

1 **Measurement report: Enhanced photochemical formation of**
2 **formic and isocyanic acids in urban region aloft: insights**
3 **from tower-based online gradient measurements**

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11 **Abstract**

12 Formic acid is the most abundant organic acid in the troposphere and has
13 significant environmental and climatic impacts. Isocyanic acid poses severe threats to
14 human health and could be formed through the degradation of formic acid. However,
15 the lack of vertical observation information has strongly limited the understanding of
16 their sources, particularly in urban regions with complex pollutant emissions. To
17 address this issue, we assessed the impact of long tubes on the measurement
18 uncertainties of formic and isocyanic acids and found that the tubing impact was
19 negligible. Then, we conducted continuous (27 days) vertical gradient measurements
20 (five heights between 5-320 m) of formic and isocyanic acids using long tubes based
21 on a tall tower in Beijing, China, in the summer of 2021. Results show that the
22 respective mean mixing ratios of formic and isocyanic acids were 1.3 ± 1.3 ppbv and
23 0.28 ± 0.16 ppbv at 5 m and were 2.1 ± 1.9 ppbv and 0.43 ± 0.21 ppbv at 320 m during the
24 campaign. The mixing ratios of formic and isocyanic acids were substantially enhanced
25 in daytime and correlated with the diurnal change of ozone. Upon sunrise, the mixing
26 ratios of formic and isocyanic acids at different heights simultaneously increased even
27 in the residual layer. In addition, positive vertical gradients were observed for formic
28 and isocyanic acids throughout the day. The positive vertical gradients of formic and
29 isocyanic acids in daytime imply the enhancement of their secondary formation in
30 urban regions aloft, predominantly due to the enhancements of oxygenated volatile
31 organic compounds. Furthermore, the afternoon peaks and positive vertical gradients
32 of formic and isocyanic acids in nighttime also indicate their minor contributions from
33 primary emissions from ground-level sources. The formation pathway of isocyanic acid
34 through $\text{HCOOH}-\text{CH}_3\text{NO}-\text{HNCO}$ was enhanced with height but only accounted for a
35 tiny fraction of its ambient abundance. The abundance and source contributions of
36 formic and isocyanic acids in the atmospheric boundary layer may be highly
37 underestimated when being derived from their ground-level measurements. With the
38 aid of numerical modeling techniques, future studies could further identify key

39 precursors that drive the rapid formation of formic and isocyanic acids, and
40 quantitatively assess the impacts of the enhanced formation of the two acids aloft on
41 their budgets at ground level.

42 **1. Introduction**

43 Formic acid (HCOOH) is the simplest but the most abundant organic acid in the
44 troposphere. It has been widely measured in aqueous (clouds and aerosols) and gaseous
45 phases over urban, rural, and remote regions (*Kawamura and Kaplan, 1983; Chebbi
46 and Carlier, 1996; Kesselmeier et al., 1998; Yu, 2000*). As important contributors to the
47 acidity of precipitation, formic and acetic acids can account for 60% of the free acidity
48 in remote regions (*Galloway et al., 1982; Andreae et al., 1988*), and over 30% of the
49 free acidity in heavily polluted regions (*Keene and Galloway, 1984*). Formic acid is
50 also an important sink of hydroxyl radicals (OH) in clouds (*Jacob, 1986*), playing vital
51 roles in modulating the atmospheric aqueous-phase chemistry through changing pH-
52 dependent reaction rates of related constituents. An in-depth understanding of the
53 concentration levels, spatiotemporal variations, and sources of formic acid is key to
54 elucidating the formation mechanisms of atmospheric secondary pollution. However,
55 the sources and sinks of atmospheric formic acid are still poorly understood so far.

56 There have been many reported sources of atmospheric formic acid. Primary
57 emissions from vegetation activity (*Andreae et al., 1988; Kesselmeier et al., 1998*),
58 microbial metabolism (*Enders et al., 1992*), biomass burning (*Goode et al., 2000*), and
59 vehicle exhaust (*Kawamura et al., 2000*) were identified as important sources of formic
60 acid. Secondary formation from photochemical degradation of volatile organic
61 compounds (VOCs) is another significant source of formic acid (*Khare et al., 1999;
62 Veres et al., 2011; Le Breton et al., 2014; Liggiio et al., 2017*). However, current
63 chemical transport models still highly underestimate ambient concentrations of formic
64 acid (*Stavrakou et al., 2011; Paulot et al., 2011; Millet et al., 2015*) and cannot well
65 reproduce its vertical variations. For example, Mattila et al. (2018) measured vertical
66 profiles of formic acid using an elevator on the Colorado Front Range BOA tower. They
67 found that formic acid mixing ratios generally decreased with height throughout the day,
68 but there were no known sources to explicitly explain the net surface emissions. In
69 combination with vertical gradient and flux measurements of formic acid in a forest

70 ecosystem, Alwe et al. (2019) suggested that secondary formation, rather than primary
71 emission, is the major source of ambient formic acid. The vertical distribution and
72 variation patterns of formic acid in the atmospheric boundary layer can provide
73 valuable information on the identification and determination of source contributions.
74 Nevertheless, the vertical variations and key drivers of formic acid, particularly in urban
75 regions, are still unclear due to the lack of adequate vertical observations.

76 Isocyanic acid (HNCO) is an inorganic acid and has attracted extensive concerns
77 worldwide in recent years due to its strong toxicity (Wang et al., 2007; Jaisson et al.,
78 2011; Koeth et al., 2013). Previous studies have reported that isocyanic acid is highly
79 soluble at physiological pH and the dissociated cyanate ions (NCO^-) are closely linked
80 to atherosclerosis, cataracts, and rheumatoid arthritis (Mydel et al., 2010; Roberts et al.,
81 2011). At present, there is no standard to clearly define the critical levels of isocyanic
82 acid pollution in ambient air (Rosanka et al., 2020). The mixing ratio of HNCO in the
83 atmosphere exceeding 1 ppbv may endanger human health (Roberts et al., 2011), and
84 the protein carbamylation caused by HNCO in human body may induce various risks
85 (Verbrugge et al., 2015). Similar to formic acid, our understanding of isocyanic acid
86 sources is also very limited.

87 As reported in the literature, primary emissions of isocyanic acid are mainly from
88 combustion sources including cigarette smoke (Hems et al., 2019), gasoline and diesel
89 engine exhausts (Wren et al., 2018), and biomass combustion (Wentzell et al., 2013; Li
90 et al., 2021; Chandra and Sinha, 2016). Wet and dry deposition is known as the main
91 sink of isocyanic acid (Roberts et al., 2014; Rosanka et al., 2020). In addition, isocyanic
92 acid is highly soluble at atmospheric pH and can be hydrolyzed to NH_3 and CO_2 (Zhao
93 et al., 2014; Roberts and Liu, 2019). Secondary formation is another important source
94 of atmospheric isocyanic acid and the known precursors include amides (Barnes et al.,
95 2010), urea (Jathar et al., 2017), and nicotine (Roberts et al., 2011; Borduas et al.,
96 2016). Amides are reported to be the main precursors of isocyanic acid in urban regions
97 (Wang et al., 2020). Isocyanic acid is the oxidative degradation product of amides

98 initiated by OH radicals, NO₃, radicals, and Cl atoms (*Barnes et al., 2010*). In addition
99 to primary emissions from organic solvents and various industrial processes, amides
100 can be also formed through the atmospheric accretion reactions of organic acids with
101 amines or ammonia (*Barnes et al., 2010; Yao et al., 2016*). Vertical gradient
102 measurements of HNCO can help elucidate potential formation sources and
103 mechanisms.

104 Chemical ionization mass spectrometry (CIMS) can effectively detect and
105 quantify atmospheric formic and isocyanic acids (*Bannan et al., 2014; Chandra and*
106 *Sinha, 2016; Liggio et al., 2017; Mungall et al., 2018; Fulgham et al., 2019*). CIMS
107 has been widely used onboard aircraft or on towers to make online vertical
108 measurements of formic and isocyanic acids (*Liggio et al., 2017; Mattila et al., 2018*).
109 Aircraft can carry many types of instruments and achieve measurements of a large suite
110 of parameters (*Benish et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2021*), but the cost is also very expensive.
111 Towers can provide vertical observations of target species by setting up sites at different
112 heights, building mobile platforms (elevators or baskets) (*Mattila et al., 2018*), and
113 drawing air from multiple heights to the ground-based instruments through long tubes
114 (*Hu et al., 2013; Yáñez-Serrano et al., 2018*). The usage of long tubes is the most
115 convenient and cost-effective method to make gradient measurements of target gaseous
116 species so far. However, interactions between gaseous species and tubing walls may
117 bring unexpected uncertainties for their measurements (*Helmig et al., 2008a; Helmig*
118 *et al., 2008b; Schnitzhofer et al., 2009; Karion et al., 2010; Pagonis et al., 2017*).
119 Therefore, the impacts of long tubing on measurements of formic and isocyanic acids
120 need to be elucidated.

121 In this study, we first assessed the effects of long perfluoroalkoxy (PFA) Teflon
122 tubes on measurements of formic and isocyanic acids. Vertical gradient measurements
123 of the two acids were made through long tubes on a tall tower in urban Beijing, China.
124 Then, the vertical variations and sources of the two acids were investigated and
125 discussed. At last, key conclusions and implications of this study were summarized.

126 **2. Methods and materials**

127 **2.1. Site description and field campaign**

128 Vertical gradient measurements of gaseous species were made on the Beijing
129 Meteorological Tower, which is located on the campus of the Institute of Atmospheric
130 Physics (IAP), Chinese Academy of Sciences. Beijing is the capital city of China with
131 a population of over 20 million by 2020. Beijing has large anthropogenic emission
132 intensities and is suffering from severe air pollution problems (*Acton et al., 2020; Meng*
133 *et al., 2020; Tan et al., 2022*). The tower is located in the northern part of downtown
134 Beijing between the 3rd and 4th Ring Roads and is surrounded by urban roads,
135 expressways, residential areas, restaurants, urban landscaping, and parks. As a result,
136 concentrations of the primary pollutants at the tower site are mainly contributed by both
137 anthropogenic (e.g., vehicular exhausts, cooking, and household volatile chemical
138 products) and biogenic emissions. Detailed descriptions of the tower have been
139 provided in previous studies (*Acton et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2021*) and will not be
140 repeated here. The field campaign was carried out from July 17th to August 3rd, 2021.

