

Iodine oxoacids and their roles in sub-3 nanometer particle growth in polluted urban environments

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Abstract. New particle formation contributes significantly to the number concentration of ultrafine
25 particles (UFP, $d \leq 100$ nm), and have great impacts on human health and global climate. Iodine oxoacids
(HIO_x, including iodic acid, HIO₃ and iodous acid, HIO₂) have been observed in pristine regions and
proved to dominate NPF at some sites. However, the knowledge of HIO_x in polluted urban areas is rather
limited. Here, we conducted a long-term measurements of gaseous iodine oxoacids and sulfuric acid in
Beijing from January 2019 to October 2021 and also in Nanjing from March 2019 to February 2020, and
30 investigated the contribution of HIO_x to UFP number concentration in both urban environments. HIO₃ is
highest in summer, up to 2.85×10^6 cm⁻³ and 2.78×10^6 cm⁻³ in Beijing and Nanjing, respectively, and is
lowest in winter by 96% and 75%, respectively. HIO₃ exhibits more prominent variation than H₂SO₄ in
both urban sites. HIO₃ concentration shows a clear diurnal pattern at both sites with a daily maximum at

around noontime, similar to the atmospheric temperature, solar radiation and ozone (O_3) levels. HIO_2
35 concentration has the same diurnal and seasonal trend as HIO_3 but is overall about one order of magnitude
lower than HIO_3 concentration. Back trajectory analysis suggests that the sources for inland iodine
species could be a mix of marine and terrestrial origins, both having peak iodine emission in warm
seasons. While the contribution of HIO_2 to particle growth is marginal in Beijing and Nanjing, our results
demonstrate that HIO_3 enhances the particle survival probability of sub-3 nm particles by about 40%
40 (median) and occasionally by more than 100% in NPF events, suggesting HIO_x are significant contributor
to UFPs in polluted urban areas. As the growth contribution from HIO_3 and H_2SO_4 is similar on a per-
molecule basis, we propose that the sum of HIO_3 and H_2SO_4 could be used to estimate sub-3 nm particle
growth of inorganic acid origin, in the polluted atmospheres with a significant amount of HIO_x .

1 Introduction

45 Aerosol particles are ubiquitous in Earth's atmosphere and have both primary and secondary sources
(Kulmala et al., 2004b). Primary aerosol emissions stem from natural sources, including sea spray, soil
mineral dust, biomass burning, and volcanic debris (Claudio Tomasi, 2017) and anthropogenic sources
such as fuel combustion, industrial processes and transportation (Claudio Tomasi, 2017). Besides direct
emissions, atmospheric new particle formation (NPF), a secondary particle source, plays a significant
50 role in increasing aerosol population (Kulmala et al., 2012). Only a few vapours, such as sulfuric acid
(H_2SO_4), water vapour (H_2O), ammonia (NH_3), amines (e.g., dimethylamine, C_2H_7N) and highly
oxygenated organic molecules (HOMs), are widely confirmed to nucleate and form new particles under
appropriate atmospheric conditions (Kulmala et al., 2004a; Kürten et al., 2016; Li et al., 2020; Almeida
et al., 2013; Kirkby et al., 2011; Kirkby et al., 2016; Lehtipalo et al., 2018; Tröstl et al., 2016; Yao et al.,
55 2018). Once growing past the critical sizes (e.g., 50 nm to 100 nm), these newly formed particles can be
activated as cloud condensation nuclei (CCN), which in turn influence cloud formation and have climatic
effects (Kerminen et al., 2005; Kalkavouras et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2021). Additionally, NPF is a
dominant source of atmospheric ultrafine particles in polluted urban environments (Yan et al., 2021).
These small particles (≤ 100 nm) can penetrate into the respiratory system, thus posing health risks to
60 human beings (Chen et al., 2016; Downward et al., 2018). Therefore, understanding NPF is important

both in terms of evaluating climate change and understanding the health risks of aerosols (Kulmala et al., 2022).

Due to its chemically complex nature, the understanding of the key precursor vapours and controlling mechanisms of urban NPF is still limited. Gaseous sulfuric acid and dimethylamine (DMA, C₂H₇N) are believed to play important roles in aerosol nucleation in urban environments (Xiao et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2021d; Almeida et al., 2013; Cai et al., 2022b; Yao et al., 2018). A recent study quantitatively demonstrated the decisive role of H₂SO₄ in initiating nucleation with the presence of stabilisers such as amines and NH₃ in Beijing (Yan et al., 2021). The subsequent growth of fresh particles is contributed both by H₂SO₄ and oxidised organic vapours depending on the particle sizes. In Beijing, it was suggested that H₂SO₄ and its clusters contribute significantly to the growth of 1.5-3 nm particles (Deng et al., 2020b) while gas-phase oxygenated organic molecules (OOMs) promote the growth of 3-25 nm particles (Qiao et al., 2021).

Besides these widely studied species, oxidized iodine compounds were also found to introduce rapid particle formation, mostly observed in mid-latitude coastal sites (Hoffmann et al., 2001; Mäkelä, 2002; O'Dowd et al., 2002). Iodine nucleation was conventionally thought to be initiated by iodine oxides (Jimenez, 2003; Gomez Martin et al., 2020; O'Dowd and Hoffmann, 2005; Hoffmann et al., 2001; O'Dowd et al., 2002). However, field observations at the Mace Head observatory and dedicated experiments carried out in the CLOUD chamber at CERN revealed iodine oxoacids (HIO_x, i.e., HIO₃ and HIO₂ in this study) as the key nucleating species in pristine regions (Zhang et al., 2022; He et al., 2021b). With state-of-the-art mass spectrometric methods, iodine oxoacids were recently identified in locations other than mid-latitude coastal sites, such as in Arctic sites (Baccarini et al., 2020; Beck et al., 2021; Sipilä et al., 2016; He et al., 2021b), Antarctica sites (Jokinen et al., 2018; He et al., 2021b), boreal forest sites (Jokinen et al., 2022; He et al., 2021b), a remote marine site (He et al., 2021b) and importantly also in polluted urban sites (He et al., 2021b). Chamber experiments have shown that HIO₃ (stabilized by HIO₂) nucleates faster than H₂SO₄ with 100 pptv NH₃ at the same temperature and equal acid concentrations, although iodine oxoacid nucleation rates are still lower than H₂SO₄-DMA nucleation (He et al., 2021b). It is worthwhile to note that the nucleation involving both iodine oxoacids and DMA remains unclear and iodine oxoacid nucleation may further be enhanced by strong bases (e.g., different amines) in urban environments. After the formation of fresh particles, HIO₃ dominates the growth of iodine particles

between 1.8 and 3.2 nm at growth rates equal to those of H₂SO₄ (He et al., 2021b). It can be expected that, iodine oxoacids will contribute at least to sub-3 nm particle growth, and potentially also to particle nucleation, in polluted urban environments. Therefore, iodine oxoacids have the potential to enhance the survival probability (Lehtinen et al., 2007) of fresh particles in the urban environment.

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In order to quantitatively understand the contribution of iodine oxoacids in urban particle formation, we conducted a long-term measurement of iodine oxoacids and sulfuric acid (H₂SO₄) in urban Beijing from January 2019 to October 2021, and in suburban Nanjing from March 2019 to February 2020. Diurnal and seasonal trends of iodine and sulfur oxoacids are analysed and the potential sources of the unexpected iodine oxoacids are discussed. Moreover, we quantitatively discuss the contribution of HIO₃ to aerosol growth rate below 3 nm (GR_{<3nm}) and the potential enhancement in particle survival probability. Our study provides the first long-term observations of iodine oxoacids in polluted urban environments which could contribute to aerosol formation studies in inland cities.

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2 Methods

2.1 Measurement sites and instruments

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2.1.1 Sites

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Measurements in urban Beijing were conducted from January 2019 to October 2021, on the fifth floor of the teaching building at the west campus of Beijing University of Chemical Technology (Aerosol and Haze Laboratory (AHL)/BUCT station, 39 ° 56'N, 116 ° 17'E). Located about 150 km away from the nearest coastline in the southeast, the station is surrounded by residential buildings and three main roads and a detailed description of this site can be found in a previous study (Liu et al., 2020). The observations in Nanjing were conducted at the Station for Observing Regional Process of Earth System (SORPES; 118°57'E, 32°07'N), a research and experiment platform inside Nanjing University, Xianlin Campus, 20 km northeast of downtown Nanjing and about 190 km away from the nearest coastline in the east. Because of its unique geophysical location, the SORPES is considered to be a regional background station under the influence of anthropogenic plume from YRD (Yangtze River Delta) city cluster and multiscale transport coupled with Asian monsoon (Ding et al., 2016). The geophysical distribution of two sites can be found in Fig. S1.

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2.1.2 Acid concentrations

120 Gaseous iodine oxoacids (HIO_3 and HIO_2) and H_2SO_4 were detected by the nitrate-CIMS (Aerodyne Research Inc. and Tofwerk AG) composed of a chemical ionization (CI) source and an atmospheric pressure interface time-of-flight mass spectrometer (APi-TOF). Two long time-of-flight mass analysers (LToF, resolution at around 10,000 Th Th^{-1}) were used at the AHL/BUCT station from January 2019 to October 2021 and at SORPES station from March 2019 to December 2019, respectively, while a lower resolution time-of-flight analyser (HToF, resolution at around 5,000 Th Th^{-1}) was utilized at the SORPES station from January 2020 to February 2020. As the comprehensive description of nitrate-CIMS has been given in previous works (Junninen et al., 2010; Jokinen et al., 2012), they are only briefly discussed here. Ambient air was drawn into a laminar flow reactor through a 0.75 in. diameter stainless steel tube with a sample flow of about 7.2 L/min and surrounded by a purified airflow of 32 L/min serving as the sheath flow at the AHL/BUCT station and 25 L/min at the SORPES station. The dominant reagent ions were nitrate ions (NO_3^- and $\text{HNO}_3 \cdot \text{NO}_3^-$ and $\text{HNO}_3\text{HNO}_3 \cdot \text{NO}_3^-$), which were generated in the sheath flow by exposing gaseous nitric acid in the sheath flow to a photo ionizer X-ray (Model L9491, Hamamatsu, Japan). The data of nitrate-CIMS were acquired at 1 Hz time resolution and analysed with the MATLAB (MathWorks Inc.) toolbox ToFTools package (version 6.11) (Junninen et al., 2010).

135 H_2SO_4 calibration was conducted using a standardized method (Kurten et al., 2012; He et al., 2023). In a nutshell, the calibration of H_2SO_4 involved the reaction of an excessive amount of sulfur dioxide (SO_2) with a known quantity of hydroxyl (OH) radicals generated by a portable mercury lamp. This mercury lamp is equipped with a filter to intercept the sample air containing water, which, in turn, is photolyzed to produce OH radicals. The convection-diffusion-reaction processes within the chemical ionization inlet can be accurately simulated using a two-dimensional model (e.g., the MARFORCE-Flowtube model (He et al., 2023), allowing for the quantification of H_2SO_4 concentration at the mass spectrometer's entrance. The quantification of the measured signals for H_2SO_4 monomer at both sites are seasonal calibrated with diffusion losses in tube into consideration. Since both H_2SO_4 and HIO_x are detected at the collision limit, they share the same calibration factor (He et al., 2021b; He et al., 2023). The general systematic error for the detection of H_2SO_4 and HIO_x is expected to be within 50% to 200% (Liu et al., 2021).

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2.1.3 Particle number size distribution

The particle number size distribution (PNSD) from approximately 1 nm to 10 μm at the AHL/BUCT station was measured. This was done using a diethylene glycol scanning mobility particle spectrometer (DEG-SMPS, 1-4.5 nm) (Jiang et al., 2011), equipped with a miniature cylindrical differential mobility analyzer (mini-cy DMA) (Cai et al., 2017a). In addition, we utilized a homemade particle size distribution system (PSD, 3 nm-10 μm) (Liu et al., 2016). At the SORPES station, the PNSD was measured using an Aerodynamic Particle Sizer (APS, TSI, APS-3321, USA, 500-1000 nm) and two SMPSs equipped with a TSI long-DMA (TSI Inc., model 3081) and a TSI nano-DMA (TSI Inc., model 3085). Additionally, ions of sizes range from 0.8 nm to 42 nm were measured using a Neutral cluster and Air Ion Spectrometer (NAIS, Airel Ltd., Estonia) (Manninen et al., 2016) in Nanjing.

2.1.4 O₃ concentration and other meteorological factors

The ozone (O₃) concentration was measured using ozone analysers (49i, Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc. USA) at both sites. Additionally, ambient meteorological factors, including temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), and ultraviolet B radiation (UVB) were measured using an Automatic Weather Station (AWS310, Vaisala Inc.) in Beijing, whereas T, RH, and downward short-wave radiation (DSR) were recorded by sensors at the height of 44 m above the ground level at the SORPES station. The T and RH were measured by a temperature and relative humidity probe (HMP155A, Campbell Inc., USA), and the DSR was recorded by a CNR4 net radiometer (OTT Hydromet Corp. Germany).

2.2 Data analysis

2.2.1 Characteristic of NPF events from PNSD

According to a widely used method (Kulmala et al., 2012), we classified all of the measurement days into NPF and non-NPF events at both sites. All undefined days were regarded as non-NPF events in this study. Furthermore, NPF events exhibiting obvious nucleation and clear growth of fresh nucleation particles were categorized as "NPF-A," while the remaining NPF events were designated as "NPF-B". Since there were periods when some key instruments failed to work, the NPF frequencies in each month were calculated as the ratio of the NPF event days to the days with valid data. The monthly statistics at both sites were summarized in Table S1. From the measured particle number size distribution, we

calculated the condensation sink (CS) (Laakso et al., 2004; Kulmala et al., 2012), coagulation sink
175 (CoagS) (Kulmala et al., 2001), and growth rate (GR) for the NPF events.

