

The Secondary Formation of Organosulfates under the Interactions between Biogenic Emissions and Anthropogenic Pollutants in Summer of Beijing

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Abstract. Organosulfates (OSs), with ambiguous formation mechanisms, are a potential source of “missing secondary organic aerosol (SOA)” in current atmospheric models. In this study, we analyzed the characterization and formation of OSs and nitrooxy OSs (NOSs) under the influence of biogenic emissions and anthropogenic pollutants (e.g. NO_x, SO₄²⁻) in summer of Beijing. The ultrahigh-resolution mass spectrometer equipped with electrospray ionization source was applied to examine the overall molecular composition of S-containing organics. The number and intensities of S-containing organics, the majority of which could be assigned as OSs and NOSs, increased significantly during pollution episodes, which indicated their importance for SOA accumulation. To further investigate the distribution and formation of OSs and NOSs, the high performance liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometry was employed to quantify ten OSs and three NOS species. The total concentrations of quantified OSs and NOSs were 41.4 and 13.8 ng/m³, respectively. Glycolic acid sulfate was the most abundant species among all the quantified species, followed by monoterpene NOSs (C₁₀H₁₆NO₇S). The total concentration of three isoprene OSs was 14.8 ng/m³ and the isoprene OSs formed via HO₂ channel was higher than those formed via NO/NO₂ channel. The OS concentration coincided with the increase of acidic sulfate aerosols, aerosol acidity and

27 liquid water content (LWC), indicating the acid-catalyzed aqueous-phase formation of OSs in the presence of acidic sulfate
28 aerosols. When sulfate dominated the accumulation of secondary inorganic aerosols (SIAs, sulfate, nitrate and ammonium)
29 ($\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} > 0.5$), OS formation would be obviously promoted as the increasing of acidic sulfate aerosols, aerosol LWC and
30 acidity ($\text{pH} < 2.8$). Otherwise, the acid-catalyzed OS formation would be limited by lower aerosol acidity when nitrate
31 dominated the SIA accumulation. The nighttime enhancement of monoterpene NOSs suggested their formation via nighttime
32 NO_3 -initiated oxidation of monoterpene under high- NO_x conditions. However, isoprene NOSs are supposed to form via
33 acid-catalyzed chemistry or reactive uptake of oxidation products of isoprene. This study provides direct observational
34 evidence and highlights the secondary formation of OSs and NOSs, via the interaction between biogenic precursors and
35 anthropogenic pollutants (NO_x , SO_2 and SO_4^{2-}). The results imply that future reduction in anthropogenic emissions can help
36 to reduce the biogenic SOA burden in Beijing or other areas impacted by both biogenic emissions and anthropogenic
37 pollutants.

38 **1 Introduction**

39 Secondary organic aerosols (SOA), formed by atmospheric oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), accounts
40 for a large fraction of organic aerosols (OA) on the global scale (Jimenez et al., 2009; Guo et al., 2014). However, current
41 models usually underestimate (Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008; Hallquist et al., 2009) or predict the SOA concentration with large
42 uncertainties (Jimenez et al., 2009; Kiehl, 2007; Shrivastava et al., 2017) in ambient atmosphere. Thus, it is important to
43 elucidate potential missing groups of compounds or formation mechanisms. Organosulfates (OSs), commonly formed via the
44 interaction between VOC precursors and acidic sulfate seed particles, could be a potential source of “missing SOA” in
45 current atmospheric models (Surratt et al., 2010). OSs have been observed in various ambient atmospheres, including urban,
46 rural, suburban, forest as well as remote environments (Lin et al., 2012; Meade et al., 2016; Stone et al., 2012; Riva et al.,
47 2015; Brüggemann et al., 2017), which could represent 2-30% of OA (Hawkins et al., 2010; Stone et al., 2012; Frossard et
48 al., 2011; Tolocka and Turpin, 2012; Surratt et al., 2008; Liao et al., 2015).

49 Many chamber experiments studied try to reveal the precursors and formation mechanisms of OSs (Surratt et al., 2010;

50 Surratt et al., 2008; Liggio and Li, 2006; Chan et al., 2011; Shalamzari et al., 2014; Shalamzari et al., 2016; Zhang et al.,
51 2012), which remain unclear. Various biogenic VOCs (BVOCs) precursors have been reported, including isoprene (Hatch et
52 al., 2011; Surratt et al., 2010), monoterpenes (Surratt et al., 2008), sesquiterpenes (Chan et al., 2011), pinonaldehyde (Liggio
53 and Li, 2006), unsaturated aldehydes (Shalamzari et al., 2014; Shalamzari et al., 2016) and 2-methyl-3-buten-2-ol (Zhang et
54 al., 2012). OSs originating from isoprene are some of the most studied compounds and could be among the most abundant
55 OA in some areas (Liao et al., 2015; Chan et al., 2010; Surratt et al., 2010; Lin et al., 2013a; Worton et al., 2013). Isoprene
56 OSs usually form through ring-opening epoxide chemistry catalyzed by acidic sulfate aerosols (Worton et al., 2013; Froyd et
57 al., 2010; Paulot et al., 2009). OSs were also proposed to form by reactive uptake of VOCs or their oxidation products that
58 involves the sulfate radicals (Nozière et al., 2010; Schindelka et al., 2013). The sulfate esterification of alcohols could also
59 be a pathway leading to OSs formation, while Minerath et al (2018) predicted that this mechanism was kinetically
60 insignificant under ambient tropospheric conditions. However, this prediction was based on laboratory bulk solution-phase
61 experiments and the applicability to the liquid-phase on particles suspended in the air is unconfirmed. Nitrooxy
62 organosulfates (NOSs) were observed to form via the nighttime NO_3 -initiated oxidation of VOC precursors (e.g.
63 monoterpene), followed by alcohol sulfate esterification (Iinuma et al., 2007; Surratt et al., 2008). Organic nitrate (R-ONO_2)
64 could also act as precursors to OSs through the nucleophilic substitution of nitrate by sulfate (Hu et al., 2011; Darer et al.,
65 2011).

66 Both aerosol acidity and liquid water content (LWC) are key variables influencing the OS formation processes. OS
67 formation could only happen in the presence of sulfate aerosols, enhanced by increased aerosol acidity, through
68 acid-catalyzed reactive uptake and multiphase reactions of oxidation products (Riva et al., 2016c; Surratt et al., 2010; Lal et
69 al., 2012; Riedel et al., 2015). Previous studies also demonstrated the importance of aqueous-phase or heterogeneous
70 reactions for OS formation (Lal et al., 2012; McNeill et al., 2012; McNeill, 2015; Riedel et al., 2015). On one hand, the
71 increased LWC would decrease the aerosol viscosity, which favors the exchange of organics or other gas molecules into the
72 particles, mass diffusion of reactants and heterogeneous chemical reactions within the particles (Vaden et al., 2011; Booth et
73 al., 2014; Renbaum-Wolff et al., 2013; Shrestha et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015), and thereby enhance the OS formation. On
74 the other hand, more LWC would lead to increased pH due to dilution. For example, Riva et al. (2016) and Duporte et al.

75 (2016) found that the OS formation decreased with higher RH, which was attributed to the increased pH as a result of higher
76 LWC (Duporte et al., 2016; Riva et al., 2016c).

77 To get a comprehensive understanding of the characteristics and formation of OSs in the ambient atmosphere, it is
78 desirable to simultaneously identify and quantify particulate OSs on the molecular level. Soft ionization techniques coupled
79 with ultrahigh-resolution mass spectrometer (UHRMS) have been widely applied to identify various and numerous organics,
80 including OS species, in ambient aerosols or chamber studies (Lin et al., 2012; Blair et al., 2017; Tao et al., 2014; Wang et al.,
81 2016). UHRMS is a powerful analytical tool in gaining an overall characterization of OSs, however, the quantification
82 capability is limited without pre-separation. High performance liquid chromatography coupled to mass spectrometer
83 (HPLC-MS) is suitable for the separation and quantification of different OS compounds. However, one noted limitation is a
84 lack of commercially available authentic standards. As a result, surrogate standards are often used for quantification (He et
85 al., 2014; Riva et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2012), which adds uncertainty to the concentrations (Wang et al., 2017d). Recently,
86 a few research groups quantified some OS species using synthetic authentic standards (e.g. hydroxyacetone sulfate, glycolic
87 acid sulfate, lactic acid sulfate, methyltetrol sulfate, aromatic OSs, α/β -pinene OS, Limonene OS and Limonaketone OS)
88 (Hettiyadura et al., 2017; Hettiyadura et al., 2015; Olson et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2017d; Ma et al., 2014; Budisulistiorini et
89 al., 2015; Staudt et al., 2014), which was very important for understanding the variation and formation of OSs in ambient
90 aerosols.

91 Missing knowledge of formation mechanisms, the complexities of ambient aerosol composition and oxidation condition,
92 and the lack of commercially available standards all hinder us from understanding the formation and fate of OSs in ambient
93 atmosphere. Few field studies has been conducted in urban areas dominated by anthropogenic pollutants (e.g. NO_x , SO_4^{2-}).
94 Observations are lacking to illustrate how severe anthropogenic pollutants could influence the OS formation under different
95 physical environmental conditions. This work reports a comprehensive characterization of particulate OSs in summertime
96 Beijing, a location under the influence of both biogenic and severe anthropogenic sources. This study provides direct
97 observational evidence for gaining insights into OS formation. Orbitrap MS coupled with soft ionization source was used to
98 identify the overall molecular composition of S-containing organics. HPLC-MS was then applied to quantify some OSs and
99 NOS species in ambient aerosols using newly synthesized authentic standards and surrogate standards. Previously proposed

100 formation pathways of OS or NOS (e.g. acid-catalyzed aqueous-phase chemistry, nighttime NO₃ chemistry) were considered,
101 and the influence of different environment conditions or factors on the formation were comprehensively elaborated. It has
102 been suggested that both aqueous-phase chemistry and nighttime NO₃ chemistry play important roles in the heavy haze of
103 Beijing (Wu et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2017b; Wang et al., 2017a). Using OSs and NOSs as examples, this work illustrates
104 SOA formation via acid-catalyzed aqueous-phase chemistry, nighttime NO₃ chemistry under the interaction between
105 abundant anthropogenic pollutants and biogenic emissions.

