



1 **Enhanced daytime secondary aerosol formation driven by**
2 **gas-particle partitioning in downwind urban plumes**

3 Mingfu Cai^{1,2,3}, Ye Chenshuo⁴, Bin Yuan^{2,3*}, Shan Huang^{2,3}, E Zheng^{2,3}, Suxia Yang⁵,
4 Zelong Wang^{2,3}, Yi Lin^{2,3}, Tiange Li^{2,3}, Weiwei Hu⁶, Wei Chen⁶, Qicong Song^{2,3}, Wei
5 Li^{2,3}, Yuwen Peng^{2,3}, Baoling Liang⁷, Qibin Sun⁷, Jun Zhao⁷, Duohong Chen⁸, Jiaren
6 Sun¹, Zhiyong Yang⁹, Min Shao^{2,3}

7 ¹Guangdong Province Engineering Laboratory for Air Pollution Control, Guangdong Provincial Key
8 Laboratory of Water and Air Pollution Control, South China Institute of Environmental Sciences, MEE,
9 Guangzhou 510655, China

10 ²Institute for Environmental and Climate Research, Jinan University, Guangzhou 51143, China

11 ³Guangdong-Hongkong-Macau Joint Laboratory of Collaborative Innovation for Environmental
12 Quality, Jinan University, Guangzhou 510632, China

13 ⁴ Guangdong Provincial Academy of Environmental Science, Guangzhou, 510045, China

14 ⁵ Guangzhou Research Institute of Environment Protection Co.,Ltd, Guangzhou 510620, China

15 ⁶State Key Laboratory of Organic Geochemistry and Guangdong Key Laboratory of Environmental
16 Protection and Resources Utilization, Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry, Chinese Academy of
17 Sciences, Guangzhou 510640, China

18 ⁷School of Atmospheric Sciences, Guangdong Province Key Laboratory for Climate Change and
19 Natural Disaster Studies, and Institute of Earth Climate and Environment System, Sun Yat-sen
20 University, Zhuhai 519082, China

21 ⁸Guangdong Environmental Monitoring Center, Guangzhou 510308, China

22 ⁹Guangzhou Huangpu District Meteorological Bureau, Guangzhou 510530, China

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24 **Corresponding authors: Bin Yuan (byuan@jnu.edu.cn)*

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26 **Abstract.**

27 Anthropogenic emissions from city clusters can significantly enhance secondary organic
28 aerosol (SOA) formation in the downwind regions, while the mechanism is poorly understood. To
29 investigate the effect of pollutants within urban plumes on organic aerosol (OA) evolution, a field
30 campaign was conducted at a downwind site of the Pearl River Delta region of China in the fall of
31 2019. A time-of-flight chemical ionization mass spectrometer coupled with a Filter Inlet for Gases
32 and Aerosol (FIGAERO-CIMS) was used to probe the gas- and particle-phase molecular
33 composition and thermograms of organic compounds. For air masses influenced by urban pollution,
34 strong daytime SOA formation through gas-particle partitioning was observed, resulting in higher
35 OA volatility. The obvious SOA enhancement was mainly attributed to the equilibrium partitioning
36 of non-condensable ($C^* \geq 10^{0.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) organic vapors. We speculated that the elevated NO_x
37 concentration could suppress the formation of highly oxidized products, resulting in a smooth
38 increase of condensable ($C^* < 10^{0.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) organic vapors. Evidence showed that urban pollutants
39 (NO_x and VOCs) could enhance the oxidizing capacity, while the elevated VOCs was mainly
40 responsible for promoting daytime SOA formation by increasing the RO_2 production rate. Our
41 results highlight the important role of urban anthropogenic pollutants in SOA control in the suburban
42 region.



43 1. Introduction

44 As a major concern of air pollution, aerosol particles are known to have significant impacts on
45 public health and climate (Apte et al., 2018; Arias et al., In Press). Primary particulate matter (PM)
46 in China has shown a remarkable reduction since 2013, owing to strictly clean air policies
47 implemented by the Chinese government (Zhang et al., 2019). Despite the effective reduction of
48 primary emissions in the past ten years, secondary organic aerosol (SOA) remains at high levels and
49 is mainly responsible for the haze development in China (Huang et al., 2014). SOA is thought to be
50 formed through the oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and atmospheric aging
51 processes of primary organic aerosol (POA). However, models are especially challenged in
52 reproducing SOA concentration and properties, since the formation mechanisms and gas precursors
53 of SOA remain poorly characterized (Hodzic et al., 2010).

54 Gas-particle partitioning of organic vapors is found to be the important formation pathway of
55 SOA worldwide (Nie et al., 2022; Hallquist et al., 2009; Lanzafame et al., 2021). Nie et al. (2022)
56 suggested that the contribution of the condensation of organic vapors to the SOA mass growth
57 ranged from about 38%-71% in China megacities. Photochemical produced SOA via gas phase
58 chemistry is usually related to a higher volatility and a lower oxidation degree than that formed in
59 the aqueous phase (Ervens et al., 2011; Saha et al., 2017). The condensation processes of organic
60 vapors are determined by their volatility, which is closely related to oxidation state, functional
61 groups, and the number of atomic carbons. Laboratory studies revealed that high nitrogen oxides
62 (NO_x) concentration can suppress the production of molecules with high oxidation degree by
63 inhibiting autoxidation (Rissanen, 2018; Peng et al., 2019), which is considered to be an important
64 pathway of low volatility vapor formation (Praske et al., 2018). Such compounds have been shown
65 to play a vital role in the SOA formation and growth of newly formed particles (Mutzel et al., 2015;
66 Bianchi et al., 2019; Mohr et al., 2019). On the other hand, it is shown that the increase of oxidant
67 owing to elevated NO_x concentration can offset the decrease of autoxidation efficiency, leading to a
68 higher production of oxygenated organic vapors (Pye et al., 2019), highlighting the complexity of
69 SOA formation. However, the lack of a molecular dataset of SOA and gas precursors hinders the
70 understanding of the SOA formation mechanism.