141 **2.2. Instrumentation**

142 To obtain online gradient measurements of atmospheric trace gases, we
143 established a tower-based observation system using a combination of online
144 measurement techniques and long tubes (Figure S1). The system and related
145 assessments on the usage of long tubes have been explicitly described in our previous
146 study (*Li et al., 2023*) and will be briefly introduced here. After removing fine particles
147 by PFA Teflon filters (Whatman) with a diameter of 46.2 mm and a pore size of 2 μm ,
148 ambient air at four altitudes on the tower (namely 47, 102, 200, and 320 m) was
149 simultaneously and continuously drawn to the ground through long PFA Teflon tubes
150 (100, 150, 250, and 400 m; outer diameter: 1/2"; inner diameter: 0.374") by a vacuum
151 pump. All the sampling tubes were installed inside the iron tower to avoid direct
152 sunlight. The flow rate of the sample stream in each tube was controlled by a critical

153 orifice and ranged between 13-21 standard liters per minute (SLPM), as shown in table
154 S1. The flow rates in long tubes were retained as large as possible if instruments allowed
155 to minimize the impact of gas-surface interactions on measurements of targeted gaseous
156 species (*Deming et al., 2019; Li et al., 2023*). Two air-conditioned containers were
157 placed next to each other on the base of the tower and all the instruments were operated
158 inside. An additional inlet of the tube was mounted on the rooftop of the container
159 (approximately 5 m above ground level) to make measurements of trace gases near the
160 surface. Therefore, the tower-based observation system consisted of five inlet heights
161 ranging from the ground level to 320 m. Inlets of the instruments were connected to the
162 outlet of a Teflon solenoid valve group, which was used to perform the switch of the
163 inlet heights at time intervals of 4 minutes. Vertical gradient measurements of gaseous
164 species were cyclically made over periods of 20 minutes. Indoor PFA Teflon tubes were
165 wrapped with insulation tubes and were heated to prevent condensation of water and
166 organic gases.

167 Formic and isocyanic acids were measured by a high-resolution time-of-flight
168 chemical ionization mass spectrometry with iodide reagent ion (ToF-CIMS). Due to the
169 high sensitivity to oxygenated volatile organic compounds (OVOCs), the iodine ion
170 source has been widely used in previous studies (*Yuan et al., 2015; Schobesberger et*
171 *al., 2016; Mungall et al., 2018*). A Filter Inlet for Gases and AEROSols (FIGAERO)
172 was used to perform the switch between the gas and particle measurement modes
173 (*Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2014*). The ion molecular reaction (IMR) chamber is adjacent to
174 the FIGAERO and utilizes a vacuum ultraviolet ion source (VUV-IS). Iodide anion (I^-)
175 is produced from the photoionization of methyl iodide (CH_3I) in IMR (*Ji et al., 2020*).
176 During the measurements, I^- was produced by introducing the CH_3I gas standard (1000
177 ppm, Dalian Special Gases, China) to the IMR chamber at a flow rate of 2 standard
178 cubic centimeters per minute (SCCM) in 200 SCCM high-purity nitrogen (N_2 ,
179 99.9995%) by the VUV-IS. The pressure of the IMR chamber was maintained at 70-80
180 mbar. Flow rates of the sample gas were maintained at 2 SLPM using a critical orifice.

181 During the field campaign, both gaseous and particle measurements were made through
182 the FIGAERO of the CIMS, but only gaseous measurements were analyzed in this study.
183 In a one-hour cycle, the first 24 min was allocated to make gaseous measurements
184 during which a complete vertical profile of a gaseous species can be obtained. As shown
185 in Figure S3, there was no significant difference between the background signals of the
186 instrument made with and without the long tubes. Therefore, blank measurements of
187 the instrument were made by adding zero air just to the inlet of the instrument without
188 through the long tubes during the field campaign. In the gaseous measurement mode, a
189 rapid blank measurement was made for 10 s at 3-min intervals in the first 21 min and a
190 long-time blank measurement was made in the rest 3 min (*Palm et al., 2019*). During
191 the first 21-min period of the one-hour cycle, another inlet at 5 m was used to collect
192 ambient particles using PTFE membrane filters (Zefluor®, Pall Inc., USA). Therefore,
193 the remaining 36 min of the one-hour cycle was allocated to analyze the collected
194 particle.

195 Calibrations of the ToF-CIMS for formic and isocyanic acids were performed in
196 the laboratory before and after the field campaign. Standard solutions of formic acid
197 were evaporated using the liquid calibration unit (LCU, IONICON Analytik GmbH)
198 and then diluted to designated concentration gradients by being mixed with zero air at
199 five flow rates. The gas standard of isocyanic acid is unstable at ambient temperature
200 and thus no commercial gas cylinder was available. Instead, cyanuric acid solution was
201 put into a diffusion cell and heated to 300 °C to generate isocyanic acid gas at a stable
202 mixing ratio. An ion chromatograph was used to quantify the concentration of the gas
203 standard by measuring deionized water that absorbed the isocyanic acid gas. Detailed
204 information about the isocyanic acid calibration procedure has been provided in our
205 previous work (*Wang et al., 2020*). Impacts of the changes in ambient humidity on
206 measurements of the ToF-CIMS for both formic and isocyanic acids were determined
207 in the laboratory and were corrected when calculating their respective concentrations.
208 Measured signals of the ToF-CIMS were processed using the Tofware software package

209 (version 3.0.3; ToFwerk AG, Switzerland).

210 A high-resolution proton-transfer-reaction quadrupole interface time-of-flight
211 mass spectrometry (PTR-ToF-MS) with both H_3O^+ and NO^+ ion chemistry was used to
212 measure reported precursors of the two acids, such as isoprene, aromatics, OVOCs, and
213 amides. Detailed information about the configuration and operation setup of the PTR-
214 ToF-MS has been provided in our previous studies (*Yuan et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2020;*
215 *Li et al., 2022*). Mixing ratios of O_3 , CO, and NO_2 were measured by a UV absorption
216 O_3 analyzer (T400, Teledyne API, USA), a gas filter correlation CO analyzer (T300,
217 Teledyne API, USA), and a trace level NO_x analyzer (42i, Thermo, USA), respectively.
218 Photolysis rates were measured by a PFS-100 photolysis spectrometer (Focused
219 Photonics Inc.) on the rooftop of the container. The planetary boundary layer height
220 (PBLH) data was obtained from the web portal of the Real-time Environmental
221 Applications and Display sYstem (READY) of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
222 Administration (NOAA) Air Resource Laboratory
223 (<https://ready.arl.noaa.gov/READYamet.php>). Measurements of isocyanic acid and
224 amides made in Guangzhou and Gucheng in China were also used in this study for
225 comparison, and more information about these observations can be found in our
226 previous papers (*Wang et al., 2020*).

227 **2.3. Tubing assessment**

228 The tower-based observation system used long PFA Teflon tubes (hundreds of
229 meters in length) to draw air samples from different heights. The interactions between
230 tubing inner walls and organic compounds, namely the absorption/desorption of trace
231 gases, have nonnegligible impacts on their measurements after traversing such long
232 tubes (*Pagonis et al., 2017; Deming et al., 2019*). The equilibrium between the
233 absorption and desorption of organic compounds on tubing walls required distinct times,
234 namely tubing delay, for different species. For nonpolar/weak-polar organic compounds,
235 their tubing delays and measurement uncertainties after traversing long tubes are
236 dependent on their saturation concentrations and the flow rates of sample streams but

237 are independent of changes in humidity (*Krechmer et al., 2017; Pagonis et al., 2017*).
238 For some small polar organic compounds, their tubing delays and measurement
239 uncertainties after traversing long tubes are dependent on Henry's law coefficients and
240 are affected by changes in humidity (*Liu et al., 2019*). The performance of long PFA
241 Teflon tubes in measuring concentrations of nonpolar/weak-polar organic compounds
242 and inorganic species (e.g., ozone, NO, NO₂, and CO₂) has been assessed in our
243 previous work (*Li et al., 2023*). The impacts of long PFA Teflon tubes on measurements
244 of formic and isocyanic acids are still unclear and will be assessed in this study.

245 Long PFA Teflon tubes with an outer diameter of 1/2" and an inner diameter of
246 0.374" were used to draw air samples from different altitudes and thus were assessed.
247 At flow rates below 20 SLPM, suitable pressure drops can be maintained in these long
248 tubes for instrument operation (*Li et al., 2023*). The effects of long tubes on
249 measurements of formic and isocyanic acids were mainly assessed using the same
250 methods in the literature (*Li et al., 2023*). The tubing delay of formic acid is estimated
251 as the time required to reach 90% of the concentration change made at the tubing inlet.
252 The depassivation curve of formic acid measured at the outlet end of the long tubing
253 was used to calculate its tubing delay and was obtained by using a step-function change
254 of the formic acid concentration from 7.5 ppbv to 0 ppbv at the tubing inlet (*Pagonis et*
255 *al., 2017; Deming et al., 2019*). The formic acid signals were normalized to those
256 measured at the beginning of the step-function change and then were fitted using the
257 double exponential method, as shown in Figure 1. Finally, the tubing delay of formic
258 acid was determined when the fitting line decreased to 0.1. The previous study (*Li et*
259 *al., 2023*) has reported that inorganic species have small tubing delays even in a 400 m
260 long tube. Therefore, tubing delays of isocyanic acid in long tubes are not discussed in
261 this study.

