# 1 Efficient N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> Uptake and NO<sub>3</sub> Oxidation in the Outflow of Urban Beijing

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19 we present the measurements of dinitrogen pentoxide (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) associated with nitryl chloride (ClNO<sub>2</sub>) 20 and particulate nitrate  $(pNO_3)$  in a suburban site of Beijing in the summer of 2016. High levels of 21 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> were observed in the outflow of the urban Beijing air masses, with 1-min average 22 maxima of 937 pptv and 2900 pptv, respectively. The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients,  $\gamma$ , and ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield, f, 23 were experimentally determined from the observed parameters. The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficient ranged 24 from 0.012 to 0.055, with an average of  $0.034 \pm 0.018$ , which is in the upper range of previous field 25 studies reported in North America and Europe but is a moderate value in the North China Plain (NCP), 26 which reflects efficient N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous processes in Beijing. The ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield exhibited high 27 variability, with a range of 0.50 to unity and an average of  $0.73 \pm 0.25$ . The concentration of the nitrate 28 radical (NO<sub>3</sub>) was calculated assuming that the thermal equilibrium between NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was 29 maintained. In NO<sub>x</sub>-rich air masses, the oxidation of nocturnal biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) was dominated by NO<sub>3</sub> rather than O<sub>3.</sub> The production rate of organic nitrate (ON) via 30 NO<sub>3</sub>+BVOCs was significant, with an average of  $0.10 \pm 0.07$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>. We highlight the importance 31 32 of NO<sub>3</sub> oxidation of VOCs in the formation of ON and subsequent secondary organic aerosols in 33 summer in Beijing.

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#### 37 **1. Introduction**

38 It has been well recognized that reactive nitrogen compounds, specifically the nitrate radical  $(NO_3)$ 39 and dinitrogen pentoxide (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), play a key role in nighttime chemistry (Wayne et al., 1991; Brown and Stutz, 2012). NO<sub>3</sub> is the most important oxidant in the nighttime and can be considered the 40 41 nighttime analogue of the hydroxyl radical (OH) for certain VOCs (Wayne et al., 1991; Benton et al., 42 2010). NO<sub>3</sub> can initiate the removal of many kind of anthropogenic and biogenic emissions after sunset. In  $NO_x$ -rich plumes,  $NO_3$  is responsible for the vast majority of the oxidation of biogenic VOCs 43 44 because of its rapid reactions with unsaturated hydrocarbons (Edwards et al., 2017). NO<sub>3</sub> is 45 predominantly formed by the reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> with O<sub>3</sub> (R1) and further reacts with NO<sub>2</sub> to produce N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> (R2). N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> is rapidly decomposed back to NO<sub>3</sub> (R3), NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> are in dynamic equilibrium 46 47 in the troposphere.

$48 \qquad \mathrm{NO}_2 + \mathrm{O}_3 \to \mathrm{NO}_3 + \mathrm{O}_2 \tag{1}$	R1)	
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 $49 \qquad NO_2 + NO_3 + M \rightarrow N_2O_5 + M \tag{R2}$ 

$$50 \qquad N_2O_5 + M \rightarrow NO_2 + NO_3 + M \tag{R3}$$

51 Photolysis of NO<sub>3</sub> and the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with NO are rapid, which lead to a daytime NO<sub>3</sub> lifetime 52 being shorter than 5 s with extremely low concentrations, whereas in low-NO air masses, the fate of NO<sub>3</sub> is mainly controlled by the mixing ratios of various VOCs and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis 53 54 because the two terms are the dominating loss pathways of NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. The VOCs reaction is 55 significant downwind of an urban area or a strongly urban-influenced forested area in summer. The 56 NO<sub>3</sub> oxidation of VOCs was responsible for more than 70% nocturnal NO<sub>3</sub> loss in Houston (Stutz et 57 al., 2010) and contributed approximately 50% in the forest region in Germany (Geyer et al., 2001). 58 The reactions of NO<sub>3</sub> with several BVOCs produce considerable amounts of organic nitrates (ON) 59 with efficient yields, which act as important precursors of secondary organic aerosols (SOA). The reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with isoprene has a SOA mass yield of 23.8% (Ng et al., 2008). For the reaction with 60 monoterpene, such as limonene, the SOA mass yield can reach 174% at ambient temperatures (Boyd 61 62 et al., 2017). The reactions of NO<sub>3</sub>+BVOCs are critical to the studies of aerosols on regional and global scales (Fry et al., 2009; Rollins et al., 2009; Pye et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2017). For example, ON had 63 64 extensive percentages of fine particulate nitrate (pNO3<sup>-</sup>) (34% - 44%) in Europe (Kiendler-Scharr et 65 al., 2016).

The heterogeneous hydrolysis of  $N_2O_5$  produces soluble nitrate (HNO<sub>3</sub> or NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and nitryl chloride (ClNO<sub>2</sub>) on chloride-containing aerosols (R4) (Finlayson-Pitts et al., 1989). This reaction is known to be an important intermediate in the NO<sub>x</sub> removal processes (Brown et al., 2006). The pseudo-first order loss rate constant of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> via heterogeneous uptake is given in Eq. 1 (Wahner et al., 1998).

- 70  $N_2O_5 + (H_2O \text{ or } Cl^-) \rightarrow (2 f) NO_3^- + f ClNO_2$  (R4)
- 71  $k_{N205} = 0.25 \cdot c \cdot \gamma (N_2 O_5) \cdot S_a$  (Eq. 1)

Where *c* is the mean molecule speed of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>,  $S_a$  is the aerosol surface concentration and  $\gamma$ (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) is the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficient. N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis is one of the major uncertainties of the NO<sub>3</sub> budget since the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficient can be highly variable and difficult to quantify (Brown and Stutz, 2012; Chang et al., 2011; H. C. Wang et al., 2016). Laboratory and field measurement studies