71 Recently, a chemical ionization time-of-flight mass spectrometer coupled with a Filter Inter for



72 Gases and AEROSOLS (FIGAERO-CIMS) has been employed to measure gas- and particle-phase
73 oxygenated organic compounds worldwide (Chen et al., 2020; Buchholz et al., 2020; Masoud et
74 al., 2022). Using a FIGAERO-CIMS, Cai et al. (2023) showed that heterogeneous reaction might
75 have an important role in the secondary formation of particle-phase oxidized organic nitrogen. The
76 volatility of OA can provide information about the formation and aging processes of OA, given that
77 it is strongly affected by chemical composition. In past decades, a thermodenuder (TD) coupled
78 with aerosol detection instruments (e.g. aerosol mass spectrometer and condensation particle
79 counter) was widely used in the estimation of OA volatility (Philippin et al., 2004; Lee et al., 2010).
80 Cai et al. (2022) found that the OA volatility was higher at a particle size range of 30 to 200 nm
81 during daytime, suggesting that the SOA formation through gas-particle partitioning could generally
82 occur at all particle sizes. However, this method failed to provide the volatility information of
83 different molecules of OA. In recent years, the FIGAERO-CIMS was developed to characterize the
84 volatility of oxygenated organic molecules in the particle phase. (Ren et al., 2022; Ylisirniö et al.,
85 2020). Wang and Hildebrandt Ruiz (2018) showed that the thermal desorption products of SOA can
86 be separated into different groups on a two-dimensional thermogram measured by the FIGAERO-
87 CIMS. Ren et al. (2022) investigated the relationship between the molecular formulae of OA
88 components and their volatilities, and suggested that the volatility of OA compounds was strongly
89 affected by O to C ratio. These results provide valuable insights into the SOA formation mechanisms.
90 However, as yet few FIGAERO-CIMS field studies are available in the literature in China (Ye et al.,
91 2021; Salvador et al., 2021), especially in urban downwind areas.

92 Observational studies have demonstrated that anthropogenic emissions can significantly affect
93 SOA formation in the downwind region. Fry et al. (2018) observed an enhancement of organic
94 nitrate aerosol formed through NO_3 +isoprene in power plant plume during nighttime, which was
95 mainly attributed to NO_x emissions from the power plant. The results from Liu et al. (2018)
96 suggested that the OH concentrations increased by at least 250% under polluted conditions, which
97 might promote the daytime SOA formation. A field measurement in the Amazon forest by De Sá et
98 al. (2018) showed that the enhancement of OA (about 30-171%) in urban plumes was mainly
99 contributed by SOA. A recent study found that anthropogenic emission of NO_x from urban could
100 enhance oxidant concentration, thereby promoting daytime SOA formation (Shrivastava et al., 2019).

101 In this study, we investigate the SOA formation through photochemical reactions at a typical



102 downwind site in the Pearl River Delta region (PRD) using a FIGAERO-CIMS along with a suite
103 of other online instruments. The volatility of OA and its relationship with identified OA sources
104 during long-range transport, urban air masses, and coastal air masses periods are discussed. The
105 formation mechanisms of daytime SOA formation within the urban plume are investigated based on
106 online measurements of gas- and particle-phase organic compounds, gaseous pollutants, and aerosol
107 physicochemical properties. The impact of urban pollutants on SOA formation will be discussed.

108 **2. Measurement and Method**

109 **2.1 Field measurement**

110 The campaign was conducted at the Heshan supersite in the PRD region during the fall of 2019
111 (29th September to 17th November 2019). The Heshan Supersite, surrounded by farms and villages,
112 is located (at 22°42'39. 1"N, 112°55'35.9"E, with an altitude of about 40 m) at southwest of the
113 PRD region and about 70 km southwest of Guangzhou city (Fig. S1). During the measurement, the
114 sampling site is mainly influenced by the air masses from the center of the PRD region (Fig. S2a).
115 All instruments were placed in an air-conditioned room on the top floor of the supersite. A detailed
116 description of the site and experimental setup can be found in Cai et al. (2021).

117 **2.2 Instrumentation**

118 **2.2.1 FIGAERO-CIMS**

119 A FIGAERO-CIMS coupled with an X-ray source was employed to measure organic
120 compounds in the gas- and particle-phase using I⁻ as the chemical ionization reagent. The particle
121 sampling inlet of the FIGAERO-CIMS was equipped with a PM_{2.5} cyclone and a Nafion dryer
122 (model PD-07018T-12MSS, Perma Pure, Inc., USA). The principle of the instrument can be found
123 in Lopez-Hilfiker et al. (2014) and Le Breton et al. (2018). In general, the operation settings and
124 data processing were the same as Cai et al. (2023) and Ye et al. (2021). Here, only a brief description
125 relevant to the measurement is given. The instrument was worked in a cycle pattern of 1 hour, with
126 24 minutes of gas-phase measurements and particle collection (sampling mode), followed by a 36-
127 minutes particle-phase analysis (desorption mode). In the sampling mode, ambient gas was



128 measured in the first 21 minutes, followed by a 3-min zero air background. At the same time,
129 ambient particles were collected on a PTFE membrane filter. In the desorption mode, the collected
130 particles were desorbed by heated N₂. The temperature of the N₂ was linearly ramped from indoor
131 temperature (~25°C) to ~175 °C in 12 minutes and held for 24 minutes. The data processing steps
132 in this campaign were the same as Ye et al. (2021). A few chemicals were calibrated before and after
133 the measurement. For uncalibrated species, a voltage scanning method was employed to obtain their
134 sensitivities (referred to as semi-quantified species) (Ye et al., 2021; Iyer et al., 2016; Lopez-Hilfiker
135 et al., 2016).

136 **2.2.2 SP-AMS**

137 The PM₁ chemical composition was measured by a soot particle aerosol mass spectrometer
138 (SP-AMS, Aerodyne Research, Inc., USA). The details of the operation and data analysis can be
139 found in Kuang et al. (2021). Source apportionment was performed for organic aerosols in the bulk
140 PM₁ using positive matrix factorization (PMF). The organic aerosol could be divided into six
141 components, including two primary OA factors and four secondary OA factors. The primary OA
142 factors include a hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) mainly contributed by traffic and cooking emissions
143 and a biomass burning OA (BBOA) originating from biomass burning combustion. The SOA factors
144 include an aged BBOA (aBBOA) likely formed from photochemical oxidation of biomass burning
145 precursors, a less oxygenated OA (LOOA) provided by strong daytime photochemical formation, a
146 more oxygenated OA (MOOA) related to region transport, and a nighttime-formed OA (Night-OA)
147 contributed by secondary formation during nighttime. The mass spectral profile of six OA factors is
148 shown in Figure S3.

149 **2.2.3 Particle number size distribution measurements**

150 Particle number size distribution in a size range of 1 nm - 10 µm was measured by a diethylene
151 glycol scanning mobility particle sizer (DEG-SMPS, model 3938E77, TSI Inc., USA), a SMPS
152 (model 3938L75, TSI Inc., USA), and an aerodynamic particle sizer (APS, model 3321, TSI Inc.,
153 USA). All sample particles first passed through a Nafion dryer (Model MD-700, Perma Pure Inc.,
154 USA) to reduce relative humidity (RH) lower than 30%. A detailed description of these instruments



155 can be found in Cai et al. (2021).

