



Unveiling the Formation of Atmospheric Oxygenated Organic Molecules under Anthropogenic-Biogenic Interactions: Insights from Binned Positive Matrix Factorization on Multi-Subrange Mass Spectra

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Abstract

Oxygenated organic molecules (OOMs), which are low-volatility intermediates produced via volatile organic compound (VOC) oxidation, play a critical role in secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formation through gas-to-particle conversion. Despite recent advancements in OOM characterization, the high complexity of OOM spectra poses a significant challenge in the interpretation of their sources. This study investigates OOM formation in a Chinese megacity using an improved analytical strategy that integrates binned Positive Matrix Factorization on multiple sub-range mass spectral analysis. Unlike traditional approaches that handle mass spectral peak identification and chemical interpretation sequentially, our method simultaneously optimizes both, reducing uncertainties associated with peak assignment and chemical analysis. The method successfully identified 2571 OOM molecules and systematically revealed major OOM formation pathways through 11 distinct factors: five daytime photochemical processes, four nighttime NO₃-driven oxidation processes, and two regional mixed sources. Notably, this approach enabled the successful separation of sesquiterpene oxidation products in ambient measurements—compounds previously unidentified by traditional full-mass-range analysis due to their weak signals. The method captured dynamic changes in OOM composition under varying environmental conditions, demonstrating the influence of temperature and NO_x levels on OOM formation, as well as the volatility-dependent patterns influenced by condensation sink. This improved analytical strategy provides new insights into atmospheric OOM chemistry and establishes a robust foundation for future studies of VOCs-OOMs-SOA



37 conversion mechanisms.

38

39 **1 Introduction**

40 Secondary organic aerosol (SOA) constitutes a major component of submicron
41 aerosols in the global troposphere (Zhang et al., 2007; Jimenez et al., 2009),
42 significantly impacting climate (IPCC, 2023) and human health (Lim et al., 2012;
43 Shiraiwa et al., 2017). Understanding the sources and formation mechanisms of SOA
44 is therefore crucial for developing effective strategies for air pollution mitigation.

45 Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are widely recognized as the principal
46 precursors of SOA (Hallquist et al., 2009; Ziemann and Atkinson, 2012). To a large
47 extent, the transformation of VOCs into SOA proceeds through oxygenated organic
48 molecules (OOMs) as key intermediates (Ehn et al., 2014; Nie et al., 2022). This
49 process begins with the oxidation of VOCs, producing organic peroxy radicals (RO₂),
50 which then undergo diverse reaction pathways to form OOMs. The reactions of RO₂,
51 governed by unimolecular processes or bimolecular interactions with atmospheric
52 species such as nitrogen oxides (NO_x), hydroperoxyl radicals (HO₂), and other RO₂
53 radicals (Orlando and Tyndall, 2012; Goldman et al., 2021), play a pivotal role in the
54 functionalization of organic molecules. In addition, recent advances in chemical
55 ionization mass spectrometry have enabled the detection of previously unobserved
56 highly oxygenated products (Junninen et al., 2010; Jokinen et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2014),
57 highlighting efficient functionalization pathways through RO₂ autoxidation and
58 dimerization (Ehn et al., 2014; Bianchi et al., 2019). Along with the functionalization,
59 organic species tend to increase their oxygen content and reduce their volatility, thus
60 facilitating aerosol formation (Riccobono et al., 2014; Tröstl et al., 2016; Mohr et al.,
61 2019).

