

1 The Role of Naphthalene and Its Derivatives in the
2 Formation of Secondary Organic Aerosols in the
3 Yangtze River Delta Region, China

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18 **Abstract.** Naphthalene (Nap) and its derivatives, including 1-methylnaphthalene (1-MN) and 2-
19 methylnaphthalene (2-MN), serve as prominent intermediate volatile organic compounds (IVOCs)
20 contributing to the formation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA). In this study, the Community
21 Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model coupled with detailed emissions and reactions of these
22 compounds was utilized to examine their roles in the formation of SOA and other secondary
23 pollutants in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region during summer. Significant underestimations
24 of Nap and MN concentrations (by 79% and 85%) were observed at the Taizhou site based on the
25 model results using the default emissions. Constrained by the observations, anthropogenic
26 emissions of Nap and MN in the entire region were multiplied by 5 and 7, respectively, to better
27 capture the evolution of pollutants. The average concentration of Nap reached 25 ppt in the YRD,
28 with Nap contributing 4.1% and 8.1% (up to 12.6%) of total aromatic emissions and aromatic-
29 derived secondary organic carbon (SOC), respectively. The concentrations of 1-MN and 2-MN
30 were relatively low, averaging at 2 ppt and 5 ppt. Together, they accounted for only 2.4% of the
31 aromatic-derived SOC. The impacts of Nap and MN oxidation on ozone and radicals were
32 insignificant at regional scales but were not negligible when considering daily fluctuations in
33 locations with high emissions of Nap and MN. This study highlights the significant roles of Nap
34 and MN in the formation of SOA, which may pose environmental risks and adverse health effects.

35 **1 Introduction**

36 Secondary organic aerosols (SOA) are formed from the condensation and multiphase
37 evolution of less volatile organic compounds (VOCs), which can be directly emitted or produced
38 from the oxidation of higher volatile organics in the atmosphere. SOA not only affects visibility
39 and human health but also exerts direct effects on the climate by absorbing and reflecting solar
40 radiation, as well as indirect effects by influencing cloud formation (Chen et al., 2016; Zhang and

41 Ying, 2012). Semi-volatile and intermediate-volatile organic compounds (S/IVOCs) have been
42 identified as the key precursors of SOA (Robinson et al., 2007; Hu et al., 2022). IVOCs are
43 categorized by small polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAHs), intermediate-length alkanes (e.g.
44 n-hexadecane), and phenols(Pye and Seinfeld, 2010). PAHs are organic compounds containing
45 multiple aromatic rings. In 2004, China exhibited the highest annual PAH emissions (114 Gg)
46 globally, accounting for 22% of the total emissions worldwide (Zhang and Tao, 2009).
47 Naphthalene (Nap) and methylnaphthalene (MN), such as 1-methylnaphthalene (1-MN) and 2-
48 methylnaphthalene (2-MN), are the most abundant airborne PAHs (Chen et al., 2016; Fang et al.,
49 2021), primarily emitted from combustion of fossil fuels, biomass burning, and industrial sectors
50 (Fang et al., 2021).

51 Chamber studies have identified the gas- and particle-phase products from Nap reacting with
52 hydroxyl radicals ($\text{OH}\cdot$) (Huang et al., 2019). Ring-retaining products (such as 1,4-
53 naphthoquinone) with lower volatilities dominate under conditions of low nitrogen oxides (NO_x),
54 and ring-opening products (such as 2-formyl cinnamaldehyde) with higher volatilities dominate in
55 the presence of high NO_x . Chan et al. (2009) evaluated the SOA yields of Nap, 1-MN, 2-MN, and
56 1,2-dimethyl naphthalene in chambers to estimate SOA formation from primary emissions of
57 diesel engines and wood burning. It was found that SOA is more efficiently produced under low-
58 NO_x conditions than high- NO_x conditions, with yields of 55–75% and 25–45%, respectively, at a
59 total organic aerosol loading of $15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. During photo-oxidation of less than 12 h, these PAHs
60 produced 3–5 times more SOA than light aromatic compounds, accounting for up to 54% of the
61 total SOA from the oxidation of diesel emissions. Huang et al. (2019) applied a tracer method to
62 determine that 14.9% of SOA was attributed to the oxidation of Nap and MN in the afternoon
63 during wintertime haze in Beijing. Shakya and Griffin (2010) also reported $37\text{--}162 \text{ kg day}^{-1}$ of

64 SOA production from the mobile source emitted PAHs (including Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN) in
65 Houston, based on the yields from their study and that of Chan et al. (2009). By adopting the SOA
66 yields from Shakya and Griffin (2010), Liu et al. (2015) showed that Nap accounted for 8–52% of
67 the total SOA derived from benzene, toluene, C2-benzene, C3-benzene, C4-benzene, and Nap in
68 exhaust emissions from light-duty gasoline vehicles. All these experimental findings demonstrate
69 the significant role of Nap and MN in SOA formation in environments dominated by
70 anthropogenic influences. However, these results might not accurately reflect the actual
71 atmospheric conditions due to the simplicity of reaction conditions and the limited precursors
72 involved in chamber studies (Ling et al., 2022).

73 Numerical models have been developed and utilized to assess the contribution of S/IVOCs to
74 SOA (Hayes et al., 2015; Pye and Seinfeld, 2010; An et al., 2023). Zhang and Ying (2011) showed
75 that PAHs emitted from anthropogenic sources could produce SOA mass as much as 10% of that
76 from the traditional light aromatics or approximately 4% of the total anthropogenic SOA by using
77 the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model. However, the SOA products of several
78 PAH species such as Nap and MN were lumped together due to limited experimental data for
79 explicit parameterization. Pye and Pouliot (2012) assumed that 10% of ARO2 (lumped aromatic
80 species) reacted with OH[·] to represent SOA formation from PAHs in the CMAQ model, using
81 Nap as a surrogate for parameterization, without considering individual PAH's emissions and OH[·]
82 reactivity. According to Cohan et al. (2013), the modeled SOA increased by roughly 1–10% when
83 Nap emissions from on-road gasoline and diesel vehicles were considered. Their simulations
84 showed a lower limit in the SOA production from Nap due to underestimations in the emission
85 inventory in the South Coast Air Basin of California. Majdi et al. (2019) found that Nap and MN
86 contributed 2.4% of the total organic aerosol (OA) originating from wildfires over the Euro-

87 Mediterranean region during the summer of 2007 by using a 3D chemical transport model (CTM).

88 The contributions of Nap and MN to SOA at regional scales in China had not been quantified.

89 In this study, SOA formation from Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD)

90 region during the EXPLORE-YRD (EXPeriment on the eLucidation of the atmospheric Oxidation

91 capacity and aerosol foRmation and their Effects in the Yangtze River Delta) campaign period

92 (May 20 – June 18, 2018) was investigated by using an updated CMAQ model that incorporated

93 explicit SOA schemes for these PAHs. Emission inventories of Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN were

94 estimated based on different sources and methods and validated against observations. After that,

95 the influences of Nap and MN on secondary organic carbon (SOC), ozone (O_3), and radical

96 concentrations were examined in locations with high levels of Nap and MN as well as at the

97 regional scale. The newly added SOA parameterizations for 1-MN and 2-MN were fitted by both

98 two-product and one-product methods to compare the differences. We found that Nap and its

99 derivatives, although accounting for a small fraction of emitted aromatics (5.1%), contributed 10.4%

100 of aromatic-derived SOC in the YRD.

