# Particle acidity and sulfate production during severe haze events in China cannot be reliably inferred by assuming a mixture of inorganic salts

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37 Abstract: Atmospheric measurements showed rapid sulfate formation during severe haze 38 episodes in China, with fine particulate matter (PM) consisting of a multi-component mixture 39 that is dominated by organic species. Several recent studies using the thermodynamic model 40 estimated the particle acidity and sulfate production rate, by treating the PM exclusively as a 41 mixture of inorganic salts dominated by ammonium sulfate and neglecting the effects of organic 42 compounds. Noticeably, the estimated pH and sulfate formation rate during pollution periods in 43 China were highly conflicting among the previous studies. Here we show that a particle mixture 44 of inorganic salts adopted by the previous studies does not represent a suitable model system and 45 that the acidity and sulfate formation cannot be reliably inferred without accounting for the 46 effects of multi-aerosol compositions during severe haze events in China. Our laboratory 47 experiments show that SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by NO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>3</sub> neutralization on fine aerosols is 48 dependent on the particle hygroscopicity, phase-state, and acidity. Ammonium sulfate and oxalic 49 acid seed particles exposed to vapors of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> at high relative humidity (RH) 50 exhibit distinct size growth and sulfate formation. Aqueous ammonium sulfate particles exhibit 51 little sulfate production, in contrast to aqueous oxalic acid particles with significant sulfate 52 production. Our field measurements demonstrate significant contribution of water-soluble 53 organic matter to fine PM in China and indicate that the use of oxalic acid in laboratory 54 experiments is representative of ambient organic dominant aerosols. While the particle acidity 55 cannot be accurately determined from field measurements or calculated using the 56 thermodynamic model, our results reveal that the pH value of ambient organics-dominated 57 aerosols is sufficiently high to promote efficient SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by NO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>3</sub> neutralization 58 under polluted conditions in China.

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61 **1.** Introduction

62 Atmospheric measurements have demonstrated rapid sulfate production during severe haze 63 events in China (Guo et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016; 64 Wang et al., 2016). For example, Wang et al. (2016) showed that during pollution episodes in Xi'an of China the  $SO_4^{2-}$  mass concentration increased markedly from less than 10, 10-20, to 65 greater than 20  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>, with the corresponding increases in the mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentrations 66 from 43, 139, to 250  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> from clean, transition, to polluted periods, respectively. Among the 67  $PM_{25}$  species in Xi'an, organic matter (OM), nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> were most abundant, with 68 69 the mass fractions of 55%, 14%, and 14%, respectively, during the polluted period. In addition, the work by Wang et al. (2016) demonstrated that the molar ratio of  $SO_4^{2-}$  to  $SO_2$ , which reflects 70 71 sulfur partitioning between the particle and gas phases, exhibited an exponential increase with 72 relative humidity (RH), with the values of less than 0.1 at RH < 20% to 1.1 at RH > 90% in Xi'an. Similar evolutions in  $SO_4^{2-}$  mass concentrations and the molar ratio of  $SO_4^{2-}$  to  $SO_2$  were 73 74 shown during the pollution development in Beijing (Sun et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014; Wang et 75 al., 2016). The rapid sulfate formation measured in China could not be explained by current 76 atmospheric models and suggested missing sulfur oxidation mechanisms (Wang et al., 2014). 77 Typically, high sulfate levels during haze events in China occurred concurrently with elevated 78 RH, NO<sub>x</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> (Wang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016), implicating an 79 aqueous sulfur oxidation pathway. On the basis of complementary field and experimental 80 measurements, Wang et al. (2016) concluded that the aqueous oxidation of  $SO_2$  by  $NO_2$  is key to 81 efficient sulfate formation, but is only feasible under two atmospheric conditions, i.e., on fine 82 aerosols with high RH and NH<sub>3</sub> neutralization or under cloud conditions.