CS, which characterises the loss rate of gaseous precursors and clusters onto the particles (Lehtinen et
al., 2003) was calculated using the equation Eq. (1) (Kulmala et al., 2012):

$$180 \quad CS = 4\pi D \sum_j \frac{1}{2} d_{p,j} \beta_m(Kn_j, \alpha) N_j , \quad (1)$$

where, D is the H_2SO_4 vapour diffusion coefficient; $d_{p,j}$ is particle diameter; β_m is transitional
correction factor for mass flux (Fuks and Sutugin, 1970) as a function of Kn_j (Knudsen number) and α
(mass accommodation coefficient, assumed to be unity in this work) as shown in Eq. (2); N_j is the
185 number concentration of $d_{p,j}$, and the particle diameter is corrected for growth factor according to T and
RH (Laakso et al., 2004).

$$\beta_m = \frac{1+Kn_j}{1+0.377Kn_j+1.33Kn_j(1+Kn_j)/\alpha} , \quad (2)$$

190 **To quantify if notable growth is to occur, especially for sub-3 nm particles, it is crucial to understand the
loss process of fresh particles.** Coagulation scavenging of freshly formed particles into pre-existing
particles before growing to significant sizes is essential for estimating the concentration of newly
nucleated particles at the size of 1.5-2 nm (Kulmala et al., 2001). Aerosol coagulation sink (CoagS)
represents this kind of coagulated scavenging characteristics. CoagS (the loss through coagulation among
195 particles) was determined from Eq. (3). Here, K_{ij} is the coagulation coefficient (Kulmala et al., 2001).

$$CoagS = \sum_j K_{ij} N_j , \quad (3)$$

Besides, the GRs in NPF events were determined with both the appearance time method (including APT-
200 x and APT- y) and the mode fitting method (MOD) to minimize the uncertainty from calculations (Dada
et al., 2020; Kulmala et al., 2012). Detailed approach is shown in supplementary materials. The size-
segregated GRs were calculated in two size ranges, i.e., sub-3 nm ($GR_{<3}$) and 3-7 nm (GR_{3-7}) based on

the appearance time method, and the 50% appearance time is fitted by smoothing the normalized concentration timeseries for the particle of each size bin (Lehtipalo et al., 2014; He et al., 2021a). After determining the 50% appearance time for each size bin, the GRs were fitted using the linear least square method both with time as x and y to compare with each other and minimize the error. They are referred to as APT- x and APT- y , respectively in this study. The slope of particle size to their 50% appearance time was regarded as GR using APT- x , which is the traditional way. However, as the particle diameter is exactly measured by our instruments and the 50% appearance time is the independent variable determined by calculations, we also tried to use the latter as the independent variable to fit the GR. In this case, the GR was determined as the inverse of the fitted slope. The mode fitting (MOD) method fits the particle number size distribution to find the mode diameters at any given time and tracks the evolution of particle sizes. Up to now, there is still a debate about whether to adopt the appearance time method or the mode fitting method for GR calculation, as neither is perfect for calculating GR for ambient observations (Qiao et al., 2021; Deng et al., 2020b). For example, it is difficult to define the accurate mode diameter, especially for sub-3 nm particles when the new particle formation just occurs. Therefore, there could be some underestimation while using mode fitting method to calculate $GR_{<3}$ (Cai et al., 2022a). Determining the sub-3 nm particle growth can also be difficult for the 50% appearance time method for similar reasons. Additionally, appearance time method might be more sensitive to other processes as it does not track the growth of a particle or a population. (Lehtipalo et al., 2014; Cai et al., 2021c; He et al., 2021a). In this study, we report results using both methods to reduce the overall uncertainty of GR calculation and to provide a confidence range of GR. In both cases, the GR is determined from the rate of change in diameter shown as Eq. (4) (Kulmala et al., 2012).

$$GR = \frac{dd_p}{dt} , \quad (4)$$

It is worthwhile to note that we corrected the GR obtained from the 50% appearance time method for the impact of coagulation sink, following Eq. (5) (Cai et al., 2021c).

$$GR_{corr,cond} = GR_{conv} - \left(CoagS + \frac{CoagSrc}{2N_p} \right) \times \left[\sqrt[3]{(d_p^3 + d_1^3)} - d_p \right] - GR_{coag} , \quad (5)$$

where the GR_{conv} is the GR calculated from conventional appearance time method in $\text{nm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$; CoagSrc is the coagulation source defined as the production rate of the particle size bin because of coagulation, $\text{cm}^{-3}\text{s}^{-1}$, calculated using the Eq. (6); N_p is the number concentration of particles with the size d_p ; GR_{coag} is the coagulation growth rate in $\text{nm}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$ from Eq. (7). More specific details can be found in Cai et al. (2021c).

$$CoagSrc = 0.5 \times \iint_{\substack{d_i^3+d_j^3 \leq d_{p,u}^3 \\ d_{p,1}^3 \leq d_i^3+d_j^3}} \beta_{i,j} n_i n_j \times d \log d_i \times d \log d_j , \quad (6)$$

$$GR_{coag} = \sum_{d_p=d_{min}}^{d_p=d_p} \left\{ \beta_{p,i} N_i \times \left[\sqrt[3]{(d_p^3 + d_i^3)} - d_p \right] \right\} , \quad (7)$$

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The counterbalance of CoagS and GR considerably affects the survival of small clusters (Mahfouz and Donahue, 2021). Survival probability (SP) is utilized to quantify the competition between growth and scavenging mentioned above (Veli-Matti Kerminen, 2002; Kerminen et al., 2005). We defined the $SP_{1.5-3}$ and SP_{3-7} as the likelihood that the particles can grow from the smaller sizes to the larger sizes (i.e., from 1.5 to 3 nm and from 3 to 7 nm, respectively) before they are scavenged by coagulation. The SP can be calculated following Eq. (8) (Lehtinen et al., 2007).

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$$SP = \exp \left\{ \frac{d_{p1}}{m-1} \frac{CoagS}{GR} \left[\left(\frac{d_{p2}}{d_{p1}} \right)^{1-m} - 1 \right] \right\} , \quad (8)$$

250 where d_{p1} and d_{p2} are the lower limit size and upper limit size, respectively; CoagS is the coagulation sink at the lower limit size; GR is the averaged growth rate in the size range, from both corrected appearance time method and mode fitting method; m was assumed to be 1.7 according to the measured PNSDs (Lehtinen et al., 2007).

255 2.2.2 Contribution of HIO₃ to GR and SP

To better understand the role of HIO₃ as an additional GR contributor at two sites, we calculate the condensational GR of HIO₃ and H₂SO₄ during NPF events, the computation criteria are listed as below.

The particle growth rate due to HIO₃ concentration was observed to be linear in the CLOUD experiment, shown as Eq. (9), which is fitted at 10 °C (He et al., 2021b):

260 $GR(\text{HIO}_3)_{1.8-3.2} = 10^{\log_{10}[\text{HIO}_3]-6.75}$, (9)

where $[\text{HIO}_3]$ is the iodic acid concentration in molecules cm^{-3} and $GR(\text{HIO}_3)_{1.8-3.2}$ is the growth rate of 1.8 to 3.2 nm particles in nm h^{-1} . However, the size range of sub-3 nm particles used in this study (1.5 to 3 nm) slightly differs from 1.8 to 3.2 nm and this formulation does not provide the growth rates of 3 to 7 nm particles. Additionally, as the temperature in summer seasons in both Beijing and Nanjing
 265 (around 22 to 36 °C) is much higher than 10 °C, additional temperature correction is needed. In this study, we adopt the equation provided by Nieminen et al. (2010) for these corrections:

$$GR'(\text{HIO}_3) = \frac{\Delta d_p}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta d_p \text{HIO}_3 \alpha_m m_v}{2 \rho_v d_p} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{8kT}{\pi m_v}} \cdot \frac{1}{\left[\frac{2x_1+1}{x_1(x_1+1)} - \frac{2x_0+1}{x_0(x_0+1)} + 2 \ln \left(\frac{x_1(x_0+1)}{x_0(x_1+1)} \right) \right]}$$
 (10)

270 where the subscript “v” refers to HIO_3 . Additionally, x_0 and x_1 are the ratios of the diameter of HIO_3 molecule divided by the particle diameter at which the initial growth occurs (e.g., 1.5 nm or 1.8 nm) and particle diameter at which the particles grow to (e.g., 3 nm or 3.2 nm), respectively. Two sets of growth rates were calculated using this equation: 1) the first set utilized the measured ambient temperature at the given growth period of NPF events with 1.5 to 3 nm or 3 to 7 nm as the growth ranges and 2) the second
 275 set calculated the growth rates at 10 °C with 1.8 to 3.2 nm as the growth range (the same as at CLOUD). The ratios of the growth rates calculated by 1) and 2) therefore give the correction factors that can be applied to Eq. (9) to correct the temperature and size differences. **The correction factors, determined by analyzing temperature measurements at two sites and selected size ranges on NPF event days, remained consistently close to 1 (as shown in Fig. S2 for more detailed information). This suggests that the**
 280 **variations in size range and temperature between the CLOUD measurements and our field observations are minimal.**

To quantify the growth rates of particles with mean diameter from around 1 nm to 7 nm in Nanjing, the negative ion number size distribution collected by NAIS was utilized. However, it is extremely difficult
 285 to use the NAIS to capture sub-3 nm particle growth rates as the limited atmospheric ions are mostly captured by larger particles in polluted urban environments and thus leaving the sub-3 nm particle growth undetectable (see supplementary materials for details). Therefore, in all NPF cases occurred at the SORPES station, the contribution of gaseous iodic acid to sub-3 nm growth is only quantified by

comparing its contribution with that of sulfuric acid during the same event, since H₂SO₄ is believed to be
290 the significant contributor to particle initial growth in sub-3 nm range (Deng et al., 2020b).

$$GR(\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4) = (2.68 \times d_p^{-1.27} + 0.81) \times ([\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4] \times 10^{-7}) , \quad (11)$$

H₂SO₄ contribution to GR is calculated as a first-order approximation independent of temperature as Eq.
(11) (Stolzenburg et al., 2020), where $d_p = \frac{d_{p_{initial}} + d_{p_{final}}}{2}$ in nm, and the subscripts initial and final
refer to the particle diameter at the beginning and the end of the growing process. [H₂SO₄] is the gas
295 phase H₂SO₄ concentration in molecule cm⁻³. But it should be noted that H₂SO₄ does not dominate alone
the initial growth process, other organic species may make some contribution as well. Therefore, in this
study, the results calculated at SORPES is disadvantaged compared to the BUCT/AHL data using directly
measured GRs. This part of the results should be considered a compromise due to the absence of direct
measurements.

300 We define SP_{tot} as the particle survival probability calculated using the measured GRs (in Beijing) or the
expected growth rate considering growth contributions from both H₂SO₄ and HIO₃ (in Nanjing). In order
to quantify the SP enhancement by HIO₃, we further define SP₁ which represents the calculated survival
probability using GRs after deducting the growth contribution from HIO₃. Therefore, the enhancement
factor (EF) of SP can be represented as

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$$EF = \frac{SP_{tot}}{SP_1} - 1 . \quad (12)$$

2.2.3 Iodic acid (HIO₃) precursor proxy

In order to investigate the source of gaseous HIO₃ at both sites, a daytime proxy formula is built to
310 describe the precursor level of measured HIO₃, which is as follows:

$$Proxy_{pre} = \frac{[\text{HIO}_3] \times CS}{UVB} \quad (13)$$

Eq. (13) is derived by assuming the HIO₃ concentration to be at a pseudo-steady state (the production
rate equals to the loss rate). Based on current knowledge about HIO₃ formation pathways, the proxy is
not intended to elucidate the composition of species serving as HIO₃ precursor or the related reactions.
315 Instead, it considers the photochemical reaction as the daytime formation pathway and condensation onto
pre-existing aerosol particles as the only sink for gaseous HIO₃.

3 Results and Discussion

3.1 Overview of the measurement

The measurement overviews in both Beijing and Nanjing are presented in Fig. 1, including the timeseries of T, O₃, HIO_x, and H₂SO₄ concentrations, as well as the frequency of NPF events in each month. It should be noted that each point on timeseries panels refers to daytime mean value. In this work, daytime duration is defined between 08:00 and 16:00 in local time (UTC+8) considering the preferred time window of NPF events in China (Kulmala et al., 2021), as shown in Fig. S3.

In Fig.1(a)/(d), it is obvious that the seasonal patterns of T and O₃ are similar during measurement periods in both sites, i.e., both peak in the summer. The O₃ levels are roughly the same at both sites and the maximum values of daily mean T are both over 35°C, though the lowest T (about 1°C) in Nanjing is significantly higher than that in Beijing (about -12°C).

H₂SO₄ concentration is slightly lower in cold seasons (Fig.1(b)/(e)). H₂SO₄ concentration exceeds 10⁷ cm⁻³ only on a few days in Beijing, whereas it is a common phenomenon in Nanjing daytime. Besides H₂SO₄, we report the first long-term measurement of HIO_x in urban environments continued from earlier sparse measurements (He et al., 2021b). The calibrated HIO_x concentration is above the detection limit during almost the entire measurement periods, indicating a clear presence of HIO_x in inland cities. The HIO₃ concentration was between 10⁵ and 10⁶ cm⁻³ for most of the time except for winter months; it sporadically approaches or is higher than 10⁶ cm⁻³ in warm months. On the other hand, iodous acid, HIO₂ is less abundant than HIO₃ at both sites with a general concentration at around 10⁴ cm⁻³ and a maximum concentration approaching 10⁵ cm⁻³ in the summer. The results indicate that the H₂SO₄ concentrations are generally higher than that of iodine oxoacids at both sites. The ratios of H₂SO₄ to HIO₃ at both sites differ so slightly, with about 10% in Beijing and 9% in Nanjing, respectively. As for the two iodine oxoacids (HIO₃ and HIO₂), daytime mean concentration of HIO₃ is more than one order of magnitude higher than HIO₂. The one order of magnitude lower HIO₃ concentration compared with H₂SO₄ in summer at both sites is consistent with that in the Finnish subarctic boreal forest (Jokinen et al., 2022).

The frequencies of NPF events varied significantly, from none to more than 75% of the days in each month during the measurement period. The occurrence of NPF events in China is favoured by various meteorological factors (Qi et al., 2015; Zhou et al., 2021; Chu et al., 2019). However, the influences can be quite uncertain and complex because of different season and the location of measurement site. Take

temperature for an example, on one hand, warm temperatures enhance the abundance of biogenic and anthropogenic volatile organic compound emissions as well as their oxidation processes (Paasonen et al., 2013; Paasonen et al., 2018; Nie et al., 2022; Ehn et al., 2014). On the other hand, the warm temperature also reduces the stability of embryonic clusters thus reducing nucleation and subsequent growth rates (Kürten et al., 2016). Besides meteorological conditions, vapour condensation sink (CS) and particle coagulation sink (CoagS) have negative effects on the NPF frequency (Kalkavouras et al., 2017; Bousiotis et al., 2021; Wehner et al., 2007). Decreased CS and/or CoagS will lead to faster nucleation and subsequent growth (as scavenging of nucleating and condensable vapours is less effective) and higher survival probability through the growth processes during NPF events (as the scavenging of clusters and small particles is less effective). As expected, the concentration of gaseous H₂SO₄ is notably correlated with NPF frequency, as H₂SO₄ is the most important compound to form initial clusters and one of the main contributors to the growth of newly formed particles (Nieminen et al., 2010; Kirkby et al., 2011). During this measurement, the ratio of GR_{1.5-3} contributed from H₂SO₄ to measured GR calculated from MOD is about 72.4% (shown in Table S4).

360

As depicted in Figure 1(c)/(f), the frequencies of NPF for each month at two sites are quite different, since environments are chemically complex and diverse with many aforementioned factors influencing NPF. Generally, NPF events are more likely to occur in the spring and winter, with the lowest frequency in summer at BUCT station in Beijing, consistent with other reports (Wu et al., 2007; Deng et al., 2020b). Different from Beijing, there are less NPF events in the winter than in the summer at SORPES station, which is in line with a long-term measurement conducted at the same site (Qi et al., 2015). It could be attributed to the lowest H₂SO₄ concentration in cold season, which was found to be the main driver for NPF events in polluted megacities in China (Yao et al., 2018). Another explanation may be that the high CS in the winter daytime (Qi et al., 2015) suppresses the NPF events. It should be noted that the particle formation mechanism in Nanjing is yet to be revealed and NPF intensity could be reduced if DMA is limited in Nanjing.

370

3.2 Characteristic of acid concentrations

3.2.1 Seasonal variation

To better understand the roles of the studied acids in NPF, we further present the seasonal variation of H₂SO₄, HIO₃ and HIO₂ concentrations in Fig. S4. It depicts the monthly statistics of H₂SO₄ and HIO_x at the two sites with different shadings indicating seasons. Both H₂SO₄ and HIO_x concentrations in Nanjing are always higher than those in Beijing except for H₂SO₄ concentrations in the winter. We speculate that the generally higher acid concentrations in Nanjing are caused by stronger solar radiation at latitude of 32°07'N in Nanjing, compared with 39°56'N in Beijing. On the other hand, the reason of higher wintertime H₂SO₄ concentrations in Beijing is likely due to the higher SO₂ and more frequent sunny weather during the winter in Beijing (Wang et al., 2018) and further discussion can be seen in supplementary materials. At both sites, the seasonal pattern of H₂SO₄ is not very strong (Deng et al., 2020b; Petäjä et al., 2009). H₂SO₄ concentrations are higher in the spring and autumn, lower in the summer, and lowest in the winter. This variation of H₂SO₄ in different seasons is determined by both its source and sink. Winter is characterized by the weakest solar radiation and the heaviest particle pollution, which collectively result in lowest H₂SO₄ levels, whereas lower SO₂ concentrations in summer could limit H₂SO₄ formation.