106 **2 Methods**

107 **2.1 Sample collection**

108 This study was a part of the bilateral Sweden-China framework research program on ‘Photochemical smog in China:
109 formation, transformation, impact and abatement strategies’, focusing on the SOA formation under the influence of
110 anthropogenic pollutants (Hallquist et al., 2016). An intensive field campaign was conducted at Changping (40.14° N,
111 116.11° E), a regional site 38 km northeast of the Beijing urban area, China. The campaign was conducted from May 15 to
112 June 23, 2016, when the site was influenced by high biogenic emissions from vegetation in the nearby mountains and
113 anthropogenic pollutants from the nearby villages and Beijing urban areas (Tang et al., 2017). During May 17- June 5, the
114 average concentrations of isoprene, monoterpenes, benzene, toluene and NO_x were 297, 83, 441, 619 pptv and 22.7 ppb,
115 respectively.

116 Ambient aerosols were collected from May 16 to June 5. PM_{2.5} (particles with aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 μm)
117 samples were collected on prebaked quartz fiber filters (Whatman Inc.) and Teflon filters (Whatman Inc.) using a
118 high-volume sampler (TH-1000C, Tianhong, China) and a 4-channel sampler (TH-16A, Tianhong, China). The sampling
119 flow rates were 1.05 m³/min and 16.7 L/min, respectively. The daytime samples were collected from 8:30 to 17:30 and
120 nighttime ones from 18:00 to 8:00 the next morning. Field blank samples were collected by placing filters in the samplers
121 with the pump off for 30 min. The period May 20 - June 3 will be discussed in this study.

122 2.2 Orbitrap MS analysis

123 An Exactive Plus-Orbitrap MS (Thermo Scientific Inc., Bremen, Germany) equipped with a heated electrospray
124 ionization (ESI) source was used to identify the overall molecular composition of OSs. Details of the extraction and data
125 analysis have been described in Wang et al. (2017c). Briefly, a portion of filter was extracted with ultrapure water in an
126 ultrasonic bath for 40 min and the extracts were filtered with 0.45 μm pore size PTFE syringe filter (Gelman Sciences). The
127 filter portion size was adjusted to yield ~ 200 μg OC in each extract, in order to decrease the variation of ion suppression
128 arising from varying coexisting organic components. The influence of ion suppress was illustrated in the Appendix S1. The
129 extract sample was then loaded onto a solid phase extraction (SPE) cartridge (DSC-18, Sigma-Aldrich, USA) to remove
130 inorganic ions and low molecular weight (MW) organic acids (Lin et al., 2010), followed by elution with methanol. Some
131 selected OS species with low MW would also be removed by the SPE clean-up procedure, which will be discussed in section
132 3.1. The methanol eluate was dried under a gentle stream of N_2 and re-dissolved in acetonitrile/water (1:1) solvent for
133 Orbitrap MS analysis.

134 The Orbitrap MS was operated in negative mode (ESI⁻). The mass calibration was conducted using a standard mixture
135 of N-butylamine, caffeine, MAFA, sodium dodecyl sulfate, sodium taurocholate and Ultramark 1621, with the scan range set
136 to be 90-900 m/z . The Orbitrap MS had a mass resolving power of 140,000 at $m/z = 200$. Each sample was analyzed for three
137 times with at least 100 full-scan spectra acquired in each analysis. The recorded mass spectra were processed and exported
138 using the Xcalibur software (V2.2, Thermo Scientific). Peaks with a signal-to-noise ratio ≥ 10 were exported. All the
139 mathematically possible formulas for each ion were calculated with a mass tolerance of 2 ppm. Each exported molecular
140 formula was allowed containing certain elements and limited by several conservative rules (Wang et al., 2017c). Elements
141 ^{12}C , ^1H , ^{16}O , ^{14}N , ^{32}S and ^{13}C were allowed in the molecular formula calculations. The H/C, O/C, N/C and S/C ratios were
142 limited to 0.3- 3.0, 0- 3.0, 0- 0.5 and 0- 2.0. The assigned formulas were also restrained by the double bond equivalent values
143 and the nitrogen rule for even electron ions. More details about the molecular formula assignment have been introduced in
144 Wang et al. (2017c). The background spectra were obtained by analyzing the corresponding field blank sample following the

145 same procedure. Peaks were eliminated from the list if their intensities were lower than ten times of those in the blank
146 sample.

147 **2.3 Quantification of OSs and NOSs using HPLC-MS**

148 An aliquot of 25 cm² was removed from each filter sample and extracted in ultrasonic bath three times using 3, 2 and 1
149 mL methanol consecutively, each time for 30 min. The extracts were then filtered through a 0.25 μm polytetrafluoroethylene
150 (PTFE) syringe filter (Pall Life Sciences), combined, evaporated to dryness under a gentle stream of high-purity nitrogen and
151 re-dissolved in 50 μL methanol/water (1:1) containing 1 ppm D₁₇-octyl sulfate as internal standard. The solution was
152 centrifuged and the supernatant was used for analysis, using Agilent 1260 LC system (Palo Alto, CA) coupled to QTRAP
153 4500 (AB Sciex, Toronto, Ontario, Canada) mass spectrometer. The LC/MS was equipped with an ESI source operated in
154 negative mode. The optimized MS conditions and details of the method have been described in our previous study (Wang et
155 al., 2017d). Chromatographic separation was performed on an Acquity UPLC HSS T3 column (2.1 mm×100 mm, 1.8 μm
156 particle size; Waters, USA) with a guard column (HSS T3, 1.8 μm). The mobile eluents were (A) water containing 0.1%
157 acetic acid (v/v) and (B) methanol (v/v) containing 0.1% acetic acid at a flow rate of 0.19 mL/min. The gradient elution was
158 set as follows: the composition started with 1% B for 2.7 min; increased to 54% B within 12.5 min and held for 1.0 min; then
159 increased to 90% B within 7.5 min and held for 0.2 min; and finally decreased to 1% B within 1.8 min and held for 17.3 min
160 until the column was equilibrated. The column temperature was kept at 45 °C and the injection volume was 5.0 μL.

161 The quantified OS and NOS species are listed in Table 1. The monoterpene NOSs (C₁₀H₁₆NO₇S⁻ and C₉H₁₄NO₈S⁻) were
162 quantified using the [M-H]⁻ ions in the extracted ion chromatogram (EIC) and other species were quantified in
163 multiple-reaction monitoring (MRM) mode. OSs and NOSs were quantified using authentic standards or surrogates with
164 similar molecular structures (Table 1). Lactic acid sulfate (LAS) and glycolic acid sulfate (GAS) were prepared according to
165 Olson et al. (2011). The purity of LAS and GAS are 8% and 15%, determined by ¹H NMR analysis using dichloroacetic acid
166 as an internal standard, and the recovery are 89.5% and 94.9%, respectively. Four monoterpene derived OS standards were
167 synthesized and the details are given in Wang et al. (2017). The purity of the four monoterpene OS standards are higher than
168 99% and the recovery are 80.5%-93.5% (Table S1). OSs with similar carbon chain structures usually have similar MS

169 responses (Wang et al., 2017d). Lactic acid sulfate was employed as a surrogate standard to quantify isoprene OSs due to
170 their similar structures and retention times (Table 1). α -pinene OS and limonaketone OS were respectively used to quantify
171 monoterpene NOSs $C_{10}H_{16}NO_7S^-$ and $C_9H_{14}NO_8S^-$ due to the similar carbon structures (Table 1). For the molecule with
172 isomers, quantification was performed by summing up the peak areas of the isomers, treated as one species (e.g.,
173 monoterpene NOSs with $[M-H]^-$ at m/z 294 were treated as one NOS species).

174 **2.4 Other online and offline measurements**

175 A high resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) was employed to measure the chemical composition
176 of $PM_{1.0}$. The operation procedures and data analysis have been described in Zheng et al. (2017). VOCs were measured by a
177 proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS). Meteorological parameters, including relative humidity (RH),
178 temperature, wind direction and wind speed (WS) were continuously monitored by a weather station (Met one Instrument
179 Inc.) during the campaign. Organic carbon (OC) was analyzed using thermal/optical carbon analyzer (Sunset Laboratory).
180 The organic matter (OM) concentration was calculated by multiplying OC by 1.6 (Turpin and Lim, 2001). Water soluble
181 inorganic ions and low MW organic acids (e.g. oxalic acid) were quantified by an ion chromatograph (IC, DIONEX,
182 ICS2500/ICS2000) following procedures described in Guo et al. (2010). After performing quality assurance/quality control
183 for IC measurements, the data (ions, pH, LWC) derived from IC measurements in the daytime samples of May 26 and 29
184 were excluded in the following analysis. Gaseous NH_3 was measured using a NH_3 analyzer (G2103, Picarro, California,
185 USA) (Huo et al., 2015). Aqueous phase $[H^+]$ and LWC were then calculated with the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic
186 model. ISORROPIA-II was operated in forward mode, assuming the particles are “metastable” (Hennigan et al., 2015;
187 Weber et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2015). The input parameters included: ambient RH, temperature, particle phase inorganic
188 species (SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , Cl^- , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Na^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+}), and gaseous NH_3 . The thermodynamic calculations were validated by
189 the good agreement between measured and predicted gaseous NH_3 (slope=0.99, $R^2=0.97$) (see Appendix S2 for details). The
190 contribution of organics to LWC was not considered in this study. Our previous study in Beijing has suggested that LWC
191 associated with organic species was insignificant (<6%), compared to that of secondary inorganic aerosols (Wu et al., 2018)
192 (see Fig. S3 for the comparison between LWC with or without water associated with organic compounds). Previous study

193 also suggested that the predicted aerosol acidity or pH without consideration of organic water could also be sufficient for
194 discussing aqueous SOA chemistry in this study, due to the minor effect on aerosol pH (0.15- 0.23) (Guo et al., 2015).