101 **2 Methods**

102 **2.1 Modified SOA formation pathways of MN**

103 The CMAQ model version 5.2, coupled with the SAPRC07tic atmospheric chemical

104 mechanism and the AERO6i aerosol module, was updated to include the oxidation of 1-MN and

105 2-MN by $OH\cdot$ and the corresponding SOA formation pathways. In the original CMAQ model, Nap

106 reacts with $OH\cdot$ to form SOA under high- and low- NO_x conditions, represented by two different

107 counter species PAHNRXN and PAHHRXN, respectively (Fig. 1a). Similar to Nap, 1-MN, and

108 2-MN were explicitly treated as reacting with $OH\cdot$ and forming SOA counter species under high

109 NO_x (aMPAHRXN and bMPAHRXN) and low NO_x (aMPAHRXN and bMPAHRXN),

110 along with other products following Zhang and Ying (2012). These counter species were used to
111 calculate the production of SOA through gas-particle partitioning based on yields (α_i) and
112 partitioning coefficients ($K_{om,i}$, $m^3 \mu\text{g}^{-1}$) of condensable organic products derived from chamber
113 experiment data. Details of gas-particle partitioning for fitting SOA formation using one-product
114 and two-product methods are described in the Supplement.

115 In the original CMAQ model, a two-product method (SV_PAH1 and SV_PAH2) was used to
116 represent the SOA formation from Nap under high- NO_x conditions, denoted as APAH1J and
117 APAH2J, respectively (Fig. 1a). Under low- NO_x conditions, a one-product method was used to
118 represent the SOA formation from Nap, denoted as APAH3J. It was assumed that APAH3J (with
119 a yield of α_3) was non-volatile and resided in the particle phase. Similar to Nap, a two-product
120 method for the SOA formation from 1-MN under high- NO_x conditions was added as shown in Fig.
121 1b, with the SOA species denoted as AaMPAH1J and AaMPAH2J. Additionally, a one-product
122 method characterizing the SOA formation from 1-MN under high- NO_x conditions was applied to
123 compare differences caused by different fitting approaches. As shown in Fig. 1c, the semi-volatile
124 organic product SV_aMPAH1' undergoes equilibrium partitioning to form SOA (AaMPAH1J').
125 Under low- NO_x conditions, a non-volatile SOA product AaMPAH3J is formed through oxidation
126 of 1-MN. The SOA scheme of 2-MN followed that of 1-MN with corresponding products
127 AbMPAH1J and AbMPAH2J (or AbMPAH1J') under high- NO_x conditions and AbMPAH3J
128 under low- NO_x conditions, respectively. Moreover, all semi-volatile SOA products originating
129 from MN undergo condensed-phase oligomerization reactions at the same rate as APAH1J and
130 APAH2J, generating anthropogenic non-volatile oligomers (AOLGAJ). Other processes and
131 parameters involved in the newly added SOA pathways for 1-MN and 2-MN, such as the dry and
132 wet deposition and the molecular weight of the oxidation products, were set to be the same as Nap

133 due to limited experimental data. Details of all the parameters, i.e., α_i , $K_{\text{om},i}$, and $\Delta H_{\text{vap},i}$ are
134 summarized in Table S1.

135 **2.2 Model application**

136 The simulation domain, which covers Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Anhui, Shanghai, and neighboring
137 provinces, has a horizontal resolution of $4 \text{ km} \times 4 \text{ km}$ (238×268 grids) and a vertical structure of
138 18 layers as shown in Fig. S1. Details of the domain setup can be found in previous studies (Li et
139 al., 2022; Li et al., 2021). The meteorological field was predicted by the Weather Research and
140 Forecasting (WRF) model version 4.0 with the ECMWF Reanalysis v5.0 (ERA5) reanalysis data
141 as inputs. More details about the WRF configuration have been summarized by Wang et al. (2021).
142 A spin-up of two days was used to minimize the influence of initial conditions.

143 Biogenic emissions were generated from the Model for Emissions of Gases and Aerosols
144 from Nature (MEGAN) version 2.1 (Guenther et al., 2012). Open biomass burning emissions were
145 based on the Fire INventory from the National Center for Atmospheric Research (FINN)
146 (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011). Anthropogenic emissions were generated from the updated 2017
147 emission inventory for the YRD (Cheng et al., 2021) and the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory
148 for China (MEIC, <http://www.meicmodel.org>, last access: 1 June 2023) for the rest of the domain.
149 Currently, there is a lack of localized source profiles in China, particularly regarding Nap and MN.
150 These data were obtained from the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency's (EPA's) repository
151 of organic gas and particulate matter (PM) speciation profiles of air pollution sources
152 (SPECIATEv5.2) along with the source information reported by An et al. (2021) and Li et al.
153 (2014). Relevant details of emission calculations can be found in the Supplement. There are two
154 sets of emission data consisting of different Nap and MN emissions. The emis-orig used the
155 original Nap emissions from the 2017 YRD inventory as well as the calculated Nap emissions in

156 the rest of the domain and MN emissions in the entire domain. We show later that Nap and MN
157 were underestimated and required an adjustment in their emissions to capture the observed
158 concentrations. Considering their predominantly anthropogenic origin, their anthropogenic
159 emissions in the entire region from emis-orig were multiplied by 5 and 7 respectively in the emis-
160 adjust case. All the emission ratios applied in this study are shown in Table S2. According to Fig.
161 S2, Nap and MN emissions were mainly located in Shanghai, southern Jiangsu, and parts of
162 Zhejiang. After adjustments, the total emission rate of Nap and MN in the YRD region in emis-
163 adjust ($85.0 \text{ tons day}^{-1}$) was approximately 4 times higher than that in emis-orig ($18.2 \text{ tons day}^{-1}$).
164 The total MN emission rate in the YRD region in emis-adjust was $20.3 \text{ tons day}^{-1}$, lower than that
165 of Nap. For emis-adjust, the dominant source of MN was residential-related (47.0%), followed by
166 industry process (25.8%) and on-road transportation (20.8%). Among all sources, on-road
167 transportation contributed the most to Nap emissions in both emis-orig (78.2%) and emis-adjust
168 (87.5%). It should be noted that uncertainties associated with the emission inventory and source
169 profiles, which are based on sector-specific mass ratios presented in Table S2, may potentially
170 affect both the distribution and source contributions of Nap and MN.