83 Several recent studies estimated the particle acidity and aqueous sulfate production during

84 severe haze events in China using the thermodynamic model (Cheng et al., 2016; Guo et al., 85 2017; Liu et al., 2017). For example, Cheng et al. (2016) estimated a pH range of 5.4 to 6.2 using 86 a thermodynamic model (ISORROPIA-II) in Beijing. On the basis of their estimated pH and the 87 previous experimental rates of SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by NO<sub>2</sub> and the Henry's Law constants for sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), bisulfite (HSO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), and sulfite (SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>) from the literature (Lee and Schwartz, 1983; 88 89 Clifton et al., 1988; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006), the authors derived a sulfate production rate and 90 concluded that reactive nitrogen chemistry in aerosol water explained the sulfate formation 91 during polluted periods in Beijing. In contrast, other recent studies by Guo et al. (2017) and Liu 92 et al. (2017) adopted the similar method as Cheng et al. (2016), but reported significantly 93 different values of pH and the sulfate formation rates by the aqueous  $SO_2$  oxidation by  $NO_2$  in 94 China. Those two later studies determined a pH range of 3.0-4.9 and suggested that fine particles 95 were moderately acidic and the aqueous SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by NO<sub>2</sub> was unimportant during severe 96 wintertime haze periods in China. 97 In this article, we conducted laboratory measurements of the hygroscopicity for oxalic acid 98 particles and particle growth of ammonium sulfate particles upon exposure to SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and 99 NH<sub>3</sub> at high RH conditions, in order to evaluate the dominant factors regulating the aqueous 100 oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> by NO<sub>2</sub>. In addition, field measurements of chemical compositions of water-101 soluble fraction for fine PM (including oxalic acid) in Beijing, Hebei Province, and Xi'an of 102 China were performed during the winter haze episodes, showing significantly enriched water-103 soluble organic matter (WSOM). The implications for the multi-aerosol chemical compositions 104 on the pH value and sulfate production during winter pollution periods in China are discussed. 105 2. **Methods** 

106 2.1 Aqueous phase oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> by NO<sub>2</sub> in an environmental chamber

107 The experimental method using the environmental chamber has been discussed elsewhere 108 (Wang et al., 2016), and here we only provide a brief description. The aqueous SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation 109 experiments was conducted by exposing size-selected  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  seed particles to different levels of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> at variable RH conditions in a 1 m<sup>3</sup> Teflon reaction chamber 110 111 covered with aluminum foil. A differential mobility analyzer (DMA) equipped with a 112 condensation particle counter (CPC) was used to measure the particle growth in diameter, in 113 order to determine sulfate formation on seeded particles (Wang et al., 2016). 114 2.2 Measurement of hygroscopic growth factor of oxalic acid 115 Hygroscopic growth factor (HGF) of oxalic acid was measured according to the method 116 previously discussed (Khalizov et al., 2009; Pagels et al., 2009). Briefly, a hygroscopicity 117 tandem differential mobility analyzer (HTDMA) coupled to a condensation particle counter 118 (CPC, TSI 3762) was used for the HGF measurement. Size-selected oxalic acid particles with the 119 dry diameter of 100 nm were exposed to increasing RH from 8% to 92% with a step range from 120 1%-10%. HGF is defined as the ratio of oxalic acid particle diameter  $(D_p)$  measured by the 121 second DMA at an elevated RH to the initial diameter ( $D_0 = 100$  nm) of the particles selected by 122 the first DMA at the dry conditions of RH = 8% (Peng et al., 2016).

## 123 2.3 Chemical composition of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Beijing, Hebei Province, and Xi'an, China

PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples were collected onto pre-baked ( $450^{\circ}$ C for 6 hr) quartz fiber filter by using a high-volume air sampler with an airflow rate of 1.03 m<sup>3</sup> min<sup>-1</sup>. The sample collection in Xi'an was performed on the roof of a three-story building in the urban center with a 1-hour interval for each sample during the winter of 2012 (Wang et al., 2016). The sample collection in Beijing was conducted during the winter of 2016 on the roof of a four-story building on the campus of China Research Academy of Environmental Sciences, which is located at the northern part of Beijing.

