

1 **A Comprehensive Observational Based Multiphase Chemical Model**
2 **Analysis of the Sulfur Dioxide Oxidations in both Summer and**
3 **Winter**

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11 **Abstract**

12 Sulfate is one of the main components of the haze fine particles and the formation mechanism remains
13 controversial. Lacking of detailed and comprehensive field data hinders the accurate evaluation of relative
14 roles of prevailing sulfate formation pathways. Here, we analysed the sulfate production rates using a
15 state-of-art multiphase model constrained to the observed concentrations of transition metal ions (TMI),
16 nitrogen dioxide, ozone, hydrogen peroxide, and other important parameters in winter and summer in the
17 North China Plain. Our results showed that aqueous TMI-catalysed oxidation was the most important
18 pathway followed by the surface oxidation of Mn in both winter and summer, while the hydroxyl and
19 criegee radicals oxidations contribute significantly in summer. In addition, we also modelled the
20 published cases for the fog and cloud conditions. It is found that nitrogen dioxide oxidation is the
21 dominant pathway for the fog in a higher pH range while hydroperoxide and ozone oxidations dominated
22 for the cloud.

23

24 **Introduction**

25 Secondary sulfate aerosol is an important component of fine particles in severe haze periods (Zheng et al.,
26 2015; Huang et al., 2014b; Guo et al., 2014), which adversely affect the environmental quality and human
27 health (Lippmann and Thurston, 1996; Fang et al., 2017; Shang et al., 2020). Traditional atmospheric
28 models evaluate secondary sulfate formation via the gas-phase oxidation of sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and a
29 series of multiphase oxidation of dissolved SO₂ in cloud water. During haze events, multiphase oxidation
30 of dissolved SO₂ is more important than SO₂ directly oxidized by gas-phase radicals (Atkinson et al.,
31 2004; Barth et al., 2002) because of the significantly reduced ultraviolet (UV) radiation intensity due to
32 the aerosol dimming effect. Gas-phase reactions, especially those favouring multiphase chemistry, cannot
33 capture the high concentrations of sulfate aerosols during haze events. Moreover, rapid sulfate production
34 is observed during cloud-free conditions indicating that aerosol multiphase oxidation may be important
35 during haze periods (Moch et al., 2018). These effects cause a major gap between the measured sulfate

36 concentrations under weak UV radiation and the concentrations calculated using traditional atmospheric
37 models.

38 Assessing the mechanism of multiphase secondary sulfate formation during haze periods helps evaluate
39 the effect of multiphase oxidation. While the gas-phase oxidation rate of SO₂ and OH is well constrained,
40 there are many uncertainties in the quantification of the relative contribution of each multiphase SO₂
41 oxidation pathway during haze periods. Multiphase oxidation pathways of dissolved SO₂ (Seinfeld and
42 Pandis, 2016; Liu et al., 2020a; Zhu et al., 2020a; Seigneur and Saxena, 1988; Li et al., 2020b) include
43 oxidation by (1) hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂); (2) ozone (O₃); (3) transition metal ions [TMI, i.e., Fe (III)
44 and Mn (II)] catalysed oxidation pathway (aqTMI)]; and (4) Mn-catalysed oxidation of SO₂ on aerosol
45 surfaces pathway (Mn-surface) (Wang et al., 2021). Some studies (Cheng et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016a;
46 Xue et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018) also suggested that nitrogen oxides may play a crucial role in the
47 explosive growth of sulfate formation during severe haze days in Beijing because of the high pH near a
48 neutral system, by facilitating the catalysis of mineral dust (Liu et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2018) or the
49 photolysis of nitrous acid (Zheng et al., 2020). However, the average pH during Beijing haze periods is
50 approximately 4.2 (Liu et al., 2017), and a high level of NH₃ does not increase the aerosol pH sufficiently
51 to yield NO₂-dominated sulfate formation (Guo et al., 2017). Other studies (Ye et al., 2018; Liu et al.,
52 2020b) emphasized the importance of H₂O₂ oxidation to sulfate formation due to the underestimation of
53 H₂O₂ concentrations during haze episodes in previous studies or the influence of high ionic strength (*I_s*) of
54 aerosol solutions on the H₂O₂ oxidation rate, which implies that oxidant concentrations for SO₂ oxidation
55 constrained to the observed values from field measurements are required. Previous study (Wang et al.,
56 2020) showed that photosensitization is a new pathway for atmospheric sulfate formation and requires
57 further verification. According to previous studies of the GEOS-Chem model and including the
58 measurements of oxygen isotopes ($\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{SO}_4^{2-})$) (He et al., 2018; Shao et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020a; Yue
59 et al., 2020), several studies showed that aqTMI was important during some haze periods. Overall, the
60 formation mechanisms of the missing sulfate sources remain unclear and controversial.

61 Sulfate formation is a complex multiphase physicochemical reaction process, in which parameters have
62 multiple interrelationships. The previous studies have mostly selected typical conditions with fixed
63 parameters for numerical calculations, ignoring the fact that sulfate formation is a complex dynamic
64 process. A comprehensive and explicit evaluation of the sulfate generation process requires real-time
65 feedback and explicit constraints of observational data. Therefore, it is crucial to apply constrained
66 parameters from field campaigns in the calculations. Moreover, as proposed in previous studies (Liu et
67 al., 2020b; Cheng et al., 2016), due to the lower water content in aerosol particles than in cloud water, the
68 non-ideality effects of aerosol solutions should be carefully considered.

69 In this study, we modelled the concentrations of the main reagents of sulfate formation reactions using a
70 state-of-art Peking-University-Multiple-phAse Reaction Kinetic Model (PKU-MARK) based on the data
71 measured in two field campaigns conducted in the winter and summer in the North China Plain (NCP)
72 where several particle pollutions happened. The non-ideality of aerosol solutions was considered in the
73 calculation of both gas solubility and aqueous-phase reaction rates. Chemical regimes in the aerosol
74 particle bulk phase were analysed to understand the role of gas-phase radical precursors, particle TMIs,
75 aerosol surface concentrations and the aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) on the aqueous reactant
76 levels and the sulfate formation rate. All particle concentrations reported are fine particle matters
77 particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter of 2.5 μm or less ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$).

78 The overall goal of this work is to evaluate the contribution of different secondary sulfate formation
79 pathways under actual field measurement conditions in the NCP. Effects of non-ideality of condensed
80 particle phase and the solubility of gas-phase reactants on the reactions enable the comparisons with
81 parameters previously obtained in model calculations. In addition, episodes at different pollution levels in
82 the winter and summer campaigns were selected to evaluate the contribution of prevailing sulfate
83 formation pathways proposed in previous studies. As a study evaluating the contribution of different
84 sulfate formation pathways during field campaign observations, this work provides an improved
85 understanding of atmospheric sulfate formation at different pollution levels in the NCP.

86

87

88 **2 Results**

89 **2.1 Overview of the field observations**

90 Table 1 shows the key meteorological parameters, trace gases concentrations, calculated ALWC, ionic
91 strength, pH and sulfate formation rates under different pollution conditions in PKU-17 and WD-14
92 comprehensive field campaigns. Sampling location and experimental methods used in these two
93 campaigns are summarized in the Method part. The pollution degree is classified according to the mass
94 concentration of $PM_{2.5}$. The clean condition means $PM_{2.5}$ smaller than $35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, the slightly polluted
95 condition is $35\text{-}75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, the polluted condition is $75\text{-}150 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and highly polluted is larger than 150
96 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Sulfate formation rates were modelled by the Multiple-phAse Reaction Kinetic Model (PKU-
97 MARK) (mentioned in Method) with constrained parameters. The effects of aerosol non-ideality were
98 considered in the size-segregated model. Data points with relative humidity (RH) smaller than 20% and
99 AWLC smaller than $1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ were abandoned to improve the accuracy of the results.

100 Transition metals concentrations including Fe and Mn increased with PM mass [\(as shown in Fig.1\)](#).
101 Photochemical oxidants including H_2O_2 and O_3 exhibited a decreasing trend with the increase of PM mass
102 because of the significantly reduced solar ultraviolet (UV) radiation intensity due to the aerosol dimming
103 effect. Some studies reported high H_2O_2 concentrations during haze episodes (Ye et al., 2018), whereas in
104 PKU-17 field campaign, the average concentration of H_2O_2 was only 20.9 ± 22.8 pptV in highly polluted
105 conditions. Higher sulfate concentration was observed in the high range of RH and ALWC indicating
106 their enhancement effects on the sulfate formation. We also picked four haze periods in PKU-17
107 observation, the time series of these key parameters are provided in Supplementary Information (SI) **Fig.**
108 **S4**.

