

HOKKAIDO UNIVERSITY

Tile	D icarboxylic acids and water[soluble organic carbon in ærosols in New DelhillIndiallin winter IC haracteristics and form ation processes
Author[]s[]	M iyazakiDY uzoDA ggarwalDShankar G IDS inghOK hem OG uptaDPrabhat K IDK awam uraOK in itaka
Citation	Journal of Geophysical Research IIA thospheres: 114ID 19206 https://doilorg:11011029/2009.D011790
Issue Date	2009[1]0[D8
DocURL	httpIIIhdIIhandleühett2115139604
Rights	An edited version of this paperwas published by AGU IC opyright 2009 American Geophysical Union I
Туре	article Dauthor versionD
File Information	JGRA 114⊡D 19206lipdf

۱.

Instructions for use

Dicarboxylic acids and water-soluble organic carbon in aerosols in New Delhi, India in winter: Characteristics and formation processes

Yuzo Miyazaki,¹ Shankar G. Aggarwal,¹ Khem Singh,² Prabhat K. Gupta,² and Kimitaka Kawamura¹

¹ Institute of Low Temperature Science, Hokkaido University, Sapporo, Japan

² National Physical Laboratory, New Delhi, India

Short title: DIACIDS AND WSOC IN NEW DELHI

Abstract.

Day- and night-time aerosol samples were collected at an urban site in New Delhi, India, in winter 2006-2007. They were studied for low molecular weight dicarboxylic acids and related compounds as well as total water-soluble organic carbon (TWSOC). High concentrations of diacids (up to 6.03 µg m⁻³), TWSOC, and OC were obtained, which are substantially higher than those previously observed at other urban sites in Asia. Daytime TWSOC/OC ratio (37%) was on average higher than that in nighttime (25%). In particular, more water-soluble OC (M-WSOC) to TWSOC ratio in daytime (50%) was twice higher than in nighttime (27%), suggesting that aerosols in New Delhi are photochemically more processed in daytime to result in more water-soluble organic compounds. Oxalic acid (C_2) was found as the most abundant dicarboxylic acid, followed by succinic (C_4) and malonic (C_3) acids. Contributions of C₂ to M-WSOC were greater (av. 8%) in nighttime than daytime (av. 3%). Positive correlations of C_2 with malic acid (h C_4), glyoxylic acid (ωC_2), and relative humidity suggest that secondary production of C₂ probably in aqueous phase is important in nighttime via the oxidation of both longer-chain diacids and ωC_2 . C_2 also showed a positive correlation with potassium (K^{+}) in nighttime, suggesting that the enhanced C_{2} concentrations are associated with biomass/biofuel burning. More tight, positive correlation between less water-soluble OC (L-WSOC) and K⁺ was found in both day- and night-time, suggesting that L-WSOC, characterized by longer chain and/or higher molecular weight compounds, is significantly influenced by primary emissions from biomass/biofuel burning.

1 1. Introduction

 $\mathbf{2}$ Water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC) can significantly alter the hygroscopicity of aerosols and is important in determining the cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) activity of 3 particles [Novakov and Penner, 1993; Saxena et al., 1995; Facchini et al., 1999]. WSOC is also 4 $\mathbf{5}$ considered to be associated with a major fraction of secondary organic aerosols (SOA), which 6 is formed by oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) followed by condensation on 7 existing particles and/or nucleation. Oxalic acid (C₂), generally the most abundant dicarboxylic acid in the atmosphere [Kawamura and Sakaguchi, 1999], is formed from oxidation of VOCs 8 and aqueous phase chemistry in cloud/fog droplets, as well as from primary emissions from 9 fossil fuel combustion, and biomass burning [Norton et al., 1983; Kawamura and Kaplan, 10 11 1987; Kawamura et al., 1996; Narukawa et al., 1999; Warneck, 2003; Kawamura and Yasui, 2005; Sorooshian et al., 2006]. 12

Warneck [2003] suggested that oxalic acid is produced from glyoxal in cloud droplets in 13the marine atmosphere, and glyoxal is formed by oxidation of acetylene and glycolaldehyde 1415formed by oxidation of ethene. It is noted that in these processes glyoxylic acid is a key intermediate, whereas diacids, except for oxalic acid, are not produced. Ervens et al. [2004] 16also consider the production of glyoxal from toluene and of glycolaldehyde from isoprene as 17well as aqueous phase reactions of adipic and glutaric acids produced by the oxidation of 18cyclohexene. Recent studies further suggest the formation of oxalic acid by the oxidation of 1920methylglyoxal, an oxidation product of toluene and isoprene, via intermediates such as pyruvic and acetic acids [Lim et al., 2005; Carlton et al., 2006]. Altieri et al. [2006] suggested that this 21reaction pathway also forms oligomers. The knowledge of the sources of diacids and WSOC is 22important to understand the formation processes of SOA that act as CCN. This information 23should provide important implications for regional air quality and global climate. 24

High loadings of carbonaceous aerosols in northern India have been reported in recent 25years [Prasad et al., 2006; Rengarajan et al., 2007]. In fact, the largest OC emission per unit 26surface area in the world occurs over India [Ramanathan et al., 2007]. The northern part of 27India has a population of more than 210 millions and thus has large anthropogenic emission 2829sources. Venkataraman et al. [2005] calculated that residential biofuel combustion is the most 30 important source of carbonaceous aerosols in India, pointing out its potential impact on climate 31change in the South Asian region. Carbonaceous aerosols emitted from the region can be 32transported downwind to Indian Ocean [e.g., Neusüß et al., 2002; Ramanathan et al., 2002; Stone et al., 2007] and Himalayan regions [Prasad et al., 2006; Srivastava et al., 2006]. Field 33 observations of the Indian Ocean Experiment (INDOEX) have indicated that visible amounts 34 of carbonaceous aerosols are present annually over the northern Indian Ocean, beginning in 35November and lasting until April [e.g., Neusüß et al., 2002; Ramanathan et al., 2002]. The 36 meteorology during the period is characterized by low-level northeasterly winds with little 37 38 precipitation, thus atmospheric particles are scarcely scavenged in this region [Jayaraman et 39 al., 1998].

A few previous studies on aerosol organic compounds in India have been made primarily at several urban sites [e.g., *Sharma et al.*, 2003; *Chowdhury et al.*, 2007]. These studies identified solvent-extractable organic compounds, including *n*-alkanes and polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), mainly from the viewpoint of source identification. City of New Delhi, the capital of India, is located within the Delhi metropolitan region. In spite of their importance in regional air quality and climate, organic aerosols including dicarboxylic acids and WSOC have not been characterized in New Delhi.

In this study, we conducted the first measurements of dicarboxylic acids and WSOC in the aerosols collected at an urban site of New Delhi, India, from September 2006 to April 2007. Here, we present the temporal variability of the concentrations and the mass fractions of dicarboxylic acids in WSOC, and discuss the factors that control the molecular distributions of dicarboxylic acids and levels of WSOC in the Indian urban atmosphere.

52

53 **2. Experiments**

54 2.1. Aerosol Sampling

The sampling location in New Delhi (28.37°N, 77.13°E), India, is shown in Figure 1. The figure also shows the annual emission rates of anthropogenic OC and VOC over India estimated for the year 2006 [*Zhang et al.*, 2009], which are given at http://www.cgrer.uiowa. edu/EMISSION_DATA_new/data/intex-b_emissions/. They include emissions from power plants, industry, residential biofuel/fossil fuel, and transportation. Anthropogenic OC and VOC are strongly emitted from the northwest to southeast of India (22°–34°N, 70°–90°E).

Total suspended particulate (TSP) samples were collected on a rooftop (15 m above the 61 62 ground) of a building on a campus of National Physical Laboratory (NPL) in New Delhi from 63 September 2006 to April 2007. The samplings were conducted using pre-combusted (at 450°C for at least 6 h) quartz fiber filters $(25 \times 20 \text{ cm})$ and a high-volume air sampler at a flow rate of 64 1200 L min⁻¹. The total volume of the samples ranged between 800 and 990 m³. The average 65 face velocity of the TSP samplings was \sim 42 cm s⁻¹, which is close to the dry-deposition velocity 66 of particles with a diameter of ~100 µm roughly calculated for the sampling conditions 67 [Jacobson, 2005]. This suggests that the effect of dry deposition on the measured aerosol 68 concentrations is insignificant for particles with diameters smaller than $\sim 100 \ \mu m$. 69

The sampling site is located at a residential area of New Delhi, which has less undue influence of local emissions from nearby traffic or industries [*Chowdhury et al.*, 2007]. Although most of the samples were collected in wintertime (November 2006-February 2007), three samples obtained in late summer (September) and one sample in late spring (April) were also studied here. The sampling time for each sample was approximately 12 hrs, starting at 06:00 LT and 18:00 LT, which are referred to as daytime and nighttime samples, respectively. During the course of the sampling, the local wind speed typically ranged between 2-8 m s⁻¹. The wind direction generally remained northwesterly to southwesterly with no systematic differences in daytime and nighttime. Analytical results of sixteen samples are shown in this paper.

