1 Elucidate the Formation Mechanism of Particulate

2 Nitrate Based on Direct Radical Observations in the

3 Yangtze River Delta summer 2019

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Abstract. Particulate nitrate (NO₃⁻) is one of the dominant components of fine particles in China, especially during pollution episodes, and has a significant impact on human health, air quality, and climate. Here a comprehensive field campaign that focuses on the atmospheric oxidation capacity and aerosol formation and their effects in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) was conducted from May to June 2019 at a regional site in Changzhou, Jiangsu province in China. The concentration of NO₃⁻, OH radical, N₂O₅, NO₂, O₃, and relevant parameters were measured simultaneously. We showed a high NO_3^- mass concentration with 10.6 $\pm~8.9~\mu g~m^{-3}$ on average, which accounted for 38.3 % of total water-soluble particulate components and 32.0 % of total PM_{2.5}, followed by the proportion of sulfate, ammonium, and chloride by 26.0 %, 18.0 %, and 2.0 %, respectively. This result confirmed that the heavy nitrate pollution in eastern China not only happened in winter but also in the summertime. This study's high nitrate oxidation ratio (NOR) emphasized the solid atmospheric oxidation and fast nitrate formation capacity in YRD. It was found that OH + NO2 during daytime dominated nitrate formation on clean days, while N₂O₅ hydrolysis vastly enhanced and became comparable with that of OH + NO₂ during polluted days (67.2 % and 30.2 %, respectively). An updated observed-constrain Empirical Kinetic Modeling Approach (EKMA) was used to assess the kinetic controlling factors of both local O₃ and NO₃⁻ productions, which indicated that the O_3 -targeted scheme (VOCs: $NO_x = 2: 1$) is adequate to mitigate the O₃ and nitrate pollution coordinately during summertime in this region. Our results promote the understanding of nitrate pollution mechanisms and mitigation based on field observation and model simulation and call for more attention to nitrate pollution in the summertime.

Keywords:

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48 Nitrate pollution; Dinitrogen pentoxide; Nitrate formation; Pollution mitigation

1 Introduction

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50 Chemical compositions of fine particles have been measured in China during the past 51 twenty years, and secondary inorganic aerosol is regarded as one of the dominant 52 species in aerosol (Cao et al., 2012; Hagler et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2013; Andreae et 53 al., 2008). Since the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan, there has been 54 a significant decrease in SO₂, NO₂, and PM_{2.5} concentration in China, while the 55 inorganic nitrate ratio in PM_{2.5} increased and became the considerable component in 56 PM_{2.5} (Shang et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2022). Therefore, a comprehensive 57 understanding of the particlate nitrate formation mechanism is essential and critical to 58 mitigating haze pollution in China. 59 Massive research has been done in China to investigate nitrate formation 60 mechanisms, and a basic framework has been established (Sun et al., 2006; Chang et 61 al., 2018; Wu et al., 2019). In the daytime, NO₂ + OH radical oxidation (Reaction 1) is the major particulate nitrate formation pathway. The product (HNO₃) reacts with 62 63 alkaline substances in aerosol, generating particulate nitrate. This pathway is mainly 64 controlled by precursors concentration as well as the gas-particle partition of gaseous 65 nitric acid, and particulate nitrate depends on temperature, relative humidity (RH), NH₃ 66 concentration, and aerosol acidity (Wang et al., 2009; Song and Carmichael, 2001; 67 Meng et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). At night, N₂O₅ uptake is a vital nitrate formation pathway (Reaction 4)(Chen et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022). N₂O₅ is formed through 68 $NO_2 + NO_3$ (Reaction 3) and there exists a quick thermal equilibrium balance ($K_{eq} = 5.5$ 69 × 10⁻¹⁷ cm⁻³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, 298 K). However, two problems remain ambiguous in 70 71 quantifying the contribution of N₂O₅ uptake to nitrate formation. The first is the N₂O₅ heterogeneous uptake coefficient (γ) on ambient aerosol is highly varied with the range 72 from 10⁻⁴ to 10⁻¹ based on previous lab and field measurements (Bertram and Thornton, 73 74 2009; Brown et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2017c; Wang and Lu, 2016). The other one is 75 ClNO₂ production yield which influences nitrate contribution due to the extensive 76 variation range (Phillips et al., 2016; Staudt et al., 2019; Tham et al., 2018). Both two

parameters are complex to well-predicted by current schemes. NO₂ heterogeneous uptake has been found nonnegligible for nitrate formation, which can be a vital pathway during heavy haze events, according to recent studies (Qiu et al., 2019; Chan et al., 2021). The uptake coefficient and nitrate yield remain uncertain, as same as the N₂O₅ heterogeneous reaction. Besides, N₂O₅ homogeneous hydrolysis and NO₃ radical oxidation have a minor contribution to particulate nitrate under ambient conditions(Brown et al., 2009; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016).