The HIO₃ concentrations measured at the two sites are significantly lower, approximately two orders of magnitude less than that at pristine coastal site (e.g., in Mace Head). Measurements at Mace Head indicate that HIO₃ concentrations are frequently above 10⁷ cm⁻³ with some days exceeding 10⁸ cm⁻³ in September. The concentrations of atmospheric iodine at coastal sites are normally higher due to active biogenic emissions of iodine-containing precursors from marine algae (O'Dowd et al., 2002). On the other hand, HIO₃ concentrations in Beijing and Nanjing are comparable to that in Helsinki, Finland. Measurements at SMEAR III station, an urban site located in University of Helsinki show HIO₃ concentrations at around 10⁶ cm⁻³ when the wind is coming from land for most times in August and HIO₃ concentrations exceed 10⁷ cm⁻³ when air masses have marine origin (Thakur et al., 2022; He et al., 2021b). Another long-term observation conducted at SMEAR I station (Jokinen et al., 2022), a subarctic boreal forest site, shows HIO₃ concentrations often at around 10⁵ cm⁻³ from April to November 2019 (summer and autumn) with occasional peaks exceeding 10⁶ cm⁻³ in late August. HIO_x concentrations at AHL/BUCT station depict a distinctly unimodal pattern in a year cycle with highest values in July,

increasing from January and decreasing to December. However, seasonal variations of HIO_x are slightly different at SORPES, as there are similar levels of HIO_x throughout the summer in 2019, reaching a seemingly steady daily maximum. HIO_3 concentration measured from August to September in 2018 over the central Arctic Ocean increases significantly from summer towards autumn (Baccarini et al., 2020),
405 which is different from the results in both Beijing and Nanjing, due to significantly different environments and iodine sources.

3.2.2 Diurnal pattern

Though the HIO_3 concentrations are different in four seasons, the diurnal patterns are similar throughout
410 the year (Fig. 2). Daily trends of both median H_2SO_4 and HIO_x concentration are strongly connected with diurnal cycle. The concentration of HIO_x increases at the same time as H_2SO_4 , i.e., both HIO_x and H_2SO_4 rise in the early morning and peak from noon to afternoon. The clear diurnal pattern of H_2SO_4 has been attributed to photochemical activities (Lu et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2021; Petäjä et al., 2009). Hydroxyl radical (OH) is the most important oxidant for sulfur dioxide (SO_2) to form daytime H_2SO_4 (Guo et al.,
415 2021; Yang et al., 2021). Therefore, the diurnal pattern of H_2SO_4 would be affected by its precursors (e.g., SO_2 and OH in daytime). Higher HIO_x concentrations in the daytime and the absence of their nocturnal maxima suggest that the main source of HIO_x is also photochemical oxidation of iodine precursor vapours. As depicted in Fig. 2, this pronounced diurnal variation in HIO_x levels is consistently observed at both sites throughout the entire measurement period, regardless of the season. The peak concentrations
420 of HIO_x consistently exceed the minimum levels by a factor of approximately one order, with this difference being particularly significant, especially for HIO_3 during summer. The distinct variation from day to night suggests that HIO_x formation is primarily occurring in situ, rather than being transported from other regions. Although the diurnal patterns of H_2SO_4 and HIO_3 are alike, the occurrence of HIO_3 daytime maximum is on average later than that of H_2SO_4 at both sites (Fig. 2). This phenomenon is
425 pronounced regardless of season at both sites with the daily maximum of H_2SO_4 appears around 1-2 hours earlier than that of HIO_3 . It implies that albeit these two acids form during daytime through photochemical pathways, the limiting factors for their productions can be different. At the SORPES station, for instance, the diurnal cycle of H_2SO_4 follow that of radiation. In summer, however, owing to effectiveness of long-term emission reduction, SO_2 concentrations can be low enough to limit the

430 production of H_2SO_4 at SORPES (Ding et al., 2019), so the daytime peaks of H_2SO_4 tend to occur when
435 SO_2 reached its daily maximum (Yang et al., 2021). On the other hand, little is known about the diurnal
patterns of HIO_x in urban environments. It was demonstrated in chamber experiments that HIO_x can be
formed by oxidation of oxidised iodine species with ozone in the absence of HO_x (He et al., 2021b) and
 $\text{I}_2\text{O}_2 + \text{O}_3$ reaction was recently found to be the critical step for the HIO_3 formation (Finkenzeller et al.,
435 2023). The diurnal patterns show that the maximum of daytime HIO_3 concentration mimic that of O_3 in
all seasons, indicating that O_3 may influence terrestrial HIO_3 formation. However, the role of O_3 in HIO_3
formation can be multifaceted and warrants more thorough discussion in the future studies with extensive
measurements of other iodine compounds in inland regions, especially urbanized areas. On one hand,
440 chamber studies have shown direct involvement of O_3 in the formation of HIO_3 precursors in less
chemically complex scenarios. On the other hand, O_3 has been proved to simulate the release of iodine
compounds in marine environments from surface sea water (Carpenter et al., 2013) and similar processes
are likely to occur in urban environments as well. Additionally, temperature may also have favourable
impacts on both the formation of HIO_3 and the release of iodine precursors, which will be discussed in
the next section.

445

Moreover, CS in Nanjing shows an opposite profile to T and O_3 , whereas it keeps almost the same trend
as that of Nanjing but fluctuates a little during the day in Beijing spring and winter, which show median
values only in 2019. In summary, the diurnal patterns shown in Fig. 2 suggest that stronger solar radiation
coupled with higher mixing ratio of O_3 and higher T are likely the factors favouring the formation of
450 acids, the low CS at noon is preferred for the survival of acid vapour. Additionally, the diurnal variation
of HIO_x at BUCT shows stronger seasonality with highest values at around noon in the summer. The
maximum concentrations at spring and autumn are similar, while the maximum concentrations in the
winter are roughly one order of magnitude lower. At SORPES, HIO_x reaches similar levels in the spring,
summer and autumn but its concentration is lower in the winter. Consistently, the diurnal maximum HIO_3
455 concentration in summer approaches 10^6 cm^{-3} at both sites.

3.2.3 Iodine sources

In order to investigate the source of HIO_x in urban environments, we further conduct cluster analysis of the air mass backward trajectories of the AHL/BUCT station in warm seasons (from May to September in this study). The HIO₃ precursor proxy calculated from Eq. (13) based on the measurement results at BUCT/AHL station is classified into four levels as shown in Fig. S5 (see Supplement S4 for more details). High precursor levels are mainly associated with air masses originating from the south and southeast, whereas lower iodine precursor concentrations are associated with northern air masses. It implies that marine iodine sources could be important for the AHL/BUCT station due to long range transport. Additionally, the air mass travels from northern wind may also carry substantial precursors of HIO₃, indicating the potential terrestrial sources of iodine. Therefore, both marine (O'Dowd and Hoffmann, 2005; Carpenter et al., 2021) and terrestrial precursors such as soil fumigants (Li et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2017) may contribute to the HIO₃ formation at the AHL/BUCT site.

Both seasonal variation and diurnal pattern shows the lowest concentration of HIO_x in winter when the impact from residential coal burning and fossil fuel combustion power plant in Beijing is the largest. It implies that HIO_x concentration is not promoted by pollution in cold season. The negative correlation between HIO₃ and BC shown in Fig. S6 further demonstrate the irrelevance of winter pollution on the HIO₃ in Beijing. A previous 2-year measurements conducted in Beijing show that high loadings of particulate organic iodine compounds (OICs) occurred in the heating season, and HOI was thought to be the key oxidant to form the OICs (Shi et al., 2021). The different seasonal distribution between gaseous HIO_x in this study and particle-phase OICs indicates potentially different iodine sources of gaseous and particulate phases, which warrants further investigation. Figure 3a presents HIO₃ in different PM_{2.5} ranges and shows lower HIO₃ concentrations when PM_{2.5} increases. PM_{2.5} measurements in the Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei region (2013 to 2020) show obvious seasonal characteristics with lowest concentrations in summer and highest concentrations in winter (Yang et al., 2022). This phenomenon should be attributed to the inherently independent seasonality of these two constituents instead of any correlation. If the PM_{2.5} is a source of gaseous iodine species, the HIO₃ concentrations should be higher in winter months, which is not the case. Additionally, summertime HIO₃ concentrations in different PM_{2.5} concentration bins have no difference (Fig. 3b), which further indicates that the HIO₃ is not correlated

with the particulate matter pollution in Beijing. Furthermore, the results in Fig. S7 demonstrate that PM_{2.5} pollution does not play a conclusive role on the HIO₃ production, especially with the seasonal influence excluded.

490 There is no definite evidence to justify whether marine or land sources could better explain our observation on HIO₃ concentration in Beijing. In the marine environments, the rapid reaction of sea-surface iodide with O₃ is believed to be the largest global source of iodine species in the forms of molecular iodine, I₂ and hypoiodous acid, HOI (Carpenter et al., 2021; Carpenter et al., 2013), which in turn contributes to the formation of HIO_x (Finkenzeller et al., 2023; He et al., 2021b). However, the
495 photolysis lifetimes of HOI (~140 s) and I₂ (~10 s), or biogenic volatile iodocarbons (e.g., CH₂I₂ (~ 5 min)) are too short to contribute to the formation of HIO_x in Beijing and Nanjing considering the long-range transportation (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012). Another iodine-containing species, methyl iodide (CH₃I), has a longer lifetime of about 5 days which may potentially go through the long-range transportation and eventually reach inland cities. CH₃I is dominantly formed from photochemical processes in the marine
500 surface (Moore and Zafiriou, 1994) and additionally also from dust stimulated abiotic emission (Williams et al., 2007). CH₃I concentration was shown to be correlated with surface seawater temperature (SST) in marine boundary layer air at midlatitude (Yokouchi et al., 2008). Others reported the opposite results in the Yellow Sea and the East China Sea during summer (Li et al., 2021) and the reason may be that higher surface water temperature also accelerates the chemical loss of CH₃I from the seawater and atmospheric
505 CH₃I is readily photolyzed. Long-term variations of atmospheric CH₃I at several sites show that SST near each site cannot fully explain the variation of observed CH₃I concentrations (Yokouchi et al., 2012). Other factors such as acidification, i.e., pH conditions, mineral dust deposition and dissolved organic carbon (DOC) concentration (Li et al., 2021), as well as ferric ion (Fe³⁺) concentration (Chen et al., 2020) in seawater could also contribute to the emission rate of CH₃I.

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Apart from marine sources, terrestrial sources of CH₃I including most rice paddies (Redeker et al., 2000), terrestrial biomes (Sive et al., 2007), minor wetlands (Dimmer et al., 2001), and biomass burning (Andreae et al., 1996) were also proposed. High concentration of CH₃I at two inland sites in Japan indicates the greater importance of terrestrial sources in the summer compared to oceanic sources
515 (Yokouchi et al., 2008). As CH₃I emission from rice paddies is positively correlated with temperature

(Redeker and Cicerone, 2004; Redeker et al., 2000), CH₃I emission is likely to be stronger in the summertime. This is consistent with higher concentrations of HIO_x in Beijing and Nanjing as shown in Fig. 1, 2 and 4. Moreover, experiments show that CH₃I emission under dark incubation was much lower than that under light incubation and CH₃I production under visible light conditions is lower than that under natural light (Li et al., 2021). Those results indicate that ultraviolet light promotes the production of CH₃I (Chen et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021) as well as its photochemical oxidation. This is consistent with our observation that HIO_x is only formed in the daytime (Fig. 4).

The relative importance of terrestrial and marine iodine sources may vary widely with local meteorological factors and the transportation of air masses. Future efforts are needed to verify the composition and distribution of HIO_x precursors in polluted environments.

3.2.4 Formation of HIO₃ in urban environments

Quantum chemical methods and laboratory experiments have both been carried out to investigate the formation mechanisms of HIO₃. Previous studies using quantum chemical calculations have proposed two possible formation pathways of HIO₃. Iodine monoxide (IO) was proposed to react with HO₂ radical to yield HIO₃ (Drougas and Kosmas, 2005). The reaction between iodine dioxide (OIO) and OH radical was also suggested to produce HIO₃ (Plane et al., 2006). Laminar flow reactor experiments have also been carried out to investigate the formation mechanisms of HIO₃ from I₂ (He, 2017). With the illumination of green-fluorescent lamp, I₂ was efficiently photolyzed while O₃ photolysis was restricted, and thus there was no known source of HO_x. Surprisingly, a significant amount of HIO₃ was formed essentially under HO_x free conditions. To rule out a potential unknown OH source in the flow reactor, different OH scavengers (methane, sulfur dioxide, cyclohexene and acetic acid) were injected but the production of HIO₃ remained. Iodine atoms or iodine oxides were proposed to be the reactants with ozone and water to produce HIO₃. Following studies from the CLOUD experiments suggest that iodoxy hypiodite (IOIO) could be efficiently converted into HIO₃ via reactions R (1) and R (2) (Finkenzeller et al., 2023) which successfully explain earlier laboratory and field observations (Sipilä et al., 2016; He et al., 2021b). These results align with our observations at the AHL/BUCT station. UVB is an indication of light intensity and influences the production of I atoms from the photolysis of I₂ and CH₃I. The

545 produced iodine atoms react with O₃ and further drive gaseous iodine chemistry (Saiz-Lopez et al., 2012).
Fig. 4 depicts the correlation of UVB, O₃ and temperature. Although the correlation between HIO₃
concentration and air temperature is not very strong, high HIO₃ concentrations appear when both the
UVB and O₃ mixing ratios are high. This is consistent with the fact that both solar radiation and O₃ are
required to initiate the iodine emission and iodine photochemistry.

550



3.3 Iodic acid enhances the particle survival probability

555 Statistical results show that NPF events occur frequently at both sites throughout the measurement
periods. Whether freshly nucleated particles can contribute to cloud condensation nuclei and hence
impose influence on climate and human health depends largely on how fast they grow into larger particles
and survive from coagulation scavenging by pre-existing aerosols, which is more efficient for smaller
particles. The GR of newly formed particles is therefore central for sub-10 nm particle lifetimes in
560 ambient environment. Earlier studies have linked some dimensionless parameters L or L_r (McMurry et
al., 2005; Kuang et al., 2010; Cai et al., 2017b) to justify the occurrence of NPF and described the
competition between aerosol surface area and condensable vapours during the growth period. Recently,
a dimensionless survival parameter P (Kulmala et al., 2017) was proposed as the ratio of CS' (CS/10⁻⁴ s⁻¹)
to GR' (GR/1nm hour⁻¹). From this ratio, P shows the competition between the possibility of being
565 cleared and growing to survive. When P is below 50 in clean environment or 100 in polluted urban cities,
the SP of the sub-3 nm particles is agreed with the atmospheric observations (Kulmala et al., 2017). As
shown in Fig. S8, the median P is about 50 for the sub-3 nm particles, whereas the median P value is
about 20 for 3-7 nm particles in the NPF events at the AHL/BUCT station. That means the growing
particles in those days preferred to survive and thus showed us clear new particle formation and further
570 growth.

As shown in Eq. (8), the impact of GR on survival of new particles is not linear and a small enhancement
on GR could result in much larger enhancement in particle survival probability (Cai et al., 2021a). It also

means that the SP of these newly formed particles exhibits a substantial variability, spanning more than three orders of magnitude, as illustrated in Tables S2~4. To further illustrate the non-linear response of particle SP, we plot the logarithmic value of SP ($\log_{10} SP$) as a function of CoagS and GR from 1.5 to 3 nm (Fig. 5 panel a) and from 3 to 7 nm (Fig. 5 panel b), respectively. The value of SP is extremely sensitive both to CoagS and GR. Under the typical CoagS (around 0.0025 s^{-1}) at both sites, the SP could be enhanced by more than two orders of magnitude when GR is varied from 1 to 10 nm h^{-1} . Increased GR caused by additional condensing vapours enables faster growth, which in turn facilitates the survival of sub-10 nm particles from coagulation scavenging (Kuang et al., 2012). This effect is especially important for sub-3 nm particles as they are the most susceptible and are easily lost to large pre-existing particles.

We present case studies of several consecutive NPF events at both sites in Fig. 6. At AHL/BUCT station, NPF events occurred from May 25 to 29, 2021 due to favourable meteorological conditions, except for one undefined day (May 27, 2021) when no obvious growth was observed. On this undefined day, the UVB in the daytime was low and the intensity was fluctuating, due to cloudiness. Both of these conditions, as well as the higher CS, suppressed the NPF (Kerminen et al., 2018; Deng et al., 2020a; Cai et al., 2021b). On the other hand, both T and O_3 , as well as UVB, increased from around 6:00 in the morning on the NPF event days, with decreasing RH. The averaged concentrations of H_2SO_4 and HIO_3 in the particle growth periods from 1.5 nm to 7 nm on event days and from 8:00 to 10:00 on the other days were summarized in Table 1. The ratio of HIO_3 concentration to H_2SO_4 was about 5% in the first three days and more than 10% in the next two days, likely due to higher O_3 concentrations which contributes to the emission of iodine precursors.