109 Aerosol pH values were calculated using the ISORROPIA-II model. The calculated particle pH values as
110 shown in the **Table 1** are in good agreement with the values reported in other studies (Guo et al., 2017;
111 Weber et al., 2016). The lower pH in the range of 4.0–5.5 is beneficial to sulfate formation via aqTMI.

112 Aerosol liquid water is another key component, higher loading of aerosol liquid water is more conducive
113 to the occurrence of multiphase reactions. The ALWC in the PKU-17 and WD-14 campaigns was
114 calculated via the ISORROPIA II model with input concentrations of aerosol inorganic components (see
115 **Method M.3**). Aerosol liquid water did not freeze at winter temperatures below 273 K in the PKU field
116 campaign because of the salt induced freezing point depression (Koop et al., 2000). Wind speeds during
117 these haze events were persistently low (0.3–1.5 m/s), indicating the minor contribution of regional
118 transport to sulfate production.

119 Aqueous TMI concentration level is crucial in the evaluation of secondary sulfate formation in real
120 atmospheric conditions. Atmospheric anthropogenic sources of transition metals such as iron (Fe) are
121 crust related and the peak concentration of Fe in Beijing is correlated to the vehicle driving in traffic rush
122 hours., Ceopper (Cu), and manganese (Mn) are mainly from ~~combustion~~ non-exhaust emissions of
123 vehicles, fossil fuel combustion or metallurgy (Alexander et al., 2009; Duan et al., 2012; Zhao et al.,
124 2021). Concentrations of transition metals are highly variable, ranging from <0.1 ng m⁻³ to >1000 ng m⁻³
125 globally (Alexander et al., 2009). Fe solubility in atmospheric aerosols has been reported to range from
126 0.1% to 80% (Ito et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2010; Heal et al., 2005; Shi et al., 2012; Mahowald et al., 2005),
127 and elevated levels of Fe solubility have been observed in aerosols dominated by combustion sources.
128 The average fractional Fe solubility in areas away from dust source regions is typically between 5 and
129 25% (Baker and Jickells, 2006; Baker et al., 2006; Hsu et al., 2010). A recent study reported the average
130 Fe solubility as 2.7–5.0% in Chinese cities, and more than 65% of nano-sized Fe-containing particles
131 were internally mixed with sulfates and nitrates (Zhu et al., 2020b). The solubility of Mn tends to be
132 higher than that of Fe (Baker et al., 2006), which is 22–57% in urban aerosol particles (Huang et al.,
133 2014c). In this study, we chose the solubility of total Fe as 5% and total Mn solubility as 50% assuming
134 that aerosol particles are internally mixed. In Beijing, high concentrations of Fe, Cu, and Mn were
135 observed (**Table S9**). Concentrations of transition metals are strongly correlated during these haze

136 periods; thus, we propose a fixed ratio of Fe/Mn to account for the lack of Mn data in PKU-17 and WD-
137 14 field campaigns (SI Text S2).

138 Aerosol trace metal speciation and water solubility are affected by factors such as photochemistry, aerosol
139 pH, and aerosol particle size (Baker and Jickells, 2006; Oakes et al., 2010). Soluble iron in aerosol water
140 exists as Fe (II) and Fe (III), with a series of redox recycling between the two species and other ions.
141 Partitioning between Fe (II) and Fe (III) varies diurnally with the highest fraction of Fe (II) found during
142 the day because of the photochemical reactions reducing Fe (III) to Fe (II). Photolysis reactions of iron
143 hydroxides and organic complexes were documented as the most important source of Fe (II) in cloud and
144 fog water. Oxalic acid and its deprotonated form, oxalate, have strong coordination ability with Fe and
145 form Fe-oxalate complexes, which have higher photochemical activity than Fe hydroxide. All these
146 mechanisms are included in the PKU-MARK model. Diurnal trends of sulfate formation were observed
147 during haze periods indicating the diurnal distribution of different states of iron. Redox cycling of other
148 TMIs such as Cu and Mn are also considered in the PKU-MARK model. Averaged percentage of soluble
149 Fe (III) and Mn (II) was 0.79% and 19.83% in winter polluted conditions and 2.57% and 52.15% in
150 summer polluted conditions. The main reason for the difference between winter and summer metal
151 solubility is that summer aerosols have higher water content and lower ionic strength, which is conducive
152 to the dissolution of Fe and Mn. The solubility range is in good agreement with the values reported in
153 previous observations (Ito et al., 2019; Hsu et al., 2010).

154 The influence of aerosol ionic strength on aqTMI reaction rates was considered carefully in the study.
155 Higher ALWC is typically accompanied by lower ionic strength, which increases the activity of TMI. The
156 relationship (Liu et al., 2020b) between the rate coefficients of the TMI pathway and ionic strength is
157 displayed in **Fig. S1**. The sulfate formation rate decreased by 424.82 times when ionic strength was 45 M
158 compared to the dilute solution with ionic strength of 0 M. Despite considering the effect of the activity
159 coefficient on the reaction rate of aqTMI, the contribution of the aqTMI was still dominant during haze

160 periods indicating that the dominance of aqTMI can be a widespread phenomenon, as recommended in
161 previous studies (He et al., 2018; Shao et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020a; Yue et al., 2020).

162 **2.2 Analysis of sulfate formation rate in different pollution conditions**

163 **Fig. 1 (a) and (b)** display the 3-h averaged sulfate formation rates in the PKU-17 and WD-14 during haze
164 periods. Contributions of the gas-phase radical oxidants were much higher during summer time. To fully
165 explain the relative contributions to sulfate formation from different pathways, the stabilized criegee
166 intermediates (SCIs) oxidant was also considered in the calculations. Based on the previous report
167 (Sarwar, 2013), the inclusion of the SCIs oxidation pathway further enhances sulfate production. We
168 modified the Regional Atmospheric Chemistry Mechanism (RACM2) (Goliff et al., 2013; Goliff and
169 Stockwell, 2008) to represent three explicit SCIs and their subsequent reactions (Welz et al., 2012) with
170 SO₂, NO₂, aldehydes, ketones, water monomer, and water dimer and calculated the contribution of this
171 pathway in two field campaigns.

172 The contribution of aqTMI increased rapidly with the aggravated pollution. High concentrations of
173 transition metals observed in Beijing facilitated the dissolution of Fe, Cu, and Mn. The relationship of
174 ionic strength and aqTMI rate constant is illustrated in **SI Fig. S1** and **Table S2** (Liu et al., 2020b). $\alpha_{\text{Fe(III)}}$
175 (III) is defined as the product of the Fe (III) activity coefficient, concentration, molecular weight (56) and
176 aerosol liquid water content. Compared to the total Fe concentration, it is more effective to evaluate the
177 impact of $\alpha_{\text{Fe(III)}}$ on sulfate formation. The relationship between $\alpha_{\text{Fe(III)}}$ and SOR

178 ($\equiv n(\text{SO}_2)/n(\text{SO}_2+\text{SO}_4^{2-})$), defined as the ratio of mole concentration of SO₂ with the sum of SO₂ and SO₄²⁻

179 mole concentrations) in PKU-17 winter field campaign was shown in **SI Figure S5**. Because of the

180 inhibition of the effects of high ionic strength on the rate constant of aqTMI, a high volume of aerosol

181 water during the haze event increased the TMI activity coefficient benefiting sulfate formation. Obvious

182 correlations between $\alpha_{\text{Fe(III)}}$ and sulfate concentration shown in **Fig. 1 (c) and (d)** were observed in the

183 haze periods both in summer ($R^2=0.63$) and winter ($R^2=0.71$) and the correlation is consistent with

184 ~~verified~~ the important contributions from aqTMI pathway to the sulfate formation. Affected by the higher

185 boundary layer height and higher gas phase radical concentration in summer, the correlation between
186 sulfate oxidant ratio $SOR = \frac{n(\text{SO}_2)}{n(\text{SO}_2 + \text{SO}_4^{2-})}$ and PM mass in summer is not as significant as that in
187 winter. In summer, as illustrated in **Fig. S6**, there was still an obvious positive dependence between SOR
188 and RH and ALWC, whereas a negative correlation was found between SOR and odd-
189 oxygen ($[\text{Ox}] \equiv [\text{O}_3] + [\text{NO}_2]$). As shown in **Fig. 1 (e) and (f)**, the sulfate formation through gaseous
190 reaction was more important in summer than in winter, mainly provided by gas phase radicals (OH and
191 SCIs). In WD-14 field campaign, heterogeneous aqTMI pathways were still dominant in the secondary
192 sulfate formation.

