



# 1 Sulfate formation via aerosol phase SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by model biomass

## 2 burning photosensitizers: 3,4-dimethoxybenzaldehyde, vanillin and

## 3 syringaldehyde using single particle characterization

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19 Abstract. Atmospheric oxidation of sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) to sulfate has been widely investigated by means of gas phase and 20 in-cloud chemistry studies. Recent field measurements have shown significant sulfate formation in cloud-free environments 21 with high aerosol loadings. As an important fraction of biomass burning aerosol components, particulate phenolic and non-22 phenolic aromatic carbonyls may initiate photosensitized aerosol multiphase oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub>, of which our knowledge 23 however is still in its nascent stage. In this study, on the basis of single-particle aerosol mass spectrometry (SPAMS) 24 measurements, we find evident sulfate formation in the biomass burning-derived photosensitizer particles under UV and  $SO_2$ 25 exposure, attributable to photosensitized oxidation of S(IV), while almost no sulfate was observed under dark and existence 26 of SO<sub>2</sub>. The efficiency of sulfate production under UV irradiation, represented by the number percentage of sulfate-containing 27 particles (99-43%) and sulfate relative peak area (RPA) (0.67-0.12) in single particle spectra, in descending order, were 3,4-28 dimethoxybenzaldehyde (DMB), vanillin (VL) and syringaldehyde (SyrAld). Internal mixtures of VL and potassium nitrate 29 gave a slightly lower number percentage and RPA of sulfate to VL particles alone. In externally mixed potassium nitrate and 30 VL particles, sulfate was predominantly formed on the latter, confirming that sulfate formation via photosensitization prevails 31 over that via nitrate photolysis. Our results suggest that photosensitized oxidation of S(IV) could make an important 32 contribution to aerosol sulfate formation, especially in areas influenced by biomass burning.

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#### 34 1. Introduction

35 Sulfate is a key component of fine particulate matter in the atmosphere, which impacts air quality, climate, and human and 36 ecosystem health (Nel, 2005; Fuzzi et al., 2015; Grantz et al., 2003). Traditional atmospheric models, including the gas-phase 37 oxidation of sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) by hydroxyl radical (OH) (Calvert et al., 1978) and stabilized Criegee intermediates (Cheng 38 et al., 2016) and a series of aqueous, in-cloud oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub>, underpredict the sulfate production during heavy pollution 39 episodes in China (Zheng et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014; Liu and Abbatt, 2021). Although the liquid water 40 content (LWC) is generally much lower in aerosol particles than in fog and cloud droplets, it was reported that aerosol 41 multiphase oxidation processes are important, especially in polluted and high relative humidity (RH) conditions (Liu et al., 42 2021; Liu et al., 2020). The typical oxidants involved in multiphase oxidation of S(IV) in aerosol particles include dissolved 43 ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) (Hoffmann and Calvert, 1985), hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) (Hoffmann and Calvert, 1985), transition metal ions





(TMIs, i.e., Fe (III) and Mn(II)) (Ibusuki and Takeuchi, 1987; Harris et al., 2013; Alexander et al., 2009; Martin and Good, 1991), methyl hydrogen peroxide (Walcek and Taylor, 1986) and peroxyacetic acid (Walcek and Taylor, 1986). To narrow the gap between the measured and modeled sulfate production, new chemical pathways have been suggested involving nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) (Wang et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2016), organic peroxides (Yao et al., 2019; Ye et al., 2018), oxidants from particulate nitrate photolysis (Gen et al., 2019b, a; Zhang et al., 2020), and hypohalous acid (HOX, e.g., HOCl and HOBr) (Liu and Abbatt, 2020). However, the missing sulfate source has still remained unclear and controversial.

