



1 **Characteristics of Negative Cluster Ions in an Urban Environment**

2 Rujing Yin^{1,2#}, Xiaoxiao Li^{1,3#}, Chao Yan^{2,4}, Runlong Cai², Ying Zhou⁴, Juha Kangasluoma², Nina Sarnela², Janne
3 Lampilahti², Tuukka Petäjä², Veli-Matti Kerminen², Federico Bianchi², Markku Kulmala^{2,4}, Jingkun Jiang^{1*}

4 ¹State Key Joint Laboratory of Environment Simulation and Pollution Control, School of Environment, Tsinghua
5 University, Beijing, 100084, China

6 ²Institute for Atmospheric and Earth System Research/Physics, Faculty of Science, University of Helsinki, 00014
7 Helsinki, Finland

8 ³School of Resources and Environmental Sciences, Wuhan University, 430072 Wuhan, China

9 ⁴Aerosol and Haze Laboratory, Beijing Advanced Innovation Center for Soft Matter Science and Engineering, Beijing
10 University of Chemical Technology, 100029 Beijing, China

11 [#]These authors contributed equally to this work.

12 ^{*}: Correspondence to: J. Jiang (jiangjk@tsinghua.edu.cn)

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14 **This PDF file includes:**

15 Main text

16 Figures 1 to 7

17

18



19 **Abstract.** Atmospheric cluster ions are important constituents in the atmosphere. Concentrations and compositions of
20 cluster ions govern their effects on atmospheric chemistry, air quality, and human health. However, quantitative research
21 on ion composition is rare, especially in an urban atmosphere where pollution levels and human populations are intense.
22 In this study, we measure negative cluster ion compositions using an atmospheric pressure interface high-resolution time-
23 of-flight mass spectrometer in urban Beijing. We demonstrate the feasibility of quantifying cluster ion compositions with
24 simultaneous *in-situ* measurements by a neutral cluster and air ion spectrometer. The median concentrations of negative
25 cluster ions smaller than 1.6 nm were 85 (61-112 for 25-75%) cm^{-3} , decreasing significantly with an increasing
26 condensation sink (CS). These concentrations are far lower than those observed at comparatively clean sites due to the
27 higher CS in polluted environments. The ions NO_3^- and HSO_4^- , together with organic ions with the adducts of NO_3^- and
28 HSO_4^- , were the most abundant in urban Beijing, and the organic ions in the atmosphere were similar in composition to
29 those oxygenated organic molecules charged in a chemical ionization mass spectrometer with NO_3^- as the reagent ions.
30 It was shown that the ambient atmosphere is a natural ion-molecular reaction chamber with NO_3^- and HSO_4^- as the main
31 reagent ions. Compared to the clean sites, negative cluster ions in Beijing are composed of more NO_3^- and CHON organic
32 ions due to higher NO_x concentrations and higher fractions of CHON molecules in overall oxygenated organic species.
33 Using dynamic equilibrium equations to examine the fate of HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ in the atmosphere, we found that their
34 main sources to be the ionization of H_2SO_4 and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$ by NO_3^- and their main loss being the condensational loss onto
35 aerosol particles (73-75%), followed by ion-molecule reaction losses (19%), and ion-ion recombination losses (6-8%).

36 **Keywords:** cluster ions, ion composition, urban atmosphere, condensation sink, NO_x

37

38 1 Introduction

39 Atmospheric cluster ions are electrically charged atoms, molecules, and molecular clusters. Their mobility is usually
40 larger than $0.5 \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Horrak et al., 2000). The primary ions, such as N_2^+ , O_2^+ , NO^+ , O^- , and O_2^- , are initially formed
41 via cosmic radiation, gamma radiation, and other near-ground local sources, such as radon decay, lightning, plant
42 emissions, waterfall and seashore generation, combustion, and high-voltage transmission lines emission (Carslaw et al.,
43 2002; Eisele, 1989; Hirsikko et al., 2007; Tamm et al., 2006). Primary ions will subsequently undergo ion-molecule
44 reactions, ion-ion recombination, or deposition onto particles, accompanied by the evolution of their electrical mobility,
45 concentration, and composition (Curtius et al., 2006; Harrison, 2003; Kontkanen et al., 2013; Shuman et al., 2015).
46 Atmospheric ions play important roles in atmospheric chemistry (Bates, 1982; Luts and Salm, 1994), ion-induced
47 nucleation (Charlson et al., 1992; Lee et al., 2003; Lovejoy, 2004), atmosphere conductivity (G. Baumgaertner et al.,
48 2013) and air quality (Jiang et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2004). Moreover, atmospheric negative ions can benefit human health
49 at certain levels of concentration, while their low concentrations may cause headaches and insomnia (Chu et al., 2019;
50 Jiang et al., 2018; Malcolm et al., 2009). The effects of atmospheric cluster ions are highly related to their mobility,
51 concentration and composition (Jiang et al., 2018).

52 There are substantial differences in the characteristics of atmospheric ions and their dynamic variations among diverse



53 environments. Globally, atmospheric ion concentrations span a wide range from 100 to 5000 cm⁻³ (Hirsikko et al., 2011;
54 Usoskin et al., 2004), determined mainly by differences in ion production and loss rates. On one hand, ion production
55 rates vary with a geographical location, land cover type and weather conditions (Chen et al., 2016; Ling et al., 2010;
56 Usoskin et al., 2004). On the other hand, ion loss rates are largely related to ions carrying opposite charges, aerosol
57 surface area concentrations, and deposition rates (Harrison, 2003; Tammet et al., 2006). For ion compositions, hundreds
58 of new ions can be formed through ion-molecule reactions after the primary ions are initially formed. It has been found
59 that besides the primary ions, NO₃⁻, HSO₄⁻ and their clusters were predominant ions due to their high acidities (Davidson
60 et al., 1977; Viggiano et al., 1980). Oxygenated organic molecules (OOMs) were observed clustering with NO₃⁻ and
61 HSO₄⁻ naturally in the atmosphere and the composition of these organic atmospheric ions has been reported to be similar
62 to those of neutral vapor molecules (Bianchi et al., 2017; Ehn et al., 2010; Yin et al., 2021). Specifically, ion compositions
63 were found very different between NPF and non-NPF events, and ion compositions during NPF implies different
64 nucleation pathways in clean and polluted atmospheres (Bianchi et al., 2016; Ehn et al., 2010; Eisele et al., 2006; Kirkby
65 et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2021). Thus, the measurement of ion characteristics requires high temporal measurements in
66 various environments.

67 Ion characteristics at polluted urban sites, where the ion production and loss processes may be very different from the
68 clean sites, are relatively poorly understood. At many polluted urban sites, intense pollution emissions lead to high
69 concentrations of neutral gas species and high aerosol concentrations. For the ion production processes, the neutral gas
70 molecules at the urban site are significantly different from those at clean sites. High NO_x concentrations were found to
71 be accompanied with high concentrations of nitrogen-containing organic molecules at polluted urban sites (Li et al.,
72 2022; Qiao et al., 2021). For ion loss processes, condensation sink (CS) at urban sites can reach up to two orders of
73 magnitude higher values compared with clean sites (Cai et al., 2017), which would cause a significant loss of ions onto
74 large particles in urban air. These may lead to big differences in ion concentrations and compositions between clean and
75 urban sites. For instance, Iida et al. (2006) have shown that the ion concentration near a polluted site Boulder might be
76 substantially suppressed by high ion loss rates, resulting only a minor contribution from ion-induced nucleation to NPF.
77 Although some recent studies have revealed the characteristics of ions in clean environments (Bianchi et al., 2016; Chen
78 et al., 2016; Ehn et al., 2010), only few studies have focused on such characteristics in an urban atmosphere (Yin et al.,
79 2021).

80 Simultaneous analysis of ion concentrations and compositions are rare in the field campaign. Various ion counters have
81 been designed to measure ion concentrations in the last century. Among these, Gerdien counters (Gerdien and H., 1903;
82 Gerdien, 1905), a balance scanning mobility analyzer (BSMA) (Tammet, 2006), the air ion spectrometer (AIS) (Mirme
83 et al., 2007), and a neutral cluster and air ion spectrometer (NAIS) (Manninen et al., 2016; Manninen et al., 2009) are
84 the most widely used ion counters or ion mobility spectrometers. However, these electrical mobility-based instruments
85 do not provide detailed information on an ion composition. Mass spectrometers have been widely used in the
86 measurement of ion compositions. Quadrupole mass spectrometers with approximate integer mass resolution have been
87 applied in a series of ion composition measurements (Eisele, 1989; Eisele et al., 2006; Eisele and Tanner, 1990; Viggiano,
88 1993). With the development of high-resolution mass spectrometer techniques, such as an atmospheric pressure interface
89 time-of-flight mass spectrometer (APi-TOF, ToFwerk AG), more species of atmospheric ions were identified (Ehn et al.,



90 2010; Eisele et al., 2006; Junninen et al., 2010; Kirkby et al., 2016), but the quantification of those ions in the APi-TOF
91 remains to be addressed.