193 **2.3 Dependence of the Secondary sulfate formation rates on aerosol pH and** 194 **water content**

195 Aerosol pH and ALWC were calculated using the ISORROPIA-II model (Method M3). Because of the
196 high sensitivity of sulfate formation to pH, the lower range of aerosol pH during these two campaigns
197 made the aqTMI the most important one. The effects of high aerosol ionic strength on the dissolution
198 equilibrium and reaction rates were considered in calculations (Liu et al., 2020b) (**SI Table S2 to S4**).
199 Due to the low H_2O_2 concentration (~ 0.023 ppbV) and low ALWC observed in the PKU-17 field
200 campaign, the average contribution of H_2O_2 in haze periods ($\text{PM}_{2.5} > 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) was about 0.11 ± 0.15
201 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{h}$. Higher gas-phase H_2O_2 concentration may further increase the contribution of this pathway to
202 sulfate formation. Based on a recent report (Ye et al., 2018), higher gas-phase H_2O_2 concentrations were
203 observed in the NCP during different haze events, including severe haze episodes in suburban areas. At
204 0.1 ppbV H_2O_2 (about five times higher than the observed H_2O_2 concentration), the calculated sulfate
205 formation rate was $0.52 \pm 0.76 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{h}$ in haze periods with great uncertainty and still lower than the
206 contribution of the TMI pathway ($1.17 \pm 1.48 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{h}$).

207 Due to the potential interaction between various factors in the atmosphere, fixing certain parameters and
208 changing only the pH to obtain the sulfate production rate may cause errors. With the development of
209 haze, concentrations of O_3 and OH radicals decrease due to reduced UV radiation caused by the aerosol

210 dimming effect. Despite its minor contribution to sulfate production in winter, the increase in the ozone
 211 oxidation rate with pH was slower under actual conditions. Contributions of gas-phase radicals also
 212 showed a weak downward trend in the summer campaign (**Fig. 2 (c)**). The bias between calculated and
 213 observed values indicated a dynamic balance of atmospheric oxidation in the gas phase and aerosol phase.
 214 If we arbitrarily use the average values during haze periods and only changed the pH of the aerosols as in
 215 previous studies, the obtained sulfate production rate will deviate from the observed values. Actual
 216 ambient sulfate formation rates calculated using the measured values in polluted periods in two field
 217 campaigns are illustrated in **Fig. 2 (a) and (c)**. Average values except for pH during the haze periods were
 218 used to calculate the sulfate formation rates as shown in **Fig. 2 (b) and (d)**. The peak of the H₂O₂ line in
 219 the figure is caused by the change in the water content and ionic strength. In the pH range of 4.0–6.0, the
 220 calculated ALWC was in the highest range, increasing the contribution of H₂O₂ proportionally as
 221 calculated using **equation (1)**.

222 Aerosol water content is another key factor that influences the contribution of different pathway to sulfate
 223 formation. In the calculation, we changed the unit of sulfate formation rate from $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3_{\text{air}}$ to $\text{mol}/\text{s} \cdot \text{L}_{\text{water}}$
 224 and the sulfate formation rate can be calculated via the following equation with the modeled

225 $\frac{dS(VI)}{dt}$ (M/s):

$$226 \quad \frac{dS(VI)}{dt} (\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \cdot \text{h}^{-1}) = 0.01 \times 3600 (\text{s h}^{-1}) \cdot 96 \text{ g mol}^{-1} \cdot \frac{dS(VI)}{dt} (\text{M s}^{-1}) \cdot \frac{ALWC}{\rho_{\text{water}}} \quad (1)$$

227 where ALWC is in units of $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and ρ_{water} is the water density in kg L^{-1} . At high ionic strength, this
 228 expression is more accurate than the equivalent expression with the unit of M s^{-1} . The equilibrium amount
 229 of H₂O₂, O₃, and NO₂ in units of $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3_{\text{air}}$ is controlled by the amount of ALW, ie there is equilibrium
 230 between gas and particle water for these oxidants formed in the gas phase. And total amount of metal
 231 elements, Fe, Cu or Mn is not dependent on aerosol water content. Aerosol water content does not affect
 232 TMI levels in solution by affecting the solubility of the overall metal form of the specific species (**Fig.3**
 233 shows insensitivity of pH to ALWC, which has been pointed out in other papers (Wong et al.,

234 ~~2020). ALWC directly influences the contribution via external oxidizing substances such as H₂O₂, O₃, and~~
235 ~~NO₂ but not aqTMI pathway. Most H₂O₂, O₃, and NO₂ come from gas phase through dissolution~~
236 ~~equilibrium, while TMI is formed in particles.~~ The reaction kinetics and rate constants summarized in
237 **Table S2** suggest that there is a proportional relationship between ALWC and sulfate formation pathways
238 except aqTMI. One reason for the lower sulfate formation rate observed in the PKU-17 (1–3 μg m⁻³ h⁻¹) is
239 that the ALWC values were lower than those assumed in previous studies (ALWC = 300 μg m⁻³). This
240 deviation from the ALWC significantly reduces the contribution of several other pathways, but not the
241 contribution of transition metals to sulfate formation.

242 Due to the obvious heterogeneous reaction's contribution to sulfate formation in winter, we evaluated the
243 influence of ALWC on sulfate formation pathways in winter. TMI relevant pathways including aqTMI
244 and Mn-surface pathway were dominate in all range of ALWC as illustrated in **Fig.3**. In PKU-17 field
245 campaign, with the increasing of ALWC from 1 to 150 μg/m³, the ratio of ~~aqTMI to Mn-surface/aqTMI~~
246 continuously decreased mainly because of the decreasing particle specific surface areas. ~~The reduction~~
247 ~~effect of ionic strength on aqTMI rate reached a "platform" when ALWC exceeding 150 μg/m³ in winter,~~
248 ~~which means that higher ALWC will not increase the rate of aqTMI.~~ Mn-surface contributed most in
249 lower ALWC range where particle specific surface area was high and provide more reaction positions.

250 ~~Aqueous (Transition metal ions mole concentration mass will not increase) decreasing~~ with the aerosol
251 hygroscopic growth ~~indicating a "dilution effect" as shown in Fig. S7.~~ With the aerosol hygroscopic
252 growth, the increasing of transition metal total mass in air is slower than water mass in PKU-17. The ratio
253 of Fe total mass with (Fe_i)/ALWC decreasing with PM_{2.5} mass. ~~shown as shown in Fig. S7 indicating a~~
254 "dilution effect" which means aqueous mole concentration of TMI decreasing with higher aerosol water
255 content. Previous globe scale observations (Sholkovitz et al., 2012) of ~1100 samples also showed the
256 hyperbolic trends of Fe solubility with total Fe mass. Higher activity coefficients and lower aqueous TMI
257 concentration led to the emergence of "high platform" of the aqTMI pathways contribution to sulfate
258 formation in the range of 50-150 μg/m³ ALWC (ie, higher effective aqueous TMI in this range). While

259 ALWC exceeding 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in winter, the increase of activity coefficients could not promote the rate of
260 aqTMI. Due to the slight increase of aerosol pH and the dilution effect of aerosol hygroscopic growth on
261 TMI when ALWC exceeding 150 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ as discussed above, the importance of aqTMI and Mn-surface
262 contributions were lowered. At this time, the contributions of external oxidizing substances pathways
263 such as H_2O_2 , NO_2 or O_3 may rise in the proper pH range as illustrated in **Fig.4**. In winter fog or cloud
264 conditions with higher water content, the contribution from TMI may decrease a lot for their low
265 solubility and concentrations.