50 Photosensitization in atmospheric aerosols has been recently proposed to initiate novel chemistry in the formation of 51 secondary pollutants (George et al., 2015). Upon irradiation, atmospheric photosensitizers such as aromatic carbonyls can 52 generate triplet excited states (<sup>3</sup>C\*) (Canonica et al., 1995; Anastasio et al., 1996; Smith et al., 2014; Kaur and Anastasio, 53 2018; Kaur et al., 2019; Smith et al., 2016), which can oxidize phenols at higher rates compared to OH, particularly under 54 acidic conditions (Smith et al., 2014). In addition to being an oxidant, <sup>3</sup>C\* can also react with O<sub>2</sub> to generate secondary 55 oxidants, such as singlet oxygen ( $^{1}O_{2}$ ), superoxide ( $O_{2}^{-}$ ), hydroperoxyl radical ('HO<sub>2</sub>), and 'OH (Corral Arroyo et al., 2018; 56 Dalrymple et al., 2010; George et al., 2018). Biomass burning is an important source of aromatic carbonyls (Rogge et al., 1998; 57 Nolte et al., 2001; Schauer et al., 2001), and the concentrations of phenolic and non-phenolic carbonyls are comparable in 58 biomass burning smoke (Simoneit et al., 1993; Anastasio et al., 1996). Direct photosensitized oxidation of vanillin (a typical 59 aromatic carbonyl photosensitizer) has been reported as an important pathway to form aqueous secondary organic aerosol in 60 areas influenced by biomass burning, with reaction products dominated by brown carbon chromophores (Mabato et al., 2022b; 61 Mabato et al., 2022a). However, only limited studies focused on the role of biomass burning-derived photosensitizers in S(IV) 62 oxidation (Wang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2021). In this study, we investigate sulfate formation via aerosol phase SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation 63 by biomass burning-derived photosensitizers, including both non-phenolic (3,4-dimethoxybenzaldehyde, DMB) and phenolic 64 photosensitizers (vanillin, VL and syringaldehyde, SyrAld) with similar molar absorptivity at atmospheric relevant 65 wavelengths (Figure S1, Supporting information), in an oxidation flow reactor (OFR) utilizing a single particle aerosol mass 66 spectrometer (SPAMS). Nitrate photolysis has been reported as a typical sulfate formation pathway initiated by particulate 67 photoactive compounds, similar to photosensitization (Gen et al., 2022). The objectives of this study are to semi-quantitatively





evaluate the extent of sulfate formation in photosensitizer particles and qualitatively compare the relative atmosphericimportance of particulate photosensitization and nitrate photolysis in sulfate formation.

- 70
- 71 **2. Methods**

#### 72 **2.1 Materials and experimental setup**

73 A vaporization - condensation method was used to coat photosensitizing or non-photosensitizing species on 0.3 µm polystyrene 74 latex sphere (PSL) particles (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., MA) (Qi et al., 2019). A detailed experimental setup is shown in 75 Figure S2a and the initial experimental conditions are summarized in Table S1. All chemicals, including DMB (Acros 76 Organics, 99+%), VL (Acros Organics, 99%), SyrAld (Sigma Aldrich, 98%), benzoic acid (BA, Acros Organics, 99.6%), 77 potassium nitrate (KNO<sub>3</sub>, Sigma Aldrich, 99+%) and oxalic acid (Sigma Aldrich, 99.9+%) were used as purchased. PSL 78 particles were selected as condensation nuclei due to their chemically and thermally inert nature. Their size did not change 79 upon passing through the dryer or glass bottle at 120°C oil bath or exposure to SO<sub>2</sub> or UV irradiation (Figure S3). In addition, 80 PSL particles are difficult to be ionized and do not complicate the interpretation of mass spectra. PSL condensation nuclei 81 were generated by using a constant output atomizer (TSI 3076) with pure  $N_2$  gas (>99.995 %), and a portion of the particles 82 passed through a diffusion dryer at a flow rate of 300 mL min<sup>-1</sup> to achieve RH < 10%. The dried particles subsequently passed 83 through a heated glass bottle (inlet about 2 inches above the bottom) containing ~0.5g of either DMB, VL, SyrAld or BA at 84 the bottom. The heating temperatures of the glass bottle were regulated using an oil bath near the melting points of the 85 chemicals. The generated organic vapor condensed to form coatings onto the PSL particles. The coating thickness was 86 estimated by the measured particle size increase by the SPAMS. For control experiments with PSL-only particles, the particles 87 passed through the same glass bottle containing no chemicals. Photosensitizing (DMB, VL, SyrAld) (Smith et al., 2015, 2016; 88 Smith et al., 2014) and non-photosensitizing (BA) (Smith et al., 2015) species coated particles or uncoated PSL-only particles 89 were then introduced into an OFR (volume of approximately 7.2 L) and mixed with SO<sub>2</sub> gas. SO<sub>2</sub> was delivered by a flow of 90 around 11 mL min<sup>-1</sup> (203 ppm, mixing with pure N<sub>2</sub>, Scientific Gas Engineering Co., Ltd.) to achieve the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration 91 of around 750 ppb in the OFR. Depending on the experiment, the RH in the OFR was regulated at ~80% or 20% by passing 92 HEPA-filtered and activated-carbon-denuded compressed air or pure N<sub>2</sub> through water bubblers. Experiments under air enable