195 **3 Results and discussion**

196 **3.1 Overall molecular characterization of S-containing organics**

197 On average, 62% of the observed peaks in ESI negative mode are assigned with unambiguous molecular formulas. All
198 the assigned formulas were classified into four major categories based on their elemental compositions, including CHO,
199 CHON, CHOS and CHONS. As an example, CHONS refers to compounds that contain C, H, O, N and S elements in the
200 formula. Other compound categories are defined analogously. The percent of different compound categories in terms of
201 number and intensity are shown in Fig. S4 and Fig. 1, in which ‘others’ (e.g. CH, CHN, CHS, CHNS) refer to the
202 compounds excluded from the above major compound categories. During pollution episodes, the number and intensity
203 percent of S-containing compounds (CHOS and CHONS) increased obviously (Fig. 1, S4). The OC content in each sample
204 for Orbitrap MS analysis was kept roughly constant to minimize variation arising from matrix ion suppression. Taking the
205 nighttime sample of May 24 (0524N) as an example of clean days and the nighttime sample of May 30 (0530N) as an
206 example of polluted days, the mass spectra of different compound categories in each sample are shown and compared in Fig.
207 1 (a) and (b). The increase in S-containing organics indicated their important contribution to SOA when the pollution
208 accumulated. What’s more, the S-containing compounds contributed more to the higher MW formulas than CHO (O_1-O_{10}) or
209 CHON (O_1-O_{11}) compounds (Fig. 1), due to the existence of more O (CHOS: O_1-O_{12} , CHONS: O_1-O_{14}) atoms and
210 heteroatoms (S, N) in the molecules. The increasing trend of S-containing organics (Fig S4), with larger MW than those of
211 CHO or CHON, may play important roles in the increase of SOA mass concentrations during pollution episodes.

212 The CHOS formulas with $O/S \geq 4$ allow the possible assignment of a sulfate group in the molecules (i.e., OSs) (Lin et
213 al., 2012). Among all the identified CHOS formulas, 60%-99% (93% on average) and 66-100% (96% on average) of them
214 could be assigned as OSs in terms of number and intensity percent. Analogously, the CHONS formulas with $O/(S+N) \geq 7$
215 could likely be NOSs formulas, which account for 22-78% (53% on average) by number and 18-94% (61% on average) by

216 intensity of all the identified CHONS formulas. As OSs and NOSs were assigned based on the molecular formulas alone, we
217 could not completely exclude the possibility of CHOS being hydroxysulfonates and CHONS being nitro-OSs due to the lack
218 of MS/MS analysis. According to previous study, the presences of organosulfonate or nitro-OSs were usually limited
219 compared to those of OSs or nitrooxy-OSs (Lin et al., 2012), thus they were not taken into consideration in this study. A total
220 of 351 OSs and 181 NOSs formulas were identified among all the samples during the campaign. The temporal variation of
221 the total number and intensity of OSs and NOSs are shown in Fig. S4. During pollution episodes (nighttime of May 27 - the
222 nighttime of May 28, nighttime of May 29 - the nighttime of May 30), the total number and intensity of OSs formulas
223 increased (Fig. S4). The total number of NOSs also showed similar increase trend during pollution episodes, while the total
224 intensity of NOSs showed nighttime enhancement during the whole observation period (Fig. S4). Previous studies suggested
225 that some NOS species could form via NO_3 -initiated oxidation under high- NO_x conditions at night (Surratt et al., 2008;
226 Iinuma et al., 2007; Gomez-Gonzalez et al., 2008), which will be further discussed in the following sections.

227 Some of the more abundant OSs and NOS peaks identified in the samples on the clean day (05/24N) or during pollution
228 episodes (05/30D, 05/30N) are listed in Table S2. For example, deprotonated molecules $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{15}\text{SO}_7^-$, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{17}\text{SO}_7^-$ and
229 $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{17}\text{SO}_6^-$ were observed among the highest OS peaks in samples during pollution episodes (Table S2). These compounds
230 could be derived from the oxidation of alkanes or diesel fuel based on previous chamber studies (Riva et al., 2016c; Blair et
231 al., 2017). Many OSs previously designated as biogenic origins were also found in the anthropogenic sources (Blair et al.,
232 2017), which may raise uncertainty when assigning OS sources in field observation studies. OS compounds derived from
233 anthropogenic VOC precursors were widely observed in ambient aerosols (Table S2), while they were not quantified due to
234 the lack of standards in this paper. They will be further investigated in our future studies. Other OS molecules (e.g.
235 $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{15}\text{SO}_6^-$, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{17}\text{SO}_5^-$) could be formed via the oxidation of monoterpenes (Surratt et al., 2008). For NOSs, ions
236 $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{NO}_7\text{S}^-$, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{NO}_9\text{S}^-$ and $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{NO}_{10}\text{S}^-$ were among the highest peaks (Table S2). They could form via the nighttime
237 NO_3 -initiated oxidation of monoterpenes (Surratt et al., 2008). These are just some examples with higher relative intensity
238 (RI). The RI may not accurately represent their relative concentration levels in each sample, as the MS responses of different
239 OSs are also influenced by different carbon chain structures (Wang et al., 2017d). The OS species of low MW and short
240 carbon chain structures (with fewer than 6 carbon atoms in the molecule) are little retained on the SPE cartridges due to their

241 highly water-soluble and more hydrophilic properties (Gomez-Gonzalez et al., 2008; Lin et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2010). As
242 such, they were largely absent among the OS formulas detected by Orbitrap MS in this work. Hydroxyacetone sulfate
243 ($C_3H_5O_5S^-$) was detected by Orbitrap MS only in several samples with relatively higher concentrations. Hydroxycarboxylic
244 acid sulfate ($C_2H_3O_6S^-$, $C_3H_5O_6S^-$) or isoprene OSs ($C_4H_7O_7S^-$, $C_5H_7O_7S^-$, $C_5H_{11}O_7S^-$) are also sufficiently hydrophilic that
245 little of them would be in the SPE eluate fraction, which was subjected for Orbitrap MS analysis. This explains why these
246 highly water-soluble OS species with lower MW are absent in Fig. 1. Though these OS species were not detected by Orbitrap
247 MS, some of them were quantified with high concentrations in the ambient aerosols in the LC/MS analysis (Table 1), as the
248 sample aliquots for the LC/MS analysis did not involve SPE treatment.

249 **3.2 Abundance of identified OSs and NOSs in ambient aerosols**

250 To further investigate the abundance and formation pathways of OSs and NOSs in ambient aerosols, some species were
251 then quantified by HPLC-MS using authentic standards when available or surrogate standards. The quantified species could
252 usually be formed via the interaction between biogenic precursors (e.g. isoprene, monoterpene) and anthropogenic pollutants
253 (e.g. SO_4^{2-} , NO_x), which have been reported in previous chamber studies (Surratt et al., 2007; Surratt et al., 2008; Surratt et
254 al., 2010). A total of ten OSs and three NOS species were quantified in this study and their concentrations are listed in Table
255 1. The molecules with the same molecular formula were treated as one species (e.g., monoterpene NOSs with $[M-H]^-$ at m/z
256 294 were treated as one NOS species). The average concentrations of all the quantified OSs were 41.4 ng/m^3 during the
257 campaign. The total OSs accounted for 0.31% of OM, with a maximum contribution of 0.65% on the night of May 30. The
258 total concentrations of quantified NOSs were 13.8 ng/m^3 , corresponding to 0.11% of OM, with a maximum contribution of
259 0.35% on the night of May 23.

260 The concentrations of each OS or NOS species across this and prior studies were summarized in Table S3. The relative
261 contribution of each species to the total OSs or NOSs is shown in Fig. 2. GAS was the most abundant species among all the
262 quantified species. The concentrations of GAS were $3.9\text{-}58.2 \text{ ng/m}^3$, with an average of 19.5 ng/m^3 . The concentrations were
263 higher than those observed in Mexico ($4.1\text{-}7.0 \text{ ng/m}^3$), California ($3.3\text{-}5.4 \text{ ng/m}^3$) or Pakistan (11.3 ng/m^3) (Olson et al.,
264 2011) (Table S3). The GAS concentration level at Beijing was comparable to those reported in summertime Alabama, US

265 (8-26.2 ng/m³) (Table S3), a location characterized by high biogenic emissions and affected by anthropogenic pollutants
266 (Hettiyadura et al., 2015; Hettiyadura et al., 2017; Rattanavaraha et al., 2016). The concentrations of LAS were 0.7-12.0
267 ng/m³, with an average of 4.4 ng/m³. The LAS concentrations were also higher than those observed in Mexico (1.2-1.8
268 ng/m³), California (0.6-0.8 ng/m³) or Pakistan (3.8 ng/m³), while lower than those observed in Alabama, US (16.5 ng/m³)
269 (Olson et al., 2011; Hettiyadura et al., 2015; Hettiyadura et al., 2017) (Table S3). Carboxylic acids mainly form via
270 aqueous-phase oxidation in cloud or particle water, including both biogenic and anthropogenic sources (Charbouillot et al.,
271 2012; Chebbi and Carlier, 1996). The relatively higher level of hydroxycarboxylic acid sulfate could be attributed to the
272 favorable interaction between sulfate aerosols and carboxylic acids or other precursors in summertime Beijing, while the
273 precursors and mechanisms remain unclear. Oxalic acid is usually the most abundant dicarboxylic acid in the atmosphere
274 (Guo et al., 2010; Narukawa et al., 2003). The average concentration of oxalic acid in fine particles was 0.22 μg/m³, which
275 was at a relatively high concentration level when comparing with those reported in previous studies (0.02-0.32 μg/m³)
276 (Agarwal et al., 2010; Bikina et al., 2017; Boreddy et al., 2017; Deshmukh et al., 2017; Kawamura et al., 2010; Narukawa
277 et al., 2003). Strong inter-correlations were found among GAS, LAS and hydroxyacetone sulfate (HAS) (Table S4),
278 indicating their potentially similar precursors or formation pathways. They also showed strong correlations with isoprene
279 oxidation products (MVK+MACR) and isoprene OSs (Table S4), suggesting isoprene oxidized products as potential
280 precursors of GAS, LAS and HAS. It is suggested that both hydroxyacetone and carboxylic acids could be produced from
281 the oxidation of isoprene (Fu et al., 2008; Carlton et al., 2009). GAS, LAS and HAS have been reported to form via isoprene
282 oxidation in the presence of acidic sulfate (Riva et al., 2016b; Surratt et al., 2008). GAS was also observed to form via
283 sulfate induced oxidation of methyl vinyl ketone (MVK), oxidation product of isoprene (Schindelka et al., 2013).