92 It is urgent to develop a robust and easy-to-use method to quantify concentrations of different ions in APi-TOF in field
93 measurements. The detection efficiency of an APi-TOF to different ions is mainly determined by the m/z -dependent
94 transmission efficiency. The calibration of transmission efficiency often requires complex laboratory calibration settings,
95 including the generation, classification and counting of ions with different m/z ratios (Heinritzi et al., 2016; Junninen et
96 al., 2010). Alternatively, the relative transmission efficiency of an APi-TOF compared to primary ions can be obtained
97 using a depletion method with the help of a chemical ionization inlet (Heinritzi et al., 2016). But the settings are still
98 complex and only relative transmission efficiency is obtained. For convenience, an *in-situ* calibration method was
99 proposed by Ehn et al. (2011), in which the measured results of a NAIS and APi-TOF in Hyytiälä showed good
100 correlations for size-segregated ions. Since ion mobility was negatively correlated with the m/z of the ions (Horrak et al.,
101 2000), it is possible to calibrate the mass spectrometers *in-situ* using the synchronous measurements of well-calibrated
102 ion spectrometers (e.g. NAIS). However, the feasibility of this method in polluted urban atmospheres still needs to be
103 examined.

104 In this study, we apply an *in-situ* quantification method of atmospheric ion compositions measured by an APi-TOF and
105 reveal the governing factors of atmospheric cluster ion concentration and composition at polluted urban sites. We perform
106 field measurements of atmospheric negative cluster ions at an urban site using the APi-TOF and NAIS simultaneously.
107 By comparing the two *in-situ* measurements, we quantify the concentration of ions measured by the APi-TOF using an
108 improved method. The concentration and composition of ions are compared with the clean sites, and the reasons for the
109 observed differences are explored. The origins and composition variations of ions are characterized and compared with
110 the neutral clusters measured by a chemical ionization mass spectrometer with NO_3^- as the reagent ions (abbreviated as
111 (nitrate) CI-APi-TOF). The driving factors for the variations in ion characteristics at the urban site are revealed. To better
112 quantify the formation and loss scheme of atmospheric ions, the ions HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ are taken as representatives in
113 the dynamic equilibrium equation. We further show that ion concentrations can be well-predicted by neutral molecule
114 concentration and CS using H_2SO_4 and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$ as examples

115

116 **2 Methods**

117 **2.1 Field measurement**

118 A field measurement is conducted at the Aerosol and Haze Laboratory of Beijing University of Chemical Technology
119 Station (AHL/BUCT station), Beijing, China (Liu et al., 2020; Yin et al., 2021). The AHL/BUCT station is a typical
120 urban site surrounded by three traffic roads and some residential buildings. The station is ~18 m above the ground with
121 no higher buildings around it within 50 m. It is equipped with many state-of-the-art instruments and routine instruments
122 for air quality measurements. This station has been continuously operated since 2018. The sampling period used in this
123 study is between Jan 14th and Sep 16th, 2018. Besides the measurement in urban Beijing, the measurement at a boreal
124 forest site (Hyytiälä) during 2013 is used for comparison (Manninen et al., 2009; Yan et al., 2018).



125 The atmospheric negative cluster ion compositions were measured with an atmospheric pressure interface time-of-flight
126 high-resolution mass spectrometer (APi-HTOF) from Feb 14th to Feb 27th, 2018. The ambient air is sampled from the
127 window through a 1.4-m long 1/4 in, stainless steel tubing. The sampling flow rate of the APi-HTOF is ~0.8 LPM, and
128 the extra sheath flow is 3 LPM, resulting in a total sampling flow rate of 3.8 LPM. The APi-HTOF was operated in a
129 negative ion mode to measure negative ions, and the voltages in the APi-HTOF were adjusted to minimize cluster
130 fragmentations. As atmospheric ion concentrations are relatively low, signals were averaged to 1 h for further analysis.
131 The mass resolution of the APi-HTOF is ~4500 at m/z 200. The elements C, H, O, N, and S were used for peak assignment.
132 Peaks that cannot be assigned with these elements within 10 ppm are labeled as “unknown” or “others”. The relative
133 mass-dependent transmission efficiency in the HTOF was calibrated through the depletion method when the APi-HTOF
134 was operated with a nitrate chemical ionization (CI) inlet in front, for which the voltages were kept the same as in the
135 APi-mode (Heinritzi et al., 2016). Detailed descriptions of the measurement and data analysis have been described in
136 our previous study (Yin et al., 2021).

137 The neutral gas molecules were measured by a (nitrate-) CI-APi-LTOF (Bertram et al., 2011; Jokinen et al., 2012), where
138 NO_3^- and its adducts $(\text{HNO}_3)_{1-2}\text{NO}_3^-$ are used as the reagent ions to chemically ionize the gas molecules with a laminar
139 flow ionization source mounted in front of the APi-LTOF (Eisele and Tanner, 1993). The species that can be ionized by
140 NO_3^- and its adducts $(\text{HNO}_3)_{1-2}\text{NO}_3^-$ are usually highly oxygenated molecules, such as H_2SO_4 and OOMs. The mass
141 resolution is ~8000 at m/z 200. The peak fitting and identification of the molecular compositions use binPMF solutions
142 as an assistant for the complex mass spectra following our previous studies (Nie et al., 2022). For quantification, we
143 performed H_2SO_4 sensitivity calibration via the controlled reaction between SO_2 and OH (Kürten et al., 2012; Li et al.,
144 2019). The relative mass-dependent transmission efficiency of the CI-APi-LTOF was also calibrated through the
145 depletion method (Heinritzi et al., 2016), and these results are shown in our previous study (Yin et al., 2021).

146 The ion mobility distribution was measured by a NAIS (NAIS, Airel Ltd.) (Mirme and Mirme, 2013). It can
147 simultaneously measure positive and negative ions with ion mobility of $3.2\text{-}0.0013\text{ cm}^2\cdot\text{V}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, corresponding to the
148 mobility diameter range of 0.8-40 nm. In practice, the NAIS switched between detecting naturally charged ions and total
149 particles (including neutral and charged particles) by switching off/on a unipolar corona charger. The measurement cycle
150 period was 2 min for the ion mode, 2 min for the particle mode, and 30 s for offset. As we focus on atmospheric ions,
151 the data measured in particle mode was not used in our following analysis. For the ion measurement, two cylindrical
152 mobility spectrometers were operated in parallel to measure positive and negative ions simultaneously. An overall of
153 109 mobility bins are divided. In this study, only negative ions with mobility diameters smaller than 1.6 nm were used,
154 corresponding to ion mobility of $\sim 0.8\text{ cm}^2\cdot\text{V}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$, as we only focus on cluster ions. The results of NAIS were calibrated
155 considering both the transfer functions and sampling losses.

156 **2.2 The quantification of air ions**

157 Although we calibrated the relative m/z -dependent transmission efficiency in the APi-HTOF, there are still two problems
158 for accurate quantification: (1) the absolute transmission efficiency is unknown and needs to be calibrated; (2) the relative
159 transmission efficiency curve is calibrated by adding a CI-inlet in front of the APi-HTOF, and the influences of CI-inlet
160 remain unknown. For example, a previous study using a high-resolution differential mobility analyzers and electrometer



161 to calibrate the transmission efficiencies under the APi-mode and CI-mode found that the transmission efficiency under
162 the CI-mode shifts to larger m/z compared to APi-mode (Heinritzi et al., 2016).

163 Considering these two problems in quantifying APi-HTOF, we used an improved method to obtain the absolute
164 transmission efficiency of the APi-HTOF through the comparison with the synchronous *in-situ* measurement from the
165 NAIS. The key to linking the measurement results of ions by the APi-HTOF with those by the NAIS is to convert the
166 m/z of ions to ion mobilities. As the resolving power of the NAIS is lower than that of the APi-HTOF, the ion signals in
167 APi-HTOF in specific m/z ranges were summed up to compare with the ion concentrations measured by the NAIS.

