# Isotopic Constraints on the Atmospheric Sources and Formation of Nitrogenous Species in Biomass-Burning-Influenced Clouds

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#### Abstract

Predicting tropospheric cloud formation and subsequent nutrient deposition relies on understanding the sources and processes affecting aerosol constituents of the atmosphere that are 25 preserved in cloudwater. However, this challenge is difficult to address quantitatively based on the sole use of bulk chemical properties. Nitrogenous aerosols, mainly ammonium (NH4<sup>+</sup>) and nitrate  $(NO_3)$ , play a particularly important role in tropospheric cloud formation. While dry and wet (mainly rainfall) deposition of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  are regularly assessed, cloudwater deposition is often underappreciated. Here we collected cloudwater samples at the summit of Mt. Tai (1545 m 30 above sea level) in Eastern China during a long-lasting biomass burning (BB) event, and simultaneously measured for the first time the isotopic compositions (mean  $\pm 1\sigma$ ) of cloudwater nitrogen species ( $\delta^{15}$ N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> = -6.53 ± 4.96‰,  $\delta^{15}$ N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> = -2.35 ± 2.00‰,  $\delta^{18}$ O-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> = 57.80 ± 4.23‰), allowing insights into their sources and potential transformation mechanism within the clouds. Large contributions of BB to the cloudwater NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (32.9  $\pm$  4.6%) and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (28.2  $\pm$  2.7%) 35 inventories were confirmed through a Bayesian isotopic mixing model, coupled with our newlydeveloped computational quantum chemistry module. Despite an overall reduction in total anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission due to effective emission control actions and stricter emission standards for vehicles, the observed cloud  $\delta^{15}$ N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> values suggest that NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from transportation may have exceeded emissions from coal combustion.  $\delta^{18}$ O-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> values imply that 40 the reaction of OH with NO<sub>2</sub> is the dominant pathway of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation (57  $\pm$  11%), yet the contribution of heterogeneous hydrolysis of dinitrogen pentoxide was almost as important (43  $\pm$ 11%). Although the limited sample set used here results in a relatively large uncertainty with regards to the origin of cloud-associated nitrogen deposition, the high concentrations of inorganic nitrogen imply that clouds represent an important source of nitrogen, especially for nitrogen-45

limited ecosystems in remote areas. Further simultaneous and long-term sampling of aerosol, rainfall, and cloudwater is vital for understanding the anthropogenic influence on nitrogen deposition in the study region.

### **1** Introduction

Nitrogenous aerosols, mainly nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), formed from the emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub> = NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>), are major chemical components of aerosols, which serve as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN) and thus play an important role during cloud formation in the troposphere (Gioda et al., 2011; van Pinxteren et al., 2016). Cloudwater-containing nitrogenous compounds also represent a vital contributor to nitrogen (N) budgets of terrestrial (Li et al., 2016b; Liu et al., 2013; Weathers and Likens, 1997; Vega et al., 2019) and marine ecosystems (Kim et al., 2014; Okin et al., 2011). However, the sources and formation processes of cloudwater N species are only poorly understood.

NO<sub>x</sub> can be emitted from both anthropogenic and natural sources. Globally, over 50% of the NO<sub>x</sub> emissions derive from combustion of fossil fuel (~ 25 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>; Jaegle et al., 2005;
Richter et al., 2005; Duncan et al., 2016), with the remainder being primarily soil-related emissions (~ 9 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>; Lamsal et al., 2011; Price et al., 1997; Yienger et al., 1995; Miyazaki et al., 2017), or deriving from biomass burning (~ 6 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>), and lightning (2-6 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Anenberg et al., 2017; Levy et al., 1996). The atmospheric sinks of NO<sub>x</sub> include the production of HNO<sub>3(g)</sub> and the formation of aerosol NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2012), the partitioning of which can vary with time (Morino et al., 2006). As for NH<sub>3</sub>, over 90% of the NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in terrestrial ecosystems originate from agricultural production, such as livestock breeding and NH<sub>3</sub>-based fertilizer application (Paulot et al., 2014; Kang et al., 2016; Reis et al., 2009; Bouwman et al., 1997; Heald et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2018; Balasubramanian et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2011). In the urban

atmosphere, recent studies suggest that non-agricultural activities like wastewater discharge