130	The $PM_{2.5}$ samples in Hebei Province were collected during the winter of 2016 on the roof of a
131	three-story building on the campus of the Institute of Hydrology and Environmental Geology,
132	which is located in Zhengding County of Hebei Province. Both sample collections in Beijing and
133	Hebei Province were performed on a day/night basis. After collection, all samples were sealed
134	individually in an aluminum foil bag and stored in a freezer below -18°C prior to analysis.
135	During the sampling periods temperatures were -6.0 $\pm$ 4.0 °C (-15–1.0 °C), -4.0 $\pm$ 3.0 °C (-
136	12–2.0°C) and 1.6 $\pm$ 4.4 °C (-5.4–15°C) in Beijing, Hebei Province and Xi'an, respectively, while
137	relative humidity at the three sites (RH) were $37 \pm 18\%$ (16–87%),46 $\pm 21\%$ (16–87%) and 59 $\pm$
138	21% (15-95%), respectively. Previous observations showed that coal combustion, biomass
139	burnings and vehicle exhausts are the three major sources of PM <sub>2.5</sub> during winter in North China
140	including Beijing, Hebei Province and Xi'an (Li et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2015).
141	The detailed procedures for the analysis of inorganic ions and water-soluble organic matter
142	(WSOM) in aerosols have been reported elsewhere (Wang et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2010; Wang
143	et al., 2017). Briefly, one part of the filter sample (area about 5 cm <sup>2</sup> ) was divided into several
144	pieces, extracted with Mili-Q pure water, and determined for WSOM and inorganic ions by
145	using Shimadzu TOC-L CPH analyzer and Dionex-600 ion chromatography, respectively.
146	Oxalic acid in $PM_{2.5}$ was analyzed according to Wang et al. (2002) and Cheng et al. (2015). One
147	part of the filter sample was extracted with Milli-Q water, concentrated to dryness, and reacted
148	with 14% BF3/butanol at 100°C for 1 hr. After the reaction, the derivatized sample was extracted
149	with hexane for three times and concentrated into 1 mL. Oxalic acid in the samples was
150	identified by gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) and quantified by gas
151	chromatography (Agilent GC7890A).
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**3. Results** 

### 3.1 Aqueous oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> by NO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>3</sub> neutralization

154 We first evaluated the factors controlling the aqueous phase oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> by NO<sub>2</sub> using 155 the environmental chamber method. The evolution in the size of ammonium sulfate particles 156 after exposure to SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> at different RH and SO<sub>2</sub> levels is shown in Figure 1. In our 157 experiments, monodisperse particles with the initial dry particle size ranging from 50 to 70 nm 158 were selected for the exposure, and two different  $SO_2$  concentrations (37.5 and 375 parts per 159 billions or ppb) were used. RH was maintained at a level of 80-98%, above the deliquescence 160 point (79%) of ammonium sulfate (Qiu and Zhang, 2013) to ensure aqueous particles. As is 161 shown in Figure 1, the size of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> particles remains nearly invariant (within the 162 experimental uncertainty) after exposure to SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub>. A 10-fold increase in the SO<sub>2</sub> 163 concentration has little effect on the growth of (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> particles. These results illustrate that 164 sulfate production is insignificant and SO<sub>2</sub> cannot be efficiently oxidized by NO<sub>2</sub> in the presence 165 of NH<sub>3</sub> on aqueous ammonium sulfate particles. The measurement of negligible growth for 166 (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> particles exposed to SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> at high RH is in contrast to the previous 167 work by Wang et al. (2016), which showed large size growth and significant sulfate production 168 for oxalic acid particles with NH<sub>3</sub> neutralization and under high RH conditions (see the black 169 triangles in Figure 1).

To gain an insight into such a difference in the size growth between  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  and oxalic acid particles, we measured the hygroscopic growth of oxalic acid particles. Figure 2 displays the measured hygroscopic growth factor (HGF) of oxalic acid, showing an exponential increase with an increase in RH. The measured HGF value is close to unity at RH < 40% and increases from 1.1 at RH = 60% to 1.5 at RH = 90%. Our measured HGF for oxalic acid is consistent with the previous studies by Prenni et al. (2001) and Mikhailov et al. (2009); all of which were measured by using a hygroscopicity tandem differential mobility analyzer (HTDMA) system. On the other hand, another earlier experimental study showed little growth for oxalic acid particles under high RH conditions by using an electrodynamic balance (EDB) system (Peng et al., 2001). The different HGF measured for oxalic acid is most likely due to the different accuracies of the two types of methods for the hygroscopicity measurement. The measurements of HGF also provide information on the particle phase-state. As evident from Figure 2, oxalic acid particles mainly exist in a non-aqueous phase at RH < 40% but in the aqueous phase at RH > 60%.