168 For some specific ions with known peak assignments and structures, like NO_3^- and HSO_4^- , the ion mobility can be directly
169 measured by ion mobility spectrometers (IMS). The results reported in previous literature (Jen et al., 2015; Liang et al.,
170 2013; Spangler and Collins, 1975; Stano et al., 2008) are summarized in Table S1 and were applied in this study. For the
171 remaining ions, like the hundreds of complex organic ions, the Stokes-Millikan equation was applied to convert their
172 m/z to mobilities (Ehn et al., 2011; Friedlander, 2000; Tammet, 1995), as in Eq. 1.

$$173 \quad Z = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + m_g/m}} \frac{Q}{3\pi\mu} \frac{1 + Kn(1.257 + 0.4e^{-1.1/Kn})}{d_m + d_g} \quad \text{Eq.1}$$

174 where Z is the electrical mobility, m_g the mass of a carrier gas molecule, m the mass of ions, Q the charge of ions, μ the
175 viscosity of the carrier gas, Kn the Knudsen number, d_m the mobility diameter of ions, and d_g the diameter of the carrier
176 gas molecule. Here, the carrier gas is ambient air, and m_g , d_g , and μ are adopted as 29.0 g/mol, 0.3 nm, and 1.73×10^{-5}
177 $\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ at 278 K and 101.3 kPa (Ku and De La Mora, 2009). Kn and d_m are calculated as Eq. 2-3.

$$178 \quad Kn = \frac{2\lambda}{d_m + d_g} \quad \text{Eq.2}$$

$$179 \quad d_m = \sqrt[3]{\frac{6m}{\pi\rho}} \quad \text{Eq.3}$$

180 where λ is the mean free path of carrier gas (62 nm at 278 K and 101.3 kPa) and ρ the density of ions. The appropriate
181 density for calculating the mobility of ions is controversial. Ehn et al. (2011) used the bulk density of aconitic acid (1.66
182 $\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$) for the conversion, but molecular clusters may have different densities with bulk substances. To investigate this
183 problem, we compared the measured mobility of an IMS for different types of OOMs with the calculated mobilities
184 according to the Stokes-Millikan method using 1.1, 1.3, and 1.6 $\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$ as the densities respectively (Fig. S1). The
185 experimental results of the IMS are from Krechmer et al. (2016). By comparing the measured and calculated mobilities
186 for organic ions with different compositions, densities of 1.1 and 1.3 $\text{g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$ were ultimately used in the mass-mobility
187 conversion of ions with m/z smaller and larger than 150, respectively. The sudden change of density at m/z 150 led to
188 an increase in estimated mobility from 1.67 to 1.80, which should have had limited influences on the final calibration
189 results. Finally, the mobilities of all ions were adjusted according to the ambient temperature and pressure before being
190 applied in the calibration of APi-HTOF (Tammet, 1995).

191 Using the synchronous *in-situ* measurement results of the NAIS as the reference, the detection efficiency of the APi-
192 HTOF for ions with different m/z is obtained. Here, since the ion concentrations measured by the NAIS have already
193 considered sampling losses and represent atmospheric concentrations, the obtained detection efficiency of the APi-HTOF



194 should represent a combined result of the transmission efficiency of the APi-HTOF and the sampling efficiency in the
195 sampling line of the APi-HTOF. The ions used in the APi-HTOF are in the m/z range from 32 to 908, corresponding to
196 the mobility diameters of 0.8-1.6 nm and ion mobilities of 3.16 to $0.77 \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, covering 12 mobility bins of the
197 NAIS measurements. The number concentrations and signal intensities measured by the NAIS and APi-HTOF had good
198 consistencies ($r \geq 0.66$) in the 12 bins, and the correlations were the best over the m/z range of 331-791 ($r > 0.94$) (Fig.
199 S2). The good correlation between the APi-HTOF and NAIS indicates that both instruments captured the variation of the
200 atmospheric negative cluster ions. Then the detection efficiency of a certain m/z in the APi-HTOF was calculated as the
201 slope of the linear fitting line between signal intensities acquired in the APi-HTOF and number concentrations in the
202 NAIS. Comparing with the detection efficiencies calculated from the composition-dependent density, using a fixed
203 density of $1.66 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$ would overestimate the detection efficiency for small ions and underestimate that for large ions,
204 with a deviation of up to 40% (Fig. S3).

205 After excluding the effect of sampling losses in the APi-HTOF, the absolute transmission efficiency of the APi-HTOF
206 was derived, and the obtained pattern agreed well with the relative transmission efficiency as shown in Fig. 1. As the
207 composition-dependent density was applied, the absolute and relative transmission efficiency curves showed similar
208 patterns with both peaking at $\sim m/z$ 400, where the absolute transmission efficiency reached $\sim 4.9\%$. The discrepancy
209 between the absolute and relative transmission efficiency at small values of m/z may be caused by the uncertainty of
210 small ion measurements in the NAIS, sampling efficiency calculation, or the influences of CI-inlet, as the voltage settings
211 remain the same during the calibration experiment. The absolute transmission efficiency obtained by our calibration is
212 roughly the same order of magnitude as that in previous studies, and the shape is similar as well (Heinritzi et al., 2016;
213 Junninen et al., 2010). Finally, the fit line of the detection efficiency was applied to quantify the ion compositions
214 measured by the APi-HTOF, considering both the sampling efficiency and the transmission efficiency (Fig. 1).

215 Fig. 1 The detection and transmission efficiency curves

216 The total negative cluster ion concentrations measured by the APi-HTOF were well consistent with those measured by
217 the NAIS (Fig. 2). However, when the total ion concentrations were smaller than $\sim 70 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, the total ion concentrations
218 measured by the NAIS were higher than those measured by the APi-HTOF. Specifically, total cluster ion concentration
219 measured by the NAIS was still higher than 25 cm^{-3} even when ions detected by APi-HTOF approached zero. These
220 signals detected by the NAIS are mainly from small cluster ions (3.16 - $1.28 \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, 0.8 - 1.27 nm), the fraction of
221 which rises to $>80\%$ of the total counts when the total cluster ion concentration measured by the APi-HTOF is lower
222 than $\sim 70 \text{ cm}^{-3}$. As the APi-HTOF has a much lower detection limit than the NAIS (Fig. S4), these signals could be caused
223 by the high noise of small ions in the NAIS. The detection limit of the APi-HTOF is determined according to the noise
224 of microchannel plate (MCP) detector and the detection efficiency. The detection limit of the APi-HTOF is the lowest at
225 a diameter of 1.4 nm , which is $\sim 0.02 \text{ cm}^{-3}$, and it increases when the detected ions move to lower or higher sizes due to
226 the decrease in detection efficiency. The detection limit of the NAIS is determined according to the noise of the
227 electrometer and its transfer function, and the noise of the electrometer was assumed to be 0.006 fA in our study. The
228 detection limit of the NAIS decreases with an increasing in ion diameter. The detection limit of the NAIS for cluster ions
229 is within 30 - 300 cm^{-3} . Thus, the ion concentration measured by the APi-HTOF is more reliable than that measured by

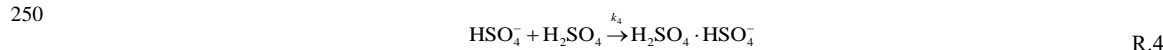
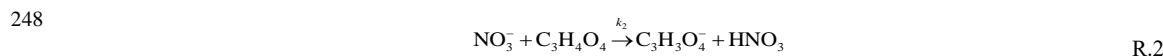
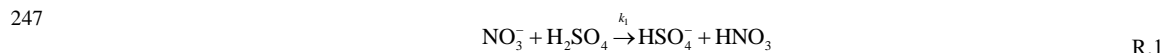


230 the NAIS when the ion concentration is extremely low. As the influence of background noise would diminish when
 231 signals increase and the detection efficiency is calculated using data during the whole period, the background noise in
 232 the NAIS has limited influence on the calibration we have done above.