$$NO_{2} + OH \rightarrow HNO_{3}$$

$$NO_{2} + O_{3} \rightarrow NO_{3} + O_{2}$$

$$R2$$

$$NO_{2} + NO_{3} + M \rightarrow N_{2}O_{5} + M$$

$$R3.1$$

$$N_{2}O_{5} + M \rightarrow NO_{2} + NO_{3} + M$$

$$R3.2$$

R4

As a critical area of China's economy and industry, Yangtze River Delta (YRD) has suffered severe air pollution during past decades, and fine particle pollution in YRD has raised a widespread concern (Guo et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2017; Ming et al., 2017; Xue et al., 2019). However, most research focuses on wintertime PM2.5 pollution and lacks measurements of critical intermediate species and radicals to assess the importance of each nitrate formation pathway. In this study, with the direct measurements of hydroxyl radical and the reactive nitrogen compounds and chemical box model analysis, we explore the characteristics of nitrate and precursors in YRD in the summer of 2019, the importance of particulate nitrate formation pathways is quantified, and the controlling factors are explored. A further suggestion for summer pollution prevention and control in the local area is proposed.

 $N_2O_5 + (H_2O \text{ or } Cl^-) \rightarrow (2 - \varphi) NO_3^- + \varphi ClNO_2$

2 Site description and methods

2.1 The campaign site

This campaign took place at a suburban sanatorium from May 30th to June 18th, 2019, in Changzhou, China. Changzhou (119.95 °E, 31.79 °N) is located in Jiangsu province and about 150 km northwest of Shanghai. The sanatorium, located 420 m east of Lake Ge (one of the largest lakes in Jiangsu province, 164 square kilometers), is surrounded by farmland and fishponds. With the closest arterial traffic 1 km away, several industry zones are 4 km to the east. The prevailing wind was from the south and southeast sectors (about 30 % of the time) compared to 20 % from the west sector, of which only 15 % came from the east. The wind speed was usually lower than 5 m s⁻¹ with faster speed from the west. This site was influenced by anthropogenic and biological sources with occasional biomass burning.

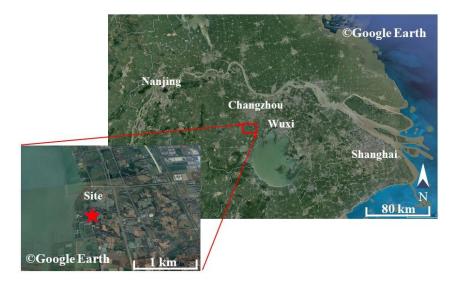


Figure 1 The location of the campaign site (red star), Changzhou, is 150 km on the northwest side of Shanghai.

2.2 The instrumentation

Multiple gaseous and particlate parameters were measured simultaneously during the

campaign to comprehensively interpret the nocturnal atmospheric capacity and aerosol formation. The related instruments are listed in Table 1. N₂O₅ and Particle Number and Size Distribution (PNSD) were measured on the fourth floor of the sanatorium, which is the top of the building. Other instruments were placed in containers on the ground 170 m northeast of the building, and sampling inlets at circa 5 m above the ground through the containers' roof.

N₂O₅ was measured by Cavity Enhanced Absorption Spectrometer (CEAS) based on Lambert-Beer's law which was developed by (Wang et al., 2017b). Briefly, air samples were drawn through the window and reached out of the wall 30 cm to prevent influence from surface deposition. The aerosol membrane filter was deployed before the PFA sampling tube and changed every 2 hours at night to avoid a decrease in N₂O₅ transmission efficiency due to the increased loss of N₂O₅ from the accumulated aerosols on the filter. N₂O₅ was decomposed to NO₃ and NO₂ through preheating tube heat at 130 °C and detected within a PFA-coated resonator cavity heated at 110 °C to prevent the formation of N₂O₅ by reversible reaction subsequently. At the end of each sampling cycle (5 min), a 30 s injection of high concentration NO (10 ppm, 20 ml min⁻¹) mixed with sample air was set to eliminate NO₃-N₂O₅ in the system. The NO titration spectrums were adopted as the dynamic background spectrum by assuming no H₂O concentration variation in a single sampling cycle. The loss of N₂O₅ in the sampling system and filter was also considered during data correction. The limit of detection (LOD) was estimated to be 2.7 pptv (1 σ) with an uncertainty of 19 %.

OH radical measurement was conducted by Fluorescence Assay by Gas Expansion Laser-Induced Fluorescence techniques (FAGE-LIF). Ambient air was expanded through a 0.4 mm nozzle to low pressure in a detection chamber, where the 308 nm laser pulse irradiated OH radical at a repetition rate of 8.5 kHz (Chen et al., 2018). NO_x and O₃ were monitored by commercial monitors (Thermo-Fisher 42i and 49i). Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) were measured by an automated Gas Chromatograph equipped with a Mass Spectrometer and flame ionization detector (GC-MS) with a time

resolution of 60 min. The photolysis frequencies were determined from the spectral actinic photon flux density measured by a spectroradiometer (Bohn et al., 2008).