Our present experiments of aqueous oxidation of  $SO_2$  by  $NO_2$  were performed at similar conditions as those by Wang et al. (2016), i.e., with comparable concentrations for  $SO_2$ ,  $NO_2$ , and  $NH_3$  and in the same phase-state (aqueous) for the particles. On the other hand, the particle acidity is clearly distinct between the two studies. Our present experiment is characterized by a lower pH value, since ammonium sulfate is rather acidic. For example, the pH value of 0.1M ( $NH_4$ )<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> solution is 5.5. The overall aqueous reaction between SO<sub>2</sub> and  $NO_2$  in the presence of  $NH_3$  is suggested as the following (Wang et al., 2016),

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$$2NH_3(g) + SO_2(g) + 2NO_2(g) + 2H_2O(aq) \rightarrow 2NH_4^+(aq) + SO_4^{2-}(aq) + 2HONO(g)$$
 (1)

191 Since the solubility of SO<sub>2</sub> decreases markedly with increasing particle acidity (Seinfeld and 192 Pandis, 2006; Zhang et al., 2015), the heterogeneous reaction between SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> is prohibited 193 on acidic (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> particles. On the other hand, under the experimental conditions by Wang et 194 al. (2016), the heterogeneous reaction between oxalic acid and NH<sub>3</sub> occurred on aqueous 195 particles in the presence of NH<sub>3</sub>, yielding ammonium oxalate. The ammonium oxalate is 196 expected to be less acidic than ammonium sulfate, because for a bulk solution the pH value of 197 0.1 M ammonium oxalate is 6.5 and one unit higher than that of ammonium sulfate. As a result, 198 SO<sub>2</sub> readily dissolves into aqueous ammonium oxalate particles and is oxidized by NO<sub>2</sub> into

199  $SO_4^{2-}$ , which is consequently neutralized by NH<sub>3</sub> to produce (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. The resulting aqueous 200 ammonium oxalate/(NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> particles, which is internally mixed, exhibit a lower acidity than 201 that of pure (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> particles, responsible for a significant growth in the dry particle size and 202 sulfate formation for the previous experiments by Wang et al. (2016).

Hence, the experimental studies of our present work and that by Wang et al. (2016) reveal that sulfate production on fine particles is dependent on several factors, including the particle hygroscopicity, phase-state, acidity, and RH, in addition to the gaseous concentrations of  $SO_2$ , NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub>. These experimental results indicate that the acidity and sulfate formation are distinct for organic seed and ammonium sulfate seed particles. While oxidation of  $SO_2$  by NO<sub>2</sub> on aqueous (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> particles does not represent a viable mechanism because of a higher acidity, significant sulfate production occurs on oxalic acid particles because of a lower acidity.

#### 210 **3.2**

#### Field measurements of WSOM in China

211 Atmospheric measurements have shown that the occurrence of severe haze episodes in 212 China is accompanied with high RH conditions and PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles consist of large amounts of 213 secondary organic and inorganic compounds. We present additional field measurements of the 214 chemical composition of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Beijing, Hebei Province, and Xi'an of China. Figure 3 shows 215 that the wintertime  $PM_{2.5}$  samples collected at the three locations. It is evident that WSOM is 216 considerably enriched and their concentrations are comparable to those of the total inorganic ions (Figure 3a and b). For example, the mass concentration of WSOM ranges from 10 to  $60 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ 217 in Beijing and Hebei Province during the winter of 2016 and from 10 to 180  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> in Xi'an 218 219 during the winter of 2012 (Figure 3c and d, respectively). Compared to those in Beijing and 220 Hebei Province, the more abundant WSOM in Xi'an was caused by more emissions from 221 biomass burning for house heating (Li et al., 2016). As seen in Figure 3c-f, the variation of