80

81 **2.2. Dicarboxylic Acids and Related Water-Soluble Compounds**

The filter samples were analyzed for dicarboxylic acids (DCAs) by the method of 82 Kawamura and Ikushima [1993] and Kawamura [1993]. A part of the quartz-fiber filter was cut 83 in pieces and soaked in 5 ml milli-Q water, and then water-soluble species were extracted with 84 pure water (5 ml \times 3 times) under ultrasonication. The extracts were combined in a 50 ml flask 85 after filtration with quartz wool, and concentrated to almost dryness, to which 14% 86 87 BF_3/n -butanol was added. The extracts and reagents were then heated for 1 h to convert the carboxyl groups to butyl esters and aldehyde groups to dibutoxy acetals. The derived butyl 88 esters and acetals were extracted with *n*-hexane. They were concentrated and dissolved in 50 µl 89 of *n*-hexane. The butyl esters and acetals were determined by a capillary gas chromatograph 90 (Hewlett-Packard GC6890N) with a flame ionization detector. Each compound was identified 9192based on retention times of GC peaks with those of authentic standards and mass spectra obtained by GC/mass spectrometry. 93

Recoveries of authentic standards spiked on a precombusted quartz-fiber filter were 73% and 81% for oxalic and malonic acids, respectively, and greater than 95% for succinic and adipic acids. This recovery was taken into account to calculate the concentrations of the DCAs in the filter samples. The variations due to analytical errors were tested by analyzing different
sections of the same filter sample repeatedly, and the coefficient of deviation was found to be
less than 8% for major diacids. The levels of field blanks were generally less than 17% of mass
concentrations for the major species. Concentrations of diacids and related compounds
presented here were corrected for the field blanks.

102

103 2.3. Total and Fractionated WSOC and Inorganic Species

104 In a broad definition, WSOC can be divided into two fractions, more and less soluble in 105water. To isolate the WSOC components into more and less water-soluble fractions, we used a macroporous nonionic resin (DAX-8) with TOC detection [Duarte and Duarte, 2005; Sullivan 106 107and Weber, 2006; Miyazaki et al., 2009]. A number of previous studies have used the XAD-8 resin to isolate less water-soluble organic fractions of organic compounds, mainly humic 108substances, from natural water samples. However, because the XAD-8 resin is no longer 109110 available commercially, the comparability of a substitute resin, DAX-8, was utilized in the 111 present study. The technical specifications (e.g., pore size and surface area) and adsorption characteristics of these two resins are almost the same [e.g., Peuravuori et al., 2001]. The 112mechanism for the adsorption of organic solutes onto the resin is related to the molecular size 113of the solute in a water sample and to the certain interactions between more or less 114water-soluble organic compounds and nonionic adsorbing resin under pre-adjusted pH 115116conditions.

In the present WSOC analysis, the volume of DAX-8 resin packed in the column was 5 ml. A filter cut of 1.54 cm^2 was extracted with ultra pure Milli-Q water using an ultrasonic bath (10 min \times 3 times). The total extracts (100 ml) were then filtrated with a disc filter (Millex-GV, 0.22 µm, Millipore). Total WSOC (TWSOC) in the extracts was then determined by a total 121 organic carbon (TOC) analyzer (Sievers, 810) [*Miyazaki et al.*, 2006].

Another aliquot of water extracts was adjusted to pH = 2 using hydrochloric acid (HCl) 122before being pumped onto the DAX-8 resin. The DAX resin then retains hydrophobic 123compounds in the sample solution. In this study, we define more water-soluble OC (M-WSOC) 124125as such that pass through the DAX-8 column, whereas less water-soluble OC (L-WSOC) as 126those retained on the DAX-8 resin. L-WSOC is calculated as TWSOC - M-WSOC. The 127variations due to analytical errors were tested by analyzing different sections of the same filter 128 sample three times. The resulting coefficients of deviation were less than 4% and 7% for TWSOC and M-WSOC, respectively. The levels of field blanks were less than 5% (TWSOC) 129and 13% (M-WSOC) of the ambient aerosol concentrations. 130

131The fractions of M-WSOC and L-WSOC are operational, but they are related to the carbon chain length and number of functional groups per molecule. Briefly, M-WSOC is 132composed of highly oxygenated and/or lower molecular weight organic compounds. These 133 134compounds are more hydrophilic. L-WSOC is comprised of organic compounds that contain 135longer carbon chain and higher molecular weight structures. To characterize the DAX-8 resin under the current experimental conditions, authentic organic compounds relevant to 136atmospheric aerosol components were tested in the laboratory. This laboratory experiments 137were made in order to determine whether each standard pass through the column. Briefly, 138139authentic water-soluble organic species were dissolved in purified water and adjusted to pH = 2140using HCl. They were then pumped onto the column, followed by detection by the TOC analyzer. 141

Passing tests of selected organic compounds are summarized in Table 1. The results showed that aliphatic dicarboxylic acids and carbonyls (<4 carbons), saccharides, and amines were classified as M-WSOC, whereas aliphatic dicarboxylic acids and carbonyls (>3-4

carbons), aromatic acids, phenols, organic nitrates, cyclic acids, and fulvic acids were 145classified as L-WSOC. We confirmed that M-WSOC is associated with highly water soluble 146 and/or low molecular weight organics, while L-WSOC is with less water-soluble and/or higher 147molecular weight organics. Our results are basically same as those by XAD-8 resin [Sullivan 148and Weber, 2006]. For C4 dicarboxylic acids, maleic and fumaric acids are cis-trans isomers, 149 150having identical molecular weights. However, the water solubility of maleic acid is about two orders of magnitude higher than that of fumaric acid (Table 1). This difference with respect to 151chemical properties can explain the result that fumaric acid was retained on the DAX resin 152whereas maleic acid passed through the resin. On the basis of the water solubility of the 153compounds listed in Table 1, separation between M-WSOC and L-WSOC occurs in the water 154solubility between 3-8 g per 100 g for the compounds studied here. It should be noted that 155aromatic compounds are included in L-WSOC, even if their molecular weights are low (e.g., 156catechol) and water solubility is relatively high. 157

Another aliquot of filtrated water extracts from the samples was used to determine major anions and cations with Metrohm ion chromatographs (Model 761 compact IC, Metrohm, Herisau, Switzerland). Anions were measured using a SI-90 4E (SHODEX) column equipped with a suppressor with eluent of 1.8 mM Na₂CO₃ + 1.7 mM NaHCO₃. For cation analysis, we used a YK-421 (SHODEX) column with 4mM H₃PO₄ as eluent.

163

164 **2.4. OC and EC**

Mass concentrations of OC and EC were measured using a Sunset lab EC/OC analyzer (Sunset Laboratory, Inc., Tigard, OR, USA). In the present study, we used a temperature protocol based on that proposed by the National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health (NIOSH) [*Birch and Cary*, 1996; *Miyazaki et al.*, 2007]. 169Possible interferences were assessed by the measurement of field blanks. The OC and EC values for a filter punch of field blanks were 1.6 and 0.0 µgC m⁻³, respectively, in 170 correspondence with a sample volume of 936 m³ of air. The equivalent concentration of OC 171accounted for 2% of the average OC concentrations of the real samples. Data of OC presented 172here are all corrected against the field blanks. The variations due to analytical errors were 173174tested by analyzing different sections of the same filter sample three times, and the coefficient of deviation was less than 6% for OC and 3% for EC. Using the measured mass concentrations 175of OC and TWSOC, water-insoluble OC (WIOC) is defined as WIOC = OC - TWSOC. 176

177

178 **3. Results and Discussion**

179 **3.1. Mass Concentrations and Molecular Distributions of Dicarboxylic Acids**