Table S2~S4 and S5~S7 summarise the HIO_3 contribution to GR and SP in the particle size range of 1.5-3 nm and 3-7 nm, respectively. To account for the uncertainties in the GR and SP calculations, the measured GR are calculated using three methods, namely the APT-x, APT-y and the mode-fitting (MOD) methods (see Methods part, Fig. S9). We present the results from MOD methods in the main text to keep consistency with earlier studies (Deng et al., 2020b; Qiao et al., 2021). Only events with clear growth were reported in this study to reduce systematic uncertainties resulting from the GR calculation. We also provide the results from the APT-x and APT-y methods in the supplementary materials for completeness.

The results in Table S2-S4 show that the contributions of HIO₃ to GR_{<3} on May 25 and 26 were lower than 5%, whereas the contribution was about 10% on May 29. The SP_{1.5-3} enhancement from HIO₃ is much stronger on May 29, even reaching 40.5%. Although the contribution of HIO₃ to GR_{<3} on Jun 21, 2021 is almost identical to that on May 29, 2021, SP enhancements on Jun 21, 2021 is 2.5 times larger. This is a result from the 5 times CoagS on Jun 21, 2021. This suggests that in polluted environments with higher CoagS, such as Beijing, SP enhancement can be more sensitive to GR enhancement. Results in both Fig. 7 and Fig. S10 show that the median contribution of HIO₃ to the GR of particles in the 1.5-3 nm size range is 7.4% using the MOD method, whereas the contribution is only around 3% and 2% using the APT-x and APT-y methods, respectively. This is resulted from the difference in the measured GR calculated using either the APT or the MOD methods. This further translates into 10.8%, 4.1%, 40.5% SP EF using MOD, APT-x and APT-y methods, respectively. Despite the uncertainty in the measurement GR calculation, the EF of HIO₃ to sub-3 nm particle SP is clear: in 33.3%, 25.0% and 55.6% of the events HIO₃ enhances particle SP by more than 30%, using MOD, APT-x and APT-y methods, respectively. Additionally, we show three consecutive NPF events observed from 16 to 18 August 2019 at the SORPES station, Nanjing. These events feature high acid concentrations, O₃ mixing ratios and strong light intensities as well as low RH and CS. No nucleation mode particles burst was observed on August 20 probably owing to decreased H₂SO₄ concentration. Compared to the cases in Beijing, the concentrations of O₃ and acids are twice as higher at the SORPES station due to geographical and seasonal differences (Table 1).

From June to December 2019, there are 23 NPF events recognized at the SORPES station. Due to the detection limitation of the instruments at SORPES, the sub-3 nm particles were not clearly measured, which in turn poses challenges to get the measured GR through the 50% appearance time method nor the mode fitting method. The statistics are depicted in a different way from that of the AHL/BUCT (see supplementary materials for further details). Briefly, the contribution of HIO₃ and H₂SO₄ to sub-3 nm particle GR in NPF events are quantified based on Eq. (9), Eq. (10) and Eq. (11). This is based on the observed consistency between the gaseous H₂SO₄ concentration and its significant contribution to the sub-3 nm particle growth rate in Beijing (Deng et al., 2020b). The SP enhancement is further calculated based on Eq. (12). Consistent with the observation at the AHL/BUCT station, the concentration of gaseous HIO₃ in Nanjing is lower than H₂SO₄ throughout the measurement period, accounting for 10~20%

of concentration (Fig. 1e). However, the average $\text{HIO}_3:\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ratio (16.8%) is higher than that in Beijing (10.7%).

635 The calculated GR contribution of HIO_3 and H_2SO_4 to sub-3 nm particles ($\text{Ratio}_{1.5-3}$) are listed in Table S8, respectively, where the statistical ratios of acid contributions for each NPF event are listed as well. The computations of Eq. (9) and Eq. (10) are subject to acid concentrations and hence the average acid concentrations for individual NPF events dominate the statistics of GR ratio. At the SORPES station from June to November 2019, the contribution of HIO_3 to sub-3 nm particle growth accounts for 6.1% (median) and 6.7% (mean) of H_2SO_4 .

As listed in Table S9, estimated particle survival probability of particles growing from 1.5 to 3 nm considering H_2SO_4 as the governing contributor ($\text{SP}_{1.5-3}(\text{SA})$) is significantly enhanced when counting the contribution from HIO_3 ($\text{SP}_{1.5-3}(\text{SA}+\text{IA})$). The enhancement of SP with IA being an additional GR contributor varies from 3% to more than 100% in favourable cases, with a median enhancement of 54.3%. For sub-3 nm particles, the survival probability is twice as higher (enhancement factors exceeding 100%) considering HIO_3 as additional GR contributor on July 3 and October 26. As depicted in Fig. S11(c), SP enhancements in percentage are generally one order of magnitude higher than the GR contribution in percentage and HIO_3 can result in as high as 2-fold enhancement on SP in sub-3 nm particle growth.

650 The statistical results at both sites suggest that for polluted environments with higher CoagS, GR enhancement is especially important for the survival of small particles. In Beijing, HIO_3 contributes 7.4% (median) to sub-3 nm particle growth and 2.6% (median) to 3-7 nm particle growth in all NPF events from May to September. Despite the limited GR contribution, it could lead to 40.5% enhancement of $\text{SP}_{<3}$, whereas there is only a negligible increase of 3.2% (median) for SP_{3-7} , estimated using the MOD method. In exceptional cases, we found that HIO_3 could enhance particle SP by more than two-fold in 22.2% of cases. The median value of GR contribution of HIO_3 accounts for 6.1% of H_2SO_4 and the median enhancement of 1.5-3 nm particles survival probability reaches 47.6% when consider HIO_3 as an additional GR contributor, at the SORPES station in summer 2019. In favourable cases, the gaseous HIO_3 can contribute to more than 14.0% of particle growth, leading to the survival probability of fresh particles enhanced by a factor of two. The role of the other iodine oxoacid, HIO_2 , in particle growth remains unclear due to the absence of contribution equation like Eq. (10) for HIO_3 . The estimated

contribution of HIO₂ derived from the same equation should be significantly smaller compared with that of HIO₃ even if the arrival rate of HIO₂ also reaches the kinetic limit, as measured HIO₂ concentrations
665 at both sites are much lower than HIO₃.

In summary, our findings show that HIO₃ is an important contributor to sub-3 nm particle survival in these two Chinese cities and similar environments elsewhere in warm seasons. However, for particles in 3-7 nm, the contribution of HIO₃ to particle GR and SP is negligible.

4 Conclusion

670 In this study, we show three years' measurements of iodine oxoacids (HIO_x) in Beijing and one-year observation in Nanjing. Unlike H₂SO₄, HIO₃ has a more prominent seasonal variation at both sites with highest concentrations in summer and lowest concentrations in winter. The diurnal pattern of HIO_x indicates that HIO₃ formation is influenced by photochemical activities and O₃ concentrations which may together influence the emission of iodine species and the further oxidation chemistry. In Beijing, back
675 trajectory analysis suggests that marine iodine sources are important for the HIO_x production and less HIO_x is observed if the air masses originate from the North. The lowest concentrations of HIO_x in winter and its weak correlation with PM_{2.5} implies that anthropogenic activities are likely not the important sources of HIO_x.

680 We find that the median contribution of iodic acid, HIO₃, to GR_{sub-3} is less than 10% in Beijing and in Nanjing from May to September. However, HIO₃ can significantly enhance particle survival probability, occasionally by two-fold, for 1.5-3 nm particles at both sites. This means that although H₂SO₄ is considered to be the main driver of sub-3 nm growth in polluted urban areas, additional sources, such as HIO₃, needs to be considered. As the growth rate of HIO₃ is measured to be identical to that of H₂SO₄ on
685 a per-molecule basis (He et al., 2021b), we propose that HIO₃ and H₂SO₄ can be summed up when estimating the sub-3 nm particle growth rates. Beside the enhancement on particle growth, recent theoretical studies have indicated that dimethyl amine could potentially accelerate pure HIO₃ nucleation (Ning et al., 2022). However, experimental confirmation is needed to confirm such prediction and our long-term observation can therefore provide basis for guiding experimental works to use ambient relevant
690 level acid concentrations.

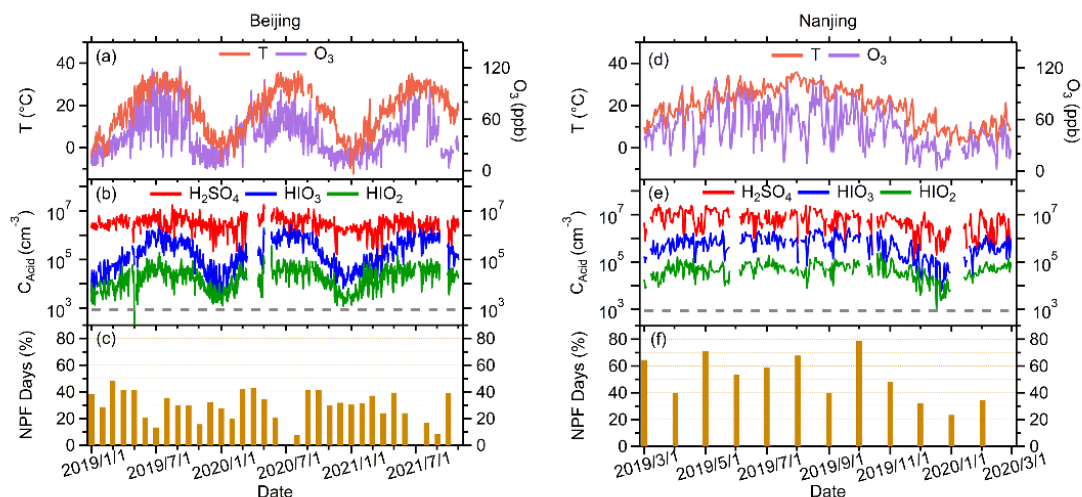
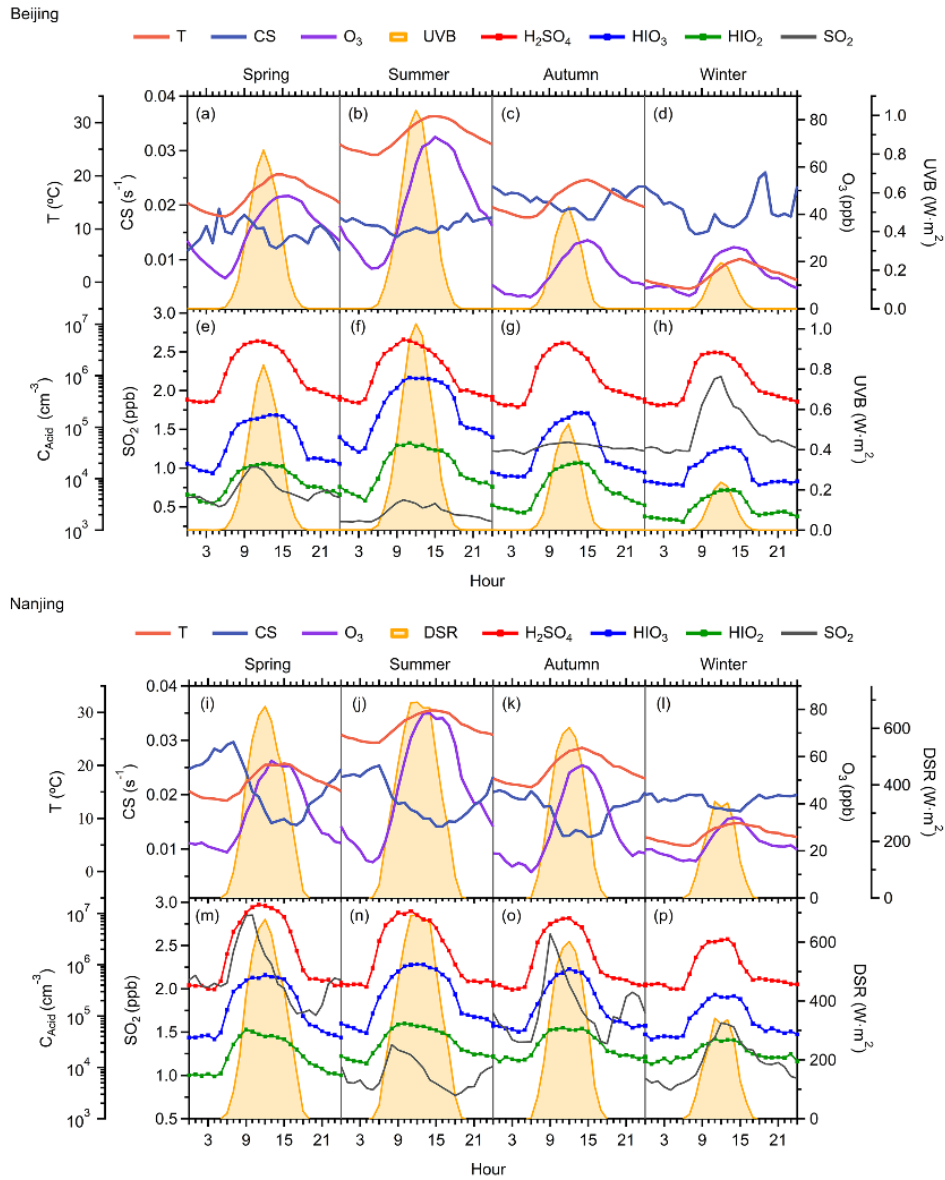
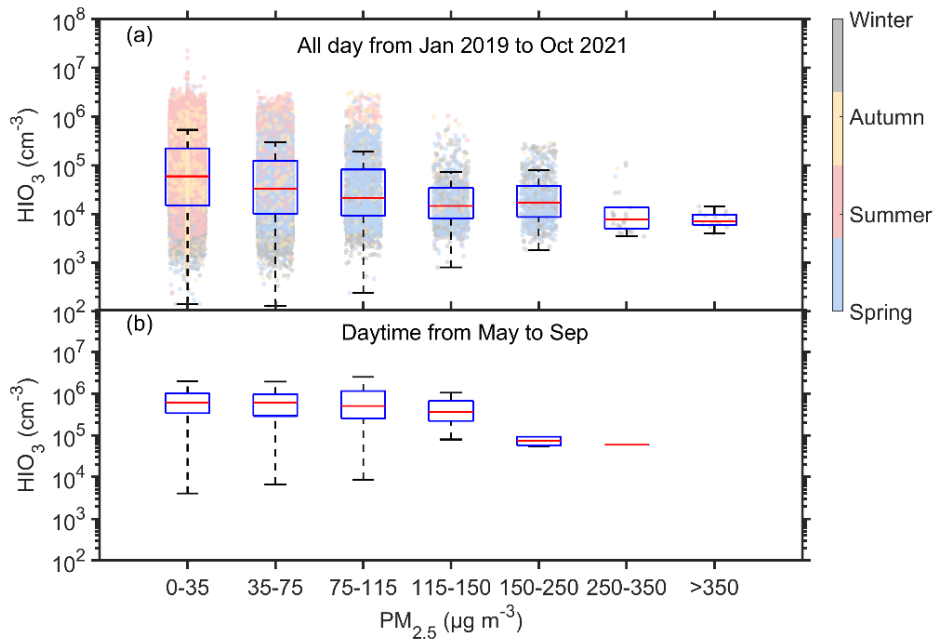


Figure 1. Timeseries of parameters from Jan 1, 2019 to Oct 31, 2021 in Beijing (a-c) and from March 1, 2019 to Feb 29, 2020 in Nanjing (d-f). (a/d). Temperature and ozone; (b/e). Sulfuric acid and iodine oxoacid concentrations. The grey dashed line represents the detection limit of instruments (875 cm^{-3}); (c/f). The frequencies of new particle formation events in each month. Time resolution for all the presented data is 1 day and the environmental parameters and vapour concentrations are averaged daytime (8 am to 4 pm) mean.