233 Fig. 2 Ion concentrations measured by APi-HTOF and NAIS

234 2.3 The simulation of HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ concentration

235 To quantitatively address the sources and sinks of air ions, we simulate the concentration of ions through the dynamic
 236 equilibrium equation and identify their dominant production and loss pathways. The simulated concentrations are
 237 compared with the measured concentrations. The ions HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ are chosen here, as their concentrations are
 238 relatively high in urban Beijing and their reaction constants are relatively well known. The production pathways
 239 considered in this simulation are the ion-molecular reactions between NO_3^- and neutral molecules H_2SO_4 and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$.
 240 Previously, NO_3^- has been found to be formed earlier during the evolution of ion clusters (Beig and Brasseur, 2000; Luts,
 241 1995) and to ionize neutral gaseous that are more acidic than HNO_3 , such as H_2SO_4 and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$ (Eisele, 1989; Tanner
 242 and Eisele, 1991). The loss pathways in the atmosphere mainly include the condensational loss onto the particles, ion-
 243 molecules reactions, and ion-ion recombination between ions of opposite charge. The formation of H_2SO_4 dimer ions
 244 could be an important loss pathway for HSO_4^- (Beck et al., 2022). $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ could further react with H_2SO_4 and change
 245 back to the neutral form $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$ (Beig and Brasseur, 2000). Thus, the following ion-molecule reactions are considered
 246 in the dynamic models to simulate the formation of HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ in urban Beijing.



251 where k_1 to k_4 are the rate constants of these reactions, which are 2.32×10^{-9} , 2.5×10^{-9} , 2.0×10^{-9} , and $2.0 \times 10^{-9} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$
 252 respectively (Beig and Brasseur, 2000; Lovejoy and Curtius, 2001; Viggiano et al., 1997).

253 The dynamic equilibrium equations for HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ can be written as Eq.4 and Eq.5, respectively.

254
$$\frac{d[\text{HSO}_4^-]}{dt} = k_1[\text{NO}_3^-][\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] - k_4[\text{HSO}_4^-][\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] - \text{CS}[\text{HSO}_4^-] - \alpha n^+[\text{HSO}_4^-] \quad \text{Eq.4}$$

255
$$\frac{d[\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-]}{dt} = k_2[\text{NO}_3^-][\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4] - k_3[\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-][\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] - \text{CS}[\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-] - \alpha n^+[\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-] \quad \text{Eq.5}$$

256 where $\text{CS}[\text{HSO}_4^-]$ and $\text{CS}[\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-]$ are loss rates caused by the condensational loss onto particles; $\alpha n^+[\text{HSO}_4^-]$ and
 257 $\alpha c^+[\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-]$ are loss rates caused by the ion-ion recombination between ions of opposite charge; the value of α
 258 is assumed to be $1.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ (Bates, 1982; Zauner-Wieczorek et al., 2022); n^+ is the total concentration of positive
 259 ions and is measured by NAIS. Thus, the concentration of HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ are calculated as in Eq.6 and Eq.7,



260 respectively. Note that the HSO_4^- formed through the ion-molecule reaction between $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ and H_2SO_4 is neglected
261 considering the low concentration of $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ in Beijing.

$$262 \quad [\text{HSO}_4^-] = \frac{k_1[\text{NO}_3^-][\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4]}{\text{CS} + k_3[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] + \alpha n^+} \quad \text{Eq.6}$$

$$263 \quad [\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-] = \frac{k_5[\text{NO}_3^-][\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4]}{\text{CS} + k_2[\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] + \alpha n^+} \quad \text{Eq.7}$$

264

265 3. Results and discussion

266 3.1 Ion concentrations

267 The median concentration of negative cluster ions was 85 cm^{-3} in Beijing during the measurement period, and its 25th
268 and 75th percentiles were 61 cm^{-3} and 112 cm^{-3} respectively. These values were significantly lower than concentrations
269 typically reported at rural, forest and marine sites (Fig. 3a). The total concentration of air ions ranged between 14 cm^{-3}
270 and 467 cm^{-3} in urban Beijing, similar to that in the Indian urban city, Pune, which is also a highly polluted site (Gautam
271 et al., 2017). Ion concentrations in these two polluted urban cities are so far the lowest, significantly lower than at other
272 urban, rural and marine or forest sites, which are mostly above 200 cm^{-3} (Chen et al., 2017; Dos Santos et al., 2015;
273 Hirsikko et al., 2011; Tammet, 2015a; Tammet, 2015b). It should be noted that although Paris is an urban site, its air is
274 relatively clean in terms of aerosol concentration compared to the Chinese and Indian polluted urban sites. Similarly,
275 cluster ion concentrations at some urban sites can also be as high as those at rural and remote sites due to the relatively
276 clean atmosphere (Hirsikko et al., 2011).

277 Fig. 3 Concentration comparison between Beijing and other sites.

278 The ion concentrations are negatively correlated with CS at both urban Beijing and the clean forest site Hyytiälä. In
279 urban Beijing, the median ion concentration decreases from 181 to 51 ions cm^{-3} when CS increases from 0.0032 to 0.12
280 s^{-1} (Fig. 3b). The negative correlation between the ion concentration and CS exists for all the mobility ranges and is more
281 intensive for ions with an electrical mobility between 1.72 and $0.90 \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, corresponding to a diameter range of
282 about 1.03-1.44 nm (Fig. S5). Such negative correlation is also observed in Hyytiälä, where the median ion
283 concentrations decrease from a median of 606 to 369 ions cm^{-3} when CS increases from 0.00017 to 0.012 s^{-1} . Combining
284 data from these two sites, a negative correlation can still be seen over a wide CS range of 0.00017 to 0.12 s^{-1} . The
285 influence of CS on the positive cluster ions also exists, as positive and negative ions are closely related to each other
286 (Fig. S6). Thus, CS is an important influencing factor for the total cluster ion concentrations in both Beijing and Hyytiälä.
287 This is very likely the reason for the lowest ion concentrations at the two polluted sites (Beijing and Pune, Fig. 3a) having
288 the highest aerosol mass loadings. Overall, the inverse relation between the negative cluster ion concentration and CS
289 was much stronger in Beijing compared with Hyytiälä (Fig. 3b).



290 In urban Beijing, the estimated lifetime of cluster ions due to the combined effect of condensation loss and ion-ion
291 recombination of cluster ions is 0.02-0.4 min during haze periods ($PM_{2.5} > 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, average $CS = 0.091 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and 0.1-
292 1.6 min during clean periods ($PM_{2.5} < 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, average $CS = 0.023 \text{ s}^{-1}$) (Fig. S7). The lifetime of cluster ions in Hyytiälä
293 is between 0.8-14 min (average $CS = 0.0018 \text{ s}^{-1}$), much longer than that in Beijing. Such distinct CS reliance in urban
294 Beijing is barely observed in previous studies despite the condensational loss of ions on large particles has been widely
295 recognized as important. On the contrary, most of the studies have found weather conditions and ionizing radiation as
296 the controlling factor for ion concentrations. For example, ion production rates in Hyytiälä were reported to be largely
297 affected by variations in seasonal radiation and wind speed (Chen et al., 2016). This indicates that CS may be the driving
298 factor of cluster ion concentration only at highly polluted sites with high aerosol mass loadings and relatively constant
299 ion production rates, while ion production rates may be the driven factor at relatively clean sites where aerosol mass
300 loadings are low and ion production rate varies significantly (Hirsikko et al., 2007).

301 3.2 Ion compositions

302 Inorganic nitrogen-containing ions, inorganic sulfur-containing ions and organic ions were found to be the most abundant
303 negative ions in urban Beijing, representing 20-22%, 8-15%, and 37-43% of the total negative cluster ion concentrations
304 (Fig. 4a). Inorganic nitrogen-containing ions were mainly detected as NO_2^- , NO_3^- , and $\text{HNO}_3\text{NO}_3^-$, possibly existing in
305 the forms of $\text{NO}_2^-(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$, $\text{NO}_3^-(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$, and $\text{NO}_3^-\text{HNO}_3^-(\text{H}_2\text{O})_n$ in the atmosphere (Luts, 1995), with the loosely
306 bounded water molecules being evaporated from the cluster ions when passing through the mass spectrometer. The
307 concentration of NO_2^- and NO_3^- were observed to be well correlated with each other in the atmosphere of Beijing, and
308 the concentration of NO_2^- was ~20 % of that of NO_3^- (Fig. S8a). This is consistent with the ion chemical models
309 suggesting that NO_2^- and NO_3^- can be stably formed through a series of reactions between primary ions, NO, NO_2 , and
310 HNO_3 in the atmosphere (Beig and Basseur, 2000; Kawamoto and Ogawa, 1984). $\text{HNO}_3\text{NO}_3^-$ is subsequently formed
311 by adding an HNO_3 molecule to NO_3^- . Inorganic sulfur-containing ions are mainly in the form of HSO_4^- , SO_5^- , and
312 $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{HSO}_4^-$. The ion HSO_4^- is mainly produced by the ion-molecule reaction between NO_3^- and H_2SO_4 which will be
313 discussed hereinafter. $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4\text{HSO}_4^-$ is formed by the further addition of an H_2SO_4 molecule, which is proposed as the
314 first step of ion-induced nucleation (Lovejoy, 2004). SO_5^- is likely to be generated through the reaction between O_2 and
315 SO_3^- (Möhler et al., 1992), and its signal variation was similar to that of HSO_4^- (Fig. S8b). Similar compositions and
316 variations of inorganic sulfur-containing ions have been observed at a clean site (Ehn et al., 2010). The organic ions were
317 mainly CHON organic or CHO organic ions. They were mainly in the form of the adduct with NO_3^- or HSO_4^- , with minor
318 fractions in the deprotonated form CHO^- , indicating that the ionization schematic of these organic ions is mainly through
319 ion-molecular reaction with NO_3^- or HSO_4^- . Some sulfur-containing organics may be distinguished as CHON-HSO_4^-
320 ions, but as few neutral gases have been observed with sulfur, it is unlikely that CHON-HSO_4^- is a cluster of organic
321 sulfate (CHOS) and NO_3^- ions (Bianchi et al., 2017; Ehn et al., 2010).