284 The concentration of quantified isoprene OSs (C₄H₇O₇S⁻, C₅H₇O₇S⁻ and C₅H₁₁O₇S⁻) was 14.8 ng/m³, contributing to 36 %
285 of the total quantified OSs in this study. The isoprene OSs were lower than those observed in southeastern US, with
286 substantial isoprene emissions and impacted by anthropogenic pollutants, in which authentic standards were employed to
287 quantify the isoprene OSs (Rattanavaraha et al., 2016). We used lactic acid sulfate as a surrogate standard to quantify
288 isoprene OSs on the basis of their similar structures and retention times (Table 1). The isoprene concentration in southeastern
289 US (1.9 ppb) (Xu et al., 2015) was much higher than that observed during our campaign (297 pptv). Besides the lower VOC

290 precursors and measurement uncertainty, the lower isoprene OSs in this study could be attributed to different atmospheric
291 conditions in Beijing from those in southeastern US. The IEPOX formation under low-NO_x conditions (HO₂ channel),
292 usually with higher yields than the oxidation products under high-NO_x conditions (NO/NO₂) (Worton et al., 2013), could be
293 suppressed under the high-NO_x conditions (see section 3.4 for the high-NO_x conditions) in Beijing (Zhang et al., 2017; Hu et
294 al., 2015). The RH in Beijing was lower than that in southeast US (Xu et al., 2015), which possibly led to an increase of
295 aerosol viscosity and a decrease of diffusivity within the particles, resulting in lower OS formation (Shiraiwa et al., 2011).
296 Moreover, the OM-coated particle structures observed in Beijing could reduce the reactive uptake of isoprene oxidation
297 products (Li et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018; Riva et al., 2016a), which may be another possible reason for lower isoprene
298 OSs in this study. The concentrations were comparable to those observed in suburban area of mid-Atlantic or Belgium and
299 higher than those observed at the background site of Pearl River Delta (PRD) region, China (Meade et al., 2016;
300 Gómez-González et al., 2012; He et al., 2014), in which glycolic sulfate ester, ethanesulfonic acid or camphor sulfonic acid
301 were employed as surrogate standards. The isoprene OSs formed via HO₂ channel (C₅H₁₁O₇S⁻) were observed to be higher
302 than that formed via NO/NO₂ channel (C₄H₇O₇S⁻) (Table 1) (Worton et al., 2013). Isoprene had higher mixing ratio during
303 the daytime (Fig. S5 (b)), when OH radicals dominated the atmospheric oxidation capacity. Furthermore, the yield of
304 isoprene oxidation via HO₂ channel is proposed to be higher than that via NO/NO₂ channel (Worton et al., 2013). The
305 concentration of C₅H₇O₇S⁻ was comparable to that of C₅H₁₁O₇S⁻ (Table 1). C₅H₇O₇S⁻ was suggested to be formed via
306 isoprene oxidation and related to C₅H₁₁O₇S⁻ (Surratt et al., 2008), while the formation mechanism remains unclear. The
307 concentration of isoprene NOSs (C₅H₁₀NO₉S⁻) was lower than that of individual isoprene OSs. Strong inter-correlations were
308 observed between isoprene OSs and NOSs (Table S4), suggesting their similar formation pathways via acid-catalyzed
309 epoxide chemistry (Worton et al., 2013).

310 The average concentration of monoterpene OSs (α -pinene OSs, β -pinene OSs, limonene OSs and limonaketone OSs)
311 was 0.6 ng/m³, lower than those observed in mid-Atlantic (Meade et al., 2016) or the Pearl River Delta in southern China
312 where more abundant emissions of BVOC precursors are expected (Wang et al., 2017d; He et al., 2014) (Table S3). The
313 contribution of monoterpene OSs was much lower than that of isoprene OSs or other OSs (Fig. 2, Table 1), as the mixing
314 ratio of monoterpene (83 pptv) was lower than that of isoprene (297 pptv) during the campaign. Furthermore, the reactivity

315 of monoterpenes with OH radical is lower than that of isoprene (Carlton et al., 2009; Paulot et al., 2009; Atkinson et al.,
316 2006). Different from isoprene OSs, the four monoterpene OS species didn't show strong correlations with each other (Table
317 S4), which may suggest their different oxidation mechanisms. While the contribution of monoterpene OSs was low, the
318 monoterpene NOSs ($C_{10}H_{16}NO_7S^-$) were the second most abundant signals among the observed species (Table 1, Table S2),
319 especially in the nighttime samples. The concentration of monoterpene NOSs ($C_{10}H_{16}NO_7S^-$) was much higher than those
320 observed in mid-Atlantic or Belgium (Meade et al., 2016; Gómez-González et al., 2012), while lower than that observed in
321 Pearl River Delta, South China (He et al., 2014). $C_{10}H_{16}NO_7S^-$ was also identified to be among the highest peaks in the mass
322 spectra recorded by Orbitrap MS (Fig. 1 (b)), with a RI of 83% in the sample of 05/30N (Table S2). The monoterpene NOSs
323 could be formed via nighttime NO_3 -initiated oxidation under high- NO_x conditions (Surratt et al., 2008; Iinuma et al., 2007;
324 Gomez-Gonzalez et al., 2008). During the observation, both monoterpenes and NO_x showed higher mixing ratios at night
325 (Fig. S5 (a), (d)), favorable for the NO_3 -initiated formation of NOSs.

326 3.3 OS formation via acid-catalyzed aqueous-phase chemistry

327 The time series of the total OS concentrations quantified by HPLC-MS are shown in Fig. 3, along with the
328 meteorological conditions, SO_2 , aerosol LWC, acidity, $PM_{2.5}$ and the major chemical components. Most OS species showed
329 similar trends to the total OSs (Fig. S6), except for α -pinene OSs and β -pinene OSs, observed at very low concentrations.
330 During the campaign, particles were generally acidic with a pH range of 2.0- 3.7, favorable for OS formation (Fig. 3). The
331 aerosol acidity is indicated by aqueous phase $[H^+]$ in this study. The OS concentrations generally followed a similar trend to
332 that of sulfate aerosols (Fig. 3). The total OS concentrations showed strong correlations with sulfate ($r=0.67$) or aerosol
333 acidity ($r=0.67$), suggesting the driving role of acidic sulfate aerosols in the OS formation (Table S4).

334 During the observation period, three pollution episodes (episodes I, II, III) were identified based on the $PM_{2.5}$
335 concentrations, which are marked by gray shadow in Fig. 3. The back trajectories, average concentrations of VOC precursors
336 and oxidants during each episode are also shown in Table S5. The most significant increase trend of OSs was observed
337 during pollution episode III (nighttime of May 29 - the nighttime of May 30). During this episode, the accumulation of
338 secondary inorganic aerosols (SIAs), referring to sulfate, nitrate and ammonium in this study, was dominated by sulfate.

339 SIAs, especially sulfate and nitrate salts, represent the most important components driving the particle hygroscopicity (Wu et
340 al., 2018; Xue et al., 2014), thus the aerosol LWC increased with SIAs (Fig. 3). The increase of aerosol acidity was also
341 observed during this episode (Fig. 3). OSs increased to the highest level (129.2 ng/m^3) during the campaign under the
342 condition of high sulfate aerosols, high aerosol acidity and LWC (Fig. 3), suggesting the acid-catalyzed aqueous-phase
343 formation of OSs in the presence of acidic sulfate aerosols. The higher aerosol LWC encountered during these periods would
344 also favor the uptake of gas-phase reactants into particle phase, due to the decrease of viscosity and increase of diffusivity
345 within the particles (Shiraiwa et al., 2011). Moreover, the oxidant levels, indicated by O_x ($\text{NO}_2 + \text{O}_3$) in this study (Herndon et
346 al., 2008), were much higher than the other two episodes, which favored the formation of VOC oxidation products (e.g.
347 MVK+MACR) (Table S5). This is another reason for higher OSs concentration level during episode III. During pollution
348 episode II (nighttime of May 27 - the nighttime of May 28), the OS concentration level was lower than that during episode
349 III. It is noted that the increase of sulfate, aerosol LWC and acidity were also less than that during episode III, indicating less
350 aqueous-phase formation of OSs. During this episode, the increase of SIAs was attributed to both sulfate and nitrate, the two
351 with comparable contribution to the total SIAs. Different from episodes II and III, the SIAs accumulation was dominated by
352 nitrate during episode I (May 21- 23). OS and sulfate aerosols stayed at medium concentration level, lower than those during
353 the other two episodes. During the daytime of May 21, aerosol acidity increased due to the elevated relative contribution of
354 sulfate than that of nitrate, thus the OS concentration also increased. During the daytime of May 23, higher aerosol LWC
355 was observed due to the rapid increase of nitrate, however, the aerosol acidity was lower as a result of the less contribution
356 from sulfate. Thus, the increase of OS concentration was not very obvious. The OS formation may be limited by the aerosol
357 acidity, indicating the importance of acid-catalyzed chemistry. Stronger correlations between OSs and sulfate ($r=0.67$) or
358 aerosol acidity ($r=0.67$) compared with that between OSs and LWC ($r=0.55$) also suggest the importance of acid-catalyzed
359 chemistry for OSs formation. The back trajectories during episode I were different from those during episode II or III (Table
360 S5), which could be one reason for different conditions (e.g. SIA composition) during episode I. This episode ended with the
361 rain elimination event on the afternoon of May 23. The OSs were at low concentrations from May 24 to the daytime of May
362 27, when sulfate, SO_2 , aerosol acidity and LWC were noticeably lower than the other periods, restraining the OS formation.

363 The three pollution episodes were characterized by different inorganic aerosol composition and aerosol properties (e.g.