262 To further assess the impacts of long tubes (namely 100, 200, 300, and 400 m)
263 on measurements of formic and isocyanic acids in real environments, their ambient
264 mixing ratios measured through different lengths of tubes were intercompared by

265 running the inlets side by side at ground level. Ambient air samples were sequentially
266 drawn with and without the tubes through a Teflon solenoid valve group (Figure S2),
267 which was set to perform the switch at time intervals of 4 minutes. Instrument
268 backgrounds of the two species were measured for 10 s at time intervals of 1 minute by
269 passing zero air into the instrument at a flow rate of 3 SLPM. Inter-comparisons of the
270 formic acid and isocyanic acid measurements made through different lengths of tubes
271 were mainly performed using linear fittings ($y=kx+b$; k is the slope and b is the
272 intercept).

273 **3. Results and Discussions**

274 **3.1. Interactions between long tubes and the two acids**

275 As shown in Figure 1, signals of formic acid measured by the ToF-CIMS had a
276 tubing delay of 23 s after traversing the 400 m long tube at the flow rate of 13 SLPM.
277 In addition to the interactions between tubing walls and formic acid molecules (*Pagonis*
278 *et al.*, 2017; *Deming et al.*, 2019), molecular diffusion and dispersion (namely Taylor
279 dispersion) can cause the longitudinal mixing of gas molecules in the tubing and is also
280 an important factor contributing to the measured delays (*Karion et al.*, 2010). Molecular
281 diffusion and dispersion have strong dependences on molecular diffusion coefficients
282 and tubing flow rates (*Karion et al.*, 2010). The influential time of Taylor dispersion on
283 the measurements of formic acid through a 400 m long tube at the flow rate of 13 SLPM
284 was estimated to be only 2.9 s, which is much smaller than the measured tubing delay
285 (23 s) of formic acid. Therefore, the adsorption/desorption of formic acid molecules on
286 tubing inner walls plays a dominant role in determining the tubing delay.

287 For most organic compounds, the tubing delays generally depend on tubing flow
288 rates and their saturated concentrations (C^*) (*Li et al.*, 2023; *Deming et al.*, 2019). With
289 the increase in tubing length and flow rate, the tubing delays of organic compounds will
290 rapidly decrease (*Liu et al.*, 2019). Therefore, the tubing flow rates should be as large
291 as possible if the instrument could work normally. In addition, the tubing delays of

292 organic compounds generally increase with the decrease in their C^* (Li et al., 2023). It
293 must be acknowledged that tubing delay is inevitable. The analysis time scales of
294 species concentrations measured through long tubes should be greater than their tubing
295 delays, especially for those with small C^* .

296 The delay time of formic acid mentioned here is different from the residence time
297 of the gas through the long tubing. Residence time refers to the time required for the
298 sample gas to pass through the tubes. As for the measured tubing delays of trace gases,
299 they refer to the amounts of time required for the instruments to measure stable
300 concentrations of targeted species in response to a change in species concentrations at
301 the tubing inlet. The residence time is the same for all trace gases, depending on the
302 length of the long tube, the inner diameter of the tube, and the flow rate of the sample
303 gas. However, the tubing delay for each trace gas is different and depends on the flow
304 rate, their respective saturated concentrations/Henry's constants, and molecular
305 diffusion and diffusion rates. The difference between residence time and delay time is
306 also discussed in detail in our previous work (Li et al., 2023).

307 As shown in Figure S4(a), ambient mixing ratios of formic acid measured
308 through the 400 m long tube varied consistently with those measured without the tube
309 with mean values of 4.14 and 4.09 ppbv, respectively. The mixing ratios of formic acid
310 measured with the long tube were slightly higher in the daytime and lower at night in
311 comparison with those measured without the long tube. We also conducted a correlation
312 analysis between the mixing ratios of formic acid measured with and without long tubes.
313 As shown in Figure 2, the mixing ratios of formic acid measured with and without the
314 400 m long tube agreed within 20%, but the slope of the linear fitting ($k=0.84$) is lower
315 than 1. The differences of formic acid mixing ratios measured with and without the 400
316 m long tube were predominantly caused by the long-tail memory effect of the tubing
317 (Figure 1). For example, the mixing ratios of formic acid measured through the 400 m
318 long tube at night equaled to its ambient mixing ratios plus those released from the
319 tubing inner wall. The tubing delay of formic acid was determined when its mixing

320 ratios reached 90% of the change before entering the tubing. However, the long-tail
321 memory effect of the tubing mainly focused on the rest 10% of the change (Figure 1),
322 which required a much longer time to stabilize.

323 Impacts of the tubing memory effects will be accumulated due to the continuous
324 change in ambient concentrations of formic acid. To further assess the impacts of tubing
325 memory effects on measurement uncertainties of the two acids, differences between
326 mixing ratios of the species X (namely formic and isocyanic acids) measured with and
327 without long tubes at time t (denoted by $\delta[X]_t$) were calculated using Eq. (1):

$$328 \quad \delta[X]_t = [X_{without}]_t - [X_{with}]_t \quad (1)$$

329 where $[X_{with}]_t$ and $[X_{without}]_t$ refer to mixing ratios of the species X measured at
330 time t with and without long tubes, respectively. In addition, the changes in mixing
331 ratios of the species X measured using long tubes was also calculated using Eq. (2):

$$332 \quad \Delta[X]_t = [X_{with}]_t - \frac{\sum_{t-\Delta t}^t [X_{with}]}{\Delta t} \quad (2)$$

333 where Δt is the change in time relative to time t and was used to characterize the
334 influential time of the memory effect. A strong correlation between $\delta[X]_t$ and $\Delta[X]_t$
335 could be captured at a certain Δt if the tubing memory effect make essential
336 contributions to measurement uncertainties of the species X after traversing long tubes.
337 For the 400 m long tubing, $\delta[X]_t$ and $\Delta[X]_t$ had the strongest correlation ($R^2=0.89$)
338 when Δt was approximately 14 h (Figure S7). As also shown in Figure 2(a), the
339 mixing ratios of formic acid measured with and without the 400 m long tube agreed
340 well when $\Delta[HCOOH]$ approached to zero. The decrease and increase in $\Delta[HCOOH]$
341 will enlarge measurement uncertainties of formic acid using the long tube. In morning
342 periods, ambient mixing ratios of formic acid rapidly increased. As a result, the mixing
343 ratios of formic acid measured through the 400 m long tube were slightly lower than its
344 ambient mixing ratios due to the absorption of formic acid by tubing inner walls. In
345 evening and nighttime periods, an opposite phenomenon was observed due to the
346 desorption of formic acid from tubing inner walls (Figure S4).

347 In addition to the 400 m long tube, impacts of the tubes with lengths of 100, 200,

348 and 300 m on measurements of formic acid were also assessed, as shown in Figures 2(c)
349 and 3(a). The usage of tubes with lengths of 100, 200, and 300 m has negligible impacts
350 on the measurements of formic acid. During the test of the 200 m tubing, meteorological
351 conditions significantly changed with lower temperatures and stronger winds in
352 comparison to the days on which the tests of the other lengths of tubes were performed.
353 As shown in Figure S5, the concentrations of formic acid and isocyanic acid were
354 evidently enhanced and significantly varied during the 400 m tubing test. In contrast,
355 ambient concentrations of formic and isocyanic acid were relatively low and slightly
356 varied, resulting in the exceedingly large or low values of k and R^2 between the
357 concentrations of formic acid measured with and without the 200 m long tubing.
358 However, according to the results of the test, the average concentration difference of
359 formic and isocyanic acid measured with and without the 200 m tubing agreed well
360 within 4%, suggesting that the 200 m long tube has minor effects on the measurements
361 of formic and isocyanic acid.

362 In contrast to formic acid, the usage of long tubes had minor impacts on the
363 measurements of isocyanic acid. The mixing ratios of isocyanic acid measured with and
364 without the 400 m long tube varied consistently ($k=0.86$, $R^2=0.90$) with mean values of
365 0.25 and 0.26 ppbv, respectively (Figure S4). As shown in Figure 2(b), $\Delta[HNCO]$ is
366 evenly distributed on both sides of the 1:1 line. Therefore, the changes in ambient
367 concentrations of isocyanic acid do not have significant impacts on the measurements
368 of isocyanic acid through the long tubes. As also shown in Figure 3(b), $\delta[HNCO]$ and
369 $\Delta[HNCO]$ of isocyanic acid were independent of the changes in isocyanic acid mixing
370 ratios. The R^2 values of linear fittings were less than 0.21 for the isocyanic acid
371 measurements made using different lengths of tubes. This is consistent with the results
372 reported in the literature (*Helmig et al., 2008a; Helmig et al., 2008b; Li et al., 2023*)
373 that inorganic species with low reactivities can be well measured using long PFA Teflon
374 tubes. The test results confirmed that the measurements of formic acid and isocyanic
375 acid through long tubes can be used to characterize their vertical and temporal

376 variability. However, a further correction of the formic acid measurements made
377 through the long tubes must be performed if they were used to accurately calculate the
378 kinetic parameters of chemical reactions regarding the formation and removal of formic
379 acid at different heights.

380 **3.2. Vertical variations and sources of formic acid**

381 Time series of formic acid and ozone mixing ratios at 5 and 320 m are shown in
382 Figure 4. The concentrations of formic acid and ozone exhibited similar diurnal and
383 inter-diurnal variations at different altitudes during the campaign. Hourly mean mixing
384 ratios of ozone exhibited strong temporal variations with an average of 43.5 ± 25.3 ppbv
385 at 5 m and an average of 53.5 ± 25.0 ppbv at 320 m. Hourly mean mixing ratios of formic
386 acid at 5 m ranged between 0.1-6.6 ppbv with an average of 1.3 ± 1.3 ppbv at 5 m, which
387 is comparable to those observed in other megacities, such as Shenzhen (1.2 ppbv) in
388 China (*Zhu et al., 2019*), London (1.3 ppbv) in UK (*Bannan et al., 2017*), and Los
389 Angeles (2.0 ppbv) in USA (*Yuan et al., 2015*). By contrast, hourly mean mixing ratios
390 of formic acid at 320 m had an average of 2.1 ± 1.9 ppbv, approximately 1.6 times higher
391 than that at 5 m. The temporal variability of formic and isocyanic acids were mainly
392 caused by the diurnal and inter-diurnal changes in meteorological conditions (e.g., solar
393 radiation and PBLH).