Figure 2 presents temporal variations in the mass concentrations of water-soluble organic 180components as well as some meteorological parameters from September 2006 to April 2007. In 181182general, temporal trends of TWSOC and total dicarboxylic acids (TDCA) were similar (Figure 2a-b), with $r^2 = 0.51$. Average concentrations of OC, WIOC, M-WSOC, and L-WSOC were 183 68.4 ± 37.9 , 47.9 ± 31.8 , 7.8 ± 3.7 , and $12.3\pm4.6 \ \mu gC \ m^{-3}$, respectively. TWSOC accounted for 18431±11% of OC, where M-WSOC accounted for 36±12% of TWSOC during the study period. 185The TWSOC/OC ratios are within a range (20-40%) reported for other urban sites in Asia in 186winter [Yang et al., 2005; Miyazaki et al., 2006; Ho et al., 2007]. Concentrations of TDCA 187 ranged between 0.84-6.03 μ g m⁻³, with an average of 2.33 \pm 1.31 μ g m⁻³. This value is 2-5 times 188larger than those reported in Chinese cities [Wang et al., 2006; Ho et al., 2007] and urban 189 Tokyo [Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993]. Because these samples were all obtained at urban 190191 sites in the same season (winter), the difference in the concentrations can be attributed to the largest OC emission per unit surface area being found in India [Ramanathan et al., 2007]. 192

193Average molecular distributions of dicarboxylic acids, ketoacids, and α -dicarbonyls for day- and night-time are shown in Figure 3. Their values are also summarized in Table 2. Oxalic 194acid (C₂) was detected as the most abundant diacid species (1.43 \pm 0.99 µg m⁻³), followed by 195succinic (C₄) (0.30 \pm 0.16 µg m⁻³) and malonic acids (C₃) (0.19 \pm 0.05 µg m⁻³). On average, 196 concentrations of C₂-C₄ diacids accounted for 82% of TDCA. The average concentration of C₂ 197is substantially larger than that observed at other urban sites in Asia, such as Tokyo (0.27-1.35 198μg m⁻³) [Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993; Sempere and Kawamura, 1994], Beijing (0.22 μg 199 m⁻³) [Huang et al., 2005], and Hong Kong (0.35-0.37 µg m⁻³) [Yao et al., 2004]. Differences 200 between day- and night-time molecular distributions are discussed in section 3.4. 201

Concentrations of total ketoacids ranged from 0.03 to 0.64 μ g m⁻³, with an average of 202 $0.16\pm0.09 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ (Table 2). Glyoxylic acid (ωC_2) (average: $0.12\pm0.08 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) was found as a 203dominant ketoacid, followed by 4-oxobutanoic acid (ωC_4) and pyruvic acid (Pyr). ωC_2 is an 204intermediate in the OH oxidation of glyoxal, glycolate, methylglyoxal, and acetic acid 205206[Kawamura et al., 1996; Ervens et al., 2004], which results in oxalic acid [Lim et al., 2005; *Carlton et al.*, 2006]. The predominance of ωC_2 was also observed at the Chinese urban sites 207 [Ho et al., 2007]. The average concentration of ωC_2 in the New Delhi samples was 208approximately three times greater than that observed in Chinese urban aerosols, whereas the 209average ratio of ωC_2 to total diacids in New Delhi (0.040) was similar to that observed at the 210Chinese urban sites (0.042). Concentrations of α -dicarbonyls ranged from 0.01 to 0.25 µg m⁻³ 211with an average of $0.05\pm0.05 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$. These values are substantially higher than those at 212Chinese urban sites in the winter of 2003 (av. 0.02 µg m^{-3}). 213

For inorganic species, average mass concentrations of sulfate ($SO_4^{2^-}$) and nitrate (NO_3^-) in winter were 13.6±6.1 µg m⁻³ and 18.9±4.7 µg m⁻³, respectively (Figure 2c). These values are similar to those (12.7±6.2 µg m⁻³ for $SO_4^{2^-}$ and 13.3±6.6 µg m⁻³ for NO_3^-) in winter observed at Hisar (29.3°N, 75.7°E), an urban site ~150 km northwest of New Delhi [*Rengarajan et al.*,
2007]. This similarity of the concentrations suggests that the observed levels of aerosol
concentrations might be representative on a regional scale during the study period without any
significant influence from local sources.

221

222 **3.2. Mass Fractions of WSOC and Dicarboxylic Acids**

Figure 4 presents temporal variations in the mass fractions of the M-WSOC, L-WSOC, 223and WIOC relative to OC. Daytime TWSOC/OC ratio was on average 37±9%, which is higher 224than the nighttime ratio of 25±9%. The average M-WSOC/TWSOC ratio was substantially 225greater in daytime ($50\pm6\%$) than in nighttime ($27\pm8\%$). TWSOC concentrations were similar 226in daytime (av. 10.4 µgC m⁻³) and nighttime (av. 9.6 µgC m⁻³) (Table 2). In contrast, 227concentration of M-WSOC was higher in daytime (9.4 μ gC m⁻³) than in nighttime (6.1 μ gC 228m⁻³), leading to the higher mass fractions of M-WSOC in TWSOC in daytime. The higher 229230contribution of more water-soluble organic compounds in the daytime samples can be 231explained by an enhanced photochemical production of polar compounds in daytime.

Kawamura and Ikushima [1993] suggested that the C₃/C₄ ratio can be used as an indicator 232of enhanced photochemical production of diacids, because C₃ is produced by photochemical 233oxidation of C₄ in the atmosphere. In the present study, C₃/C₄ ratios ranged between 0.40 and 2341.06 with an average of 0.62, which are similar to those (0.59-0.63) reported for aerosols in 235236China in winter [Ho et al., 2007] and those (0.5-0.9) for winter aerosols in Tokyo [Kawamura and Ikushima, 1993]. The average C_3/C_4 ratio was higher in daytime (0.66) than in nighttime 237(0.58), being consistent with an enhanced photochemical processing as indicated by the higher 238TWSOC/OC and M-WSOC/TWSOC ratios in daytime. 239

240 Figure 5 shows time series of mass fractions of C₂-C₄ in M-WSOC and relative

abundances of C₂-C₉ as well as C₂ relative to TDCA in day- and night-time. In contrast to the 241diurnal difference in the M-WSOC/TWSOC ratios, the average mass fractions of C2 in 242M-WSOC exhibited larger contributions (av. 8%) in nighttime than in daytime (av. 3%). Much 243higher contributions of C₂-C₄ to M-WSOC were found in nighttime largely due to the enhanced 244concentrations of C2 and decreased M-WSOC concentrations in nighttime. In fact, oxalic acid 245246(C₂) was found to account for $70\pm7\%$ of total C₂-C₉ diacids in nighttime, which is greater than that in daytime (59 \pm 9%). It is interesting to note that the average C₂ concentration in nighttime 247 $(1.91 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ is almost twice higher than in daytime $(0.96 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ (Figure 3). Increased relative 248abundance of C₂ in nighttime suggests a possible formation of C₂ in nighttime, a point to be 249250discussed in section 3.4.

Figure 6 shows relations between total C₂-C₄ concentrations and M-WSOC contents in 251day- and night-time. A linear relation was found between C2-C4 diacid concentrations and 252M-WSOC both in daytime ($r^2 = 0.94$) and nighttime ($r^2 = 0.81$). This suggests that sources for 253C₂-C₄ and M-WSOC (and their precursors) were similar. However, M-WSOC concentrations 254are significantly higher (1.5 times) in daytime than in nighttime, whereas daytime 255concentrations of C_2 - C_4 diacids are lower by ~60% than in nighttime (see Figure 6). These 256results suggest that more water-soluble organic compounds, except for C₂-C₄ diacids, 257contribute more significantly to M-WSOC in daytime, and are likely produced by 258photochemical processes. Photochemical production of C2-C4 diacids can also occur in 259260daytime, as indicated by the higher C_3/C_4 ratio in daytime.

Azelaic acid (C₉) has been proposed as oxidation product of unsaturated fatty acids. Unsaturated fatty acids are abundant in terrestrial plant leaves and contain a double bond predominantly at C-9 position [*Kawamura and Gagosian*, 1987; *Kawamura and Kaplan*, 1987]. In fact, C₉ was generally found as the fourth most abundant diacid species in both dayand night-time samples, with average concentrations of 0.070 μ g m⁻³ and 0.072 μ g m⁻³, respectively. These C₉ concentrations account for 4% and 3% of C₂-C₉ diacids in day- and night-time, respectively. Although it is difficult to quantitatively determine the contribution of biogenic emissions to the observed aerosols from our data alone, the result suggests that biogenic emissions of unsaturated fatty acids contribute to the New Delhi aerosols to some extent.