364 acidity, LWC), resulting in different levels of OS formation. The concentrations and relative contribution of sulfate, aerosol
365 acidity and LWC are important factors influencing OS formation. The OS concentrations generally increased with the
366 increasing of sulfate, aerosol acidity and LWC (Fig. 3), suggesting more active OS formation via acid-catalyzed
367 aqueous-phase reactions in the presence of sulfate. These influencing factors were interrelated. Both sulfate and nitrate are
368 important hygroscopic components (Chan and Chan, 2005; Wu et al., 2018; Xue et al., 2014), favoring the water uptake of
369 aerosols and thus increasing LWC. The increasing of aerosol LWC with SIAs was observed (Fig. 3). A previous study also
370 suggested that at a given RH, aerosol LWC was nearly linearly related to the sum of nitrate and sulfate mass concentrations
371 (Guo et al., 2016). The variation of SIA composition and LWC would then influence the aerosol acidity (Liu et al., 2017;
372 Guo et al., 2016). In this study, higher aerosol acidity was observed with elevated contribution of sulfate among SIAs (Fig.
373 3). This is in accord with a previous study suggesting that particle pH was generally below 2 when aerosol anionic
374 composition was dominated by sulfate ($\text{NO}_3^-/2\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ mole ratio >1) (Guo et al., 2016).

375 To further elucidate the major factors influencing OS formation and their interrelations with SIA compositions, the
376 distribution of OS concentrations as a function of $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs}$ mass concentration ratios and other related factors are plotted
377 in Fig. 4. The aerosol LWC generally increased with the increasing of the SIA mass concentrations, while the aerosol acidity
378 was also influenced by the relative contribution of SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- to SIAs. When the SIAs were dominated by SO_4^{2-}
379 ($\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} > 0.5$), the aerosol acidity increased obviously as a function of $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs}$ mass concentration ratios and the pH
380 values were generally below 2.8 (Fig. 4 (b, d)). The high aerosol acidity was favorable for OS formation and OS
381 concentration also increased as a function of sulfate mass concentration and fraction (Fig. 4 (a)). The pollution episode III
382 (Fig. 3) was the typical case for this condition. When the SIAs were dominated by nitrate ($\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} < 0.5$), high LWC may
383 occur due to the high concentrations of hygroscopic SIAs, while the aerosol acidity was relatively lower due to the lower
384 sulfate fraction than that of nitrate (Fig. 4). The increase trend of OSs as a function of sulfate or $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs}$ mass
385 concentration ratios was not as obvious as the sulfate-dominant condition ($\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} > 0.5$), as the OS formation may be
386 limited by lower aerosol acidity. The daytime of May 23 during pollution episode I (Fig. 3) was the typical case for this
387 atmospheric condition. Overall, the OS formation would obviously be promoted via acid-catalyzed aqueous-phase reactions,
388 when the SIAs accumulation was dominated by sulfate ($\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} > 0.5$).

389 3.4 Monoterpene NOS formation via the nighttime NO₃ oxidation

390 A recent study suggested that nearly all the BVOCs could be oxidized overnight, dominated by reactions via NO₃
391 oxidation, at a NO_x/BVOCs ratio higher than 1.4 (Edwards et al., 2017). When we roughly estimated the BVOCs
392 concentration to be the sum of isoprene, MVK+MACR, and monoterpenes, the NO_x/BVOCs ratios were higher than 10 at
393 night (Fig. S5). This indicated the dominant nighttime BVOCs loss via NO₃-initiated oxidation in summer of Beijing. The
394 oxidation of BVOCs was found to be controlled by NO₃ oxidation rather than O₃ oxidation during the campaign, which
395 contributed to a total of 90% of BVOCs reactivity at night (Wang et al., 2018). Nighttime enhancement of monoterpene
396 NOSs was clearly observed under high-NO_x conditions (Fig. 5). The nighttime concentrations of C₁₀H₁₆NO₇S⁻ and
397 C₉H₁₄NO₈S⁻ were respectively 1.3-31.4 (9.8 on average) and 0.9-19.7 (5.8 on average) times larger than daytime
398 concentrations. Higher mixing ratios of monoterpenes were observed at night (Fig. S5), when the high NO_x concentrations
399 (Fig. 5) favored the formation of monoterpene NOSs via NO₃-initiated oxidation of monoterpenes. The elevated nighttime
400 concentrations of monoterpene NOSs was also observed in previous studies (Surratt et al., 2008; Iinuma et al., 2007;
401 Gomez-Gonzalez et al., 2008). High correlation between N₂O₅ and NO₂ or NO₃ radical production were observed (Wang et
402 al., 2018), so the NO₂ concentration was employed to investigate NO₃ oxidation during the campaign in this study. Higher
403 concentrations of monoterpene NOSs (C₁₀H₁₆NO₇S⁻) were found with elevated NO₂ levels at night (Fig. 6), indicating the
404 plausibility of more NOS formation via NO₃-initiated oxidation. When NO₂ increased to higher than 20 ppb, the NOS
405 concentration did not further increase obviously with NO₂, which suggested that NO₂ was in excess and no longer the
406 limiting factor in NOS formation. The highest nighttime concentration of C₁₀H₁₆NO₇S⁻ was recorded on May 27 during
407 episode II (Fig. 5). Besides the high NO₂ concentration (>20 ppb), the high monoterpene level was another primary reason
408 for the elevated concentration of monoterpene NOSs (Table S5).

409 The lower concentrations of monoterpene NOSs during the daytime could be attributed to the lower monoterpene, NO_x
410 and NO_x/BVOCs ratios than those at night (Fig. S5). What's more, monoterpene NOSs, also as organic nitrate (R-ONO₂)
411 compounds, may go through decomposition via photolysis or OH oxidation during the daytime (He et al., 2011;
412 Suarez-Bertoa et al., 2012). Organic nitrates have been estimated to have a short lifetime of several hours (Lee et al., 2016).

413 Elevation in concentrations of monoterpene NOSs were also observed with the increasing of NO_2 during daytime, but the
414 concentrations were much lower and the increase was less prominent than that during the nighttime (Fig. 6). The highest
415 daytime concentration of $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{NO}_7\text{S}^-$ was recorded on May 23 (10.6 ng/m^3), followed by the daytime of May 31 (8.0
416 ng/m^3). The NO_2 concentrations were in the range of 20-25 ppb and 10-15 ppb during the daytime of May 23 and 31,
417 respectively. It is noted that the $J(\text{O}^1\text{D})$ values during the daytime of May 23 and 31 were much lower than other daytime
418 periods (Fig. 5), indicating the possibility of less decomposition of monoterpene NOSs. Previous studies also reported that
419 the organic nitrate have much shorter lifetimes than the corresponding OSs, thus it is possible that organic nitrates derived
420 from monoterpene would undergo nucleophilic attack by sulfate and form monoterpene OSs or NOSs (He et al., 2014; Darer
421 et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2011). Monoterpene NOSs could also undergo hydrolysis and form monoterpene OSs (Darer et al.,
422 2011; Hu et al., 2011). These may be other potential pathways for the loss of monoterpene NOSs and production of
423 monoterpene OSs. These potential formation pathways of monoterpene OSs were different from the formation pathways via
424 acid-catalyzed aqueous-phase reactions. This could be another explanation for the different temporal variations of some
425 monoterpene OSs (Fig. S6) from other OSs.

426 3.5 Formation pathways of isoprene OSs and NOSs

427 Different from the day-night variation trend of monoterpene NOSs, isoprene NOSs ($\text{C}_5\text{H}_{11}\text{NO}_9\text{S}^-$) displayed similar
428 temporal variation to isoprene OSs and the total OSs (Fig. 7). Formation of the isoprene NOSs are supposed to have similar
429 limiting factors to those affecting isoprene OSs, rather than those limiting the nighttime NO_3 -initiated formation of
430 monoterpene NOSs. The strong correlation between isoprene OSs and NOSs also indicated their similar formation pathways
431 or limiting factors in the formation (Table S4). The oxidation of isoprene could form isoprene epoxydiols (IEPOX),
432 hydroxymethyl-methyl-lactone (HMML) or methacrolein (MACR) and methacrylic acid epoxide (MAE) (Paulot et al., 2009;
433 Lin et al., 2013b; Worton et al., 2013; Nguyen et al., 2015). Both isoprene OSs and NOSs showed strong correlations with
434 isoprene oxidation products (MVK+MACR) (Table S4). The isoprene OSs could be formed through ring-opening epoxide
435 reactions of isoprene oxidation products, which was shown to be a kinetically feasible pathway (Minerath and Elrod, 2009;
436 Worton et al., 2013). Isoprene OSs were also proposed to form by reactive uptake and oxidation of MVK or MACR

437 (oxidation products of isoprene) initiated by the sulfate radicals (Nozière et al., 2010; Schindelka et al., 2013). Isoprene
438 NOSs generally increased with the increasing of isoprene oxidation products (MVK+MACR) and acidic sulfate aerosols
439 (Figs. 3 and 7, Table S4). It indicates isoprene NOSs form via acid-catalyzed reactions or reactive uptake of oxidation
440 products of isoprene by sulfate, rather than NO_3 -initiated oxidation pathways. The highest concentrations of isoprene OSs
441 and NOSs were observed during the nighttime of May 30 during episode III (Fig. 7), with high sulfate, MVK+MACR,
442 aerosol acidity and LWC (Fig. 3, Table S5). In the formation of isoprene OSs or NOSs, epoxides first form carbocation
443 intermediates through acid-catalyzed hydrolysis reactions, and then sulfate ions serve as nucleophiles in the subsequent fast
444 step forming OSs or NOSs (Minerath and Elrod, 2009). The presence of high levels of sulfate may effectively facilitate the
445 ring-opening reaction of epoxide or reactive uptake of oxidation products and subsequent OSs or NOS formation (Surratt et
446 al., 2010). The proposed formation mechanisms of isoprene NOSs are needed to be further investigated and validated
447 through laboratory studies.