93 the generation of secondary oxidants. Conversely, the  $N_2$  experiments would inhibit the formation of secondary oxidants, 94 which can lead to triplets-driven reactions (Chen et al., 2020). The total flow in the OFR was around 3 L min<sup>-1</sup>, resulting in a 95 residence time of ~ 2.5 min. There are four UVA lamps (Shenzhen Guanhongrui Technology Co., Ltd.) with a continuous 96 emission spectrum over 310-420 nm surrounding the OFR. We conducted experiments with one and four lamps to provide a 97 total irradiance of about  $1.1 \times 10^{15}$  (I<sub>1</sub>) and  $3.8 \times 10^{15}$  (I<sub>4</sub>) photon cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (see details in Supporting information, 98 Text S1); and dark control experiments were performed with UV lamps off. Each experiment lasted around 20 minutes. In the 99 absence of light and SO<sub>2</sub>, there was no change in the mass spectra of coated particles (Figure S4). At the outlet of the OFR, 100  $SO_2$  concentration was monitored by a  $SO_2$  analyzer (Teledyne, T100, USA), and the size and chemical composition of 101 individual aerosol particles were analyzed by a single particle aerosol mass spectrometry (SPAMS, Hexin Analytical 102 Instrument Co., Ltd, China). This single particle technique allows us to study the mixing state of the particles. KNO<sub>3</sub> was 103 widely observed in biomass burning plumes (Zauscher et al., 2013). Internally mixed particles of photosensitizing species and 104 KNO<sub>3</sub> were generated by atomizing aqueous solutions of KNO<sub>3</sub> with several drops of PSL suspension, followed by passing 105 through a dryer and then the heated glass bottle containing photosensitizing species as described above (Figure S2a). Externally 106 mixed particles were generated with a second atomizer (TSI 9032), and the generated KNO<sub>3</sub> or KNO<sub>3</sub>-oxalic acid mixed 107 particles were mixed with photosensitizing species coated particles in a stainless-steel chamber ( $\phi 3 \times 8''$ ) before introduction to 108 the OFR (Figure S2b).

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#### 110 2.2 SPAMS and data analysis

A detailed description of the operational principle of SPAMS has been provided elsewhere (Li et al., 2011). Briefly, aerosol particles were introduced into the SPAMS through an orifice and aerodynamic lens and consecutively irradiated by two laser beams, where their aerodynamic diameter were determined through the velocity and flight time. The sized particles were then desorbed and ionized by a pulsed 266 nm laser (0.5 mJ), which was triggered at the precise time on the basis of the particle velocities. The produced positive and negative molecular fragments were analyzed by a Z-shaped bipolar time-of-flight mass spectrometer (Pratt et al., 2009; Li et al., 2011). The single particle size and mass spectral analysis were performed using the Computational Continuation Core (COCO) toolkit based on MATLAB software. The number percentage and relative peak





area (RPA, defined as the fractional contribution of the targeted ion peak area to the sum of all ion peak areas) were applied to indicate the variations of different species (e.g., sulfate) in individual particles (Hu et al., 2022). Sulfate-containing particles were distinguished by m/z -97 [HSO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>] or m/z-96 [SO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>] (Guazzotti et al., 2001; Liang et al., 2022). In addition, an adaptive resonance theory based neural network algorithm (ART-2a) (Li et al., 2011) was used to separate and cluster particles in external and internal mixtures according to the similarities in individual mass spectra of single particles.

