for a sampling period. There were two periods where the automatic weather station
216 located at MO had missing values, 6 November – 27 November 2018 and 7 August – 3
217 September 2019. In these cases, missing values were substituted with values from a secondary
218 automatic weather station located approximately 2 km away (14.63° N, 121.06° E), and if
219 missing data still persisted, a tertiary station located 5 km away (14.67° N, 121.11° E) was used.
220 Identical data cleaning procedures were implemented for the secondary and tertiary sites.

221

222 2.3 Concentration weighted trajectories (CWT)

223 A CWT analysis was conducted to identify sources of detected species. The method assigns a
224 weighted concentration to a grid that is calculated by finding the mean of sample concentrations
225 that have trajectories crossing a particular cell in the grid (e.g., Dimitriou, 2015; Dimitriou et al.,
226 2015; Hilario et al., 2020a; Hsu et al., 2003). The software TrajStat (Wang et al., 2009)
227 determines CWT profiles by using back-trajectories from the NOAA Hybrid Single-Particle
228 Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Rolph et al., 2017; Stein et al., 2015).
229 Three-day back-trajectories were obtained with an ending altitude of 500 m above ground level
230 using the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) and the "Model vertical velocity" method.
231 The choice of 500 m is based on representativeness of the mixed layer and having been widely
232 used in other studies (e.g., Crosbie et al., 2014; Mora et al., 2017; Sorooshian et al., 2011).
233 Trajectories were obtained every 6 hours after MOUDI sampling began for each sample set,
234 yielding approximately nine trajectories per set. A grid domain of 95° to 150° E longitude and -
235 5° to 45° N latitude was used with a grid cell resolution of 0.5° × 0.5°. The analysis was
236 performed for each measured organic acid and MSA for the full diameter range of MOUDI sets
237 (0.056 – 18 μm). A weighting function was applied to the CWT plots to minimize uncertainty.

238

239 2.4 Positive matrix factorization (PMF)

240 PMF analysis was applied to identify sources and their relative importance for the mass
241 concentration budgets of the species discussed in this work (Paatero and Tapper, 1994). Model
242 simulations were conducted based on MOUDI data for the diameter range of 0.056 – 18 μm.
243 Nineteen species (Al, Ti, K, Rb, V, Ni, As, Cd, Pb, Na^+, Cl^-, NO_3^-, SO_4^{2-}, MSA, adipate,
244 succinate, maleate, oxalate, and phthalate) were included in the analysis and categorized as
245 "strong". Each individual stage of MOUDI sets was considered an independent variable for the
246 analysis. Missing values or values below detection limit were replaced with zeros with the
247 exception of sets where ICP-QQQ analysis was not performed (57, 59, 60, 61, 62, 64, 65). Those
248 missing values were replaced with the geometric mean for each respective stage. The uncertainty
249 for each stage and species was calculated as follows:

250 $Uncertainty = 0.05 * [x] + LOD$ (Eq. 1)

251 where [x] is the concentration of the species (Reff et al., 2007). No additional uncertainty was
252 added to account for any unconsidered errors for all species. The uncertainty of the model output
253 was evaluated using displacement (DISP), bootstrapping (BS), and bootstrapping with
254 displacement (BS-DISP). For BS, 100 resamples were used and a value of 0.6 was used as a
255 threshold for the correlation coefficient (r) to pass as successful mapping for each simulation.

256 To qualify as a valid result, reported PMF results had to meet the following criteria: (i) factors
257 mapped with BS runs, (ii) no factor swaps in DISP, (iii) dQ values being close or equal to 0%,
258 and (iv) no factor swaps in BS-DISP where Al, Ti, K, Rb, V, Ni, As, Cd, Pb, Na^+, Cl^-, NO_3^-, and
259 SO_4^{2-} were displaced. PMF diagnostics can be seen in Table S4 based on the method of Brown et
260 al. (2015).

261

3. Background on Measured Acids

263 A brief overview of the species being examined is first provided before reviewing concentration
264 statistics. MSA is an oxidation product of dimethylsulfide (DMS) emitted primarily from the
265 ocean (Berresheim, 1987; Saltzman et al., 1983), but it can also be formed from dimethyl
266 sulphoxide (DMSO) emitted from anthropogenic sources such as industrial waste (Yuan et al.,
267 2004). Gaseous MSA can become associated with particulate matter via new particle formation
268 (Dawson et al., 2012), and through heterogeneous reactions or condensation onto existing
269 particles (De Bruyn et al., 1994; Hanson, 2005).

270 Of the three saturated dicarboxylic acids, succinate (C_4) and adipate (C_6) are larger chain
271 dicarboxylic acids linked to ozonolysis of cyclic alkenes, which is common in areas with
272 extensive vehicular emissions (Grosjean et al., 1978; Hatakeyama et al., 1987). They can also be
273 emitted via processes such as meat cooking (Rogge et al., 1993) and biomass burning
274 (Kawamura et al., 2013; Pereira et al., 1982) and can be secondarily formed by the photo-
275 oxidation of higher chain organic acids, such as azelaic acid (Bikkina et al., 2014; Ervens et al.,
276 2004). Oxalate (C_2) is the smallest of those three acids and is usually the most abundant on a
277 mass basis of all dicarboxylic acids in tropospheric aerosols as it represents an end-product in the
278 oxidation of both larger-chain carboxylic acids and also glyoxylic acid (Ervens et al., 2004). It
279 can be emitted via direct emissions such as from biomass burning (Graham et al., 2002;
280 Narukawa et al., 1999; Xu et al., 2020), combustion exhaust (Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987;
281 Kawamura and Yasui, 2005; Wang et al., 2010), and from various biogenic sources (Kawamura
282 and Kaplan, 1987).

283 Maleate (C_4) is an unsaturated dicarboxylic acid originating from combustion engines, including
284 via direct emissions (Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987) and secondarily produced from the photo-
285 oxidation of benzene (Rogge et al., 1993). Lastly, phthalate (C_8) represents an aromatic
286 dicarboxylic acid associated with incomplete combustion of vehicular emissions (Kawamura and
287 Kaplan, 1987) and oxidation of naphthalene or other polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (Fine et
288 al., 2004; Kawamura and Ikushima, 2002; Kawamura and Yasui, 2005). However, it has also
289 been linked to biomass burning (Kumar et al., 2015) and burning of plastic material such as
290 polyvinyl chloride (PVC) products, garbage, and plastic bags (Agarwal et al., 2020; Claeys et al.,

291 2012; Fu et al., 2012; Li et al., 2019; Nguyen et al., 2016; Simoneit et al., 2005). Secondary
292 formation via aqueous-phase chemistry has been documented for these organic acids (Kunwar et
293 al., 2019; Sorooshian et al., 2007a; Sorooshian et al., 2010; Sorooshian et al., 2006; Wonaschuetz
294 et al., 2012) and MSA (Hoffmann et al., 2016).

295

296 **4. Results**

297 4.1 Meteorology and Transport Patterns

298 Meteorological data are summarized based on average values temporally coincident with each
299 MOUDI sample set period for each of the seasons. The exception to this was the accumulated
300 rainfall, which was summed for the MOUDI set duration. Temperatures were stable during the
301 different seasons: 28.0 ± 1.04 °C (SWM18), 28.9 ± 0.8 °C (Transitional), 28.3 ± 1.9 °C (NEM),
302 and 28.4 ± 1.5 °C (SWM19). Solar radiation was the highest during the Transitional ($279.61 \pm$
303 19.68 W m^{-2}) and NEM (304.01 ± 67.54 W m^{-2}) seasons, and lowest during the SWM18 (225.32
304 ± 56.26 W m^{-2}) and SWM19 (256.05 ± 86.88 W m^{-2}) seasons owing largely to more cloud cover.
305 Accumulated rain was highest for both SWM seasons (SWM18: 29.78 ± 27.28 mm; SWM19:
306 16.66 ± 23.98 mm) and much lower during the Transitional (1.00 ± 1.11 mm) and NEM ($2.20 \pm$
307 6.70 mm) seasons. Relative humidity was relatively consistent across seasons: SWM18 ($69.6 \pm$
308 5.0 %), Transitional (69.2 ± 2.2 %), NEM season (62.4 ± 8.0 %), SWM19 (72.6 ± 11.7 %).
309 Finally, Fig. 1 summarizes predominant wind patterns for each season based on HYSPLIT back-
310 trajectories collected every 6 hours during sampling periods. The SWM18 and SWM19 seasons
311 were characterized by predominantly southwesterly winds, while the NEM and Transitional
312 seasons experienced mostly northeasterly winds. In conclusion, there was much higher potential
313 for wet scavenging during the SWM seasons, with the potential for more photochemical
314 reactivity in the NEM and Transitional seasons owing to enhanced incident solar radiation. As
315 humidity was generally enhanced year-round, there was the likelihood of aqueous-phase
316 processing to occur in all seasons. The combination of sustained RH, low boundary layer height,
317 and high surface-level particle concentrations have been suggested to counteract the effects of
318 wet deposition on total particle concentration in Metro Manila (Hilario et al., 2020a).

319

320 4.2 Bulk aerosol measurements

321 The range, mean, and standard deviation of concentrations integrated across the MOUDI
322 diameter range ($0.056 - 18$ µm) are shown in Table 1 for each organic acid and MSA for all
323 seasons. In order of decreasing concentration, the following was the order of abundance based on
324 the cumulative dataset: oxalate (149 ± 94 ng m^{-3}) > succinate (10 ± 22 ng m^{-3}) > maleate ($10 \pm$
325 20 ng m^{-3}) > phthalate (9 ± 14 ng m^{-3}) > adipate (7.6 ± 9.4 ng m^{-3}) > MSA (5.4 ± 5.2 ng m^{-3}).
326 The relative order of abundance varies for the sub- and super-micrometer ranges with the only
327 consistent feature being that oxalate was the most abundant species. This result was consistent
328 with past works showing oxalate to be the most abundant organic acid in different global regions

329   (e.g., Decesari et al. (2006); Kerminen et al. (1999); Sorooshian et al. (2007b); Ziemba et al.
330   (2011)).

331   Figure 2 shows the combined contribution of the organic acids and MSA to total gravimetric
332   mass, while Table S5 summarizes percent contributions of individual species to total mass for
333   different size bins. Combined, the measured organic acids and MSA accounted for only a small
334   part of the total cumulative mass (0.80 ± 0.66 %) across the 11 individual gravimetric sets. When
335   the combined contribution of organic acids and MSA to total gravimetric mass were separated by
336   season, results are generally the same (Fig. S1), with differences in the percent range being as
337   follows: SWM18 = 0.64 %; Transitional = 0.95 %; NEM = 0.50 – 1.49 %; and SWM19 = 0.23 –
338   0.83 %. The highest contribution of these organic acids and MSA occurred for MOUDI sets
339   collected 12 – 14 March 2019 during the NEM season, which accounted for 1.49 % ($0.50 \, \mu g \, m^{-3}$)
340   of the total mass. The lowest contribution of these organic acids and MSA occurred for MOUDI
341   sets collected 11 – 13 September 2019 during the SWM19 season, which accounted for 0.23 %
342   ($0.06 \, \mu g \, m^{-3}$) of the total mass. The summed contributions of the six species were nearly the
343   same in the sub- and supermicrometer ranges (0.78 ± 0.74 % and 0.84 ± 0.58 %, respectively).
344   Their contributions peaked in the two sizes bins covering the range between 0.56 and 1.8 μm
345   ($0.56 – 1 \, \mu m$: 1.06 ± 1.01 %; $1 – 1.8 \, \mu m$: 1.01 ± 0.78 %). After accounting for all measured
346   species (BC, water-soluble species), there still remained 33.74 ± 19.89 % (range: 23.86 – 50.88
347   %) of unresolved mass. Therefore, the six species of interest in this work only explain a small
348   amount of the region's mass concentrations and further work is still needed to resolve the
349   remaining components, which presumably is dominated by water-insoluble organics and
350   elements. Of most need is to resolve those missing components in the supermicrometer range,
351   where Table S5 shows that the unresolved fraction is 69.10 ± 25.91 %, in contrast to $17.78 \pm$
352   17.25 % for the submicrometer range.

353   Although there are fairly wide ranges in concentration for the individual species, a few features
354   are noteworthy based on the cumulative dataset. First, the oxalate concentrations are lower than
355   expected for such a highly polluted area, as will be expanded upon in Sect. 5.5. Second, there is a
356   significant decrease in concentration after oxalate for the remaining five species, which had
357   similar mean concentrations. Lastly, although the sampling site is on an island and close to
358   marine sources, MSA is surprisingly the least abundant among the six species of interest.