448 Although the isoprene NOS formation was not via the NO_3 -initiated oxidation pathways, the NO_3 radical could be
449 involved in the formation pathways and influence the yield of isoprene NOSs. Considering the different atmospheric
450 conditions during the daytime and nighttime, we analyzed the variation of daytime and nighttime isoprene NOSs separately
451 (Fig. 8). Generally, higher concentrations of isoprene NOSs were found with elevated NO_2 or MVK+MACR concentration
452 levels. During daytime, the correlation of isoprene NOSs with NO_2 ($r=0.74$) was stronger than that with MVK+MACR
453 ($r=0.69$) (Fig. 8). When MVK+MACR was higher than 0.7 ppb, the NOS concentrations did not increase further with
454 MVK+MACR. It was likely that the biogenic VOCs precursors were in surplus under this condition and the formation of
455 isoprene NOSs may be limited by the lower daytime NO_2 concentration, sulfate aerosols or other factors. During daytime,
456 the MVK+MACR concentrations were generally higher and NO_x was lower (Fig. S5), thus the NO_2 level may limit the
457 daytime formation of isoprene NOSs. During nighttime, a strong correlation between isoprene NOS and MVK+MACR
458 ($r=0.94$) was observed, while the increase trend of isoprene NOSs as a function of NO_2 ($r=0.53$) was not so obvious and their
459 correlation was lower (Fig. 8). During nighttime, the NO_x concentrations were generally higher and MVK+MACR
460 concentrations were lower (Fig. S5), thus the concentrations of isoprene oxidation products (e.g. MVK+MACR) may be the
461 limiting factor for the nighttime formation of isoprene NOSs. The threshold (e.g. NO_x /isoprene ratio, NO_x /isoprene oxidation

462 products ratio) that makes the transition from NO_x-limited to isoprene-limited (or isoprene oxidation products) still need
463 further investigation through laboratory studies.

464 **4 Conclusions**

465 An intensive field campaign was conducted to investigate the characterization and formation of OSs and NOSs in
466 summer of Beijing, under the influence of abundant biogenic emissions and anthropogenic pollutants (e.g. NO_x, SO₂ and
467 SO₄²⁻). The overall molecular characterization of S-containing organics (CHOS, CHONS) was made through ESI-Orbitrap
468 MS data. More than 90% of the CHOS formulas could be assigned as OSs and more than half of the CHONS formulas could
469 be assigned as NOSs, based on the molecular formulas. The number and intensity of OSs and NOSs increased significantly
470 during pollution episodes, which indicated they might play important roles for the SOA accumulation.

471 To further investigate the distribution and formation pathways of OSs and NOSs in complex ambient atmosphere, some
472 species were quantified using HPLC-MS, including ten OSs and three NOS species. The total concentrations of quantified
473 OSs and NOSs were 41.4 and 13.8 ng/m³, respectively, accounting for 0.31% and 0.11% of organic matter. Glycolic acid
474 sulfate was the most abundant species (19.5 ng/m³) among all the quantified OS species. The strong correlations between
475 GAS, LAS, HAS and isoprene OSs indicated their potential formation pathways via isoprene oxidation in the presence of
476 acidic sulfate aerosols. The concentration of isoprene OSs was 14.8 ng/m³ and the isoprene OSs formed via HO₂ channel was
477 higher than that via NO/NO₂ channel. The contribution of monoterpene OSs was much smaller than other OSs, while the
478 monoterpene NOSs (C₁₀H₁₆NO₇S) were observed at high concentration (12.0 ng/m³), especially in nighttime samples.

479 OS concentrations generally increased with the increase of acidic sulfate aerosols, aerosol acidity and LWC, indicating
480 the acid-catalyzed aqueous-phase formation of OSs in the presence of acidic sulfate aerosols as an effective formation
481 pathway. The sulfate concentration, SIA composition, aerosol acidity, and LWC are important factors influencing the OS
482 formation. When sulfate dominated the SIAs accumulation (SO₄²⁻/SIAs > 0.5), the aerosol acidity would increase obviously
483 as a function of SO₄²⁻/SIAs mass concentration ratios and the pH values were generally below 2.8. Thus, the OS formation
484 would be obviously promoted as the increasing of acidic sulfate aerosols, aerosol acidity and LWC. When the SIAs

485 accumulation were dominated by nitrate ($\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} < 0.5$), high aerosol LWC may occur, while the OS formation via
486 acid-catalyzed reactions may be limited by relatively lower aerosol acidity.

487 The NO_3 -initiated oxidation dominated the nighttime BVOCs loss in summertime Beijing, with the NO_x/BVOCs ratios
488 higher than 10 at night. Significant nighttime enhancement of monoterpene NOSs was observed, indicating the formation via
489 NO_3 -initiated oxidation of monoterpene under high- NO_x conditions. Higher concentrations of monoterpene NOSs were
490 found with elevated NO_2 levels at night and NO_2 ceased to be a limiting factor for NOS formation when higher than 20 ppb.
491 The lower daytime concentrations of monoterpene NOSs could be attributed to the lower production and the decomposition
492 during daytime. Different from the monoterpene NOS formation via NO_3 -initiated oxidation, isoprene NOSs and OSs are
493 supposed to form via acid-catalyzed chemistry or reactive uptake of the oxidation products of isoprene, which is needed to
494 be further investigated through laboratory studies. The daytime NO_2 concentration could be a limiting factor for isoprene
495 NOS formation, while the nighttime formation was limited by isoprene or its oxidation products. The proposed formation
496 mechanisms of isoprene NOSs as well as the limiting factors still need further investigation in laboratory studies.

497 This study highlights the formation of OSs and NOSs via the interaction between biogenic VOC precursors and
498 anthropogenic pollutants (NO_x , SO_2 and SO_4^{2-}) in summer of Beijing. Our study reveals the accumulation of OSs with the
499 increase of acidic sulfate aerosols and the nighttime enhancement of monoterpene NOSs under high- NO_x conditions. The
500 acidic sulfate aerosols and high nighttime NO_x or N_2O_5 concentrations were observed in Beijing in our observation and also
501 other studies (Liu et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017b; Wang et al., 2017a), which provide favorable conditions for the formation
502 of OSs and NOSs. The results imply the importance of reducing anthropogenic emissions, especially NO_x and SO_2 , to reduce
503 the biogenic SOA burden in Beijing, and also in areas with abundant biogenic emissions and anthropogenic pollutants.
504 Moreover, the OSs or NOSs could be treated as key SOA species when exploring the biogenic-anthropogenic interactions as
505 well as organic-inorganic reactions.

506

507 *Data availability.* The dataset is available upon request by contacting Min Hu (minhu@pku.edu.cn).

508

509 **The Supplement related to this article is available online**

510

511 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

512

513 *Acknowledgements.* This work was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (91544214, 41421064,
514 51636003); National research program for key issues in air pollution control (DQGG0103); National Key Research and
515 Development Program of China (2016YFC0202000: Task 3); bilateral Sweden-China framework program on
516 'Photochemical smog in China: formation, transformation, impact and abatement strategies' (639-2013-6917).

517

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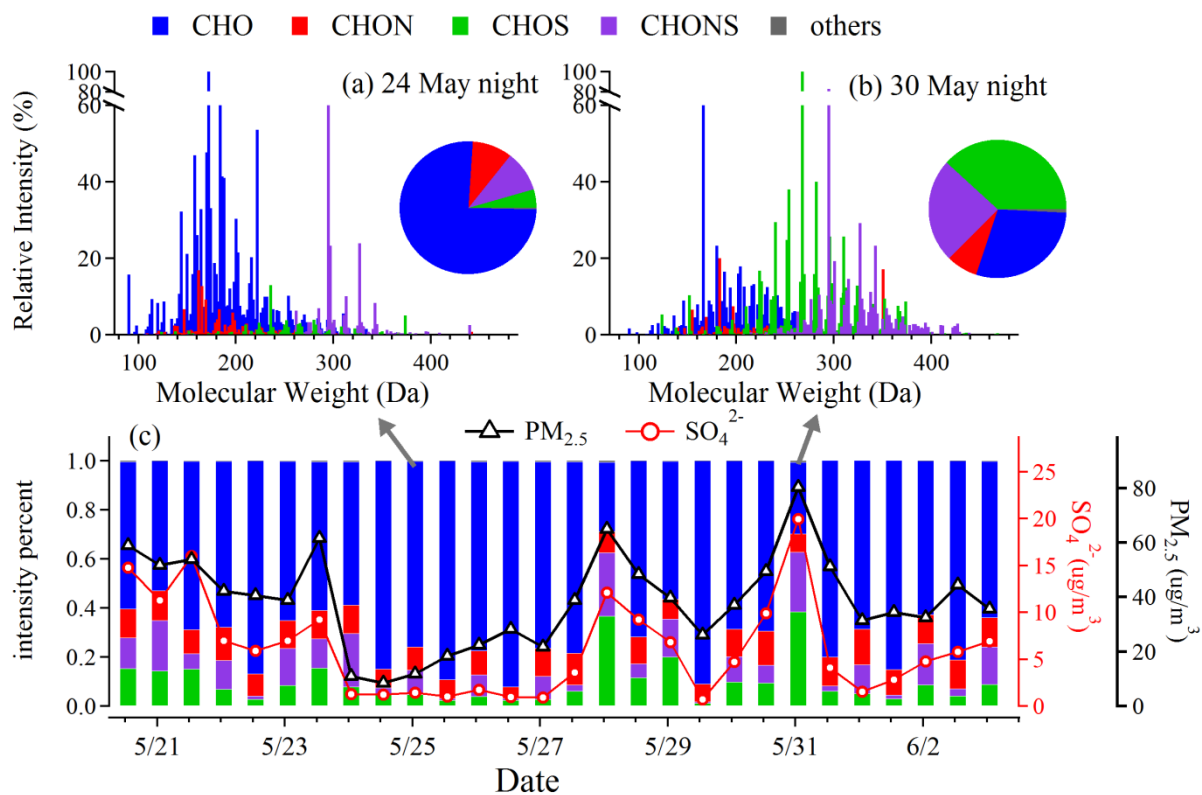
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876 Figure 1 The intensity distribution of different compound categories (CHO, CHON, CHOS and CHONS) (a) on a clean day

877 and (b) on a polluted day. (c) Temporal variation of $PM_{2.5}$, SO_4^{2-} and intensity percentages of different compound categories.