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#### 124 **3. Results and discussion**

125 Figure 1a shows the changes in  $SO_2$  concentration ([ $SO_2$ ]) in the presence of PSL particles coated with various types of 126 photosensitizing (DMB, VL and SyrAld) and non-photosensitizing (BA) species under dark and UV irradiation conditions. In 127 Figure 1a, for UV condition, only time traces of SO<sub>2</sub> under I<sub>4</sub> UV irradiance were shown for clarity, and I<sub>1</sub> UV irradiance cases 128 can be found in Figure S5. Except stated otherwise, results shown in the following discussions were obtained at 80% RH. The 129 steady concentration of  $SO_2$  in the OFR was at around 750 ppb under dark conditions. Upon exposure to UV light, a rapid drop 130 in the SO<sub>2</sub> concentration was observed in the presence of DMB- and VL-coated particles, indicating photoinduced uptake of 131 SO<sub>2</sub> on these particles. A recent study suggests that the photosensitized chemical reactions between naphthalene-derived 132 secondary organic aerosol and SO<sub>2</sub> likely occur at the particle surface (Wang et al., 2021). In this study, the SO<sub>2</sub> consumption 133 under UV irradiation for DMB and VL coated particles increased with the surface area of SPAMS detected particles in the 134 OFR (Figure 1a and S6) ( $R^2=0.84-0.99$ ). Total surface area concentrations in the range of  $7 \times 10^4$  - $2 \times 10^5$  µm<sup>2</sup> m<sup>-3</sup> are denoted 135 by "small", in  $2 \times 10^5 - 6 \times 10^5 \,\mu\text{m}^2$  m<sup>-3</sup> as "medium", and larger than  $6 \times 10^5 \,\mu\text{m}^2$  m<sup>-3</sup> as "large". These values fall within the 136 urban background and indoor air ranges but are slightly lower than urban pollution ranges (Willeke and Whitby, 1975; Hudda 137 and Fruin, 2016; Oi et al., 2008). SO<sub>2</sub> consumption per unit surface area concentration also increased with higher UV irradiance 138 (Figure S6). Only slight SO<sub>2</sub> consumption under UV irradiation was observed in the presence of SyrAld-coated particles and 139 no observable decrease in SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the absence of photosensitizing species, i.e., BA-coated particles and PSL-140 only particles. The average mass spectra of DMB-, VL-, SyrAld- and BA-coated single particles under dark and UV irradiation 141 in the presence of  $SO_2$  are shown in Figure 1b, characterized by their respective parent ions (in either neutral, protonated or 142 deprotonated form) and expected smaller organic fragment ions. PSL-only particles do not ionize and no mass spectra were