271

272 **3.3 Contribution of Biomass/Biofuel Burning Emissions**

273It has been well recognized that the emissions from biomass/biofuel burning include a large portion of water soluble organic species [e.g., Mavol-Bracero et al., 2002]. With regard to 274275the molecular distributions of diacids shown in Figure 3, a similar distribution of diacids dominated by C₂, followed by C₄, was also reported for biomass burning plumes [e.g., 276Narukawa et al., 1999; Legrand et al., 2007]. Chowdhury et al. [2007] inferred that 20% of 277278PM_{2.5} aerosol sampled in Delhi in winter was attributable to primary emissions from biomass burning using various molecular markers (e.g., levoglucosan). To investigate the effects of 279biomass/biofuel burning on the sources of observed organic compounds, water soluble 280potassium (K⁺) is used as a tracer of wood burning [e.g., Andreae, 1983]. Scatter plots of C₂, 281M-WSOC, and L-WSOC with K⁺ are shown in Figure 7. C₂ and M-WSOC showed moderate 282positive correlations with K^+ in nighttime ($r^2 = 0.34-0.43$), suggesting that emissions from 283biomass/biofuel burning are apparently an important source for C2 and M-WSOC in nighttime 284at the sampling site. More pronounced linear relation was observed between L-WSOC and K⁺ 285in both daytime ($r^2 = 0.70$) and nighttime ($r^2 = 0.75$). These tight, positive correlations suggest 286that majority of L-WSOC originated from biomass/biofuel combustion. 287

288 Gao et al. [2003] used the data set of C_2 - C_5 diacids in wood burning on savanna fires,

showing an increase in the C_2 to K^+ ratio, ranging from 0.02 over the fire to 0.25 after 40 min of 289aging. This C₂ formation during the initial aging of aerosols was attributed to fast secondary 290production in the smoke plumes [Gao et al., 2003]. Even higher enrichment of C₂ with respect 291to K^+ was observed for the nighttime samples of the present study with an average C_2/K^+ ratio 292of 0.61 \pm 0.35, indicating a fast secondary production of C₂ in the burning plume. On the other 293hand, an average C_2/K^+ ratio in daytime was 0.30±0.15, indicating less significant production 294of C₂ in the burning plume compared to that in nighttime (a point to be discussed in the 295following section). 296

297 Contribution of wood burning to secondary formation of diacids is also supported by a 298 positive correlation between C₉ and K⁺ in the nighttime samples ($r^2 = 0.28$). Unsaturated fatty 299 acids such as oleic acid mainly emitted by wood burning and meat cooking [*Rogge et al.*, 1991] 300 can be the source of diacids. Oleic acid, once emitted, is rapidly oxidized to result in C₉ and 301 other products, which can be further decomposed to C₅ and C₄. The moderate correlation 302 between C₉ and K⁺ in the nighttime samples suggests a certain contribution of wood burning to 303 C₉.

304

305 **3.4 Potential Processes for the Net Production of Oxalic Acid**

As shown in section 3.2, relative increases in the concentrations and fractions of C_2 were observed for the nighttime samples. One might argue that descending of boundary layer (BL) height in nighttime could accumulate air pollutants within the BL, leading to the enhancement of the mass concentrations of C_2 and other species in the atmosphere near the ground surface in nighttime. However, the difference in the C_2 mass fractions between day- and night-time cannot be explained by the changes in the BL heights. Although time-resolved measurements of C_2 precursors (i.e., VOCs) are not available, no significant difference was found between the

day- and night-time concentrations of primary emission tracers such as EC and K⁺. In fact, the 313average concentrations of EC (40.4 μ gC m⁻³) and K⁺ (3.55 μ g m⁻³) in daytime were similar to 314those in nighttime (EC: 36.6 μ gC m⁻³, K⁺: 3.65 μ g m⁻³). This suggests that the difference in the 315C₂ mass fractions has been unlikely due to differences in the amount of precursor emissions in 316day- and night-time. Rather, the relative increases in the concentrations and fractions of C₂ in 317nighttime can be explained by the differences in net production processes of C₂ between day 318 and night: (1) more significant production of C2 and/or (2) less significant loss of C2 in 319nighttime than in daytime. 320

321Previous studies have reported that low molecular weight dicarboxylic acids were 322sometimes found in the coarse mode, such as sea salt, dust, and soil particles [Neusüss et al., 2000; Mochida et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2006]. C₂ and other acidic species in the gas phase 323could be adsorbed onto alkaline coarse particles [e.g., Neusüss et al., 2000]. In this study, 324however, concentration of sodium (Na⁺) was considerably low with no significant difference 325between day and night. Moreover, a correlation between C_2 and Na^+ was poor ($r^2 < 0.09$) for 326both day- and night-time samples, suggesting that the production of C₂ associated with sea salt 327particles is unlikely in the New Delhi samples studied. Similarly, C2 also showed poor 328correlation with calcium (Ca²⁺) ($r^2 < 0.09$), indicating an insignificant contribution of dust 329 particles to C₂ production. 330

One possible explanation for the increases in the relative concentrations and fractions of C₂ in nighttime is a secondary formation of C₂ in aqueous phase of aerosols. In aqueous phase, C₂ is known to be formed by OH oxidation of various precursors including longer-chain dicarboxylic acids and glyoxylic acid (ω C₂). *Kawamura and Ikushima* [1993] proposed that malic acid (hC₄), hydroxylated dicarboxylic acid, can be formed by hydration of maleic acid and/or hydroxylation of succinic acid, and is further oxidized to produce C₂. Evidence for hydroxylation is based on detection of C_5 and C_6 hydoxyacids [*Appel et al.*, 1979]. Since no direct emissions have been identified for h C_4 , the change in the relative abundances of C_4 and h C_4 may indicate a progress of photochemical aging of aerosols probably in aqueous phase.

Figure 8 shows concentrations of C_2 and its contribution to total diacids (C_2 /TDCA) as a 340 function of $hC_4/(hC_4+C_4)$ in day- and night-time. Although hC_4 showed lower concentrations 341than C4, their relative abundance fluctuated significantly. The C2 concentrations and 342 $hC_4/(hC_4+C_4)$ ratios showed a strong correlation ($r^2 = 0.86$) for the nighttime samples. 343Similarly, the C₂/TDCA ratios also showed an increase with increasing ratios of $hC_4/(hC_4+C_4)$, 344with a moderate correlation ($r^2 = 0.21$) in nighttime. Furthermore, C₂ was well correlated with 345 C_3 ($r^2 = 0.66$), C_4 ($r^2 = 0.82$), and glutaric acid (C_5 ; $r^2 = 0.80$). These results provide further 346 evidence for aqueous phase secondary production of C₂ in aerosols via decays of longer-chain 347dicarboxylic acids, rather than primary emission. However, such a correlation between C₂ and 348 $hC_4/(hC_4+C_4)$ was not found for the daytime samples. This may suggest that heterogeneous 349 reactions to produce C₂ in aerosol phase are not important in daytime because relative humidity 350was low (av. ~55%, see Figure 2d), possibly leading to lower water contents of aerosols in 351daytime. On the other hand, higher relative humidity (av. ~70%) in nighttime is favorable for 352aqueous phase chemistry in ambient aerosols. In fact, time-resolved meteorological data 353showed that the maximum relative humidity reached nearly 100% during most of the nighttime 354samplings (Figure 2d), supporting an occurrence of fogs or clouds near the ground surface. On 355the other hand, the relative humidity in daytime never reached 100%. Moreover, a positive 356correlation between C₂/TDCA and the average relative humidity ($r^2 = 0.49$) was found for all 357the data sets, which also suggests aqueous phase production of C₂ in aerosols. 358

The above results support the possibility of aqueous phase productions of C_2 via decays of longer-chain dicarboxylic acids, but do not exclude an importance of other pathways such as

production of C_2 via the oxidation of ωC_2 . Sorooshian et al. [2007] conducted aircraft 361measurements and found that relative abundance of ωC_2 in total organic acids detected is 362 higher in cloud droplets than in the aerosol samples collected below clouds. Their result 363suggests the formation of ωC_2 in an early stage of liquid phase reaction. In the present study, 364 average concentrations of ωC_2 were as high as 0.11 and 0.13 µg m⁻³ in day- and night-time, 365respectively, which correspond to 7-12% of the C₂ mass concentrations. Concentrations of C₂ 366 and ωC_2 highly correlate ($r^2 = 0.65$) in nighttime, whereas the correlation is low ($r^2 = 0.35$) in 367daytime (data not shown as a figure). Pyr has also been reported to act as a precursor of C₂ via 368 ωC₂ in aqueous phase [Lim et al., 2005; Carlton et al., 2006] and shown to originate from 369 aromatic hydrocarbons and isoprene [Talbot et al., 1995]. In fact, Pyr and ωC_2 were positively 370 correlated ($r^2 = 0.53$) in our nighttime samples. These results further support the secondary 371production of C₂ in nighttime. It is noted that a ω C₂/C₂ ratio in nighttime (av. 0.067) is lower 372than that in daytime (av. 0.119), possibly due to the production of C_2 from ωC_2 in nighttime. 373 This process may proceed within a time scale of the aerosol sampling (~12 h), leading to the 374375lower $\omega C_2/C_2$ ratio in nighttime.