171 Table 1 lists the scenarios conducted in this study. In case-1product-orig, the anthropogenic
172 emissions were based on emis-orig, along with the SOA parameterization for MN fitted by a one-
173 product method in Fig. 1c and that of Nap fitted by a two-product method in Fig. 1a under high-
174 NO_x conditions. To assess the impacts of different SOA parameterizations, case-2products-orig
175 adopted the same setting as case-1product-orig except for utilizing a two-product method for MN-
176 derived SOA under high- NO_x conditions (Fig. 1b). For accurate representations of the fate of Nap
177 and MN in the atmosphere, both case-1product and case-2products employed adjusted emissions
178 (emis-adjust) along with different SOA parameterizations for MN. SOA formation from Nap and

179 MN under low- NO_x conditions in the above cases were all characterized by a fixed yield as shown
180 in Table S1. Overall, the contributions of Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN to the aromatic SOC were
181 estimated based on different emission inventories and SOA schemes. To evaluate the effects of
182 Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN on O_3 , SOC, and radical concentrations, their emissions in case-1 product
183 were set to zero and named base_zeroNapMN. A case named base_zeroMN was conducted to
184 quantify the individual effects of Nap and MN by setting the emissions of 1-MN and 2-MN to zero.

185 **2.3 Observation data for model validation**

186 In May-June 2018, the EXPLORE-YRD field campaign was launched at a rural site in
187 Taizhou (32.558°N, 119.994°E) and simultaneously monitored VOCs (including Nap and MN),
188 O_3 , NO_x , organic carbon (OC), OH^\cdot , hydroperoxy radical (HO_2^\cdot), and other various pollutants,
189 which provides a good opportunity for model validation and understanding the evolution of air
190 pollution in the YRD (Wang et al., 2020a; Huang et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2021; Gao et al., 2022).
191 Details of the measurement method and accuracy for each species refer to these references. The
192 simulated daily maximum 8-hour average (MDA8) O_3 , fine particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$), sulfur
193 dioxide (SO_2), nitrogen dioxide (NO_2), and carbon monoxide (CO) were also compared with the
194 observations from the National Real-Time Urban Air Quality Release Platform of the China
195 Environmental Monitoring Center (<http://106.37.208.233:20035/>, last access on May 17, 2023) in
196 Suzhou, Nanjing, Hangzhou, Hefei, and Shanghai cities as shown in Fig. S1. The statistical metrics
197 including normalized mean bias (NMB), normalized mean error (NME), and correlation
198 coefficient (r) were calculated for several air pollution species. The benchmarks for model
199 performance followed the recommendations by Emery et al. (2017) and are listed in Table S3. The
200 meteorological parameters predicted by WRF have been examined to be robust during the same
201 episode by Wang et al. (2021).

202 **3 Results**

203 **3.1 Model validation**

204 Figure 2 and Fig. S3 show the comparison of observed and simulated hourly variations of
205 Nap, MN, O₃, OC, and PM_{2.5} at the Taizhou site during the study period. The concentrations of
206 Nap in case-1product-orig and case-2products-orig were significantly underestimated by 79%
207 compared to the observations. In contrast, emis-adjust better represented the temporal variations
208 of Nap (NMB=0.01, r=0.68) than emis-orig, with the average concentration increasing by a factor
209 of 4 and agreeing well with the observations. The modeled concentration of MN by emis-adjust
210 (14.0 ppt) was also comparable to the observed value (15.0 ppt) and showed a good correlation
211 between the two (r=0.59). For other species, the concentrations of OC and PM_{2.5} were slightly
212 increased in emis-adjust compared to that of emis-orig, although they were underestimated in both
213 scenarios. The NMB and NME of PM_{2.5} satisfied the benchmarks recommended by Emery et al.
214 (2017), while the NMB of MDA8 O₃ exceeded the criteria. Table S4 shows that the concentrations
215 of NO₂ and nitric oxide (NO) were underestimated at the Taizhou site. The simulated OH radicals
216 agreed well with observations while the concentrations of HO₂[·] were underestimated at the
217 Taizhou site (Fig. S4). It should be noted that the influences of different SOA schemes for MN on
218 the aforementioned species are negligible. The predicted concentrations of MDA8 O₃, PM_{2.5}, SO₂,
219 NO₂, and CO in other cities were also examined. Overall, the model agreed well with observations
220 except for a significant underestimation of MAD8 O₃ in Shanghai (Table S3). The results of case-
221 1product and case-2products using emis-adjust as the emission data were superior compared to the
222 cases using emis-orig. These findings will be further discussed in the subsequent analysis.

223 **3.2 Influences of Nap and MN on SOC in Taizhou**

224 Figure 3 depicts the diurnal variations of emissions and concentrations of Nap, 1-MN, and 2-
225 MN, as well as the corresponding SOC products SOC-Nap, SOC-1MN, and SOC-2MN at the
226 Taizhou site in both case-1product and case-2products. The emissions of Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN
227 exhibited a bimodal pattern. For Nap, the bimodal characteristics were the most pronounced,
228 accompanied by two peaks that occurred between 8:00~9:00 and 16:00~17:00, respectively. This
229 is likely attributed to the dominant source of Nap from transportation as described in Sect. 2.2.
230 Nap and MN concentrations were relatively low during the daytime and peaked in the morning
231 and at night. This is caused by the fast photochemical removal and increased dilution during the
232 daytime, along with the facilitated accumulation due to low mixing heights at night (Huang et al.,
233 2019; Cohan et al., 2013). The simulated diurnal variation of Nap agreed well with observations,
234 but the daytime MN concentration was underpredicted as shown in Fig. S5. The concentrations of
235 SOC generated by Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN were high during the daytime, especially from 10:00 to
236 15:00. This is attributed to the removal of Nap and MN by OH radicals to form SOC. The potential
237 removal by nitrate radicals (NO_3) was negligible in this study, leading to a decline in SOC
238 formation at night. Nap-derived SOC was the most abundant, followed by SOC from 2-MN and
239 1-MN. This is attributed to the combined effects of the OH^\cdot reactivity, SOA yields, as well as
240 abundances of the three compounds (Li et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2021). Apart from having the highest
241 emissions, Nap also exhibits greater reactivity with OH^\cdot . Although its SOA yield under high- NO_x
242 conditions is lower than that of MN fitted by the one-product scheme (Fig. S6), its SOA yield
243 under low- NO_x conditions is the highest among the three PAHs (Table S1). Overall, Nap
244 contributed the most to SOC. 2-MN demonstrates higher SOA yields than 1-MN under high- NO_x
245 conditions in both cases, but a lower SOA yield under low- NO_x conditions. Considering the impact
246 of a higher emission rate (Fig. 3a and 3c), 2-MN contributed two times more SOC compared to 1-

247 MN. The SOC generated by MN in case-2products was lower than that in case-1product due to
248 the lower SOA yield applied in case-2products (Fig. S6).