322 Fig. 4 Composition comparison between Beijing and Hyytiälä



323 Ion compositions during clean and haze periods in urban Beijing were very different (Fig. 4b), influenced mainly by the
324 differences in neutral gaseous molecules. During the haze periods, the organic ions were dominated by nitrated phenol
325 compounds, such as $C_6H_5NO_3 \cdot NO_3^-$ and $(C_6H_5NO_3)_2 \cdot NO_3^-$. The high nitrated phenol ions in the haze periods are the
326 result of high anthropogenic emissions of aromatics and high NO_x concentrations (30.1 ± 14.6 ppb) (Cheng et al., 2021).
327 During the clean periods when the average NO_x decreased to 15.0 ± 11.5 ppb, a series of organic ion peaks were observed
328 for m/z above 300. The highest peaks in the series include $C_{10}H_{15}NO_{10} \cdot NO_3^-$, $C_{10}H_{14}O_{11} \cdot NO_3^-$, and $C_{10}H_{16}NO_{11} \cdot NO_3^-$,
329 which are possibly the ionization form of highly oxygenated products from monoterpenes (Lehtipalo et al., 2018). Also
330 the ions HSO_4^- and $H_2SO_4HSO_4^-$ were more abundant during the clean periods, indicating that the ion-induced nucleation
331 is stronger under clean conditions than during haze periods in Beijing due to the low CS.

332 Compared with the clean forest site Hyytiälä, higher fractions of NO_3^- and nitrogen-containing organic ions were
333 observed in urban Beijing, especially during the haze periods, which can be attributed to the high NO_x concentrations
334 (Fig. 4a-b). Firstly, the inorganic ions, including nitrogen- and sulfur-containing ions, were more abundant in Beijing
335 (37-42%) than in Hyytiälä (10%). This is due to the high concentrations of nitrogen- and sulfur-containing neutral gases,
336 including NO_x , SO_2 , HNO_3 , H_2SO_4 . Secondly, CHON fractions (24-32%) were much higher than CHO fractions (9-11%)
337 in urban Beijing, whereas the CHO organic ions (46%) were more abundant than the CHON fractions (31%) in Hyytiälä.
338 This is consistent with previous studies showing that neutral OOMs are composed of more nitrogen-containing species
339 in urban Beijing compared with Hyytiälä due to the high NO_x concentration (Li et al., 2022; Qiao et al., 2021). Thirdly,
340 nearly all the organic ions were in the form of adducts with NO_3^- in Hyytiälä, whereas some fraction of the organic ions
341 was adducted with HSO_4^- in Beijing. This is related to the higher HSO_4^-/NO_3^- ratio in Beijing (~ 0.3) compared with
342 Hyytiälä (~ 0.1). The smaller fraction of organic- HSO_4^- ions in Hyytiälä has also been observed in previous studies
343 (Bianchi et al., 2017; Yan et al., 2018). Finally, the spectrum during the clean periods in Beijing had more similarities to
344 the ion spectrum in Hyytiälä. The latter site is known to be dominated by biogenic volatile organic compounds such as
345 monoterpenes (Isidorov et al., 1985), so the corresponding ion spectrum is dominated by monoterpene-related OOMs.
346 In summary, the observed composition differences were mainly caused by the high NO_x in urban Beijing. Despite the
347 compositions in urban Beijing and forest Hyytiälä being different, the ion mobility distributions were generally quite
348 similar (Fig. 4c). The mode mobility peaks of ions for both sites were ~ 2 $cm^2 \cdot V^{-1} \cdot s^{-1}$, corresponding to the m/z range of
349 118-239 dominated by HSO_4^- dimer, trimer, and organic ions.

350 3.3 Comparison of ion and neutral molecules

351 In the above analysis, we showed that the detected negative organic ions are mostly in the form of the adduct with NO_3^-
352 and HSO_4^- . We thus compared the organic ion composition with the spectra measured with a (nitrate-) CI-API-LTOF.
353 The organic ions measured by the API-HTOF were similar to the ionized organic molecules in the (nitrate) CI-API-LTOF.
354 There was a total of 253 ions measured in both spectra (Fig. 5a). The common ions included $(H_2SO_4)_{0-3}HSO_4^-$, $(HNO_3)_{0-}$
355 $_2NO_3^-$, CHO^- , $CHO \cdot NO_3^-$, and $CHON \cdot NO_3^-$ peaks. Such abundant common ions in API-HTOF and CI-API-LTOF



356 indicate their similarities in ionization pathways. The ions detected only by the APi-HTOF were mainly CHO·HSO₄⁻ and
357 CHON·HSO₄⁻ due to the lack of HSO₄⁻ reagent ions in the CI-APi-LTOF. Also some new particle formation-related large
358 (H₂SO₄)_m(amine)_n(NH₃)_zHSO₄⁻ clusters ($m=1-5$, $n=0-4$, $z=0-2$) were only detected by the APi-HTOF due to their
359 fragmentation during the chemical ionization process and low signal-to-noise in the CI-APi-LTOF (Yin et al., 2021).
360 Most of the ions detected only by the CI-APi-LTOF were relatively less abundant ions, thus their corresponding ion
361 concentrations were too low to be detected or to be assigned with a certain formula in the APi-HTOF.

362 Most of the observed negative organic cluster ions in urban Beijing were the result of NO₃⁻ clustering with OOMs. The
363 presence of these OOM·NO₃⁻ clusters confirms that most of the negative air cluster ions are naturally charged by NO₃⁻
364 and neutral OOMs are the preference in this ionization process. The carbon (C) and oxygen (O) element numbers of
365 CHO and CHON species detected in the APi-HTOF and CI-APi-LTOF had similar distributions (Fig. 5b), with C atom
366 in the range of 1 to 14, O atom in the range of 1 to 15, and N atom in the range of 0 to 2 (Fig. S9). The average O:C ratio
367 of the organic ions detected in the APi-HTOF and CI-APi-LTOF were 0.74 and 0.94, respectively. The O:C ratios were
368 significantly higher than those detected by the (iodide)CI-APi-TOF and (oxygen)CI-APi-TOF (Li et al., 2021; Riva et
369 al., 2019), as NO₃⁻ are more selective towards oxygenated organics than I⁻ and O₂⁻. For a specific CHO molecule, the
370 ratio of its form in CHO·NO₃⁻ to CHO⁻ were 1.6 and 2.7 on average in APi-HTOF and CI-APi-LTOF, respectively. The
371 lower ratio in the APi-HTOF may be related to the less abundant NO₃⁻ among the natural ions, as compared with that in
372 the CI inlet. This low ratio could also be introduced by the existence of other reagent ions besides NO₃⁻, such as HSO₄⁻
373 and O₂⁻ in the ambient air.