It has been shown that ωC_2 produces C_2 more efficiently at higher pH, because the rate 376 constant of the oxidation of anion (glyoxylate) is an order of magnitude greater than that of ωC_2 377[Ervens et al., 2003a]. In the present study, however, no significant difference in the imbalance 378between anions and cations was seen for the day- and night-time samples (data not shown). The 379ammonium (NH4⁺)-to-SO4²⁻ molar ratios were 4.3 and 4.9 in day- and night-time, respectively. 380Although these ratios indicate that there was sufficient NH_4^+ to neutralize SO_4^{2-} , there was no 381significant difference in the NH4⁺/SO4²⁻ molar ratios between day- and night-time. These 382results suggest insignificant effects of pH on the enhanced C2 levels in nighttime. Hence, 383 secondary production of C₂ likely takes place in aqueous phase, in which oxidation of both 384

longer-chain diacids and ωC_2 are important sources of C_2 in the nighttime atmosphere in New Delhi.

A correlation between C₂ and sulfate and its linear regression slope have been used to 387investigate production processes of C₂ mainly via aqueous phase reactions [e.g., Yu et al, 2005], 388 389because secondary production pathways of sulfate are well established. Figure 9 shows a 390 scatter plot between C₂ and sulfate in daytime and nighttime. The C₂ and sulfate concentrations showed a strong correlation for the daytime ($r^2 = 0.67$) and nighttime samples ($r^2 = 0.65$). 391Previous studies have noted similarity in size distributions of these two species, suggesting a 392 393 common source [Yao et al., 2003 Crahan et al., 2004; Huang et al., 2006]. Although the size distributions of C₂ and sulfate are not available and the sample number is limited in the present 394395study, a linear regression slope of the C_2 to sulfate ratio in the nighttime samples (0.198) is about 60% higher than in the daytime samples (0.125). The difference in the slopes together 396 with higher concentrations of C₂ in nighttime suggests more efficient production of C₂ in 397398nighttime, which can be a consequence of multistep aqueous-phase production of C₂: several subsequent oxidation steps are necessary to form C₂ from VOC precursors, whereas fewer 399 steps are required for production of sulfate [Warneck, 2003; Ervens et al., 2004; Yu et al., 2005]. 400 The x-intercept of the linear relationship between C_2 and SO_4^{2-} found in day- and night-time 401 suggests that an additional source of SO_4^{2-} exists in addition to the different formation and loss 402processes of both species. One possible explanation for the intercept is that New Delhi and 403 404surrounding regions have more power plants and coal combustion [Prasad et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2009], which produce much greater emissions of SO₂ but emit fewer VOCs. 405

In addition to the production processes, various loss processes of C_2 could affect the concentrations and fractions of C_2 . C_2 is lost by its oxidation to result in CO_2 [e.g., *Warneck*, 2003]. *Zuo and Holgné* [1992] suggested that photolysis of iron(III)/iron(II)–oxalato

complexes can be an important sink of C₂ in the aqueous phase in the atmosphere. *Ervens et al.* 409[2003b] used a photochemical box model and showed that photolysis of the 410 iron-dioxalato-complex is much more effective than oxidation of C₂ by OH. On the other hand, 411 evaporation of C_2 is negligible because the vapor pressure of C_2 is sufficiently low (<10⁻⁴ mm 412Hg) [Saxena and Hildemann, 1996]. It is possible that rates of production and loss of C₂ are 413414different for daytime and nighttime. During nighttime, oxidation of organics may be less efficient due to the absence of sunlight and lack of H₂O₂ and OH production, and NO₃ may act 415as a major oxidant. In summary, the relative increases in the concentrations and fractions of C_2 416 in nighttime are probably due to more significant production of C₂ and/or less significant loss 417of C_2 than in daytime. 418

419

420 **4. Conclusions**

Measurements of water-soluble dicarboxylic acids and bulk water soluble organic carbon 421422 (WSOC) were made for the first time in ambient aerosol samples collected at an urban site in 423New Delhi, India, in winter 2006-2007. A macroporous nonionic (DAX-8) resin was used to quantify more- and less-WSOC, which are defined as the fractions of WSOC that passed 424through and retained on the DAX-8 column, respectively. On average, total WSOC 425(TWSOC)/OC ratio was found to be significantly higher in daytime (37%) than in nighttime 426(25%). In particular, more water-soluble OC (M-WSOC) accounted for 50% of TWSOC in 427428daytime, which is substantially higher than that (27%) in nighttime. These differences can be interpreted by more pronounced photochemical production of polar organic compounds in 429daytime even in winter. 430

431 Average concentrations of oxalic acid (C₂) (1.43 μ g m⁻³) and total diacids (2.33 μ g m⁻³) 432 were substantially high compared to those previously reported at other urban sites in Asia. C₂

was the most abundant dicarboxylic acid, followed by succinic (C_4) and malonic (C_3) acid. We 433found that the average mass fractions of C2 in nighttime were greater (8% of M-WSOC and 43466% of total diacids) than daytime (3% of M-WSOC and 54% of total diacids). Positive 435correlations of C_2 with malic acid (h C_4), glyoxylic acid (ωC_2), and relative humidity suggest 436that secondary production of C₂ occurs possibly in aqueous aerosol phase via the oxidation of 437438longer-chain diacids and ωC_2 in the New Delhi atmosphere during nighttime. C₂ also showed a positive correlation with potassium in nighttime, suggesting that the enhanced net production 439of C₂ is associated with fast secondary reactions in biomass/biofuel burning plumes. 440

Less water soluble OC (L-WSOC), composed of longer carbon chain and higher molecular weight organic compounds, was highly correlated with potassium in both day- and night-time samples, demonstrating that majority of L-WSOC was affected by primary emissions from biomass/biofuel burning. **Acknowledgments.** This research was supported by the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) through grant-in-aid No. 19204055 and 19710004. The study is a part of collaborative research project, Molecular Characterization and Hygroscopicity of Indian Aerosols (MOCHIA). S. G. A. acknowledges the support from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science.

References

- Altieri, K. E., A. G. Carlton, H.-J. Lim, B. J. Turpin, and S. P. Seitzinger (2006), Evidence for oligomer formation in clouds: reactions of isoprene oxidation products, *Environ. Sci. Technol*, 40. 4956-4960.
- Andreae, M. O. (1983), Soot carbon and excess fine potassium: Long-range transport of combustion-derived aerosols, *Science*, 220, 1148–1151.
- Appel, B. R., E. M. Hoffer, E. L. Kothny, S. M. Wall, M. Haik, and R. L. Knights (1979), Analysis of carbonaceous material in Southern-California atmospheric aerosols. 2., *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 13, 98–104.
- Birch, M. E., and R. A. Cary (1996), Elemental carbon-based method for monitoring occupational exposures to particulate diesel exhaust, *Aerosol Sci. Technol.*, 25, 221–241.
- Carlton, A. G., B. J. Turpin, H. J. Lim, K. E. Altieri, and S. Seitzinger (2006), Link between isoprene and secondary organic aerosol (SOA): Pyruvic acid oxidation yields low volatility organic acids in clouds, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 33, L06822, doi:10.1029/2005GL025374.
- Chowdhury, Z., M. Zheng, J. J. Schauer, R. J. Sheesley, L. G. Salmon, G. R. Cass, and A. G. Russell (2007), Speciation of ambient fine organic carbon particles and source apportionment of PM2.5 in Indian cities, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 112, D15303, doi:10.1029/2007JD008386.
- Crahan, K. K., D. Hegg, D. S. Covert, and H. Jonsson (2004), An exploration of aqueous oxalic acid production in the coastal marine atmosphere, *Atmos. Environ.*, *38*, 3757–3764.
- Duarte, R. M. B., and Duarte, A. C. (2005), Application of non-ionic solid sorbents (XAD Resins) for the isolation and fractionation of water-soluble organic compounds from atmospheric aerosols, *J. Atmos. Chem.*, 51, 79-93.
- Ervens, B., S. Gligorovski, and H.Herrmann (2003a), Temperature-dependent rate constants for hydroxyl radical reactions with organic compounds in aqueous phase, *Phys. Chem. Chem. Phys.*, 5, 1811–1824.
- Ervens, B., et al. (2003b), CAPRAM 2.4 (MODAC mechanism): An extended and condensed tropospheric aqueous phase mechanism and its application, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 108(D14), 4426, doi:10.1029/2002JD002202.
- Ervens, B., G. Feingold, G. J. Frost, and S. M. Kreidenweis (2004), A modeling study of aqueous production of dicarboxylic acids: 1. Chemical pathways and speciated organic mass production, J. Geophys. Res., 109, D15205, doi:10.1029/2003JD004387.
- Facchini, M. C., M. Mircea, S. Fuzzi, and R. J. Charlson (1999), Cloud albedo enhancement by surface-active organic solutes in growing droplets, *Nature*, 401, 257–259.
- Gao, S., D. A. Hegg, P. V. Hobbs, T. W. Kirchstetter, B. I. Magi, and M. Sadilek (2003), Water-soluble organic components in aerosols associated with savanna fires in southern

Africa: Identification, evolution, and distribution, J. Geophys. Res., 108(D13), 8491, doi:10.1029/2002JD002324.