249 Figure 4 shows the contributions of major aromatic species, i.e., Nap, 1-MN, 2-MN, 1,2,4-
250 trimethyl benzene (B124), xylene (MPO), benzene (BENZ), toluene (TOLU), aromatics with k_{OH}
251 (reaction rate constant with OH^{\cdot}) $< 2 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ (ARO1) and ARO2MN' (ARO2 excluding
252 Nap and MN) to the total emissions of aromatics and the aromatic-derived SOC in both case-
253 1product and case-2products at the Taizhou site. Among all the species, ARO2MN', MPO, and
254 B124 showed the largest fraction in emissions, accounting for 58.6%, followed by ARO1 and
255 TOLU (31.8%), and BENZ (6.3%). Nap and MN contributed the least to the total aromatic
256 emissions, with Nap being the most abundant species. The daily average concentrations of SOC
257 produced from all the aromatics were quite similar in case-1product and case-2products, with the
258 values of 101.3 and 100.2 ng m^{-3} , respectively (Fig. S7). The contribution of ARO2MN', MPO,
259 and B124 to the total aromatic-derived SOC was the most significant, ranging from 45.6% to
260 46.2%. Nap indicated a remarkable contribution to SOC, accounting for 8.2–8.3%, despite
261 constituting only 2.6% of the total emitted aromatics. 2-MN was also an important SOC precursor,
262 contributing 1.2–2.0% of the aromatic-derived SOC. 1-MN showed the lowest emissions,
263 accounting for 0.2% of the total aromatic emissions and less than 1.0% of the aromatic-derived
264 SOC. Overall, Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN exhibited the same trait of contributing significantly more
265 to SOC than to precursor emissions, especially for Nap. The total contributions of MN and Nap to
266 SOC were higher than that of BENZ, even though their emissions were significantly lower than
267 BENZ. Similar results were also found in field campaigns conducted in Guangzhou (Fang et al.,
268 2021) and Beijing (Huang et al., 2019) where Nap and MN showed higher contributions.
269 Compared to benzene and other monocyclic aromatics, the oxidation products of Nap and MN are

270 much less volatile and are more efficient at aerosol growth (Wang et al., 2020b). Thus, their
271 considerably higher SOA yields and reactivity with OH[·] lead to an important contribution to SOA
272 formation. We found that 3.3% of aromatic emissions from Nap and derivatives contributed up to
273 10.9% of SOC generated from aromatics at the Taizhou site.

274 **3.3 Regional distributions of Nap and MN and the influences on secondary pollutants**

275 In the YRD, Nap accounted for 4.1% of aromatic emissions and contributed 8.0% and 8.1%
276 of the total SOC generated by aromatics in case-1product and case-2products, respectively (Fig.
277 S8). We found extremely high contributions of Nap-derived SOC in areas with high Nap emissions,
278 reaching up to 12.6% in case-2products. 2-MN contributed 0.6% of the total aromatic emissions
279 and up to 2.5% of the aromatic-derived SOC in case-1product. Among the three PAHs, 1-MN
280 showed the lowest emissions (about 0.4% of the aromatic emissions) and contributed minimally
281 to the regional average SOC (0.4–0.7%). The SOC derived from MN in case-2products was
282 approximately 38% lower than that in case-1product across the entire YRD region (Fig. S9), while
283 minor differences were observed in O₃ and the total SOC between the two cases with different
284 SOA parameterization of MN (Fig. S10). In general, the concentrations of SOC produced by the
285 three PAHs in case-1product were higher than that in case-2products, exhibiting similar spatial
286 distribution patterns in both cases. We will focus on the results from case-1product in the
287 subsequent analysis.

288 Accurate representation of Nap and MN sources and sinks in model simulations is crucial for
289 comprehending the atmospheric oxidation capacity. The relative differences between
290 base_zeroNapMN and case-1product were calculated to evaluate the effects of Nap, 1-MN, and 2-
291 MN on O₃, SOC, and radical concentrations. As shown in Fig. 5a, the SOC concentrations in the
292 YRD increased by approximately 0.9% on average, with the most significant change observed in

293 areas with high emissions of Nap and MN, such as Shanghai and southern Jiangsu Province,
294 reaching up to 1.7%. The impact on O_3 was relatively limited, with a maximum increase of 0.3%,
295 primarily attributed to Nap rather than MN (Fig. S11). Similar to SOC, the spatial distribution of
296 O_3 variations was consistent with that of Nap and MN emissions. By considering the oxidation of
297 Nap and MN in the model, HO_2^\cdot concentration was enhanced across the domain by up to 1.6% (in
298 Shanghai), likely due to the production of HO_2^\cdot through the reaction of Nap and MN with OH^\cdot .
299 However, the variations in OH^\cdot concentration exhibited regional heterogeneity, with a maximum
300 increase of 0.7% in Shanghai and a maximum decrease of 0.3% in Wenzhou. The areas with
301 elevated OH^\cdot coincided with the locations experiencing notable increases in O_3 . As an OH^\cdot source
302 in the troposphere, the photolysis of O_3 produces electronically excited $O(^1D)$ atoms that react with
303 water molecules to form fresh OH^\cdot (Qin et al., 2022; Tan et al., 2019). Moreover, the areas with
304 elevated OH^\cdot also exhibited a significant increase in HO_2^\cdot . HO_2^\cdot can react with O_3 or NO to
305 produce OH^\cdot , thereby offsetting the OH^\cdot consumption by Nap and MN oxidation (Zhu et al., 2020).
306 In the areas with decreased OH^\cdot , the increases of O_3 and HO_2^\cdot were insignificant, resulting in a
307 reduced generation of OH^\cdot to compensate for the OH^\cdot consumption by Nap and MN. Similar to
308 O_3 , variations in OH^\cdot and HO_2^\cdot were primarily influenced by Nap rather than MN (Fig. S11).

309 To avoid obscuring the true magnitude by averaging over the entire episode, daily relative
310 differences of SOC, O_3 , and radicals at the Shanghai and Suzhou sites, which exhibit significant
311 variations, are shown in Fig. 5b and 5c. Overall, the influences of Nap and MN varied daily. At
312 the Shanghai site, the most pronounced effects on OH^\cdot and HO_2^\cdot were observed, with increases of
313 up to 1.9% and 3.8%, respectively. At the Suzhou site, the maximum daily variations of OH^\cdot and
314 HO_2^\cdot (1.5% and 2.9%) were slightly lower than those in Shanghai. However, the daily SOC and
315 O_3 were elevated by up to 3.0% and 1.1% in Suzhou, respectively. It was found that both OH^\cdot and

316 HO₂• displayed bimodal variations at the two sites, with the most pronounced changes of 0.7–1.0%
317 and 1.6–2.2% occurring in the morning, respectively (Fig. S12). The concentrations of SOC and
318 O₃ were elevated in the daytime, reaching peak increments of 2.1–2.3% and 0.4–0.5% at noon.
319 Consequently, the influences of Nap and MN on SOC, O₃, and the atmospheric oxidation capacity
320 were substantial at the daily scale in those regions.