76 have reported that the  $N_2O_5$  uptake coefficient has large variability and ranges from <0.001 to 0.1; the 77 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficient depends on relative humidity (RH), particle morphology, compositions (water content, nitrate, sulfate, organic or mineral particles) and other factors (Wahner et al., 1998; Mentel et 78 79 al., 1999; Hallquist et al., 2003; Thornton et al., 2003; Thornton et al., 2005; Brown et al., 2006; 80 Bertram and Thornton, 2009; Tang et al., 2012, 2014; Gaston et al., 2014; Grzinic et al., 2015; Tang et 81 al., 2017). The coupled chemical mechanisms in ambient conditions are still not well understood. 82 ClNO<sub>2</sub> forms and accumulates with a negligible sink during the night and further photolyzes and liberates the chlorine radical (Cl) and NO<sub>2</sub> after sunrise. Hundreds of pptv to ppbv of ClNO<sub>2</sub> can lead 83 84 to several ppbv of  $O_3$  enhancement and significant primary  $RO_x$  production (Osthoff et al., 2008; Thornton et al., 2010; McLaren et al., 2010; Riedel et al., 2014; Sarwar et al., 2014; Tham et al., 2016). 85 86 Large amounts of NO<sub>x</sub> have been emitted for the past several decades in China, but comprehensive 87 field studies of the nighttime chemical processes of reactive nitrogen oxides remain sparse. Previous 88 studies have found high mixing ratios of NO<sub>3</sub> associated with high NO<sub>3</sub> reactivity in the megacities in 89 China, including Shanghai, the Pearl River Delta (PRD) and Beijing (Li et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013; 90 Wang et al., 2015). The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> concentration was elevated in Beijing (H. C. Wang et al., 2017a; H. C. 91 Wang et al., 2017c) but was moderate in other places of North China Plain (NCP), such as Wangdu, 92 Jinan and Mount Tai (Tham et al., 2016; X. F. Wang et al., 2017; Z. Wang et al., 2017). Recently, the 93 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients were determined to be very high, even up to 0.1 in NCP, but the reason is still 94 not well studied (H. C. Wang et al., 2017c; X. F. Wang et al., 2017; Z. Wang et al., 2017). Reactive 95 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> chemistry was also reported in Hong Kong, and showed the highest field-observed N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> 96 concentration to date (T. Wang et al., 2016; Brown et al., 2016). Observations and model simulations 97 revealed that fast heterogeneous uptake of  $N_2O_5$  is an important pathway of pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation in China 98 (H. C. Wang et al., 2017b; H. C. Wang et al., 2017c; Z. Wang et al., 2017; Su et al., 2017); the reaction 99 also contributed significantly to removal (Z. Wang et al., 2017; Brown et al., 2016). Moreover, chlorine 100 activation from N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake had a significant effect on daytime photolysis chemistry in China (Xue et 101 al., 2015; Li et al., 2016; Tham et al., 2016; T. Wang et al., 2016).

In this study, to quantify the contribution of NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> chemistry to the atmospheric oxidation capacity and the NO<sub>x</sub> removal process in the outflow of urban Beijing, we report the measurement of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, ClNO<sub>2</sub>, and related species in the surface layer of a suburban site in Beijing and determine the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous uptake coefficients and ClNO<sub>2</sub> yields. The nighttime NO<sub>3</sub> oxidation of biogenic VOCs and its impact on the ON formation in the NO<sub>x</sub>-rich region were diagnosed. Finally, the nighttime NO<sub>x</sub> removal via NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> chemistry was estimated and discussed.

# 108 **2. Method**

# 109 **2.1 The site**

Within the framework of a Sino-Sweden joint research project, "Photochemical Smog in China", a summer field campaign was conducted in Beijing to enhance our understanding of the secondary chemistry via photochemical smog and the heterogeneous reactions (Hallquist et al., 2016). The data presented here were collected at a regional site, PKU-CP (Peking University Changping campus), from 23 May to 5 June 2016. The measurement site is located in the northern rural area of Beijing, approximately 45 km from the city center; the closest road is approximately 1 km to the south, and there are no major industry in the surroundings (Figure. 1). The site is surrounded to the north, east and west by mountains. The general feature of this site is that it captures air masses with strong influences from both urban and biogenic emissions. Instruments were set up on the fifth floor of the main building of the campus with inlets approximately 12 m above the ground. Time is given in this paper as CNST (Chinese National Standard Time = UTC+8 h). During the campaign, sunrise was at

121 05:00 CNST and sunset was at 19:30 CNST.

#### 122 **2.2 Instrument setup**

123 A comprehensive suite of trace gas compounds and aerosol properties was measured in the field study, 124 and the details are listed in Table 1. N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was measured by a newly developed cavity enhanced absorption spectrometer (CEAS; H. C. Wang et al., 2017a). In the CEAS, ambient N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was thermally 125 decomposed to NO<sub>3</sub> in a perfluoroalkoxy alkanes (PFA) tube (length: 35 cm, I.D.: 4.35 mm) heated to 126 127 120 °C and was then detected within a PFA resonator cavity; the cavity was heated to 80 °C to prevent 128 NO<sub>3</sub> reacting back to N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. Ambient gas was sampled with a 1.5-m sampling line (I.D.: 4.35 mm) with a flow rate of 2.0 L min<sup>-1</sup>. NO was injected for 20 seconds to destroy NO<sub>3</sub> from N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> thermal 129 130 decomposition in a 5-minute cycle, and the corresponding measurements were then used as reference 131 spectra. A Teflon polytetrafluoroethylene (PTFE) filter was used in the front of the sampling module to remove ambient aerosol particles. The filter was replaced with a fresh one every hour to avoid the 132 133 decrease of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> transmission efficiency due to aerosol accumulation on the filter. The limit of 134 detection (LOD) was 2.7 pptv ( $1\sigma$ ), and the measurement uncertainty was 19%.

135 ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were also detected using a Time of Flight Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer 136 (ToF-CIMS) with the Filter Inlet for Gas and AEROsols (FIGAERO; Lopez-Hilfiker et al., 2014; 137 Bannan et al., 2015). Briefly, the gas phase species were measured via a 2-m-long, 6-mm-outer-138 diameter PFA inlet while the particles were simultaneously collected on a Teflon filter via a separate 139 2-m-long, 10-mm-outer-diameter copper tubing inlet; both had flow rates of 2 L min<sup>-1</sup>. The gas phase 140 was measured for 25 minutes at 1 Hz, and the FIGAERO instrument was then switched to place the 141 filter in front of the ion molecule region; it was then heated incrementally to 200 °C to desorb all the 142 mass from the filter to be measured in the gas phase, which resulted in high-resolution thermograms. 143 Formic acid calibrations were performed daily using a permeation source maintained at 40 °C. Post-144 campaign laboratory calibrations of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were first normalized to the campaign formic acid 145 calibrations to account for any change in sensitivity (Le Breton et al., 2014). Then, CINO<sub>2</sub> 146 measurements were quantified by passing the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> over a wetted NaCl bed to produce ClNO<sub>2</sub>. The 147 decrease in N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> from the reaction with NaCl was assumed to be equal to the concentration of ClNO<sub>2</sub> 148 produced (i.e., 100% yield). The sensitivities of the CIMS to N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> were found to be 9.5 149 and 1.2 ion counts per pptv Hz<sup>-1</sup>, respectively, with errors of 23% and 25% for ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, respectively. The LOD for ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were 16 and 8 pptv, respectively. An intercomparison of 150 151 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> measurements between the CEAS and FIGAERO-ToF-CIMS showed good agreement; a 152 companion paper on chlorine photochemical activation during this campaign gives detailed 153 intercomparison results of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> measured by the two different techniques (Le Breton et al., 2018).

Sub-micron aerosol composition (PM<sub>1.0</sub>), including nitrate, sulfate, chloride, ammonium and organic compounds, were measured by a High Resolution Time of Flight Aerosol Mass Spectrometer (HR-ToF-AMS) (De Carlo et al, 2006, Zheng et al., 2017). Particle number and size distribution (PNSD) was measured by a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, TSI 3936) and an aerosol particle 158 sizer (APS, TSI 3321) (Yue et al., 2009). SMPS measured the particles in the range between 3.5 nm 159 and 523.3 nm in diameter, and APS measured the particles with a diameter range from 597.6 nm to 10.0  $\mu$ m. S<sub>a</sub> was calculated based on the dry-state particle number and geometric diameter in each size 160 bin (3.5 nm - 2.5  $\mu$ m). Dry-state S<sub>a</sub> was corrected to wet particle-state S<sub>a</sub> for particle hygroscopicity by 161 a growth factor. The growth factor,  $f(RH)=1 + 8.77 \times (RH/100)^{9.74}$ , was derived from the measurement 162 163 of aerosol extinction as a function of RH in autumn in Beijing and is valid for 30% < RH < 90% (Liu 164 et al., 2013). The uncertainty of the wet aerosol surface areas was estimated to be ~30%, associated 165 from the error from dry PNSD measurement (~20%) and the growth factor (~20%). During this 166 measurement, fine particles below 500 nm contributed to more than 90% of the total  $S_a$ .