- Ho, K. F., J. J. Cao, S. C. Lee, K. Kawamura, R.-J. Zhang, J.-C. Chow, and J.-G. Watson (2007), Dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and dicarbonyls in urban atmosphere of China, J. *Geophys. Res.*, 112, D22S27, doi:10.1029/2006JD008011.
- Huang, X. F., M. Hu, L. Y. He, and X. Y. Tang (2005), Chemical characterization of water-soluble organic acids in PM2.5 in Beijing, China, *Atmos. Environ.*, *39*, 2819–2827.
- Huang, X.-F., J. Z. Yu, L.-Y. He, and Z. Yuan (2006), Water-soluble organic carbon and oxalate in aerosols at a coastal urban site in China: Size distribution characteristics, sources, and formation mechanisms, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *111*, D22212, doi:10.1029/2006JD007408.
- Jacobson, M. Z. (2005), Fundamentals of Atmospheric Modeling, Second Edition, Cambridge University Press, New York, pp. 813.
- Jayaraman, A., D. Lubin, S. Ramachandran, V. Ramanathan, E. Woodbridge, W. D. Collins, and K. S. Zalpuri (1998), Direct observations of aerosol radiative forcing over the tropical Indian Ocean during the January-February 1996 pre-INDOEX cruise, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 103(D12), 13,827–13,836.
- Kawamura, K., and R. B. Gagosian (1987), Implications of ω-oxocarboxylic acids in the remote marine atmosphere for photo-oxidation of unsaturated fatty acids, *Nature*, 325, 330–332.
- Kawamura, K., and I. R. Kaplan (1987), Motor-exhaust emissions as a primary source for dicarboxylic acids in Los Angeles, *Environ. Sci. and Technol.* 21, 105-110.
- Kawamura, K. (1993), Identification of C_2 - C_{10} ω -oxocarboxylic acids, pyruvic acid, and C_2 - C_3 a-dicarbonyls in wet precipitation and aerosol samples by capillary GC and GC/MS, *Anal. Chem.*, 65, 3505–3511.
- Kawamura, K., and K. Ikushima (1993), Seasonal changes in the distribution of dicarboxylic acids in the urban atmosphere. *Environ. Sci. Technol.* 27, 2227-2235.
- Kawamura, K., H. Kasukabe, and L. A. Barrie (1996), Source and reaction pathways of dicarboxylic acids, ketoacids and dicarbonyls in Arctic aerosols: One year of observations, *Atmos. Environ.*, 30, 1709-1722.
- Kawamura, K., and F. Sakaguchi (1999), Molecular distributions of water-soluble dicarboxylic acids in marine aerosols over the Pacific Ocean including tropics, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 104(D3), 3501-3509.
- Kawamura, K., and O. Yasui (2005), Diurnal changes in the distribution of dicarboxylic acids, ketocarboxylic acids and dicarbonyls in the urban atmosphere, *Atmos. Environ*, 39, 1945-1960.
- Legrand, M., S. Preunkert, T. Oliveira, C. A. Pio, S. Hammer, A. Gelencse'r, A. Kasper-Giebl,

and P. Laj (2007), Origin of C_2 – C_5 dicarboxylic acids in the European atmosphere inferred from year-round aerosol study conducted at a west-east transect, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 112, D23S07, doi:10.1029/2006JD008019.

- Lim, H. J., A. G. Carlton, and B. J. Turpin (2005), Isoprene forms secondary organic aerosol through cloud processing: Model simulations, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 39, 4441–4446.
- Mayol-Bracero, O. L., et al. (2002), Water-soluble organic compounds in biomass burning aerosols over Amazonia 2. Apportionment of the chemical composition and importance of the polyacidic fraction, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 107(D20), 8091, doi:10.1029/2001JD000522.
- Miyazaki, Y., Y. Kondo, N. Takegawa, Y. Komazaki, K. Kawamura, M. Mochida, K. Okuzawa, and R. J. Weber (2006), Time-resolved measurements of water-soluble organic carbon in Tokyo, J. Geophys. Res., 111, D23206, doi:10.1029/2006JD007125.
- Miyazaki, Y., Y. Kondo, S. Han, M. Koike, D. Kodama, Y. Komazaki, H. Tanimoto, and H. Matsueda (2007), Chemical characteristics of water-soluble organic carbon in the Asian outflow, J. Geophys. Res., 112, D13209, doi:10.1029/2006JD007896.
- Miyazaki, Y., et al. (2009), Chemical characterization of water-soluble organic carbon aerosols at a rural site in the Pearl River Delta, China, in the summer of 2006, *J. Geophys. Res.*, doi:10.1029/2009JD011736, *114*, D14208, doi:10.1029/2009JD011736.
- Mochida, M., N. Umemoto, K. Kawamura, and M. Uematsu, Bimodal size distribution of C₂–C₄ dicarboxylic acids in the marine aerosols (2003), *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, *30*(13), 1672, doi:10.1029/2003GL017451.
- Narukawa, K. Kawamura, N. Takeuchi and T. Nakajima (1999), Distribution of dicarboxylic acids and carbon isotopic compositions in aerosols from 1997 Indonesian forest fires. *Geophys. Res. Lett.* 26, 3101-3104.
- Neusüss, C., M. Pelzing, A. Plewka, and H. Herrmann (2000), A new analytical approach for size-resolved speciation of organic compounds in atmospheric aerosol particles: Method and first results, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *105*, 4512–4527.
- Neusüß, C., T. Gnauk, A. Plewka, H. Herrmann, and P. K. Quinn (2002), Carbonaceous aerosol over the Indian Ocean: OC/EC fractions and selected specifications from size-segregated onboard samples, J. Geophys. Res., 107(D19), 8031, doi:10.1029/2001JD000327.
- Norton, R. B., J. M. Roberts, and B. J. Huebert, Tropospheric oxalate, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 10, 517–520, 1983.
- Novakov, T., and J. E. Penner (1993), Large contribution of organic aerosols to cloud-condensation-nuclei concentrations, *Nature*, 365, 823–826.
- Peuravuori, J., P. Ingman, K. Pihlaja, and R. Koivikko (2001), Comparisons of aquatic humic matter by DAX -8 and XAD-8 resins from solid-state 13C NMR spectroscopy's point of view, *Talanta*, 55, 733-742.