222 WSOM displays a temporal pattern similar to that of oxalic acid, with a linear correlation 223 coefficient of 0.79, 0.88 and 0.72 in Beijing, Hebei Province, and Xi'an, respectively (Figure 3e 224 and f). The mass concentration of oxalic acid in fine PM during the haze episodes is about 500 ng m<sup>-3</sup> in Beijing and Hebei Province (Figure 3e) and more than 2000 ng m<sup>-3</sup> in Xi'an (Figure 3f). 225 226 Hence, our field measurements indicate that oxalic acid represents one of the most abundant 227 WSOM in the aerosol-phase. Oxalic acid is a secondary product formed from the aqueous-phase 228 oxidation of water-soluble organic precursors and ubiquitously exists in the troposphere. Like 229 other pollutants, oxalic acid has been also shown to occur with large abundance in China (Wang 230 et al., 2012; Cheng et al., 2013; Meng et al., 2014; Kawamura and Bikkina, 2016). As shown in 231 Figure 3g and h, during the field observation periods sulfate at the three sites showed a temporal variation pattern similar to that of oxalic acid with a robust linear correlation ( $r^2=0.67, 0.84$  and 232 233 0.61 in Xi'an, Beijing and Hebei Province, respectively). Such a correlation was also reported by 234 other researchers (Wang et al, 2017, Yu et al, 2005), suggesting the cooccurrence and internally 235 mixing state of both compounds in the atmosphere. In addition, the previous field measurements 236 also revealed that WSOM in China is not only enriched in carboxylic acids (including oxalic acid) 237 but also in other organic species, including carbonyls, amines, and water-soluble nitrogen-238 containing organic compounds (Wang et al., 2010, 2013; Zheng et al., 2015; Yao et al., 2016; 239 Liu et al., 2017). The dominant organic acids and bases indicate that haze particles in China are 240 multi-component in nature and the estimations of the particle acidity (or pH) and the sulfate 241 production rate need to take into account of the effects of organic species, in addition to 242 inorganic ions.

243 4. **Discussions** 



Several recent studies using the thermodynamic models (Wexler and Clegg, 2002;

245 Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007) estimated the particle acidity and sulfate production during 246 pollution episodes in China (Cheng et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017). Those 247 previous studies treated the PM exclusively as a mixture of inorganic salts dominated by 248 ammonium sulfate and neglected the effects due to the presence of organic compounds. 249 Apparently, the conclusions by those modeling studies hinge on the validity of several critical 250 assumptions in their analyses, including the application of the thermodynamic model, the 251 accuracy in determining the aerosol water content (AWC), and the applicability of the earlier 252 experimental measurements for the aqueous oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> by NO<sub>2</sub> to atmospheric conditions. 253 Estimation of the pH values using the thermodynamic models is typically of considerable 254 uncertainty, because of several intricate difficulties. For example, the ISORRPIA-II model 255 includes two modes, i.e., metastable (aerosols are assumed to be in the liquid-phase only and 256 may reach supersaturation) and stable (aerosols are assumed in the liquid- and solid phases that 257 are in equilibrium) (Guo et al., 2017). Since the thermodynamic model is established on the basis 258 of the equilibrium principles, its application to non-equilibrium conditions needs to be rigorously 259 assessed. Also, the phase (e.g., liquid, amorphorous, or crystalline) and mixing state of ambient 260 aerosols are highly complex because of the presence of multi-component organic and inorganic 261 species (Qiu and Zhang, 2013; Zhang et al., 2015), inevitably rendering high uncertainty in the 262 thermodynamic calculations.

Guo et al. (2017) suggested that the pH predictions using the metastable mode would be more reliable than that using the stable mode, on the basis of model evaluation from measured and predicted  $NO_3^-$  and  $NH_4^+$  during the winter of 2012 in Xi'an. Figure 4 compares the concentrations of  $NH_3$  (g) and aerosol species predicted by ISORROPIA-II with the field measurements under the metastable and stable modes in Xi'an during the winter of 2012. As