- (Zhang et al., 2017), coal burning (Li et al., 2016a), solid waste (Reche et al., 2012), on-road traffic (Suarez-Bertoa et al., 2014), and green space (Teng et al., 2017) also contribute to NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. In reactions with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub> contributes to the formation of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> salts, which typically make up from 20 to 80% of fine particle (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) in the atmosphere (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2012).
- Biomass burning (BB) is an important source of N in the atmosphere (Lobert et al., 1990;
  Souri et al., 2017). During the harvest/hot season of eastern China, agricultural BB frequently occurs and modifies the concentration and composition of aerosols in the atmosphere (Chen et al., 2017; Zhang and Cao, 2015). For example, about 50% of the N derived from biomass combustion can be released as NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> to form particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, which then account for over
  80% of total nitrogenous species in BB smoke particles (Crutzen and Andreae, 1990). BB-induced aerosols have not only been associated with poor air quality and the detrimental effects on human health, they have also shown to exert manifold effects on tropospheric clouds, altering regional or even global radiation budgets (Chen et al., 2014; Norris et al., 2016; Voigt and Shaw, 2015).
- The optical and chemical properties of clouds (and thus their radiative forcing) are directly related to the aerosol and precipitation chemistry (Seinfeld et al., 2016). Moreover, clouds represent reactors of multiphase chemistry, contributing to many chemical transformations that would otherwise not take place, or would proceed at much slower rates (Herrmann et al., 2015; Lance et al., 2017; Ravishankara, 1997; Schurman et al., 2018; Slade et al., 2017). Understanding the sources and fate of nitrogenous species in BB-influenced clouds is particularly important to comprehensively assess the environmental impacts of BB. But this challenge is difficult to address based on the sole use of bulk chemical properties (as most often done in previous studies).

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Given that the <sup>15</sup>N can be preserved between the sources and sinks of NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub>, the N isotopic composition of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $\delta^{15}$ N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> ( $\delta^{15}$ N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) can be related to different sources of NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub>, and thus delivers useful information regarding the partitioning of the origins of atmospheric/cloudwater NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub>, respectively (Hastings et al., 2013; Michalski et al., 2005; Morin et al., 2008; Chang et al., 2018). This is different for the O isotopes. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> production involves the oxidation of NO. The first step in the overall process is the conversion of NO into NO<sub>2</sub>, e.g., through the oxidation by either ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) or peroxy radicals (Michalski et al., 2011). Significant <sup>18</sup>O enrichments and excess <sup>17</sup>O (i.e., clear evidence for mass independent fractionation) are observed in atmospheric NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> collected across the globe (e.g., Michalski et al., 2005; Hastings et al., 2003). Such diagnostic isotope signatures, as well as their variability in space and time have been linked to the extent of O<sub>3</sub> oxidation (Michalski et al., 2011). Put another way, the oxygen isotope composition of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $\delta^{18}$ O-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) is largely determined by chemical reactions rather than the source, and it it is primarily modulated by the O-atom exchange (Michalski et al., 2011).in the atmosphere Therefore,  $\delta^{18}$ O-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> has the potential to indicate the relative importance

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of various  $NO_3^-$  formation pathways (i.e., oxidation pathways during conversion of nitrogen oxides to  $NO_3$ ) (Alexander et al., 2009; Elliott et al., 2009).

The O isotope fractionation during the conversion of NO<sub>x</sub> to HNO<sub>3</sub>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  $(\epsilon_{O_{(NO_x \leftrightarrow HNO_3)}} / \epsilon_{O_{(NO_x \leftrightarrow NO_3)}})$  involves two oxidation pathways (Hastings et al., 2003)

where  $\gamma/(1-\gamma)$  represents the contribution ratio of the isotope fractionation associated with the formation of HNO<sub>3</sub>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> through the "OH+NO<sub>2</sub>" pathway ( $\epsilon_{O(NO_x \leftrightarrow NO_3^-)_{OH}}$ ) and the hydrolysis of dinitrogen pentoxide (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) ( ${}^{\epsilon_{O}}(NO_x \leftrightarrow NO_3^-)_{H_2O}$ ), respectively. The  $\delta^{18}O$  value of HNO<sub>3</sub> produced by the former process reflects the O atom partitioning of 2/3 O<sub>3</sub> and 1/3 OH:

$$\epsilon_{O_{(NO_{x}\leftrightarrow NO_{3})_{OH}}} = \epsilon_{O_{(NO_{x}\leftrightarrow HNO_{3})_{OH}}} = \frac{2}{3} \epsilon_{O_{(NO_{2}\leftrightarrow HNO_{3})_{OH}}} + \frac{1}{3} \epsilon_{O_{(NO\leftrightarrow HNO_{3})_{OH}}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \left[ \frac{1000 \left( {}^{18} \alpha_{NO_{2}/NO} - 1 \right) \left( 1 - f_{NO_{2}} \right)}{\left( 1 - f_{NO_{2}} \right) + \left( {}^{18} \alpha_{NO_{2}/NO} \times f_{NO_{2}} \right)} + \left( \delta^{18} O - NO_{x} \right) \right] +$$

$$\frac{1}{3} \left[ \left( \delta^{18} O - H_{2} O \right) + 1000 \left( {}^{18} \alpha_{OH/H_{2}O} - 1 \right) \right]$$
(2)