PM_{2.5} concentration was obtained by Tapered Element Oscillating Microbalance (TEOM 1405, Thermo Scientific Inc). Aerosol surface concentration (S_a) was converted from particle number and size distribution, which was measured by Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS, TSI 3936) and Aerosol Particle Sizer (APS, TSI 3321) and modified to the wet particle-state S_a with a hygroscopic growth factor (Liu et al., 2013). The uncertainty of the wet S_a was ~ 30 %. Meanwhile, water-soluble particulate components and their gaseous precursors were analyzed through the Monitor for AeRosols and GAses in ambient air (MARGA, Chen et al. (2017)). Meteorological data were also available, including the temperature, relative humidity (RH), pressure, wind speed, and wind direction.

Table 1 The observed gas and particle parameters during the campaign.

Parameters	Detection of limit	Method	Accuracy
N_2O_5	2.7 pptv (1 σ, 1 min)	CEAS	± 19 %
ОН	$1.6 \times 10^5 \mathrm{cm}^{-3} (1 \mathrm{\sigma}, 60 \mathrm{s})$	LIF ^a	\pm 21 %
NO	60 pptv (2 σ, 1 min)	PC^{c}	$\pm~10~\%$
NO_2	0.3 ppbv (2 σ, 1 min)	PC^{c}	$\pm~10~\%$
O_3	0.5 ppbv (2 σ, 1 min)	UV photometry	\pm 5 %
VOCs	20-300 pptv (60 min)	GC-MS	\pm 15 %
$PM_{2.5}$	$0.1 \ \mu g \ m^{-3} (1 \ min)$	$TEOM^d$	\pm 5 %
Photolysis frequencies	5×10 ⁻⁵ s ⁻¹ (1 min)	SR^e	\pm 10 %
PNSD	14 nm -700 nm (4 min)	SMPS, APS	$\pm~10~\%$
HNO ₃ , NO ₃ , HCl	0.06 ppbv (30 min)	$MARGA^f$	$\pm~20~\%$
NH ₄ ⁺ , NO ₃ ⁻ , Cl ⁻ , SO ₄ ²⁻	0.05 μg m ⁻³ (30 min)	$MARGA^f$	$\pm~20~\%$

^a Laser-induced fluorescence; ^b Chemiluminescence; ^c Photolytic converter; ^d Tapered Element Oscillating Microbalance; ^e Spectroradiometer; ^f the Monitor for AeRosols and GAses in ambient air.

2.3 The empirical kinetic modeling approach

A box model coupled with the Regional Atmospheric Chemical Mechanism version 2 (RACM2, Goliff, Stockwell & Lawson, 2013) is used to conduct the mitigation strategies studies. The model is operated in one-hour time resolution with measurement

160 results of temperature, relative humidity, pressure, CO, NO2, H2O, photolysis frequencies, and aggregated VOCs input to constrain the model. It should be noted that 161 162 HONO concentration is calculated by NO₂ times 0.02, as suggested by Elshorbany et al. (2012), and has been used in the box model before (Lou et al., 2022). Long-lived species 163 164 such as H₂ and CH₄ are assumed as constants (550 ppbv and 1900 ppbv, respectively). 165 Moreover, a 13-hour constant loss rate of unconstrained intermediate and secondary 166 products, the result of synthetic evaluating secondary simulation of secondary species, 167 is set for representing the multi-effects of deposition, transformation, and transportation. 168 The approaches to the chemical production of O₃ (P(O₃)) and inorganic nitrate 169 (P(NO₃⁻)) are described in previous articles (Tan et al., 2021; Tan et al., 2018) and 170 expressed as Equation 1 and 4:

$$P(O_3) = F(O_3) - D(O_3)$$
 Eq1

$$F(O_3) = k_{HO_2+NO}[NO][HO_2] + k_{(RO_2+NO)eff}[NO][RO_2]$$
 Eq2

$$D(O_3) = k_{OH+NO_2}[OH][NO_2] + (k_{OH+O_3}[OH] + k_{HO_2+O_3}[HO_2] + k_{alkenes+O_3}[alkenes])[O_3] \\ Eq3$$

$$P(NO_3^-) = P(HNO_3) + P(pNO_3^-)$$
 Eq4

$$P(HNO_3) = k_{OH+NO_2} [OH][NO_2]$$
Eq5

$$P(pNO_3) = 0.25(2 - \varphi) C \gamma S_a [N_2O_5]$$
 Eq6

briefly, P(O₃) is net ozone production, which is calculated by peroxyl radial + NO oxidation (Eq. 2) minus the chemical loss of O₃ and NO₂ (Eq. 3). P(NO₃⁻) is constituted

by reaction OH + NO₂ (Eq. 5) and N₂O₅ heterogeneous uptake (Eq. 6). Here, rate

constants of reactions are obtained from NASA JPL Publication or RACM2 (Goliff et

al., 2013). γ is the N_2O_5 uptake coefficient calculated from parameterization (γ_P , more

details in chapter 3.3). φ represents ClNO₂ production yield through N₂O₅ hydrolysis,

and the mean value reported by Xia et al. (2020) is used in this work.