156 **2.3 Methodology**

157 **2.3.1 Estimation of the volatility of particle- and gas-phase organic compounds**

158 During the heating processes, the FIGAERO-CIMS simultaneously measured the desorbing
159 compounds of the collected particles. Thus, the volatility information of particles can be obtained
160 by investigating the relationship between the measured signals and desorption temperature. The
161 temperature of the peak desorption signal (T_{max}) has a nearly linear relationship with the natural
162 logarithm of saturation vapor pressure (P_{sat}) of the respective compound (Lopez-Hilfiker et al.,
163 2014):

$$164 \quad \ln(P_{sat}) = aT_{max} + b \quad (1)$$

165 where a and b are fitting coefficients. Thus, saturation vapor concentration (C^* , $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) can be
166 obtained:

$$167 \quad C^* = \frac{P_{sat}M_w}{RT} 10^6 \quad (2)$$

168 where M_w is the molecular weight of the compound (assumed to be 200 g mol^{-1}), R is the universal
169 gas constant ($8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$), and T is the thermodynamic temperature in kelvin (298.15 K).

170 We used a series of polyethylene glycol (PEG 5-8) compounds to calibrate the T_{max} and
171 obtained the fitting parameters a and b . The PEG standards were prepared in a mixture of
172 acetonitrile and then atomized with a homemade atomizer. The atomized particles are classified by
173 a differential mobility analyzer (DMA, model 3081 L, TSI Inc., USA) at two diameters (100 nm
174 and 200 nm). The selected particles were then split into two paths: one to a condensation particle
175 counter (CPC, model 3775, TSI Inc., USA) for measuring the particle concentration and another
176 one to the particle inlet of the FIGAERO-CIMS. The collected concentration can be calculated based
177 on the selected particle diameter, particle number concentration, flow rate of the particle inlet of
178 FIGAERO-CIMS, and collection time. The calibration results and corresponding fitting parameters
179 can be found in Fig. S4 and Table. S1. Note that the T_{max} can increase with mass loading increase
180 and it is necessary to consider for estimation the relationship between T_{max} and C^* (Wang and
181 Hildebrandt Ruiz, 2018). During the measurement, the collected mass loading centered at about 620
182 ng (Fig. S5). Thus, the fitting parameters ($a=-0.206$ and $a=3.732$) of the calibration experiment with



183 a diameter of 200 nm and mass loading of 407 ng were adopted in the C^* calculation.

184 For gas-phase organic compounds (organic vapors), we first divided them into two groups
 185 based on their oxidation pathways (multi-generation OH oxidation and autoxidation, Fig. S6) and
 186 then used different parameters in their volatility estimation. In general, their saturation vapor
 187 concentration (C^* , at 300 K) can be estimated as follows:

$$188 \quad \log_{10}(C^*) = (25 - n_C) \cdot b_C - (n_O - 3n_N) \cdot b_O - \frac{2(n_O - 3n_N)n_C}{(n_C + n_O - 3n_N)} \cdot b_{CO} - n_N \cdot b_N \quad (3)$$

189 where n_C , n_O , and n_N are the numbers of carbon, oxygen, and nitrogen atoms in each compound.
 190 For oxidation products formed from multi-generation OH oxidation (aging) pathway, the volatility
 191 parameters b_C , b_O , b_{CO} , and b_N were assumed to be 0.475, 2.3, -0.3, and 2.5, respectively (Donahue
 192 et al., 2011). For oxidation products formed from autoxidation pathway, the modified
 193 parameterization is used, with $b_C=0.475$, $b_O=0.2$, $b_{CO}=0.9$, and $b_N=2.5$ (Bianchi et al., 2019).

194 2.3.2 Calculation of oxidation state (\overline{OS}_C) of $C_xH_yO_z$ and $C_xH_yN_{1,2}O_z$ compounds

195 For $C_xH_yO_z$ compounds, the \overline{OS}_C can be estimated as:

$$196 \quad \overline{OS}_C = 2 \times \frac{O}{C} - \frac{H}{C} \quad (4)$$

197 For $C_xH_yN_{1,2}O_z$ compounds, the \overline{OS}_C can be calculated from following equation:

$$198 \quad \overline{OS}_C = 2 \times \frac{O}{C} - \frac{H}{C} - x \times \frac{N}{C} \quad (5)$$

199 where x is the valence state of N atoms, which is dependent on functional groups. Several
 200 assumptions were adopted to classify them. (1)N-containing functional groups were nitro (-NO₂,
 201 $x=+3$) or nitrate (-NO₃, $x=+5$) in our measurement; (2)N-containing aromatics contain nitro
 202 moieties while N-containing aliphatic hydrocarbons contain nitrate moieties; (3)N-containing
 203 aromatics have 6-9 carbon atoms and fewer hydrogen atoms than aliphatic hydrocarbons with the
 204 same number of carbon atoms.

205 2.3.3 Estimation of condensation sink

206 The condensation sink (CS) represents the condensing vapor captured by pre-existing particles
 207 and can be calculated from the following equation:

$$208 \quad CS = 2\pi D \sum_{D_p} \beta_{m,D_p} D_p N_{D_p} \quad (6)$$



209 where D is the diffusion coefficient of the H_2SO_4 vapor ($0.8 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), β_{m,D_p} is the
210 transitional regime correction factor which can be calculated from the Knudsen number (Fuchs and
211 Sutugin, 1971), and N_{D_p} represents the particle number concentration at D_p .

212 2.3.4 Estimation of the production rate of RO_2 and OH

213 A zero-dimensional box model (0-D Atmospheric Modeling, F0AM(Wolfe et al., 2016)) based
214 on Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM v3.1.1, <https://mcm.york.ac.uk/MCM>) was used to simulate
215 the production rate of OH in this study. The F0AM box model has been widely used in investigating
216 chemical reactions of VOCs, NO_x , and RO_x radicals (including OH, HO_2 , and RO_2) in field and
217 laboratory researches (Baublitz et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2022; D'ambro et al., 2017). The simulation
218 was constrained with the observation data of non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHC), HCHO,
219 CH_3CHO , NO, CO, CH_4 , HONO, and meteorological parameters (RH, temperature, photolysis rates,
220 and pressure). The simulation time step was set to be 5 minutes. With respect to the integrity and
221 temporal coverage of the observation data, the simulation period was from 16 October to 16
222 November 2019. Further details on model settings can be found in Yang et al. (2022)

223 The empirical kinetic modeling approach (EKMA) is applied to investigate the sensitivity of
224 the production rate of RO_2 and OH to the variation of NO_x and VOCs. The base case was simulated
225 based on the observation of average conditions. Sensitivity tests are performed by adjusting NO_x or
226 VOCs by a ratio ranging from 0.1 to 2.0 without changing other parameters.