394 Before July 12th, the daily maximum hourly mixing ratios of ozone at 5 m all
395 exceeded 100 ppbv, indicating the enhanced formation of secondary air pollutants
396 associated with photochemical reactions. The mixing ratios of formic acid measured
397 before July 12th were also prominently larger than those measured after, suggesting
398 important contributions from photochemical formations. The photochemical formation
399 of secondary pollutants was weak from July 13th to 30th due to the cloudy and rainy
400 weather. After August 1st, low mixing ratios of ozone and formic acids were observed
401 along with the occurrence of favorable dilution conditions characterized by high PBLHs.

402 As shown in Figure 5, the mixing ratios of formic acid measured at the five
403 altitudes (namely 5, 47, 102, 200, and 320 m) exhibited similar diurnal patterns. After

404 sunrise (~6:00 LT), formic acid mixing ratios increased rapidly at each altitude before
405 reaching the peak between 14:00-16:00 LT and then continuously declined before
406 sunrise the following day. Similar diurnal variation patterns of formic acid were also
407 observed at other urban sites (*Veres et al., 2011*), rural sites (*Hu et al., 2022*), and remote
408 sites (*Schobesberger et al., 2016*). The diurnal variation patterns of formic acid were
409 highly similar to those of ozone (a typical secondary pollutant) but were different from
410 those of VOCs from primary emissions. Taking toluene as an example, toluene is a
411 typical VOC tracer of anthropogenic emission sources in urban regions, such as
412 industrial processes and vehicular exhausts (*Fang et al., 2016; Skorokhod et al., 2017*),
413 and is also an important precursor of ozone (*Yuan et al., 2012*). The mixing ratios of
414 toluene exhibited opposite diurnal variation patterns to those of ozone and formic acids
415 with the minima occurring at around 14:00 LT. The lower mixing ratios of toluene in
416 daytime than in nighttime were predominantly caused by the enhancement of
417 atmospheric dilution and chemical removal by OH radicals (*De Gouw et al., 2018*). The
418 mixing ratios of formic acid poorly correlated (R^2 ranged between 0.16-0.28) with those
419 of CO (a typical tracer of combustion sources) at the five altitudes but well correlated
420 (R^2 ranged between 0.67-0.75) with those of O_x (O₃+NO₂, a conserved metric of ozone
421 by removing NO titration effect), as shown in Figure 6. These results further confirm
422 that ambient concentrations of formic acid in urban Beijing were dominantly
423 contributed by secondary sources associated with photochemical reactions rather than
424 primary emissions.

425 Another observed evidence for the dominant contribution of formic acid from
426 secondary formations is its positive vertical gradients in nighttime (defined as the
427 period of 22:00-5:00 LT), as shown in Figure 7. Large amounts of formic acid will
428 accumulate near the surface with strong negative vertical gradients if primary emissions
429 dominate its contributions, as manifested by vertical toluene profiles. At nighttime, the
430 mixing ratios of ozone also increased with height due to enhanced removal by NO
431 titration and surface dry deposition. The deposition of formic acid was also enhanced

432 near the surface, driving the formation of positive gradients in vertical formic acid
433 profiles.

434 A notable difference existed between the diurnal variation patterns of ozone and
435 formic acid above the ground. As shown in Figure 5, the mean mixing ratios of ozone
436 at 5 m rapidly increased from 21.5 ppbv to 36.0 ppbv from 6:00 to 10:00 LT, while the
437 mean mixing ratios of ozone at 320 m slightly increased from 16.3 ppbv to 16.9 ppbv
438 during the same period. The enhancement rate is defined as the average change rate of
439 the species concentration between two adjacent hours. As shown in Figure 8, the
440 enhancement rates of ozone mixing ratios between 6:00 and 10:00 LT decreased with
441 the increase in height. This phenomenon indicates relatively weak photochemical ozone
442 formation in urban regions aloft before 10:00 LT due to the lack of reactive ozone
443 precursors (e.g., unsaturated hydrocarbons and NO_x). With the enhancement of the
444 vertical exchange of air masses with the rise of the boundary layer, large amounts of
445 ozone precursors (e.g., the observed peaks of toluene mixing ratios at 320 m at 10:00
446 LT) emitted from surface sources were transported upward and drove the formation of
447 ozone in high altitudes. In contrast to ozone, the mixing ratios of formic acid at the five
448 altitudes all increased rapidly between 6:00 and 10:00 LT. The enhancement rate of
449 formic acid mixing ratios between 6:00 and 10:00 LT kept nearly constant below 320
450 m (Figure 8). This result implies that the oxidation products of VOCs over nighttime or
451 in the daytime before are important precursors of formic acid and can drive the rapid
452 formation of formic acid with further photooxidation. This speculation can be supported
453 by the vertical and diurnal variations of methyl vinyl ketone (MVK), methacrolein
454 (MACR), and formaldehyde, which are reported key precursors of formic acid as shown
455 in Figure 5(d) and 5(e). The diurnal variation patterns of MVK+MACR and
456 formaldehyde at the five latitudes were nearly the same with the enhancements in
457 daytime. In addition, concentrations of MVK+MACR and formaldehyde all increased
458 with height in nighttime and early morning periods, facilitating the photochemical
459 formation of formic acid even in the residual layer.

460 As a reactive hydrocarbon species, the mixing ratios of toluene rapidly decreased
461 with height in daytime (defined as the period of 11:00-16:00 LT, as shown in Figure 7)
462 due to the combined effects of atmospheric dilution and OH-initiated chemical removal.
463 By contrast, the mixing ratios of ozone and formic acid increased with height. The
464 mixing ratios of ozone and formic acid all rapidly increased with height below 102 m,
465 predominantly attributed to the reduced effect of surface dry deposition with the
466 increase in height. The mean mixing ratios of formic acid increased by 18% from 102
467 m to 320 m in daytime, while ozone mixing ratios were well mixed above 102 m. Our
468 results point to the likely importance of photochemistry as a source of formic acid that
469 is enhanced with increasing height within the boundary layer.

470 The precursors and formation mechanisms of atmospheric formic acid have been
471 extensively investigated in previous studies but still remain uncertain. Isoprene has long
472 been recognized as an important precursor of formic acid through reactions with O₃ and
473 OH radicals (*Neeb et al., 1997; Paulot et al., 2009*). Recent studies also found that the
474 degradation of organic aerosols (OA) derived from isoprene is an important source of
475 formic acid (*Cope et al., 2021; Bates et al., 2023*). In addition, the photooxidation of
476 other biogenic and anthropogenic hydrocarbons is also a key source of formic acid
477 (*Paulot et al., 2011; Millet et al., 2015; Link et al., 2021*). Figure 9 illustrates the mean
478 vertical profiles of several key precursors of formic acid in daytime. The concentrations
479 of isoprene and toluene (Figure 7) all decreased rapidly with height. By contrast, MVK
480 and MACR, the primary oxidation products of isoprene (*Grosjean et al., 1993*),
481 exhibited weak vertical gradients. Formaldehyde, a more general photooxidation
482 product of VOCs, exhibited similar vertical distribution patterns to those of ozone.
483 Large amounts of OVOCs were produced and accumulated in higher altitudes through
484 the oxidation of hydrocarbons and the further oxidation of some OVOCs during their
485 upward mixing course. MVK, MACR, and formaldehyde are also key precursors of
486 formic acid. MVK and MACR can react with O₃ to produce formic acid (*Link et al.,*
487 *2020*). Formaldehyde can be converted to methanediol in cloud droplets and then be

488 rapidly oxidized by OH to produce formic acid (*Franco et al., 2021*). In addition, enol
489 (*Lei et al., 2020*) and many other OVOCs (such as glycolaldehyde (*Butkovskaya et al.,*
490 *2006a*) and hydroxyacetone (*Butkovskaya et al., 2006b*) can be further oxidized to
491 produce formic acid. Therefore, high concentrations of OVOCs aloft may be the
492 dominant factor that largely enhances the photochemical formation of formic acid in
493 urban regions.

494 As discussed above, formic acid exhibited strong positive vertical gradients
495 throughout the day, implying that the concentrations of formic acid measured at ground
496 level were not capable of accurately characterizing its abundance and temporal
497 variability in the whole boundary layer. Besides, the formic acid formed in daytime and
498 retained in the nocturnal residual layer also has vital impacts on the budget of formic
499 acid in the boundary layer. Thus, we used the column-integrated concentration (CIC)
500 of formic acid (the sum of the abundance in both the nocturnal residual layer and the
501 boundary layer, see detailed definitions in SI) to further clarify the diurnal variability
502 in the abundance of formic acid in the boundary layer.

503 As shown in Figure 10, the CICs of formic acid had a flatter diurnal pattern in
504 comparison to those at ground level. The CICs of formic acid had approximately stable
505 values overnight and reached a maximum at 16:00 LT. The ratio of the maximum and
506 minimum of CIC for formic acid was only 1.3, while it was 4.2 for the concentrations
507 of formic acid at 5 m. The ground-level measurements were more affected by
508 depositional losses, while such depositional losses in the residual layer were nearly
509 absent. However, the chemical species retained in the residual layer were closely related
510 to their budgets in the daytime boundary layer. If the removal rates of formic acid from
511 ground-level measurements were used to characterize those at high altitudes (e.g., in
512 the residual layer), the removal of formic acid in the entire boundary layer would be
513 overestimated. As the result, numerical models cannot accurately reproduce the
514 abundances and budgets of formic acid without the constraints of vertical observations
515 and the clarification of formic acid formation mechanisms.