266 The same analysis also used in the summer WD-14 field campaign (as shown in **SI Fig.S8**). “The dilution
267 effect” occurred more dramatically in summer compared to that in winter because of a higher RH and
268 higher percentage of water in the aerosol. In this situation, the contribution of aqTMI or Mn-surface was
269 inhibited due to the low soluble TMI concentrations. Considering the positive relationships of SOR and
270 RH in summer WD-14 field campaign, aqueous and surface sulfate formation contributions mentioned in
271 the study could not explain the missing source of secondary sulfate. Because of the low pH range
272 observed in WD-14 field campaign, the contributions from H_2O_2 , NO_2 , O_3 or NO_3^- photolysis were
273 negligible. The missing contribution may mainly come from other pathways such as photosensitizing
274 molecules (Wang et al., 2020) under stronger UV in summer or contributions from hydroxy methane
275 sulfonate (Moch et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2020) which need further studies.

276

277 **Discussion and Conclusion**

278 We evaluated the contribution of different pathways to secondary sulfate formation using a state-of-art
279 size-segregated multiphase model constrained to the observed parameters from two field campaigns in the
280 North China Plain. In addition, the effects of aerosol solution non-ideality on aqueous-phase reaction rates
281 as well as dissolution equilibria were considered in the calculations. The results indicated that the
282 aqueous TMI-catalysed oxidation pathway (aqTMI) was ~~an~~ major important contributor to sulfate
283 formation during haze episodes, which is consistent with the results of the isotope and WRF-CHEM
284 studies (He et al., 2018; Shao et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020a; Yue et al., 2020).

285 Despite the dominant role of aqTMI in PKU-17 field campaign, contributions from other multiphase
286 pathways are not negligible. Dominant pathways varied with conditions such as clear or haze periods in
287 clouds or aerosol water. **Fig. 4** exhibits the contribution of different oxidation pathways to sulfate
288 formation in aerosol water (under different pollution levels), fog, and clouds to indicate the dominant
289 factors of sulfate formation under different conditions. In clear periods, gas-phase oxidation of SO₂ by gas
290 phase radicals (OH and SCIs) happens continuously, contributing 0.01–0.6 μg/m³/h to sulfate formation.
291 At the clean time, sulfate production is mainly limited by relatively low SO₂ concentrations and low
292 ALWC, which has promotion effects on the multiphase sulfate formation pathways. The average sulfate
293 formation rate during clear days was 1.30 μg/m³/h in winter and 2.13 μg/m³/h in summer because of the
294 generally higher ALWC in summer aerosol and much higher gas phase radical concentrations. Gas-phase
295 radicals (OH and SCIs) continuously oxidize SO₂ during the haze and clear periods.

296 External oxidizing substances such as NO₂ and O₃ had little contribution to sulfate formation during these
297 haze periods because of the high aerosol acidity. High pH (near 7) values were observed in these field
298 campaigns when the contribution of the NO₂ pathway was dominant at some point but not during the
299 entire pollution process; its proportion was much lower than that of aqTMI. Although the enhancement
300 factor of H₂O₂ oxidation was considered based on the measurement of previous study (Liu et al., 2020b),

301 the contribution of H₂O₂ oxidation was still below 0.5 μg S(VI)/m³/h because ALWC was about 10 times
302 lower than 300 μg m⁻³, which was used in previous studies (Cheng et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2020b).

303 The sulfate formation rate is limited by the ALWC according to **equation (1)**. Aerosol particles have
304 lower water content than cloud droplets, which provides larger space for aqueous phase reactions.
305 Therefore, at the gas-phase SO₂ concentrations of 5–50 ppb, 10–100 times higher water content in fog and
306 cloud droplets can cause higher sulfate formation rates up to 100 μg m⁻³ h⁻¹ assuming 0.1 g m⁻³ water in
307 clouds (**Fig. 4**). A high H₂O₂ concentration (1 ppb), which was 50 times higher than that in the PKU field
308 campaign, was used in the calculation in the Cloud_5.0 regime (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). No obvious
309 contribution from the NO₂ oxidation pathway was observed in the PKU-17 and WD-14 field campaigns
310 because of the lower pH range. As proposed in a previous study, the particulate nitrate photolysis can
311 explain the missing source of sulfate in Beijing haze (Zheng et al., 2020). However, according to the
312 recent laboratory report (Shi et al., 2021), the nitrate photolysis enhancement factor is no larger than 2 at
313 all RH ranges. We also included the calculation of nitrate photolysis in this study due to the high loading
314 of particle nitrate and found that the contribution was rather small (~0.008 μg m⁻³ h⁻¹ in winter haze
315 periods); thus, we did not include this pathway in the figures.

316 According to our modelled results and the newest study (Wang et al., 2021), Mn surface reactions
317 contributed a lot to sulfate formation. Except for possible Mn(OH)_x^(3-x) reacting with SO₂, Zhang et al.
318 (2006) proposed that other metal oxides such as Fe₂O₃ and Al₂O₃ can also react with SO₂ on the surface
319 of particles. While as mentioned above, the ratio of contributions from Mn-surface ~~and/~~ aqTMI to
320 produce sulfate will decrease with aerosol hygroscopic growth owing higher ALWC and lower specific
321 surface areas (as shown in Fig.3 panel (b) black dotted line). What's more, the organic coating of aerosol
322 particles can largely reduce the reactivity of surface heterogeneous reactions (Zelenov et al., 2017; Anttila
323 et al., 2006; Folkers et al., 2003; Ryder et al., 2015) and may cause the Mn-surface pathway less
324 important. High mass concentrations of organic aerosol (OA) were observed in Beijing both in winter and
325 summer (Hu et al., 2016), based on measured result (Yu et al., 2019a) from transmission electron

326 microscopy, up to 74 % by a number of non-sea-salt sulfate particles were coated with organic matter
327 (OM). The organic coating can effectively reduce the reactive sites in the surface of particles hence
328 reduce the reaction probability of SO₂ with surface metal. In the other hand, the widespread presence of
329 aerosol organic coating can also influence the bulk SO₂ catalysed by aqueous TMI but not only the
330 surface reactions. This effect is mainly achieved by the change of SO₂ solubility and diffusion coefficient
331 rather than the rates of catalytic reactions with TMI. Although ~~The organic coating will also influence the~~
332 ~~heterogeneous reaction rate mainly by changing the solubility and diffusion coefficient.~~ The solubility of
333 SO₂ in organic solvent changes a lot with the component of organic (Zhang et al., 2013; Huang et al.,
334 2014a). ~~While~~ according to previous studies of SO₂ uptake coefficient with sea-salt aerosol (Gebel et al.,
335 2000) and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) (Yao et al., 2019), no obvious uptake coefficient reduction
336 was observed with the organic coating further proving ~~indicating~~ the minor influence of the organic
337 coating on bulk ~~reactions~~ reaction rates. The catalytic reaction of SO₂ with aqTMI may less affected by
338 aerosol organic coating compared to SO₂ with Mn-surface. For these reasons, the surface reaction of SO₂
339 with Mn and other metals in actual aerosol conditions remain unclear with high uncertainties and need
340 further evaluation, ~~and t.~~ The relevant calculation results of WD-14 and PKU-17 in this paper represent
341 the upper limit of Mn-surface contribution. ~~The contribution of SO₂ with organic matter to sulfate~~
342 ~~formation is another uncertainty.~~ The missing contribution in WD-14 polluted conditions may mainly
343 come from organic photosensitizing molecules such as HULIS (Wang et al., 2020) under stronger UV in
344 summer or other SOA coupled mechanisms.

345 The results in this paper indicate that sulfate formation has different chemical behaviours in different
346 conditions. Aqueous TMI-catalysed oxidation was the most important pathway followed by the surface
347 oxidation of Mn in both winter and summer, while the hydroxyl and criegee radicals oxidations contribute
348 significantly in summer. Due to the differences in the physical and chemical properties between aerosol
349 water, fog water and cloud, nitrogen dioxide oxidation is the dominant pathway in higher pH range and
350 hydroperoxide and ozone oxidations dominated for the cloud. In model studies, the averaged and fixed

351 values should be used dialectically and carefully in the calculation of sulfate formation rate because of the
352 mutual restriction between factors such as pH, effective ion activity and concentration, and aerosol water
353 content. Model evaluation or numerical calculations of secondary pollutants should focus on the
354 application of actual atmospheric conditions observed in field campaigns with the application of closure
355 study. Our results highlight the important role of aerosol aqTMI in sulfate formation during haze periods
356 and the monitoring network of aerosol metal is necessary for the studies of secondary sulfate formation.
357 The aqTMI independent of solar radiation also explains the explosive growth of sulfate production at
358 night-time, which is frequently observed during haze episodes in the NCP.