321 **4 Discussion**

322 Our results revealed that the contributions of Nap and MN to the total aromatic emissions
323 were minimal, which were 5.1% in the YRD and 3.3% at the Taizhou site. However, the SOC
324 produced by Nap and MN accounted for 10.4% of the total aromatic-derived SOC in this region
325 and 10.9% at the Taizhou site. Given the overestimation of other aromatic species in the current
326 model (Table S4), the contributions of Nap and MN to aromatic SOC may be underestimated. Yu
327 et al. (2021) demonstrated an augmented fraction of SOC derived from a yield method to that using
328 the EC tracer method after the inclusion of Nap and MN oxidation (from 25.3% to 39.5%) during
329 the same episode at the Taizhou site. That is to say, Nap and MN contribute 35.9% of the total
330 SOC estimated by using the SOA yield multiplied by the consumption of VOCs, which is higher
331 than the value (10.9%) in this study. Other field studies have also found significant SOA formation
332 from Nap and MN among aromatics in the Pearl River Delta region (12.4%) (Fang et al., 2021)
333 and in Beijing during haze days (10.2±1.3%) (Huang et al., 2019), with relatively smaller
334 contributions to emissions of aromatics by less than 2% and 7%, respectively. This study highlights
335 the important roles of Nap and MN, which exhibit high SOA formation potentials with trace
336 amounts emitted into the atmosphere. In addition, the average concentrations of Nap and MN in
337 this study were 25 and 7 ppt during summer over the YRD region (Fig. S9), respectively. Previous
338 studies have confirmed that the concentrations of Nap and MN exhibited a seasonal variation, with

339 maxima in winter and minima in summer, attributed to the increased heating and cooking activities
340 in households during the cold season (Huang et al., 2019; Fang et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2020).
341 Consequently, the ambient concentration of Nap and MN, along with the potential SOA production
342 may be more severe in winter. Cleaner fuel types and household cleaning products are
343 recommended for vehicular and domestic usage.

344 The improvement in simulation and assessment of Nap and MN chemistry is crucial. Firstly,
345 the characterization of Nap and MN from local sources and additional field observations are
346 indispensable to reduce the disparities between the modeled and observed Nap and MN
347 concentrations. Secondly, the SOA parameterizations of Nap and MN, including the enthalpy of
348 vaporization and SOA yields, are derived from limited chamber experiments and require further
349 validation. Previous studies have reported that the SOA yields obtained from chamber studies were
350 contingent on OH· exposure, NO_x levels, relative humidity, and seed particles, which may not
351 represent the actual atmospheric conditions (Yu et al., 2021; Ling et al., 2022). Thirdly, chlorine
352 radicals (Cl), NO₃ radicals, and O₃ also play an important role in the atmospheric reactions of Nap
353 and MN (Wang et al., 2005; Cohan et al., 2013; Riva et al., 2015, 2014; Aleman, 2006), which
354 were missing in the current study due to the lack of parameterization. The formation of gas- and
355 particle-phase products through reactions between Cl atoms and Nap has been confirmed. For
356 instance, chloronaphthalene and chloroacenaphthenone have been identified as potential SOA
357 markers for the Cl-initiated oxidation of Nap in the ambient atmosphere (Riva et al., 2015). As
358 important sources of Cl atoms, abundant nitryl chloride (ClNO₂) and molecular chlorine (Cl₂) are
359 attributed to sea salt, coal combustion, biomass burning (Le Breton et al., 2018), and urban-
360 originated transport (Li et al., 2021; Tham et al., 2014). Consequently, the Cl-initiated SOA
361 formation process may be pronounced in specific regions, such as the marine boundary layer and

362 industrial areas. Using the rate constant of Cl with Nap $((4.22\pm0.46)\times10^{-12})$ (Riva et al., 2014)
363 and corresponding SOA yields (0.91 ± 0.05) (Riva et al., 2015), which is up to three times higher
364 than those determined from OH-initiated oxidation (Chan et al., 2009; Shakya and Griffin, 2010),
365 we estimated the potential SOA formation from the reaction of Nap and Cl atoms via a yield
366 method (Huang et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2021). Assuming a 12-h average daytime OH· concentration
367 of 2×10^6 molecules cm⁻³ and a photooxidation age of 6 h, the SOA generated from Nap oxidation
368 by Cl atoms can reach up to 56% of that from the Nap + OH pathway in highly polluted regions
369 with a Cl/ OH ratio greater than 0.8 (Choi et al., 2020). This suggests that the omission of Cl-
370 initiated chemistry in this study might lead to an underestimation of Nap-derived SOA by
371 approximately 36%. Given the underestimation of anthropogenic chlorine emissions in China
372 (Choi et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021), further studies are recommended to estimate chlorine emissions
373 with finer spatial resolution and the impacts on Nap SOA under atmospherically realistic
374 conditions. Lastly, a precise depiction of Nap and MN chemistry is crucial for gaining a deeper
375 understanding of the health implications of these noxious compounds. The health risks associated
376 with inhalation exposure to outdoor Nap and other PAHs have been assessed by calculating the
377 incremental lifetime cancer risk (ILCR) values in China and the United States (Han et al., 2020;
378 Zhang et al., 2016). Nonetheless, there has been no systematic evaluation of the health risks
379 resulting from exposure to PAH-derived SOA and by-products, despite previous studies verifying
380 the toxicological impacts (e.g. oxidation potential, OP) of Nap-derived SOA (Wang et al., 2018;
381 Tuet et al., 2017a; Tuet et al., 2017b; Lima de Albuquerque et al., 2021). More precise
382 measurements of the OP of different SOA components are needed to evaluate the overall oxidative
383 potentials of ambient SOA. Future studies are needed to develop rational parameterization schemes
384 for assessing the health risks associated with Nap- and MN-derived SOA.

385 **5 Conclusions**

386 In this study, we investigated the impacts of Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN oxidation on the
387 formation of SOC, O₃, and radicals from May 20 to June 18, 2018, in the YRD using a revised
388 CMAQ model and explicit emission inventories. The results of case-1product, using the adjusted
389 emissions (emis-adjust) and a one-product method for fitting MN SOA, best captured the observed
390 evolution of Nap (NMB=0.01) and MN (NMB=-0.07) when compared to the default case (NMB=-
391 0.79 for Nap, NMB=-0.85 for MN). The primary sources of Nap and MN were transportation and
392 residential-related sectors, resulting in a bimodal emission pattern. The concentrations of Nap and
393 MN were lowest during the daytime, peaking in the morning and at night. Their SOC
394 concentrations reached the maximum value during the daytime due to the photooxidation of Nap
395 and MN and boundary layer evolution. Nap, 1-MN, and 2-MN exhibited the same trait of
396 contributing more to aromatic-derived SOC than to emissions of aromatic hydrocarbons,
397 especially for Nap. The average concentration of Nap was 25 ppt in the YRD, accounting for 4.1%
398 and 8.1% (up to 12.6%) of total aromatic emissions and aromatic-derived SOC, respectively. The
399 concentrations of 1-MN and 2-MN were relatively low, with average values of 2 ppt and 5 ppt,
400 respectively, Together, they contributed only 2.4% of the aromatic-derived SOC. At the regional
401 scale, the impacts of Nap and MN oxidation on O₃ and radical concentrations were limited.
402 However, substantial increases still occurred in areas with high Nap and MN emissions, which
403 cannot be ignored. The high SOA formation potentials of Nap and MN and their impacts on
404 secondary pollutants highlight the importance of considering these IVOCs alongside traditional
405 VOCs when implementing air pollution control policies, energy use strategies, and health risks
406 evaluation.