516 3.3. Vertical variations and sources of isocyanic acid

517 The mixing ratios of isocyanic acid also exhibited strong temporal variations
518 during the campaign with a mean of 0.28 ± 0.16 ppbv at 5 m and a mean of 0.43 ± 0.21
519 ppbv at 320 m, as shown in Figure 11. The mixing ratios of isocyanic acid measured at
520 the ground level in urban Beijing were approximately 10 times higher than those
521 measured in Los Angeles, USA (0.025 ppbv) (Roberts *et al.*, 2014) and Calgary, Canada
522 (0.036 ppbv) (Woodward-Massey *et al.*, 2014) but were lower than those measured in
523 other regions in China. For example, the mean mixing ratio of isocyanic acid was 0.37
524 ppbv at a rural site (Gucheng) in the North China Plain (NCP), and 0.46 ppbv in urban
525 Guangzhou in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) region (Wang *et al.*, 2020). Isocyanic acid
526 will pose a threat to human health when its ambient mixing ratios exceed 1.0 ppbv. In
527 this study, isocyanic acid mixing ratios greater than 1.0 ppbv were not observed at
528 ground level but were observed at 320 m on three days. The maximum hourly mixing
529 ratios of isocyanic acid at 320 m reached 1.63 ppbv at 16:00 LT on July 8th.

530 The mixing ratios of isocyanic acid at the five altitudes exhibited similar diurnal
531 variation patterns. After sunrise, the mixing ratios of isocyanic acid at the five altitudes
532 all simultaneously increased and peaked at about 14:00 LT. Then, isocyanic acid mixing
533 ratios decreased slowly and reached the minimum before sunrise the following day.
534 This diurnal variation pattern of isocyanic acid measured at the ground level in urban
535 Beijing was not consistent with those measured at the Gucheng site in NCP (Wang *et al.*
536 *et al.*, 2020). The isocyanic acid mixing ratios at the Gucheng site exhibited insignificant
537 diurnal variability throughout the day with only a weak morning peak, predominantly
538 attributed to the enhancement of primary emissions. However, the diurnal variation
539 patterns of isocyanic acid measured at the five altitudes were well correlated with the
540 change in solar irradiance and were consistent with those measured at the two sites in
541 PRD. These results imply that ambient concentrations of isocyanic acid in urban Beijing
542 were mainly contributed by secondary sources associated with photochemical reactions.

543 Similar to formic acid, the simultaneous increase of isocyanic acid mixing ratios

544 at the five altitudes with the onset of sunlight also indicates the presence of adequate
545 precursors even in the nocturnal residual layer. In addition, the diurnal variability of
546 isocyanic acid mixing ratios measured below 200 m was much weaker than those
547 measured at 320 m. For example, the ratio of the daily maximum to the daily minimum
548 mixing ratios of isocyanic acid was 1.9 at 320 m, while the ratio was only 1.4 at 5 m.
549 The mean enhancement rate of isocyanic acid mixing ratios at 320 m (0.05 ppbv h^{-1})
550 between 6:00 and 10:00 LT was approximately five times larger than that at 5 m (0.01
551 ppbv h^{-1}). The vertical gradients of isocyanic acid between 102 and 320 m were also
552 larger than those below (Figure 12). The rapid increase in both concentrations and
553 enhancement rates of isocyanic acid with height (Figures 8 and 12) implies the
554 enhanced photochemical formation of isocyanic acid in the middle and upper part of
555 the boundary layer.

556 Secondary formation precursors of atmospheric isocyanic acid were still poorly
557 understood so far. Amides were considered important precursors of isocyanic acid
558 (*Roberts et al., 2014; Rosanka et al., 2020*). As reported in our previous study (*Wang*
559 *et al., 2020*), C_3 amides accounted for the largest fraction of the total concentrations of
560 amides and were dominant contributors to the secondary formation of isocyanic acid.
561 The mixing ratios of C_3 amides in Guangzhou in PRD exhibited strong diurnal
562 variations. Along with the sunrise, the mixing ratios of C_3 amides rapidly decreased and
563 reached the minimum at 13:00 LT. Afterward, the mixing ratios of C_3 amides started to
564 increase and accumulated at night. As shown in Figure S6, the influence of long tubing
565 on the measurement of amides was limited, so we also measured the amides during the
566 field campaign. However, the mixing ratios of C_3 amides in Beijing and Gucheng in
567 NCP exhibited insignificant diurnal variability, consistent with those of isocyanic acid.
568 The mean mixing ratios of C_3 amides at 5 m in urban Beijing is only 0.03 ppbv during
569 the campaign, which is one order of magnitude lower than those in Guangzhou (0.35
570 ppbv) and Gucheng (0.18 ppbv). The mixing ratios of C_3 amides measured at the five
571 altitudes in urban Beijing were also approximately one order of magnitude lower than

572 those of isocyanic acid (Figure 12). Besides, the mixing ratios of C₃ amides decreased
573 with height in both nighttime and daytime, indicating predominant contributions from
574 primary emissions. This is consistent with the fact that primary emissions of chemical
575 composition from industry-related sources have been largely reduced with the outward
576 migration of industry in urban Beijing. By contrast, the mixing ratios of isocyanic acid
577 increased with height in both day and night with an average of 0.32 ppbv at 5 m and
578 0.60 ppbv at 320 m. These results suggest that C₃ amides were far more enough to
579 account for the secondary formation of isocyanic acid in urban Beijing.

580 Figure 13(a) gives the composition and average concentrations of C₁-C₁₀ amides
581 measured at the five altitudes during the campaign. C₂ amides accounted for the largest
582 fraction of the total mixing ratios of amides. The total mixing ratios of amides exhibited
583 decreasing tendencies with the increase in height, suggesting predominant contributions
584 from direct emissions of surface sources. As for formamide, its mixing ratios exhibited
585 an increasing tendency from 0.024 ppbv at 5 m to 0.030 ppbv at 320 m. The positive
586 vertical gradients of formamide suggest its enhanced formation with height, probably
587 due to the enhancements of formic acid. However, the average concentration ratios of
588 formamide to formic acid slightly varied between 0.01 and 0.02 among the five heights.
589 The average concentration ratios of formamide to isocyanic acid decreased from 0.09
590 at 5 m to 0.07 at 320 m. These results imply that the formation of isocyanic acid through
591 the pathway of HCOOH-CH₃NO-HNCO may be enhanced with the increase in height
592 but could only contribute a tiny fraction of the observed isocyanic acid, as shown in
593 Figure 13(b). Assuming the full conversion of C₁-C₁₀ amides to isocyanic acid, the
594 average concentration ratios of amides (sum of C₁-C₁₀) to isocyanic acid below 320 m
595 only ranged between 0.32 and 0.56 and decreased with height. Therefore, in addition to
596 amides, there must be other important precursors and formation pathways of isocyanic
597 acid, particularly in high altitudes. The simultaneous increase of isocyanic acid
598 concentrations at the five heights upon sunrise (Figure 11) implies the presence of
599 adequate precursors in the nocturnal residual layer. The oxidation products of VOCs

600 driven by ozone and NO_3 radicals in nighttime may be an important class of precursors.
601 In addition, the largest enhancement rates and highest concentrations of isocyanic acid
602 at 320 m in daytime also suggest that high concentrations of OVOCs and low- NO_x
603 conditions may enhance the secondary formation of isocyanic acid.

604 The positive vertical gradients of isocyanic acid imply that the secondary
605 formation of isocyanic acid aloft could serve as an important source of surface isocyanic
606 acid in daytime driven by turbulence mixing. The CICs of isocyanic acid were
607 calculated to further clarify its abundance and temporal variability in the whole
608 boundary layer. Distinct diurnal patterns were observed between the ground-level
609 concentrations and CICs of isocyanic acid. Analogous to formic acid, the CICs of
610 isocyanic acid varied insignificantly over nighttime and enhanced in daytime, reaching
611 the maximum at approximately 14:00 LT. The formation of some chemicals can be
612 largely enhanced at higher altitudes and so using ground-level measurements to
613 constrain numerical models may be not adequate.

614 **4. Conclusion**

615 In this study, vertical and diurnal variations of formic and isocyanic acids in
616 urban Beijing were investigated using tower-based online gradient measurements. The
617 measurements of isocyanic acid can be well measured through long PFA Teflon tubes.
618 The measurements of formic acid made through long tubes were slightly influenced by
619 the memory effect of tubing walls, and the vertical increasing gradients of formic acid
620 may be slightly enhanced if the tubing effects were considered. The concentrations of
621 formic and isocyanic acids all increased with height in both nighttime and daytime. The
622 diurnal and vertical distribution patterns of formic and isocyanic acids all suggest that
623 their abundances in the boundary layer were dominantly contributed by secondary
624 formation associated with photochemical reactions. The photochemical formations of
625 formic and isocyanic acids were also substantially enhanced with the increase in height.
626 The formation pathway of isocyanic acid through $\text{HCOOH-CH}_3\text{NO-HNCO}$ only

627 accounted for a tiny fraction of its ambient abundance. The formic and isocyanic acids
628 photochemically formed in the middle and upper parts of the boundary layer were
629 important sources for those at ground level in urban region. The differences of the
630 diurnal patterns between CICs and ground-level concentrations of formic and isocyanic
631 acids further highlight the importance of vertical observations in elucidating their
632 budgets and sources in the whole boundary layer.

633 Characterization of the vertical variations in formic and isocyanic acids could
634 provide valuable information for elucidating their budgets and sources in the boundary
635 layer. However, there are still many important but unresolved questions associated with
636 the vertical distributions of formic and isocyanic acids. For example, the key precursors
637 that drive the rapid formation of formic and isocyanic acids in the residual layer are still
638 unknown. Are there any changes in the key precursors and formation pathways of
639 formic and isocyanic acids with the increase of height in urban region? To answer these
640 questions, the combination of vertical gradient measurements of more chemical species
641 and numerical simulations is needed in future studies.

642 **Supporting Information:** Additional experimental details, materials, and methods,
643 including schematic illustration of tubing test, determination of the long tubes'
644 cumulative influence, and calculation of CICs.

645 **Data availability**

646 Data related to this article are available online at
647 <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/ANH0WE>.

648 **Author contributions**

649 QY, XBL, BY, and YH designed the research. QY, XBL, BY, XZ, YH, LY, XH,
650 JQ and MS contributed to the data collection and data analysis. QY and XBL wrote the
651 paper with contributions from all coauthors. All the coauthors discussed the results and
652 reviewed the paper.