As for the  $\delta^{18}$ O value of HNO<sub>3</sub> formed during hydrolysis of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, 5/6 of the O atoms is derived from O<sub>3</sub> and 1/6 from OH (Hastings et al., 2003):

$$\varepsilon_{O(NO_x \leftrightarrow NO_3^-)_{H_2O}} = \varepsilon_{O(NO_x \leftrightarrow HNO_3)_{H_2O}} = \frac{5}{6} \left( \delta^{18} O - N_2 O_5 \right) + \frac{1}{6} \left( \delta^{18} O - H_2 O \right)$$
(3)

where  $f_{NO_2}$  refers to the fraction of NO<sub>2</sub> in the total NO<sub>x</sub> pool. Values for  $f_{NO_2}$  vary between 0.2 and 0.95 (Walters and Michalski, 2015).  $\delta^{18}$ O-X is the O isotopic composition of X. The range of  $\delta^{18}$ O-H<sub>2</sub>O can be approximated using an estimated tropospheric water vapor  $\delta^{18}$ O range of -25‰-0‰ (Zong et al., 2017). The  $\delta^{18}$ O of NO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> varies between 90‰ and 122‰ (Zong et al., 2017).  $^{18}\alpha_{NO_2/NO}$  and  $^{18}\alpha_{OH/H_2O}$  represent the equilibrium O isotope fractionation factor between NO<sub>2</sub> and NO, and OH and H<sub>2</sub>O, respectively, which is temperature-dependent

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$$1000({}^{m}\alpha_{X/Y}-1) = \frac{A}{T^{4}} \times 10^{10} + \frac{B}{T^{3}} \times 10^{8} + \frac{C}{T^{2}} \times 10^{6} + \frac{D}{T} \times 10^{4}$$
(4)

where A, B, C, and D are experimental constants over the temperature range of 150-450 K. Based on Equations 1-4 and measured values for  $\delta^{18}$ O-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> of cloudwater, a Monte Carlo simulation was

performed to generate 10000 feasible solutions. The error between predicted and measured  $\delta^{18}$ O was less than 0.5‰.

At the end of July 2015, a large-scale BB event occurred over eastern and northern China. We took advantage of this special event to collect cloudwater samples at a high-altitude mountaintop site in the North China Plain, and to calibrate the isotopic signatures that BB events leave in the N pool of clouds. Integrating cloudwater nitrogenous species isotope data (δ<sup>15</sup>N-NH4<sup>+</sup>, δ<sup>15</sup>N-NO3<sup>-</sup> and δ<sup>18</sup>O-NO3<sup>-</sup>) in a Bayesian isotopic mixing model coupled with a newly developed computational quantum chemistry module (Chang et al., 2018), and using an isotopic mass balance approach, the sources and production pathways of inorganic nitrogen in cloudwater were quantified. Although numerous studies have been conducted that involved the chemical characterization of fog water or cloudwater, to our knowledge, there are no reports on the N (and O) isotopic composition of both NO3<sup>-</sup> and NH4<sup>+</sup> in cloudwater.

#### 140 **2 Materials and Methods**

#### 2.1 Cloudwater Sample Collection

Mt. Tai (117°13' E, 36°18' N; 1545 m above sea level) is a world-recognized geopark of key natural, historical and cultural significance, located in the eastern North China Plain (Fig. 1). It belongs to China's most important agricultural and industrial production areas, and the composition of the atmosphere near the mountain can be considered representative with regards to the quality and levels of atmospheric pollution in the region (Li et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018). Given the opportunistic nature of this study, cloudwater sampling commenced at the summit of Mt. Tai three days after the fire began (08/01/2015 19:12 to 08/03/2015 6:12; Table 1). In total, six cloudwater samples were collected during the long-lasting cloud event using a single-stage

Caltech active strand cloud-water collector (CASCC), as described by (Demoz et al., 1996). The 150 cloud collector was cleaned prior to each sampling using high-purity deionized water. After sampling, cloud samples were filtered immediately using disposable syringe filters (0.45 µm) to remove any suspended particulate matter, and then stored in a freezer at -80 °C until further analysis. More details on the monitoring site and sampling procedures can be found elsewhere (Li et al., 2017).



Figure 1. (a) Location of Mt. Tai (triangle) and twenty-four 48-h back trajectories (black lines) of air masses simulated by the HYSPLIT model (http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT.php) based on the Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) meteorological data set arriving at Mt. Tai on 1 August 2015 (4:00 UTC) at an altitude 1500-m a.s.l (close to the altitude of our sampling site). The base map of land use in China was modified from Chang et al. (2018). The red dots represent the positions of wildfires between 29 and 31 July 2015, based on moderate-resolution imaging spectroradiometer (MODIS) (http://modis-fire.umd.edu). (b) Field photos of cloudsshrouded Mt. Tai and the cloudwater collector.