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The empirical Kinetic Modeling Approach (EKMA) was innovated to study the effects of precursors (VOCs and NO_x) reactivity on the region's ozone pollution by Kanaya et al., which helps recognize the region's susceptibility to precursors by weight and become a prevalent tool to study the process of ozone formation (Tan et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2020b; Kanaya et al., 2008). The prevention and control problem of pollutant generation can be transformed through the EKMA curve to reduce its precursors' emissions. Furthermore, the precursor reduction scheme needed for total pollutant control is given qualitatively. P(NO₃-) can also be analyzed through EKMA for the nonlinear secondary formation relationship with precursor reactivity. Here, an isopleth

diagram of the net ozone production rate as functions of the reactivities of NO_x and VOCs can be derived from EKMA. In detail, 0.01 to 1.2 emission reduction strategy assumptions are exponential interpolation into 20 kinds of emission situations of NO_x and VOCs, respectively, which counts 400 scenarios.

2.4 The calculation of aerosol liquid water content

- 192 Aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) is calculated through ISORROPIA II
- 193 (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007). Forward mode is applied in this study. Furthermore,
- water-soluble particulate components in PM_{2.5} and gaseous species (NH₃ + HNO₃ + HCl)
- obtained from MARGA, along with RH and T, are input as initial input. In addition,
- metastable aerosol state is chosen due to high RH during this campaign.

3 Result and discussion

3.1 Overview of measurements

The time used in this study is China Standard Time (UTC + 8) and the local sunrise and sunset time during the campaign were around 5 am and 7 pm, respectively. The whole campaign period is divided into four PM_{2.5} clean periods and four PM_{2.5} polluted periods (9 out of 14 days, the latter polluted periods days day refer to PM_{2.5} pollution except specified description) according to the Chinese National Air Quality Standard (CNAAQS) Grade I of daily PM_{2.5} concentrations (< 35.0 μ g m⁻³). Figure 2 shows the meteorological parameters and gas-phase and particulate species timeseries during the observation. During the campaign, the temperature was high; the maximum reached 34.5 °C, with an average of 25.1 \pm 3.7 °C. RH changed drastically from 21 % to 88 %, with a mean value of 58.9 \pm 14.0 %. The mean NO₂ concentration was 14.8 \pm 9.5 ppbv. Meanwhile, the O₃ average was 54.6 \pm 28.8 ppbv, exceeding CNAAQS Grade II for a maximum daily average of 8 h ozone (160 μ g m⁻³) on 14 out of 19 days and exceeding 200 μ g m⁻³ on six days.

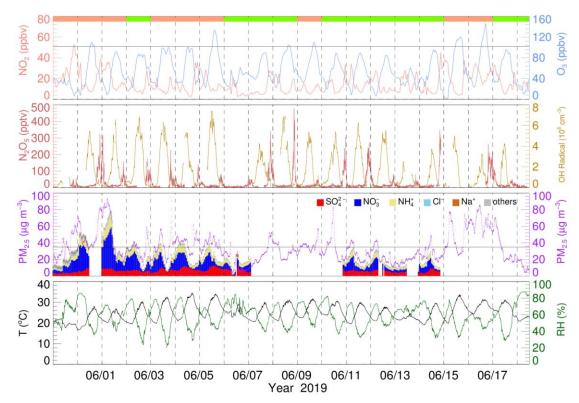


Figure 2 Timeseries of NO₂, O₃, N₂O₅, OH radical, PM_{2.5}, and water-soluble particulate components, temperature, and RH. The vertical dotted line represents the zero clock. The black horizontal solid line in O₃ and PM_{2.5} panels represents Chinese national air quality standards for O₃ and PM_{2.5}, respectively. The top panel color blocks represent the PM_{2.5} clean day (light green) and PM_{2.5} polluted day(salmon).

Daytime OH radical ranged from 2×10^6 to 8×10^6 molecular cm⁻³ with a daily peak over 3×10^6 molecular cm⁻³. Maximum OH radical reached 8.18×10^6 molecular cm⁻³ in this campaign. Compared with other summertime OH radical observed in China, OH radical concentration in this site is relatively low but still on the same order of magnitude (Lu et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2013; Ma et al., 2022; Tan et al., 2017; Woodward-Massey et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021). N₂O₅ mean concentration was 21.9 \pm 39.8 pptv with a nocturnal average of 61.0 ± 63.1 pptv and a daily maximum of over 200 pptv at eight nights. The maximum concentration of N₂O₅ (477.2 pptv, 5 min resolution) appeared at 20:47 on June 8th. The average NO₃ radical production rate P(NO₃) is 2.1 \pm 1.4 ppbv h⁻¹ with nocturnal average P(NO₃) 2.8 \pm 1.6 ppbv h⁻¹ and daytime P(NO₃) 2.2 \pm 1.4 ppbv h⁻¹. P(NO₃) is about twice of documented value in Taizhou and North China Plain (Wang et al., 2017a; Wang et al., 2018b; Wang et al., 2020a), but close to