359 Compared to the gas-phase oxidants, the control of anthropogenic emissions of aerosol TMI is conducive
360 to the reduction of secondary sulfates. The promotion of clean energy strategies aiming at reducing coal
361 burning and vehicle emissions to improve air quality in North China has reduced not only the primary
362 emissions of SO₂ but also the anthropogenic emissions of aerosol TMIs (Liu et al., 2018) and thus the
363 production of secondary sulfate. What' more, China's ecological and environmental protection measures
364 for tree planting and afforestation are conducive to reducing the generation of dust especially in the spring
365 can further reducing the quality of metal Fe concentrations in aerosols.

366 Our findings showed that urban aerosol TMIs contribute to sulfate formation during haze episodes and
367 play a key role in developing mitigation strategies and public health measures in megacities worldwide,
368 but the physicochemical processes of transition metals in particles require further research. Dissolved Mn
369 concentrations in this study were estimated based on previous studies. The solubility of transition metals
370 in aerosol water varying largely due to several factors including various source emissions, aerosol organic
371 matter and pH (Paris and Desboeufs, 2013; Wozniak et al., 2015; Tapparo et al., 2020) were not fully
372 considered in this study. Influences of organic matter and photosensitizing molecules on the solubility of
373 transition metal and the mechanism of sulfate formation need further research to understand this complex
374 and dynamic multiphase process from a broader perspective.

375

376 **Methods**

377 **M. 1 Sampling location and experimental methods**

378 The data from the 2014 Wangdu (WD) and 2017 Peking University (PKU) field campaigns, both
379 conducted in summer, were used in our analysis. The WD field campaign was carried out from June to
380 July 2014 at a rural site in Hebei (38.70° N, 115.15° E) characterized by severe photochemical smog
381 pollution (Tan et al., 2017; Song et al., 2020). The 2017 PKU campaign was performed from November
382 to December 2017 at the campus of Peking University (39.99° N, 116.31° E), which is in the city centre
383 of Beijing and characterized by strong local anthropogenic emissions from two major roads (Ma et al.,
384 2019).

385 Observations from both field campaigns include gas-phase measurements of SO₂ and O₃ from commercial
386 Thermo Scientific monitors and NO₂ detected after conversion through a custom-built photolytic
387 converter with UV-LED at 395 nm; aerosol mass-number concentration and distribution from a set of
388 commercial particle instruments containing Nano scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS) and
389 aerodynamic particle sizer (APS) to cover the size range of 3 nm to 10 μm. The mass concentration of
390 PM_{2.5} was measured by commercial Ambient Particulate Monitor (TEOM). The In-situ Gas and Aerosol
391 Compositions monitor (IGAC) (Young et al., 2016), which can collect gases and p_{articles}
392 simultaneously, was used to measure water-soluble ions online with 1-h time resolution. Both gas and
393 aerosol samples were injected into 10 mL glass syringes, which were connected to an ion chromatograph
394 (IC) for analysis (30-min time resolution for each sample). The concentrations of eight water soluble
395 inorganic ions (NH₄⁺, Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and Cl⁻) in fine particles were measured.
396 Transition metal (Fe and Cu) concentrations in PM_{2.5} were measured using the Xact 625 Ambient Metal
397 Monitor. With Xact, ambient air was introduced through a PM_{2.5} cyclone inlet at a constant flow rate of
398 16.7 L min⁻¹ and collected on the reel-to-reel poly tetrafluoroethylene filter. Then trace elements in
399 ambient fine particles on the filter were automatically detected using the United States Environmental
400 Protection Agency (USEPA) standard method via x-ray fluorescence (XRF) analysis (Gao et al., 2016;

401 Zhang et al., 2019). Ambient temperature and pressure data were measured using commercial
402 meteorological sensors; selected volatile organic compounds (VOCs) were measured via off-line gas
403 chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC-MS) in tower measurements using sampling canisters and via
404 online GC–MS in the surface campaign. The OH and HO₂ concentrations were measured via laser-
405 induced fluorescence (LIF) with the time resolution of 30 s as described in previous study (Ma et al.,
406 2019). The concentrations of gas-phase peroxides were measured using high-performance liquid
407 chromatography (HPLC, Agilent 1200, USA) with a time resolution of 21 min.

408 **M. 2 Brief overview of the PKU-MARK model**

409 The Multiple-phAse Reaction Kinetic Model (PKU-MARK) was first developed to calculate the
410 heterogeneous reaction rate of reactive gas molecules (Song et al., 2020). The units of aqueous reagents
411 are converted to molecules·cm⁻³ in the model by a factor k_{mt} , which combines both gas-phase molecular
412 diffusion and liquid-phase interface mass transport processes (Schwartz, 1984; Schwartz, 1986) and used
413 in the calculation for gas–liquid multiphase reactions in many modelling studies (Lelieveld and Crutzen,
414 1991; Chameides and Stelson, 1992a; Sander, 1999; Hanson et al., 1994; Song et al., 2020). In this study,
415 the PKU-MARK model was further developed with the correction of ionic strength for all ions and
416 reactants and applied to a size-segregated system to investigate the influence of aerosol particle size
417 distribution and ALWC distribution. Eleven bins of aerosol particle diameters and corresponding ALWC
418 values were applied in the model. With the input of one-hour averaged parameters observed in the field
419 campaign, the PKU-MARK model produced the state-state concentrations of aqueous reactants including
420 reactive oxygen species (H₂O₂, O₃, OH, HO₂, O₂⁻), Fe (III), Mn (II), SO_{2(aq)}, and NO_{2(aq)}. Considering the
421 mutual influence of various factors in the reaction system can effectively prevent bias caused by
422 arbitrarily fixing a certain value as was often done in previous studies.

423 **M. 3 Calculation of aerosol pH, aerosol liquid water, and ionic strength**

424 ALWC and aerosol pH were calculated using the ISORROPIA-II model and measured concentrations of
425 inorganic ions in particles. ISORROPIA-II is a thermodynamic equilibrium model that predicts the
426 physical state and composition of atmospheric inorganic aerosols. Its ability to predict pH has been
427 demonstrated in detail in previous studies (Guo et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015). Ionic strength was calculated
428 via equation (2) (Ross and Noone, 1991):

$$429 \quad I_s = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum m_i \cdot z_i^2, \quad (2)$$

430 where m_i is the molality of an ion (mol L^{-1}), and z_i is the corresponding charge. In the PKU-MARK
431 model, reaction rates were replaced by the activity coefficient. The ionic strength was estimated using the
432 ISORROPIA-II model assuming that the condensed phase is in the meta-stable state and complete
433 external mixing state.

434 In order to consider the influence of particle diameter on aqueous SO_2 concentrations, which is key to
435 calculate sulfate formation, we used a 11-bin actual particle diameter distribution rather than one even
436 distribution used in previous studies (Cheng et al., 2016). The distribution of particle number
437 concentration and water content is illustrated in **Fig. S2**. We also considered the distribution of ALWC in
438 different particle diameter bins based on the κ -Köhler theory (Petters and Kreidenweis, 2007) using
439 observed kappa values from High Humidity Tandem Differential Mobility Analyser (HH-TDMA) and the
440 Twin Differential Mobility Particle Sizer (TDMPS)/APS (Bian et al., 2014). Calculated ALWC values
441 were strongly correlated with the ISORROPIA-II results (**Fig. S3**).