700 **Figure 2.** Diurnal variation of median value of O₃, T, and CS in the first row (Beijing, a-d) and third row (Nanjing, i-j) and the diurnal variation of median SO₂, H₂SO₄ and HIO_x concentrations in the second row (Beijing, e-h) and fourth row (Nanjing, m-p) in four seasons. The first to last columns are profiles in spring, summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. The diurnal patterns of UVB were plotted in every panel to compare with other factors better.



705 **Figure 3.** HIO₃ concentration in different PM_{2.5} level bins. (a) data from the whole campaign coloured by the seasons in Beijing and (b) data in the daytime from May to September (warm seasons) in Beijing.

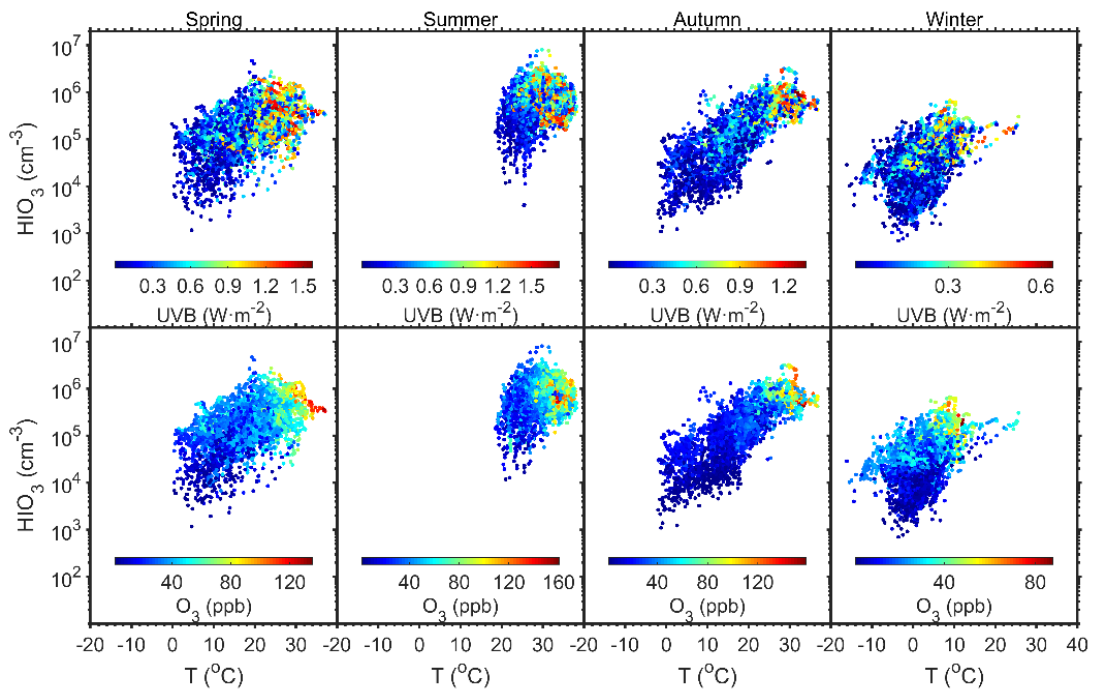
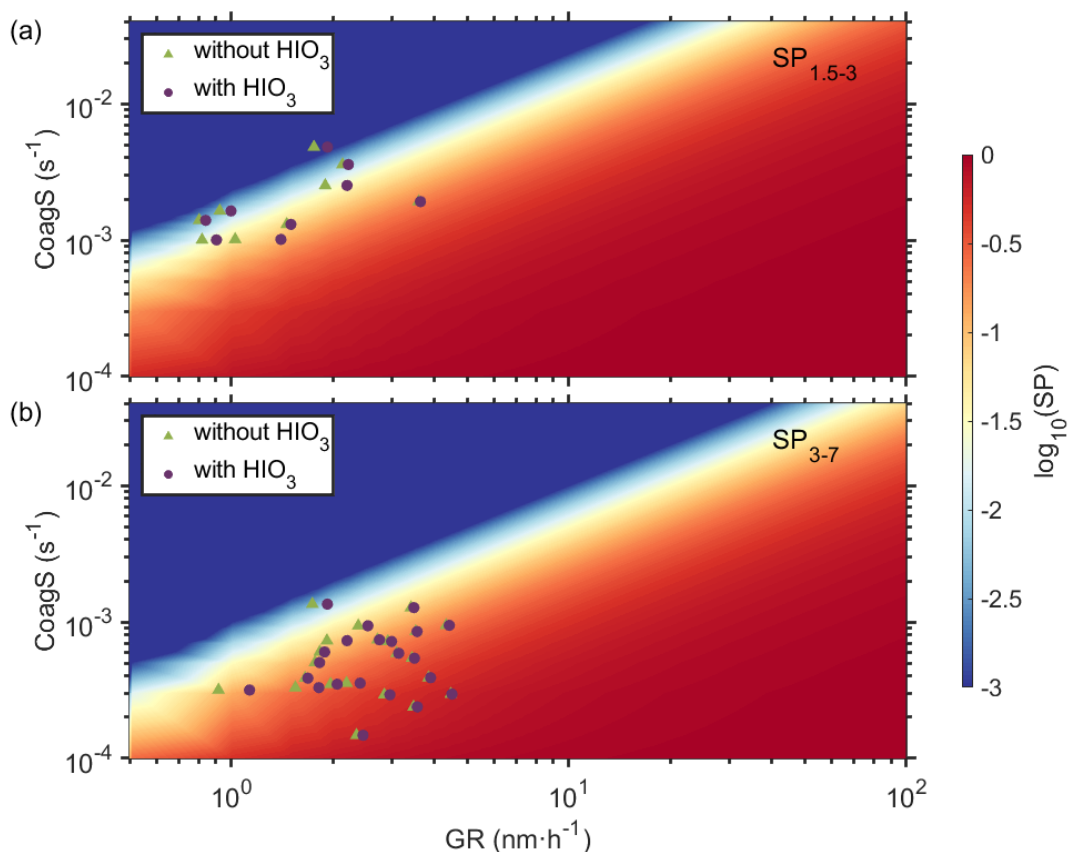
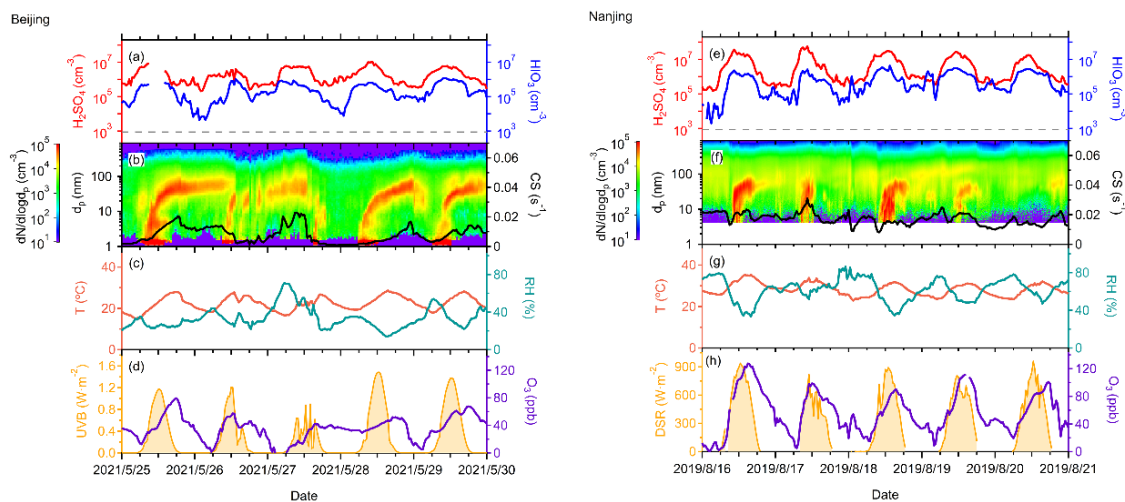


Figure 4. Influences of T, UVB, and O₃ on HIO₃ concentration in the daytime (8:00-16:00) in Beijing. The analysis is separated into four seasons.



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Figure 5. The effect of coagulation sink and growth rate on particle survival probability for 1.5-3 nm (a) and 3-7 nm (b) particles, respectively.



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Figure 6. Cases of consecutive NPF events in Beijing (a-d) and Nanjing (e-h) sites. Acid concentrations are shown in the first row, particle number size distribution, and CS are shown in the second row, meteorological factors, such as T, RH, UVB, and O₃ concentrations are also presented in the third and fourth rows. The measurement of acids in the Beijing site was unavailable for a short period on May 25 (panel (a)).

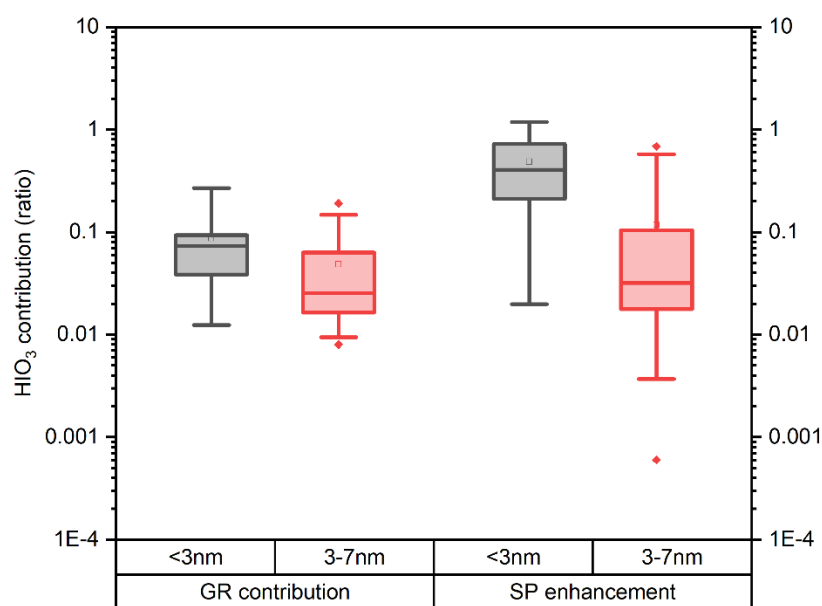


Figure 7. The contributions in ratio of HIO₃ to growth rate (a) and survival probability enhancement (b) of particles within sub-3nm and 3-7nm in NPF events in the Beijing site utilizing the mode fitting method.

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Table 1. Environmental factors and acid concentrations shown in Figure 5.

Site	Date	Start time	End time	H ₂ SO ₄ (cm ⁻³)	HIO ₃ (cm ⁻³)	CS (s ⁻¹)	T (°C)	RH (%)	UVB/DSR (W/m ²)	O ₃ (ppb)
Beijing	2021/5/25	6:50:00	9:23:00	3.96E+06	2.03E+05	0.0046	18.5	26	0.20	25.68
	2021/5/26	9:20:00	10:48:36	8.01E+06	4.90E+05	0.0105	24.25	32	0.84	47.82
	2021/5/27	8:00:00	10:00:00	1.66E+06	5.41E+04	0.0222	19.6	59	0.45	11.17
	2021/5/28	6:00:00	8:15:00	5.35E+06	7.21E+05	0.0018	20.35	34	0.10	31.51
	2021/5/29	6:20:00	9:38:44	3.89E+06	4.99E+05	0.0040	19.4	50	0.25	31.24
Nanjing	2019/8/16	10:22:21	14:59:49	2.03E+07	1.40E+06	0.0200	33.23	40.69	858	105.38
	2019/8/17	8:04:22	11:10:40	4.27E+07	1.79E+06	0.0268	32.02	56.43	525	75.27
	2019/8/18	10:17:53	17:18:42	2.06E+07	2.20E+06	0.0134	30.93	39.52	705.1	81.09
	2019/8/19	8:00:00	10:00:00	1.35E+07	2.48E+06	0.0164	27.99	61.71	419.7	58.72
	2019/8/20	8:00:00	10:00:00	1.07E+07	2.12E+06	0.0154	27.4	67.08	458	48.26

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Supplement

1215 **Text**

S1. Field measurements of sulphur dioxide (SO₂) at two sites

SO₂ is measured continuously at the SORPES station using a Thermo TEI 43i. At BUCT/AHL station, SO₂ is measured with the same analyser. Due to an instrument malfunction, SO₂ concentration is discarded in October and November, 2020 at the BUCT/AHL station. The long-term time traces of daytime (08:00~16:00 LT) mean SO₂ and its seasonal and monthly variations at both sites are depicted in Fig. S12. SO₂ is primarily emitted through coal combustion in heating seasons in Beijing. The official onset of the heating period in Beijing is 15th November and the heating ends on 15th March the following year. The SO₂ at BUCT/AHL site is strongly enhanced by the release of SO₂ in heating seasons (grey shade area). It is worth noting that the measured concentrations of SO₂ at the BUCT/AHL station is higher than that of the SORPES station in winter (January and February), which could partially explain the higher concentration of H₂SO₄ measured in Beijing.

S2. Classification of growth time span at SORPES

A Neutral cluster and Air Ion Spectrometer (NAIS, Airel Ltd., Estonia) (Manninen et al., 2016) was deployed to detect the particle number size distribution (PNSD) in the early stages of NPF at the SORPES station. The negatively charged particles in the size range of around 0.8 nm to 42 nm were measured to study the growth of newly formed particles. However, the limited charges are likely to be captured by larger particles in polluted urban environments which leaves it difficult for us to track the growth trajectory of sub-3 nm particles in NPF events in the SORPES station.

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To compare the contribution of gaseous HIO₃ in the subsequent growth of newly formed particles in NPF events at the SORPES station, we further developed a new method by considering gaseous H₂SO₄ as the governing GR contributor as mentioned in 2.2.2. To get the average acid concentration, the general NPF timespan needs to be determined. Though the growth trajectories of smaller particles are vague in this study, the 50% appearance time at approximately 7 nm, where the PNSD shows a sharp increase, can be identified (Kulmala et al., 2012). The 50% appearance time at 7 nm is therefore regarded as the end time for the particle formation as this study focuses on the sub-7 nm particle growth processes. We further

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find the start time of NPF events by extrapolating different hours backward in time. To better reflect the uncertainty induced by different timespans, we further show the statistical results for each timespan in
1245 [Fig. S11](#). As the acid concentration time resolution is 30 min, different time spans (0.5, 1, 1.5 and 2 hours) are investigated to determine which one is the most suitable for all individual NPF cases. [Figure S11a](#)) shows the scatterplot of iodic acid contribution to growth versus that of sulfuric acid for sub-3 nm particles. The GR contribution of IA accounts for no less than 1% and no larger than 20% compared to SA. It should be noted that the slope of the fitted line remains nearly unchanged and the ratio varies
1250 inconspicuously as the timespan increases from 0.5 h to 2 h. Therefore, different timespan determination will not induce significant uncertainty in the calculated GR contribution. [Figure S11\(b\)](#) shows the boxplot of the ratio of iodic acid contribution to that of sulfuric acid for sub-3 nm particles using different timespans. It can be seen that with the increase of growth timespan from 0.5 h to 2 h, the contribution ratio rises insignificantly. We therefore choose the 2 hours timespan in this study as the sub-7 nm growth
1255 in Beijing is regularly at a few nanometers per hour (Table S2 – S9) and a 2-hours window should generally contain the period when the particles grow from sub-3 nm to 7 nm. The statistical result for all NPF events at the SORPES station is depicted in [Fig. S11\(c\)](#).

S3. The sensitivity of survival probability

1260 The non-linear relationship between survival probability and growth rate and the coagulation sink given by Eq. (8) suggests that a small perturbation of growth rate could lead to a significant shift of particle survival probability. As depicted in Fig. 5, the theoretical SP for both sub-3 nm and 3-7 nm particles can vary significantly with different coagulation sink and growth rates. At a fixed coagulation sink, the difference in GR of a factor of 10 contributes to a difference in SP of a factor of around 1000, which
1265 reflects that the SP of particles are extremely sensitive to the change of GR.