167 VOCs were measured by Proton Transfer Reaction Mass Spectrometry (PTR-MS) with a time 168 resolution of 5 minutes (de Gouw and Warneke et al., 2007; Wang et al., 2014). A commercial 169 instrument (Thermo Electron model 42i) equipped with a molybdenum-catalytic converter was used 170 to monitor NO<sub>x</sub>. The LODs were 60 pptv (1 min) for NO and 300 pptv (1 min) for NO<sub>2</sub>, with both at a 20% precision (Tan et al., 2017). The molybdenum-catalytic technique not only converts NO<sub>2</sub> to NO 171 but also converts ambient NO<sub>v</sub> such as peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) and HNO<sub>3</sub>. Therefore, the measured 172 173  $NO_2$  concentration corresponded to  $NO_2 + NO_y$  and was normally higher than the real concentration, especially in an aged air mass with high  $NO_x$  conditions. In this study, we used a factor of 0.6 to correct 174 175 the nighttime NO<sub>2</sub> concentration (a detailed explanation is in the Support Information Text S1 and 176 Figure S1). The correction factor (0.6) is the average of the correction factors during nighttime. The standard deviation of the daytime correction factor for all the air masses experienced at Changping site 177 178 was determined to be 0.27 (1 $\sigma$ ). If this uncertainty is extended to the nighttime correction factor, the 179 resulting uncertainty of the nighttime correction is 45%. The uncertainty of NO<sub>2</sub> is 50% when further 180 included the associated measurement uncertainty from calibrations. O<sub>3</sub> was measured by a commercial 181 instrument using ultraviolet (UV) absorption (Thermo Electron model 49i); the LOD was 0.5 ppbv, 182 with an uncertainty of 5%. The mass concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was measured using a standard Tapered 183 Element Oscillating Microbalance (TEOM, 1400A analyzer). Meteorological parameters included 184 relative humidity, temperature, pressure, wind speed, and wind direction and were available during the 185 campaign. Photolysis frequencies were calculated from the spectral actinic photon flux density 186 measured by a spectroradiometer (Bohn et al., 2008).

#### 187 **3. Results**

#### 188 **3.1 Overview**

189 During the campaign, the meteorological conditions of the site was high temperature and low relative 190 humidity (RH); the temperature ranged from 10 - 34 °C and was  $23 \pm 5$  °C on average, and RH ranged 191 from 10% - 80%, with an average of  $37\% \pm 15\%$ . Because of the special terrain of the observation site, 192 the local wind was measured by the in situ meteorological stations; the site has a typical mountain-193 valley breeze that cannot reflect the general air mass movement patterns at slightly higher altitudes. 194 Figure S2 shows the calculated backward trajectories using the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian 195 Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Draxler and Rolph, 2003). These images show the 24-h backward particle dispersion trajectories for 12:00 local time (CNST) as the starting time during May 196 197 23 - July 5, 2016. The arrivals of air masses were mainly from the northwest and the south. Therefore, 198 we meteorologically separated the measurement period into two parts. The first three days show that 199 the air masses came from the north or northwest; the air masses represent the background region 200 (defined as Background Air Mass, BAM). The air masses after May 26 originated from the polluted 201 NCP and passed over urban Beijing; they were characterized by large NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and severe 202 photochemical pollution (defined as Urban Air Mass, UAM).

203 The time series of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, ClNO<sub>2</sub> and other relevant species are shown in Figure 2, and nighttime 204 statistical results are listed in Table S1. The daily 8-h maximum of O3 concentration exceeded 93 ppbv 205 (Chinese national air quality standard) for 8 of 12 days, and all the O<sub>3</sub>-polluted air masses came from 206 the urban region. When the air masses were from the background region, the daily maximum of O<sub>3</sub> 207 was only approximately 60 ppby, much lower than that from the urban region. The NO<sub>2</sub> concentration 208 was elevated, with a nocturnal average value over 10 ppbv during the urban air mass period. The 209 nocturnal nitrate radical production rate, P(NO<sub>3</sub>), was large, with an average of  $1.2 \pm 0.9$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which is comparable with rates previously reported in the NCP and Hong Kong (Tham et al., 2016; 210 211 Brown et al., 2016; Z. Wang et al., 2017; X. F. Wang et al., 2017). The daily peaks of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were 100-500 pptv most nights; the maximum of 937 pptv in a 1-min average was observed near 20:00 on the 212 early night of June 2, when the P(NO<sub>3</sub>) was up to 4 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>. The average mixing ratio of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was 73 213 214  $\pm$  90 pptv, which is much higher than recent measurements reported in North China (Tham et al., 2016; X. F Wang et al., 2017; Z. Wang et al., 2017), but much lower than that observed in the residual layer 215 of the outflow from the PRD region, where the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> was up to 7.7 ppbv (T. Wang et al., 2016). With 216 217 an elevated O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratio in the first half of the night, the NO lifetime was only several minutes, and 218 the mixing ratio of NO concentration was observed below the detection limit. During the second half 219 of the night when the O<sub>3</sub> concentration was consumed to low concentration, high levels of NO could 220 occasionally be observed, and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> dropped to zero because of the fast titration by NO, such as the 221 events that occurred on the second half of the nights of May 24, 28, 30. The PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration was moderate during the measurement period, with an average of  $26 \pm 21 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ , and the average  $S_a$ 222 was  $560 \pm 340 \ \mu\text{m}^2 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . Elevated ClNO<sub>2</sub> was observed with a daily maximum over 800 pptv (1-min 223 224 average) during the urban air masses period. The maximum of ClNO<sub>2</sub> was observed with 2900 pptv 225 on the morning (05:30) of May 31. The observed ClNO<sub>2</sub> in Beijing was comparable with those reported in NCP (Tham et al., 2016; X. Wang et al., 2017; Z. Wang et al., 2017), but slightly higher than that 226 measured in coastal (e.g., Osthoff et al., 2008) and inland sites (e.g., Thornton et al., 2010). Overall, 227 228 high ClNO<sub>2</sub> observed in this site suggested fast N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis and effective ClNO<sub>2</sub> 229 yields are common in Beijing.