653 **Competing interests**

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

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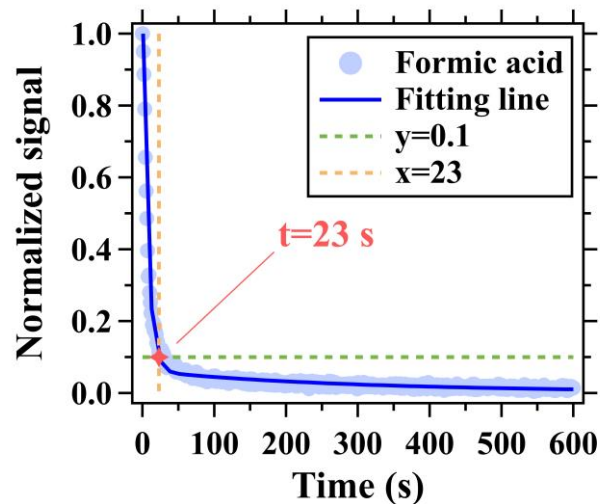
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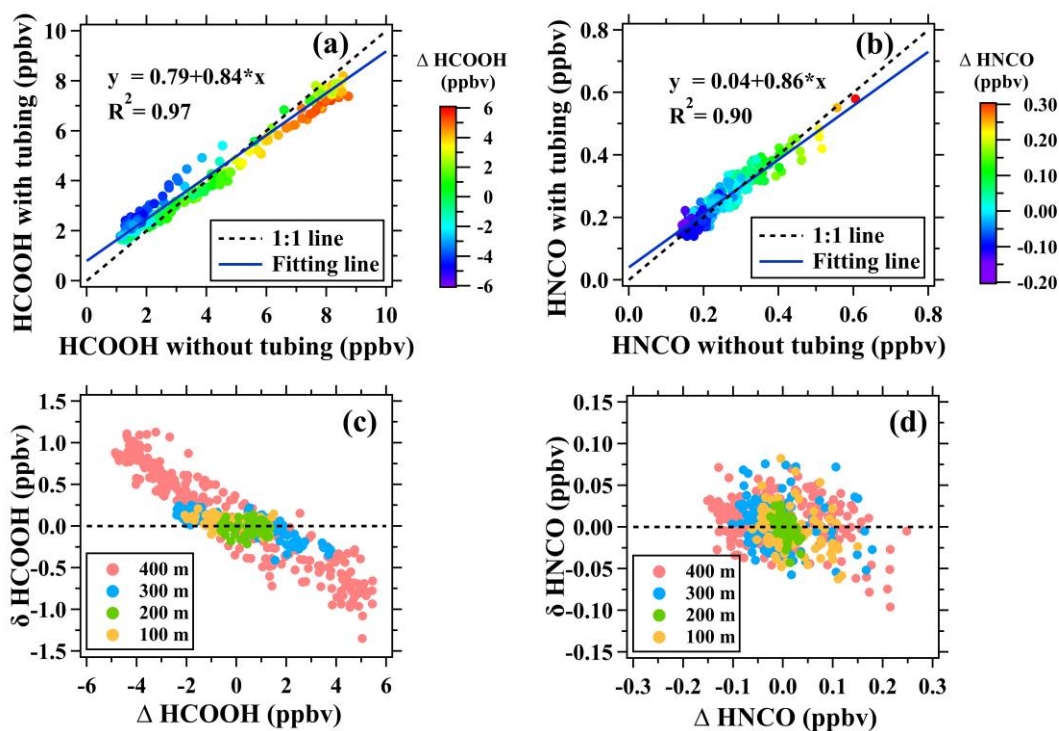
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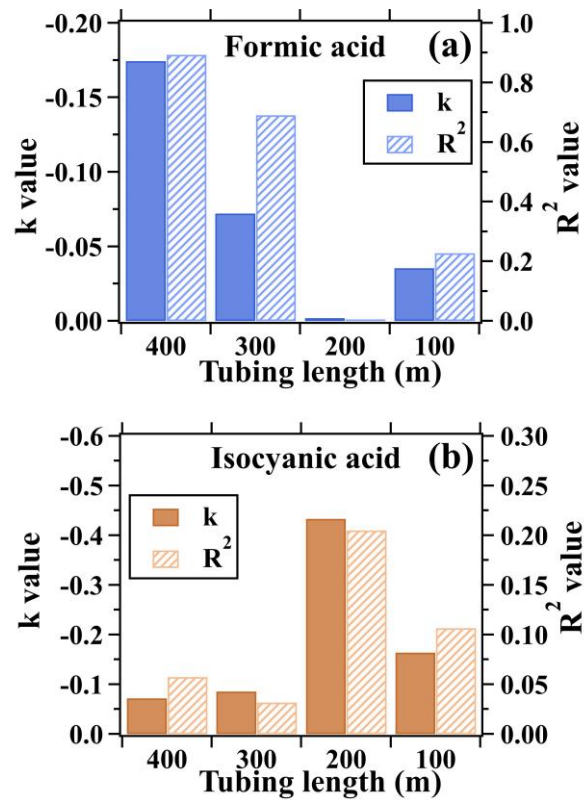
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1043 **Figure 1.** Depassivation curves of formic acid signal measured by I⁻ ToF-CIMS for the
1044 400 m long tubing at the flow rate of 13 SLPM. Ion signals were normalized to those
1045 measured at the start time (0 s) of the step-function change.



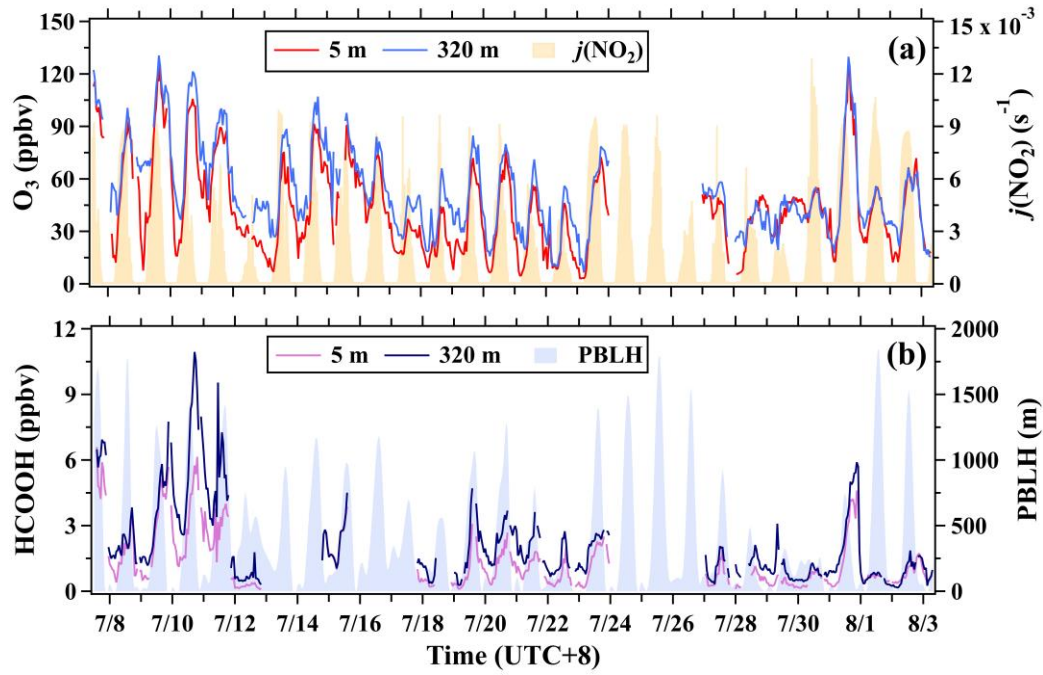
1046

1047 **Figure 2.** Assessment of long tubes in measuring formic and isocyanic acids in ambient
 1048 air. (a-b) Scatterplots of mixing ratios of formic and isocyanic acids measured with the
 1049 400 m long tube versus those measured without the long tube. (c-d) Scatterplots of
 1050 $\Delta[HCOOH]$ versus $\delta[HCOOH]$ and scatterplots of $\Delta[HNCO]$ versus $\delta[HNCO]$ for
 1051 the 100, 200, 300, and 400 m tubes.