359   Mean mass concentrations of these species varied greatly by season as visually shown in Fig. 3a
360   and summarized numerically in Table 1. In contrast, Fig. 3b shows that the mass fractions of the
361   six species did not change much seasonally owing to the dominance of oxalate (37.67 – 472.82
362   ng m^{-3}), which accounted for between 69.1-87.3 % of the cumulative concentration of the six
363   species across the four seasons. Important features with regard to seasonal mass concentration
364   differences include the following: (i) maleate concentrations were much higher in the SWM18
365   and SWM19 seasons; (ii) the lowest overall concentrations of most species, besides oxalate and
366   succinate (lowest in SWM19), were observed in the NEM season; (iii) oxalate and phthalate
367   were the only species that peaked in the Transitional period, whereas the rest of the species
368   peaked in either SWM18 or SWM19; and (iv) succinate and phthalate were peculiarly much

369 more enhanced in SWM18 than SWM19, pointing to significant variability between consecutive
370 years.

371

372 4.3 Source apportionment

373 To help elucidate how different emissions sources impact the six species, PMF analysis was
374 conducted and yielded a solution with five source factors using year-round data (Fig. 4). The five
375 sources are as follows in decreasing order of their contribution to the total mass based on the sum
376 of species used in the PMF analysis (Fig. 4): combustion (32.1 %), biomass burning (20.9 %),
377 sea salt (20.9 %), crustal (14.2 %), and waste processing (11.9 %). The contribution of each
378 source to the total concentration of organic acids and MSA was as follows: combustion (33.5 %),
379 biomass burning (29.0 %), crustal (27.0 %), waste processing (9.8 %), and sea salt (0.6 %). The
380 source factor names were determined based on the enhancement of the following species (Fig.
381 4): (i) crustal (Al, Ti) (Harrison et al., 2011; Malm et al., 1994; Singh et al., 2002), (ii) biomass
382 burning (K, Rb) (Andreae, 1983; Artaxo et al., 1994; Braun et al., 2020; Chow et al., 2004;
383 Echalar et al., 1995; Ma et al., 2019; Schlosser et al., 2017; Thepnuan et al., 2019; Yamasoe et
384 al., 2000), (iii) sea salt (Na, Cl) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016), (iv) combustion (V, Ni, As) (Allen
385 et al., 2001; Linak et al., 2000; Mahowald et al., 2008; Mooibroek et al., 2011; Prabhakar et al.,
386 2014; Wasson et al., 2005), and (v) waste processing (Cd, Pb) (Cruz et al., 2019; Gullett et al.,
387 2007; Iijima et al., 2007; Pabroa et al., 2011). While both SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- are secondarily
388 produced, the latter is more commonly linked to supermicrometer particles (Allen et al., 1996;
389 Dasgupta et al., 2007; Fitzgerald, 1991; Maudlin et al., 2015), including in the study region
390 (Cruz et al., 2019). Additionally, Al, K, and Cl are linked to biomass burning (Reid et al., 1998;
391 Reid et al., 2005; Schlosser et al., 2017; Wonaschütz et al., 2011). The source factor names
392 should be interpreted with caution, as a single profile may consist of a mix of sources (e.g., waste
393 processing). It should be noted that Cruz et al. (2019) performed PMF analysis for only the
394 SWM18 season, which yielded similar and additional sources for only the SWM18 season,
395 whereas this study used year-round data.

396 To provide size-resolved context for the five aerosol sources, Fig. 5 shows their respective
397 reconstructed mass size distributions based on PMF output. Distributions for combustion,
398 biomass burning, and waste processing primarily peaked in the submicrometer range, while
399 crustal and sea salt sources primarily peaked in the supermicrometer range. Combustion and
400 biomass burning factors showed a dominant peak between 0.32 – 0.56 µm, whereas waste
401 processing had a peak between 0.56 – 1 µm. The crustal and sea salt factors exhibited their peak
402 concentrations between 1.8 – 5.6 µm. Both crustal and biomass burning sources showed signs of
403 bimodal size distributions with a minor peak in the sub- and supermicrometer ranges,
404 respectively.

405 As reported in Table 2, combustion was the largest contributor to the cumulative mass
406 concentrations of organic acids and MSA, with the largest influence being for maleate (69.7 %)
407 and MSA (57.4 %). Biomass burning was marked by its significant contribution to succinate
408 (90.3 %). The sea salt source showed minor contributions to phthalate (9.9 %) and adipate (4.7

409 %). The crustal source contributed appreciably to adipate (35.9 %) and oxalate (31.2 %), with the
410 rest of the organic acid or MSA species being less influenced (0.1 – 13.3 %). Organic acids have
411 been shown in past work to be associated with mineral dust (Russell et al., 2002), including both
412 oxalic and adipic acids (Falkovich et al., 2004; Kawamura et al., 2013; Sullivan and Prather,
413 2007; Tsai et al., 2014), although less has been documented for adipate. Wang et al. (2017) and
414 Yao et al. (2003) both report that gaseous acids are likely to adsorb onto supermicrometer
415 particles that are highly alkaline, such as dust. The waste processing factor contributed to
416 maleate (30.1 %), oxalate (10.5 %), and MSA (1.4 %). An unexpected result was that the sea salt
417 factor did not contribute to MSA even though the latter is derived from ocean-emitted DMS; the
418 results of Table 2 suggest that other sources such as biomass burning and industrial activities are
419 more influential in the study region similar to other regions like Beijing (Yuan et al., 2004) and
420 coastal and inland areas of California (Sorooshian et al., 2015).

421

422 4.4 Species interrelationships

423 Correlation analysis was conducted for the same species used in the PMF analysis to quantify
424 interrelationships and to gain additional insight into common production pathways. Correlation
425 coefficients (r) values are reported in Table 3 for for the sub- and supermicrometer ranges,
426 whereas results for full size range are shown in Table S6. Values are only shown and discussed
427 subsequently for correlations with p-values below 0.05. Unless otherwise stated, correlations
428 discussed below correspond to the full size range for simplicity, whereas notable results when
429 contrasting the two size ranges (< 1 μm and > 1 μm) are explicitly mentioned.

430 MSA exhibited a statistically significant correlation with Rb (r = 0.37), suggestive of its link
431 with biomass burning as Rb has been shown in the study region to be a biomass burning marker
432 (Braun et al., 2020). Additionally, MSA was correlated with Na, NO_3^-, and SO_4^{2-} (r: 0.35 – 0.59),
433 which are associated with marine aerosol (e.g., sea salt, DMS, shipping) but also biomass
434 burning. The supermicrometer results indicate MSA was correlated only with Na (r = 0.32), due
435 presumably to co-emission from both crustal and sea salt sources, with the former commonly
436 linked to biomass burning (Schlosser et al., 2017). For the submicrometer range, MSA was
437 correlated with Rb and SO_4^{2-} (r: 0.39 – 0.60), which are derived from biomass burning and other
438 forms of combustion, consistent with smaller particles formed secondarily from gas-to-particle
439 conversion processes. That is also why MSA was well correlated with succinate, oxalate, and
440 phthalate (r: 0.53 – 0.67), which were also prominent species in either (or both of) the biomass
441 burning and combustion factors.

442 Adipate only exhibited significant correlations with maleate and phthalate for the full diameter
443 range (r: 0.43 – 0.45), while maleate was correlated only with adipate. In contrast, succinate,
444 oxalate, and phthalate were correlated with a wide suite of species, indicating that maleate and
445 adipate exhibited more unique behavior in terms of their production routes. Succinate, oxalate,
446 and phthalate similarly exhibited significant correlations with each other, and species linked to
447 crustal sources (Al, Ti, Na), sea salt (Na), and biomass burning (Rb). Succinate and oxalate in

448 particular were better correlated with tracer species related to either dust or sea salt (Al, Na) in
449 the supermicrometer range, and were correlated with each other also in that size range.

450

451 4.5 Cumulative size distribution variations

452 Mass size distributions for each individual organic acid and MSA are shown for the full study
453 period in Fig. S2 and seasonal mass size distributions can be seen in Figs. 6-11. General
454 information for the cumulative dataset will be described here before examining seasonal results
455 in Sect. 5. While significant variability exists between individual sets for the cumulative dataset,
456 a few general features are evident: (i) mass size distributions all appear multi-modal with the
457 exception of maleate, which on average exhibited a uni-modal profile; (ii) all species show a
458 larger peak in the submicrometer range versus supermicrometer sizes; (iii) phthalate and adipate
459 show more comparable peaks in the sub- and supermicrometer range; and (iv) the size bin where
460 the peaks occur vary between species. These results point to differences in the species with
461 regard to their source, formation mechanism, and eventual fate.

462 One factor relevant to the mass size distribution plots is the source origin of sampled air masses.
463 The CWT plots in Fig. 12 reveal the bulk of the concentration of a few species (e.g., phthalate,
464 succinate, and MSA) was explained by southwesterly flow. Consistent with the PMF results
465 showing that the biomass burning factor contributed the most to these three species, the
466 predominant fire sources were to the southwest of Luzon. Past work has linked these areas to
467 significant biomass burning influence over Luzon and the South China Sea during the SWM
468 season (Atwood et al., 2017; Ge et al., 2017; Hilario et al., 2020b; Reid et al., 2016; Song et al.,
469 2018; Wang et al., 2013; Xian et al., 2013). Noteworthy is that the CWT maps for SWM18
470 reveal more influence from the biomass burning hotspots to the southwest (e.g., Borneo and
471 Sumatra), in contrast to SWM19, pointing to more biomass burning influence in the former
472 season. Oxalate's CWT profile shows the most spatial heterogeneity in terms of source regions;
473 this is consistent with it being an end-product in the oxidation of other carboxylic acids that can
474 originate from numerous sources. Finally, adipate and maleate similarly showed a localized
475 hotspot in terms of where their greatest influence originated, approximately 290 km to the north-
476 northwest of MO. This could be partly linked to the Sual coal-fired power station located near
477 that area where an ash disposal site is also in close proximity. The uniquely similar CWT maps
478 between adipate and maleate is consistent with them having few correlations, if any, with species
479 aside from each other (Table S6). Subsequent sections discuss each organic acid and MSA in
480 more detail, beginning with larger acids since knowledge of their behavior is important to better
481 understand the smaller acids.

482

483 **5. Discussion**

484 5.1 Phthalate

485 Results from Sect. 4 show that phthalate has the following characteristics:

486   (i) influenced most by biomass burning (49.5 %), followed by combustion (27.4 %), crustal
487   sources (13.3 %), and then sea salt (9.9 %);

488   (ii) significant correlations with more species in Table S6 than any other organic acid or MSA;

489   (iii) comparable mass size distribution modes in the sub- and supermicrometer size ranges;

490   (iv) highest mass concentration in the Transitional period, but also exhibited significantly
491   different concentrations between the two SWM seasons;

492   (v) had concentrations dominated by sources to the southwest.

493   A more detailed examination based on seasonally resolved mass size distributions and CWT
494   maps follows to try to gain more insights into this species. Although not referenced hereafter,
495   Table S7 provides numerical details about mass concentration mode sizes and associated
496   concentrations for each season and the cumulative dataset for each species.

497   The average size distributions for phthalate appeared bi-modal for each individual season (Fig.
498   6). Depending on the season, concentration peaks occurred in three separate MOUDI stages for
499   the submicrometer range, and between $1.8 – 3.2$ or $3.2 – 5.6$ μm in the supermicrometer range.
500   The NEM season was unique in that the supermicrometer peak was considerably more
501   pronounced than in the submicrometer range, which was a rare occurrence in this study for all
502   species except adipate. Phthalate appears in the submicrometer range due to secondary formation
503   by photo-oxidation (i.e., Kautzman et al., 2010; Kawamura and Ikushima, 2002; Kawamura and
504   Yasui, 2005; Kleindienst et al., 2012) and from primary emissions (i.e., combustion,
505   biomass/waste burning) (i.e., Deshmukh et al., 2016; Kawamura and Kaplan, 1987; Kumar et al.,
506   2015; Kundu et al., 2010). Its general presence in the supermicrometer range, especially during
507   the NEM season, can be explained by possible adsorption onto larger particles such as dust and
508   sea salt (i.e., Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017). Others have observed an enhancement in
509   phthalate in the supermicrometer mode, specifically in Xi'an, China, due to suspected adsorption
510   of its vapor form (Wang et al., 2012) derived from photo-oxidation of naphthalene (Ho et al.,
511   2006; Wang et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017).