407

408 **Code and data availability**

409 The codes used for all the analyses are available on reasonable request to the corresponding author.

410 All data used in this research are freely available and may be downloaded from the links and cited

411 references given in the methods section.

412 **Author contributions**

413 F.Y., J.L., and J.H. designed the research and conducted the simulations. Y.G., H.W., S.G., and

414 K.L. collected the observation data. J.A. and C.H. provided emission data. F.Y. led data analysis

415 and drafted the main text. J.L., J.H., and M.Q. analyzed the data. All authors contributed to

416 interpreting the results and editing the manuscript.

417 **Competing interests**

418 The authors declare no competing interests.

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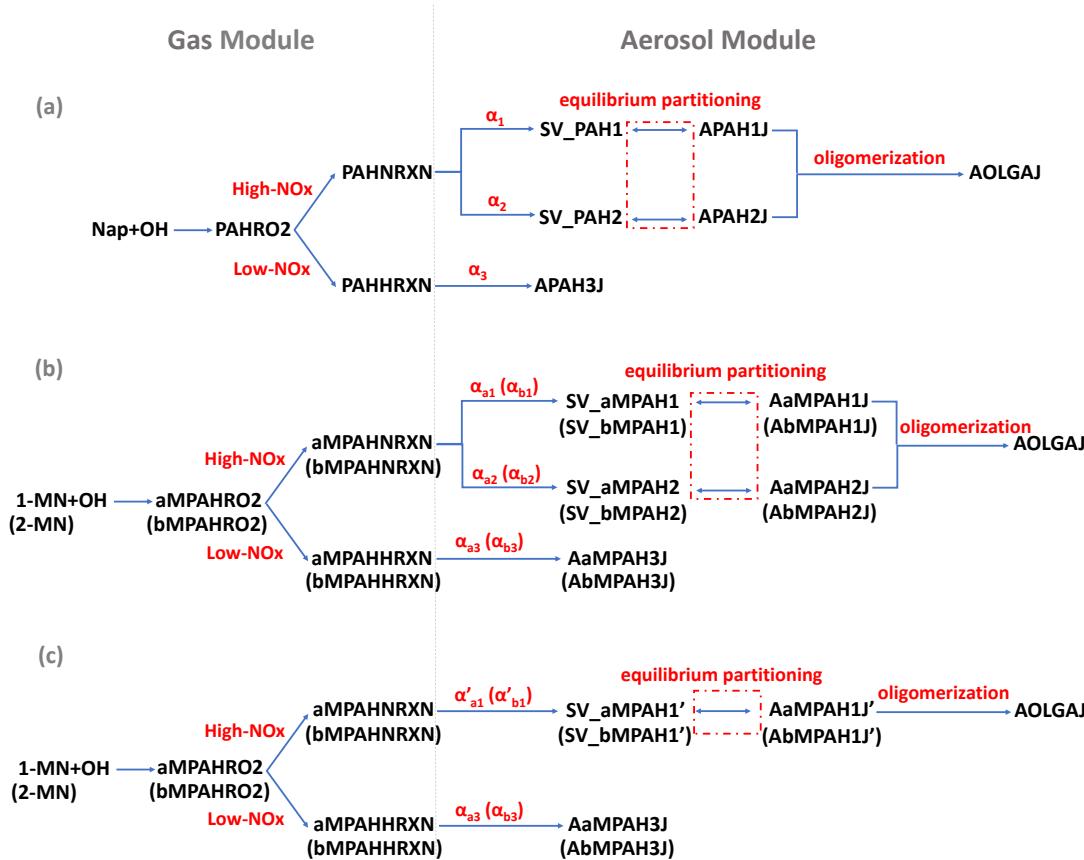
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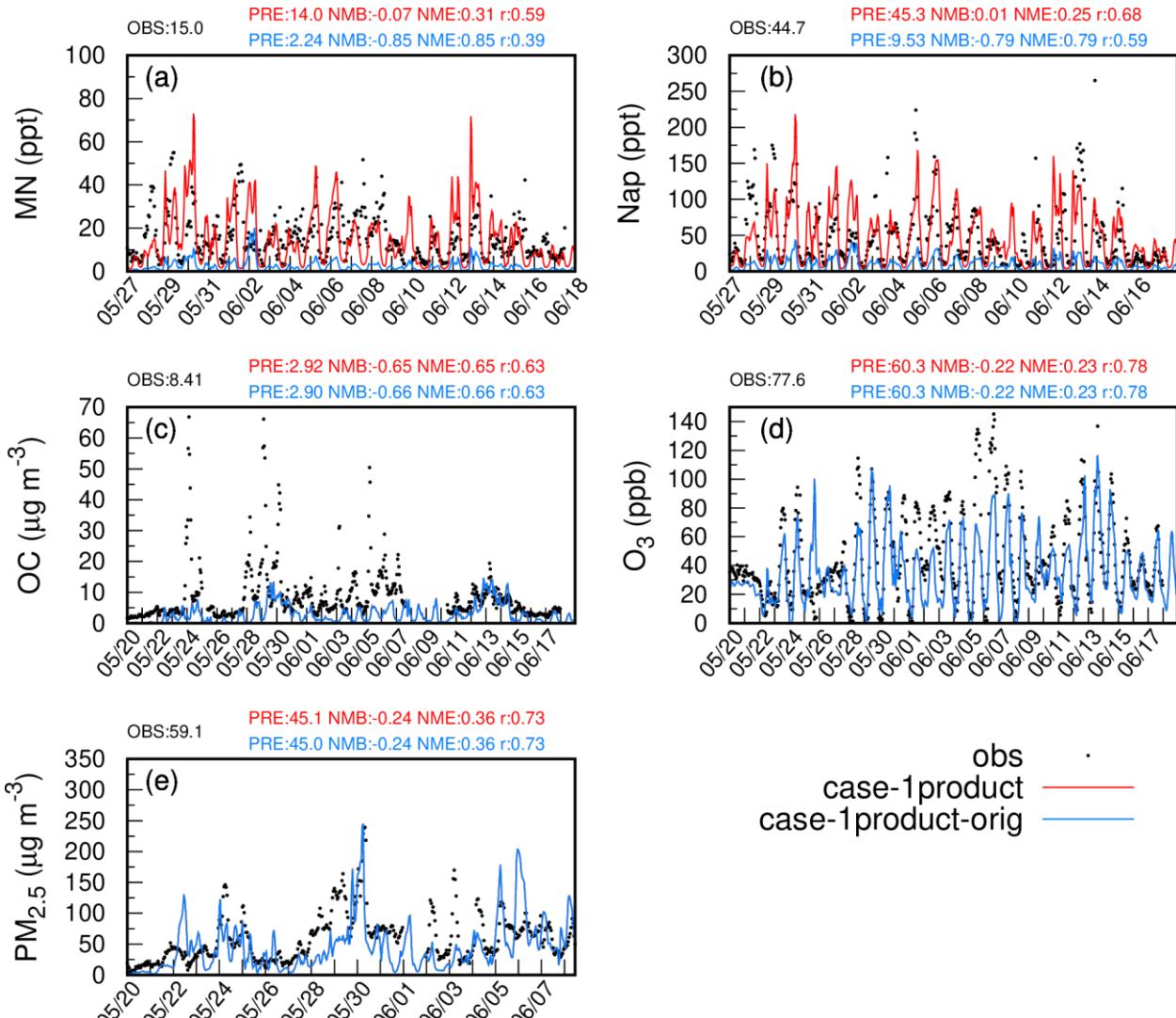
612 **Table 1.** Settings of the scenarios.