442 To combine both gas-phase molecular diffusion and liquid-phase interface mass transport processes, the
443 approach adopted in this study uses one variable called k_{mt} (Schwartz, 1984; Schwartz, 1986), which is
444 used in multiphase reactions in many modelling studies (Lelieveld and Crutzen, 1991; Chameides and
445 Stelson, 1992b; Sander, 1999; Hanson et al., 1994). The definition of k_{mt} is given in equation (3):

$$446 \quad k_{mt} = \left(\frac{R_d^2}{3D_g} + \frac{4R_d}{3\nu_{HO_2}\alpha} \right)^{-1}. \quad (3)$$

447 The rate of gas-phase reactions (X) diffusing and dissolving to the condensed phase can be calculated in
448 the framework of aqueous-phase reactions as $k_{mt_X} \times ALWC$ where X is the reactant molecule (please see
449 **Table S8** for more details). Moreover, the conversion rate of aqueous-phase reactions to gas-phase
450 reactions can be calculated as $\frac{k_{mt_X}}{H^{cc} \times RT}$. The unit of k_{mt} is s^{-1} , as k_{mt} contains the conversion from m_{air}^{-3} of
451 the gas-phase molecule concentrations to m_{aq}^{-3} of the aqueous-phase molecule concentrations. Particle
452 diameter can influence the mass transport rate of SO_2 and its aqueous concentration. Based on the model
453 results of (Xue et al., 2016), diameter had an impact on sulfate formation rates: for larger particles
454 (radius $>1 \mu m$), k_{mt} is determined by gas-phase diffusion; for smaller particles (radius $<1 \mu m$), k_{mt} is
455 determined by the accommodation process. The PKU-MARK model can simultaneously simulate two-
456 phase (gas and liquid) reaction systems in the same framework.

457 **M. 4 Model Evaluation**

458 Concentrations of sulfate were calculated by integrating an extension of the Eulerian box model described
459 in previous study (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Sulfate concentrations are related to dry deposition,
460 transport, dilution as the boundary layer height (BLH) expands, emissions, and net production. Due to the
461 higher and more dramatically diurnal changing BLH in summer (Lou et al., 2019), and the lack of
462 relevant data in WD-14 field campaign, we could not get the modelled results of sulfate concentrations in
463 summer haze periods. Direct emissions and transport of sulfate were not considered in the calculation
464 because secondary sulfate is the predominant source in winter haze periods. Dilution was not considered
465 either because the atmosphere is relatively homogeneous during winter haze episodes. Since haze events
466 are normally accompanied by a low boundary layer height (H_t), H_t was set at 300 m at night-time and 450
467 m at noon (Xue et al., 2016). At other times, H_t was estimated using a polynomial ($n = 2$) regression as
468 recommended in previous study (Xue et al., 2016). The diurnal trends of sulfate concentrations of the
469 winter haze period using the deposition velocity of 1.5 cm/s and of 2 cm/s in summer are shown in **Fig. 1**
470 **(c) and (d)**. -Model results had the same trend with the observed values and could explain the missing
471 source of sulfate aerosol to some extent in winter while with high uncertainties in summer condition.

472

473

474 Table 1. Averaged results of observed meteorological parameters, trace gases concentrations transition metal
 475 concentrations such as Fe, Cu, Mn and calculated ALWC, ionic strength, pH and sulfate formation rates in
 476 different pollution conditions in two field campaigns ($\pm 1\sigma$). All mentioned aerosol data is particle matters
 477 diameter smaller than 2.5 μm .

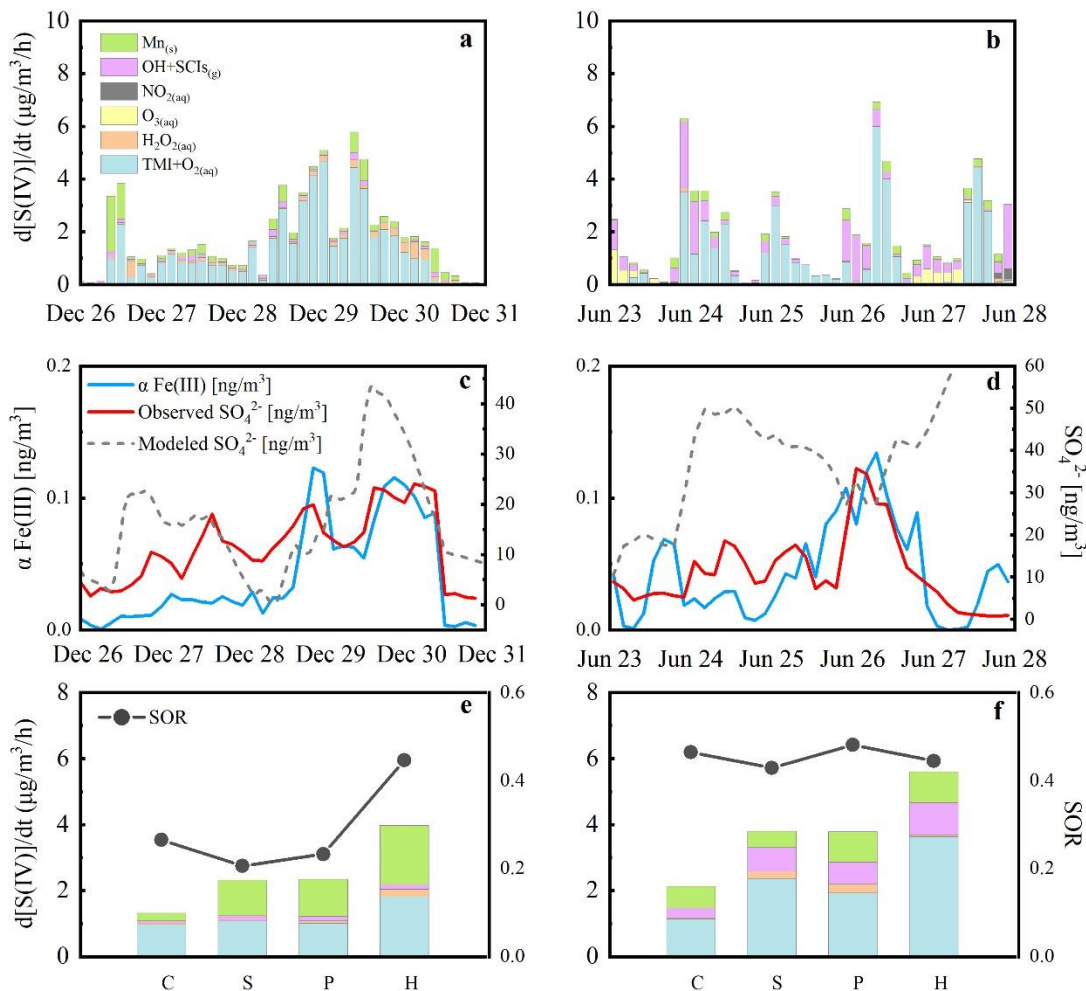
Parameters	Clean	Slightly polluted	Polluted	Highly polluted
Winter				
RH (%)	25.0 \pm 8.3	37.1 \pm 11.5	44.8 \pm 11.9	63.6 \pm 19.5
Temperature (K)	273.0 \pm 4.6	274.1 \pm 3.3	273.6 \pm 2.6	273.8 \pm 2.3
SO ₂ (ppbV)	2.4 \pm 1.4	5.8 \pm 2.0	6.5 \pm 2.6	5.5 \pm 3.0
NO ₂ (ppbV)	21.1 \pm 10.4	37.6 \pm 6.3	44.1 \pm 6.1	57.6 \pm 8.7
OH (#/cm ³)	(4.67 \pm 3.73) $\times 10^5$	(5.02 \pm 5.22) $\times 10^5$	(4.42 \pm 2.78) $\times 10^5$	(4.36 \pm 3.06) $\times 10^5$
H ₂ O ₂ (pptV)	29.8 \pm 20.8	23.5 \pm 27.2	19.5 \pm 39.6	20.9 \pm 22.8
O ₃ (ppbV)	14.8 \pm 11.9	3.2 \pm 5.7	2.1 \pm 2.7	1.1 \pm 1.2
SO ₄ ²⁻ ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	3.5 \pm 1.5	6.4 \pm 3.5	8.3 \pm 4.2	16.6 \pm 6.6
Fe (ng/m ³)	348.4 \pm 263.0	564.2 \pm 188.2	725.5 \pm 258.6	1300.6 \pm 289.5
Cu (ng/m ³)	7.0 \pm 5.0	13.8 \pm 4.2	18.7 \pm 6.0	29.3 \pm 6.6
Mn (ng/m ³)	12.4 \pm 9.4	20.1 \pm 6.7	25.9 \pm 9.2	46.5 \pm 10.3
ALWC ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	3.1 \pm 2.6	3.8 \pm 4.4	11.9 \pm 15.6	82.4 \pm 67.3
Surface area ($\mu\text{m}^2/\text{cm}^3$)	263.2 \pm 171.5	714.3 \pm 242.2	1253.3 \pm 448.9	2628.6 \pm 1164.4
<u>PM_{2.5} ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)</u>	<u>18.3\pm10.1</u>	<u>52.0\pm10.0</u>	<u>101.7\pm18.2</u>	<u>190.0\pm30.0</u>
pH	4.43 \pm 1.12	4.52 \pm 0.76	4.93 \pm 0.57	4.77 \pm 0.39
Ionic Strength (M)	170.34 \pm 88.32	89.32 \pm 55.19	61.59 \pm 38.7	36.27 \pm 36.93
d[S(VI)]/dt ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3/\text{h}$)	1.3 \pm 1.88	2.25 \pm 2.15	2.35 \pm 2.19	3.98 \pm 2.75
Summer				
RH (%)	69.5 \pm 17.9	64.4 \pm 18.4	66.4 \pm 13.0	65.6 \pm 7.7
Temperature (K)	296.5 \pm 3.6	298.5 \pm 4.4	299.1 \pm 2.9	298.9 \pm 3.1