512   CWT results for phthalate (Fig. S3) showed high concentrations across all seasons coming from
513   the southwest, most notably in the SWM18 and SWM19 seasons. The significant reduction in
514   phthalate levels from SWM18 (17 ± 25 ng m^{-3}) to SWM19 (5.7 ± 7.4 ng m^{-3}) is coincident with
515   stronger influence from biomass burning from the southwest in 2018. Figure 3 showed that the
516   highest concentration of phthalate occurred in the Transitional period, assumed to be largely due
517   to local emissions (e.g., vehicular traffic) based on the CWT results with significant influence in
518   the immediate vicinity of Luzon unlike the other seasons. The peculiar size distribution results
519   for the NEM season can be explained by the CWT map showing strong influence from the
520   northeast, which likely includes supermicrometer aerosol influences from sea salt and dust from
521   East Asia. The reduced influence of upwind anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions
522   during the NEM season can explain the lower seasonal concentrations, especially in the
523   submicrometer size range (Hsu et al., 2009).

524

525   5.2 Adipate

526   Adipate was shown in Sect. 4 to have the following features:

527   (i) influenced most by crustal sources (35.9 %), followed by combustion (32.9 %), biomass
528   burning (26.4 %), and finally sea salt (4.7 %);

529   (ii) only correlated with maleate and phthalate;

530   (iii) comparable concentrations in the sub- and supermicrometer size ranges, with a mode
531   between 5.6 and 10 μm;

532   (iv) highest mass concentration in the SWM seasons, but especially the SWM19 season;

533   (v) concentrations dominated by sources from the southwest as well as from the northwest.

534   Mass size distributions for adipate were the most variable in structure compared to the other five
535   species with multiple peaks present at different sizes (Fig. S2). In general, its distributions
536   appeared uniquely and consistently tri-modal with the exception of the SWM18 season where it
537   was bi-modal (Fig. 7). Modes appeared between 0.10 – 0.18 μm and 0.32 – 0.56 μm for the
538   submicrometer range, and between 1.0 – 1.8 μm and 3.2 – 5.6 μm in the supermicrometer range.
539   The SWM19 season was unique for adipate as the highest peak was in the supermicrometer
540   range and it was higher than any other peak across the other seasons. Submicrometer adipate is
541   likely derived from a photo-oxidation of higher chain organic acids (i.e., van Drooge and
542   Grimalt, 2015), ozonolysis of vehicular emissions (i.e., Grosjean et al., 1978), and from the
543   primary emissions of biomass burning (i.e., Graham et al., 2002). The appearance in the
544   supermicrometer range likely due to adsorption onto larger particles such as dust and sea salt
545   (e.g., Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017). As the PMF results suggest crustal sources were
546   more influential for adipate in contrast to sea salt, dust was more likely the supermicrometer
547   particle type that adipate preferentially partitioned to. The source of the dust was likely a
548   combination of long-range transport from (i) the southwest especially during biomass burning
549   periods, (ii) East Asia, and (iii) locally generated dust via anthropogenic activities (Fig. S4).

550   Past work in the study region showed that broad mass size distributions with comparable
551   concentrations in the sub- and supermicrometer ranges were coincident with wet scavenging
552   (Braun et al., 2020) and appreciable primary emissions of sea salt and dust (AzadiAghdam et al.,
553   2019; Cruz et al., 2019). Scavenging was suggested to remove transported pollution while
554   allowing for more pronounced contributions from more localized emissions, which could include
555   vehicular traffic, sea salt, and anthropogenic forms of dust (e.g., road dust, construction), all of
556   which are consistent with adipate's mass size distribution data and CWT maps (Fig. S4) showing
557   high concentrations predominately around Luzon for all seasons.

558

559   5.3 Succinate

560   Succinate exhibited the following characteristics:

561 (i) influenced primarily by biomass burning (90.3 %) followed by crustal sources (9.7 %);

562 (ii) exhibited high correlation coefficients (0.67 – 0.76) with oxalate, phthalate, and MSA (Table
563 S6);

564 (iii) mass was focused in the submicrometer range;

565 (iv) highest mass concentrations were in the SWM18 season, and, similar to phthalate, showed a
566 significant reduction in the SWM19 season;

567 (v) had concentrations dominated by sources from the southwest.

568 The average size distributions for succinate varied in the number of peaks present (2 – 4), but on
569 average were bi-modal with a submicrometer mode usually between 0.32 – 0.56 µm or 0.56 – 1.0
570 µm, and a smaller supermicrometer mode between either 1.8 – 3.2 µm or 3.2 – 5.6 µm (Fig. 8).
571 The chief source of succinate, which is concentrated in the submicrometer peak, is biomass
572 burning (Pratt et al., 2011; Vasconcellos et al., 2010), which is reinforced by the PMF results
573 (Table 2), its high correlation with the biomass burning tracer Rb (r = 0.67; Table S6) (Braun et
574 al., 2020) and CWT maps showing its most pronounced influence from biomass burning hotspots
575 to the southwest during the SWM18 season (Fig. S5). There likely was also local biomass
576 burning during the NEM season contributing to succinate concentrations. Hilario et al. (2020a)
577 showed based on satellite data that local fire activity peaks between March and May. There was
578 less influence from biomass burning in the SWM19 season, which is why succinate's levels were
579 lower (4.7 ± 7.4 ng m^{-3}) than in the SWM18 season (22 ± 43 ng m^{-3}). Similar to phthalate and
580 adipate, there were more local hotspots of concentration in seasonal CWT maps pointing to local
581 anthropogenic sources such as vehicular traffic and the presence of supermicrometer particles
582 like dust and sea salt that succinate can partition to (e.g., Wang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017).

583

584 5.4 Maleate

585 The results of Sect. 4 showed that maleate had the following attributes:

586 (i) influenced most by combustion (69.7 %), followed by waste processing (30.1 %), and then
587 barely by crustal sources (0.2 %);

588 (ii) only correlated with adipate of all species shown in Table S6;

589 (iii) showed a uni-modal mass size distribution, with negligible contribution in the
590 supermicrometer range;

591 (iv) highest mass concentration in the SWM19 season, but was comparable to the SWM18
592 season;

593 (v) CWT maps showed the most localized sources as compared to the other species examined
594 (Fig. 11).

595 The average seasonal size distributions for maleate appeared to be uni-modal with peaks between
596 0.32 – 0.56 µm and 0.56 – 1.0 µm (Fig. 9). The absence of a supermicrometer peak, in contrast to
597 most other species, suggests that it had less diverse sources and was derived from combustion
598 emissions without being adsorbed onto supermicrometer particles like the other species
599 investigated. The association of maleate with the waste processing source factor in Table 2 can
600 be explained partly by the burning and recycling of electronic waste (Cruz et al., 2019; Gullett et
601 al., 2007; Iijima et al., 2007). The Pabroa et al. (2011) study reported that there are few licensed
602 operators for battery recycling, but there are numerous unregulated melters frequently melting
603 metal and discarding the waste.

604 Seasonal CWT maps for maleate (Fig. S6) consistently showed hotspots around Luzon indicative
605 of local emissions. Maleate concentrations for the SWM18 (19 ± 15 ng m^{-3}) and SWM19 ($19 \pm$
606 34 ng m^{-3}) were significantly higher than the other seasons (Transitional: 3.8 ± 4.2 ng m^{-3}; NEM:
607 1.7 ± 3.7 ng m^{-3}), and this could likely be due to increased traffic emissions because of gridlock
608 due to intense rainfall. It should be noted that the Ateneo de Manila campus has student break
609 periods in March, April, May, and December (Hilario et al., 2020a); those months pertain to the
610 NEM season, which could lead to lower combustion emissions from vehicles (e.g., maleate and
611 phthalate). Although the SWM season is associated with enhanced precipitation over Metro
612 Manila, lower boundary layer height and appreciable RH values could counteract wet scavenging
613 to some degree by promoting aqueous processing of aerosol (Hilario et al., 2020a). Furthermore,
614 maleate's largely submicrometer size distribution (Fig. 9) may reduce the efficiency of wet
615 scavenging (Greenfield, 1957).

616

617 5.5 Oxalate

618 Oxalate was shown to have the following traits:

619 (i) influenced somewhat uniformly by combustion (32.9 %) and crustal (31.2 %) sources,
620 followed by biomass burning (25.4 %), and waste processing (10.5 %);

621 (ii) only organic acid to correlate with combustion tracers (V, Ni);

622 (iii) pronounced presence in both the sub- and supermicrometer size ranges;

623 (iv) highest mass concentrations in the Transitional period;

624 (v) had contributions from the southwest, east/northeast, and locally.

625 Oxalate concentrations in this study (37.67 – 472.82 ng m^{-3}) were surprisingly low for such a
626 polluted megacity with strong regional sources. For context, concentrations in a few other
627 regions are as follows: 270 – 1,350 ng m^{-3} in Tokyo, Japan (Kawamura and Ikushima, 2002;
628 Sempére and Kawamura, 1994); 195 – 669 ng m^{-3} in Beijing, China (Du et al., 2014); and 149 –
629 735 ng m^{-3} in Thumba, India (Hegde et al., 2016).

630 The average size distributions for oxalate appeared bi-modal for each individual season with
631 modes between 0.32 – 0.56 µm and 0.56 – 1.0 µm for the submicrometer range and a separate

632 mode between 1.8 – 3.2 μm for the supermicrometer range (Fig. 10). A unique aspect for oxalate
633 was its consistency in having a bi-modal profile each season with the supermicrometer mode
634 always between 1.8 – 3.2 μm. Note that the modes discussed here represent the most pronounced
635 ones but others could have been present too reflecting other sources. Submicrometer oxalate
636 likely originated from secondary production from both biogenic and anthropogenic precursor
637 emissions, and potentially from primary emissions (i.e., combustion/biomass burning) (i.e.,
638 Decesari et al., 2006; Falkovich et al., 2005; Golly et al., 2019; Kundu et al., 2010; Wang et al.,
639 2010). Of all the six species studied, oxalate was best correlated with SO_4^{2-} (r = 0.69; Table S6),
640 especially in the submicrometer range (r = 0.72; Table 3), which is consistent with their common
641 production mechanism via aqueous processing (Sorooshian et al., 2006; Yu et al., 2005).
642 Additionally, high concentrations of oxalate in the Transitional period suggest that photo-
643 oxidation was an important process for oxalate formation since the Transitional period had low
644 rain and high solar radiation. The prominent supermicrometer presence was likely due to
645 adsorption onto supermicrometer particles. Past work by Sullivan and Prather (2007) reported
646 the following with regard to oxalate's behavior in coarse particles of relevance to this study: (i)
647 oxalic acid was predominately associated with mineral dust and to a lesser degree with aged sea
648 salt; (ii) even though most of the total mass was sea salt, there was more oxalate per mass of
649 mineral dust than sea salt; (iii) Asian dust particles are more alkaline as opposed to sea salt and
650 therefore act as better sinks for dicarboxylic acids than sea salt; and (iv) it is feasible that a large
651 fraction of supermicrometer dicarboxylic acid mass in remote marine air is associated with
652 mineral dust and not sea salt. The PMF results from the present study suggest that oxalate was
653 much more influenced by crustal sources (31.2 %) versus sea salt (0 %), similar to phthalate,
654 adipate, and succinate (Table 2). Reinforcing the relationship between oxalate and dust is the
655 significant correlation between oxalate and both Al (r = 0.59) and Ti (0.29) in the
656 supermicrometer range.

657 CWT results for oxalate (Fig. S7) showed high concentrations around Luzon for all seasons, with
658 the caveat that the SWM18 exhibited high concentrations coming from the southwest, which has
659 already been linked to biomass burning emissions. The difference in oxalate levels between the
660 SWM18 (178 ± 139 ng m^{-3}) and SWM19 (110 ± 62 ng m^{-3}) seasons is largely due to the
661 enhanced contribution of biomass burning in the former season since oxalate is abundant in fire
662 emissions (Falkovich et al., 2005; Mardi et al., 2018; Narukawa et al., 1999).

663

664 5.6 MSA

665 Previous sections revealed the following characteristics for MSA:

666 (i) influenced most by combustion (57.4 %), followed by biomass burning (41.2 %), waste
667 processing (1.4 %), and then crustal sources (0.1 %);

668 (ii) significantly correlated with succinate, oxalate, phthalate, and SO_4^{2-};

669 (iii) similar to maleate, primarily consisted of a submicrometer mass size distribution peak with
670 only minor contributions from the supermicrometer mode;

671   (iv) concentration was highest during the SWM18 season;

672   (v) had concentrations dominated by sources from the southwest.