#### 230 **3. 2 Mean diurnal profiles**

The mean diurnal profiles of the measured NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, ClNO<sub>2</sub> and the particle chloride content are shown in Figure 3, as well as the calculated NO<sub>3</sub> based on the thermal equilibrium of NO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. The left panel show the average results of the BAM period, and the right panels show those of the UAM period. NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> from the UAM were much higher than those from the BAM, as well as the mixing ratios of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub> and ClNO<sub>2</sub>, but the daily variation tendencies of those species in the two kinds of air masses were similar. N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> began to accumulate in the late afternoon and increased sharply after sunset. A peak occurred near 20:00 and decreased below the instrument detection limit at

sunrise. The time that  $N_2O_5$  maxima occurred is similar to our previous observation in urban Beijing

239 (H. C. Wang et al., 2017c). However, the decrease rate of the observed  $N_2O_5$  after the peak time was 240 much slower than that in urban Beijing, where the  $N_2O_5$  dropped to zero in 2-4 hours, which suggests 241 a relatively slow  $N_2O_5$  loss rate in suburban Beijing. The daily average peaks of  $N_2O_5$  during the BAM 242 period and the UAM period were 75 pptv and 150 pptv, respectively. The calculated  $NO_3$  diurnal 243 profile was quite similar to  $N_2O_5$ , and the daily average peaks of  $NO_3$  during the BAM and UAM 244 periods were approximately 11 pptv and 27 pptv, respectively. The uncertainty of  $NO_3$  calculation was 245 estimated to be 67% according to Eq. 2, which is dominated by the uncertainty of  $NO_2$  measurement.

246 
$$\frac{\Delta[NO_3]}{[NO_3]} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta[N_2O_5]}{[N_2O_5]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta[NO_2]}{[NO_2]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta[O_3]}{[O_3]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta K_{eq}}{K_{eq}}\right)^2}$$
(Eq. 2)

The observed CINO<sub>2</sub> concentrations showed a clear increase after sunset, CINO<sub>2</sub> reached a 247 248 maximum before sunrise for BAM period but around midnight for the UAM period. The diurnal peak 249 of CINO<sub>2</sub> in the BAM period was 125 pptv, whereas the diurnal peak of CINO<sub>2</sub> was over 780 pptv in 250 the UAM period, and 6 times as high as that in the UAM period. Particulate chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>) is a key 251 factor that affects the CINO<sub>2</sub> yield on aerosol surface. Higher particle chloride leads to higher CINO<sub>2</sub> 252 yield and promotes the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> conversion to ClNO<sub>2</sub> (e.g., Finlayson-Pitts et al., 1989; Behnke et al., 253 1997), whereas the particle chloride content during the measurement was below 60 pptv and was much 254 lower than the mixing ratio of ClNO<sub>2</sub>, suggest a nighttime continuously Cl source replenished to 255 support the CINO<sub>2</sub> formation. The HYSPLIT showed that the air masses mainly came from continental, 256 not from the coastal regime, suggested that large amounts of the Cl<sup>-</sup> were not replenished by NaCl 257 from marine sources, but possibly replenished by gas-phase HCl through the acid displacement 258 reaction (Ye et al., 2016). Cl<sup>-</sup> was found to be correlated strongly with CO and SO<sub>2</sub>, likely to originate 259 from an anthropogenic source, such as power plants or combustion sources (Le Breton et al., 2018). 260 According to the mass balance, the gas phase HCl for supporting the production of ClNO<sub>2</sub> is several 261 ppbv per night. The required HCl source indicated the ratio HCl/pCl<sup>-</sup> is about 10-30, which was found 262 consistent with the following observation in Beijing. Although the HCl measurement was not available 263 in this study, note that up to 10 ppbv of HCl was observed in the urban Beijing in September, 2016, 264 we purpose that the gas phase HCl was sufficient to support the ClNO<sub>2</sub> formation.

265 After sunrise, CINO<sub>2</sub> was photolyzed and decreased with the increasing photolysis intensity; 266 However, the ClNO<sub>2</sub> can still survive until noon with the averaged daily maximum of  $J(ClNO_2)$  to be 267 1.7×10<sup>-4</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Similar to the studies reported in London, Texas and Wangdu (Bannan et al., 2015; Faxon 268 et al., 2015; Tham et al., 2016), we observed sustained elevated ClNO<sub>2</sub> events after sunrise in 5 of 12 269 days. For example, on the morning of May 30, ClNO<sub>2</sub> increased fast after sunrise and up to 500 pptv 270 at 8:00 am. Such high CINO2 increasing was impossible attribute to the local chemical formation since 271 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> dropped to almost zero and the needed N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients were unrealistically high. 272 Previous study suggested that abundant CINO<sub>2</sub> produced in the residual layer at night and downward 273 transport in the morning may help to explain this phenomenon (Tham et al., 2016).

#### 274 **3.3 Variation of N2O5 in the background air masses**

275 During the BAM period, the O<sub>3</sub> concentration was well in excess of NO<sub>2</sub>. In the NO<sub>3</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> formation processes, the limited NO<sub>2</sub> in high O<sub>3</sub> region indicates that the variation of NO<sub>2</sub> is more 276 essential to the variation of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> concentration. As shown in Figure 4, during the night of May 24 277 278 (20:00 - 04:00), the local emission of NO was negligible. O<sub>3</sub> concentration was larger than 25 ppby, 279 much higher than NO<sub>2</sub> and free of the local NO emission. The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> concentration was highly correlated with NO<sub>2</sub> ( $R^2 = 0.81$ ) and the NO<sub>3</sub> production rate ( $R^2 = 0.60$ ), suggests the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> 280 281 concentration was solely response to the NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in the background air mass when enough 282  $O_3$  is presented.

### 283 **3.4 Elevated CINO2 to N2O5 ratio**

284 Large day-to-day variabilities of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> were observed during the measurement period. 285 Following the work of Osthoff et al. (2008), Mielke et al. (2013), Phillips et al. (2012) and Bannan et 286 al. (2015), we used the concentration ratio of  $CINO_2$  to  $N_2O_5$ , to describe the conversion capacity of 287 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> to CINO<sub>2</sub>. Although N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> is lost to dry deposition in near surface measurements and would drive 288 up the ClNO<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. The nighttime peak values and mean values of ClNO<sub>2</sub>: N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were used to calculate 289 the daily ratios (Table S2), the calculation period is from 19:30 to the next day 05:00. The average 290 nighttime ratio ranged from 0.7 to 42.0, with a mean of 7.7 and a median of 6.0. The CINO<sub>2</sub> formation 291 was effective, with ClNO<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ratios larger than 1:1 throughout the campaign, except for the night 292 of May 26, when the ratio was 0.7:1. Previous observations of the ClNO<sub>2</sub>:N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ratios are summarized 293 in Table 2. Compared with the results conducted in similar continental regions in Europe and America 294 (0.2 - 3.0), the ratios in this work were significantly higher and consistent with the recent studies in 295 the NCP (Tham et al., 2016; X. F. Wang et al., 2017; Z. Wang et al., 2017), which suggests that high 296 ClNO<sub>2</sub>: N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ratios were ubiquitous in the NCP and implies that the ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield via N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake is 297 efficient.

#### 298 **4. Discussion**

## 299 4.1 Determination of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients

A composite term,  $\gamma \times f$ , was used to evaluate the production of ClNO<sub>2</sub> from N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis (Mielke et al., 2013).  $\gamma \times f$  was estimated by fitting the observed ClNO<sub>2</sub> in a time period when the nighttime concentrations of ClNO<sub>2</sub> increased continuously at night. The increased ClNO<sub>2</sub> was assumed to be solely from the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake. The fitting was optimized by changing the input of  $\gamma \times f$  associated with the measured N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and *S<sub>a</sub>*, until the ClNO<sub>2</sub> increasing was well reproduced (Eq. 3).