To further illustrate this sensitivity of survival probability to growth rate change, we quantify the sensitivity of SP to particle GR difference (ΔGR) in [Fig. S13](#). The sensitivity of SP in this study is quantified using the amplification of SP induced by GR difference (X-axis) and is calculated according
1270 to

$$\text{SP amplification} = \frac{\text{SP}(\text{GR}_0 + \Delta \text{GR})}{\text{SP}(\text{GR}_0)} \quad (14)$$

where GR_0 refers to the initial growth rate of particles, and ΔGR is the difference in GR. $SP(GR_0)$ and $SP(GR_0 + \Delta GR)$ are the theoretical SP calculated using Eq. (8). The results of SP amplification with different GR_0 (1.0 and 1.5 nm h^{-1}) are shown in Fig. S13(b) and S13(c), respectively. The amplification of SP caused by additional GR enhancement is both subject to the particle diameter, d_p and GR_0 . Fig. S13(b) shows that for particles growing initially at the rate of 1.0 nm h^{-1} , the smaller the particles are and the larger the GR increases, the more significant the amplification of SP. Fig. S13(c) depicts that particle SP will be amplified less significantly if particles grow at a higher initial rate (1.5 nm h^{-1}). To better bridge the gap between measurement results and theoretical calculation, Fig. S13(a) shows the frequency distribution of iodine acid GR contribution at the SORPES station as a case study. At the SORPES station, sulphuric acid dominates the initial growth of sub-3 nm particles. Therefore, GR contribution of IA can be taken into consideration as additional GR increment (ΔGR). For new particles growing at the rate of around 1 nm h^{-1} at the SORPES station, iodine acid as an additional GR contributor could regularly amplify the particles SP to 2 orders of magnitude higher. Fig. S11(c) also illustrate that iodine acid GR contribution will significantly enhance the SP of sub-3 nm particles accounting for no more than 20% of sulphuric acid GR contribution. This case study shows that the high sensitivity of particles SP to GR difference makes it rather difficult to characterize a NPF event, especially in urban environments with various GR contributors.

1290 **S4. Cluster analysis of backward trajectories**

To analyse the air masses reaching the AHL/BUCT site, we conducted cluster analysis of backward trajectory using the TrajStat model, a plug-in of MeteInfo software (Wang, 2014). The calculation of trajectories was based on the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Cohen et al., 2015). As depicted in Fig. S5, the 3-day backward trajectories at 500 m above the ground level of the AHL/BUCT station (39°56'N, 116°17'E) are clustered by examining the total spatial variance (TSV).

S5. The calculation method of GRs in NPF events

The growth of newly formed particles for NPF events are often reflected by the collective shift of measured particle size distribution towards larger sizes as time evolves, and it is unfeasible to track the

1305 growth of a single particle based on the measurements. Therefore, both approaches used in this study (mode-fitting and appearance time) are referred to as collective approaches and the GRs in this study are the estimated ones (Stolzenburg et al., 2023). While using mode-fitting method, the growth trajectory of new particles is represented by the peak diameter (d_p) of the nucleation mode, which is determined after applying log-normal distributions to the measured size distribution (Kulmala et al., 2012). For measured particle number size distribution at each time (t), there will be a d_p , and the value of GR (GR_{mode}) is derived by a linear fit to the d_p vs t .

1310 Instead of tracking the shift of peak diameter for a given time period, appearance time method seeks to find the time it takes (Δt) for the particle to grow between instrument size bins (Δd_p). In this study, we take the time (t) that the measured concentration of particles reaches its half maximum for each d_p . For each particle size bin (d_p) of the instrument used at BUCT/AHL, there will be a t , and the value of GR (GR_{apt}) is derived by a linear fit to the d_p vs t . Additionally, we believe it would be conceptually more correct to consider diameter as the independent variable when fitting the GRs using appearance time method although previous studies commonly take appearance time as the independent variable and diameter as the dependent variable when fitting the GRs. that is because each data point corresponds to a precise size bin, and any variation (largely stemming from uncertainty due to atmospheric heterogeneity) among the data points primarily exists in appearance time. Consequently, the fitting method with diameter as the independent variable was named as APT-y and the one with time as the independent variable was called as APT-x.

1320

Figures

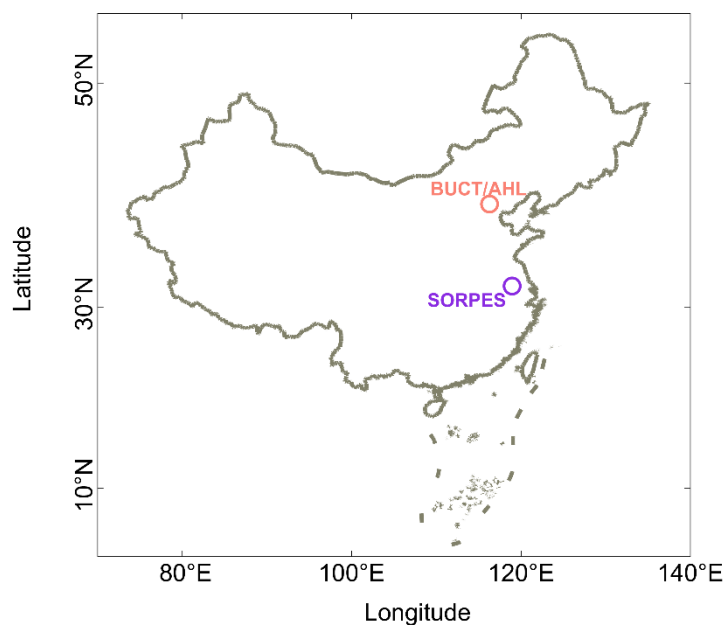


Figure S1. The geophysical distribution of two measurement sites (BUCT/AHL in Beijing, China and SORPES in Nanjing, China) of this study.

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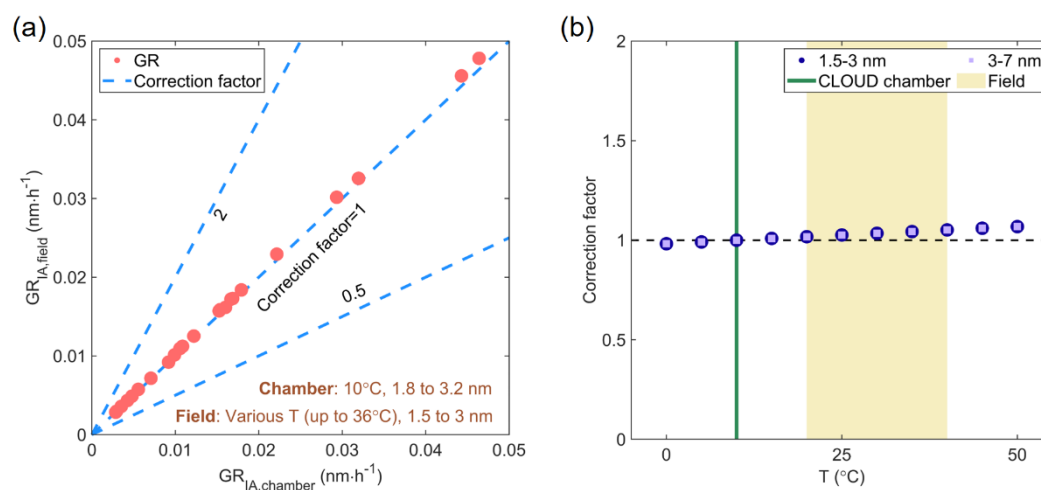


Figure S2. The calculated correction factors based on Eq. (10) and the sensitivity against temperature and size. (a) The correction factors derived based on chamber and field site measurement conditions during NPF events. (b) The correction factor as a function of temperature with different points denoting the selected size ranges.

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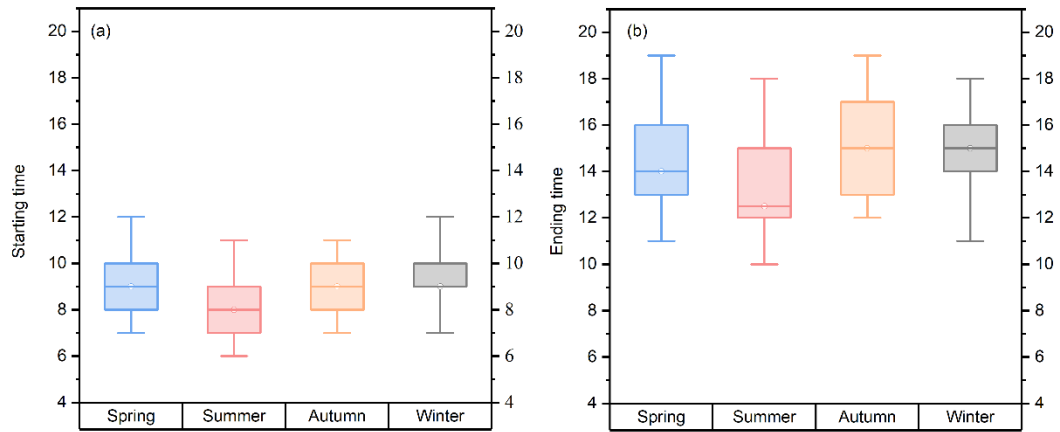
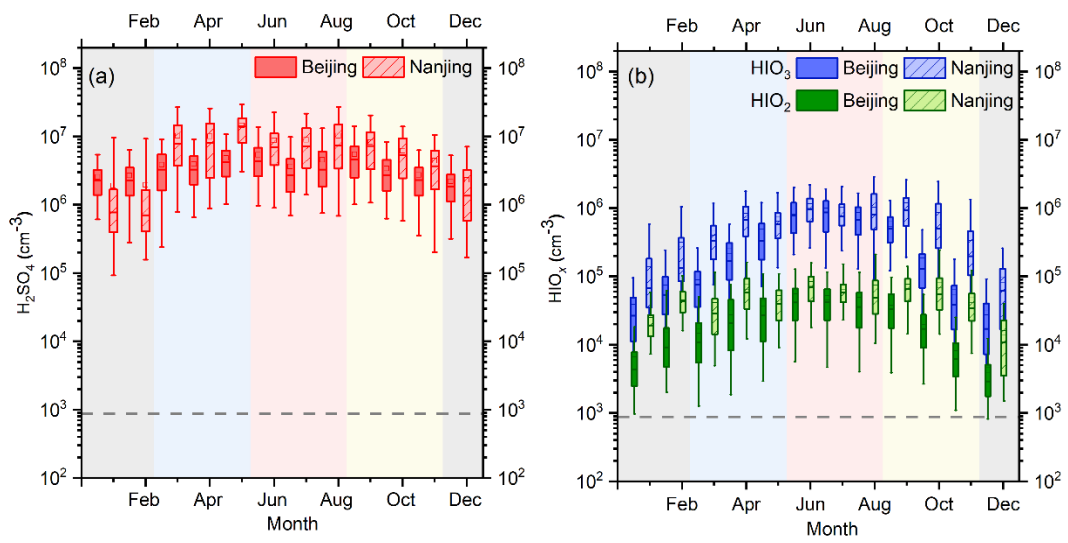
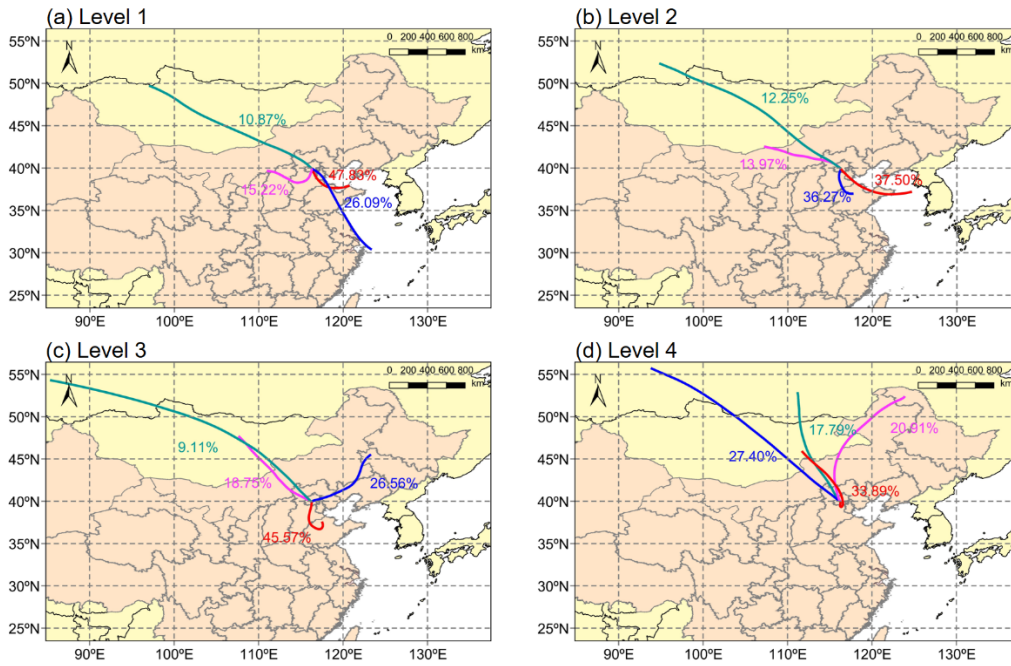


Figure S3. Starting time (a) and ending time (b) of NPF events in Beijing four seasons.



1335 Figure S4. Monthly variation of sulfuric acid and iodine oxoacid concentrations in Beijing and Nanjing.



1340 **Figure S5. The cluster analysis in different HIO₃ precursors intensities.** The four levels of the proxy concentration of HIO₃ precursors are in the 75% - 100%, 50%-75%, 25%-50%, 0-25% percentiles from the first to the fourth levels, respectively. The percentage of each trajectory reflects the ratio of the corresponding cluster.

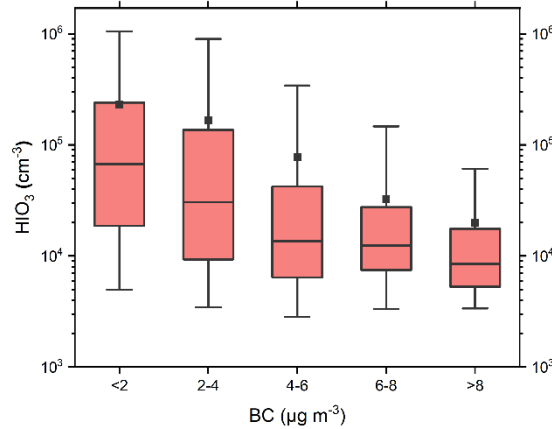
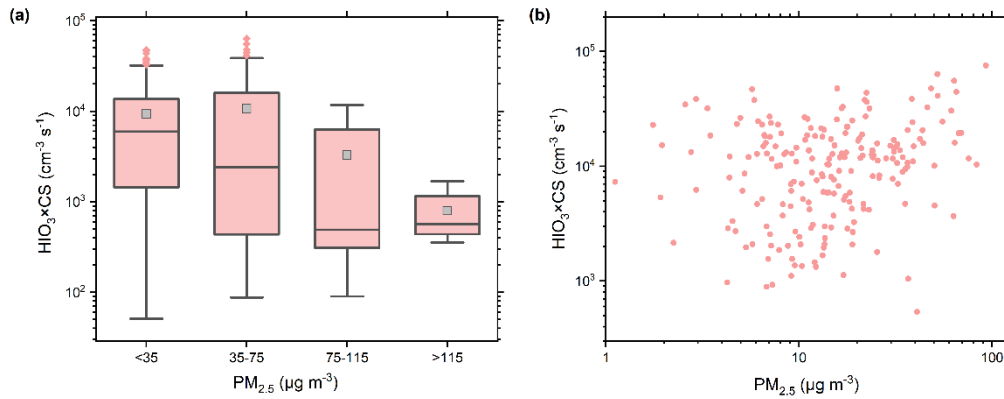
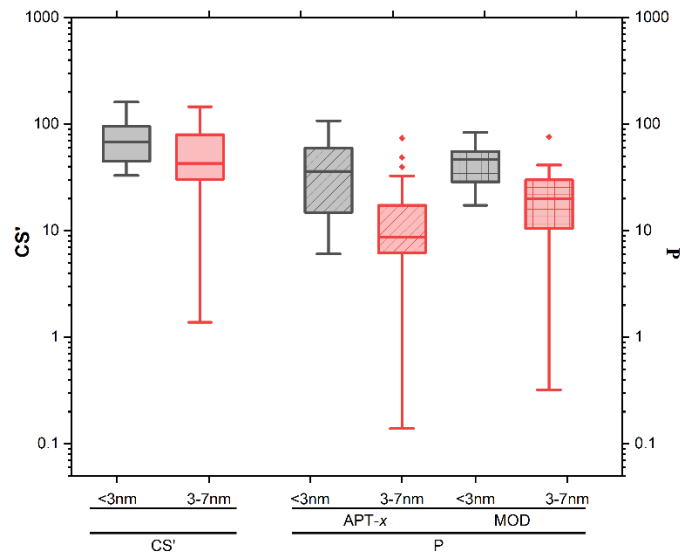


Figure S6. HIO₃ concentration in different BC level bins.