268	evident in Figure 4a and b, $NH_3$ predicted is similar to the measured value with the metastable or
269	stable mode. Furthermore, the predicted concentrations of $NO_3^-$ and $NH_4^+$ using both the
270	metastable and stable modes are nearly identical (Fig. 4c-f). Guo et al. (2017) only compared the
271	liquid $NH_4^+$ and $NO_3^-$ predicted by the model under the stable mode with the field measured
272	aerosols composed of both liquid and solid compounds, and thus their predicted concentrations
273	were lower than those of the measurements (see Figure S1 in Guo et al, 2017). As a result, their
274	statement that pH prediction with the metastable mode would be more reliable than that with the
275	stable mode was unjustified. Noticeably, the pH values estimated by the ISORROPIA-II model
276	under the two modes are significantly different, with the values of $4.57\pm0.40$ under the
277	metastable mode and $6.96 \pm 1.33$ under the stable mode. Most recently, it was suggested that the
278	large discrepancy in predicting pH is attributable to the model code errors (Song et al., 2018).
279	In addition, the pH estimation by the thermodynamic model is highly dependent on the ratio
280	of the concentration of hydrogen ions in the liquid-phase to AWC. Guo et al. (2017) and Liu et al.
281	(2017) assumed negligible particle water associated with the organic aerosol mass. Such an
282	assumption is clearly invalid since aerosols typically contain a large portion of WSOM in China
283	(Fig. 3), including organic nitrogen species (Wang et al., 2010, 2013) and acids (Wang et al.,
284	2006, 2009, 2010). Also, organic acids engage in particle-phase reactions with the basic species
285	(i.e., NH <sub>3</sub> and amines), significantly enhancing the particle hygroscopicity and reducing the
286	acidity (Gomez-Hernandez et al., 2016). In addition, because of their strong basicity and high
287	abundance, amines likely play a key role in reducing the particle-acidity in China (Wang et al.,
288	2010a, b; Qiu et al., 2011; Qiu and Zhang, 2012; Dong et al., 2013; Zheng et al., 2015; Yao et al.,
289	2016; Liu et al., 2017). Consequently, the acidity for organics-dominated aerosols is
290	considerably different from that of ammonium sulfate aerosols, as demonstrated in our

experimental results. While effort has been made to account for the effects of organic species on
the aerosol properties (Clegg et al., 2013), the available thermodynamic models are still
inadequate in representing complex multi-component aerosols. An inconsistency of the
ammonium–sulfate ratios using the thermodynamic models was identified in the eastern US, also
suggesting a possible role for organic species (Silvern et al., 2017).

296 Furthermore, the chemical mechanism leading to the aqueous conversion of SO<sub>2</sub> to sulfate by NO<sub>2</sub> is not well understood. The previous modeling studies adopted the aqueous reaction rate 297 298 constants previously measured (Lee and Schwartz, 1983; Clifton et al., 1988), while the 299 applicability of the earlier experimental studies to atmospheric conditions is uncertain. For 300 example, Lee and Schwartz (1983) examined the oxidation of S(IV) by NO<sub>2</sub> in the liquid phase 301 by flowing gaseous NO<sub>2</sub> through a NaHSO<sub>3</sub> solution at a constant pH by regulating NaOH and determined the rate constant of  $1.4 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$  at pH = 5 and with a lower limit of  $2 \times 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ 302 <sup>1</sup> at pH = 5.8 and 6.4 from measuring the electrical conductivity of the solution. Clifton et al. 303 304 (1988) measured the rate constant for the reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> with S(IV) over the pH range of 5.3-13, 305 by producing NO<sub>2</sub> from irradiation of NaNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O solutions and mixing with Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>3</sub> solutions, and obtained the second-order rate constant of  $1.24 \times 10^7$  and  $2.95 \times 10^7$  M<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> from 306 307 the decay of NO<sub>2</sub> monitored by absorption spectroscopy. The results of the measured rate 308 constants between the two earlier experimental measurements differed by 1-2 orders of 309 magnitude (Lee and Schwartz, 1983; Clifton et al., 1988). Also, both kinetic experiments 310 employed bulk solutions and did not account for the gaseous uptake process (Lee and Schwartz, 311 1983; Clifton et al., 1988).

Wang et al. (2016) obtained the SO<sub>2</sub> uptake coefficient for sulfate production from
combined field measurements and laboratory experiments, and their laboratory experiments