227 3. Results and discussion

228 3.1 Overview

229 Figure 1 shows the temporal profile of particle number size distribution (PNSD) and
230 condensation sink (CS) during the measurement (a), one-dimensional thermograms and T_{max}
231 measured by the FIGAERO-CIMS (b), bulk PM_{10} chemical composition measured by the SP-AMS
232 and PM_{10} concentration (c), deconvolved OA factors from PMF analysis (d), and wind speed and
233 direction (e). Note that all measurements started on 2 October. As shown in Fig. 1a, new particle
234 formation (NPF) events occurred frequently along with relatively low CS values during the



235 measurement period (44.4%, 20 out of 45 days). The T_{max} mainly varied in two temperature ranges,
236 80-95 °C and 110-120°C (Fig. 1b). The lower T_{max} was usually accompanied by high desorption
237 signals peaked at 80-95 °C (Fig. 1b), a higher fraction of LOOA (Fig. 1d), and an obvious wide
238 accumulation mode in PNSD (Fig. 1a).

239 The evening peak of hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) and biomass burning OA (BBOA) was
240 related to local anthropogenic activities (e.g., biomass burning, cooking, and traffic, Fig. 2). The
241 less oxygenated OA (LOOA) and aged biomass burning OA (abBOA) showed afternoon peaks (Fig.
242 2), which could be attributed to secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation through daytime
243 photochemical reactions. The daytime formation of LOOA was attributed to gas-particle reactions,
244 confirmed by the positive relationship between LOOA and particle surface area as well as organic
245 vapors measured by the FIGAERO-CIMS (Fig. S7 and S8). The O_x ($O_x=O_3+NO_2$) had a strong
246 correlation with organic vapors in the afternoon (10:00-16:00 LT, Fig. S9), highlighting an important
247 role of photochemical reaction on the formation of LOOA.

248 The high desorption signal at a lower temperature range suggested that the volatility of OA
249 could be higher, which could be associated with the formation of LOOA. Coincidentally, either NPF
250 events or a higher fraction of LOOA could only be observed during the period prevalent with north
251 wind direction (Fig. 1e), when the measurement site was affected by the pollutant from the city
252 cluster around Guangzhou city. It indicates that the urban pollutants might promote particle
253 formation and growth and daytime SOA formation by increasing oxidants and acting as precursor
254 gases. Xiao et al. (2023) suggested that fresh urban emissions could enhance NPF, while NPF was
255 suppressed in aged urban plumes. Shrivastava et al. (2019) found that urban emissions, including
256 NO_x and oxidants, could significantly enhance the SOA formation in the Amazon rainforest. Three
257 periods were classified based on the combination of wind direction and the analysis of backward
258 trajectories to further investigate the impact of urban pollutants on this downwind site, which were
259 long-range transport, urban air masses, and coastal air masses periods (Fig. S2 and Table. S2). The
260 long-range transport period was related to long range transport masses from northeast inland. The
261 urban air masses period was mainly affected by regional urban air masses from the PRD region. The
262 coastal air masses period was associated with air masses from the South China Sea and the northeast
263 coast.

264 A significant daytime peak of LOOA ($10.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) was shown during the urban air masses



265 period (Fig. 2c), while the enhancement of aBBOA was inapparent. It suggests that the contribution
266 of gas-particle reactions on SOA formation was enhanced when the site was affected by urban
267 plumes. The O_x concentration in the afternoon during the urban air masses period was higher than
268 that during the long-range transport period (Fig. S10), which might be able to explain the significant
269 enhancement of LOOA for the urban air masses period. These results imply that urban pollution
270 plumes could promote the formation of SOA in the downwind region by increasing the oxidant
271 concentration.

272 3.2 The daytime formation of FIGAERO OA

273 As aforementioned, the increase of LOOA was usually along with the significant desorption
274 signals measured by the FIGAERO-CIMS at a low temperature range (80-95°C), suggesting that
275 OA volatility could be higher. The average two-dimensional thermograms of all calibrated and semi-
276 quantified species and an example of a one-dimensional thermogram of levoglucosan can be found
277 in Fig. 3 a and b, respectively. According to Eqs. (1) and (2), we calculated the C^* value of all
278 calibrated and semi-quantified species based on their T_{max} and constructed volatility distribution as
279 volatility basis set (VBS, Fig. 3c). The T_{max} of each species is obtained based on their average
280 thermogram. These 12 VBS bins were classified into three groups (Donahue et al., 2012): semi-
281 volatile organic compounds (SVOC, $0.3 < C^* \leq 3 \times 10^2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), less-volatile organic compounds
282 (LVOC, $3 \times 10^{-4} < C^* \leq 0.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and extremely low-volatility organic compounds (ELVOC,
283 $C^* \leq 3 \times 10^{-4} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). In general, most species measured by FIGAERO-CIMS fall into LVOC groups
284 (Fig. S11). Note that the decomposition of organic compounds was ignored in this method, which
285 could affect thermogram peaks in some cases and the measurement of low volatility compounds
286 (Wang and Hildebrandt Ruiz, 2018). Furthermore, the fraction of SVOC might be underestimated
287 owing to its high volatility, as a result fast evaporation could occur during the collection on the filter
288 and shifting from sampling mode to desorption mode.

289 During the urban air masses period, the FIGAERO-CIMS measured significant signals at a
290 desorption temperature range of SVOC and LVOC (Fig. S12) in the afternoon (12:00-16:00 LT),
291 indicating that the OA volatility could be higher. The SVOC+LVOC in the FIGAERO OA increased
292 from $5.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (8:00 LT) to $16.29 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (15:00 LT) during the urban air masses period (Fig. 4a),



293 which was coincident with an enhancement of LOOA (Fig. 2c). It suggested that daytime
294 enhancement of the SVOC+LVOC in the FIGAERO OA was closely related to the obvious LOOA
295 formation. The FIGAERO OA during the urban air masses period was systemically higher than that
296 during the long-range transport period, with a significantly higher concentration of LVOC group
297 (Fig. 4b), especially the portion with a volatility $\log_{10}C^*$ of -1. Table 1 investigated the relationship
298 between SVOC+LVOC and six OA factors. The SVOC+LVOC in FIGAERO OA had a significant
299 positive correlation ($R=0.72-0.84$) with the LOOA, especially during the urban air masses period
300 ($R=0.84$, Fig. S13 and Table 1), suggesting that the LOOA formation was mainly responsible for
301 the increase of OA volatility.

302 Interestingly, the non-condensable organic vapors ($C^* > 10^{0.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) dramatically increased in
303 the afternoon during the urban air masses period, while we did not observe such phenomenon for
304 condensable ($C^* \leq 10^{0.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) organic vapors (Fig. 4c). The concentration of condensable organic
305 vapors in the afternoon (12:00-16:00 LT) did not show a significant difference (1.76 and $1.84 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
306 between the long-range transport and urban air masses periods, indicating that the irreversible
307 condensation of condensable organic vapors could not fully explain the enhancement of LOOA
308 during the urban air masses period (Wang et al., 2022). However, the non-condensable organic
309 vapors had a notably higher concentration ($51.69 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during the urban air masses period than
310 that ($41.70 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during the long-range transport period. It implies that the significant
311 enhancement of LOOA during the urban air masses period might be mainly attributed to the
312 equilibrium partitioning of non-condensable organic vapors, which could also increase the volatility
313 of total OA.