143 observed (Qi et al., 2019). No sulfate was formed under dark condition, consistent with the stable SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations observed. 144 However, upon exposure to UV irradiation, the RPA of sulfate (<sup>97</sup>HSO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> and <sup>96</sup>SO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>) increased significantly, accompanied by 145 the slight decrease of RPA of the parent ions of <sup>165</sup>C<sub>9</sub>H<sub>9</sub>O<sub>3<sup>+/-</sup></sub>, <sup>153</sup>C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>9</sub>O<sub>3<sup>+/-</sup></sub>, <sup>181</sup>C<sub>9</sub>H<sub>9</sub>O<sub>4<sup>+/-</sup></sub> for DMB-, VL- and SyrAld-coated 146 particles respectively. Figure 2 shows a considerable difference in the average RPA of sulfate (circles) and the number 147 percentage of sulfate-containing particles (diamonds) in DMB-, VL-, SyrAld- and BA-coated particles at dark and different 148 UV intensities in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>, and the corresponding SO<sub>2</sub> consumption normalized by the average total particle surface 149 area concentration before and after UV irradiation in the OFR detected by SPAMS (crosses). The average number percentages 150 of sulfate-containing particles in DMB- and VL- coated particles are considerably higher (> 84%) under both  $I_1$  and  $I_4$  UV 151 irradiances than under dark (< 2%). SyrAld-coated particles gave a slightly lower percentage of sulfate-containing particles of 152 43% and 83% at I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>4</sub> UV irradiances. Upon increase of photon flux densities (I<sub>1</sub> to I<sub>4</sub>), the RPA of sulfate increases for 153 DMB-, VL- and SyrAld-coated particles, which is in line with the enhanced normalized SO<sub>2</sub> consumptions.

The loss of SO<sub>2</sub> associated with the synchronous sulfate production in single DMB-, VL- and to a lesser extent, SyrAld-coated particles was likely attributed to the photosensitization-induced oxidation of S(IV) (i.e., SO<sub>2</sub>, HSO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and SO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>). Specifically, UV irradiation could excite photosensitizers from their ground state to singlet excited state, then rapidly relax to a triplet state via intersystem crossing (George et al., 2015; Gomez Alvarez et al., 2012). S(IV) could be oxidized to sulfate directly by <sup>3</sup>C\*, or by the secondary oxidants (e.g., <sup>1</sup>O<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub><sup>--/</sup>'HO<sub>2</sub> and 'OH) produced from the excited molecules and O<sub>2</sub>/water. Wang et al. (2020) observed sulfate production from direct reactions between triplets of 4-(benzoyl) benzoic acid, humic acid and their salts, and hydrated S(IV).

In our previous study, we have reported the enhanced SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation and sulfate formation in incense and mosquito coil burning particles (Liang et al., 2022), as surrogates of biomass burning organic aerosol, BBOA (Li et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014), under light, compared with dark conditions. The number percentage of sulfate-containing particles increased from around 50% under dark to around 90% after UV irradiation (Figure 2). Incense burning particles contain a variety of photosensitizers, e.g., DMB, VL and SyrAld (Peng et al., 2020; Liu and Sun, 1988; Liang et al., 2022), which could oxidize SO<sub>2</sub> via photosensitization. In contrast to Liang et al. (2022), we did not observe sulfate formation under dark in the current





167 study. The much higher percentage of sulfate-containing particles under dark in incense burning particles in Liang et al. (2022) 168 than in the photosensitizer particles in this study was likely due to the gaseous oxidants in incense-burning plumes. 169 Furthermore, as mentioned earlier, in the control experiment using BA-coated particles as seeds in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>, neither 170 the RPA of sulfate nor the number percentage of sulfate-containing particles changed upon irradiation. This indicates that the 171 direct photoexcitation of SO<sub>2</sub> in the presence of water leading to the formation of OH and subsequently sulfate plays a 172 negligible role (Kroll et al., 2018; Martins-Costa et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2021). Although the coating thickness estimated by 173 particle size increase spanned a wide range from 100 nm to 2.2 µm, the number percentage and RPA of sulfate generally 174 exhibited the similar descending order of DMB>VL>SyrAld>BA in each size bin (Figure S7). Interestingly, our observed 175 trend of sulfate formation potential is in line with the secondary organic aerosol mass yield for syringol oxidation by  ${}^{3}C^{*}$  of 176 DMB (114%), VL (111%) and SyrAld (78%) in the literature (Smith et al., 2016; Smith et al., 2014).