62 Recent studies have made substantial progress in understanding the formation of
63 OOMs from common atmospheric precursors such as terpenes, isoprene, aromatics, and
64 alkanes. Pioneer laboratory studies have provided key parameters of OOM formation
65 from these VOC precursors, including the yield and characteristic profile of OOM
66 under distinct and relatively simple chemical settings (Jokinen et al., 2015; Richters et
67 al., 2016; Molteni et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). However, it is
68 difficult to interpret ambient OOM formation based on laboratory studies. There are
69 two critical challenges. First, ambient atmosphere represents a complex interplay of
70 multi-precursor, where interactions during oxidation processes—such as oxidant
71 competition and RO₂ cross-reactions—give rise to significant non-linear effects
72 (McFiggans et al., 2019; Heinritzi et al., 2020; Takeuchi et al., 2022; Nie et al., 2023).
73 This means, even if VOC precursors can be well measured in an ambient environment,
74 OOM formation cannot be explained by a direct summation of individual precursor
75 systems informed by laboratory studies. Second, laboratory simulation conditions may



76 also deviate from real atmospheric conditions, particularly the oxidation processes and
77 RO₂ chemistry could be distorted by the unrealistically high oxidant concentrations
78 (Peng and Jimenez, 2020; Kenagy et al., 2024).

79 Currently, understanding OOM formation in the atmosphere primarily relies on
80 analyses of ambient data. In the real atmosphere with complex precursors and oxidants,
81 thousands of OOMs have been identified (Nie et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2022b; Zheng et
82 al., 2023; Tian et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2021, 2023, 2024). The vast
83 volume and high complexity of mass spectral data pose significant analytical challenges.
84 To tackle this, Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) (Ulbrich et al., 2009; Zhang et al.,
85 2011) has been applied to extract key processes in OOM formation (Yan et al., 2016;
86 Massoli et al., 2018; Ge et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2021, 2023, 2024). In PMF application,
87 two critical aspects demand attention. First, PMF-resolved factors represent processes
88 governed by source-sink dynamics. While maximizing the mass range (i.e., number of
89 OOM molecules) input to PMF increases the scope of information, this approach may
90 misattribute OOMs from the same sources to distinct factors due to volatility-dependent
91 condensation losses (Peräkylä et al., 2020), thereby undermining the source attribution
92 capability of PMF. To address this, an approach that divides mass spectra into smaller
93 subranges for separate PMF analysis has been proposed, which minimizes sink-induced
94 variations and enables better source process resolution (Zhang et al., 2020). Second,
95 accurate PMF results depend on the quality of the input data. In field observations,
96 OOM mass spectra contain overlapping peaks, and lower resolution instruments often
97 fail to determine accurate molecular formulas. High-resolution (HR) data, when
98 processed using direct peak-fitting methods, can introduce biases due to limited prior
99 knowledge and subjective decisions during peak assignment. A recently developed
100 approach, known as binPMF, circumvents these issues by using *m/z*-segregated raw
101 spectral data as the input, which preserves HR information without relying on
102 potentially inaccurate peak fitting (Zhang et al., 2019).

103 In this study, we employ an improved mass spectral analysis strategy that combines
104 binPMF with multiple sub-range spectral analysis to address analytical challenges in
105 OOM source retrieval. We investigate OOMs measured by a nitrate-based Chemical
106 Ionization-Atmospheric Pressure interface-Time of Flight mass spectrometer (CI-API-
107 TOF) during spring in Nanjing, a megacity in Eastern China characterized by a mix of
108 intense anthropogenic emissions (Ding et al., 2013, 2016) and biogenic contributions
109 (Liu et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2021). This complex environment, characterized by multi-
110 precursor interactions and varying oxidation conditions, provides an ideal context to
111 test and refine our analytical approach. We apply binPMF analysis on three *m/z* ranges
112 to identify main OOM formation pathways. We also examine the response of OOM
113 compositions and properties to multiple environmental conditions.

114



2 Methodology

2.1 Study site

All measurements in this study took place between April 19 and May 25, 2019, at the Station for Observing Regional Processes of the Earth System (SORPES), situated on Nanjing University's Xianlin campus within China's Yangtze River Delta region. This station is exposed to diverse atmospheric influences, including fossil fuel combustion, biomass burning, dust processes and biogenic emissions. Detailed information of the SORPES station has been comprehensively documented in multiple previous researches (Ding et al., 2013; Nie et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019).