673   Concentrations of MSA in this study were surprisingly low for a site so close to marine and
674   anthropogenic sources (0.10 – 23.23 ng m^{-3}). For context, MSA concentrations in nearby regions
675   are as follows: 30 – 60 ng m^{-3} in Nanjing, China (Yang et al., 2005); 29 – 66 ng m^{-3} over the
676   China Sea (Gao et al., 1996).

677   The average size distributions for MSA appeared uni-modal with the peak size being between
678   0.32 – 0.56 μm (Fig. 11). The consistent mass size distribution for MSA in all seasons, similar to
679   maleate, could be due to some combination of limited sources and production pathways.
680   Surprisingly, MSA showed no association to the sea salt source factor (Table 2) even though it
681   would be expected given that DMS is co-emitted from the ocean with sea salt. Due to the
682   proximity of the sampling site to the ocean it is possible that the local sea salt was relatively
683   fresh with short transport time, which could potentially explain the lack of an association with
684   MSA as it requires time to be produced from its marine precursor DMS. Instead, combustion and
685   biomass burning sources were more significantly related to MSA, which is consistent with some
686   past studies linking MSA to anthropogenic sources (Yuan et al., 2004) and biomass burning
687   (Sorooshian et al., 2015). Consequently, concentrations of MSA from these other non-marine
688   sources could be much higher causing the PMF model to associate MSA with non-sea salt
689   related sources. CWT results for MSA (Fig. S8) showed high concentrations coming from the
690   southwest during the SWM18 and SWM19 seasons, and from the east-northeast during the NEM
691   and Transitional period.

692   Both MSA and oxalate had significantly lower concentrations than other regions, and there are a
693   few possible explanations for this. First, it is worth noting that degradation of these species is
694   unlikely due to storage or sonication as careful procedures were followed as noted in Sect. 2.2.
695   The Philippines has relatively high temperatures, humidity, and solar radiation year-round,
696   providing optimal conditions for processing and degradation to occur, yielding low
697   concentrations for MSA and oxalate. Furthermore, there are mechanisms by which species such
698   as oxalate can be degraded via complexation effects with metal cations (Paris and Desboeufs,
699   2013; Siffert and Sulzberger, 1991; Sorooshian et al., 2013; Zuo, 1995), which are abundant in
700   the study region.

701

702   **6. Conclusions**

703   This work used a 16-month long dataset of size-resolved aerosol composition to investigate the
704   nature of five organic acids (oxalate, succinate, adipate, maleate, and phthalate) and MSA in the
705   polluted Metro Manila region in the Philippines. Selected results are as follows in order of the
706   three major questions posed at the end of Sect. 1.

707   • Organic acids and MSA contribute only a small fraction to the total gravimetric aerosol
708   mass in Metro Manila (0.80 ± 0.66 %). The combined contribution of these six species
709   was similar between the sub- and supermicrometer range (0.78 % and 0.84 %,

710   respectively). After accounting for water-soluble ions and elements, and black carbon,
711   there still was an unresolved mass fraction amounting to 33.74 % across all sizes, and
712   17.78 % and 69.10 % for sub- and supermicrometer sizes, respectively. Therefore, future
713   work is still warranted to identify what the missing fraction is comprised of, which is
714   speculated to be water-insoluble organics and elements.

715 • Oxalate was the most abundant of the six species accounting for 69.1 – 87.3 % of the
716   total combined mass of the six species depending on the season. However, the bulk
717   concentrations of oxalate were unusually low (149 ± 94 ng m^{-3}) for such a polluted area
718   in contrast to other populated regions. Concentrations of the other five species were much
719   lower than oxalate, with mean levels for the entire study period being less than 10 ng m^{-3}.
720   In particular, MSA exhibited the lowest mean concentration (5.4 ± 5.2 ng m^{-3}). It is
721   unclear exactly as to the reason for the low concentrations of the examined species in
722   light of the diverse marine and anthropogenic sources in the region. The role of wet
723   scavenging, especially in the SWM seasons, will be the subject of future research.

724 • The six species exhibited different behavior seasonally, both in terms of relative
725   concentration and mass size distribution. The SWM18 season was uniquely different than
726   the SWM19 season, owing to more biomass burning emissions transported from the
727   southwest that yielded enhanced levels for most species in the submicrometer range,
728   especially succinate, MSA, oxalate, and phthalate. Enhanced precipitation in the SWM
729   seasons also was coincident with more influence from localized emissions leading to
730   enhanced levels in the sub- and supermicrometer ranges depending on the species. The
731   NEM season was characterized by generally lower concentrations of most species as air
732   was predominantly transported from the northeast with reduced influence of
733   anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions. Phthalate was enhanced in the
734   supermicrometer range during the NEM season due to presumed adsorption to Asian dust
735   and to a lesser extent sea salt. The Transitional season was characterized by having strong
736   influence from localized emissions for all six species, which promoted especially high
737   concentrations for phthalate and oxalate in both the sub- and supermicrometer ranges.

738 • All species exhibited a prominent submicrometer peak that likely stemmed largely from
739   secondary formation from both anthropogenic and biogenic precursor emissions and was
740   especially prominent during the SWM18 season due to extensive biomass burning
741   influence. Biomass burning was an especially important source for succinate, phthalate,
742   MSA, oxalate, and adipate. All six species exhibited relatively low association with sea
743   salt particles; this was particularly interesting for MSA, which was instead better related
744   to combustion and biomass burning emissions. In contrast to sea salt, most species were
745   linked to crustal emissions as evident from peaks in the coarse mode during periods of
746   dust influence. Oxalate, adipate, phthalate, and succinate in particular preferentially
747   partitioned to dust rather than sea salt, potentially due to their affinity for alkaline particle
748   types. Oxalate was best correlated with sulfate, especially in the submicrometer mode,
749   explained by their common production via aqueous processing, which is common in the
750   study region owing to high humidity levels year-round.

751   The results of this study point to the importance of size-resolved measurements of organic and
752   sulfonic acids as this extensive dataset revealed important changes in mass size distributions
753   between species and for different seasons. The data point to the partitioning of these species to
754   coarse aerosol types and the potentially significant impact of precipitation on either the removal
755   or enhancement of species' mass size distribution modes; these topics warrant additional
756   research to put on firmer ground the sensitivity of these species to source regions, transport
757   pathway, and wet scavenging effects. More research is warranted to investigate the remaining
758   fraction of the unresolved mass (approximately one third of the gravimetric mass) that is not
759   accounted for by black carbon and the water-soluble constituents speciated in this work. This is
760   especially important for the supermicrometer range. Lastly, the current results point to the
761   question as to what drives the affinity of individual species towards the coarse mode for different
762   aerosol types (e.g., dust, sea salt), and how common this is for other regions.

763

Data availability

765   Size-resolved aerosol data collected at Manila Observatory are described in Stahl et al. (2020a)
766   and archived on figshare (Stahl et al., 2020b) as well as on the NASA data repository at
767   DOI:10.5067/Suborbital/CAMP2EX2018/DATA001.

768

Author contribution

770   MTC, MOC, JBS, RAB, ABM, CS, and AS designed the experiment. All coauthors carried out
771   various aspects of the data collection. MTC, RAB, CS, and AS conducted analysis and
772   interpretation of the data. CS and AS prepared the manuscript with contributions from the
773   coauthors.

774

Competing interests

776   The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

777

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1515 **Table 1:** Seasonal concentrations (ng m^{-3}) of organic acids and MSA for all (0.056 – 18 μm), submicrometer (0.056 – 1 μm), and
1516 supermicrometer (1 – 18 μm) sizes measured in Metro Manila from July 2018 to October 2019. n = number of sets.

Size/Species		All (n = 54)		SWM18 (n = 11)		Transitional (n = 3)		NEM (n = 27)		SWM19 (n = 13)	
		Range	Mean (SD)	Range	Mean (SD)	Range	Mean (SD)	Range	Mean (SD)	Range	Mean (SD)
All: 0.056 - 18 µm	Phthalate	0 - 67.02	9 (14)	1.97 - 67.02	17 (25)	17.36 - 45.30	27 (16)	0 - 14.72	4.8 (4.4)	0-25.03	5.7 (7.4)
	Adipate	0 - 43.83	7.6 (9.4)	0 - 20.18	9.1 (8.8)	0.24 - 19.56	8 (10)	0 - 13.00	4.2 (3.8)	0 - 43.83	13 (15)
	Succinate	0 - 116.28	10 (22)	0 - 116.28	22 (43)	0 - 14.31	7.6 (7.2)	0 - 62.83	7 (14)	0 - 20.14	4.7 (7.4)
	Maleate	0 - 119.19	10 (20)	2.56 - 58.39	19 (15)	0.19 - 8.45	3.8 (4.2)	0 - 14.42	1.7 (3.7)	2.30 - 119.19	19 (34)
	Oxalate	37.67 - 472.82	149 (94)	49.83 - 472.82	178 (139)	179.42 - 365.10	252 (99)	51.62 - 421.82	144 (76)	37.67 - 214.62	110 (62)
	MSA	0.10 - 23.33	5.4 (5.2)	2.77 - 23.33	10.0 (6.6)	0.16 - 16.14	5.6 (9.2)	0.10 - 7.45	3.1 (2.0)	0.84 - 17.52	6.3 (5.4)
0.056 - 1 µm	Phthalate	0 - 64.53	6 (13)	0.51 - 64.53	15 (24)	9.14 - 39.62	20 (17)	0 - 9.38	1.6 (2.5)	0 - 8.51	2.7 (3.1)
	Adipate	0 - 31.57	4.3 (5.8)	0 - 15.94	6.1 (6.3)	0 - 10.99	5.5 (5.5)	0 - 10.64	2.5 (3.2)	0 - 31.57	6.1 (8.8)
	Succinate	0 - 108.47	7 (20)	0 - 108.47	19 (39)	0 - 13.54	7.3 (6.8)	0 - 52.42	4 (10)	0 - 15.68	4.3 (6.6)
	Maleate	0 - 108.65	9 (18)	2.56 - 57.73	18 (15)	0.19 - 8.45	3.8 (4.2)	0 - 14.42	1.6 (3.6)	2.30 - 108.65	18 (31)
	Oxalate	16.21 - 318.49	93 (62)	29.96 - 256.72	108 (75)	96.84 - 250.78	166 (78)	26.11 - 318.49	91 (58)	16.21 - 151.79	70 (40)
	MSA	0 - 21.32	5.0 (4.9)	2.41 - 21.32	9.3 (6.2)	0.08 - 15.58	5.3 (8.9)	0 - 7.45	2.9 (2.1)	0.84 - 16.22	5.7 (5.1)
1-18 µm	Phthalate	0 - 16.52	3.1 (3.3)	0 - 4.07	2.0 (1.7)	5.43 - 9.03	6.7 (2.0)	0 - 9.42	3.2 (2.6)	0 - 16.52	3.0 (5.0)
	Adipate	0 - 26.00	3.3 (4.9)	0 - 7.87	3.0 (3.2)	0 - 8.56	2.9 (4.9)	0 - 8.07	1.7 (2.2)	0 - 26.00	7.1 (8.0)
	Succinate	0 - 21.18	2.2 (4.5)	0 - 16.02	3.1 (4.9)	0 - 0.77	0.3 (0.4)	0 - 21.18	2.9 (5.4)	0 - 5.33	0.4 (1.5)
	Maleate	0 - 10.54	0.4 (1.5)	0 - 2.30	0.3 (0.7)	0	0	0 - 0.45	0.02 (0.09)	0 - 10.54	1.2 (2.9)
	Oxalate	6.27 - 216.10	55 (39)	19.87 - 216.10	70 (67)	62.90 - 114.32	87 (26)	18.51 - 104.88	53 (23)	6.27 - 103.58	41 (29)
	MSA	0 - 2.00	0.4 (0.5)	0 - 2.00	0.8 (0.6)	0 - 0.56	0.2 (0.3)	0 - 1.58	0.2 (0.4)	0 - 1.93	0.6 (0.6)

1517

1518 **Table 2:** Contributions of the five positive matrix factorization (PMF) source factors to each
1519 individual organic acid and MSA.