305 
$$[\text{CINO}_2](t) = [\text{CINO}_2](t_0) + (\gamma \times f) \cdot \int_{t_0}^t \frac{C \cdot S_a}{4} [N_2 O_5] dt$$
 (Eq. 3)

Here  $t_0$  and t denote the start time and end time, respectively, the calculation time duration was normally several hours. [CINO<sub>2</sub>]( $t_0$ ) is the observed concentration at  $t_0$  and set as the fitting offset. Note that the transport leads to the bias of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficient and CINO<sub>2</sub> yield. But the small variation of the mixing ratio of CO (< 5%) during each analysis time periods suggested the transport process is 310 not important to the increasing ClNO<sub>2</sub>. The derived  $\gamma \times f$  was found to be constant with small 311 uncertainties for optimization (see Table S3). The  $\gamma \times f$  had moderate variability, ranged from 0.008 -0.035 with an average of 0.019  $\pm$  0.009. Table 3 summarizes the  $\gamma \times f$  values derived in the previous 312 313 field observations. The value in suburban Germany was between 0.001 and 0.09, with the average of 314 0.014 (Phillips et al., 2016), and the average value in Mt. Tai, China, was approximately 0.016 (Z. 315 Wang et al., 2017). The average  $\gamma \times f$  in this study was comparable with that of the two suburban sites, 316 whereas in an urban site of Jinan, China (X. F. Wang et al., 2017), the value was lower than 0.008 and comparable with that in the CalNex-LA campaign. The three sets of  $\gamma \times f$  values from suburban regions 317 318 were about twice as large as those in urban regions, which implies that the ClNO<sub>2</sub> formation efficiency 319 in the aged air masses in suburban regions were more efficient than in the urban region. The difference 320 of the overall yield between the two regions may be caused by particle properties or other factors 321 (Riemer et al., 2009; Gaston et al., 2014; Grzinic et al., 2015; Bertram and Thornton, 2009).

322 According to reaction R4, soluble nitrate and ClNO<sub>2</sub> were formed by N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous uptake, 323 with yields of 2 - f and f, respectively. Following the recent work of Phillips et al., (2016), we used the 324 observed pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> formation rates to derive individual  $\gamma$  and f. The calculations assumed that 325 the relevant properties of the air mass are conserved and that the losses of produced species are 326 negligible; additionally, the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients and the ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield are independent of particle size. The nights characterized by the following two features were chosen for further analysis: (1) 327 significant correlations between pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> were present ( $R^2 > 0.5$ ), which suggested that, to a 328 329 good approximation, both  $CINO_2$  and  $pNO_3^-$  are produced only by  $N_2O_5$  heterogeneous uptake. The 330 reason for excluding other nights with low correction ( $R^2 < 0.2$ ) was ClNO<sub>2</sub> and pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> may be affected 331 by the effective transport or other production pathways, and these contributions can't be well quantified. Therefore the selection of high correction of ClNO<sub>2</sub> with pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> may be lead a bias as the contribution 332 333 from other formation pathways and the transport were neglected. (2) During an increasing period of 334 pNO<sub>3</sub>, an equivalent or faster increase of ammonium molar ratio to pNO<sub>3</sub> was also observed, which 335 means enough gas-phase ammonia was repartitioned to form ammonium nitrate and suppress the 336 release of HNO<sub>3</sub>. The ammonia rich conditions  $(22 \pm 9 \text{ ppbv on average})$  in Beijing demonstrated that 337 the degassing of HNO<sub>3</sub> at night can be effectively buffered by the high concentrations of ammonia 338 presented in the NCP (Liu et al., 2017). Both the gas-particle repartitioning of HNO<sub>3</sub> or nighttime 339 produced HNO<sub>3</sub> will result in the overestimation of  $\gamma$  and the underestimation of f. The daytime 340 produced HNO<sub>3</sub> will be soon in a new equilibrium rapidly on the time scale of total nitrate chemical 341 production, and the nighttime formation of HNO<sub>3</sub> are normally not important, so the nocturnal HNO<sub>3</sub> 342 uptake impact is negligible. During this campaign, five nights were eligible for the following analysis. Based on the observational data of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, ClNO<sub>2</sub>, pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and  $S_a$  in 5 minutes average. The formations 343 344 of  $pNO_3^-$  and  $CINO_2$  were integrated to reproduce the increasing  $pNO_3^-$  and  $CINO_2$  by input an initial  $\gamma$  and f. The offset of pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> is the measured pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> concentration at the start 345 346 time. The  $\gamma$  and f were optimized based on the Levenberg-Marguardt algorithm until good agreement 347 between the observed and predicted concentrations of pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> was obtained (Phillips et al., 348 2016). Figure 5 depicts an example of the fitting results on May 28. The predicted N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake 349 coefficient and ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield were 0.017 and 1.0, respectively. The uncertainty on each individual fitting 350 is varied from 55% - 100% due to the variability and measurements uncertainties of  $pNO_3^-$  and  $CINO_2$ . 351 Five sets of values of  $\gamma$  and f obtained are listed in Table 4. N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients ranged from 0.012 352 - 0.055, with an average of 0.034  $\pm$  0.018, and the ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield ranged from 0.50 to unity, with an

average of  $0.73 \pm 0.25$ . The errors from each derivation were 55% and came from the field measurements of  $S_a$ , N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClNO<sub>2</sub>.

355 The average  $\gamma$  value was consistent with the results determined by the same method in a rural site in 356 Germany (Phillips et al., 2016), but was higher than those in the UK and North America where they 357 used other derivation methods, included the steady state lifetime method (Morgan et al., 2015; Brown et al., 2006, 2009), the iterated box model (Wagner et al., 2013) and direct measurement based on an 358 359 aerosol flow reactor (Bertram et al., 2009; Riedel et al., 2012). The steady state lifetime method is very sensitive to NO<sub>2</sub> concentration, and since the NO<sub>2</sub> measurement suffered with ambient NOv 360 361 interference, we did not apply the steady state lifetime method in this study (Brown et al., 2003). 362 Nonetheless, the derived  $\gamma$  in Beijing showed good agreement with the recent results derived by the steady state method in Jinan and Mt. Tai (X. F. Wang et al., 2017; Z. Wang et al., 2017). The 363 364 consistency eliminates the discrepancy possibly brought by the differences of analysis methods. 365 Therefore, we suggest that fast N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake was a ubiquitous feature that existed in the NCP. In this study, sulfate is the dominant component of  $PM_{1,0}$ , accounting for more than 30% of its mass 366 367 concentration, which may be the reason of elevated N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficient presented in Beijing, like 368 the result in high sulfate air mass over Ohio and western Pennsylvania (Brown et al., 2006). Previous 369 studies have shown that the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficient strongly depends on the liquid water content, the 370 pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and organic mass. Liquid water content promotes N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake, whereas pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and organic mass inhibit N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake (e.g., Thornton et al., 2003, Wahner et al., 1998; Bertram and Thornton, 371 372 2009). Because of the limited data set of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients in this work, the function 373 dependence studies about the determined N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients with the parameters mentioned 374 above were not convincing. More valid data are needed in the further studies of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake 375 mechanism. With respect to f, the values are comparable with that observed in Germany (Phillips et al., 2016) and are similar to that estimated in the power plant plume in Mt. Tai with high chloride 376 377 content (Z. Wang et al., 2017).