1345 **Figure S7. The impact of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ on HIO_3 production calculated from the HIO_3 concentration and CS (a) in all seasons and (b) specifically in warm seasons (from May to September).**



1350 **Figure S8. The dimensionless CS' and P in the growth periods within sub-3 nm and 3-7 nm in Beijing. Here, CS' are calculated from CS (unit: s^{-1}) divided by 10^{-4}s^{-1} and the P is the ratio of CS' and GR' ($\text{GR}/(1 \text{ nm h}^{-1})$). Both of them are calculated based on Kulmala et al. (2017).**

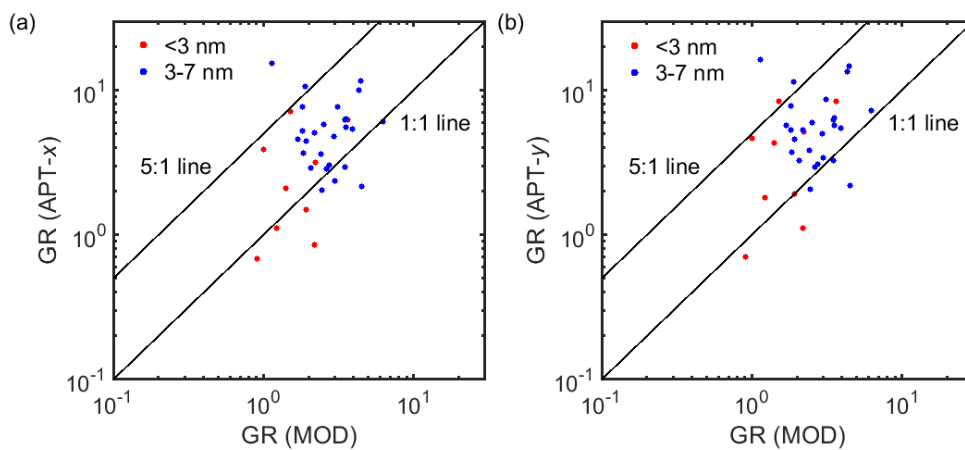
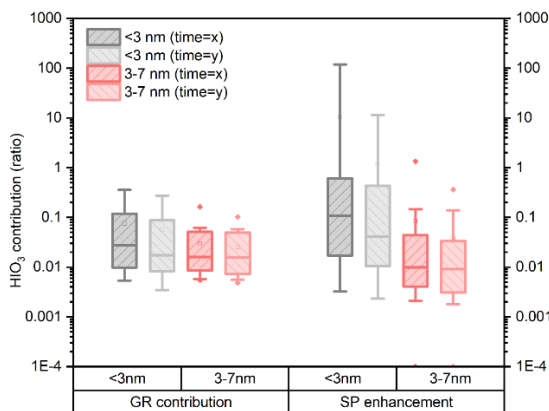


Figure S9. The measured GR comparison between two different methods. (a) Comparison between APT-x and MOD and (b) comparison between APT-y and MOD.



1355 Figure S10. The contributions of HIO₃ to growth rate and survival probability of particles within sub-3nm and 3-7 nm in NPF events using the 50% appearance time method.

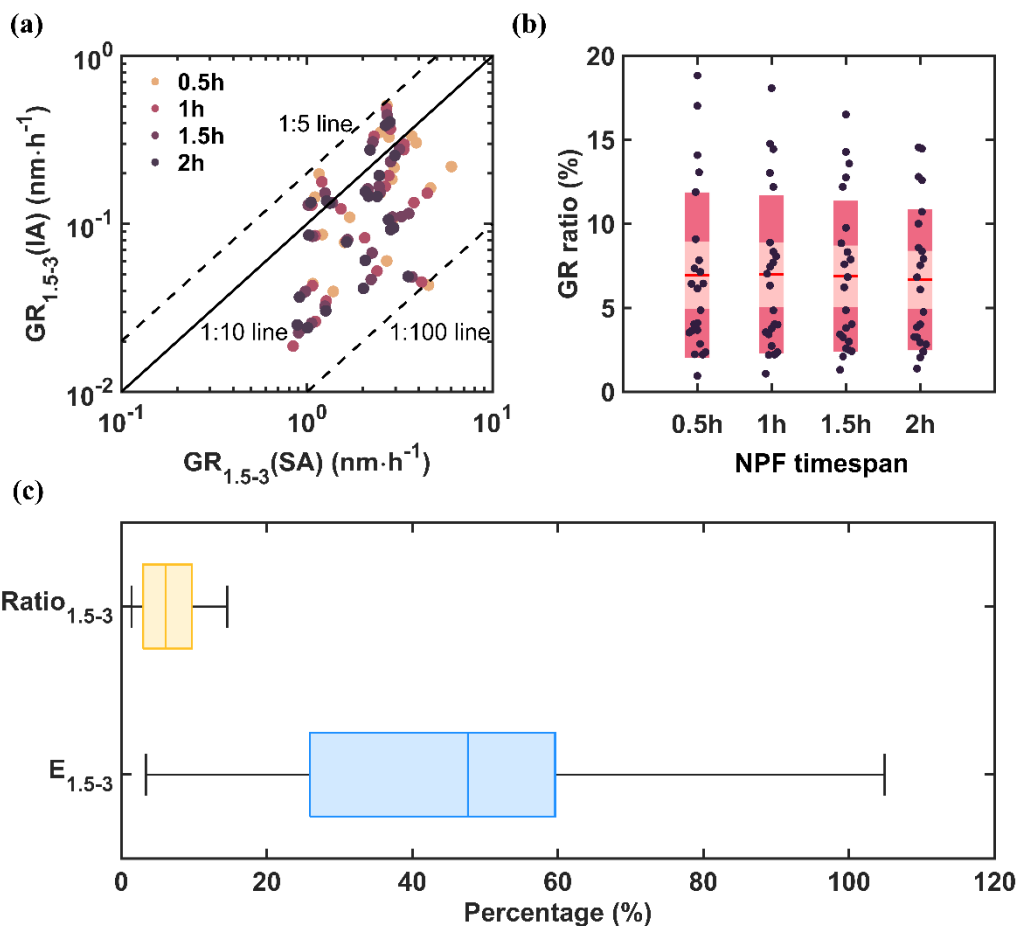
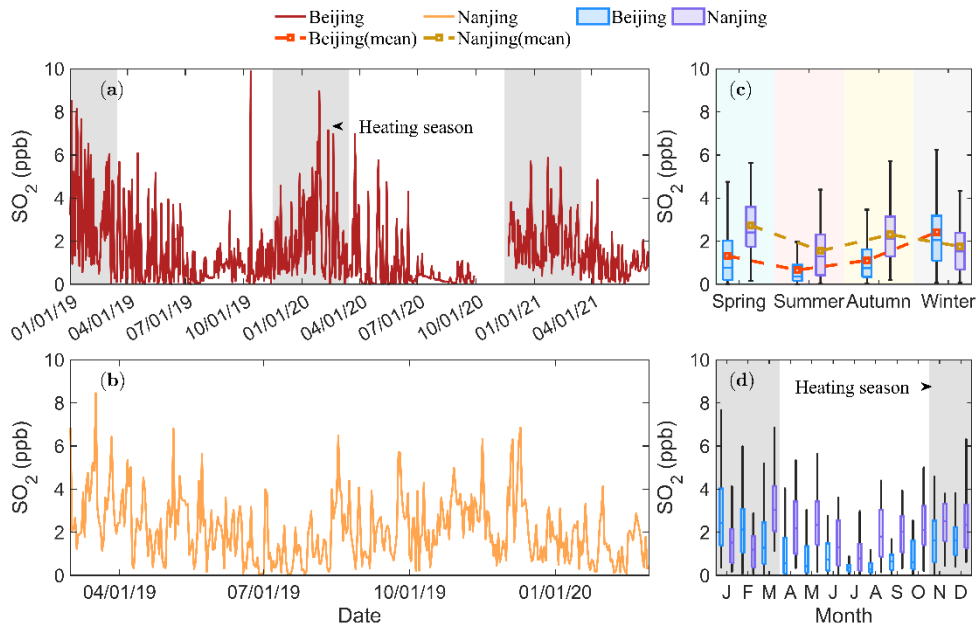


Figure S11. Determination of NPF timespan and the statistical result showing the GR contribution and hence SP enhancement in percentage considering HIO₃ as additional GR contributor. The scatterplot of GR contribution of HIO₃ to particles growing from 1.5 nm to 3nm versus that of H₂SO₄ coloured by different NPF

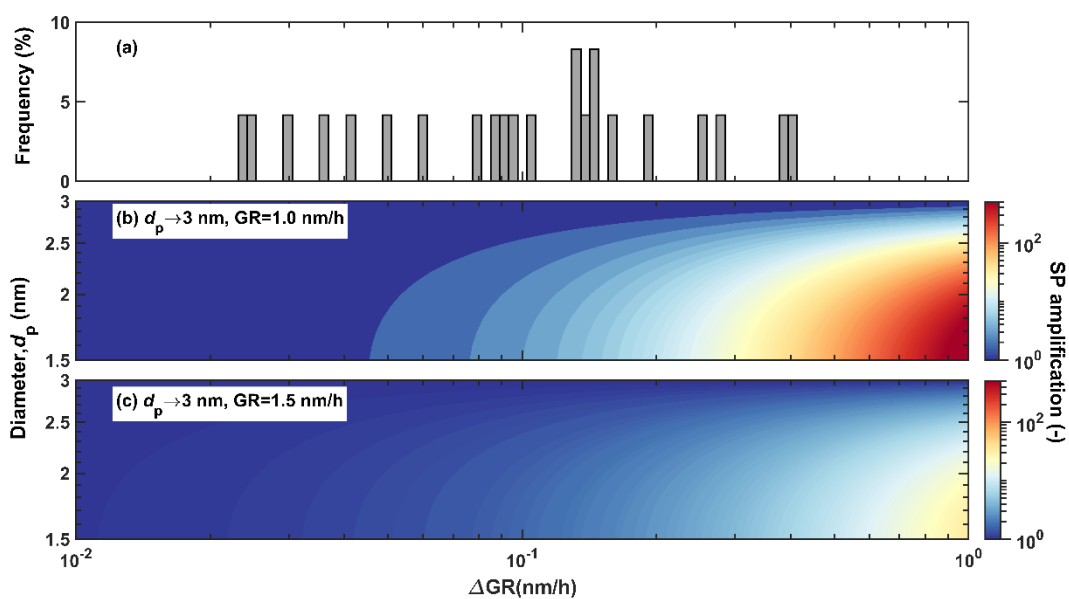
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timespans is presented in (a). Boxplots of the calculated ratio are shown in (b), in which the red solid line in the middle is the mean value of contribution ratio in each timespan bin. Calculated GR ratio for each NPF events are points drawn along Y axis. Points are laid over a 1.96 SEM (95% confidence interval) area shaded in rosy brown and one standard deviation area shaded in dark red. The boxplots for GR contribution ratio and SP enhancements at the SORPES station are depicted in (c).



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Figure S12. Measurements of SO₂ at two sites. The time traces of measured mean values of daytime (08:00~16:00 LT) SO₂ are shown in (a) and (b) for the BUCT/AHL station and the SORPES station, respectively. Seasonal (c) and monthly (d) variations at both sites are computed by the daytime mean values as well. The heating period in Beijing are depicted by the grey shaded areas in (a) and (c).



1375 **Figure S13. Amplification of survival probability under different GR enhancements and initial diameters.**
 The amplification of SP is defined as the ratio of SP calculated with and without additional GR. (a) The
 frequency distribution of GR contribution of IA to sub-3 nm particle growth at the SORPES. (b) The
 amplification factor distribution of particles growing up to 3 nm with initial GR equals to 1.0 nm/h. (c) The
 amplification factor distribution of particles growing up to 3 nm with initial GR equals to 1.5 nm/h.

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Tables

1390 **Table S1. NPF frequencies at both sites.**

DATE	Beijing				Nanjing			
	NPFs (A+B)	non- NPFs	valid days	frequency	NPFs (A+B)	non- NPFs	valid days	frequency
2019-01	8 (7+1)	13	21	38.1%	-*	-	-	-
2019-02	8 (7+1)	20	28	28.6%	-	-	-	-
2019-03	14 (10+4)	15	29	48.3%	20 (5+15)	11	31	64.5%
2019-04	12 (6+6)	17	29	41.4%	12 (7+5)	18	30	40.0%
2019-05	12 (8+4)	17	29	41.4%	22 (15+7)	9	31	71.0%
2019-06	5 (2+3)	19	24	20.8%	16 (2+14)	14	30	53.3%
2019-07	4 (2+2)	26	30	13.3%	17 (5+12)	12	29	58.6%
2019-08	11 (7+4)	20	31	35.5%	21 (5+16)	10	31	67.7%
2019-09	9 (3+6)	21	30	30.0%	4 (0+4)	6	10	40.0%
2019-10	8 (7+1)	19	27	29.6%	11 (4+7)	3	14	78.6%
2019-11	3 (3+0)	16	19	15.8%	12 (7+5)	13	25	48.0%
2019-12	9 (7+2)	19	28	32.1%	8 (1+7)	17	25	32.0%
2020-01	5 (4+1)	13	18	27.8%	7 (2+5)	23	30	23.3%
2020-02	5 (3+2)	20	25	20.0%	10 (2+8)	19	29	34.5%
2020-03	13 (11+2)	18	31	41.9%	-	-	-	-
2020-04	12 (10+2)	16	28	42.9%	-	-	-	-
2020-05	9 (5+4)	17	26	34.6%	-	-	-	-
2020-06	6 (3+3)	23	29	20.7%	-	-	-	-
2020-07	0 (0+0)	26	26	0.0%	-	-	-	-
2020-08	1 (0+1)	12	13	7.7%	-	-	-	-
2020-09	7 (3+4)	10	17	41.2%	-	-	-	-
2020-10	12 (9+3)	17	29	41.4%	-	-	-	-
2020-11	8 (6+2)	19	27	29.6%	-	-	-	-
2020-12	7 (6+1)	15	22	31.8%	-	-	-	-
2021-01	7 (3+4)	16	23	30.4%	-	-	-	-
2021-02	6 (3+3)	13	19	31.6%	-	-	-	-

DATE	Beijing				Nanjing			
	NPFs (A+B)	non- NPFs	valid days	frequency	NPFs (A+B)	non- NPFs	valid days	frequency
2021-03	10 (5+5)	17	27	37.0%	-	-	-	-
2021-04	6 (4+2)	19	25	24.0%	-	-	-	-
2021-05	11 (9+2)	17	28	39.3%	-	-	-	-
2021-06	6 (4+2)	19	25	24.0%	-	-	-	-
2021-07	0 (0+0)	24	24	0.0%	-	-	-	-
2021-08	4 (2+2)	20	24	16.7%	-	-	-	-
2021-09	2 (1+1)	22	24	8.3%	-	-	-	-
2021-10	9 (5+4)	14	23	39.1%	-	-	-	-
Total	249	609	858	29.0%	160	155	315	50.8%

Note: * represents the missing data.

Table S2. The GR contributions and SP enhancements of HIO₃ to particles in the size range between 1.5 nm to 3 nm on each NPF event days in Beijing based on APT-x.