- Prasad, A. K., R. P. Singh, and M. Kafatos (2006), Influence of coal based thermal power plants on aerosol optical properties in the Indo-Gangetic basin, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 33, L05805, doi:10.1029/2005GL023801.
- Ramanathan, V., et al. (2002), The Indian Ocean Experiment and the Asian brown cloud, *Curr*. *Sci.*, *83(8)*, 947-955.
- Ramanathan, V., et al. (2007), Atmospheric brown clouds: Hemispherical and regional variations in long-range transport, absorption, and radiative forcing, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 112, D22S21, doi:10.1029/2006JD008124.
- Rengarajan, R., M. M. Sarin, and A. K. Sudheer (2007), Carbonaceous and inorganic species in atmospheric aerosols during wintertime over urban and high-altitude sites in North India, J. *Geophys. Res.*, 112, D21307, doi:10.1029/2006JD008150.
- Rogge, W. F., L. M. Hildemann, M. A. Mazurek, G. R. Cass, and B. R. T. Simoneit (1991), Sources of fine organic aerosol, 1, Charbroilers and meat cooking operations, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 25, 1112–1125.
- Saxena, P., L. M. Hildemann, P. H. McMurry, and J. H. Seinfeld (1995), Organics alter hygroscopic behavior of atmospheric particles, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 100, 18,755–18,770.
- Saxena, P., and L. M. Hildemann (1996), Water-soluble organics in atmospheric particles: A critical review of the literature and application of thermodynamics to identify candidate compounds, *J. Atmos. Chem.*, *24*, 57–109.
- Sempere, R., and K. Kawamura (1994), Comparative distributions of dicarboxylic-acids and related polar compounds in snow rain and aerosols from urban atmosphere, *Atmos. Environ.*, *28*, 449–459.
- Sharma, D. N., A. A. Sawant, R. Uma, and D. R. Cocker III (2003), Preliminary chemical characterization of particle-phase organic compounds in New Delhi, India, *Atmos. Environ.*, 37, 4317–4323.
- Sorooshian, A., et al. (2006), Oxalic acid in clear and cloudy atmospheres: Analysis of data from International Consortium for Atmospheric Research on Transport and Transformation 2004, *J. Geophys. Res.*, 111, D23S45, doi:10.1029/2005JD006880.
- Sorooshian, A., N. L. Ng, A. W. H. Chan, G. Feingold, R. C. Flagan, and J. H. Seinfeld (2007), Particulate organic acids and overall water-soluble aerosol composition measurements from the 2006 Gulf of Mexico Atmospheric Composition and Climate Study (GoMACCS), J. Geophys. Res., 112, D13201, doi:10.1029/2007JD008537.
- Srivastava, M. K., S. Singh, A. Saha, U. C. Dumka, P. Hegde, R. Singh, and P. Pant (2006), Direct solar ultraviolet irradiance over Nainital, India, in the central Himalayas for clear-sky day conditions during December 2004, J. Geophys. Res., 111, D08201, doi:10.1029/2005JD006141.

- Stone, E. A., G. C. Lough, J. J. Schauer, P. S. Praveen, C. E. Corrigan, and V. Ramanathan (2007), Understanding the origin of black carbon in the atmospheric brown cloud over the Indian Ocean, J. Geophys. Res., 112, D22S23, doi:10.1029/2006JD008118.
- Sullivan, A. P., and R. J. Weber (2006), Chemical characterization of the ambient organic aerosol soluble in water: 1. Isolation of hydrophobic and hydrophilic fractions with a XAD-8 resin, *J. Geophys. Res.*, *111*, D05314, doi:10.1029/2005JD006485.
- Talbot, R. W., B. W. Mosher, B. G. Heikes, D. J. Jacob, J. W. Munger, B. C. Daube, W. C. Keene, J. R. Maben, and R. S. Artz (1995), Carboxylic-acids in the rural continental atmosphere over the eastern United States during the Shenandoah Cloud and Photochemistry Experiment, J. Geophys. Res., 100, 9335–9343.
- Venkataraman, C., G. Habib, A. Eiguren-Fernandez, A. H. Miguel, and S. K. Friedlander (2005), Residential biofuels in South Asia: Carbonaceous aerosol emissions and climate impacts, *Science*, 307, 1454-1456.
- Wang, G., K. Kawamura, T. Watanabe, S. Lee, K. Ho, and J. Cao (2006), High loadings and source strengths of organic aerosols in China, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 33, L22801, doi:10.1029/2006GL027624.
- Warneck, P. (2003), In-cloud chemistry opens pathway to the formation of oxalic acid in the marine atmosphere, *Atmos. Environ.*, *37*, 2423–2427.
- Yang, H., J. Z. Yu, S. S. H. Ho, J. Xu, W.-S. Wu, C. H. Wan, X. Wang, X. Wang, and L. Wang (2005), The chemical composition of inorganic and carbonaceous materials in PM2.5 in Nanjing, China, *Atmos. Environ.*, 39, 3735–3749.
- Yao, X. H., A. P. S. Lau, M. Fang, C. K. Chan, and M. Hu (2003), Size distributions and formation of ionic species in atmospheric particulate pollutants in Beijing, China: 2-dicarboxylic acids, *Atmos. Environ.*, 37, 3001–3007.
- Yao, X. H., M. Fang, C. K. Chan, K. F. Ho, and S. C. Lee (2004), Characterization of dicarboxylic acids in PM2.5 in Hong Kong, *Atmos. Environ.*, 38, 963–970.
- Yu, J. Z., S. F. Huang, J. H. Xu, and M. Hu (2005), When aerosol sulfate goes up, so does oxalate: Implication for the formation mechanisms of oxalate, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 39, 128–133.
- Zhang, Q., D. G. Streets, G. R. Carmichael, K. He, H. Huo, A. Kannari, Z. Klimont, I. Park, S. Reddy, D. Chen, L. Duan, Y. Lei, L. Wang, and Z. Yao (2009), Asian emissions in 2006 for the NASA INTEX-B mission, *Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss.*, 9, 4081-4139.
- Zuo, Y., and J. Holgné (1992), Formation of hydrogen peroxide and depletion of oxalic acid in atmospheric water by photolysis of iron (III)–oxalato complexes, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 26, 1014–1022.

S. G. Aggarwal, K. Kawamura, Y. Miyazaki, Institute of Low Temperature Science, Hokkaido University, N19, W8, Kita-ku, Sapporo, 060-0819 Japan. (yuzom@lowtem.hokudai.ac.jp)

Prabhat K. Gupta, Khem Singh, Chemical Metrology Section, National Physical Laboratory, Dr. K. S. Krishnan Marg, New Delhi, 110012, India.

Figure Captions

- Figure 1. A map of India with the location of New Delhi indicated by asterisk. Anthropogenic emission estimates of OC and VOC are also shown for year 2006 over India [*Zhang et al.*, 2009], the data of which are available at the website http://www.cgrer.uiowa.edu/ EMISSION_DATA_new/data/ intex-b_emissions/.
- **Figure 2.** Time series of speciated and identified organic aerosols, major inorganic aerosols collected in New Delhi from September 2006 to April 2007 together with meteorological data: (a) M-WSOC, L-WSOC, and WIOC, (b) total diacids, oxalic acid (C_2), malonic acid (C_3), and succinic acid (C_4), (c) sulfate and nitrate, (d) the maximum and average relative humidity (RH), and ambient temperature. "D" indicates data corrected in daytime, whereas "N" indicates that in nighttime.
- Figure 3. Average molecular distributions of dicarboxylic acids, ketoacids, and α -dicarbonyls in daytime and nighttime. To highlight the concentrations of less abundant species, molecular distributions except C₂-C₄ are also shown with an enhanced y-axis scale.
- Figure 4. Mass fractions of M-WSOC, L-WSOC, and WIOC in OC during daytime and nighttime.
- **Figure 5.** Mass fractions of C_2 - C_4 in M-WSOC, C_2 in total diacids, and relative abundances of C_2 - C_9 in day- and night-time. To highlight the abundance of organic compounds shown, the y-axis begins at 40% in the bottom panels as C_2 contributes >40% in each category.
- **Figure 6.** Relation between total C_2 - C_4 and M-WSOC concentrations during daytime (open circle) and nighttime (solid circle).
- **Figure 7.** Scatter plots of (a) C₂, (b) M-WSOC and (c) L-WSOC with K⁺ in daytime (open circle) and nighttime (solid circle). The correlation coefficient is based on a regression line

that is not forced through 0.

- Figure 8. Variations of (a) C_2 concentrations and (b) C_2 /TDCA ratios as a function of $hC_4/(hC_4+C_4)$ in daytime (open circle) and nighttime (solid circle).
- **Figure 9.** Relation between C₂ and sulfate concentrations during daytime (open circle) and nighttime (solid circle). "S" indicates a slope of a linear regression.

Table 1. Summary of the laboratory experiments for the DAX-8 resin using organic species standards. The classification as M-WSOC or L-WSOC for each compound is indicated by circles, based on their passing efficiency through the DAX-8 resin. For definition of M-WSOC and L-WSOC, see text.