177 The triplet excited state ( ${}^{3}C^{*}$ ) of aromatic carbonyls can react with O<sub>2</sub> in air-saturated conditions via either energy 178 transfer to form  ${}^{1}O_{2}$  or electron transfer to form  $O_{2}$ , which can further react with H<sup>+</sup> ion to produce H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and OH (Dalrymple 179 et al., 2010). Therefore, the absence of  $O_2$  in  $N_2$  saturated experiments would inhibit the formation of secondary oxidants. 180 Figure 3 shows that replacing air by pure N<sub>2</sub> substantially shifted the distribution of RPA for DMB- and VL-coated particles 181 toward the lower end, while SyrAld-coated particles exhibited slight changes. For example, DMB-coated particles with sulfate 182 RPA larger than 0.6 were dominant and comprised more than 52% of total particles in air, but more than 73% of the total 183 particles had sulfate RPA of 0-0.2 in N<sub>2</sub> under both UV irradiances. This suggests the involvement of O<sub>2</sub> and the potential 184 important role of secondary oxidants in sulfate formation. Upon the increase of UV intensity (from  $I_1$  to  $I_4$ ), the number fraction 185 of particles with sulfate RPA larger than 0.2 only slightly increased in N<sub>2</sub>-saturated conditions, and particles with RPA of 0-186 0.2 dominated the population, indicating the relatively minor role of direct  ${}^{3}C^{*}$  oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, Wang et al. (2020) 187 reported that switching from air to N<sub>2</sub> resulted in similar S(IV) oxidation rates, indicating that the direct reaction of SO<sub>2</sub> with 188  ${}^{3}C^{*}$  was more significant than that with the secondary oxidants. This discrepancy is possibly due to different reactivities of  ${}^{3}C^{*}$ 189 from different photosensitizing chemicals towards SO<sub>2</sub>. In air, DMB-coated particles exhibited the strongest SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation 190 potential with 88% of the total particles having sulfate RPA larger than 0.2 (I<sub>1</sub>), followed by VL- (41%) and SyrAld- (15%) 191 coated particles. Upon exposure to simulated sunlight, SyrAld and VL have been shown to undergo apparent direct





192 photodegradation, but DMB exhibits smaller or almost no loss in illuminated solution mixed with non-carbonyl phenols or 193 benzene-diols (Smith et al., 2016, 2015; Smith et al., 2014). This is generally consistent with the decrease of RPA of parent 194 ions in this study (Figure S8). The rapid direct photodegradation of phenolic carbonyls (VL and SyrAld) can reduce their 195 concentrations in the particles and limits the formation of sulfate. Note that the photosensitizers may be (polymorphic) solid 196 or semi-solid due to their low solubility and hygroscopicity (Kavuru et al., 2016; Hussain et al., 2001). For example, Mochida 197 and Kawamura (2004) reported that pyrolysis products of lignin with -COOH, including vanillic acid and syringic acid, showed 198 no hygroscopic growth even at RH of more than 90%. They also proposed that other pyrolysis products with chemical 199 structures such as -CHO may have even lower hygroscopicity than -COOH and would not show measurable particle growth.