314 Here we selected a typical day (2 November 2019) of the urban air masses period for further
315 investigation. The measurement site was affected by the urban plume from the city cluster in the
316 PRD region on this day (Fig. S14). A wide accumulation mode centered at about 180 nm in PNSD
317 was observed, with a significant desorption signal measured by the FIGAERO-CIMS in the
318 afternoon and weak north wind (Fig. S15). As shown in Fig. 5a, the desorption signals of organic
319 compounds increased from 9:00 LT and reached their peak at 14:00 LT, suggesting a significant
320 daytime SOA formation. The variation of OA volatility distribution and mean $C^*(\bar{C}^*)$ is shown in
321 Fig. 5b. The \bar{C}^* shown an afternoon peak (0.021) at 15:00 LT, suggesting higher OA volatility in the
322 afternoon. An evident enhancement of OA with a volatility $\log_{10}C^*$ of -1 was observed in the



323 afternoon, aligning with the formation of LOOA (Fig. 5c), which primarily contributes to higher
324 OA volatility. Combined with the volatility distribution analysis in Fig. 4b, it indicated that the main
325 components of LOOA have a volatility $\log_{10}C^*$ of -1. Interestingly, the T_{max} value of the sum
326 thermogram (Fig. 5a) increased from 81°C at 9:00 to 96°C at 17:00, implying that the OA volatility
327 decreased during the daytime owing to the daytime aging processes. However, the \bar{C}^* value
328 consistently increased from 6:00 LT until 15:00 LT and then began to decrease, which was conflict
329 with the increasing T_{max} . One possible reason is that species in the FIGAERO OA fell into a specific
330 T_{max} range (about 11°C) were categorized into different C^* bins by a factor of 10. Thus, the slight
331 variation of T_{max} might not affect the estimated volatility distribution of FIGAERO OA. The other
332 possible reason is that the volatility distribution of FIGAERO OA was estimated based on the T_{max}
333 value of calibrated and semi-quantified species, while the sum thermograms contained all organic
334 compounds containing C, H, and O atoms. There could be some organic compounds formed through
335 aging processes that were not included in the C^* estimation.

336 3.3 Enhancement of SOA formation by urban pollutants

337 As aforementioned, the significant enhancement of non-condensable organic vapors was
338 observed during the urban air masses period. Figure 6 compares the difference of organic vapors in
339 the carbon oxidation state (\overline{OS}_C) in the afternoon (12:00-16:00 LT) between the long-range transport
340 and urban air masses periods. A higher concentration of organic vapors with a low \overline{OS}_C ($\overline{OS}_C < 0$)
341 was observed during the urban air masses period, while this trend became to overturn for high \overline{OS}_C
342 ($\overline{OS}_C > 0$) organic vapors. It suggests that the oxidation degree of organic vapors was lower during
343 the urban air masses period, even though the O_x concentration was higher (Fig. S10). The
344 oxygenated organic vapors production rates depend on oxidant and precursor concentration, and the
345 mechanism of significant enhancement of non-condensable organic vapors remains unclear. We
346 speculated that it could be partly attributed to the elevated NO_x concentration in the afternoon during
347 the urban air masses period (Fig. S16). NO_x was found to have a detrimental effect on the production
348 of highly oxidized products, and thus the formation of low volatility vapors (Rissanen, 2018), which
349 might be responsible for the smooth increase of condensable organic vapors. Previous studies found
350 that the increase of NO_x could lead to higher OH production, which would offset decreases in the



351 autoxidation efficiency and further result in enhanced SOA formation (Liu et al., 2021; Pye et al.,
352 2019). During the urban air masses period, both condensable and non-condensable CHON
353 compounds increased in the afternoon, implying the effect of NO_x on the photochemical reactions
354 (Fig. S17 a and b). That was further evidenced by the higher fraction of CHON compounds in the
355 FIGAERO OA (Fig. S17f). This result was consistent with Schwantes et al. (2019), who reported
356 that low volatility organic nitrates might have a significant contribution to SOA under high NO_x
357 conditions. Interestingly, in contrast with the higher fraction of condensable CHON compounds in
358 the afternoon, the fraction of non-condensable CHON compounds was lower at the same time (Fig.
359 S17 d and e), indicating that the effect of high NO_x concentration on photochemical oxidation goes
360 beyond the formation of CHON compounds for non-condensable species.

361 To further understand how the urban plumes affect the SOA formation, we used an observation-
362 constrained box model to simulate the production rate of organic peroxy radicals (RO_2) and OH
363 with different NO_x and VOCs concentrations (Fig. 7). The detailed description of the box model is
364 described in Sect. 2.3.4. In general, the production rates of OH ($\text{P}(\text{OH})$) were close to the transition
365 regime during three selected periods (Fig. 7a), where the $\text{P}(\text{OH})$ is sensitive to both VOCs and NO_x
366 variation. Further, the $\text{P}(\text{OH})$ tended to be in the NO_x -limited regime during the coastal air masses
367 period. The emission of NO_x might enhance the atmospheric oxidation capacity, consistent with the
368 results from other observations (Shrivastava et al., 2019; Pye et al., 2019). Interestingly, the
369 sensitivity regime of $\text{P}(\text{OH})$ changed to the VOCs-limited during the urban air masses period,
370 suggesting that the production of OH would be suppressed with the increase in NO_x . During the
371 urban air masses period, the concentration of NO_x and VOCs was noticeably increased compared to
372 the coastal air masses period, leading to a significant increase of $\text{P}(\text{OH})$.

373 Recent studies show that autooxidation of RO_2 can result in highly oxygenated molecules
374 ($\text{O:C} \geq 0.7$) and promote SOA formation (Pye et al., 2019; Pye et al., 2015). In general, the production
375 rate of RO_2 ($\text{P}(\text{RO}_2)$) was in the VOCs-limited regime during three selected periods (Fig. 7b), where
376 the $\text{P}(\text{RO}_2)$ increased with the increase of VOCs. It suggests that the production of RO_2 was
377 suppressed with the increase in NO_x . During the urban air masses period, the concentration of VOCs
378 was noticeably increased compared to the coastal air masses period, leading to a significant increase
379 of $\text{P}(\text{RO}_2)$. The model results indicate that urban pollutants, including NO_x and VOCs, could
380 enhance the oxidizing capacity, while the increase of VOCs was mainly responsible for significant



381 daytime SOA formation.