374 Besides NO₃⁻, HSO₄⁻ is another major reagent ion in the atmosphere. Total organic ion cluster concentrations with the
375 adduct of NO₃⁻ and HSO₄⁻ were 27-34% and 7-8%, respectively (Fig. 4a). Natural charge fractions of ions were calculated
376 by comparing the common species measured by the APi-HTOF and CI-APi-LTOF. Fig. 5c shows that the natural charge
377 fractions for these molecules are highly dependent on the chemical compositions and CS. For CHO·HSO₄⁻ and
378 CHON·HSO₄⁻ measured by the APi-HTOF, neutral molecules detected by the CI-APi-LTOF containing the same formula
379 of CHO and CHON are treated as their corresponding precursors. The charge fraction varied greatly between 10⁻¹⁰ and
380 10⁻⁵, with highest charge fractions observed for H₂SO₄ (10⁻⁷-10⁻⁵). The average charge fractions of the organic ions were
381 much lower (10⁻¹⁰-10⁻⁶). For example, the charge fraction for C₃H₄O₄ was 2×10⁻⁷-2×10⁻⁶. The charge fraction of CHO
382 was about one order of magnitude higher than that of CHON, regardless of the charge carrier (NO₃⁻ or HSO₄⁻). These
383 values tend to be much lower than the predicted charge fraction of 1 nm particles after a bipolar diffusion charging
384 process (~10⁻³) (Wiedensohler et al., 1986). Moreover, the ratio of ions formed via a neutral organic compound charged
385 by HSO₄⁻ and the same compound charged by NO₃⁻ varied in the range of 0.008-8, with an average of ~0.7 (Fig. S10).
386 The containing of nitrogen atoms in the formula of neutral molecules seemed to have only little influence on this ratio.
387 Besides, we found that the natural charge fractions decreased by 1-2 orders of magnitudes with the increase of CS in
388 urban Beijing. It should be noted that the charge fraction calculation assumes that the CI-APi-LTOF perfectly quantifies



389 all the species, including the assumption that the ionization efficiency of ions in the CI-API-LTOF is the same as that of
390 H_2SO_4 . It is known that the neutral molecule concentration estimated under this assumption is at the lower limit (Hytinen
391 et al., 2016), and thus, the calculated charge fractions are most likely at the higher limit.

392 Fig. 5 Composition comparison between neutral molecules and ions

393 To sum up, the concentration of a specific ion is determined by the CS, neutral gaseous molecule concentration and
394 reagent ion concentration. As shown in Fig. S11, the concentration of a specific ion was negatively correlated with CS,
395 and under similar CS levels the concentration of ions generally increased with its corresponding neutral gas concentration.
396 The influences of neutral gas and reagent ion concentrations were also reflected in the diurnal variations of HSO_4^- , CHO-
397 related ions and CHON-related ions, as shown in Fig. 6, possibly because the diurnal variations of CS were relatively
398 small compared to the variations in precursor concentrations. It should be noted that nitrated phenol-related ions were
399 not counted as $\text{CHON}\cdot\text{NO}_3^-$ or $\text{CHON}\cdot\text{HSO}_4^-$ here, because nitrated phenol compounds have remarkably high signals
400 and different characteristics, e.g., high volatilities, from most CHON compounds measured in the CI-API-TOF.

401 The diurnal variations of ions were mainly determined by their neutral gas molecules, with slight influences from the
402 variations in reagent ions. Among these, HSO_4^- and its neutral molecule H_2SO_4 had the most similar diurnal variations,
403 with distinct peaks at noon and the lowest values at night. The diurnal variations of CHO-related and CHON-related ions
404 also showed some similarities with their neutral molecules CHO and CHON. Both the CHO-related ions and CHON-
405 related ions had higher concentrations during daytime than nighttime, which agrees with the variations of neutral CHO
406 and CHON molecules. Additionally, the diurnal variations of organic molecules adducted with the same reagent ions,
407 such as $\text{CHO}\cdot\text{NO}_3^-$ and $\text{CHON}\cdot\text{NO}_3^-$, had an obvious increase at approximately 17:00, while the concentrations of CHO-
408 HSO_4^- and $\text{CHON}\cdot\text{HSO}_4^-$ did not. These variations were more likely to be affected by the variations of the reagent ions
409 NO_3^- and HSO_4^- . Thus, for organic ion clusters, both the concentrations of neutral molecules and their corresponding
410 reagent ions would affect their concentrations.

411 An exception in the diurnal variations was observed for NO_3^- . There seemed to be no relationship between its diurnal
412 variation and those of NO_x or HNO_3 . Instead, NO_3^- has an opposite diurnal variation with CS in urban Beijing. The
413 concentration of NO_3^- was more complicated those of HSO_4^- and the organic ions, as the loss of NO_3^- includes molecular-
414 ion reactions with numerous other neutral molecules. These neutral molecules correlate well with CS (Nie et al., 2022),
415 and thus their influences cannot be separated. Interestingly, the fractions of NO_3^- in total ion clusters also tended to be
416 relatively constant ($15\%\pm 5\%$) (Fig. S12), which may be the result of a balance between ion-molecular production and
417 loss.

418 Fig. 6 Diurnal concentrations of neutral molecules and ions



419 3.4 Quantification of the sources and sinks of representative air ions

420 We further show that the ionization of H_2SO_4 and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$ by NO_3^- and condensational loss to particles were the main
421 formation and loss pathways for HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ respectively. HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ were chosen as they are one of
422 the most abundant negative ions in different atmospheric environments. As shown in Fig. 7, the simulated concentrations
423 of both HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ by Eqs.6-7 have a good consistency with the measured concentrations, indicating that the
424 considered production and loss pathways can reproduce the real ion concentration in this urban atmosphere. That is, the
425 ionization of H_2SO_4 and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$ by NO_3^- is the main production pathway. For both HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$, the
426 condensational loss was the main loss pathway, contributing to more than 70% of the total loss rate, which explains why
427 CS is a driving factor for the concentration of cluster ions in urban Beijing. Ion-ion recombination process only accounted
428 for 6% and 8% of the total loss rates for HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$, which was due to the low ion concentrations compared to
429 the cleaner sites. Notably, the ion-molecular reactions between the ions with H_2SO_4 could contribute to 19% of the loss
430 of both HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$. This indicates that the transformation of ions back to neutral molecules is also noteworthy.

431 Fig. 7 The measured and simulated HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$.

432

433 4 Conclusions

434 We quantified the composition-resolved ion concentrations in the atmosphere by combining mass spectrometry and
435 electrical mobility measurements. The absolute transmission efficiency in the mass spectrometry APi-HTOF obtained
436 with the ion mobility spectrometer agreed well with the relative transmission efficiency obtained in the chemical
437 ionization mode of the APi-HTOF. The calibrated ion concentrations with different m/z ranges agreed well with the
438 concentration of ions with corresponding mobility ranges of the ion mobility spectrometer. These indicate that an APi-
439 HTOF can be well calibrated by running an APi-HTOF and an ion mobility spectrometer side by side in ambient
440 measurements. Furthermore, we propose that the transmission efficiency of a CI-APi-TOF can also be obtained through
441 *in-situ* comparison with an ion mobility spectrometer, as long as the X-ray and voltages of a chemical ionization inlet
442 are turned off and atmospheric ions are directly measured.

443 The cluster ion composition and concentrations in urban Beijing are largely affected by the high concentration of large
444 particles and nitrogen oxides. Firstly, ion concentration decreased significantly with an increasing CS for cluster ions in
445 all the mobility ranges, as the ion loss rate increased. Median cluster ion concentrations in urban Beijing were only ~ 85
446 cm^{-3} , much lower than those reported at clean and rural sites due to the high CS in urban Beijing. Under similar levels
447 of CS, the ion concentration of a specific compound was positively related to its neutral gas precursor and reagent ion
448 concentrations. Due to high concentrations of nitrogen oxides in urban Beijing, the ion compositions were composed of
449 more inorganic and organic nitrogen-containing species, with much higher fractions than those in Hyytiälä. This is



450 consistent with the higher neutral nitrogen-containing molecular fractions in urban Beijing as previously reported.
451 The negative organic cluster ions in urban Beijing were mostly oxygenated organic molecules that can be ionized by
452 NO_3^- and HSO_4^- . NO_3^- and HSO_4^- were the most abundant ions in urban Beijing, and they also acted as the main reagent
453 ions to generate air cluster ions. The formation pathway of HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ were well characterized by the ionization
454 of H_2SO_4 and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4\text{O}_4$ by NO_3^- , and their loss processes were dominated by condensation loss, with minor contributions
455 from ion-molecular reactions and ion-ion recombination. In all, the revealed governing factors of atmospheric cluster
456 ion concentration and composition at polluted urban sites are useful in predicting ion concentrations and compositions,
457 and can help evaluate air ion effects on human health, air quality, and global climate.

458

459 **Data availability**

460 Data and materials are available upon request to the corresponding authors.

461

462 **Author contributions**

463 RY and JK designed the study. RY, XL, CY, RC, YZ, JK, NS, and JL participated in data collection and performed the data
464 analysis. RY and XL prepared the first version of the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors. All authors verified
465 the final version of the manuscript.