#### 2.2 Chemical and Isotopic Analysis 165

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Inorganic ions (including SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, and Na<sup>+</sup>), as well as levoglucosan, a specific tracer of biomass burning, in cloudwater samples were analyzed using a Dionex<sup>TM</sup> ICS-5000<sup>+</sup> system (ThermoFisher Scientific, Sunnyvale, USA). The IC system was equipped with an automated sampler (AS-DV). Cloudwater samples were measured using an IonPac CG12A guard column and a CS12A separation column, with an aqueous methanesulfonic acid (MSA, 30 mM L<sup>-1</sup>) eluent at a flow rate of 1 mL min<sup>-1</sup>. Detailed information regarding sample processing, pre-treatment, chemical analyses, and analytical protocol adaption can be found elsewhere (Cao et al., 2016, 2017). The detection limits for Na<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, and levoglucosan are 0.06, 0.03, 0.12, 0.08, 0.13, 0.64, 1.11, 2.67, 1.41, and 1.29 ppb

175 (part per billion by weight in solution), respectively. The analytical errors from duplicate analysis were within 5%.

Analysis of the isotopic compositions of NH4<sup>+</sup> (δ<sup>15</sup>N-NH4<sup>+</sup>) and NO3<sup>-</sup>, (δ<sup>15</sup>N- NO3<sup>-</sup> and δ<sup>18</sup>O-NO3<sup>-</sup>) was based on the isotopic analysis of nitrous oxides (N2O) after chemical conversion of the respective target compound. More precisely, dissolved NH4<sup>+</sup> in cloudwater samples was
oxidized to NO2<sup>-</sup> by alkaline hypobromite (BrO<sup>-</sup>), and then reduced to N2O by hydroxylamine hydrochloride (NH2OH.HCl) (Liu et al., 2014). NO3<sup>-</sup> was initially transformed to NO2<sup>-</sup> by cadmium, and then further reduced to N2O by sodium azide (NaN3) in an acetic acid buffer (McIlvin and Altabet, 2005; Tu et al., 2016). The produced N2O was analyzed using a purge and cryogenic trap system (Gilson GX-271, IsoPrime Ltd., Cheadle Hulme, UK), coupled to an isotope ratio mass spectrometer (PT-IRMS) (IsoPrime 100, IsoPrime Ltd., Cheadle Hulme, UK). In order to correct for any machine drift and procedural blank contribution, international NH4<sup>+</sup> (IAEA N1, USGS 25, and USGS 26) and NO3<sup>-</sup> (IAEA N3, USGS 32, and USGS 34) standards were processed in the same way as samples. Standard regressions were made based on the known isotopic values

of international standards and the measured standard  $\delta^{15}N$  values. The slope of the plot of the sample versus the standard  $\delta^{15}N$  (0.49) was very close to the expected slope (0.5), which can be predicted based on the fact that half of the N atoms were derived from the azide (McIlvin and Altabet, 2005). The  $r^2$  of the regression line was 0.999. The analytical precision for both multiple N and O isotopic analyses was better than 0.3‰ (n = 5).

# 2.3 Bayesian Mixing Model Analysis

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By taking the uncertainty associated with the N isotopic signatures of multiple sources and associated isotope fractionation during (trans-)formations into account, the Bayesian method is more appropriate than simple linear mixing modeling to yield estimates on the source partitioning of a mixture like air pollutants (Chang et al., 2016; Chang et al., 2018). The relative contribution of each source in Bayesian theorem is expressed as:

$$P(f_q | data) = \theta(data | f_q) \times P(f_q) / \sum \theta(data | f_q) \times P(f_q)$$
(5)

where  $\theta(\text{data}|f_q)$  and  $P(f_q)$  represent the likelihood of the given mixed isotope signature, and the pre-determined probability of the given state of nature, based on prior information, respectively. The denominator represents the numerical approximation of the marginal probability of the data. Here the Bayesian mixing model MixSIR (stable isotope mixing models using sampling-importance-resampling) was used to disentangle the various potential NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> sources contributing to the cloudwater NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> pools, respectively, by forming the true probability distributions through generating 10000 solutions of source apportionment. Details on the model approach can be found in Appendix A.

The measured  $\delta^{15}$ N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> values of cloudwater samples depend on the  $\delta^{15}$ N signatures of the original NO<sub>x</sub> sources ( $\delta^{15}$ N-NO<sub>x</sub>), the N isotope fractionation between nitrogen oxides (i.e., NO and NO<sub>2</sub> (Walters et al., 2016)), and the N isotope enrichment factor ( $\epsilon_N$ ) associated with the kinetic transformation of NO<sub>x</sub> to HNO<sub>3</sub> (Walters and Michalski, 2015).  $\epsilon_N$  is considered a hybrid of two dominant processes: one is the reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> and OH radicals to form NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, the other is the heterogeneous hydrolysis of dinitrogen pentoxide (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) with water to form NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. We recently developed a quantum chemistry computation module to quantify the N fractionation during nitrate formation, which had been validated by field measurements (Chang et al., 2018). Here this module was adopted to calculate the N isotope fractionation during NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation, and in turn to correct the raw  $\delta^{15}$ N-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> values of cloudwater samples.