382 4. Conclusions

383 In this study, we demonstrated that daytime SOA formation could be enhanced when the rural
384 site was affected by the pollutant from the city region, which could be partly attributed to the high
385 concentration of oxidant in the urban pollution. A higher volatility of OA was observed during the
386 urban air masses period, which was mainly contributed by the component with a volatility $\log_{10}C^*$
387 of -1. The significant increase of SVOC+LVOC in FIGAERO OA in the afternoon was associated
388 with enhanced LOOA formation. Similar to other measurements, the daytime formation of LOOA
389 was mainly through gas-to-particle partitioning of organic vapors, supported by a significant
390 positive relationship between the LOOA and organic vapors. We observed a dramatic increase in
391 the non-condensable organic vapors in the afternoon during the urban air masses period, while
392 condensable organic vapors did not exhibit a similar growth trend. It indicated that the rapid increase
393 of LOOA during the urban air masses period was mainly contributed by the equilibrium partitioning
394 of non-condensable organic vapors. The high NO_x might also suppress the formation of highly
395 oxidized products. Thus, the elevated NO_x in the urban plume might be able to explain the smooth
396 increase in condensable organic vapors and a higher concentration of organic vapors with a low \overline{OS}_C .
397 Box model simulation showed that the P(OH) were close to the transition regime during three
398 selected periods, indicating that the elevated NO_x and VOCs in urban plumes can increase the
399 oxidizing capacity. However, the P(RO_2) was in the VOCs-limited regime, suggesting that the
400 increase in VOCs was mainly responsible for the daytime enhancement of SOA. Further
401 investigations on the effect of urban pollutants on SOA formation on the regional scale are still
402 needed for formulating air pollution control strategies.

403

404 *Data availability.* Data from the measurements are available at
405 <https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25376059>.

406

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408



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411 **EZ, SY, ZW, YL, TL, WH, WC, QS, WL, YP, BL, QS, and JZ** analyzed the data. **MC, YC, and**
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413

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657



658 **Table 1.** The correlation coefficient between SVOC+LVOC in FIGAERO OA and six OA factors
659 in AMS OA during different periods.

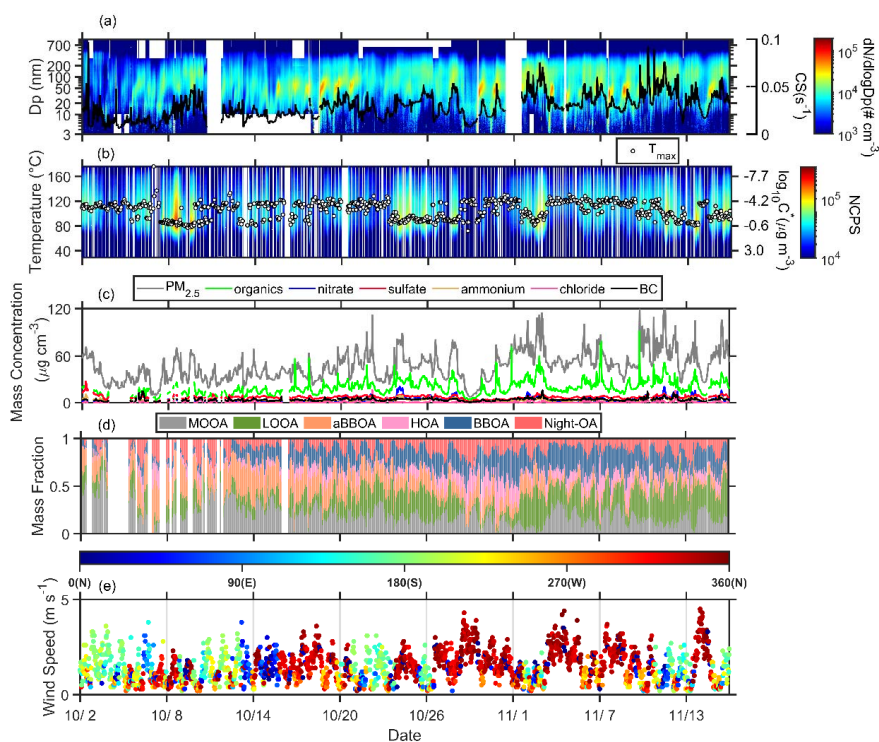
	All campaign	Long-range Transport	Urban Air Masses	Coastal Air Masses
MOOA	-0.003	0.02	0.28	-0.19
LOOA	0.83	0.74	0.84	0.72
aBBOA	0.47	0.48	0.70	0.14
HOA	0.11	0.18	-0.06	0.61
BBOA	0.57	0.55	0.53	0.77
Night-OA	0.35	0.39	0.009	0.53

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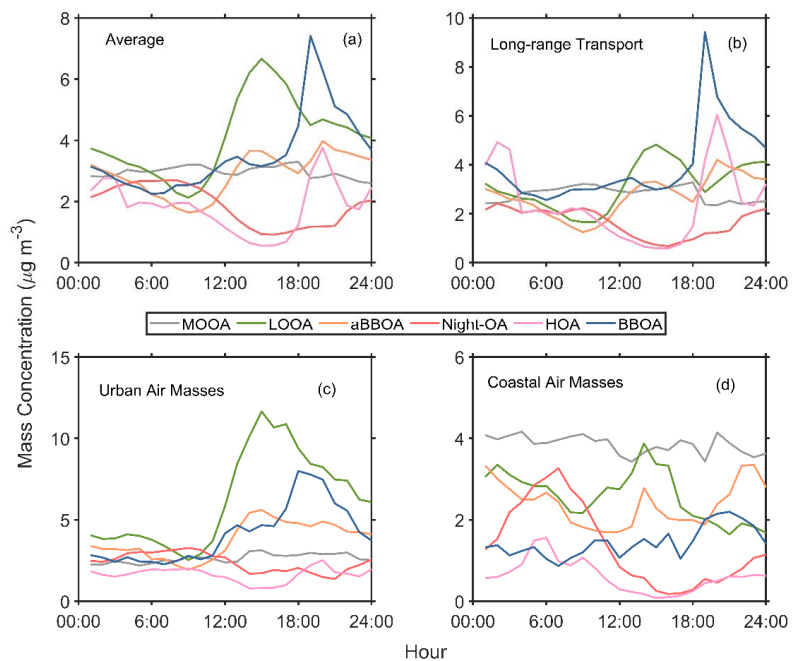
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664 **Figure 1.** Temporal profile of the measured variables during the campaign. (a) particle number size
 665 distribution and condensation sink (black line); (b) one-dimensional thermograms of organic
 666 compounds (ions containing C, H, and O atoms, referred to as sum thermogram) and the T_{max}
 667 values (white dots) measured by the FIGAERO-CIMS; (c) bulk PM₁ chemical composition
 668 measured by SP-AMS and PM₁ concentration; (d) mass fraction of six OA factors from PMF
 669 analysis of SP-AMS data; (e) wind speed and wind direction. The color in (b) represents the
 670 normalized count per second (ncps) of oxygenated organic compounds calculated based on total
 671 count per second (cps) of oxygenated organic compounds at all m/z (*total cps*), m/z 127 (*cps*₁₂₇),
 672 and m/z 145 (*cps*₁₄₅) measured by FIGAERO-I-CIMS, $ncps = \frac{total\ cps}{(cps_{127} + cps_{145}) \cdot 10^6}$. The OA factors
 673 included more oxygenated OA (MOOA), less oxygenated OA (LOOA), aged biomass burning OA
 674 (aBBOA), hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), biomass burning OA (BBOA), and nighttime OA (night-
 675 OA).