878 The highly water-soluble OS species (e.g. isoprene OSs) with lower MW are absent in these figures and details are described

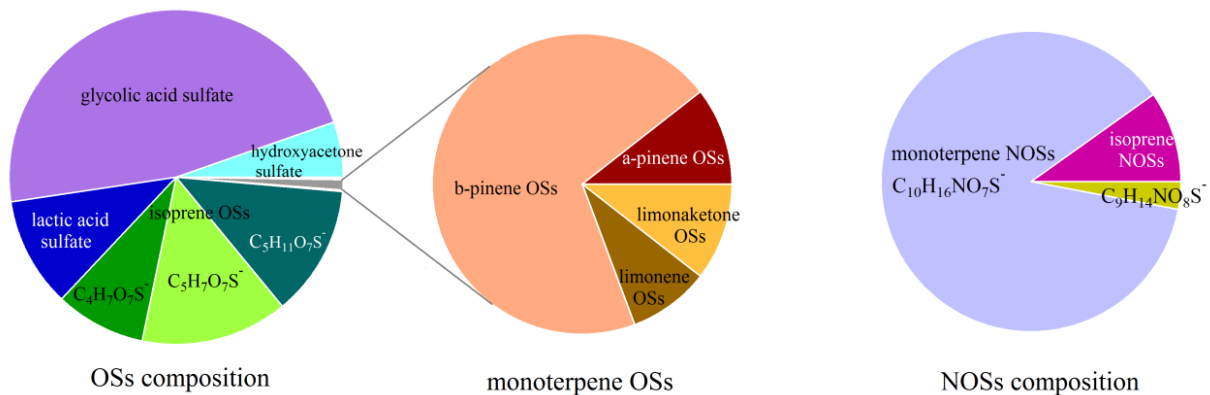
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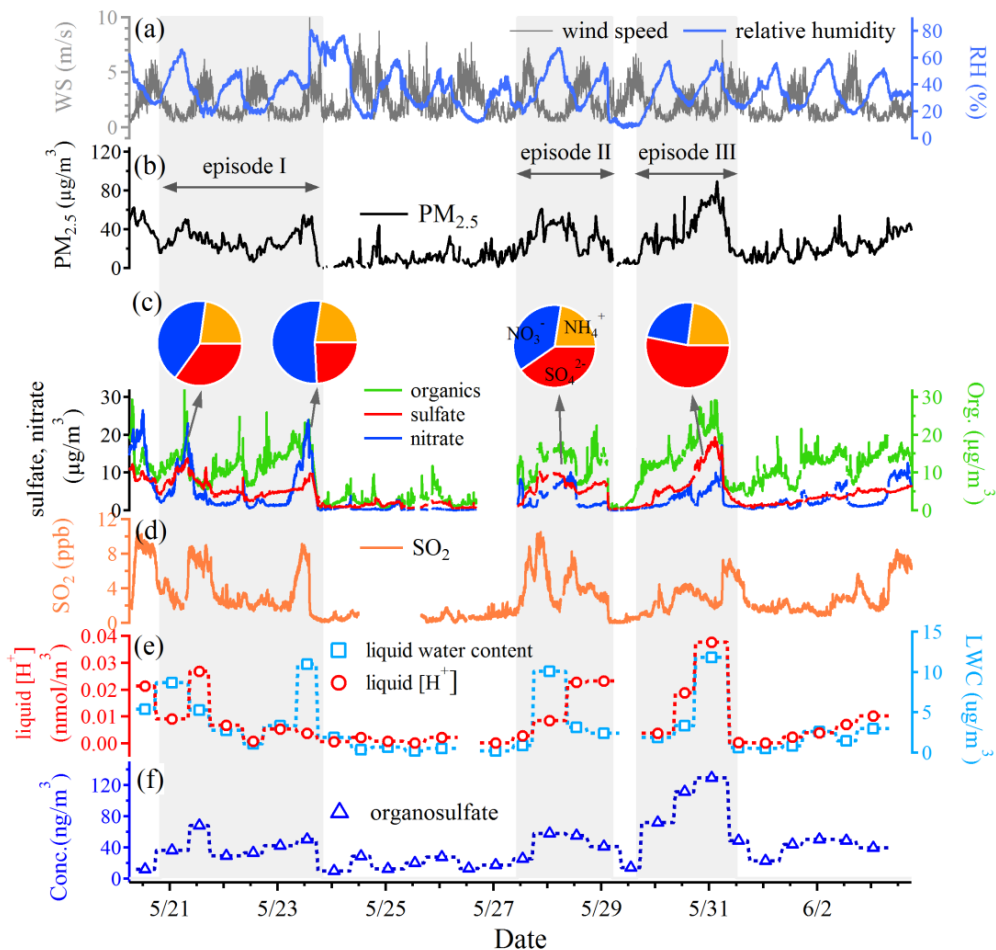
885 Figure 2 The relative contribution of different OS and NOS species. Only the selected species (semi-)quantified by

886 HPLC-MS are included in this figure.

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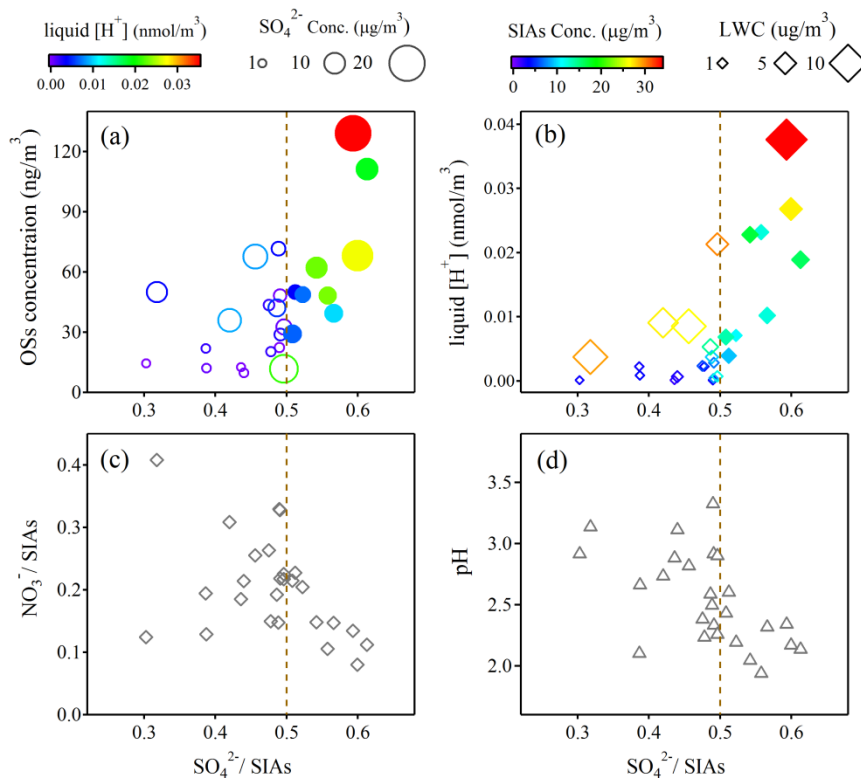
891 Figure 3 Time series of (a) wind speed (WS) and relative humidity (RH), (b) PM_{2.5}, (c) mass concentrations of organics,
 892 sulfate, nitrate and composition of secondary inorganic aerosols during pollution episodes (d) SO₂, (e) liquid water content
 893 (LWC) and aqueous phase [H⁺], and (f) the total concentrations of OSs quantified by HPLC-MS. The pollution episodes
 894 were marked by gray shadow.

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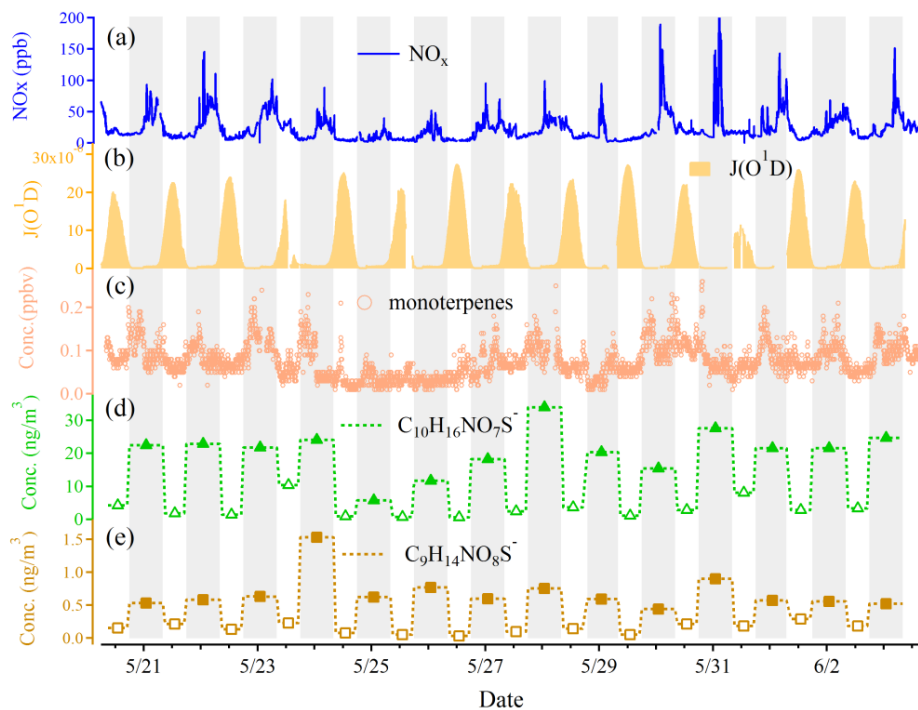
900 Figure 4 (a) The OS concentrations as a function of the $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs}$ mass ratios. The circles are colored according to the
 901 liquid $[\text{H}^+]$ concentration and the sizes of the circles are scaled to the SO_4^{2-} mass concentration. (b) The liquid $[\text{H}^+]$ as a
 902 function of the $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs}$ mass ratios. The markers are colored according to the SIAs mass concentrations and the sizes of
 903 the markers are scaled to the liquid water content (LWC). (c) The $\text{NO}_3^-/\text{SIAs}$ mass ratios as a function of the $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs}$
 904 mass ratios. (d) The aerosol pH as a function of the $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs}$ mass ratios. The solid markers represent those among the
 905 range $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} > 0.5$ and hollow markers represent those among the range $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} < 0.5$ in figure (a) and (b). When
 906 sulfate dominated the accumulation of secondary inorganic aerosols ($\text{SO}_4^{2-}/\text{SIAs} > 0.5$), both aerosol LWC and acidity ($\text{pH} <$
 907 2.8) increased and OS formation was obviously promoted. In comparison, the acid-catalyzed OS formation was limited by
 908 lower aerosol acidity under nitrate-dominant conditions.