another result in YRD before (Chen et al., 2019). The average PM_{2.5} was 34.6 ± 17.8 μg m⁻³ with a maximum reach of 163.0 μg m⁻³. The water-soluble particulate components of PM_{2.5} are displayed as well. The average NO₃⁻ concentration was 10.6 μg m⁻³, which accounts for 38.3 % mass concentration of water-soluble particulate components and 32.0 % total PM_{2.5}, while the proportion of sulfate, ammonium, and chloride is 26.0 %, 18 %, and 2.0 % respectively. To sum up, during the campaign period, the pollution of PM_{2.5} would be generally exacerbated on high O₃ and NO₂ days. Precipitation occurred during four clean processes receded pollutant concentration; otherwise, the pollution condition remained severe. The mean diurnal variations (MDC) of temperature, RH, NO₂, O₃, P(NO₃), N₂O₅, OH radical, and PM_{2.5} in different air quality are shown in Figure 3. The temperature, RH, and OH radical MDC show indistinctive differences between clean days (CD) and polluted days (PD). The MDC of NO₂ has two concentration peaks that appear at 06:00 and 21:00 on CD, while at PD, its peak appears at 20:00 and maintains a high level during the whole night. O₃ diurnal pattern reflects a typical urban-influenced character with a maximum O₃ peak that lasts four hours from 14:00 to 17:00, while polluted-day O₃ peak concentration is 1.2 higher than clean-day. P(NO₃) grows after the O₃ peak and maximum P(NO₃) shows at 19:00 with an average value of 1.7 ppbv h⁻¹ on CD. By

contrast, the mean polluted-day P(NO3) is 2.6 ppbv h-1, and the maximum value

reaches 4.7 ppbv h⁻¹. In contrast, the clean-day N₂O₅ has a higher average and maximum

concentration than PD, which suggests a faster removal process during PD. PM_{2.5} has

a similar trend with P(NO₃) and has a higher concentration during nighttime.

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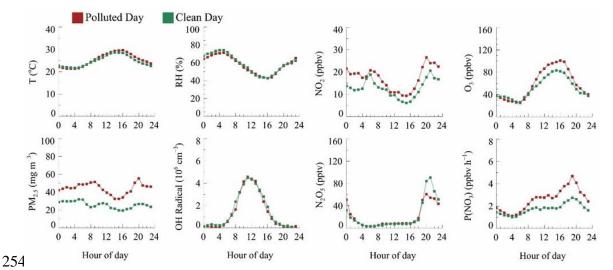


Figure 3 The mean diurnal variations of temperature, RH, NO₂, O₃, PM_{2.5}, OH radical(orange), N₂O₅, and P(NO₃) of clean day and polluted day.

3.2 The evolution of nitrate pollution

Figure 4 (a) shows the relationship between nitrate and sulfate with water-soluble particulate components. Nitrate positively correlates with total water-soluble particulate components, while the sulfate ratio has an inverse correlation. With PM_{2.5} concentration increasing, nitrate proportion increases rapidly and keeps high weight at heavy PM_{2.5} period while sulfate ratio pears opposite phenomenon. Once the mass concentration of total water-soluble particulate component is over 30 μg m⁻³, the mass fraction of nitrate in total water-soluble particulate components is up to 50 % on average. This result illustrates that particulate nitrate is one of the vital sources of explosive growth particulate matter.

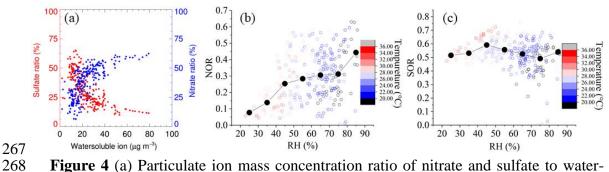


Figure 4 (a) Particulate ion mass concentration ratio of nitrate and sulfate to water-soluble ion. (b) NOR against RH, colored with temperature. (c) SOR against RH, colored with temperature.