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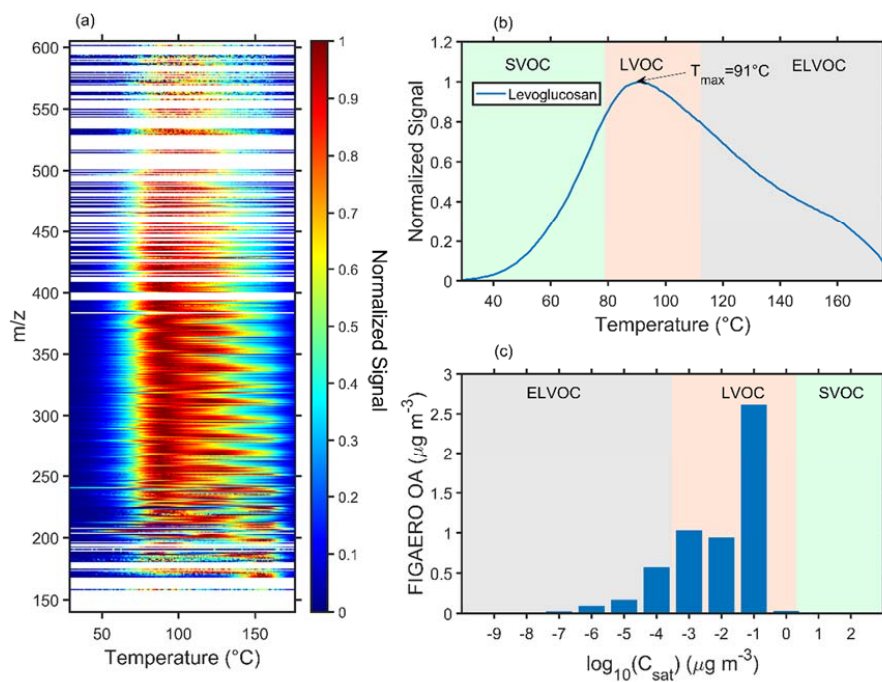
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679 **Figure 2.** Average diurnal variation of six OA PMF factors during (a) the whole campaign, (b)

680 long-range transport, (c) urban air masses, and (d) coastal air masses periods.



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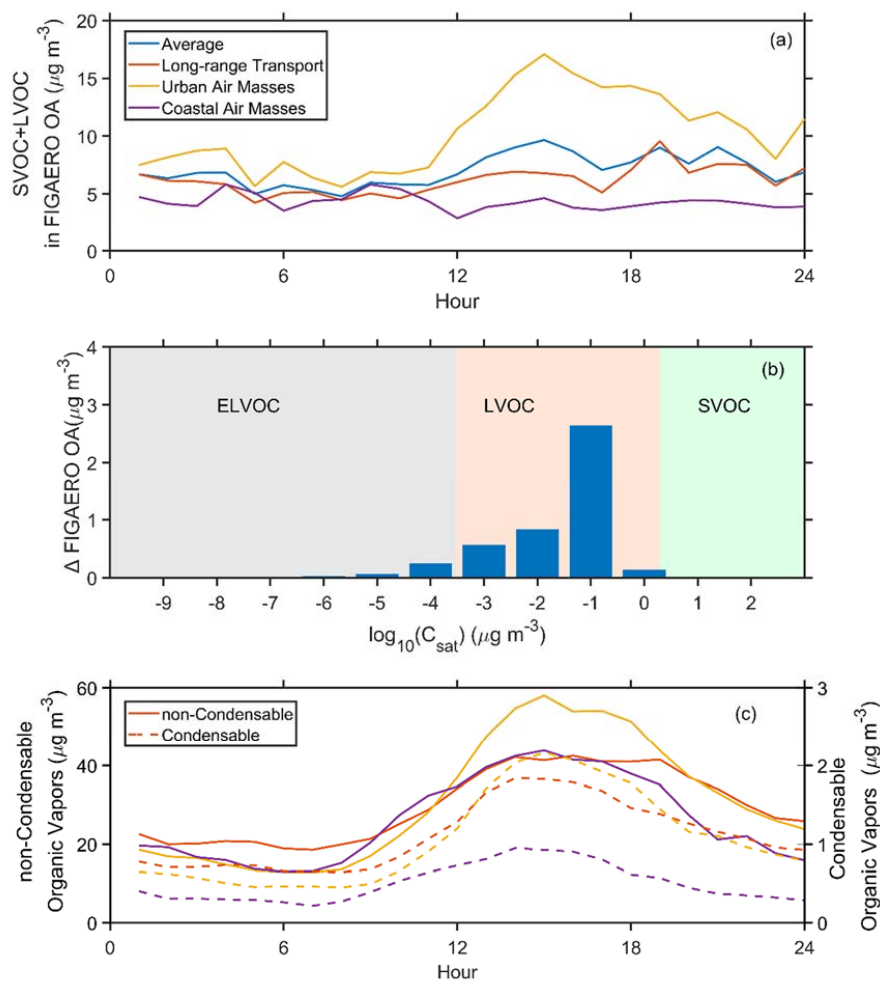
682 **Figure 3.** The average (a) two-dimensional thermograms of all calibrated and semi-quantified

683 species, (b) one-dimensional thermogram of levoglucosan, and (c) volatility distribution of all

684 calibration and semi-quantified species in the particle phase measured by the FIGAERO-CIMS

685 (referred as FIGAERO OA). The T_{max} was converted to the C^* according to Eqs. (1) and (2).

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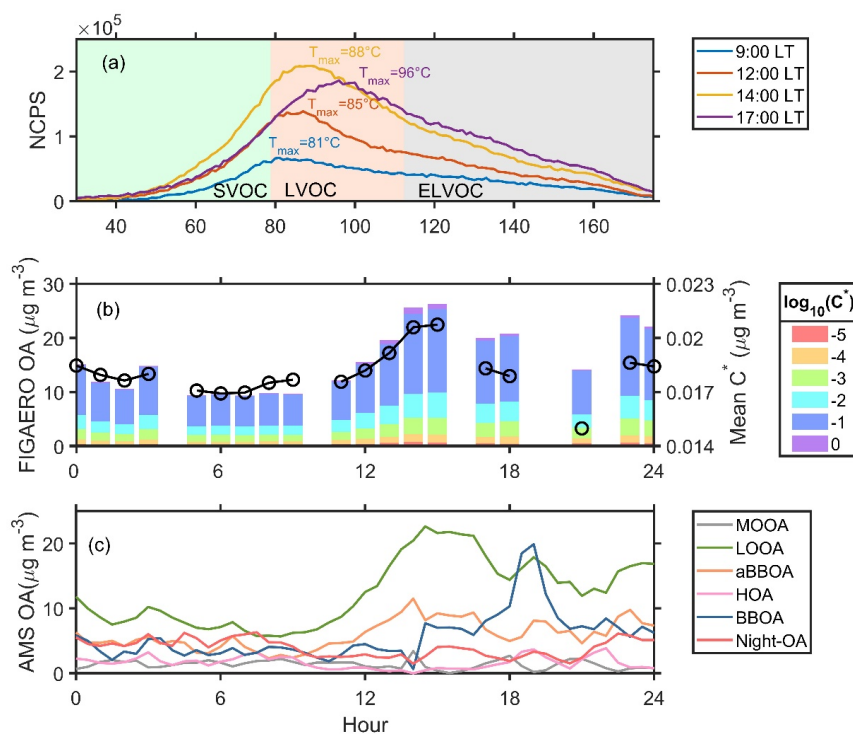
687