Functional group	Compounds	MW, ^a g mol ⁻¹	Solubility in water ^b (g solute per 100g water)	Concentrations, µgC L ⁻¹	Passing Efficiency, %	Definition in this study	
						M-WSOC	L-WSOC
Dicarboxylic Acid	Oxalic acid,C ₂	90	12	50, 260, 430	100	0	
	Succinic acid, C ₄	118	8.8	380	100	0	
	Maleic acid, C ₄	116	80.4	405	100	0	
	Fumaric acid, C ₄	116	0.63	470	0		0
	Adipic acid, C ₆	146	2.5	120	0		0
	Azelaic acid, C ₉	188	0.21	280	0		0
Carbonyls	Glyoxal	58	≥ 67	120	100	0	
	Methyl glyoxal	72	≥ 67	90	100	0	
Amines	Ethanolamine	61	Infinity ^c	160	100	0	
Saccharides	Levoglucosan	162	N/A ^d	330	100	0	
	Sucrose	342	211.5	80, 290	100	0	
Phenols	Catechol	110	43	220	0		0
Aromatic acids	Phthalic acid	166	0.7	200	0		0
Cyclic acids	Pinic acid	186	N/A ^d	110	0		0
	cis-Pinonic acid	184	N/A ^d	320	0		0
Humic-like	Suwannee River fulvic		N/A ^c	70, 250, 520	0		0

^a 'MW' denotes molecular weight.

^b The values are those summarized in Saxena and Hildemann [1996].

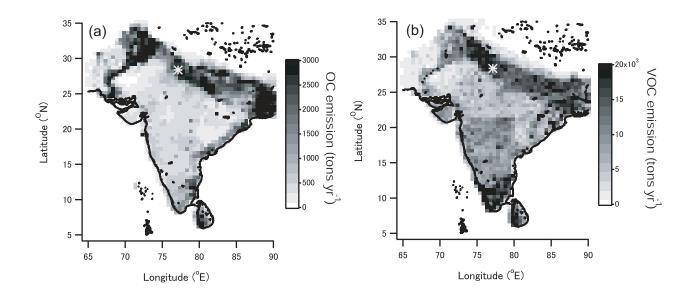
^c 'Infinity' denotes complete miscibility with water.

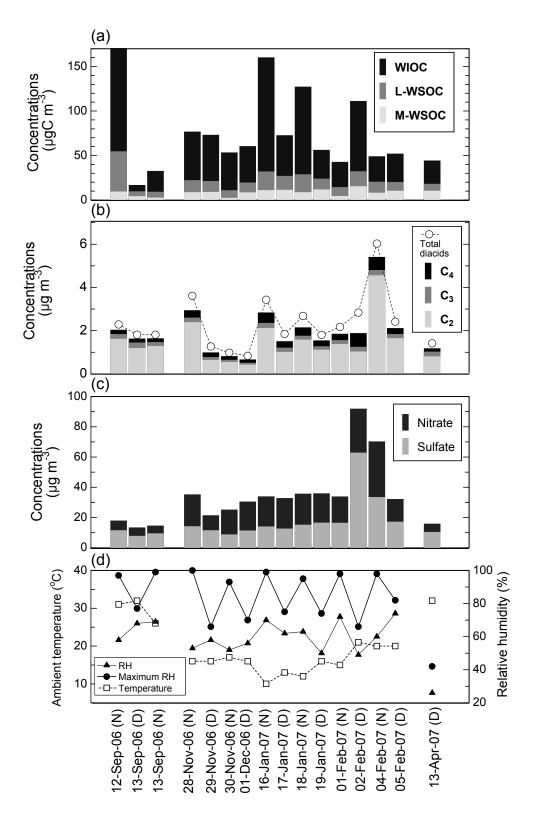
^d 'N/A' denotes that solubility data is not readily available.

	Groups/Compounds/	Concentrations		
	Abbreviations	Daytime	Nighttime	
OC (µgC m ⁻³)		60.1 (16.0-110.4)	76.7 (31.8-159.5)	
TWSOC	M-WSOC	9.4 (3.5-14.7)	6.1 (1.6-10.2)	
$(\mu gC m^{-3})$	L-WSOC	11.4 (5.3-16.8)	13.1 (6.5-45.2)	
	Total	20.8 (8.8-31.5)	19.2 (8.4-53.8)	
Diacids	Oxalic acid, C ₂	955 (396-1619)	1906 (517-4531)	
$(ng m^{-3})$	Malonic, C ₃	181 (85-254)	194(101-242)	
	Succinic acid, C ₄	273 (150-636)	330 (165-605)	
	Maleic acid, M	18 (6-77)	36(6-182	
	Fumaric acid, F	9 (3-46)	10 (3-19	
	Glutaric, C ₅	51 (28-122)	66 (25-144	
	Adipic acid, C ₆	29 (17-69)	32 (14-46	
	Pimelic, C ₇	15 (6-37)	16 (5-28	
	Suberic, C ₈	5 (1-11)	5 (1-11	
	Azelaic acid, C ₉	70 (26-168)	72 (44-115	
	Sebacic, C ₁₀	8 (3-23)	10 (4-15	
	Methylmalonic, iC ₄	9 (4-12)	12 (6-23	
	Methylsuccinic, iC ₅	39 (9-102)	53 (17-95	
	Methylglutaric, iC ₆	7 (3-21)	8.5 (3-13	
	Methylmaleic, mM	21 (4-82)	24 (8-38	
	Phthalic, Ph	40 (22-95)	45 (14-76	
	Iso-phthalic, iPh	8 (3-19)	11 (4-24	
	Tere-phthalic, tPh	5 (3-9)	4 (1-11	
	Malic, hC ₄	9 (3-30)	9(4-17	
	Sub total	1777 (835-2835)	2875 (979-6030	
Ketoacids	Pyruvic, Pyr	18 (1-80)	9 (1-32	
(ng m ⁻³)	Glyoxylic, ωC_2	114 (27-508)	128 (19-245	
	3-Oxopropanoic, ωC ₃	5 (3-15)	6 (2-17	
	4-Oxobutanoic, ωC_4	19 (11-35)	15 (9-23	
	9-Oxononanoic, ωC ₉	1 (0.4-4)	2 (0.4-7	
	Sub total	157 (42-642)	161 (31-324	
α-Dicarbonyls	Glyoxal, Gly	12 (1-41)	24 (4-72	
(ng m ⁻³)	Methylglyoxal, mGly	28 (7-68)	31(9-178	
	Sub total	40 (8-109)	55 (13-250	

Table 2. Summary of the average concentrations of OC, WSOC, diacids, ketoacids, and α -dicarbonyls in the aerosol samples collected in New Delhi, India^a

^a Numbers in parenthesis in the concentration rows are ranges of the concentrations.





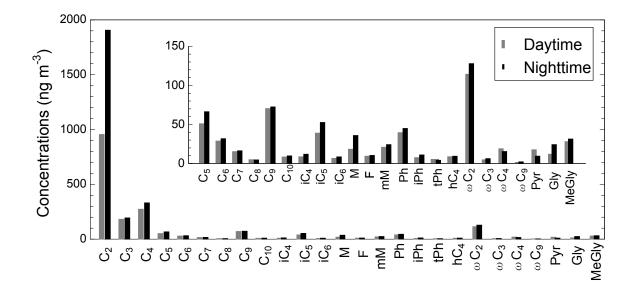


Figure 4

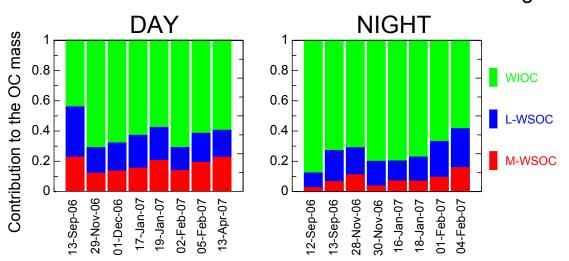
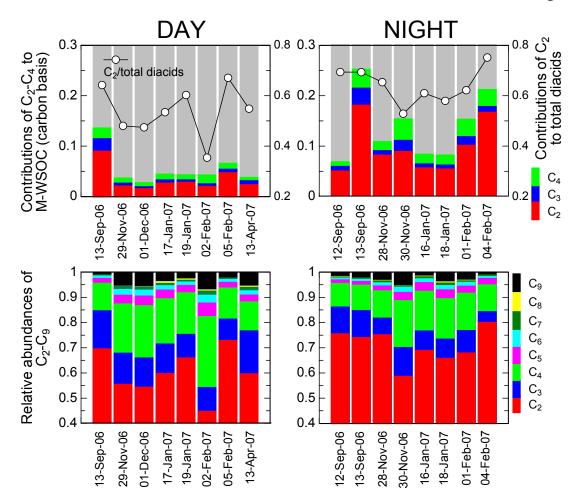


Figure 5



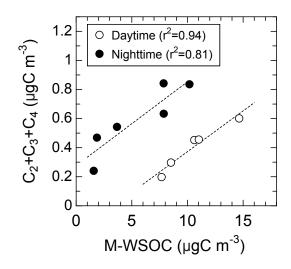


Figure 7