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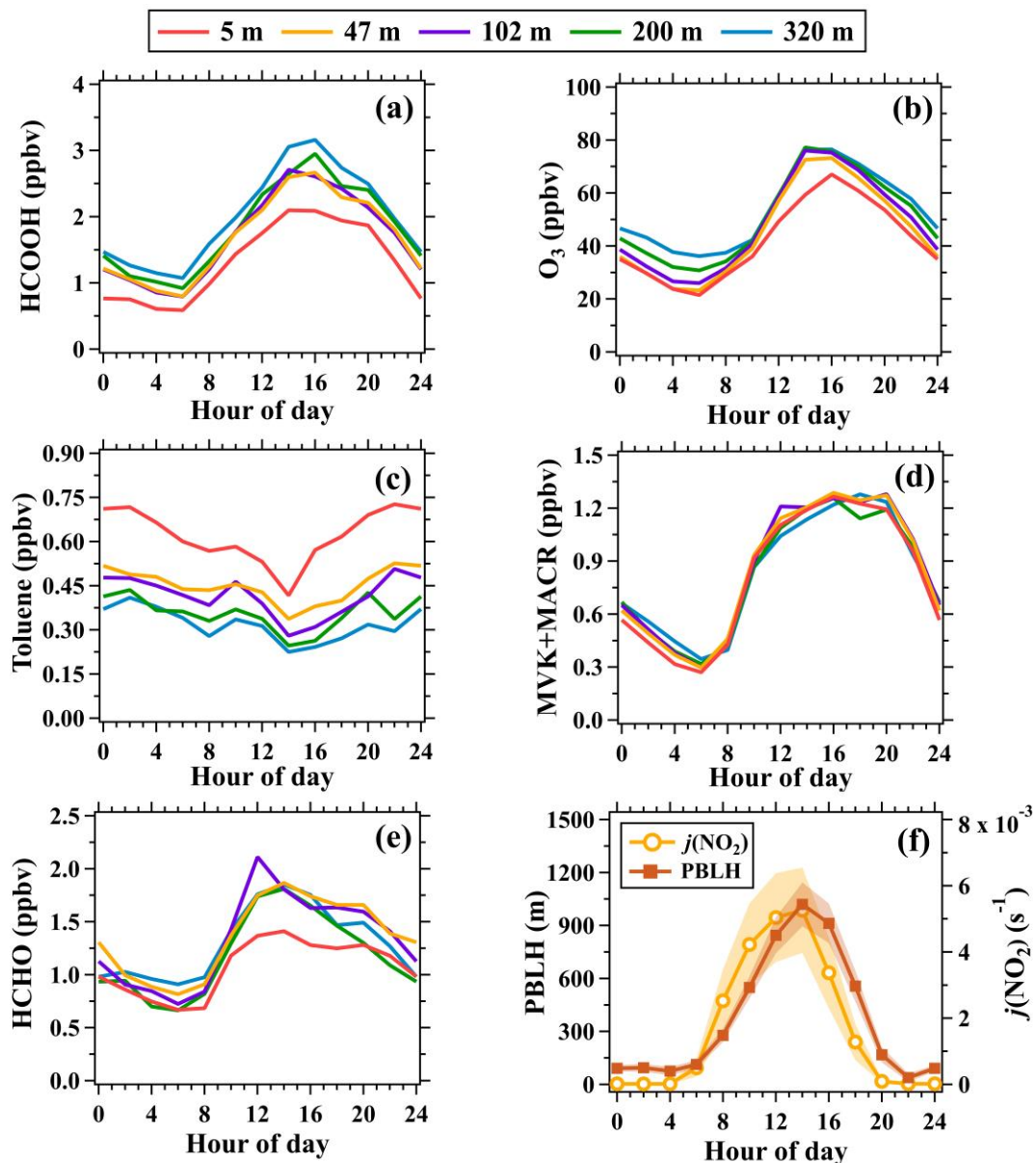
1053 **Figure 3.** Linear fitting parameters (namely k and R^2) for (a) $\Delta[HCOOH]$ versus
 1054 $\delta[HCOOH]$ and (b) $\Delta[HNCO]$ versus $\delta[HNCO]$. The scatterplots are shown in
 1055 Figure 2. k and R^2 are the slope and determination coefficient of the linear fitting lines,
 1056 respectively.



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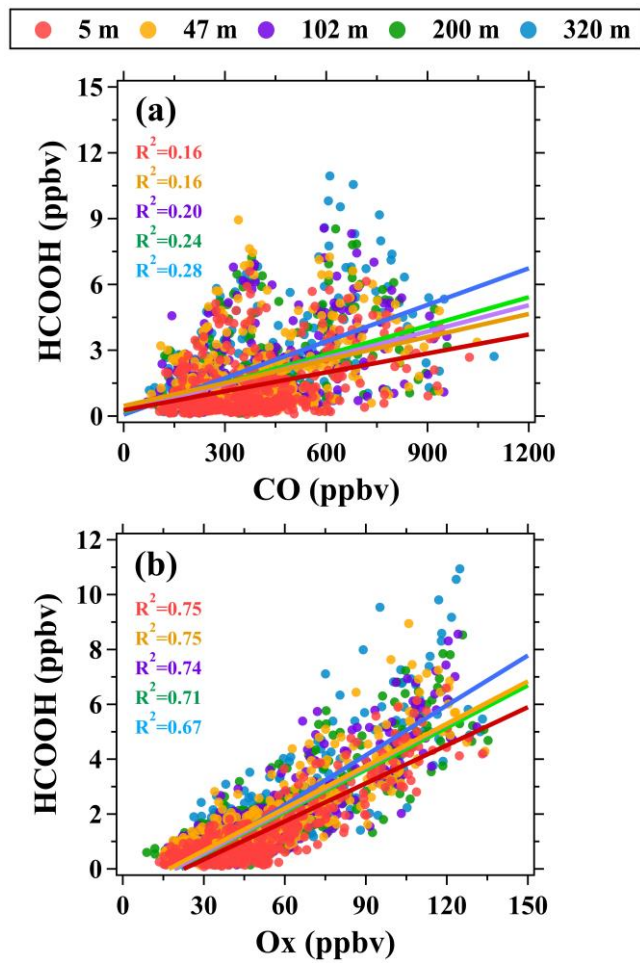
1058 **Figure 4.** Time series of (a) O₃ (5 and 320 m), $j(\text{NO}_2)$, (b) formic acid (5 and 320 m),

1059 and planetary boundary layer height (PBLH) during the campaign.



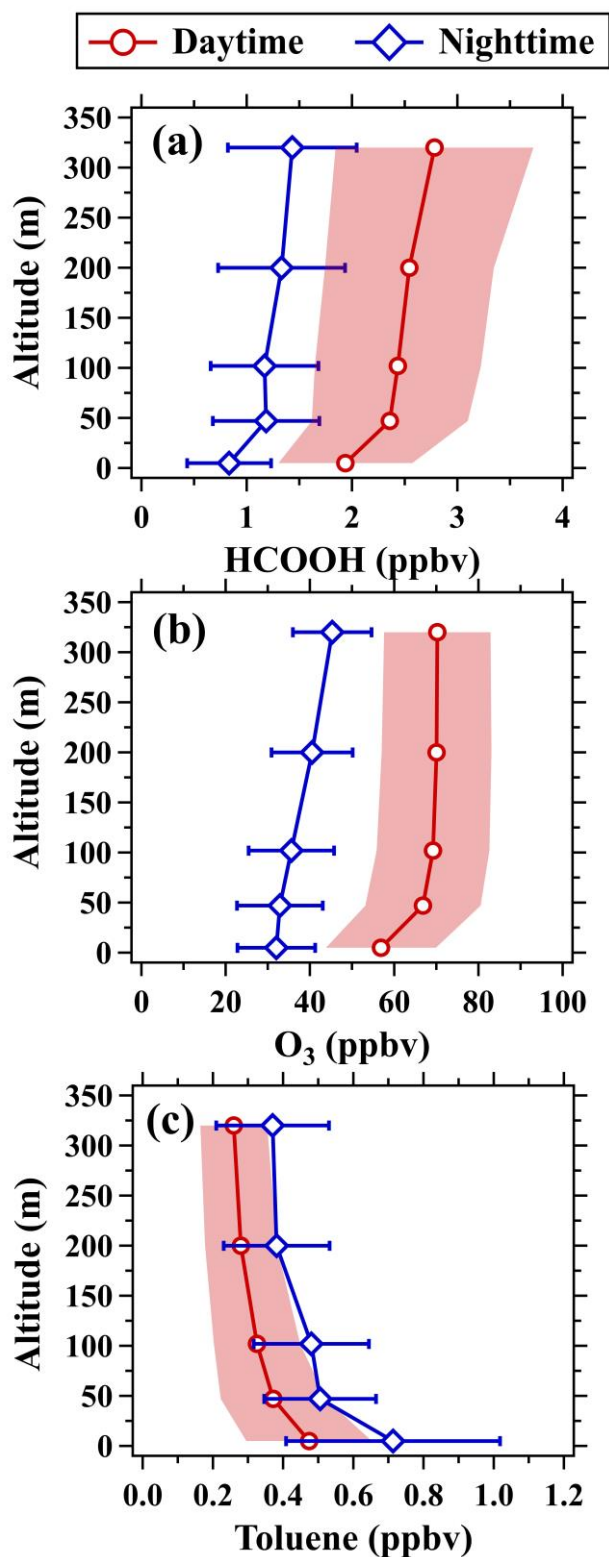
1060

1061 **Figure 5.** Average diurnal variations in mixing ratios of (a) formic acid, (b) O₃, (c)
 1062 toluene, (d) MVK+MACR, (e) formaldehyde at the five inlet heights and (f) PBLH and
 1063 $j(\text{NO}_2)$. The shaded areas in panel (f) are half of the standard deviations.



1064

1065 **Figure 6.** Scatter plots of (a) formic acid versus CO and (b) formic acid versus Ox at
 1066 different altitudes during the campaign.

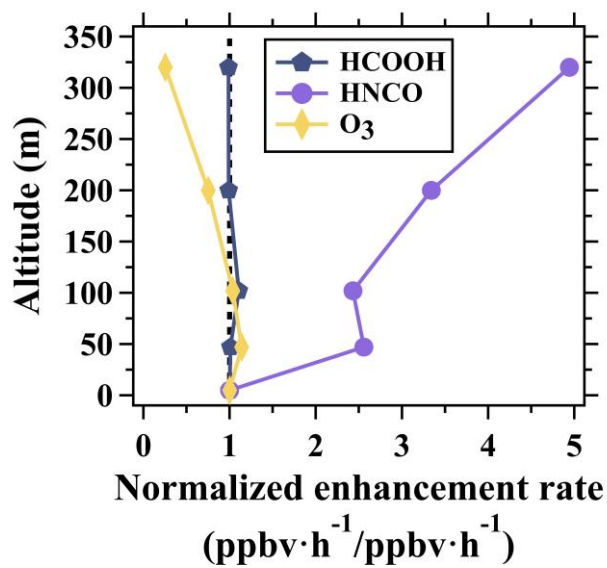


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1068 **Figure 7.** Vertical profiles of (a) formic acid, (b) O₃, and (c) toluene in daytime (11:00-

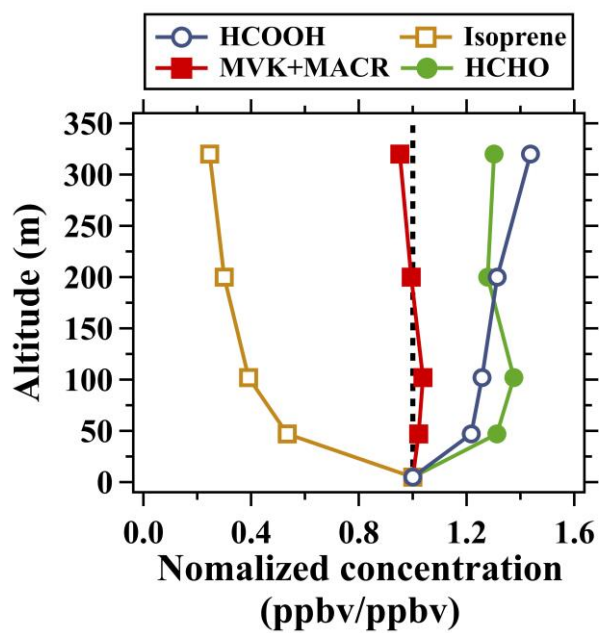
1069 16:00 LT) and nighttime (22:00-5:00 LT). The shaded areas and error bars are half of

1070 the standard deviations.