Date	CoagS _{1.5}	GR _{<3}	GR _{H2SO4}	P1*	GR _{<3} - GR _{HIO3}	P2*	GR contribution	SP _{1.5-3} EF
20190818	2.21E-03	1.11	1.38	2.64E-03	1.07	2.16E-03	3.3%	22.2%
20190823	3.13E-03	3.01	1.63	4.57E-02	2.99	4.49E-02	0.5%	1.7%
20190830	1.91E-03	6.22	1.26	4.01E-01	6.17	3.99E-01	0.7%	0.7%
20210525	1.40E-03	2.98	0.66	2.49E-01	2.94	2.45E-01	1.2%	1.8%
20210526	3.58E-03	3.17	1.30	3.51E-02	3.08	3.20E-02	2.7%	9.8%
20210529	1.00E-03	0.68	0.54	1.26E-02	0.60	6.75E-03	12.5%	86.5%
20210619	1.30E-03	7.10	1.06	5.80E-01	7.05	5.78E-01	0.6%	0.3%
20210620	1.64E-03	3.92	1.11	2.90E-01	3.85	2.84E-01	1.9%	2.4%
20210621	4.81E-03	1.50	2.33	7.33E-05	1.33	2.18E-05	11.3%	236.2%
20210802	1.01E-03	2.11	1.02	2.41E-01	1.73	1.77E-01	17.9%	36.2%
20210827	2.51E-03	0.86	2.25	1.69E-04	0.55	1.40E-06	35.5%	11921.9%

20210929 2.43E-03 1.84 1.09 1.98E-02 1.79 1.77E-02 2.7% 11.8%

1395

Note: P1 represents the survival probability calculated from measured GR; P2 represents the survival probability calculated from measured GR subtracted by GR contributed from HIO₃ concentration solely. Meanings of P1 and P2 in following Tables (Table S3~S7) are identical with them in this table.

Table S3. The GR contributions and SP enhancements of HIO₃ to particles in the size range between 1.5 nm to 3 nm on each NPF event days in Beijing based on APT-y.

Date	CoagS _{1.5}	GR _{1.5-3}	GR _{H2SO4}	P1	GR _{1.5-3} - GR _{HIO3}	P2	GR _{1.5-3} contributions	SP _{1.5-3} EF
20190818	2.21E-03	1.80	1.38	2.61E-02	1.76	2.42E-02	2.0%	7.8%
20190823	3.13E-03	4.66	1.63	1.36E-01	4.64	1.35E-01	0.4%	0.7%
20190830	1.91E-03	8.40	1.26	5.09E-01	8.36	5.07E-01	0.5%	0.4%
20210525	1.40E-03	3.30	0.66	2.85E-01	3.26	2.81E-01	1.1%	1.4%
20210526	3.58E-03	5.13	1.30	1.26E-01	5.04	1.22E-01	1.7%	3.6%
20210529	1.00E-03	0.70	0.54	1.45E-02	0.62	8.08E-03	12.0%	78.9%
20210619	1.30E-03	8.38	1.06	6.30E-01	8.33	6.29E-01	0.5%	0.2%
20210620	1.64E-03	4.64	1.11	3.51E-01	4.56	3.46E-01	1.6%	1.7%
20210621	4.81E-03	1.92	2.33	6.07E-04	1.76	2.97E-04	8.8%	104.1%
20210802	1.01E-03	4.30	1.02	4.98E-01	3.92	4.65E-01	8.8%	6.9%
20210827	2.51E-03	1.11	2.25	1.23E-03	0.81	9.85E-05	27.4%	1151.9%
20210929	2.43E-03	2.87	1.09	8.12E-02	2.82	7.76E-02	1.8%	4.7%

1400

Table S4. The GR contributions and SP enhancements of HIO₃ to particles in the size range between 1.5 nm to 3 nm on each NPF event days in Beijing based on MOD.

Date	CoagS _{1.5}	GR _{1.5-3}	GR _{H2SO4}	P1	GR _{1.5-3} - GR _{HIO3}	P2	GR _{1.5-3} contributions	SP _{1.5-3} EF
20190830	1.91E-03	3.64	1.26	2.10E-01	3.59	2.06E-01	1.2%	2.0%
20210525	1.40E-03	0.84	0.66	7.30E-03	0.80	5.83E-03	4.4%	25.2%
20210526	3.58E-03	2.22	1.30	8.45E-03	2.14	6.98E-03	3.9%	21.1%
20210529	1.00E-03	0.90	0.54	3.73E-02	0.82	2.65E-02	9.4%	40.5%
20210619	1.30E-03	1.50	1.06	7.64E-02	1.46	7.10E-02	2.8%	7.7%

Date	CoagS _{1.5}	GR _{1.5-3}	GR _{H₂SO₄}	P1	GR _{1.5-3} - GR _{HIO₃}	P2	GR _{1.5-3} contributions	SP _{1.5-3} EF
20210620	1.64E-03	1.00	1.11	7.78E-03	0.93	5.29E-03	7.4%	47.1%
20210621	4.81E-03	1.93	2.33	6.14E-04	1.76	3.01E-04	8.8%	103.7%
20210802	1.01E-03	1.40	1.02	1.18E-01	1.03	5.40E-02	26.8%	118.8%
20210827	2.51E-03	2.20	2.25	3.40E-02	1.90	1.97E-02	13.8%	72.1%

1405 **Table S5. The GR contributions and SP enhancements of HIO₃ to particles in the size range between 3 nm to 7 nm on each NPF event days in Beijing based on APT-x.**

Date	CoagS ₃	GR ₃₋₇	P1	GR ₃₋₇ - GR _{HIO₃}	P2	GR ₃₋₇ contributions	SP ₃₋₇ EF
20190818	7.40E-04	2.62	0.142	2.58	0.138	1.4%	2.8%
20190823	8.50E-04	5.83	0.365	5.79	0.363	0.6%	0.6%
20190828	2.39E-04	5.54	0.743	5.45	0.739	1.6%	0.5%
20190830	5.42E-04	5.87	0.529	5.82	0.526	1.0%	0.6%
20190914	7.19E-04	2.34	0.121	2.27	0.112	3.2%	7.3%
20190918	2.96E-04	2.15	0.387	2.11	0.380	1.7%	1.6%
20190924	5.89E-04	7.64	0.587	7.60	0.585	0.6%	0.3%
20200524	3.56E-04	3.61	0.506	3.39	0.485	5.9%	4.4%
20200526	2.92E-04	4.79	0.656	4.68	0.650	2.3%	1.0%
20200527	3.17E-04	15.24	0.866	15.03	0.864	1.4%	0.2%
20200614	1.48E-04	2.03	0.606	1.93	0.589	5.2%	2.8%
20200902	1.27E-03	2.96	0.051	2.89	0.048	2.3%	7.3%
20200903	1.62E-05	9.97	0.989	9.87	0.989	1.0%	0.1%
20210525	3.87E-04	4.60	0.559	4.57	0.557	0.7%	0.4%
20210526	9.44E-04	10.91	0.550	10.82	0.548	0.9%	0.5%
20210529	3.50E-04	0.55	0.013	0.46	0.006	16.3%	133.6%
20210619	3.90E-04	5.14	0.592	5.09	0.589	1.0%	0.5%
20210620	5.04E-04	7.42	0.626	7.36	0.623	0.8%	0.4%

Date	CoagS ₃	GR ₃₋₇	P1	GR ₃₋₇ - GR _{HIO₃}	P2	GR ₃₋₇ contributions	SP ₃₋₇ EF
20210621	1.35E-03	3.68	0.080	3.50	0.070	5.1%	14.6%
20210622	9.37E-04	5.82	0.329	5.66	0.319	2.8%	3.2%
20210802	3.30E-04	5.00	0.634	4.74	0.618	5.4%	2.6%
20210827	7.29E-04	4.57	0.332	4.29	0.309	6.2%	7.5%
20210929	6.02E-04	10.17	0.665	10.11	0.663	0.6%	0.3%

Table S6. The GR contributions and SP enhancements of HIO₃ to particles in the size range between 3 nm to 7 nm on each NPF event days in Beijing based on APT-y.

Date	CoagS ₃	GR ₃₋₇	P1	GR ₃₋₇ - GR _{HIO₃}	P2	GR ₃₋₇ contributions	SP ₃₋₇ EF
20190818	7.40E-04	2.66	0.147	2.63	0.143	1.4%	2.7%
20190823	8.50E-04	5.87	0.368	5.84	0.366	0.6%	0.6%
20190828	2.39E-04	5.68	0.748	5.59	0.745	1.6%	0.5%
20190830	5.42E-04	5.91	0.531	5.85	0.527	1.0%	0.6%
20190914	7.19E-04	3.41	0.233	3.33	0.226	2.2%	3.4%
20190918	2.96E-04	2.18	0.392	2.15	0.386	1.7%	1.6%
20190924	5.89E-04	8.69	0.626	8.65	0.625	0.5%	0.2%
20200524	3.56E-04	3.81	0.525	3.60	0.505	5.6%	3.9%
20200526	2.92E-04	4.97	0.666	4.86	0.660	2.2%	0.9%
20200527	3.17E-04	16.19	0.874	15.98	0.872	1.3%	0.2%
20200614	1.48E-04	2.06	0.609	1.95	0.593	5.2%	2.8%
20200902	1.27E-03	3.27	0.068	3.20	0.064	2.1%	6.0%
20200903	1.62E-05	13.44	0.992	13.35	0.992	0.7%	0.1%
20210525	3.87E-04	5.75	0.628	5.72	0.627	0.6%	0.3%
20210526	9.44E-04	14.11	0.630	14.02	0.628	0.7%	0.3%
20210529	3.50E-04	0.89	0.066	0.80	0.049	10.2%	36.1%
20210619	3.90E-04	5.19	0.595	5.14	0.592	1.0%	0.5%

Date	CoagS ₃	GR ₃₋₇	P1	GR ₃₋₇ - GR _{HIO₃}	P2	GR ₃₋₇ contributions	SP ₃₋₇ EF
20210620	5.04E-04	7.45	0.627	7.39	0.625	0.8%	0.4%
20210621	1.35E-03	3.78	0.085	3.59	0.075	5.0%	13.8%
20210622	9.37E-04	5.98	0.339	5.82	0.329	2.7%	3.0%
20210802	3.30E-04	5.13	0.642	4.86	0.626	5.2%	2.5%
20210827	7.29E-04	4.86	0.355	4.57	0.333	5.8%	6.6%
20210929	6.02E-04	11.06	0.687	11.00	0.685	0.6%	0.2%

1410 **Table S7. The GR contributions and SP enhancements of HIO₃ to particles in the size range between 3 nm to 7 nm on each NPF event days in Beijing based on MOD.**

Date	CoagS ₃	GR ₃₋₇	P1	GR ₃₋₇ - GR _{HIO₃}	P2	GR ₃₋₇ contributions	SP ₃₋₇ EF
20190818	7.40E-04	2.75	0.156	2.71	0.152	1.3%	2.5%
20190823	8.50E-04	3.55	0.192	3.52	0.189	1.0%	1.6%
20190828	2.39E-04	3.56	0.630	3.47	0.622	2.5%	1.2%
20190830	5.42E-04	3.49	0.342	3.43	0.336	1.6%	1.8%
20190914	7.19E-04	2.99	0.190	2.91	0.182	2.5%	4.4%
20190918	2.96E-04	4.51	0.636	4.47	0.633	0.8%	0.4%
20190924	5.89E-04	3.13	0.273	3.09	0.268	1.3%	1.8%
20200524	3.56E-04	2.41	0.361	2.20	0.327	8.9%	10.4%
20200526	2.92E-04	2.95	0.505	2.84	0.491	3.7%	2.7%
20200527	3.17E-04	1.13	0.145	0.92	0.092	19.1%	57.6%
20200614	1.48E-04	2.46	0.660	2.35	0.648	4.3%	1.9%
20200902	1.27E-03	3.48	0.080	3.41	0.076	2.0%	5.2%
20200903	1.62E-05	4.32	0.974	4.22	0.974	2.3%	0.1%
20210525	3.87E-04	1.69	0.205	1.66	0.199	1.9%	3.1%
20210526	9.44E-04	4.43	0.229	4.33	0.222	2.1%	3.2%
20210529	3.50E-04	2.06	0.310	1.97	0.294	4.4%	5.5%

Date	CoagS ₃	GR ₃₋₇	P1	GR ₃₋₇ - GR _{HIO3}	P2	GR ₃₋₇ contributions	SP ₃₋₇ EF
20210619	3.90E-04	3.90	0.501	3.84	0.496	1.3%	0.9%
20210620	5.04E-04	1.83	0.149	1.77	0.140	3.1%	6.2%
20210621	1.35E-03	1.93	0.008	1.74	0.005	9.7%	68.5%
20210622	9.37E-04	2.54	0.078	2.38	0.066	6.3%	18.7%
20210802	3.30E-04	1.82	0.286	1.55	0.230	14.8%	24.3%
20210827	7.29E-04	2.20	0.102	1.92	0.073	12.8%	39.9%
20210929	6.02E-04	1.89	0.111	1.83	0.103	3.3%	7.8%

Table S8. NPF event day identified at SORPES and the contribution to growth of two acids in different size ranges and the ratio in each case.

DATE	GR _{1.5-3} (IA)	GR _{1.5-3} (SA)	Ratio _{1.5-3}
2019-06-17	0.15	2.39	6.1%
2019-06-21	0.15	2.14	6.8%
2019-07-03	0.39	2.65	14.6%
2019-07-11	0.26	2.97	8.6%
2019-07-13	0.16	2.06	7.5%
2019-07-19	0.13	1.33	10.0%
2019-07-30	0.09	2.83	3.3%
2019-08-09	0.05	3.50	1.4%
2019-08-16	0.19	2.45	7.9%
2019-08-17	0.09	2.93	3.2%
2019-08-18	0.40	2.80	14.5%
2019-08-27	0.13	1.05	12.8%
2019-10-21	0.09	1.02	8.4%
2019-10-23	0.28	2.19	12.6%
2019-10-26	0.14	1.28	10.7%
2019-10-31	0.04	2.01	2.1%
2019-11-01	0.11	2.75	3.9%
2019-11-05	0.06	2.06	2.9%
2019-11-10	0.04	0.91	4.0%
2019-11-11	0.03	1.26	2.4%
2019-11-14	0.03	0.89	2.8%
2019-11-19	0.02	1.01	2.4%
2019-11-20	0.08	1.64	4.8%

Table S9. NPF event day identified at SORPES and the contribution to particle survival probability of two acids in different size ranges and the enhancement of survival probability in each case.

DATE	SP _{1.5-3} (SA)	SP _{1.5-3} (SA+IA)	SP _{1.5-3} EF
2019-06-17	-	-	-
2019-06-21	1.13E-03	1.75E-03	54.3%
2019-07-03	4.16E-03	8.34E-03	100.7%
2019-07-11	7.26E-03	1.07E-02	47.6%
2019-07-13	2.16E-03	3.32E-03	53.8%
2019-07-19	1.40E-02	2.07E-02	47.5%
2019-07-30	9.56E-03	1.11E-02	15.9%
2019-08-09	8.80E-02	9.10E-02	3.4%
2019-08-16	3.15E-03	4.80E-03	52.7%
2019-08-17	5.84E-04	7.37E-04	26.3%
2019-08-18	2.27E-02	3.66E-02	61.4%
2019-08-27	3.24E-03	6.20E-03	97.7%
2019-10-21	-	-	-
2019-10-23	-	-	-
2019-10-26	6.06E-04	1.24E-03	104.9%
2019-10-31	1.10E-05	1.39E-05	25.8%
2019-11-01	9.15E-03	1.09E-02	19.1%
2019-11-05	1.32E-04	1.70E-04	29.1%
2019-11-10	-	-	-
2019-11-11	-	-	-
2019-11-14	-	-	-
2019-11-19	-	-	-
2019-11-20	-	-	-

Data availability. Measurement data at the AHL/BUCT and SORPES station, including acids

1420 concentration data, trace gas and aerosol data and meteorological data, are available upon request from the corresponding authors before the relevant databases are open to the public.

Author contributions. WN and XCH designed the research. YZ, CD, YG, YL, CH, TL and ZW

1425 conducted the measurements at the AHL/BUCT station. DL, YL, CL, LC, YL, LW and XC conducted the measurements at the SORPES station. YZ, DL, XCH, WN, CD, RC, YL, YG, TP, FB, XQ, PP, YL, CY, JJ, AD and MK analyzed the data and interpreted the results. YZ, DL, XCH and WN prepared the manuscript with contributions from all co-authors.

Competing interests. The authors have no competing interests to declare.

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