While the N isotopic source signatures of NO<sub>x</sub> are relatively well constrained (Table B1 in Appendix B), this is not the case for NH<sub>3</sub>. We recently established a pool of isotopic source signatures of NH<sub>3</sub> in eastern China, in which livestock breeding and fertilizer application were identified to produce NH<sub>3</sub> with a  $\delta^{15}$ N of -29.1 ± 1.7‰ and -50.0 ± 1.8‰, respectively (Chang et al., 2016). Although fossil-fuel combustion, urban waste, and natural soils also represent potential sources of NH<sub>3</sub>, their impacts are probably minor compared to that of agricultural and biomass burning emissions, at least on a regional (or greater) scale (Kang et al., 2016). For the N isotope signature of biomass burning-derived NH<sub>3</sub> we assumed 12‰ (Kawashima and Kurahashi, 2011), a value that has also been applied in other recent isotope-based source apportionment studies (e.g., Chellman et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017a).

## **3 Results and Discussion**

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#### 230 **3.1 Chemical characterization of biomass-burning-influenced clouds**

The moderate-resolution imaging spectroradiometer (MODIS) wildfire map (Fig. 1) shows that there were intensive biomass burning events occurring over mainland China, end of July 2015,

just before the study period. Moreover, analysis of the back trajectories of air masses at the study site revealed the strong influence by atmospheric transport from regions that also experienced intensive biomass burning events shortly before the sampling campaign. It can thus be assumed 235 that large amounts of BB-related pollutants were transported from the southwest to the sampling site at Mt. Tai. Table 1 compiles sample information and results from the chemical and isotopic analysis of cloudwater samples in this study. The concentrations of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> ranged from 4.9 to 19.9 mg  $L^{-1}$  (10.1 mg  $L^{-1}$  on average), and from 4.9 to 18.0 mg  $L^{-1}$  (9.1 mg  $L^{-1}$  on average). respectively, much higher than during non-BB seasons (Chen et al., 2017; Desyaterik et al., 2013; 240 Li et al., 2017, 2018; Lin et al., 2017). Similarly, levoglucosan in our cloudwater samples varied between 12.1 and 35.1  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> (19.9  $\mu$ g L<sup>-1</sup> on average), and concentrations were thus one order of magnitude higher than those documented during non-BB seasons (Boone et al., 2015; Fomba et al., 2015). Although levoglucosan can be oxidized by OH radicals in the tropospheric aqueous phase (Sang et al., 2016), it is nevertheless a reliable marker compound for BB due to its high 245 emission factors and relatively high concentrations in the ambient aerosols (Hoffmann et al., 2010). In our study, the concentrations of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $r^2 = 0.55$ ) and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> ( $r^2 = 0.66$ ) are strongly correlated with that of levoglucosan, suggesting that the pronounced increase of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> levels observed here can at least be partly attributed to BB activities during the study period. Globally, BB accounts for around 10% of NH3 and NOx emissions (Benkovitz et al., 1996; Bouwman et al., 250 1997; Olivier et al., 1998; Schlesinger and Hartley, 1992).

Date	Local time	NO3 <sup>-</sup> (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	NH4 <sup>+</sup> (mg L <sup>-1</sup> )	levoglucosan (µg L <sup>-1</sup> )	δ <sup>15</sup> N-NO3 <sup>-</sup> (‰)	$\delta^{18}$ O- NO <sub>3</sub> - (‰)	$\delta^{15}$ N-NH4 <sup>+</sup> (‰)
Aug 1	19:12-22:58	19.86	17.99	35.06	-0.22	65.46	3.62
	23:45-08:25	4.88	4.92	12.11	-1.28	55.01	3.85
Aug 2	09:10-12:19	5.57	5.81	23.60	-0.40	59.84	0.05
	12:55-18:30	13.24	11.51	18.67	-4.18	55.66	11.34
	20:02-23:06	10.06	7.74	13.63	-3.11	56.63	12.99
	23:48-06:12	6.71	6.59	16.42	-4.92	54.19	7.33

 Table 1. Sampling details and results of chemical and isotopic analysis for collected

 cloudwater samples.