466

467 **Competing interests**

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

469

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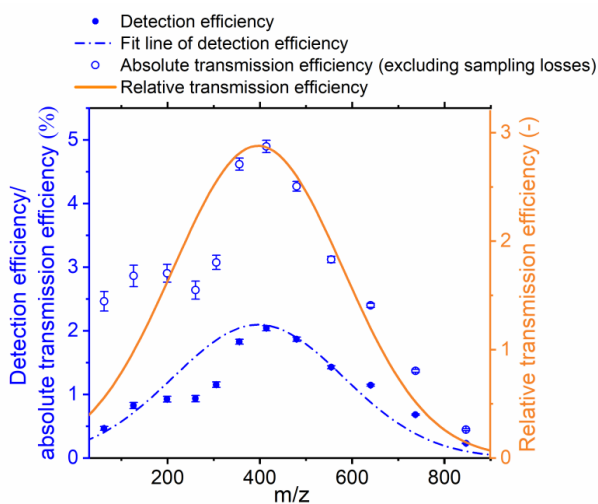
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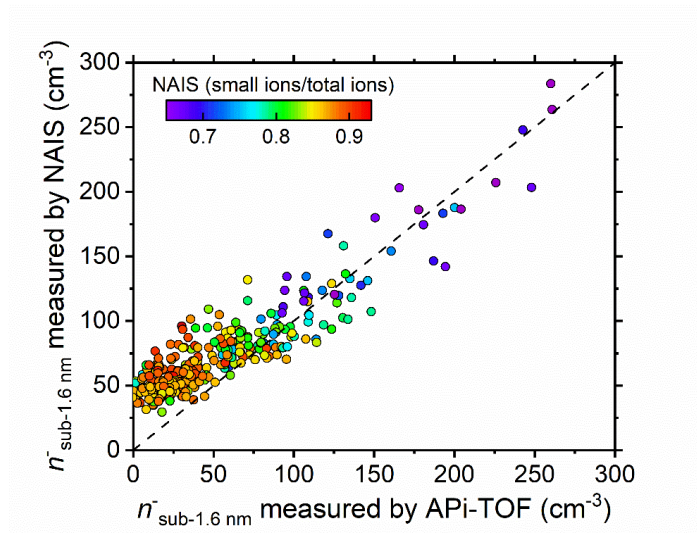


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714 **Figure 1.** The detection efficiency and absolute transmission efficiency of APi-HTOF determined through the *in-situ*
715 comparison with NAIS and the relative transmission efficiency of APi-HTOF determined through the depletion method.
716 The relative transmission efficiency is obtained by dividing the detection efficiency by the sampling efficiency of cluster
717 ions. The voltage settings of APi-HTOF remain the same during the experiment.
718



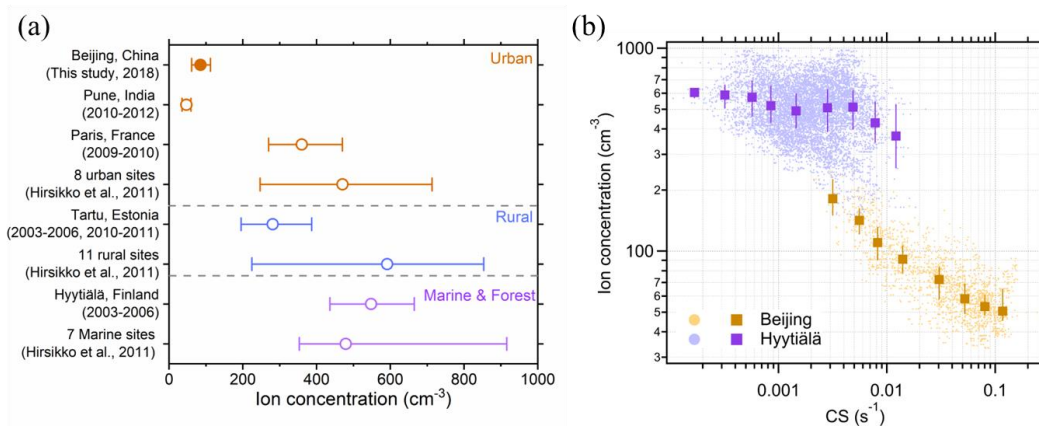
719

720 **Figure 2.** The total concentration of negative cluster ions ($n_{\text{sub-1.6 nm}}^-$) measured by APi-TOF is well correlated with
721 that measured by NAIS. Colors represent the ratio of negative ions smaller than 1.3 nm ($n_{\text{sub-1.3 nm}}^-$) to negative cluster
722 ions ($n_{\text{sub-1.6 nm}}^-$).

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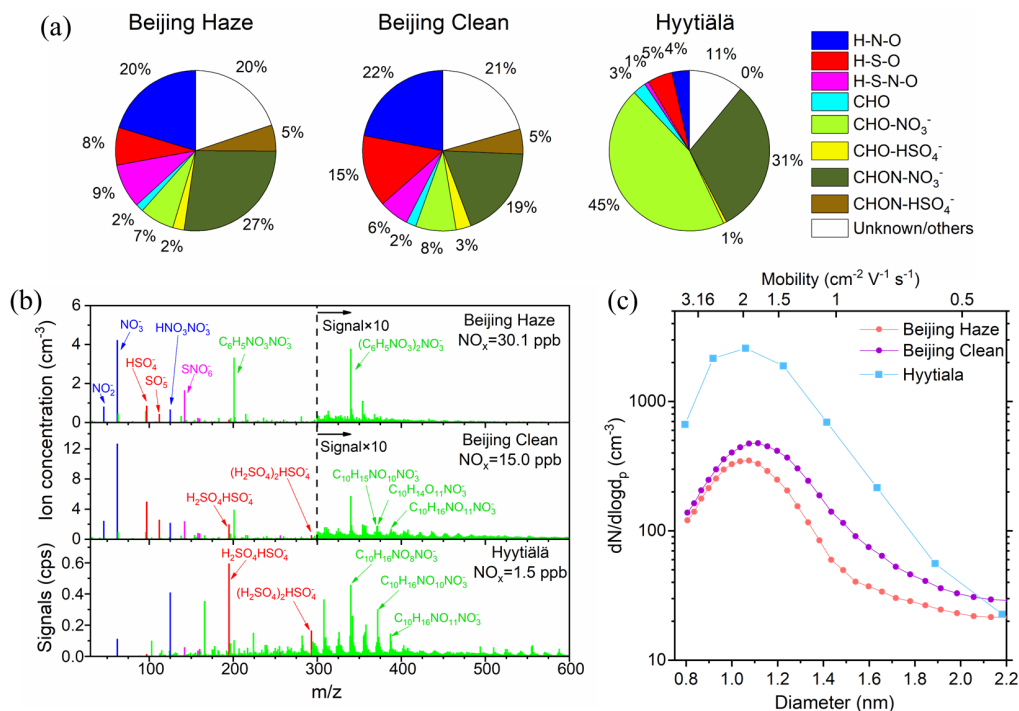


725

726 **Figure 3.** (a) Negative cluster ions observed in global urban, rural, forest, and marine sites. The circles represent the
727 median values, and the error bars represent the 25%-75% ranges. Ion mobility ranges for different sites were between sub-
728 1.6 and sub-2 nm. (b) The decreasing trends of the negative cluster ion concentrations with the increase of CS were
729 observed in both Beijing and Hyytiälä. The markers and error bars are median values and 25%-75% ranges, respectively.
730 For comparison, NAIS data were used for both urban Beijing and the clean forest site Hyytiälä.
731