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To further assess the conversion capacity of nitrate and sulfate in this site, the sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR) and the nitrogen oxidation ratio (NOR) are used to indicate the secondary transformation ratio of SO₂ and NO₂, respectively (Sun et al., 2006). SOR and NOR are estimated using the formulae below:

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$$SOR = \frac{nSO_4^{2-}}{nSO_4^{2-} + nSO_2}$$
 Eq7

$$NOR = \frac{nNO_3^-}{nNO_3^- + nNO_2}$$
 Eq8

Where n refers to the molar concentration, the higher SOR and NOR represent more oxidation of gaseous species into a secondary aerosol. As depicted in Figure 4 (b-c), NOR rapidly increases at RH < 45 %, remains constant at 45 % < RH < 75 %, and ends with a sharp increase at RH > 75 %. During the study period, not only is the average concentration of NO2 higher among PD but there is also a significant difference between PD and CD NOR. The average values of NOR are 0.32 in PD and 0.25 in CD, respectively, which manifests the more secondary transformation and pollution potential in PD. In contrast, the SOR stays constant at a high value (~ 0.5) during the whole RH scale, which shows a different pattern from previous research (Li et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2015). One possible explanation is that SO₂ concentration stays low during the whole campaign $(4.4 \pm 2.4 \text{ ppbv} \text{ on average})$, and SO₂ oxidation depends on the limit of SO₂ instead of oxidation capability. Meanwhile, the mean SOR in both situations is over 0.5 (0.52 in CD and 0.56 in PD), further supporting the SO₂ limited hypothesis. Besides, Table 2 summarizes NOR and SOR values in YRD. NOR and SOR in this study are similar to values reported in other YRD research (Shu et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020b; Qin et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2022), except values in 2013, but higher than north China study which emphasize the solid atmospheric oxidation capacity in YRD region.

Location and Year	SOR			NOR			D. C.		
	Max	Min	Mean	SD	Max	Min	Mean	SD	References
Nanjing 2013 Winter	0.42	0.10	0.28	0.11	0.29	0.15	0.21	0.05	
Suzhou 2013 Winter	0.41	0.15	0.27	0.11	0.30	0.06	0.16	0.08	
Lin'an 2013 Winter	0.50	0.19	0.35	0.11	0.24	0.12	0.18	0.05	
Hangzhou 2013 Winter	0.30	0.14	0.21	0.06	0.11	0.06	0.09	0.02	
Ningbo 2013 Winter	0.35	0.09	0.21	0.11	0.23	0.03	0.11	0.07	
YRD 2016 Summer	-	-	0.347	-	-	-	0.11	-	
YRD 2016 Winter	-	-	0.247	-	-	-	0.15	-	
Nanjing 2019 spring	0.48	0.38	-	-	0.31	0.29	-	-	
Changzhou 2019 spring	0.35	0.3	-	-	0.27	0.23	-	-	
Changzhou 2019 Winter	0. 68	0.24	0.35	0.12	0.44	0.13	0.2	0.1	
Changzhou 2019 Summer	0.16	0.76	0.54	0.1	0.08	0.63	0.28	0.14	This work

3.3 The derivation of N₂O₅ uptake coefficient

Statistical analysis of the observation above highlights the rapid formation of particulate nitrate. To assess the contribution of N_2O_5 hydrolysis to particular nitrate formation, two methods are applied to calculate the N_2O_5 uptake coefficient. The first method is a stationary-state approximation (Brown et al., 2003). By assuming that the rates of production and loss of N_2O_5 are approximately in balance, the total loss rate of N_2O_5 ($k_{N_2O_5}$) can be calculated through equation 9. The $k_{N_2O_5}$ is main dominated by N_2O_5 heterogeneous uptake, since homogeneous hydrolysis of N_2O_5 contribute tiny (Brown and Stutz, 2012). N_2O_5 uptake coefficient through steady-state (note as γ_-s) is derived as equation 10. Here C is the mean molecule speed of N_2O_5 , and S_a is the aerosol surface concentration.

$$\tau_{ss}(N_2O_5) = \frac{[N_2O_5]}{k_{R3.1}[NO_2][O_3]} = (k_{N_2O_5} + \frac{k_{NO_3}}{K_{eq}[NO_2]})^{-1}$$
 Eq9

$$k_{N_2O_5} = 0.25 \ C \ \gamma \ _S \ S_a \ Eq10 \label{eq:kn2O5}$$

Due to the fast variety of NO₃ loss rates from VOCs, the steady-state method has been unattainable in conditions affected by emission interferences. During the whole campaign, we only retrieve three valid fitting results. As shown in Figure 5, the fitted

 γ_{-S} ranged from 0.057 to 0.123, which is comparable with Taizhou (0.041, Wang et al. (2020a)) and much higher than other results in China (Yu et al., 2020a; Wang et al., 2018a; Wang et al., 2020b; Wang et al., 2017a). The calculated k_{NO_3} ranged from 0.002 to 0.16 s⁻¹, represents drastic VOCs change during this campaign.

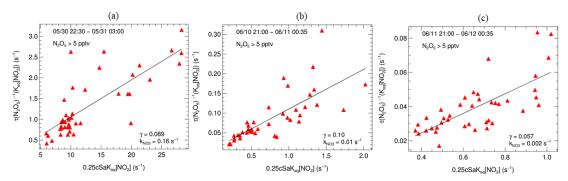


Figure 5 Derived N_2O_5 uptake coefficients from N_2O_5 steady lifetime (γ_-s) with NO_2 and S_a , plots (a-c) represent the linear fitting results on the nights of 05/30, 06/10, and 06/11, respectively.