#### 3.2 Isotopic characterization of biomass-burning-influenced clouds

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The N (and O) isotopic composition of cloudwater nitrogenous species was more (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) or less (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) varied (Table 1), with the average  $\delta^{15}$ N values of 6.53‰ and -2.35‰ for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, respectively. The average  $\delta^{18}$ O-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> value was 57.80‰. These values are generally different from gas, rainwater, and aerosol values measured worldwide (Fig. 2). Various atmospheric processes can influence the isotopic composition of atmospheric nitrogenous species including: the original emission source of NO<sub>x</sub>, seasonality of oxidation pathways, isotope fractionation during transport, partitioning between wet and dry components, and spatial gradients in atmospheric chemistry (Elliott et al., 2007; Hastings et al., 2003). These aspects may affect the  $\delta^{15}$ N and  $\delta^{18}$ O values differentially. For example, the  $\delta^{15}$ N of atmospheric NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> retains spatial changes in the original NO<sub>x</sub> signature quite well, in contrast to the  $\delta^{18}$ O. On the other hand, the  $\delta^{18}$ O most strongly depends on the oxidation chemistry and formation pathway in the atmosphere (see Equations 1-4).

At present, there are no other reports on the isotope ratios of both  $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$  in cloudwater, and a comparison is possible only with isotope data from precipitation and aerosol N. Recently, Vega et al. (2019) reported the  $\delta^{15}$ N (-8‰  $\pm$  2‰) and  $\delta^{18}$ O (71‰  $\pm$  3‰) values of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in fog water at a forest site in Sweden. The relatively high  $\delta^{15}$ N values in our study (-2.35‰) 275 suggest more NO<sub>x</sub> that emitted from combustion processes. In contrast, the much higher  $\delta^{18}$ O values in Vega et al. (2019) indicate a much greater contribution from O<sub>3</sub> in sub-Arctic environments. In Fig. 2a, N isotopic differences for NO<sub>x</sub> sources are greater (35%), than for  $\delta^{18}$ O- $NO_x$ . In fact, the oxygen isotope signature of  $NO_x$  is mainly chemistry-driven rather than determined by the source (see discussion below), and thus,  $\delta^{18}$ O measurements cannot be used to 280 address the uncertainty of the NO<sub>x</sub> sources that may remain when just looking at  $\delta^{15}$ N values alone. As shown in Fig. 2b, the  $\delta^{15}$ N values of aerosol NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> are systematically higher than that of NH<sub>3</sub>. Significant EN during the conversion of gas to aerosol (up to 33‰) has been proposed to alter the  $\delta^{15}$ N values during the transformation of the source (NH<sub>3</sub>) to the sink (particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>). Indeed, our compilation of previous results (Fig. 2b) reveals that particulate NH4<sup>+</sup> (particularly in the 285 coarse aerosol fraction) is more enriched in  $^{15}$ N than NH<sub>3</sub> (by > 23‰ on average), as well as NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in precipitation (by 18‰ on average). This can most likely be attributed to the preferential absorption <sup>14</sup>N-NH<sub>3</sub> associated with washout processes during precipitation (Zheng et al., 2018). We are aware of the fact that our sample/data set used here is limited, resulting in a relatively large uncertainty with regards to the N isotope-based source apportionment. However, all  $\delta^{15}$ N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> 290 values in cloudwater samples fall within the observed range of  $\delta^{15}$ N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> values for fine particles (PM<sub>2.5</sub>), providing putative evidence that NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in cloudwater is primarily derived from particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> rather than NH<sub>3</sub> absorption.



Figure 2. (a) Observed range of typical δ<sup>18</sup>O and δ<sup>15</sup>N values of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NO<sub>x</sub> for different sources (adapted from Fenech et al. (2012)). BB and CC represent biomass burning and coal combustion, respectively. The red squares represent nitrate isotope data in cloudwater (this study).
(b) The 25<sup>th</sup> percentiles, median and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles for the δ<sup>15</sup>N values of the ambient NH<sub>3</sub> (Chang et al., 2016; Felix et al., 2013; Savard et al., 2018; Smirnoff et al., 2012) and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in precipitation (Fang et al., 2011; Leng et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2008), cloudwater (this study), PM<sub>2.5</sub> (particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 µm; (Lin et al., 2016; Park et al., 2018; Proemse et al., 2012; Smirnoff et al., 2012), and TSP (particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 µm; Vang et al., 2018; Yeatman et al., 2001) are shown.

# 305 **3.3 Isotope-based assessment of the sources and formation of nitrogenous species in clouds**

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Using the MixSIR model, the relative contribution of four NH<sub>3</sub> sources to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> can be calculated, based on the isotope data of ambient  $\delta^{15}$ N-NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and considering the N fractionation and prior information on the site. As upper limit for the N isotope enrichment factor associated with the conversion of NH<sub>3</sub> to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> ( $\epsilon_{NH_4^+-NH_3}$ ), we assumed 33‰ when using MixSIR, but also considered lower values for  $\epsilon_{NH_4^+-NH_3}$  (Fig. 3a) (given the conflicting evidence with regards to  $\varepsilon_{NH_4^+-NH_3}$ ; e.g., Deng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2012). Dependent of the choice for  $\varepsilon_{NH_4^+-NH_3}$  (between 0‰ to 33‰ proposed by Heaton et al. (1997)) the relative contribution of biomass burning, fertilizer application, and livestock breeding to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in cloudwater ranges from 25.9% to 85.4%, 5.9% to 37.0%, and 8.7% to 85.4%, respectively. Irrespective of the uncertainty related to  $\varepsilon_{NH_2^+-NH_3}$ ,