314	using aqueous oxalic acid particles reproduced the rapid sulfate production measured under
315	polluted ambient conditions in China. The SO <sub>2</sub> uptake coefficient on oxalic acid particles in the
316	laboratory reaction chamber is $8.3\pm5.7 \times 10^{-5}$ (Wang et al., 2016) under the humid conditions and
317	similar to that $(4.5\pm1.1 \text{ x } 10^{-5})$ (Wang et al., 2016) observed in Beijing during the haze period of
318	2015. The results of the $SO_2$ uptake coefficients determined by Wang et al. (2016) are also
319	consistent with the modeling studies in quantification of the sulfate formation using atmospheric
320	models in the country (e.g., Wang et al., 2014), indicating the applicability of their proposed
321	mechanism to haze conditions in China. On the other hand, Liu et al. (2017) invoked the
322	experimental work by Hung et al. (2015) as a plausible cause for rapid $SO_2$ oxidation by $O_2$ in
323	the absence of photochemistry, but without noting the high acidity as a necessary condition in
324	that experimental work (i.e., pH $\leq$ 3). Most recently, Li et al. (2018) suggested an indirect
325	mechanism of $SO_2$ oxidation by $NO_2$ via $HONO/NO_2^-$ produced in fast-hydrolytic
326	disproportionation of NO <sub>2</sub> on the surface of NaHSO <sub>3</sub> aqueous microjets. In addition, another
327	recent theoretical work by Zhang et al. (2018) indicated that under weakly acidic and neutral
328	conditions (pH $\leq$ 7) the oxidation of HOSO <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> by dissolved NO <sub>2</sub> is a self-sustaining process,
329	where the produced <i>cis</i> -HONO, $HSO_4^-$ and $H_2SO_4$ promote the tautomerization from $HSO_3^-$ to
330	$HOSO_2^-$ as the catalysts.

**5.** Conclusions

In this paper we have presented experimental measurements of the growth of ammonium sulfate seed particles exposed to vapors of  $SO_2$ ,  $NO_2$ , and  $NH_3$  at variable RH, the HGF of oxalic acid particles, and field measurements of WSOM for  $PM_{2.5}$  during the severe haze events in Beijing, Hebei Province, and Xi'an of China. Our experimental results reveal that sulfate production on fine particles is dependent on the particle hygroscopicity, phase-state, and acidity,

337 as well as RH. The acidity and sulfate formation for ammonium sulfate seed particles are distinct 338 from those of oxalic acid seed particles. Aqueous ammonium sulfate particles show negligible 339 growth because of low pH, in contrast to aqueous oxalic acid particles with significant dry-size 340 increase and sulfate formation because of high pH. In addition, our atmospheric measurements 341 show significant concentrations of WSOM (including oxalic acid) in fine PM, indicating multi-342 component haze particles in China. Our results reveal that a particle mixture of inorganic salts 343 adopted by the previous studies using the thermodynamic model does not represent a suitable 344 model system and that the particle acidity and aqueous sulfate formation rate cannot be reliably 345 inferred without accounting for the effects of multi-chemical compositions during severe haze 346 events in China. Our combined experimental and field measurements corroborate the earlier 347 finding that sulfate production via the particle-phase reaction involving SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>3</sub> 348 neutralization occurs efficiently on organics-dominated aerosols (Wang et al., 2016) but are in 349 contradiction to the most recent studies using the thermodynamic model (Guo et al., 2017; Liu et 350 al., 2017).

In conclusion, while the particle acidity or pH cannot be accurately determined from atmospheric field measurements or calculated using the thermodynamic models, our combined experimental and field results provide the compelling evidence that the pH value of ambient organics-dominated particles is sufficiently high to promote SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by NO<sub>2</sub> with NH<sub>3</sub> neutralization under polluted conditions in China.

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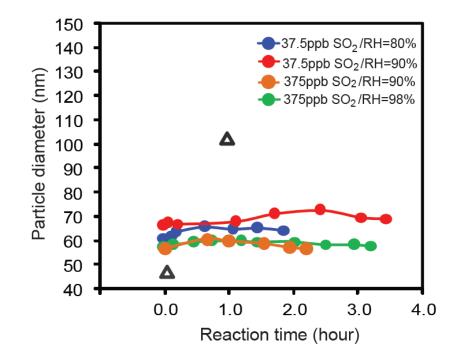
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541 Figure 1. Size evolution of ammonium sulfate (circle dots) and oxalic acid (black triangles)

542 particles after exposure to SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> at different RH levels. Variations in mobility

543 diameter  $(D_p)$  of the particles as a function of reaction time. The symbols with different colors

544 denote measurements with exposure to different SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and RH

545 levels. For the ammonium sulfate particles exposure experiment, two levels of  $SO_2$  were used,

which are 37.5 ppb and 375 ppb, respectively, while the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration is 375 ppb, and the
 NH<sub>3</sub> concentration is 500 ppb. For the oxalic acid particles exposure experiment, the SO<sub>2</sub>

547 INT<sub>3</sub> concentration is 500 ppb. For the oxarc acid particles exposure experiment, the SO<sub>2</sub> 548 concentration is 250 ppb, the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration is 250 ppb, and the NH<sub>3</sub> concentration is 1 ppm

549 (The data of oxalic acid growth are cited from the previous study by Wang et al (2016)).