The other approach is the parameterization by (Yu et al., 2020a) which is depicted as follows:

$$\gamma_{_P} = \frac{4}{c} \frac{V_a}{S_a} \ K_H \times 3.0 \times 10^4 \times \left[H_2 O \right] \left(1 - \frac{1}{\left(0.033 \times \frac{\left[H_2 O \right]}{\left[NO_3 \right]} \right) + 1 + \left(3.4 \times \frac{\left[C \right]^{-}}{\left[NO_3 \right]} \right)} \right)$$
 Eq11

Where V_a/S_a is the measured aerosol volume to surface area ratio by SMPS; K_H is Henry's law coefficient which is set as 51 as recommended; $[NO_3^-]$ and $[CI^-]$ are aerosol inorganic concentration measured by Marga; $[H_2O]$ is aerosol water content calculated through ISORROPIA II. The valid parameterization calculated N_2O_5 uptake coefficient (note as γ_-P) from May 30^{th} to June 08^{th} , 2019, shows in Figure 6 a good consistency between the trends of γ_-P and aerosol water content. Nighttime γ_-P varies from 0.001 to 0.024 with an average of 0.069 ± 0.0050 in polluted condition and 0.0036 ± 0.0026 in clean condition. The N_2O_5 uptake coefficient shows a good correlation between RH and aerosol water content. For the N_2O_5 uptake coefficient, although particulate nitrate mass concentration increased during the pollution event, an antagonistic effect on the N_2O_5 uptake coefficient was not obvious for the nitrate molarity decreasing.

Furthermore, we compare the difference between γ_{S} and γ_{P}^{h} . Taking the night of May 30th as an example, the γ_{S} is 0.089 while γ_{P} ranges from 0.024 to 0.057 with an average value of 0.013 \pm 0.0051. The difference between steady-state and parameterization is significant; one possible explanation is uncertainty for stationary-state approximation caused by local NO or VOCs emission (Brown et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2022). Another reason is that parameterization by Yu et al. ignores the impact of organic matter on the fine particle. The difference in aerosol composition between this work and Yu et al may also bring uncertainty. Overall consideration, γ_{P} will be chosen for the N₂O₅ heterogeneous uptake coefficient in later analysis and discussion.

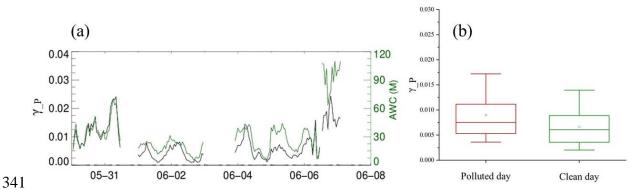


Figure 6 Results of N₂O₅ uptake coefficients through parameterization (γ_p). (a) shows timeseries of γ_p and ISORROPIA II results of aerosol water content (AWC). (b) is the box-plot of γ_p on the polluted day and clean day, the hollow square represents the mean value, and the solid line across the box shows the median score for the data set, while the top and bottom whiskers represent 90 % and 10 % value of γ_p , respectively.

3.4 Quantifying the contribution of nitrate formation pathways

After the N₂O₅ uptake coefficient is counted, nitrate production potential (P(NO₃⁻)) can be calculated. Here N₂O₅ uptake coefficient is set as 0.036 on clean day and 0.069 on polluted day, respectively, which are the average value derived from parameterization. The production ratio of NO₃⁻ (by considering ClNO₂ yield of 0.54) is set as 1.46 in the former study (Xia et al., 2020). Gas particle distribution is considered by the result of particular nitrate and gas-phase nitrate by MARGA (input HNO₃/NO₃⁻ ratio to the model as OH + NO₂ nitrate production rate). NO₂ heterogeneous uptake coefficient is set

as 5.8×10^{-6} depending on the report by Yu et al. (2021) which is the result of 70% RH on urban grime.

The mean diurnal variations of the nitrate production potential of clean and polluted day are depicted in Figure 7. The OH + NO₂ pathway shows no significate difference between clean and polluted day and dominates clean day nitrate formation potential. Since the level of OH and NO₂ is less affected by the fine particle level. However, the rapid increase of the N_2O_5 heterogeneous uptake pathway on polluted day is fatal, and its peak formation rate at night over the OH + NO₂ pathway can be used to explain nighttime nitrate explosive growth.

As shown in Figure 7c, OH + NO₂ dominates nitrate production on clean day, while the N₂O₅ uptake pathway only contributes 13.6 μg m⁻³. On polluted days, the ability of N₂O₅ uptake grows fast, reaching 50.1 μg m-3, while the OH pathway doesn't change much. There is no distinct difference in the daytime pathway (OH + NO₂) between clean day and polluted day, while the nighttime pathway ratio rises from 38.1 % on clean day to 67.2 % on polluted day.NO₂ heterogeneous uptake increases from 0.93 μg m⁻³ on clean day to 2.0 μg m⁻³ on polluted day, but the contribution proportion does not change obviously. Both the higher N₂O₅ uptake coefficient and higher S_a on polluted day increase the contribution of N₂O₅ hydrolysis on particular nitrate at pollution condition.