#### 378 4.2 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> lifetime and reactivity

The lifetime of  $N_2O_5$  was estimated by the steady state method, assuming that the production and loss of  $N_2O_5$  was in balance after a period following sunset. Eq. 4 for the steady state approximation has been frequently applied in analyzing the fate of  $N_2O_5$  (Platt et al., 1980; Allan et al., 1999; Brown et al., 2003).

383 
$$\tau_{ss}(N_2O_5) = \frac{1}{L_{ss}(N_2O_5)} = \frac{[N_2O_5]}{k_{NO2+O3}[NO_2][O_3]}$$
 (Eq. 4)

384 Here  $\tau_{ss}(N_2O_5)$  denotes the steady state lifetime of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and L<sub>ss</sub>(N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>) denotes the loss term of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> corresponding to the steady state lifetime. A numerical model was used to check the validity of the 385 386 steady state approximation (Brown et al., 2003); details are given in Figure S3. The results show that 387 the steady state can generally be achieved within 30 minutes. In this study, the steady state lifetime was only calculated from 20:00 to the next day 04:00. The time periods with NO concentration larger 388 389 than 0.06 ppbv (instrument LOD) were excluded as the steady state is easily disturbed. The overall 390  $N_2O_5$  loss rate (k( $N_2O_5$ )) can be calculated by accumulating each individual loss term in Eq. 5, 391 including the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis and the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with VOCs.

392 
$$k(N_2O_5) = \frac{\sum k_{NO3+VOCs_i} [VOCs_i]}{k_{eq} [NO_2]} + \frac{C \cdot S_a \cdot \gamma}{4}$$
(Eq. 5)

The NO<sub>3</sub> heterogeneous uptake and the loss of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> via gas-phase reactions were assumed to be negligible (Brown and Stutz, 2012).  $k_{NO3+VOCs_i}$  denotes the reaction rate constants of the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub>+VOCs<sub>i</sub>. Isoprene and monoterpene were used in this calculation.

396 The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> loss rate coefficient by heterogeneous hydrolysis was calculated by using an average  $\gamma$  of 397 0.034. The time series of the steady state lifetime of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> is shown in Figure S4. The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> steady state lifetime ranged from <5 s to 1260 s, with an average of 270  $\pm$  240 s, and large variability was shown 398 399 during the campaign. The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> lifetimes during the BAM period were higher than those during the 400 UAM period, which is predictable since the clean air mass has lower N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> reactivity because of much 401 lower aerosol loading. Two extremely short N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> lifetime cases were captured on the nights of May 402 30 and June 3, with peak values below 200 s throughout those nights. Figure 6 shows that the  $N_2O_5$ lifetime had a very clear negative dependence on the ambient  $S_a$  when larger than 300  $\mu$ m<sup>2</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>, which 403 404 indicates that the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous uptake plays an important role in the regulation of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> lifetime. 405 The study conducted in the residual layer of Hong Kong showed a similar tendency despite the overall 406 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> lifetime being shorter at this site (Brown et al., 2016). Additionally, a negative dependence of 407 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> lifetime on RH was reported in Hong Kong but was not observed in this study (Figure S5).

408 Figure 7 shows the time series of the overall  $N_2O_5$  loss rate constant as well as the  $N_2O_5$  steady state

409 loss rate constant. The overall  $N_2O_5$  loss rate constant was calculated from the individual terms (Eq.3). 410 The uncertainties of the  $N_2O_5$  steady state loss rate constant and the overall  $k(N_2O_5)$  are estimated to

be 67% and 95%, respectively (Eq. 6 and Eq. 7). The largest error sources were from the corrected

411 be 07% and 95%, respectively (Eq. 6 and Eq. 7). The largest error sources were from the corrected

412 NO<sub>2</sub> measurements.

413 
$$\frac{\Delta Lss(N_2O_5)}{Lss(N_2O_5)} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta[N_2O_5]}{[N_2O_5]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta[N_0]}{[N_0]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta[O_3]}{[O_3]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta K_{eq}}{K_{eq}}\right)^2}$$
(Eq. 6)

414 
$$\frac{\Delta k(N_2O_5)}{k(N_2O_5)} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\Delta [N_2O_5]}{[N_2O_5]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta [S_a]}{[S_a]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta [\gamma]}{[\gamma]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta [NO_2]}{[NO_2]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta [O_3]}{[O_3]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta [VOC_s]}{[VOC_s]}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\Delta K_{eq}}{K_{eq}}\right)^2}$$
(Eq. 7)

415 On the night of 29 May, the steady state loss rate constant was much lower than the overall  $k(N_2O_5)$ ; 416 on the nights of 28, May and 3 June, the  $L_{ss}(N_2O_5)$  calculated by the steady state method were much 417 higher than the overall  $k(N_2O_5)$ , but these discrepancies were in the range of the uncertainties. The steady state loss rate constant in the case of May 30 was approximately ten times larger than the overall 418 419 loss rate constant, and this difference was outside of the range of uncertainty. The reason for the larger 420 difference on this night is not understood from the available measurements. In general, the overall 421 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> loss rate constant and the steady state N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> loss rate constant were comparable taking into 422 considerations of the uncertainties. The average N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> loss rate constant contributed by the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis was  $8.1 \times 10^{-4}$  s<sup>-1</sup>. The average NO<sub>3</sub> loss rate constant by the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> 423 with VOCs was  $0.015 \pm 0.007$  s<sup>-1</sup>, which is comparable with the previous results in suburban Beijing 424 425 in 2006 (H. C. Wang et al., 2017c), in which the contribution to the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> reactivity was  $1.63 \times 10^{-3} \pm$ 426  $0.65 \times 10^{-3}$  s<sup>-1</sup> on average. Compared with N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> loss via direct heterogeneous hydrolysis, the indirect

- 428 suite of organic species at the site was measured, the calculated loss rate constant via NO<sub>3</sub>+VOCs
- 429 represents a lower limit. Therefore, the  $N_2O_5$  loss via  $NO_3$ +VOCs may occupy a larger proportion. The
- 430 overall loss rate constant from NO<sub>3</sub>+VOCs and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake was  $2.44 \times 10^{-3} \pm 1.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  on average, 431 which was reasonably lower than the steady state N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> loss rate constant of  $3.61 \times 10^{-3} \pm 2.80 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$
- 431 which was reasonably lower than the steady state  $N_2O_5$  loss rate constant of  $3.01\times10^{-1} \pm 2.30\times10^{-1}$  s 432 on average. The gap may be explained by the unmeasured reactive VOCs or the unaccounted NO that
- 432 on average. The gap may be explained by the unineasured reactive votes of the unacce
  - 433 was near the instrumental limit of detection.