200 Nitrate is a ubiquitous constituent of atmospheric aerosol particles (Chan and Yao, 2008). Multiphase photochemical 201 oxidation of  $SO_2$  by the photolysis of particulate nitrate could make an important contribution to aerosol sulfate formation (Gen 202 et al., 2019a, b). To qualitatively compare the relative atmospheric importance of photosensitization and nitrate photolysis in 203 sulfate formation, external mixtures of VL-coated particles and KNO<sub>3</sub> particles were exposed to SO<sub>2</sub> and UV irradiation at 80% 204 RH. VL was used for comparison owing to its moderate sulfate formation potential among the three photosensitizers tested. 205 Potassium was the dominant cation in biomass burning plumes (Jahn et al., 2021; Freney et al., 2009), and therefore KNO<sub>3</sub> 206 was selected as the model nitrate salt. RPA of sulfate for VL-coated particles and KNO<sub>3</sub> particles at different sizes in the 207 external mixture were compared in Figure 4a. VL-coated particles exhibited an average sulfate RPA of 0.26, with an overall 208 inverse relationship with particle size, while the sulfate absolute peak areas (APA) are moderately higher for large particles. 209 The APA is proportional to the absolute number of ions detected and a larger sulfate APA may indicate a larger amount of 210 sulfate formed. However, APA is more sensitive to the variability in ion intensities associated with particle-laser interactions 211 than RPA (Gross et al., 2000; Hatch et al., 2014). The reactive uptake comprises the diffusion of SO<sub>2</sub> molecules, followed by 212 oxidation of  $SO_2$  at the interface or in the bulk of the particles. The decreased sulfate RPA with increasing particle size may be 213 attributed to the photosensitized sulfate formation at the surface of VL-coated particles or diffusional limitations of SO<sub>2</sub> in 214 larger particles, especially in the poorly hygroscopic and potentially viscous VL matrix. In contrast, deliquescent KNO<sub>3</sub> 215 particles (Figure S9) exhibited RPAs of 0, suggesting that nitrate photolysis plays a negligible role in our study, although the 216 concentration of [NO3<sup>-</sup>] in KNO3 particles at 80% RH was estimated to be 6.3 M by AIOMFAC





217 (http://www.aiomfac.caltech.edu) (Zuend et al., 2008), almost 100 times higher than the solubility of VL (~66 mM). The 218 prevailing sulfate formation in VL particles over KNO<sub>3</sub> particles is likely due to the lower integrated molar absorptivity of 219 nitrate (~143 M<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>) compared to VL (2.8×10<sup>5</sup> M<sup>-1</sup> cm<sup>-1</sup>) over the wavelength range of 300-400 nm (Figure S1). In addition, 220 this also excluded the possibility of sulfate formation in gas phase and small nuclei, which would be expected to have 221 condensed/coagulated on both the photosensitizer and KNO<sub>3</sub> particles. When RH decreased to 20%, a significant reduction in 222 the average RPAs from 0.26 to 0.002 was observed for VL-coated particles (Figure S10). This may be due to the fewer 223 dissolved VL for sulfate formation. Overall, sulfate formation was found on VL-coated particles but not on externally mixed 224 nitrate particles. Oxalic acid is one of the most abundant species of organic aerosols and is commonly found in atmospheric 225 nitrate-containing particles (Mochizuki et al., 2017; Cheng et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2009). We have also conducted 226 experiments with internal mixtures of KNO<sub>3</sub> and oxalic acid, which did not show sulfate formation as well (Figure 4b). 227 However, internally mixed VL and KNO<sub>3</sub> yielded 55% sulfate-containing particles and an average sulfate RPA of 0.12. These 228 values fall in between those of pure KNO<sub>3</sub> and VL-coated particles (Figure 4c). As the ion intensity ratio of nitrate to organics 229 of the KNO<sub>3</sub>-VL internally mixed particles of similar size decreased, higher sulfate RPAs were found.

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#### **4. Environmental implications**

This paper presents insights on aerosol SO<sub>2</sub> oxidation by biomass burning-derived photosensitizers using single particle characterization. Sulfate formation in photosensitizer coated particles, in terms of both number percentage and RPA of sulfate, was significantly higher under UV irradiation than under dark. From dark to UV irradiation, the average number percentages of sulfate-containing particles increased from less than 2% to 43-99%, and sulfate RPA increased from almost 0 to 0.12-0.67 for SyrAld, VL, and DMB-coated particles.

The speciation, concentration, and properties of photosensitizers in ambient particles are still poorly understood, limiting the parameterization of photosensitized sulfate formation. Nevertheless, we observed that sulfate formation via photosensitization is qualitatively more efficient than nitrate photolysis. Recently, we found that incense burning particles