688 **Figure 4.** Diurnal variation of (a) SVOC+LVOC in FIGAERO OA, (b) the difference of

689 FIGAERO OA between the urban air masses and long-range transport periods, and (c) non-

690 condensable ($C^* > 10^{0.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, solid lines) and condensable organic vapors ($C^* \leq 10^{0.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,

691 dash lines) during the whole campaign and three selected periods.



692

693 **Figure 5.** (a) The sum thermograms at 9:00, 12:00, 14:00, and 17:00, (b) variation of FIGAERO

694 OA volatility presented in a volatility range from 10^{-5} to $10^0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and mean C^* , and (c)

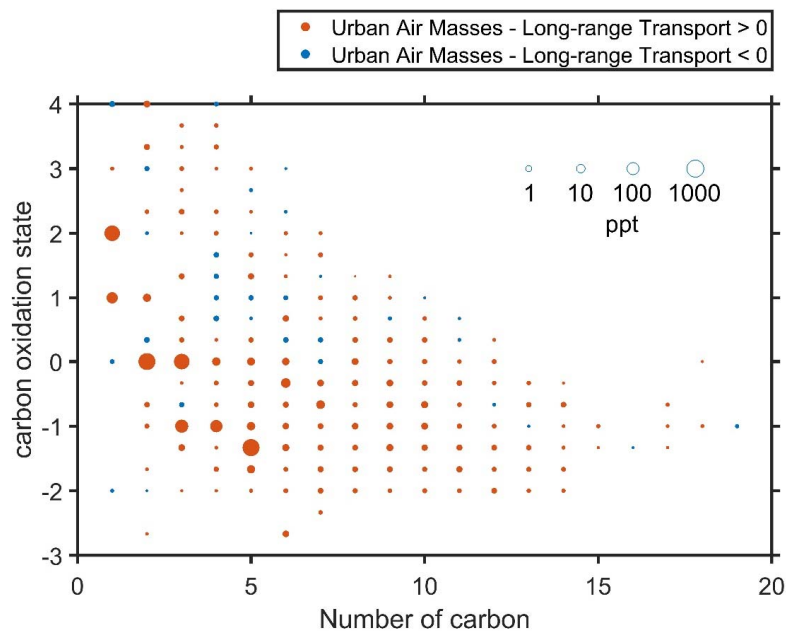
695 variation of six OA factors from PMF analysis on 2 November 2019. The mean $C^*(\bar{C}^*)$ is

696 estimated as $\bar{C}^* = 10^{\sum f_i \log_{10} C_i^*}$, where f_i is the mass fraction of OA with a volatility C_i^* .

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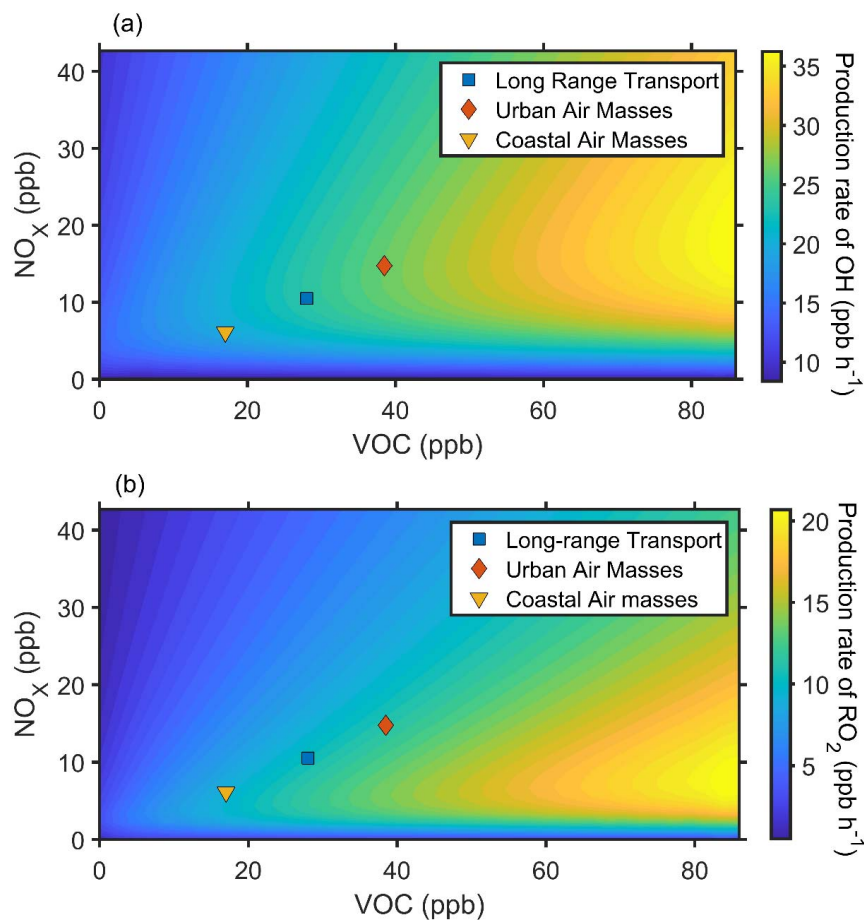
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699

700 **Figure 6.** Difference in the carbon oxidation state ($\overline{OS_C}$) in the gas phase in the afternoon (12:00-
701 16:00 LT) between the long-range transport and urban air masses periods. The symbol sizes are
702 proportional to the logarithm of concentration. The symbol colors in a and b represent that the
703 concentration during the urban air masses period was higher (red) or lower (blue) than that during
704 the long-range transport period.

705



706

707 **Figure 7.** The simulated production rate of OH(a) and RO₂(b) with NO_x and VOCs concentration

708 predicted by an observation-constrained box model under campaign average condition. Blue square,

709 red diamond, and yellow triangle represent the average conditions during long-range transport,

710 urban air masses, and coastal air masses period, respectively.

711