the measurement of levoglucosan provides compelling evidence that biomass burning represents an important NH<sub>3</sub> source, independently validating our isotope approach. Our sampling site was located in the North China Plain, also known as the granary of China. Although non-agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emissions like on-road traffic are important in the urban atmosphere (Chang et al., 2016), their contribution must be considered insignificant with respect to fertilizer application and livestock breeding in this region (Kang et al., 2016). Besides, coal-based heating in China is suspended during summertime, and coal combustion has been demonstrated to be a minor contributor of total NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (Li et al., 2016a). Hence the partitioning between the three main NH<sub>3</sub> sources appears plausible. Moreover, existing emission inventory data confirm that the ratio of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in North China Plain from livestock breeding (1658 kt) and fertilizer application (1413 kt) was 1.17 (Zhang et al., 2010), which is very close to our estimate (between 0.98 and 1.14) when ε<sub>NH<sup>2</sup>-NH<sub>3</sub></sub> ≥ 25‰. For a ε<sub>NH<sup>2</sup>-NH<sub>3</sub></sub> range that we consider most plausible (i.e. between

25‰ and 33‰), the relative cloudwater NH4<sup>+</sup> source partitioning between biomass burning, fertilizer application, and livestock is  $32.9 \pm 4.6\%$ ,  $32.9 \pm 3.0\%$ , and  $34.2 \pm 1.6\%$ , respectively (indicated as red square in Fig. 3a). It is important to note that there was large uncertainty in the evaluation of biomass burning, which was partly ascribed to the lack of localized isotopic source signatures in China. In addition, the isotopic fractionation from the conversion of NH<sub>3</sub> to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was simplified in this study, and it was not possible to incorporate all of the possible equilibrium and kinetic fractionation scenarios.





The computational quantum chemistry (CQC) module in MixSIR has been proven a robust tool to quantify the N isotope enrichment factor during NO<sub>x</sub>-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> conversion ( $\epsilon_{NO_3^--NO_x}$ ) (e.g., Zong et al., 2017, Chang et al., 2018). Cloudwater sample-based data from this study reveal that  $\varepsilon_{NO_3^{-}-NO_x}$  values fall into a small range (5.21‰ to 5.98‰) (Fig. 3b), suggesting robust isotope effects during the N isotopic exchange reactions. Knowing  $\epsilon_{NO_3^--NO_*}$ , the overall contribution of

burning was the largest contributor  $(28.2 \pm 2.7\%)$ , followed by on-road traffic  $(27.1 \pm 2.2\%)$ , coal

various NO<sub>x</sub> sources to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in cloudwater can be estimated (Fig. 3c). As was expected, biomass

combustion (26.8  $\pm$  3.4%), and biogenic soil (17.9  $\pm$  3.9%). The fundamental importance of 350

biomass burning-emitted NO<sub>x</sub> to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in cloudwater is supported by the observed correlation between the concentrations of levoglucosan and biomass burning-derived NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> ( $r^2 = 0.66$ ). The average contribution ratio of coal combustion and on-road transportation to NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in our study (0.99) is slightly lower than that calculated from regional emission inventories (9.0 Tg/7.4 Tg = 1.22) (Zhao et al., 2013). The apparent difference is likely real, and reflects the fact that NO<sub>x</sub> emissions by anthropogenic activities changed significantly since 2010: a 17% total emission decrease between 2010 and 2017 can primarily be attributed to upgraded emission standards and new "ultra-low emission" techniques in the coal-fired power plant sector, given that traffic-emitted NO<sub>x</sub> likely increased as a consequence of the continuous expansion of auto trade market during the last decade (Chang et al., 2018). In turn, our source partitioning estimate probably reflects the most updated status of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in China, where transportation-related NO<sub>x</sub> emissions have reached levels that are comparable to NO<sub>x</sub> emissions by coal combustion. In this regard, our study demonstrates that Bayesian-based isotopic mixing modeling can be an effective and timely

Using the measured δ<sup>18</sup>O and equations 1-4 (and the assumptions above), we can calculate *γ*, and the relative importance of the two oxidation pathways of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation (Fig. 3d). On average, 57% NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation can be attributed to the "NO<sub>2</sub> + OH" pathway, and 43% to the "N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O" pathway. In the low-latitude regions, where atmospheric OH concentrations are highest, particulate NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> production via the "NO<sub>2</sub> + OH" pathway predominates (up to 87%) (Alexander et al., 2009). Sampling during summertime, oxidation of NO<sub>2</sub> through OH was expected to be the dominant pathway of nitrate formation, in accordance with observations from the subtropics (Hastings et al., 2003). However, our results highlight that N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> hydrolysis can be an almost

approach to track rapid emissions changes of NO<sub>x</sub> in a fast-developing country like China.

equally important process as the oxidization of  $NO_2$  with OH with regards to the  $NO_3^-$  formation in cloudwater (Wang et al., 2017b).