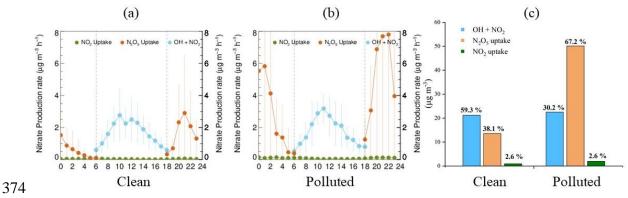


Figure 7 The mean diurnal variations of the nitrate production potential of clean day(a) 376 and polluted day (b) and the $P(NO_3^-)$ distribution of clean and polluted day (c).

3.5 Mitigation strategies of particulate nitrate and ozone productions

We selected two pollution episodes (Episode I (2019.05.30 00:00 - 2019.06.02 00:00) and IV (2019.06.14 17:30 - 2019.06.17 12:00)) to explore the mitigation way of ozone and nitrate pollution. Figure 8 shows the EKMA of $P(O_3)$ and $P(NO_3^-)$ of these two periods, O_3 located at VOCs controlling area in the two pollution episodes, which consist with previous YRD urban ozone sensitivity study (Jiang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020a; Xu et al., 2021). The best precursor reduction for O_3 is VOCs: $NO_x = 2:1$ while nitrate is located at the transition area, which means either of the precursors reduction will mitigate nitrate pollution. For the regional and complex air pollution characteristics in this region, a fine particle-targeting reduction scheme will aggravate O_3 pollution. In contrast, the O_3 -targeting scheme can mitigate O_3 and fine particle simultaneously.

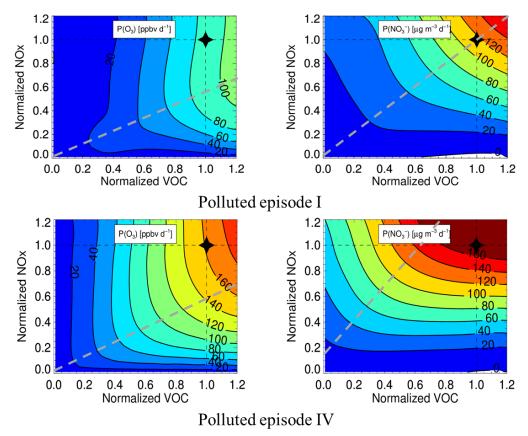


Figure 8 Isogram of $P(O_3)$ and $P(NO_3^-)$ of polluted episode I (2019.05.30 00:00 - 2019.06.02 00:00) and IV (2019.06.14 17:30 - 2019.06.17 12:00) with different NOx and VOC reduction degree. The grey dash line represents the ridge line.

4 Conclusion

394	A comprehensive campaign was conducted to interpret the atmospheric oxidation
395	capacity and aerosol formation from May 30 th to June 18 th , 2019, in Changzhou, China.
396	The high O ₃ and PM _{2.5} concentrations confirm complex air pollution characteristics in
397	Changzhou, and nitrate accounts for 38.3 % mass concentration of total water-soluble
398	particulate components and 32.0 % of total PM _{2.5} . In addition, the average values of
399	NOR are 0.32 in PD and 0.25 in CD. The positive correlation between NOR and RH
400	and inverse correlation refer to the contribution of N ₂ O ₅ heterogeneous uptake to nitrate
401	formation.
402	Based on field observations of OH and related parameters, we show OH oxidation
403	of the NO ₂ pathway steadily contributes to nitrate formation no matter the clean or
404	polluted period and domination clean day nitrate production (about 22 μg m ⁻³). N ₂ O ₅
405	heterogeneous uptake contribution proliferated on polluted day, from 13.6 μg m ⁻³
406	(38.1 %) on clean days to 50.1 μg m ⁻³ (67.2 %) on polluted days. NO ₂ heterogeneous
407	uptake contributes minor to nitrate formation (2.6 %).
408	The precursor reduction simulation suggests the reduction ratio of VOCs: NOx
409	equals 2:1 can simultaneously and effectively mitigate O ₃ and fine particle pollution
410	during the summertime complex pollution period in Changzhou. To more precisely and
411	delicately establish a cooperative control scheme for regional O ₃ and nitrate, the
412	regional and long-time field campaigns are needed in the future to analyze the seasonal
413	and interannual variation of O ₃ and nitrate and relevant parameters.
414	
415	Code/Data availability. The datasets used in this study are available from the
416 417	corresponding author upon request (k.lu@pku.edu.cn).
418	Author contributions. K.D.L. and Y.H.Z. designed the study. T.Y.Z analyzed the data
419	and wrote the paper with input from all authors.
420	
421	Competing interests . The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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