#### 434 **4.3 NO<sub>3</sub>-induced nocturnal oxidation of VOCs**

435 Recent studies have suggested that the fate of BVOCs after sunset is dominated by  $NO_x$  or  $O_3$ , with variation of the ratio of  $NO_x$  to BVOCs and that the nighttime oxidation is located in the transition 436 437 region between NO<sub>x</sub>-domination and O<sub>3</sub>-domination in the United States (Edwards et al., 2017). 438 During this campaign, the nocturnal average concentrations of isoprene and monoterpene were 156  $\pm$ 439 88 pptv and 86  $\pm$  42 pptv, respectively. We used isoprene and monoterpene to represent a lower limit 440 mixing ratio of total BVOCs; the average ratio of NO<sub>x</sub>/BVOCs was larger than 10 and exhibited small 441 variation during the BAM and UAM periods. The value was much higher than the critical value ( $NO_x$ ) 442 /BVOC = 0.5) of the transition regime proposed by Edwards et al. (2017), which suggests that the 443 oxidation of BVOCs in Beijing was NO<sub>x</sub>-dominated and the nighttime fate of BVOCs was controlled 444 by NO<sub>3</sub>. Since the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with BVOCs has a high mass yield, the nocturnal ON production 445 may be important in the high  $NO_x/BVOCs$  region.

The first order loss rate of VOCs initialized by oxidants,  $k(VOCs_i)$ , is defined as VOCs reactivity and expressed as Eq. 8. Here, we only consider the reaction of VOCs with O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub>.  $k_{O_3+VOCs_i}$ denotes the reaction rate constants of VOCs<sub>i</sub> with O<sub>3</sub>.

449 
$$k(VOCs_i) = k_{NO_3 + VOCs_i} \cdot [NO_3] + k_{O_3 + VOCs_i} \cdot [O_3]$$
 (Eq. 8)

450 During this campaign, VOCs reactivity could be determined with the measured  $O_3$  and calculated  $NO_3$ . 451 Figure 8 depicts four kinds of VOCs reactivity distribution during nighttime, including the isoprene 452 (ISO), monoterpene (MNT), the double bond at the end or terminal position of the molecule (OLT) 453 and alkenes with the double bond elsewhere in the molecule (OLI). The reaction rates were cited from 454 the regional atmospheric chemistry mechanism version 2 (RACM2, Goliff et al., (2013)). Previous 455 measurement indicated the main detectable monoterpenes were  $\alpha$ -pinene and  $\beta$ -pinene in summer 456 Beijing (personal communication with Ying Liu). Here we assumed  $\alpha$ -pinene and  $\beta$ -pinene occupies 457 half and half in the monoterpene with an uncertainty of 50%. The rate coefficients of  $\alpha$ -pinene and  $\beta$ -458 pinene with NO<sub>3</sub> were referred to Atkinson and Arey, (2003). The uncertainty of calculated mixing 459 ratio of NO<sub>3</sub> is 67%, and the overall uncertainty of monoterpene reactivity was calculated to be 85% 460 by Gaussian propagation. The uncertainties of other kinds of VOCs was calculated to be 75% by 461 assuming the uncertainty of rate coefficient was 30%. The VOCs reactivity were dominated by NO<sub>3</sub> 462 oxidation and contributed up to 90% in total; less than 10% VOCs were oxidized by O<sub>3</sub> during the 463 nighttime. Even the NO<sub>3</sub> concentration in the lower range, NO<sub>3</sub> still responsible for more than 70% 464 nocturnal BVOCs oxidation, the results further confirmed that the oxidation of BVOCs is controlled 465 by NO<sub>3</sub> rather than O<sub>3</sub> in summer Beijing.

466 For calculating nocturnal ON production from NO<sub>3</sub> oxidation of isoprene and monoterpene, as well 467 as inorganic nitrate production via N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous uptake over the same period, the ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield 468 was set to the determined average value of 0.55. The organic nitrate yield of the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with 469 isoprene was set to 0.7, from Rollins et al. (2009). The yield from the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with 470 monoterpene was represented by NO<sub>3</sub> + $\alpha$ -pinene and was set to 0.16, following Spittler et al. (2006). 471 As the  $\alpha$ -pinene and  $\beta$ -pinene have very different ON yields, the yield set in the study was an upper 472 limit for  $\alpha$ -pinene initialed ON, but is relative low yield for the  $\beta$ -pinene initialized ON (e.g., Hallquist 473 et al., 1999). Although the yield from the NO<sub>3</sub> oxidation of isoprene is much higher than that of 474 monoterpene, the total ON production was dominated by the oxidation of NO<sub>3</sub> with monoterpene 475 because the reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with monoterpene is much faster than that with isoprene. Because of the 476 lack of measurement of alkenes and other VOCs that can react with NO<sub>3</sub> and form ON, the calculated 477 nighttime ON production rate analyzed here served as a lower estimations.

478 Figure 9 depicts the mean diurnal profiles of the nocturnal formation rates of inorganic nitrates and 479 ON. The average production rate of ON was up to  $0.10 \pm 0.07$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which was higher than that predicted in a suburban site in Beijing in 2006, with an average value of 0.06 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> (H.C. Wang et 480 al., 2017b). In the high NO<sub>x</sub>/BVOCs air masses, the inorganic nitrate formation was proposed to 481 482 increase with the increase of sunset NO<sub>x</sub>/BVOCs (Edwards et al., 2017). The formation rate of inorganic nitrate via N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake was significant, with an average of  $0.43 \pm 0.12$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, and was 483 484 much larger than the ON formation.  $NO_x$  was mainly removed as the inorganic nitrate format by 485 nocturnal NO<sub>3</sub>-N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> chemistry in Beijing. Overall, the NO<sub>3</sub>-N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> chemistry led to significant NO<sub>x</sub> removal, with 0.54 ppbv  $h^{-1}$  accounted for by the organic and inorganic nitrates, and the integral NO<sub>x</sub> 486 487 removal was approximately 5 ppbv per night. Since ON are important precursors of the secondary 488 organic aerosols (SOA), the NO<sub>3</sub> oxidation was very important from the perspective of organic aerosol 489 formation and regional particulate matter (e.g., Ng et al., 2008).

# 490 **5. Conclusion**

We reported an intensive field study of NO<sub>3</sub>-N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> chemistry at a downwind suburban site in Beijing during the summer of 2016. High levels of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were observed, with maxima of 2.9 ppbv and 937 pptv (1-min), respectively. The N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficient was estimated to be in the range of 0.010-0.055, with an average value of  $0.034 \pm 0.018$ , and the corresponding ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield was derived to be in the range of 0.5-1.0, with an average value of  $0.73 \pm 0.25$ . The elevated ClNO<sub>2</sub> levels and ClNO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> ratios are comparable with those in chloride-rich regions in the NCP. The results highlight fast N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis and efficient ClNO<sub>2</sub> formation in the outflow of urban Beijing.