### 375 4 Conclusions

In this study, we measured the isotopic composition of nitrogenous species in cloudwater at the summit of Mt. Tai during a long-lasting biomass burning event, in order to investigate the sources and processes involved in cloudwater NO<sub>3</sub>-/NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> formation, and in turn to test our isotopebalance approach to constrain N source partitioning in cloudwater. Using a Bayesian isotope mixing model, the  $\delta^{15}$ N-based estimates confirm that at least transiently biomass burning related 380 NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions is a major source of cloudwater N. Moreover, our data are in accordance with regional emission inventories for both NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>, validating the Bayesian isotope mixing model approach. Based on cloud water nitrate  $\delta^{18}$ O measurements, the reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> with OH turned out to be the dominant pathway to form cloud nitrate, yet the contribution from the heterogeneous hydrolysis of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is almost equally important. Our study underscores the 385 value of cloud-water dissolved inorganic nitrogen isotopes as carrier of quantitative information on regional NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. It sheds light on the origin and production pathways of nitrogenous species in clouds and emphasizes the importance of BB-derived nitrogenous species as cloud condensation nuclei in China's troposphere. Moreover, it highlights the rapid evolution of NO<sub>x</sub> 390 emissions in China. Despite an overall reduction in total anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission due to effective emission control actions and stricter emission standards for vehicles, the relative contribution of transportation to total NO<sub>x</sub> emissions has increased over the last decade and may already have exceeded emissions from the power sector.

#### **Appendix A: Bayesian isotopic mixing model**

The Bayesian mixing model makes use of stable isotope data to determine the probability distribution of source contributions to a mixture, explicitly accounting for uncertainties associated with multiple sources, their isotopic signatures, and isotope fractionation during transformations. The model has been widely used in ecological studies, such as food-web analyses. In Bayesian theorem, the contribution of each source is calculated based on mixed data and prior information, such that:

 $P(f_q | data) = \theta(data | f_q) \times p(f_q) / \sum \theta(data | f_q) \times p(f_q)$ 

where  $\theta(data|f_q)$  and  $p(f_q)$  refer to the likelihood of the given mixed isotope signature, and the predetermined probability of the given state of nature, based on prior information, respectively. The denominator represents the numerical approximation of the marginal probability of the data. In a

- Bayesian model (stable isotope in R; SIAR), isotope signatures from the mixed data pool are assumed to be normally distributed. Uncertainty in the distribution of isotope sources and associated isotope fractionation during transformations are factored into the model by defining respective mean ( $\mu$ ) and standard deviation ( $\sigma$ ) parameters. Prior knowledge about proportional source contributions (f<sub>q</sub>) is parametrized using the Dirichlet distribution, with an interval of [0, 1].
- To assess the likelihood of the given  $f_q$ , the proposed proportional contribution is combined with a user-specified isotope distribution of sources and their associated isotope effects to develop a proposed isotope distribution for the mixture. The probability of fractional source contributions ( $f_q$ ) is calculated by the Hilborn sampling-importance-resampling method.

### Appendix B: Isotopic signatures of NOx emitted from various sources

415 **Table B1.** Typical  $\delta^{15}$ N-NO<sub>x</sub> values for coal combustion, transportation and biomass burning, and soils based on literature values.

r			1	
Source types	Mean (‰)	Standard(%)	Number	Reference
Source types	111 <b></b> (700)	2 minute (700)	1.00000	
Coal combustion	13 72	4 57	47	Felix et al. 2012 2015
cour comoustion	13.72	1.57	17	1 On Ct al., 2012, 2013
Transportation	_7.25	7.80	151	Walter et al. 2015a b: Heaton et al. 1997
mansportation	-1.23	7.00	151	walter et al., 2015a, 0, fleaton et al., 1777
Biomass hurning	1.04	/ 13	24	Fibiger and Hastings 2016: Felix and Elliott
Diomass ourning	1.07	4.15	27	Proliger and Hastings, 2010, Tenx and Emoti,
				2012
				2015
Diagonia goil	22 77	12.16	6	Heatings at al. 2000; Falin at al. 2012
Biogenic soli	-33.//	12.10	U	riastings et al., 2009; relix et al., 2012

#### Data availability

All data used to support the conclusion are presented in this paper. Additional data are available upon request. Please contact the corresponding authors (Yanlin Zhang (dryanlinzhang@outlook.com) and Jianmin Chen (jmchen@fudan.edu.cn)).

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