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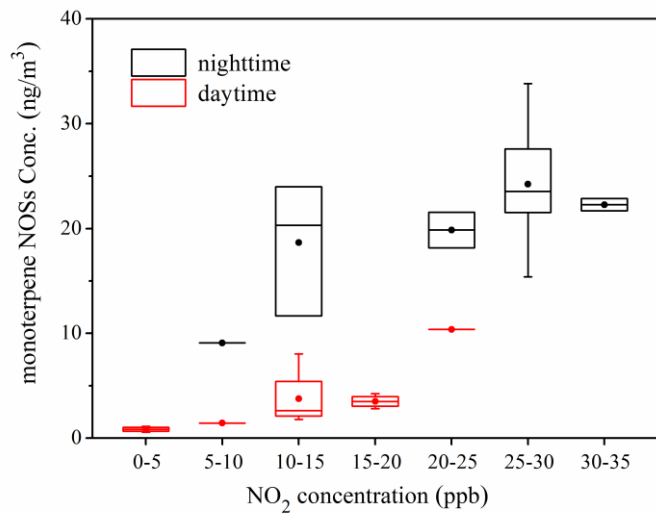
914 Figure 5 Time series of (a) NO_x, (b) J(O¹D), (c) monoterpene, (d) monoterpene NOSs (C₁₀H₁₆NO₇S) and (e) limonaketone

915 NOSs (C₉H₁₄NO₈S). The gray background denotes the nighttime and white background denotes the daytime.

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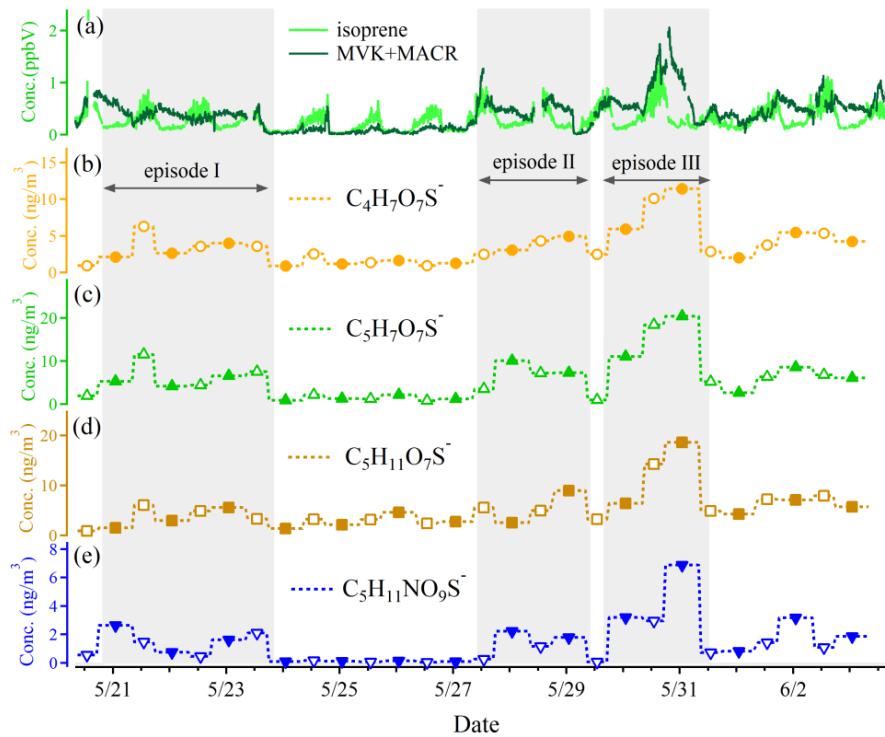


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920 Figure 6 The concentrations of monoterpane NOSs ($C_{10}H_{16}NO_7S^-$) as a function of NO_2 concentration bins (ppb) during
 921 daytime and nighttime. The closed circles represent the mean values and whiskers represent 25 and 75 percentiles.

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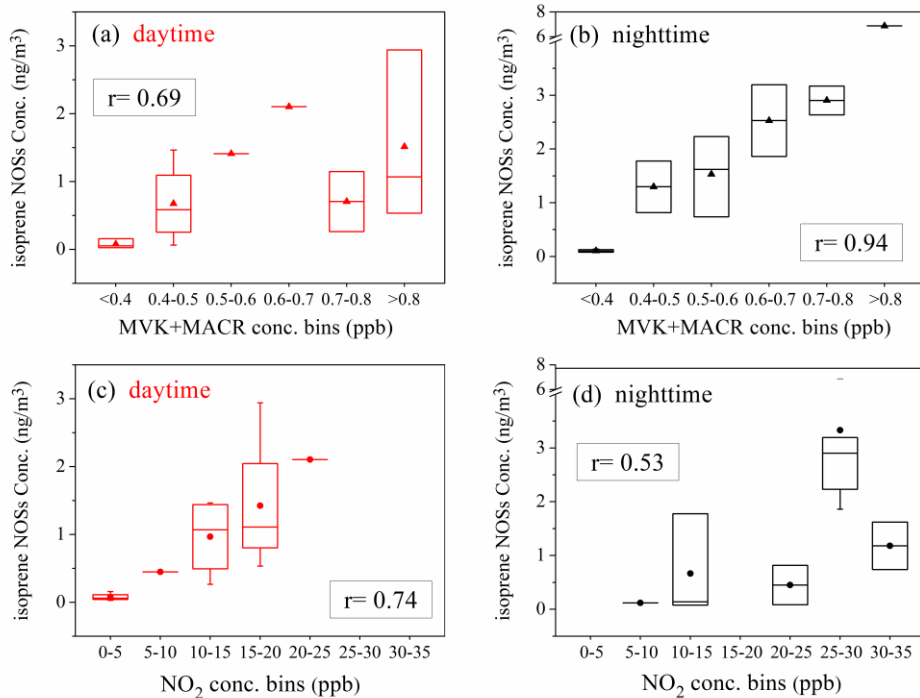
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925 Figure 7 Time series of (a) isoprene and MVK+MACR, isoprene OSs (b) $C_4H_7O_7S^-$, (c) $C_5H_7O_7S^-$, (d) $C_5H_{11}O_7S^-$ and (e)
 926 NOSs ($C_5H_{11}NO_9S^-$). The pollution episodes were marked by gray shadow. MVK and MACR are the abbreviations of
 927 methyl vinyl ketone and methacrolein, respectively.

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930 Figure 8 The isoprene NOSs ($C_5H_{11}NO_9S^-$) concentrations as a function of NO_2 or MVK+MACR concentration bins (ppb)

931 and the correlations between isoprene NOSs ($C_5H_{11}NO_9S^-$) and NO_2 or MVK+MACR. The closed markers in the box

932 represent the mean values and whiskers represent 25 and 75 percentiles in each concentration bin. The r value in each panel

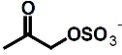
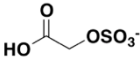
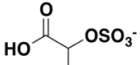
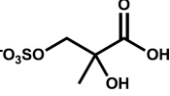
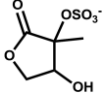
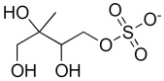
933 represents the correlation coefficient between isoprene NOSs and NO_2 or MVK+MACR concentrations.

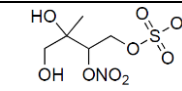
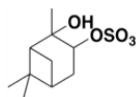
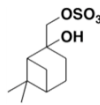
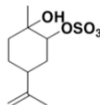
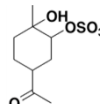
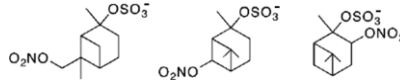
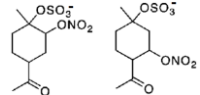
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Tables

Table 1 Organosulfates and nitrooxy-organosulfates quantified by HPLC-MS

common name	formula	[M-H] ⁻	retention time (min)	standard	structure	concentration (ng/m ³)	
						range	average (n=28)
Hydroxyacetone sulfate (HAS)	C ₃ H ₅ O ₅ S ⁻	152.99	1.7, 2.5	Glycolic acid sulfate	 (Hettiyadura et al., 2015)	0.5-7.5	2.2
Glycolic acid sulfate (GAS)	C ₂ H ₃ O ₆ S ⁻	154.97	1.6, 2.3	Glycolic acid sulfate	 (Olson et al., 2011)	3.9-58.2	19.5
Lactic acid sulfate (LAS)	C ₃ H ₅ O ₆ S ⁻	168.98	1.6, 2.6	Lactic acid sulfate	 (Olson et al., 2011)	0.7-11.9	4.4
	C ₄ H ₇ O ₇ S ⁻	198.99	1.5, 2.9	Lactic acid sulfate	 (Lin et al., 2013b; Surratt et al., 2007; Hettiyadura et al., 2015)	0.9-11.4	3.6
Isoprene OSs	C ₅ H ₇ O ₇ S ⁻	210.99	1.8, 2.9	Lactic acid sulfate	 (Surratt et al., 2008; Hettiyadura et al., 2015)	0.8-20.4	5.9
	C ₅ H ₁₁ O ₇ S ⁻	215.02	1.6, 2.0	Lactic acid sulfate	 (He et al., 2014; Surratt et al., 2008)	0.9-18.7	5.3

Isoprene NOS	$C_5H_{10}NO_9S^-$	260.01	4.9	Lactic acid sulfate	 (Surratt et al., 2007)	0.03-6.9	1.4
α -pinene OS	$C_{10}H_{17}O_5S^-$	249.08	22.7	α -pinene OS	 (Wang et al., 2017d; Surratt et al., 2008)	0.01-0.5	0.06
β -pinene OS	$C_{10}H_{17}O_5S^-$	249.08	22.4, 23.4	β -pinene OS	 (Wang et al., 2017d; Surratt et al., 2008)	0.07-0.8	0.4
Limonene OS	$C_{10}H_{17}O_5S^-$	249.08	21.8, 23.8	Limonene OS	 (Wang et al., 2017d)	0.01-0.1	0.05
Limonaketone OS	$C_9H_{15}O_6S^-$	251.06	14.0	Limonaketone OS	 (Wang et al., 2017d)	0.00-0.2	0.06
Monoterpene NOSs	$C_{10}H_{16}NO_7S^-$	294.06	24.8, 26.6, 27.1	α -pinene OSs	 (Surratt et al., 2008; He et al., 2014)	0.6-33.8	12.0
	$C_9H_{14}NO_8S^-$	296.04	21.1	Limonaketone OS	 (Surratt et al., 2008)	0.03-1.5	0.4