	Combustion	Biomass Burning	Crustal	Sea Salt	Waste Processing
Phthalate	27.4 %	49.5 %	13.3 %	9.9 %	0 %
Adipate	32.9 %	26.4 %	35.9 %	4.7 %	0 %
Succinate	0 %	90.3 %	9.7 %	0 %	0 %
Maleate	69.7 %	0 %	0.2 %	0 %	30.1 %
Oxalate	32.9 %	25.4 %	31.2 %	0 %	10.5 %
MSA	57.4 %	41.2 %	0.1 %	0 %	1.4 %

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1522 **Table 3:** Pearson's correlation matrices (r values) of water-soluble species for submicrometer
1523 (0.056 – 1.0 µm) and supermicrometer (1.0 – 18 µm) sizes. Blank boxes indicate p-values
1524 exceeding 0.05 and thus deemed to be statistically insignificant. Ad – adipate, Su – succinate,
1525 Ma – maleate, Ox – oxalate, Ph – phthalate. A similar correlation matrix for the full size range
1526 (0.056 – 18 µm) is in Table S6.

< 1 µm	Al	Ti	K	Rb	V	Ni	As	Cd	Pb	Na	Cl	NO3	SO4	MSA	Ad	Su	Ma	Ox	Ph
Al	1.00																		
Ti		1.00																	
K	0.91		1.00																
Rb	0.44		0.48	1.00															
V		0.28		0.36	1.00														
Ni		0.47		0.40	0.89	1.00													
As							1.00												
Cd					0.64	0.68		1.00											
Pb	0.41		0.32	0.27	0.28	0.40		0.42	1.00										
Na										1.00									
Cl	0.90		0.99	0.39					0.30		1.00								
NO3	0.76		0.82	0.28							0.84	1.00							
SO4				0.42	0.48	0.40							1.00						
MSA				0.39									0.60	1.00					
Ad															1.00				
Su		0.31		0.67									0.45	0.67	0.33	1.00			
Ma															0.32		1.00		
Ox		0.35		0.70	0.47	0.53							0.72	0.47		0.69		1.00	
Ph		0.37		0.53									0.39	0.67	0.45	0.82		0.57	1.00

> 1 µm	Al	Ti	K	Rb	V	Ni	As	Cd	Pb	Na	Cl	NO3	SO4	MSA	Ad	Su	Ma	Ox	Ph
Al	1.00																		
Ti	0.56	1.00																	
K			1.00																
Rb	0.62		0.48	1.00															
V		0.40		0.31	1.00														
Ni		0.30				1.00													
As		0.37			0.33		1.00												
Cd					0.66	0.41	0.34	1.00											
Pb	0.43	0.45		0.36	0.51	0.45		0.65	1.00										
Na	0.49	0.42								1.00									
Cl	0.45	0.48								0.90	1.00								
NO3	0.38			0.32	0.41					0.64	0.30	1.00							
SO4	0.39		0.81	0.64						0.37	0.29	0.36	1.00						
MSA										0.32				1.00					
Ad															1.00				
Su	0.39			0.28						0.30						1.00			
Ma															0.57		1.00		
Ox	0.59	0.29		0.48						0.45		0.59	0.35			0.45		1.00	
Ph		0.29									0.34				0.30				1.00

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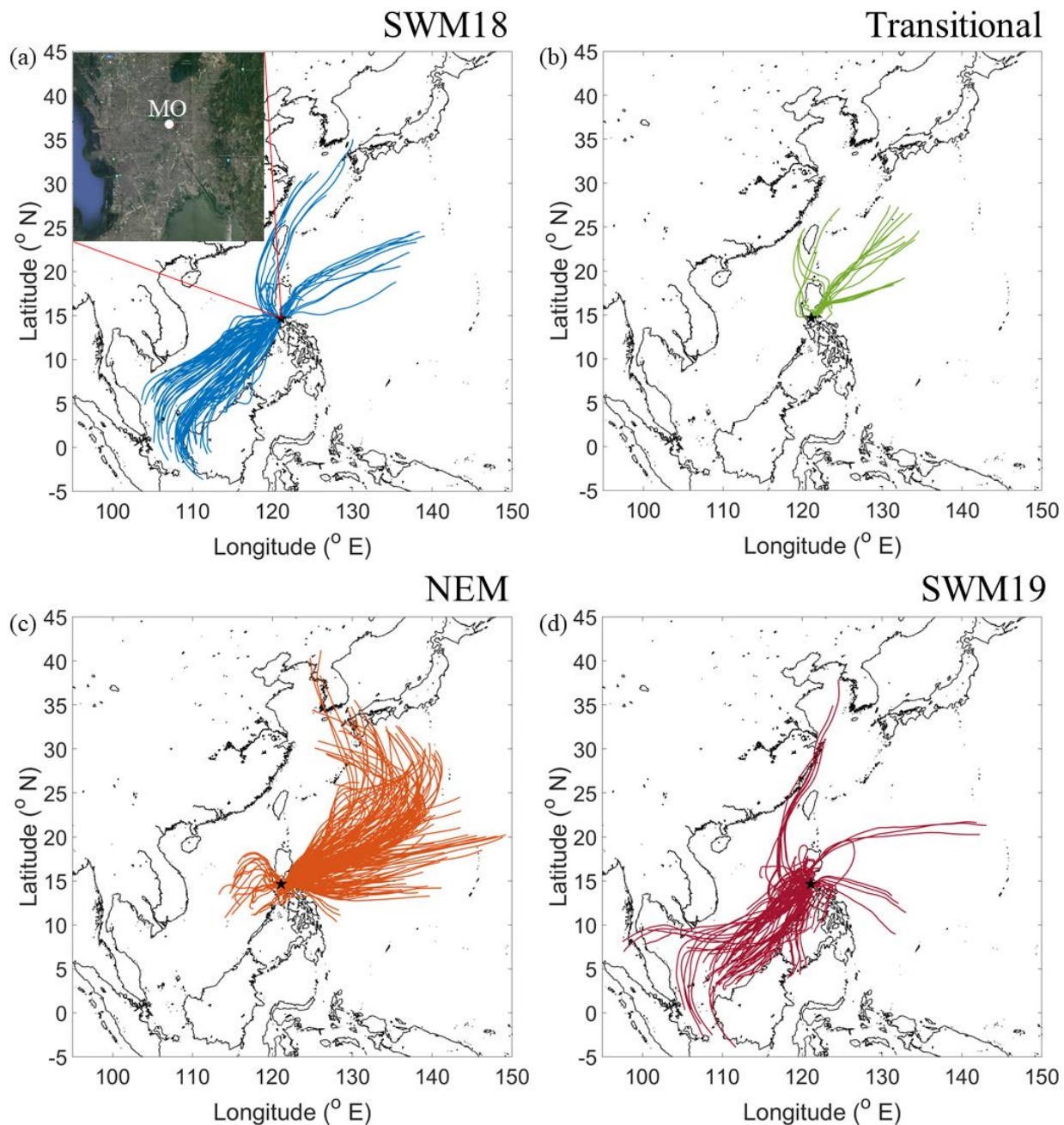
1529 **Figure 1:** HYSPLIT back-trajectories for four seasons: (a) 2018 southwest monsoon (SWM18),
1530 (b) Transitional period, (c) northeast monsoon (NEM), and (d) 2019 southwest monsoon
1531 (SWM19). Results shown are based on 72-hour back-trajectories collected every 6 h during
1532 sampling periods. The top left corner of panel (a) zooms in on Metro Manila with Manila
1533 Observatory (MO) marked. The black star in each panel represents the sampling site. Map data:
1534 © Google Earth, Maxar Technologies, CNES/Airbus, Data SIO, NOAA, U.S. Navy, NGA,
1535 GEBCO.

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1537
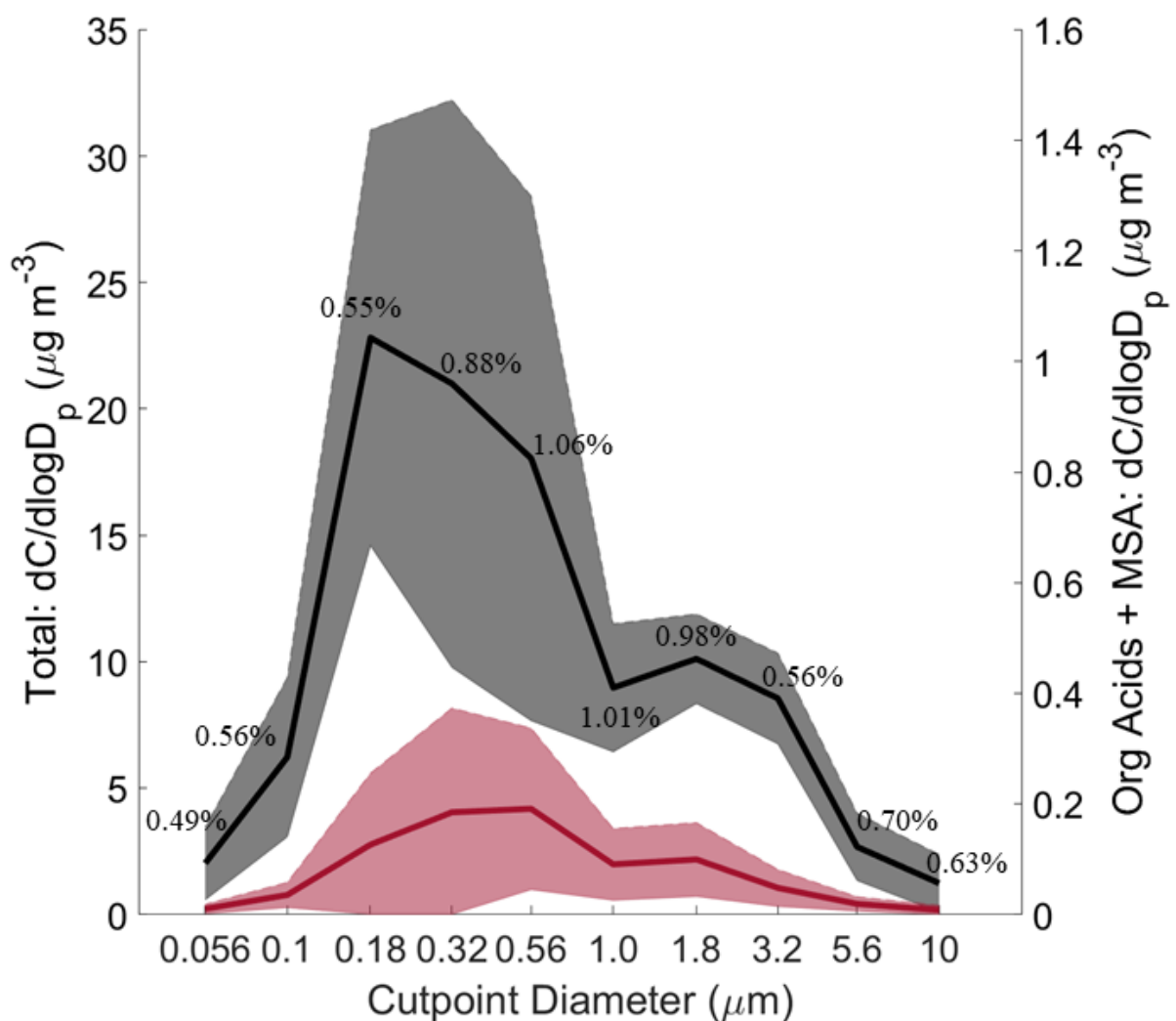
Figure 2: Size-resolved comparison of total mass versus the sum of measured organic acids and MSA. The black curve represents total mass and the red curve represents the summed organic acids and MSA. Solid lines are the averages and shaded areas are one standard deviation. These plots were made based on data from the 11 MOUDI chemical sets with accompanying gravimetric measurements. The average percent contribution of the organic acids and MSA to total mass is provided for each size bin. Refer to Fig. S1 for the seasonally-resolved version of this figure.