240	(considered as typical BBOA surrogates) show increases of sulfate-containing particles and sulfate RPAs by ~45% and ~0.35
241	under UV than dark, respectively, due to photosensitization reactions of SO <sub>2</sub> (Liang et al., 2022). These results are within the
242	ranges of our measurements in this paper. The $SO_2$ exposure of ~1800 ppb min in the OFR in this study corresponds to a 45
243	min and 450 min atmospheric SO <sub>2</sub> exposure, taking an ambient RH of 80% and SO <sub>2</sub> concentration of 40 ppb during extreme
244	haze events (Cheng et al., 2016) and 4 ppb in usual days (Chen et al., 2022), respectively. This indicates that after exposure of
245	tens of minutes to hours to SO <sub>2</sub> , more than 40% of fresh BBOA particles could contain sulfate via photosensitization, especially
246	under high photon flux such as during typical clear days and haze days in Beijing, China, which were around 4 and 1.4 times,
247	respectively, of that in the OFR (I <sub>4</sub> ) (Figure S1). Our finding provides additional experimental support to the potentially
248	important contribution of photosensitized oxidation of S(IV) to aerosol sulfate formation in biomass burning plumes. Future
249	studies of the quantification and mechanism revelation of sulfate formation via photosensitization are needed. In addition, we
250	solely studied three typical biomass burning-derived photosensitizers. Photosensitized sulfate formation on real BBOA
251	particles, which is a complex matrix of organics, is to be explored further.









**Figure 1.** (a) Time traces of SO<sub>2</sub> in the dark (0-10 min) and under UV irradiation (I<sub>4</sub>) (10-20 min) in the presence of DMB-, VL-, SyrAld-, or BA-coated particles and PSL-only particles. The SO<sub>2</sub> consumption is presented as a function of the total surface area concentration of SPAMS detected particles. Total surface area concentrations in the range of  $7 \times 10^4 - 2 \times 10^5 \,\mu\text{m}^2 \,\text{m}^{-3}$  are denoted by "small", in  $2 \times 10^5 - 6 \times 10^5$  $\mu\text{m}^2 \,\text{m}^{-3}$  as "medium", and larger than  $6 \times 10^5 \,\mu\text{m}^2 \,\text{m}^{-3}$  as "large". (b) Average negative and positive mass spectra for the DMB-, VL-, SyrAldand BA-coated particles under dark and UV irradiation (I<sub>1</sub> and I<sub>4</sub>) conditions. All experiments were conducted at 80% RH.







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Figure 2. Average sulfate relative peak areas (RPAs), and number percentage of sulfate-containing particles for the DMB-, VL-, SyrAldand BA-coated particles, mosquito coil burning, and incense burning particles under dark and UV irradiation conditions in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. Errors are shown by 95% confidence intervals. SO<sub>2</sub> consumptions normalized by the average total particle surface area concentrations before and after UV irradiation in the OFR detected by SPAMS are shown. Data of incense and mosquito coil burning particles were from Liang et al. (2022). All experiments were conducted at 80% RH.

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Figure 3. Distribution of sulfate RPA for DMB-, VL- and SyrAld-coated particles under air and N<sub>2</sub> conditions at different UV intensities in

 $272 \qquad \text{the presence of $SO_2$}.$ 

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Figure 4. Sulfate RPA vs. particle diameter detected by the SPAMS for (a) externally mixed VL-coated particles and KNO<sub>3</sub>; (b) externally mixed VL-coated particles and KNO<sub>3</sub>-oxalic acid particles; and (c) internally mixed VL and KNO<sub>3</sub> particles at 80% RH under UV irradiation (I<sub>1</sub>) in the presence of SO<sub>2</sub>. The markers are presented as a function of sulfate APA. The color scale in c indicates the ion intensity ratio of nitrate to organics (total negative ion intensity subtracted by nitrate and sulfate intensity) in the negative mass spectra.

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- 285 **Data availability.** The data are available upon request to the corresponding author.
- 286 Author contributions. CKC and LZ designed the experiment; LZ and ZL conducted the experiments; LZ and ZL performed
- the data interpretation; LZ, ZL, BRG, RAIC, RT, ML, CC and CKC wrote the paper. All authors contributed to the paper
- with useful scientific discussions or comments.
- 289 **Competing interests.** The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any competing interests.
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