SO ₂ (ppbV)	2.4±2.0	4.6±4.4	5.6±5.0	7.9±4.0
NO ₂ (ppbV)	8.7±4.9	9.6±5.6	9.0±5.5	12.3±6.1
OH (#/cm ³)	(2.38±2.44)×10 ⁵	(3.27±3.21)×10 ⁵	(2.77±2.26)×10 ⁵	(3.50±3.38)×10 ⁵
H ₂ O ₂ (pptV)	466.2±571.6	355.5±488.0	596.1±777.0	173.6±348.6
O ₃ (ppbV)	46.0±30.3	50.9±30.6	53.0±26.6	48.5±28.5
SO ₂ ⁴⁻ (μg/m ³)	7.2±2.6	11.0±4.9	17.8±6.0	24.4±6.0
Fe (ng/m ³)	521.6±286.6	469.3±151.7	535.2±177.0	730.9±156.6
Cu (ng/m ³)	26.6±18.8	37.7±31.8	33.8±26.0	47.1±36.3
Mn (ng/m ³)	18.6±10.2	16.8±5.4	19.1±6.3	26.1±5.6
ALWC (μg/m ³)	31.8±30.9	35.7±32.8	48.6±31.4	58.8±14.4
Surface area (μm ² /cm ³)	767.8±265.6	925.0±213.9	1389.0±312.6	1711.1±729.6
<u>PM_{2.5} (μg/m³)</u>	<u>20.1±10.2</u>	<u>54.9±11.7</u>	<u>104.8±20.5</u>	<u>194.6±32.9</u>
pH	4.48±0.48	4.19±0.66	4.17±0.48	4.33±0.44
Ionic Strength (M)	20.04±17.53	25.44±20.83	24.27±14.06	24.2±9.19
d[S(VI)]/dt (μg/m ³ /h)	2.13±2.03	3.81±4.22	3.79±5.66	5.6±4.45

478 The concentration of Mn was estimated based on the ratio of Fe/Mn observed in urban Beijing in the
479 literatures (summarized in Table S9). **All mentioned aerosol data is particle matters diameter smaller**
480 **than 2.5 μm, and PM_{2.5} refers to the dry mass concentration of fine particulate matters.**

481

482 **Figure 1. Three-hour average sulfate formation rates during haze periods in winter and summer**
483 **(a)&(b), corresponding effective Fe (III) concentrations and sulfate concentrations (c)&(d), sulfate**
484 **formation rates (the histogram) and SOR (the dotted lines) in different pollution levels in two field**
485 **campaigns (e)&(f).**



486

487

488 The contributions to sulfate formation from each multiphase oxidant pathways including Mn-surface

489 oxidant (green), gas phase OH radical and Stabilized Criegee Intermediates (SCIs) oxidant (pink),

490 aqueous phase NO_2 (grey), O_3 (yellow), H_2O_2 (orange) and aqTMI (blue) were colored in the figure.

491 Obvious particle growth and removal was observed in winter (26th to 31st, December, 2017) and diurnal

492 variation patterns of sulfate concentration were observed in summer (23th to 28th, June, 2014). Diurnal

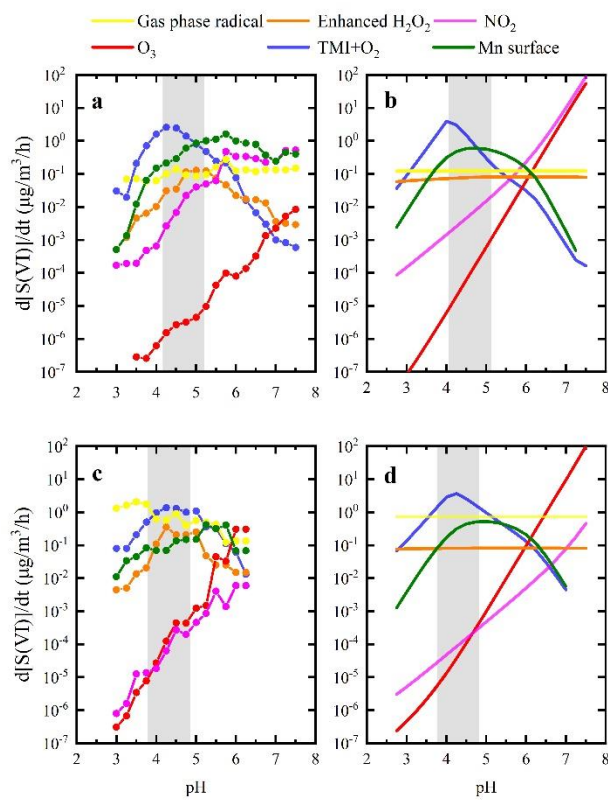
493 trends of modelled winter period's sulfate concentration (grey dash line) using deposition velocity as 1.5

494 cm/s in winter and 2 cm/s in summer are illustrated in panel (c) and (d). The dotted lines in the (e), winter

495 and (f), summer indicate the SOR with pollution level in the whole campaigns and the capitalized letters

496 “C”, “S”, “P”, “H” are the abbreviations for “Clean”, “Slightly polluted”, “Polluted” and “highly
497 polluted”, respectively.

498 **Figure 2. Multiphase sulfate production under actual ambient conditions (a,c) and averaged**
499 **conditions (b,d) in winter (a, b) and summer (c, d) in the North China Plain.**

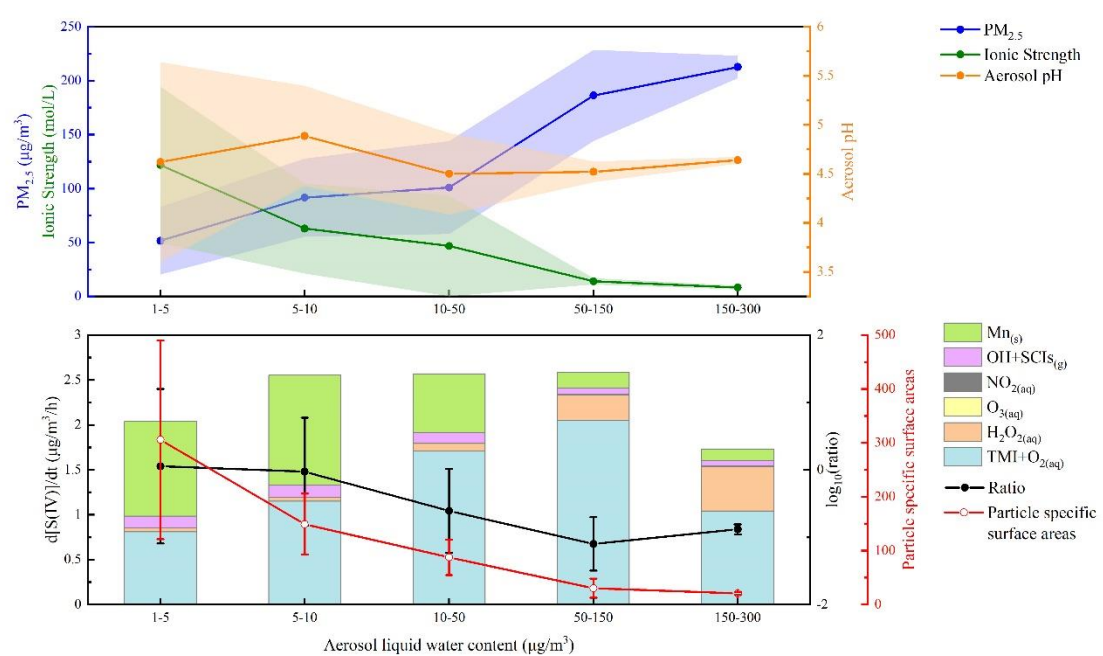


500
501 Given the actual measured concentration, the steady-state concentration of each reactant was calculated
502 using the MARK model accounting for the impact of ionic strength on the Henry's law coefficient of the
503 gas-phase reactants. Panels (a) and (c) show the cluster averaged results with a pH span of 0.5. Panels (b)
504 and (d) show the sulfate formation rate obtained by fixing the average precursors levels during the haze
505 periods and by changing the aerosol pH, which is consistent with the calculation method of previous
506 studies (Cheng et al., 2016). Grey-shaded areas indicate the ISORROPIA-II (Fountoukis and Nenes,
507 2007) model calculated pH ranges during the haze periods of two field campaigns. The coloured solid
508 lines represent sulfate production rates calculated for different multiphase reaction pathways with
509 oxidants: enhanced H_2O_2 , O_3 , TMIs, NO_2 , surface Mn and gas-phase radicals ($\text{OH}+\text{SCIs}$). The solid