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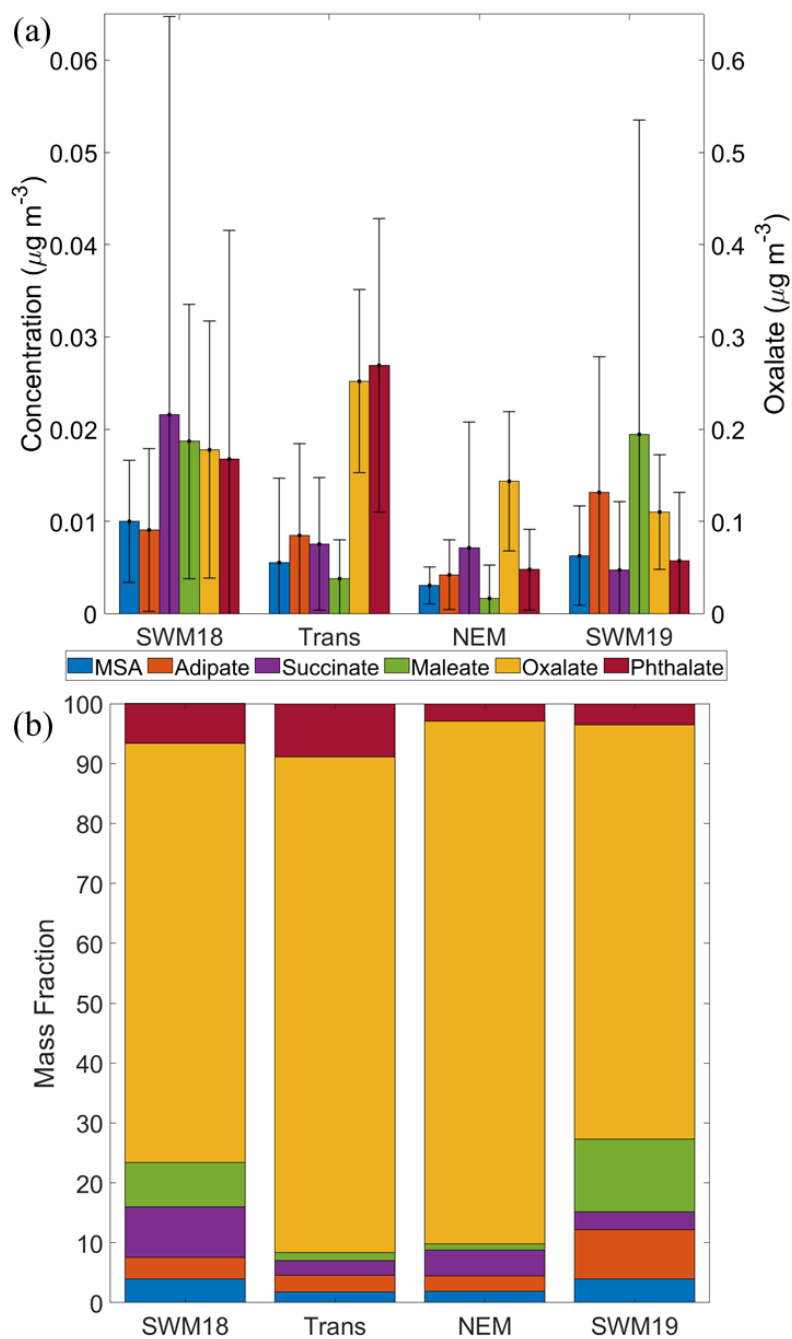
1547 **Figure 3:** (a) Average concentrations (0.056 – 18 μm) for (left y-axis) MSA, adipate, succinate,
1548 maleate, and phthalate, in addition to (right y-axis) oxalate. Black bars represent one standard
1549 deviation. (b) Percentage relative mass abundance of organic acids and MSA separated based on
1550 season.

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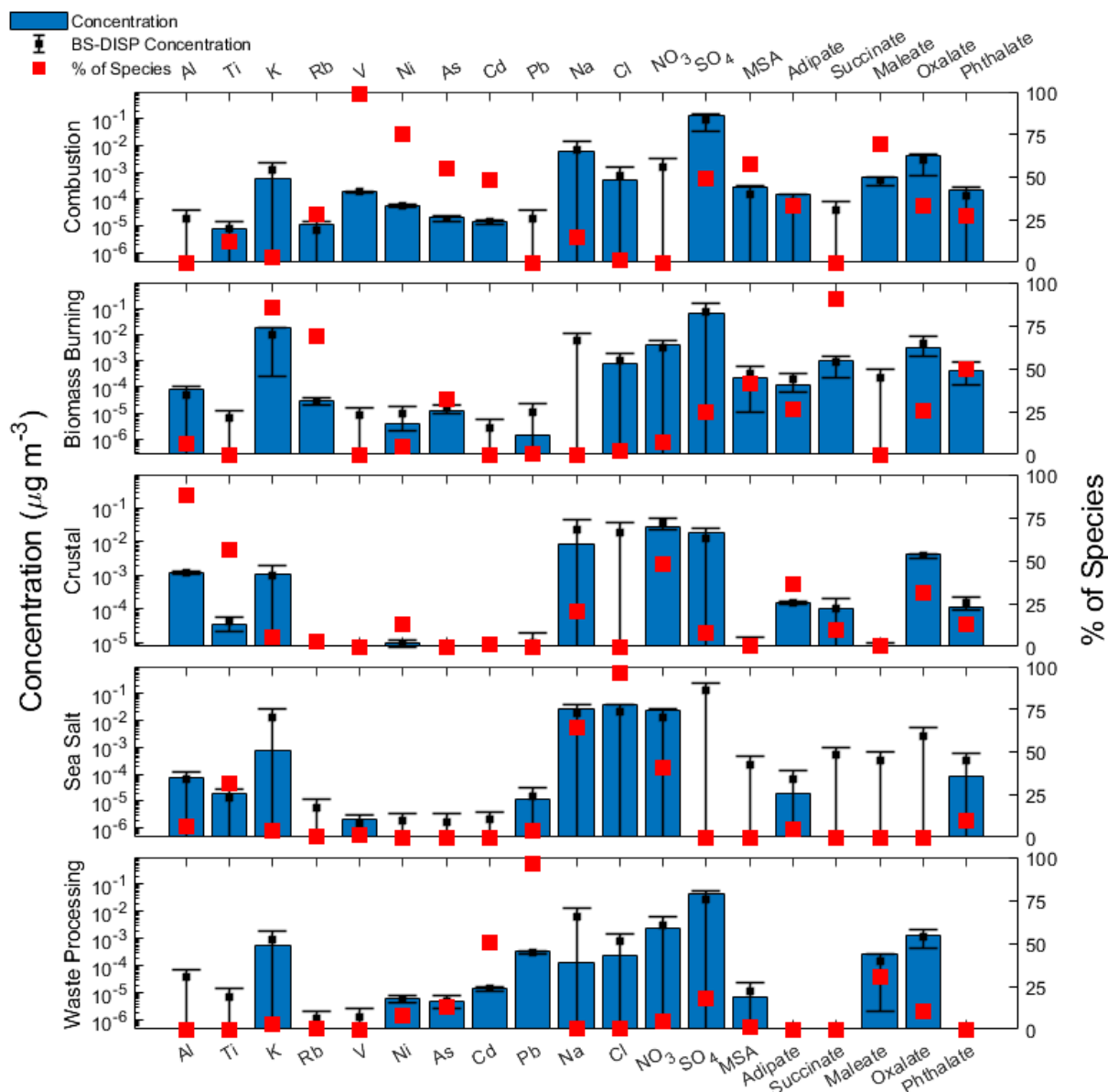
Figure 4: Source factor profiles from positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis. Blue bars represent the mass concentration contributed to the respective factor, red filled squares represent the percentage of total species associated with that source factor, and black squares with error bars represent the average, 5th, and 95th percentiles of bootstrapping with displacement (BS-DISP) values.

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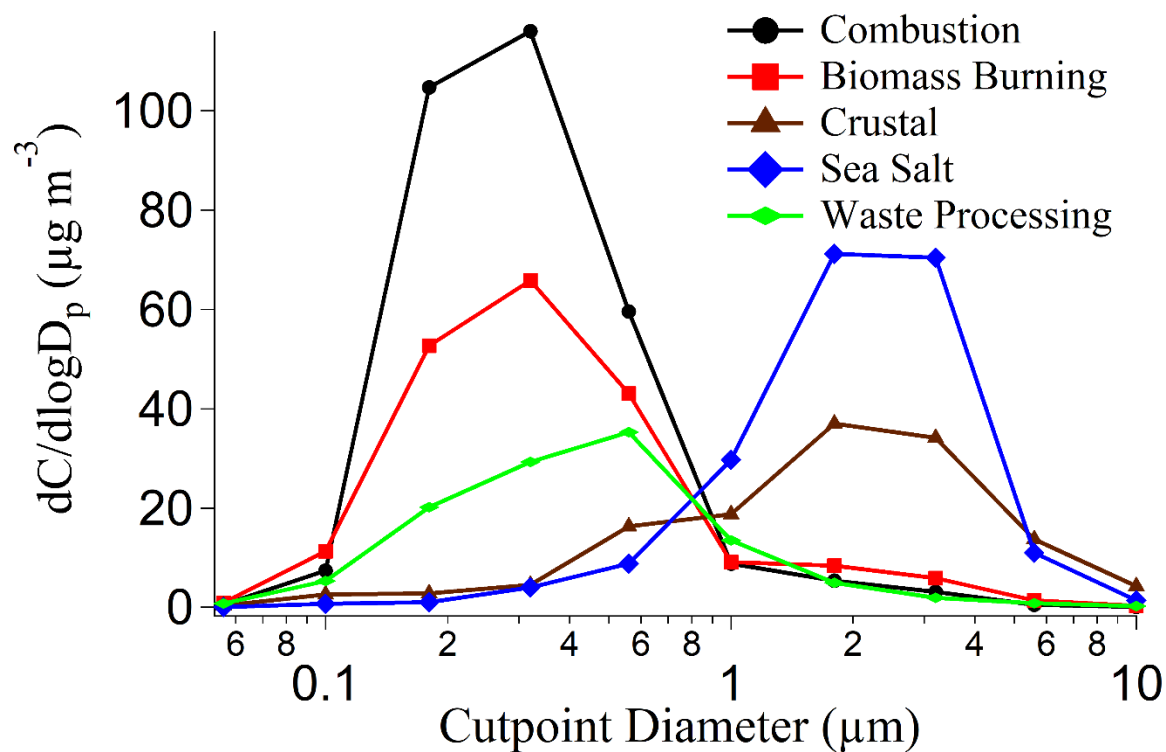
1560 **Figure 5:** Reconstructed mass size distributions of positive matrix factorization (PMF) factors.

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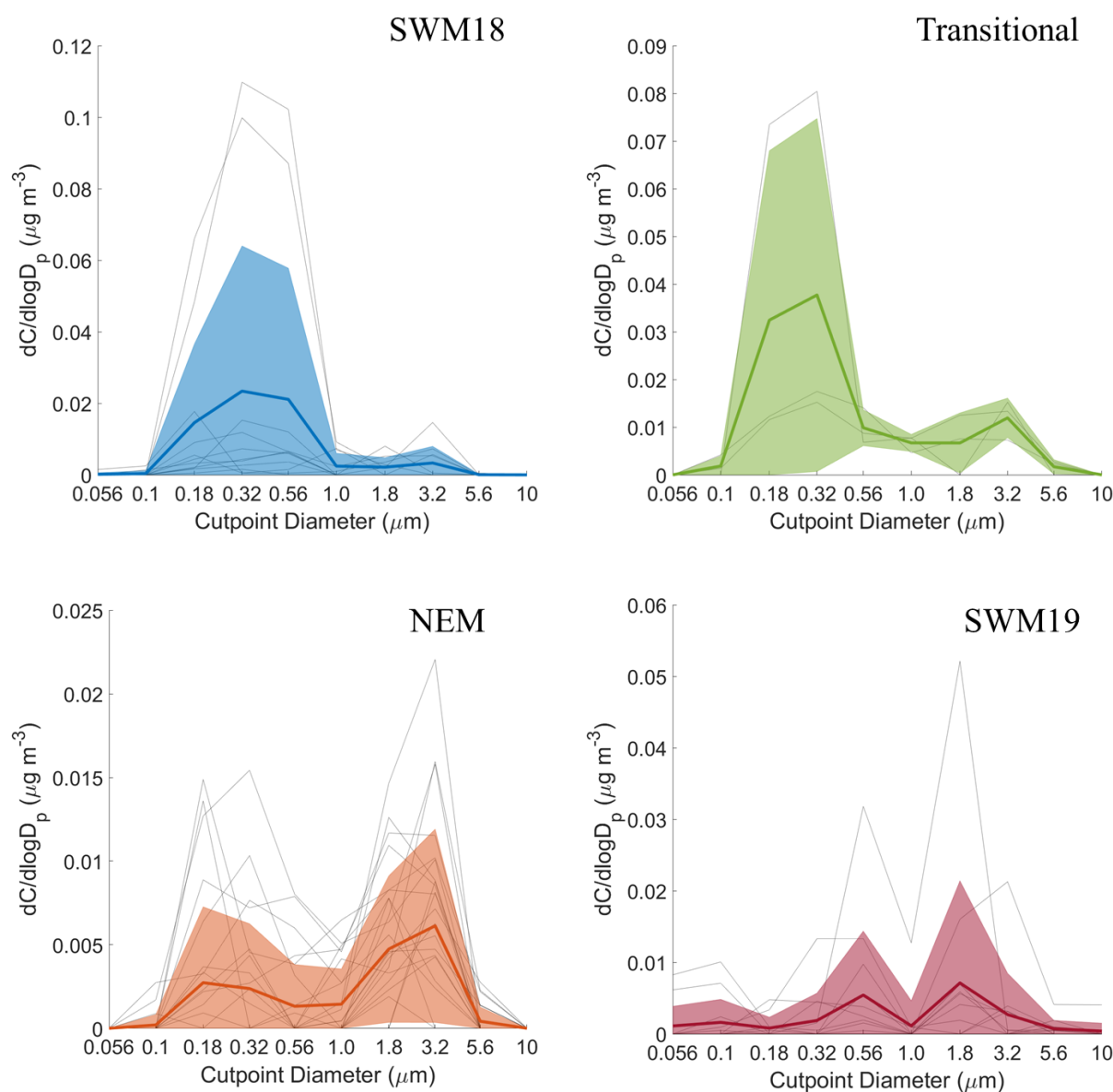
Figure 6: Seasonal size distributions of phthalate. Gray lines represent individual sets, dark
colored lines are the average of all seasonal distributions, and transparent colored areas represent
one standard deviation. Note that the range of concentrations presented on the y-axis for each
season varies.