Case	Emission setting	parameterization for MN	SOA
case-1product-orig	Nap emissions in the YRD were based on the 2017 YRD inventory; Nap emissions in the rest of the domain and MN emissions in the entire domain were calculated using sector-specific mass ratios and total emissions of non-methane volatile organic compounds (emis-orig)	one-product method	
case-2products-orig		two-product method	
case-1product	The anthropogenic emissions of Nap and MN in the entire domain from emis-orig were multiplied	one-product method	
case-2products	by 5 and 7, respectively (emis-adjust)	two-product method	
base_zeroNapMN	Emissions of Nap and MN were set to zero based on emis-adjust	one-product method	
base_zeroMN	Emissions of MN were set to zero based on emis-adjust	one-product method	



614

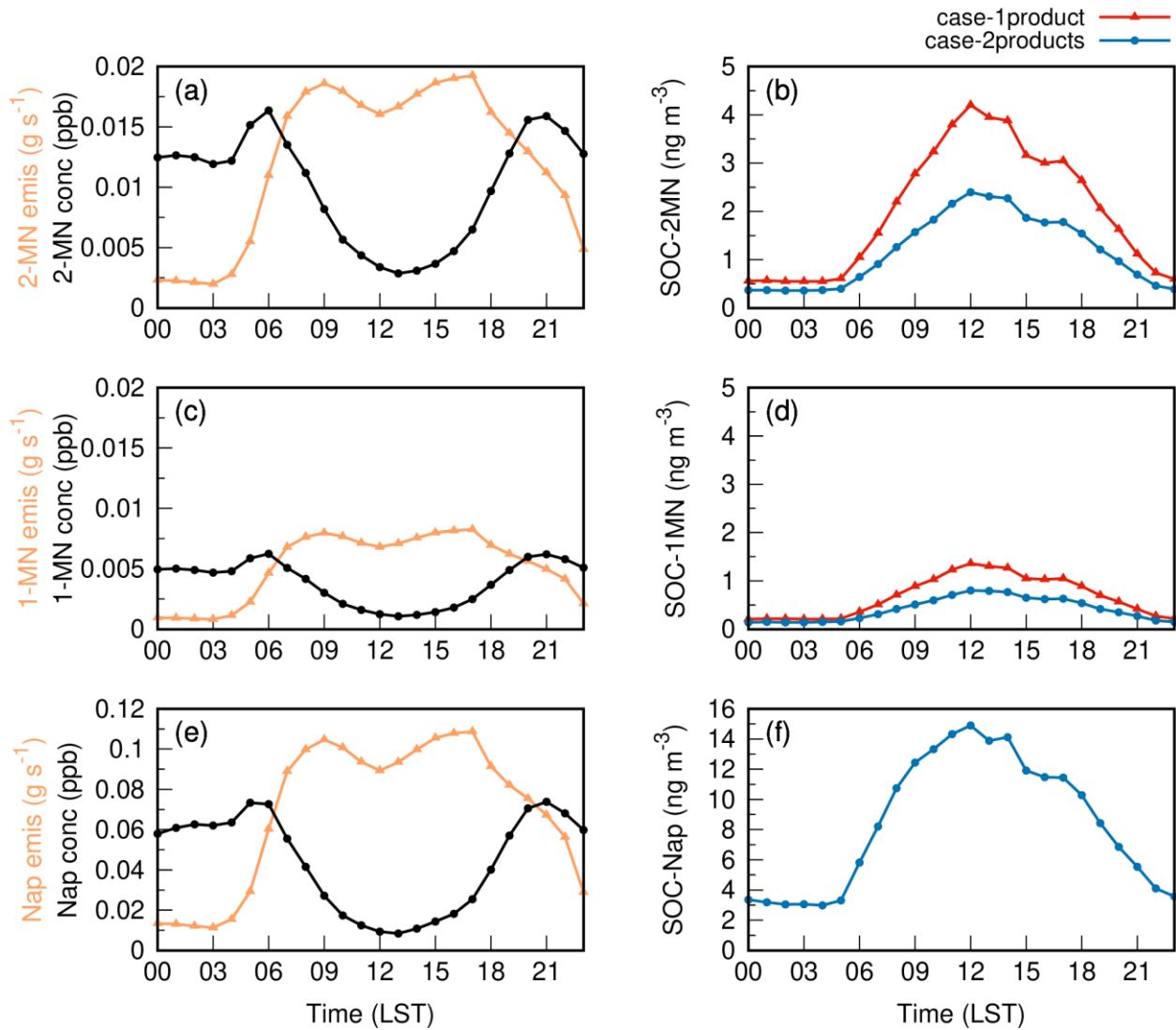
615 **Figure 1.** SOA schemes for naphthalene (Nap), 1-methylnaphthalene (1-MN), and 2-
 616 methylnaphthalene (2-MN) in the updated CMAQ model. (a) pre-existing Nap-derived SOA
 617 formation pathways fitted by two products under high NO_x ; (b) newly added SOA formation
 618 pathways for 1-MN and 2-MN fitted by two products under high NO_x ; (c) newly added SOA
 619 formation pathways for 1-MN and 2-MN fitted by one product under high NO_x . SOA formation
 620 from Nap and MN oxidation by OH radicals under low- NO_x conditions is represented by a fixed
 621 yield. Parameters for 2-MN are indicated in brackets in (b) and (c). The values of α refer to Table
 622 S1.