498 Since the NO<sub>3</sub>-N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> chemical equilibrium favors NO<sub>3</sub> in summer with high temperature, the 499 elevated NO<sub>3</sub> dominated the nocturnal degradation of BVOCs and could lead to efficient ON formation. 500 Because the air masses in Beijing featured high NO<sub>x</sub>/BVOCs ratios (>10), our results suggest that the 501 nocturnal NO<sub>3</sub> oxidation of BVOCs was NO<sub>x</sub>-dominated. Because of the extremely high NO<sub>x</sub> 502 emissions, the formation of ON may not be sensitive to the reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> but rather to the change 503 of unsaturated VOCs (e.g., BVOCs), which is similar to the daytime photochemical O<sub>3</sub> pollution (e.g., 504 Lu et al., 2010) diagnosed for this area. This suggests that the control of the unsaturated VOCs would 505 moderate the  $O_3$  pollution and ON particulate matter in parallel. Moreover, the reduction of  $NO_x$  would

also be helpful to reduce the  $pNO_3^-$  formation via N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis under such high NO<sub>x</sub>/BVOCs ratios (Edwards et al., 2017).

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509 Acknowledgements. This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China 510 (Grants No. 91544225, 41375124, 21522701, 41421064, 91744204), the National Science and 511 Technology Support Program of China (No. 2014BAC21B01), the Strategic Priority Research 512 Program of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (Grants No. XDB05010500), and the program on 513 "Photochemical smog in China" financed by the Swedish Research Council (639-2013-6917). The 514 authors gratefully acknowledge the Peking University and Gethenburg University science team for 515 their technical support and discussions during the Changping campaign.

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- 517 **Reference**
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Figure 1. Map of Beijing and surrounding area. The red star shows the location of the Changping site, and red dots show other sites where previous  $N_2O_5$  measurements were conducted in the North China Plain (NCP), including Wangdu, Jinan and Mt. Tai (Tai' an).



Figure 2. Time series of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, ClNO<sub>2</sub> and other relevant parameters. The blue line in the O<sub>3</sub> panel
 denotes Chinese national air quality standard for O<sub>3</sub> (ca. 93 ppbv for the surface conditions). The
 black line in the NO panel denotes 0.06 ppbv.



**Figure 3.** Mean diurnal profiles of  $5 \times NO_2$ ,  $O_3$ ,  $N_2O_5$ ,  $2 \times NO_3$  (calculated), ClNO<sub>2</sub>, and  $10 \times pCl^-$ . The left three panels depict the background air mass (BAM) period and the right three panels depict the urban air mass (UAM) period.



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Figure 4. The correlation of the mixing ratio of  $N_2O_5$  and  $NO_2$  and the production rate of  $NO_3$  on the night of May 24.



Figure 5. The best fit of  $\gamma$  and f to reproduce the observed ClNO<sub>2</sub> and pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> with an offset on May 28. The black lines are the predicted results of the integrated NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and ClNO<sub>2</sub> by using the observed  $S_a$  and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>.



Figure 6. The dependence of  $N_2O_5$  lifetime on aerosol surface area. Data were selected from 20:00 to 04:00 and are shown as medians, 25 - 75<sup>th</sup> percentile ranges, and 10 - 90<sup>th</sup> percentile ranges, as shown in the legend.



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Figure 7. Time series of the individual  $N_2O_5$  loss terms and the loss rate constant of  $N_2O_5$  in steady state (*Lss*( $N_2O_5$ )).



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**Figure 8.** The nighttime VOCs reactivity of  $NO_3$  and  $O_3$  (defined as the first order loss rate of VOCs initialized by oxidants, include  $NO_3$  and  $O_3$ ); the VOCs are classified as isoprene (ISO), monoterpene (MNT), the terminal alkenes (OLT) and the internal alkenes (OLI). The data were selected from 20:00

812 to the next day 04:00.



**Figure 9.** The nighttime production rate of organic and inorganic nitrates; the inorganic nitrates were calculated from the  $N_2O_5$  heterogeneous hydrolysis, and the ON were calculated by the  $NO_3$  reacted with isoprene and monoterpene.

Species	Limit of detection	Methods	Accuracy
N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	2.7 pptv (1 $\sigma$ , 1 min)	CEAS	± 19%
ClNO <sub>2</sub>	16 pptv ( $2\sigma$ , 1 min)	FIGAERO-ToF-CIMS	$\pm 23\%$
NO	60 pptv (2σ, 1 min)	Chemiluminescence	$\pm 20\%$
$NO_2$	0.3 ppbv (2σ, 1 min)	Mo convert	$\pm 50\%$
O3	0.5 ppbv (2σ, 1 min)	UV photometry	$\pm 5\%$
Aerosol surface area	- (4 min)	SMPS, APS	$\pm 30\%$
VOCs	0.1 ppbv (5 min)	PTR-MS	$\pm 30\%$
PM <sub>2.5</sub>	0.1 $\mu g m^{-3} (1 min)$	TEOM	$\pm 5\%$
PM <sub>1.0</sub> components	0.15 $\mu$ g m <sup>-3</sup> (4 min)	HR-ToF-AMS	$\pm 30\%$

**Table 1.** The observed gas and particle parameters used in this analysis during the campaign.

Table 2. Summary of the field observed ambient ClNO<sub>2</sub>/N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>.

Location	Region	ClNO <sub>2</sub> /N <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> <sup>a</sup>	References
Beijing, China	Inland	0.7 - 42.0 (5.4)	This work
Wangdu, China	Inland	0.4 - 131.3 (29.5)	Tham et al., 2016
Jinan, China	Marine	25.0 - 118.0 <sup>b</sup>	X. F. Wang et al., 2017
Mt. Tai, China	Marine	~ 4.0	Z. Wang et al., 2017
Hong Kong, China	Marine	0.1 - 2.0	T. Wang et al., 2016
London, UK	Inland	0.02 - 2.4 (0.51)	Bannan et al., 2015
Frankfurt, Germany	Inland	0.2 - 3.0	Phillips et al., 2012
Colorado, USA	Inland	0.2 - 3.0	Thornton et al., 2010
California, USA	Marine	~ 0.2 - 10.0 <sup>c</sup>	Mielke et al., 2013

Note: <sup>a</sup> Daily average results; <sup>b</sup> Power plant plume cases at Mt. Tai in Shandong, China; <sup>c</sup> Estimated according to Mielke
et al., (2013).

Location	Region	$\gamma \times f$	References
Beijing, China	suburban	$0.019\pm0.009$	This work
Frankfurt, Germany	suburban	0.014	Phillips et al., 2016
Mt. Tai, China	suburban	0.016	Z. Wang et al., 2017
Jinan, China	urban	< 0.008	X. F. Wang et al., 2017
California, USA	urban	0.008	Mielke et al., 2013

**Table 3.** Summary of the average  $\gamma \times f$  values derived in the field observations.

Table 4. List of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> uptake coefficients and the yield of ClNO<sub>2</sub> in this campaign.

Start time	End time	γ	f
05/25 00:00	05/25 05:00	$0.047\pm0.023$	$0.60\pm0.30$
05/25 18:30	05/25 23:00	$0.012\pm0.006$	$1.0\pm0.50$
05/27 19:00	05/27 20:40	$0.040\pm0.032$	$0.50\pm0.40$
05/28 19:00	05/28 23:00	$0.017\pm0.009$	$1.0\pm0.50$
05/30 21:00	05/31 00:00	$0.055\pm0.030$	$0.55\pm0.30$