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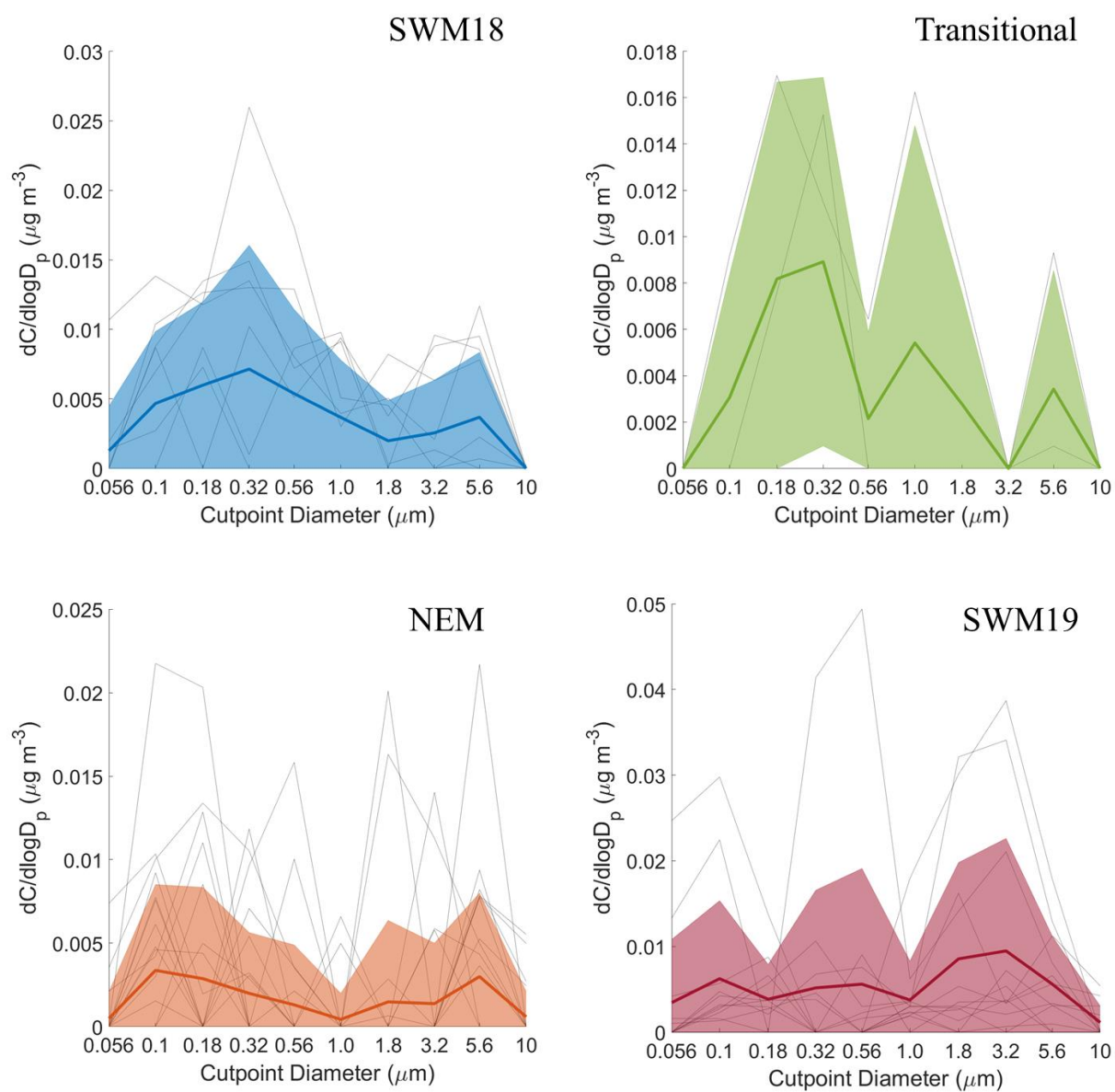
1569   **Figure 7:** Same as Fig. 6 but for adipate.

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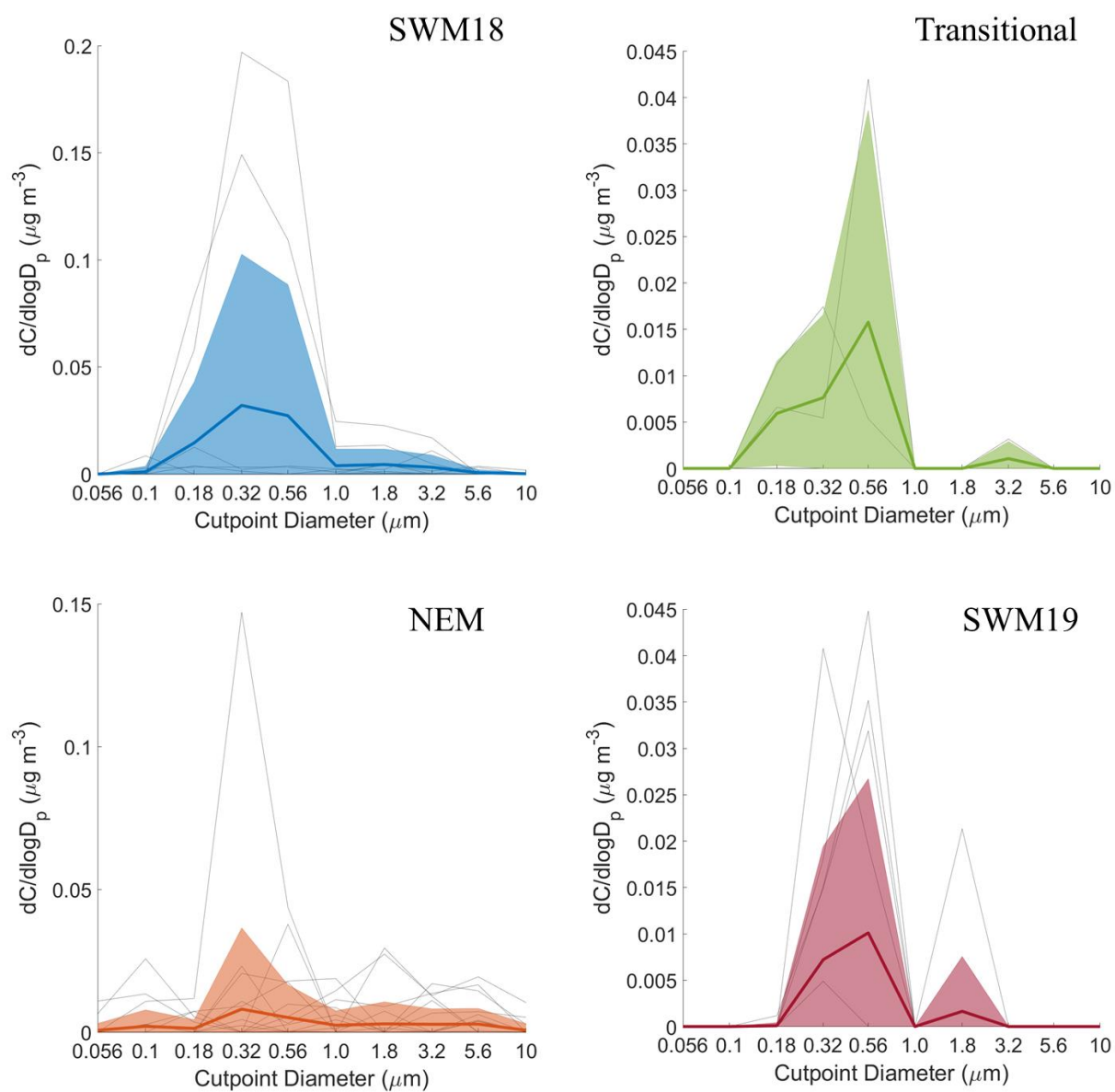
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1572   **Figure 8:** Same as Fig. 6 but for succinate.

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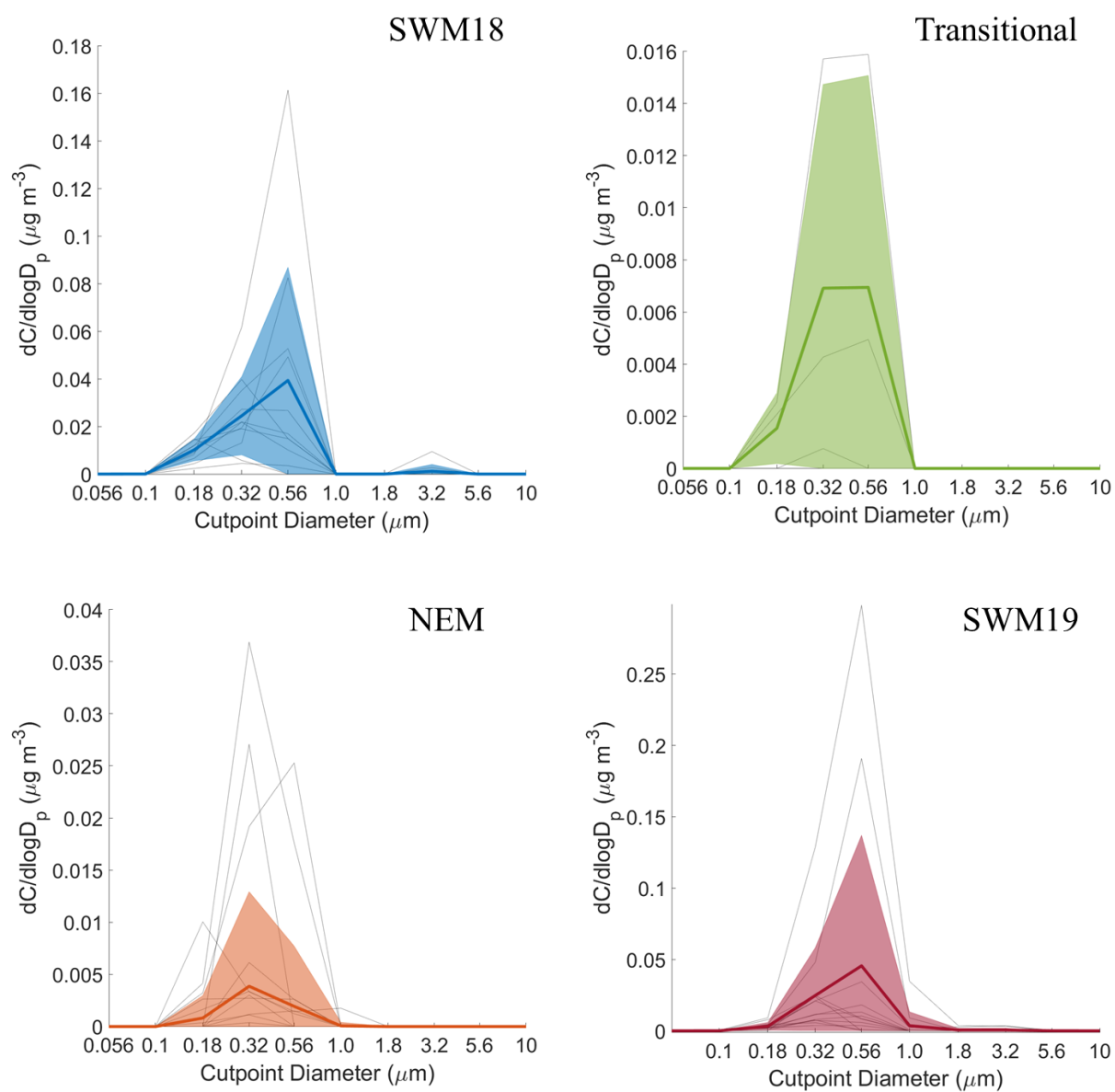
1574 **Figure 9:** Same as Fig. 6 but for maleate.