510 orange line represents the calculated sulfate formation rate via H₂O₂ with a factor of 100 in winter and
 511 summer according to the latest research results (Liu et al., 2020b). Reactant concentrations, aqueous
 512 reaction rate expressions, and rate coefficients are summarized in the SI.

513 **Figure 3. Variation of PM_{2.5}, ionic strength, aerosol pH, particle specific surface areas and sulfate formation**
 514 **rates from different pathways with aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) during winter field campaign.**

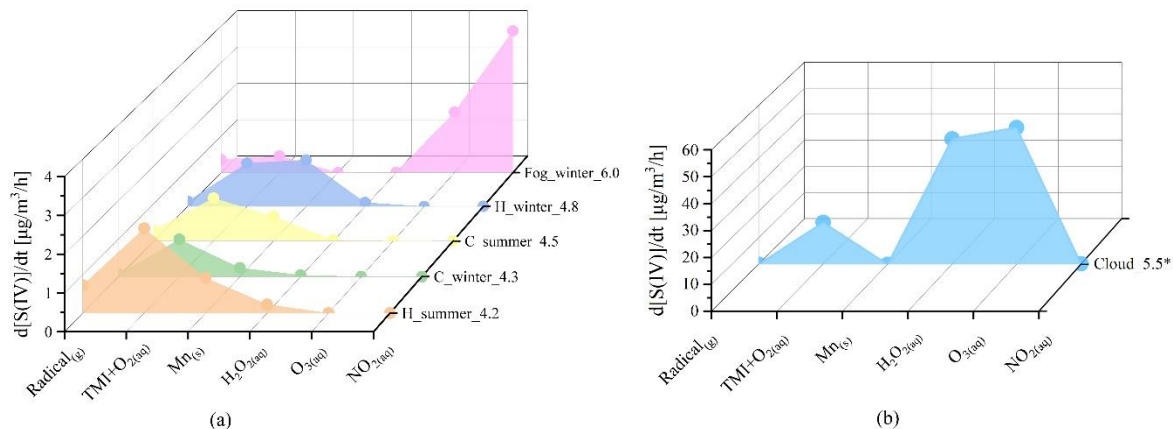
515 The total number of valid data points shown in the figure is 479. The shaded area refer to the error bar (\pm
 516 σ) of PM_{2.5} mass concentration, aerosol ionic strength and pH calculated by ISORROPIA-II(Fountoukis



517 and Nenes, 2007). Ratio in the second panel refers to the ratio of contributions from Mn-surface ~~and to~~
 518 aqTMI to produce sulfate. Particle specific surface areas represent the ratio of particle surface area
 519 ($\mu\text{m}^2/\text{cm}^3$) and mass concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

520
 521

522 **Figure 4. Bar graph showing modelled contributions of various pathways to sulfate formation**
 523 **under different pollution conditions.**



524
 525 Different pollution conditions including clear ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$ smaller than $35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in winter PKU 2017
 526 (C_winter_4.3) and summer WD 2014 (C_summer_4.5); pollution ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$ larger than $75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in PKU
 527 2017 (H_winter_4.8), WD 2014 (H_summer_4.2); fog conditions used in a previous study (Xue et al.,
 528 2016) (Fog_winter_6.0) and cloud conditions (Cloud_5.5) simulated by Seinfeld and Pandis (2016). The
 529 number in each label indicates the average pH value chosen in these calculations. We assumed that the
 530 cloud water content is $0.1 \text{ g}/\text{m}^3$ in the last condition, and reduced the H_2O_2 concentration to 0.1 ppb
 531 compared to the high value used before (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016).
 532

533 **Data Availability**

534 Data supporting this publication are available upon request for the corresponding author

535 (k.lu@pku.edu.cn).

536 **Conflict of interests**

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

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543 **Author Contributions**

544 Keding Lu conceived the study. Huan Song and Keding Lu developed the MARK model for multiphase

545 simulations. Can Ye provide supports in the calculation. Huan Song performed the model simulations and

546 wrote the manuscript with Keding Lu and Can Ye. Keding Lu and Yuanhang Zhang lead the two field

547 campaigns. Keding Lu, Huabin Dong, Shule Li, Shiyi Chen, Zhijun Wu, Mei Zheng, Limin Zeng, Min Hu

548 & Yuanhang Zhang provide campaign data for the analysis.

549 **Supplementary Information**

550

551 Supplementary information includes:

- 552 • Supplementary Information Text

553 Text S1. Activity coefficients of main reactants in the MARK model

554 Text S2. The concentration of aerosol particle transition metals in urban areas

- 555 • Supplementary Information Figures Fig.S1-S9

556 Fig. S1. Ionic strength of aerosol particle solution influence on the aqTMI rate constant.

557 Fig. S2. Distribution of ALWC and number concentration with aerosol particle bins in two
558 campaigns.

559 Fig. S3. Calculated aerosol water by ISORROPIA-II model and H-TDMA method in two field
560 campaigns during haze periods. The plots were coloured with the relative humidity values. The
561 black dashed line in the figure is the 1:1 baseline, and the red solid line is the linear fitting result
562 assuming the intercept is zero.

563 Fig. S4. Time series of observed gas-phase pollutants concentrations, RH, Temperature, PM2.5
564 mass loading and calculated aerosol pH and water content and sulfate formation rates in these
565 four haze periods in PKU-17 field campaign.

566 Fig. S5. SOR ($\equiv n(\text{SO}_2)/n(\text{SO}_2+\text{SO}_4^{2-})$) correlations with effective Fe (III) concentrations in
567 PKU-17 winter field campaign.

568 Fig. S6. SOR ($\equiv n(\text{SO}_2)/n(\text{SO}_2+\text{SO}_4^{2-})$) correlations with odd oxygen ($[\text{O}_x] \equiv [\text{O}_3] + [\text{NO}_2]$) and
569 relative humidity (RH) in WD-14 summer field campaign

570 Fig. S7 The “dilution effect” of Fe mass concentration and ALWC increasing with PM mass in
571 winter and summer.

572 Fig. S8. Variation of PM2.5, ionic strength, aerosol pH, particle specific surface areas and
573 sulfate formation rates from different pathways with aerosol liquid water content (ALWC)
574 during summer field campaign.

575 • Supplementary Information Tables S1-S9.

576 Table S1. Reaction rate expression and constant for SO₂ oxidation by OH in the gas-phase.

577 Table S2. Aqueous-phase reaction rate expressions, rate constants (k) and influence of ionic
578 strength (Is) on k for sulfate production in aerosol particle condensed phase.

579 Table S3. Calculations of Henry' law coefficients and influence of ionic strength.

580 Table S4. Typical activity coefficient values and expressions used in the MARK model.

581 Table S5. Kinetic data for the simulation of reactions in the aerosol particle condensed phase.

582 Table S6. Photolysis rates (aqueous phase) used in the model at noon ($s_{za} = 20^\circ$)

583 Table S7. Aqueous equilibrium reactions

584 Table S8. Kinetic data for the simulation of gas-liquid phase conversion reactions

585 Table S9. Concentration of transition metals in PM_{2.5} in urban areas.

586 • SI References

587

588 **References**

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