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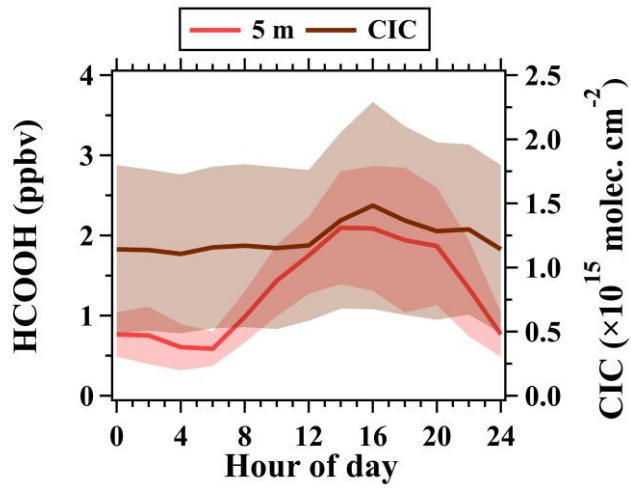
1072 **Figure 8.** Normalized vertical profiles of the enhancement rate of ozone, formic acid,
 1073 and isocyanic acid between 6:00-10:00 LT averaged over the whole campaign.
 1074 Enhancement rate of the species at different altitudes were normalized to those at 5 m.
 1075 The dotted line indicates the normalized enhancement rate of 1.



1076

1077 **Figure 9.** Normalized vertical profiles of formic acid, isoprene, formaldehyde, MVK
 1078 and MACR in daytime (11:00-16:00 LT) averaged over the whole campaign. Mixing
 1079 ratios of the species at different altitudes were normalized to those at 5 m. The dotted
 1080 line indicates the normalized concentration of 1.

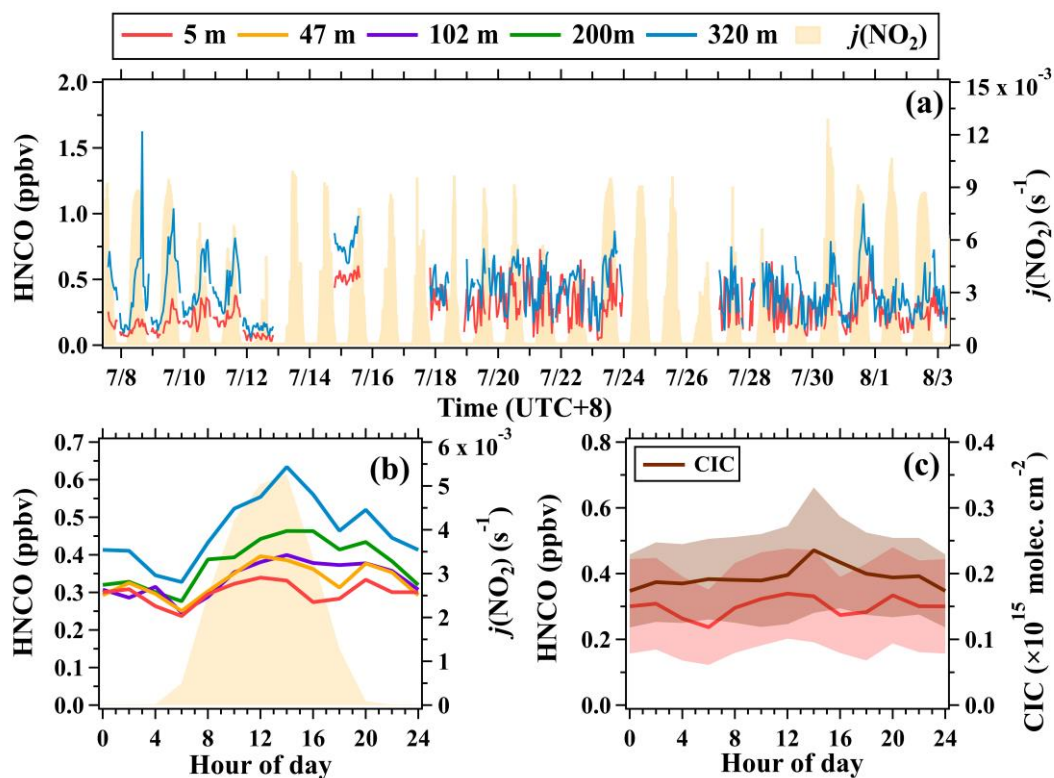
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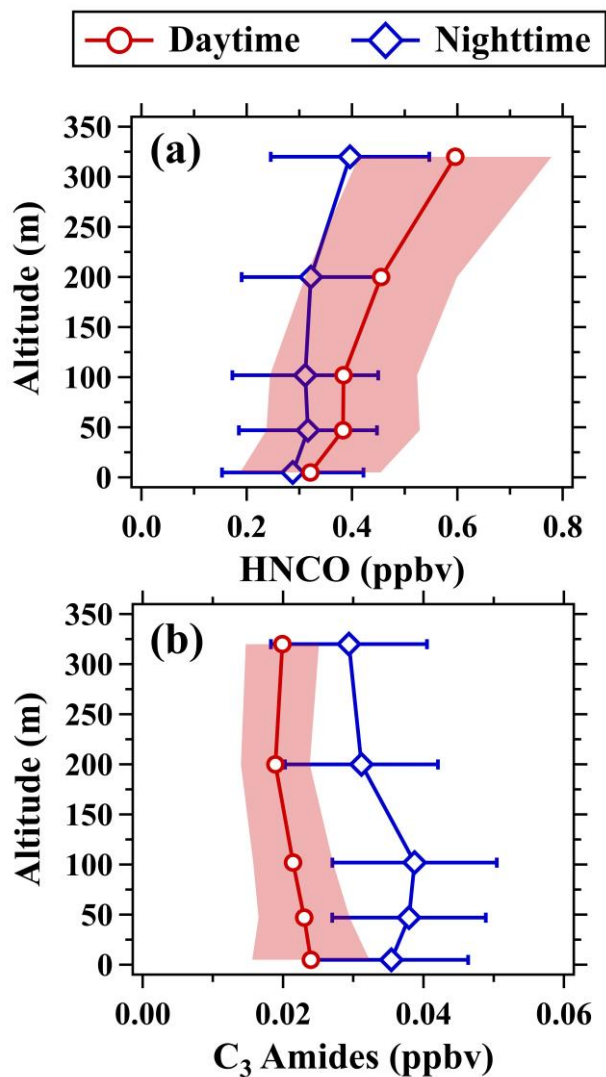
1083 **Figure 10.** Average diurnal variations in mixing ratios (5 m) and CICs of formic acid

1084 during the field campaign; The shaded areas are half of the standard deviations.



1085

1086 **Figure 11.** (a) Time series of isocyanic acid (5 and 320 m) and $j(\text{NO}_2)$. (b) Average
 1087 diurnal variations in isocyanic acid at 5, 47, 102, 200, and 320 m. (c) Average diurnal
 1088 variations in mixing ratios (5 m) and CICs of isocyanic acid during the campaign; The
 1089 shaded areas in panel (c) are half of the standard deviations.



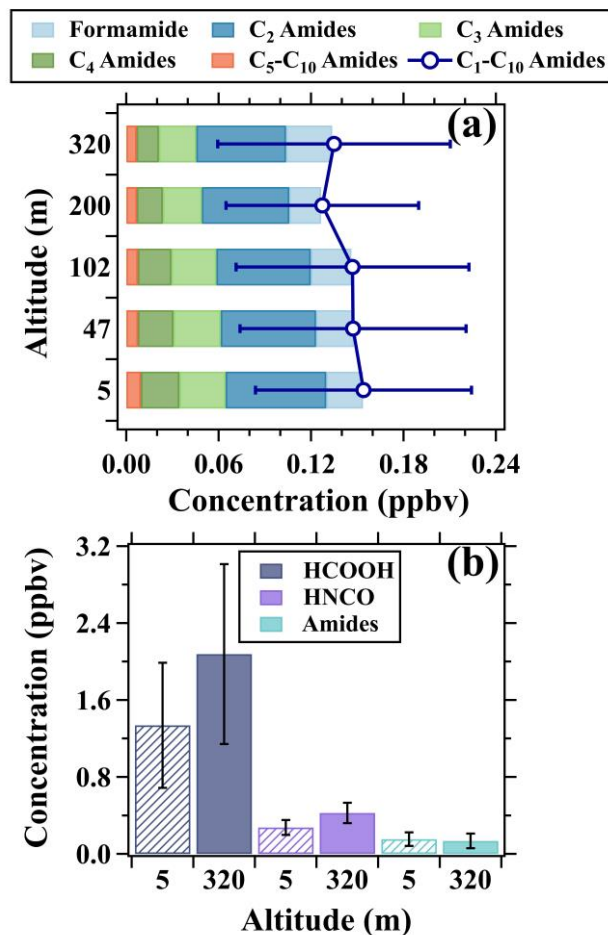
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1091 **Figure 12.** Vertical profiles of (a) isocyanic acid and (b) C₃ amides in daytime (11:00-

1092 16:00 LT) and nighttime (22:00-5:00 LT). The shaded areas and error bars are half of

1093 the standard deviations.

1094



1095

1096 **Figure 13.** (a) Vertical variations in composition and concentrations of amides. (b)
 1097 Concentration comparison of formic acid, isocyanic acid, and amides between 5 and
 1098 320 m. The data in both (a) and (b) was the average results of the whole campaign. The
 1099 patterns of the bars are used to distinguish the average concentration of the species at
 1100 the two heights.