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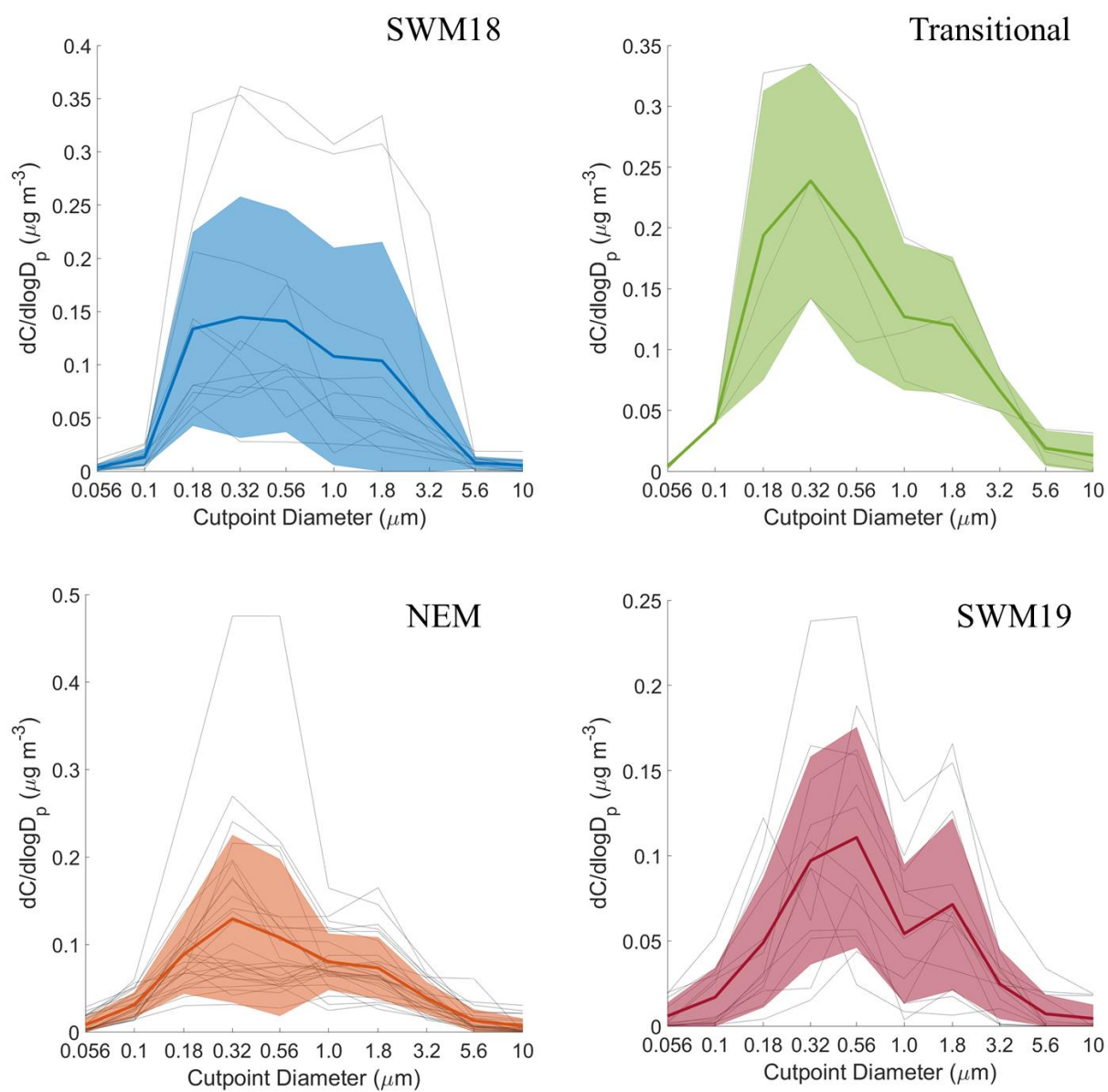
1576

1577 **Figure 10:** Same as Fig. 6 but for oxalate.

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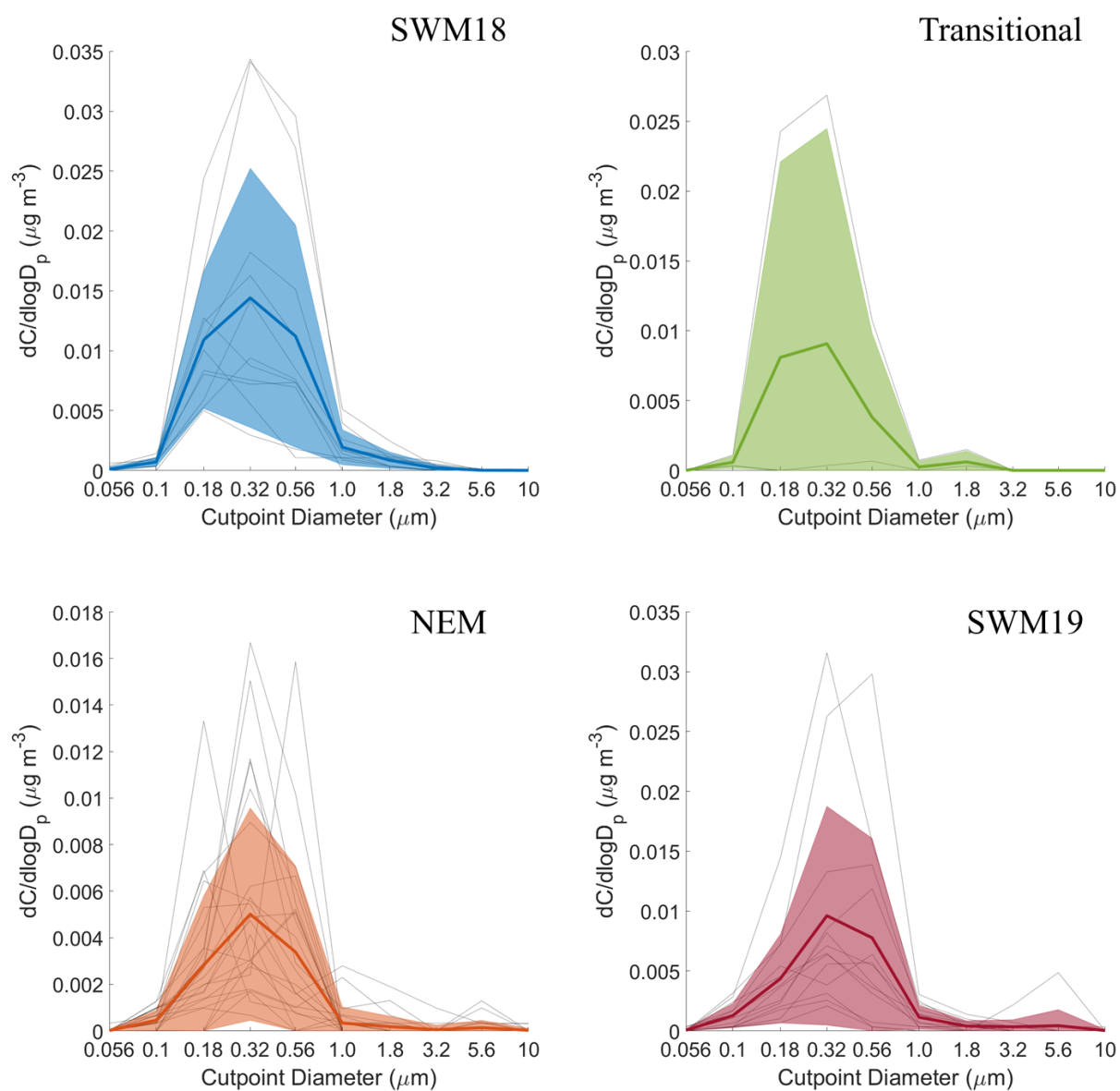
Figure 11: Same as Fig. 6 but for MSA.

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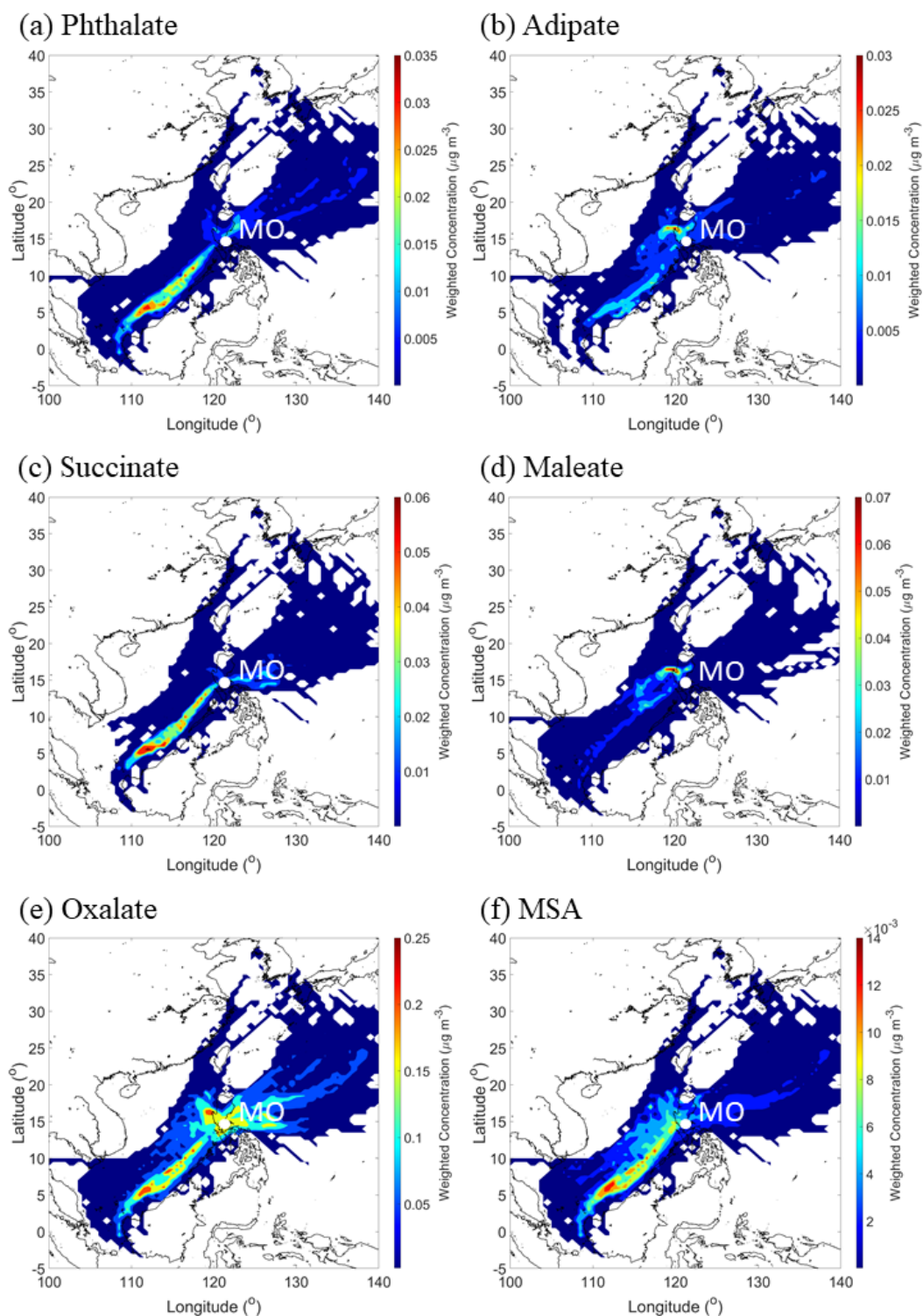
Figure 12: CWT maps of (a-e) individual organic acids and (f) MSA over the entire sampling
period. These results are based on all MOUDI sizes (0.056 – 18 μm). Maps showing the seasonal
results for each organic acid and MSA are shown in the Supplement (Figs. S3 – S8).