623

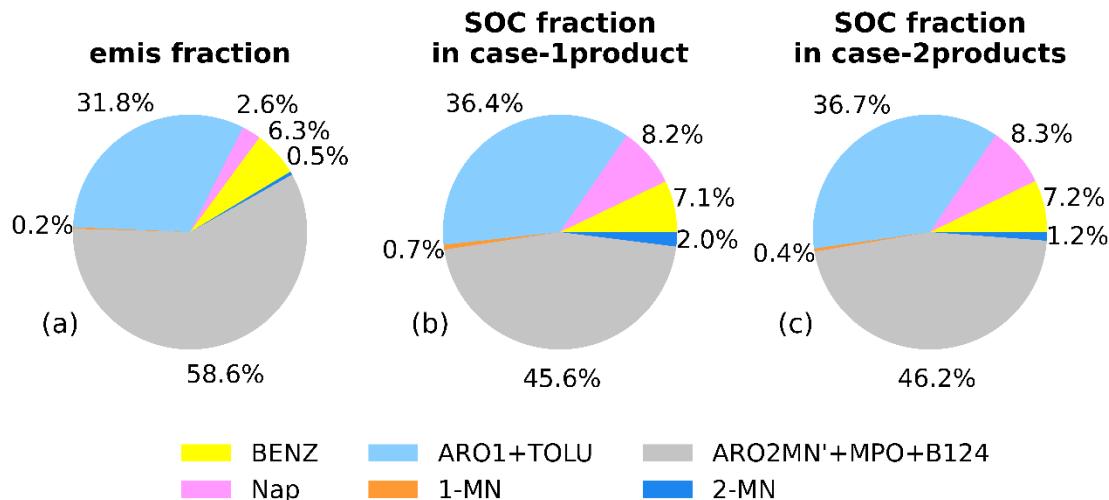
624 **Figure 2.** Observed and simulated hourly concentrations of MN, Nap, OC, PM_{2.5}, and O₃ based
 625 on emis-adjust (red) and emis-orig (blue) at the Taizhou site. Model performances for daily MN,
 626 Nap, OC, PM_{2.5}, and MDA8 O₃ are shown in blue for case-1product-orig and in red for case-
 627 1product. OBS and PRE represent the average of observations and predictions, respectively. Note
 628 that the red and blue lines overlap in (c)-(e).

629



630

631 **Figure 3.** Diurnal variations of emissions (yellow line) and predicted concentrations (black line)
 632 for 2-MN (a), 1-MN (c), and Nap (e), as well as the corresponding SOC concentrations (b, d, f) at
 633 the Taizhou site. Note that the red and blue lines overlap in (f).



634

635 **Figure 4.** Contributions of the major aromatic species to (a) the total emissions of aromatics
 636 (weight fraction) and the aromatic-derived SOC in (b) case-1 product and (c) case-2 products at the
 637 Taizhou site. The aromatic species include Nap, 1-MN, 2-MN, BENZ, the sum of toluene and
 638 aromatics with $k_{OH} < 2 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ (ARO1+TOLU), and the sum of xylenes, 1,2,4-trimethyl
 639 benzene and aromatics with $k_{OH} > 2 \times 10^4 \text{ ppm}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ excluding Nap and MN
 640 (ARO2MN'+MPO+B124).

641

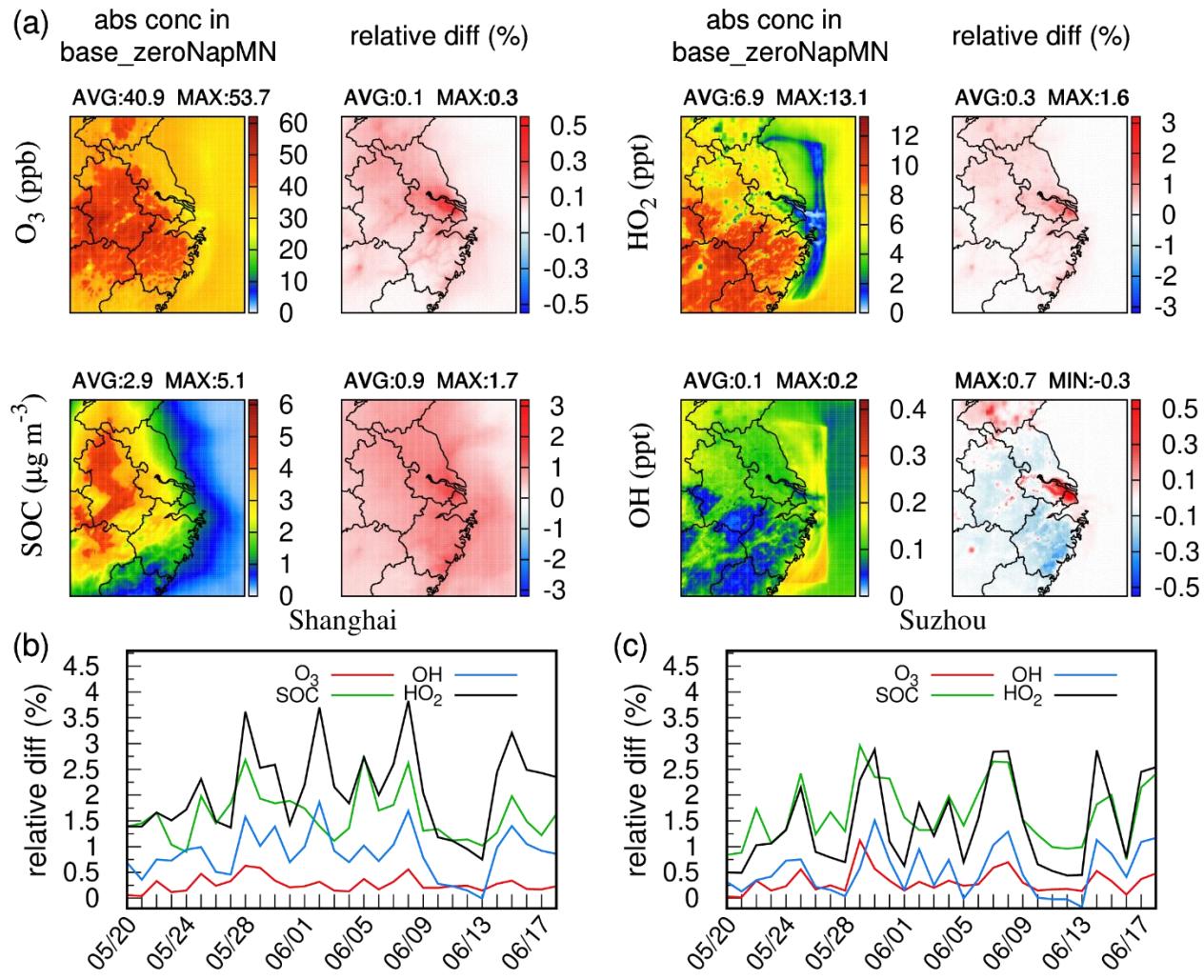


Figure 5. (a) Average concentrations of SOC, O_3 , $OH\cdot$, and $HO_2\cdot$ in base_zeroNapMN and changes in case-1product relative to base_zeroNapMN. Daily relative changes in case-1product compared to base_zeroNapMN in (b) Shanghai and (c) Suzhou.