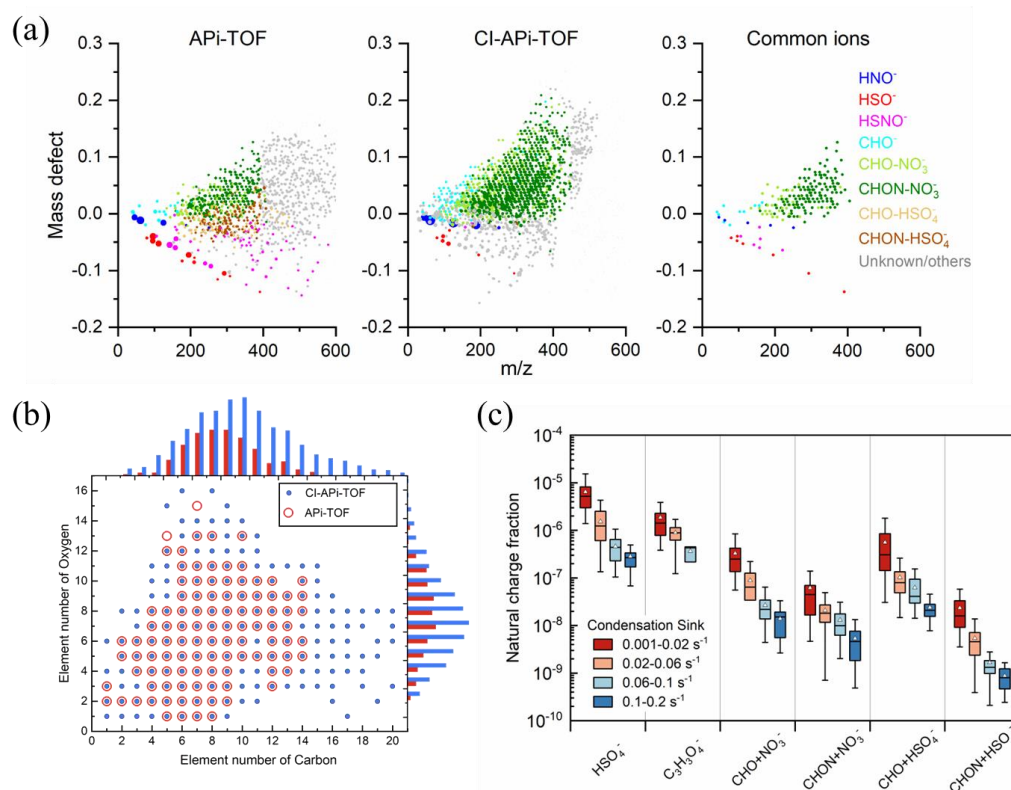


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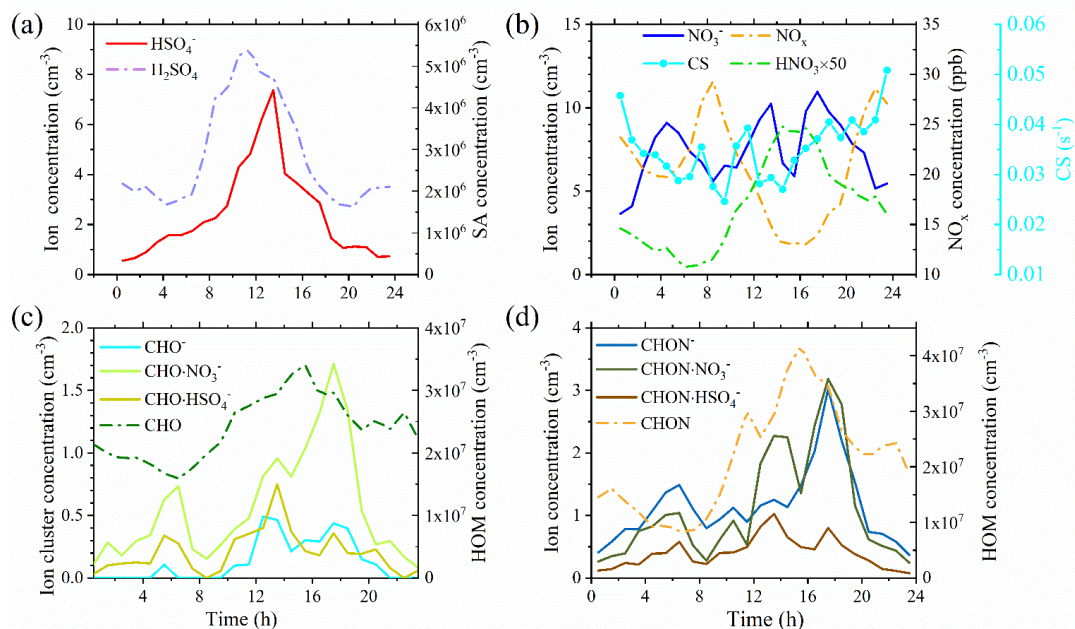
734 **Figure 4.** The chemical composition and size distributions of negative cluster ions observed in Beijing and Hyttiälä. (a)
 735 The species distributions of negative cluster ions during haze and clean periods in Beijing and Hyttiälä. (b) The average
 736 mass spectrums of negative cluster ions during clean and haze periods in Beijing and Hyttiälä measured by APi-HTOF.
 737 Signals for $m/z > 300$ were multiplied by 10 times in Beijing for clearer views. Haze periods were identified based on
 738 whether $PM_{2.5}$ concentration is higher than $75 \mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$. The average NO_x concentrations for the three situations are 30.1,
 739 15.0, and 1.5 ppb, respectively. (c) The ion mobility distributions and size distributions measured by NAIS.
 740



741

742 **Figure 5.** (a) The mass defect plots of the species detected in ions (API-HTOF), neutral gases (CI-API-LTOF), and their
743 common species in urban Beijing; (b) Comparison of the species distribution of CHO and CHON organic ions and
744 neutral gases with the number of C and O atoms. The N atom distributions were shown in Fig.S6. (c) The naturally
745 charge ratios of HSO₄⁻, C₃H₃O₄⁻, CHO-NO₃⁻, and CHON-NO₃⁻. The ratios are calculated based on the concentration of
746 specific ions and their corresponding neutral gases.

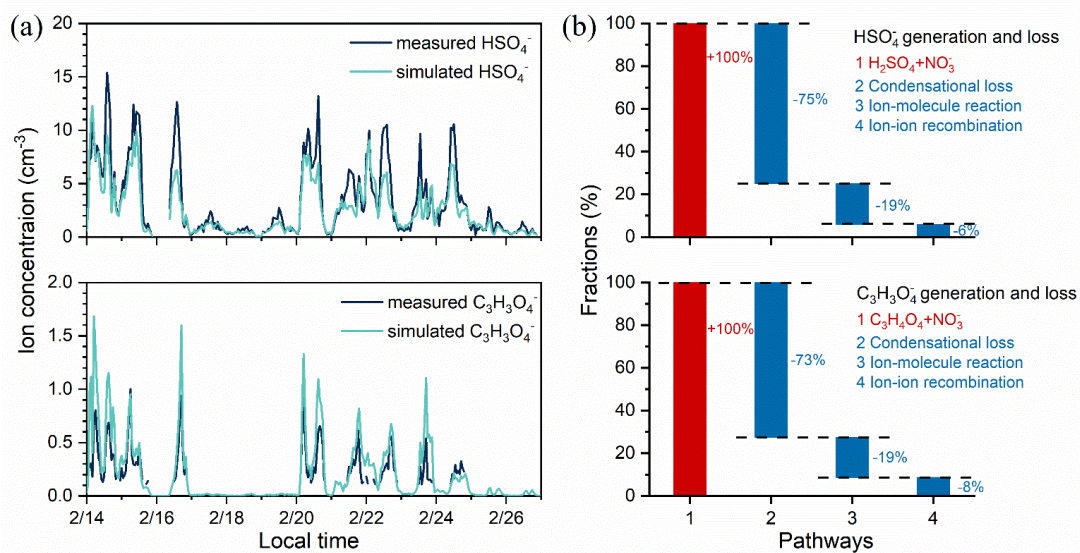
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748

749 **Figure 6.** The diurnal variations of 8 types of ions measured by APi-HTOF and their corresponding neutral gases
 750 measured by (nitrate-) CI-APi-LTOF. (a) HSO_4^- and H_2SO_4 ; (b) NO_3^- , NO_x , HNO_3 , and CS; As HNO_3 was not
 751 simultaneously measured with clusters ions, its diurnal variation is calculated from the measured results of another period,
 752 from August 8th to October 23rd, 2019, and is consistent with that reported in a previous study (Wu et al., 2009); (c)
 753 CHO^- , CHO-NO_3^- , CHO-HSO_4^- , and neutral CHO molecules; (d) CHON^- , CHON-NO_3^- , CHON-HSO_4^- , and neutral
 754 CHON molecules.

755



756

757 **Figure 7.** (a) The measured and simulated concentrations of HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ in Beijing. The simulation is performed
758 according to dynamic models as described in Section 2.3 and four formation and loss pathways were considered. (b) The
759 fractions of the formation or loss rates of HSO_4^- and $\text{C}_3\text{H}_3\text{O}_4^-$ contributed by different pathways. The average values of
760 the results were shown here.

761