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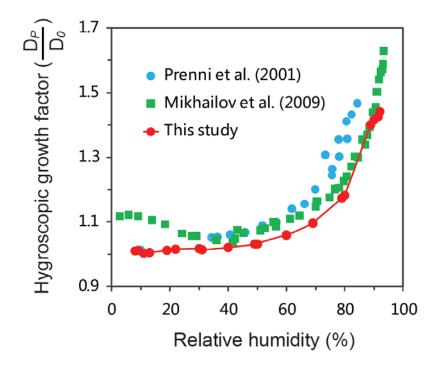
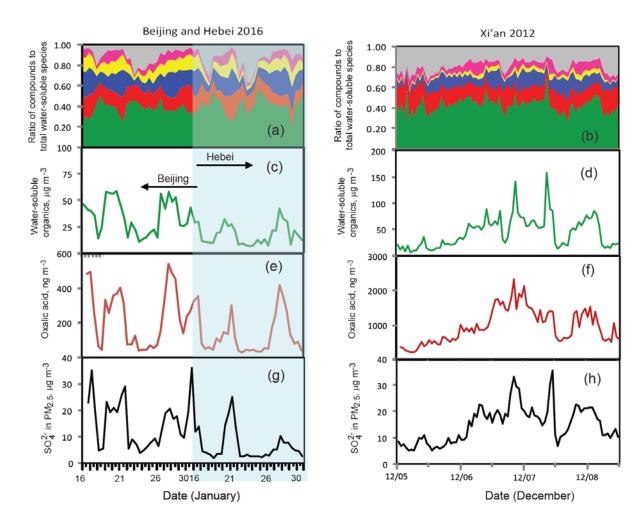


Figure 2. Measured hygroscopic growth factor (HGF) of oxalic acid particles at different RH conditions.  $D_p$  is the particle diameter at an elevated RH, and  $D_0$  (100nm) is the initial diameter of oxalic acid particles at RH = 8%.



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Figure 3. Measurements of water-sluble organic matter (WSOM) of  $PM_{2.5}$  collected in Beijing and Hebei Province during the winter of 2016 (left panels: a, c,e and g) and in Xi'an during the winter of 2012 (right panels: b, d, f and h). In (a) and (b), the green, red, blue, yelow, pink, and gray colors represent WSOM, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, chloride, and the others (i.e., the sum of Na<sup>+</sup> + Ca<sup>2+</sup> + Mg<sup>2+</sup> + K<sup>+</sup>), respectively.

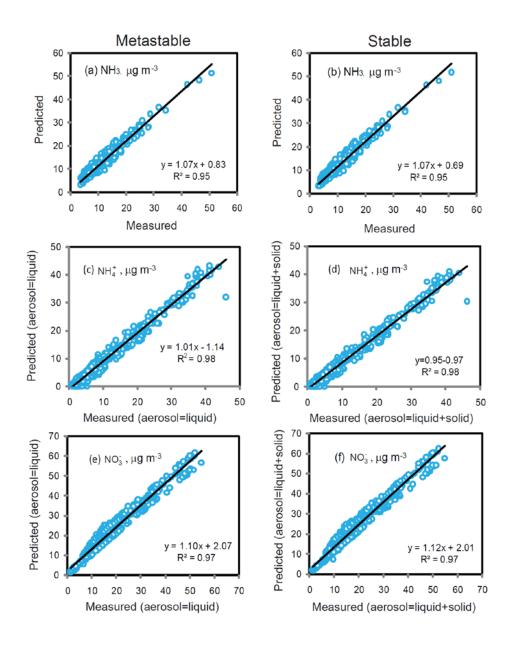




Figure 4. Comparison of measured NH<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations with those predicted by
ISORROPIA-II model using the forward mode under the metastable (left panels) and stable
assumptions (right panels).