2.2 Instrumentation

A chemical ionization atmospheric pressure interface time-of-flight mass spectrometer with nitrate reagent ions (nitrate CI-APi-TOF; Aerodyne Research Inc. and ToFwerk AG) was used to detect sulfuric acid (SA) and OOMs in ambient atmosphere. The working principles (Jokinen et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2014) and sampling settings (Liu et al., 2021, 2023) of the instrument have been given in previous literatures. The concentrations of OOMs were quantified using an empirical method based on the ionization and transmission efficiency of the CI-APi-TOF (Eq. 1) (Heinritzi et al., 2016).

$$[\text{OOM}_i] = \ln \left(1 + \frac{\sum_{n=0}^1 [\text{OOM}_i \cdot (\text{HNO}_3)_n \cdot \text{NO}_3^- + (\text{OOM}_i - \text{H})^-]}{\sum_{n=0}^2 [(\text{HNO}_3)_n \cdot \text{NO}_3^-]} \right) \times C \times T_i \quad (1)$$

Here $[\text{OOM}_i]$ is the concentration (molecules cm^{-3}) of an individual OOM. On the right side of the equation, the numerator in the parentheses is the detected total signals (ions s^{-1}) of one OOM charged by nitrate ions in adduct-forming and deprotonated ways, and the denominator is the sum of all reagent ions signals (ions s^{-1}). C is an H_2SO_4 -based calibration factor, with a value of $5.1 \times 10^9 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$ in this study, obtained from a calibration using H_2SO_4 following the method of previous study (Kürten et al., 2012) and a consideration of diffusion loss in the sampling tube by assuming that all OOMs detected have the same ionization efficiency as H_2SO_4 . T_i is a mass-dependent transmission efficiency of the APi-TOF inferred by depleting reagent ions with several perfluorinated acids (Heinritzi et al., 2016).

The atmospheric composition analysis employed multiple advanced instrumentation for comprehensive pollutant characterization. VOCs were quantified



150 using a proton transfer reaction time-of-flight mass spectrometer (TOF 1000 ultra, Ion-
151 icon Analytik, Austria). Fine particulate matter concentrations were acquired through
152 an integrated measurement approach combining light scattering photometry and beta
153 radiation attenuation (SHARP Monitor 5030, Thermo Scientific). For particulate matter
154 speciation, real-time chemical analysis was conducted with a time-of-flight aerosol
155 chemical speciation monitor (TOF-ACSM, Aerodyne Research). Gaseous pollutants
156 were monitored using state-of-the-art detection methods: nitrogen oxides (NO_x) were
157 analyzed using a chemiluminescence analyzer with a blue-light converter (Model 42i-
158 TL, TEI), while ozone, sulfur dioxide, and carbon monoxide concentrations were
159 determined respectively by ultraviolet photometry, pulsed-UV fluorescence, and
160 infrared photometry techniques (Models 49i, 43C, and 48C, TEI). Weekly calibration
161 was performed for all gas-phase measurements. Complementary meteorological
162 parameters, specifically atmospheric relative humidity (RH) and air temperature, were
163 continuously logged using an automatic weather station (AG1000, Campbell Scientific).

164 **2.3 binPMF analysis on multiple mass spectral sub-ranges**

165 We employed Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) on binned mass spectra (binPMF)
166 as our primary analytical strategy to deconvolve the complex mass spectral data into
167 interpretable source components. This method averages raw spectral data along the m/z
168 dimension without requiring prior knowledge of chemical compositions, significantly
169 reducing data processing complexity while maintaining analytical robustness.
170 Specifically, after mass calibration, the raw spectra were divided into narrow bins of
171 0.004 Th width, and the corresponding data and error matrices were prepared following
172 the methodology described in Zhang et al. (2019).

173 To address the challenges of the volatility-dependent loss variations and the orders-
174 of-magnitude variations in signal intensity across the mass spectrum, we implemented
175 binPMF analysis on three overlapping mass ranges: Range 1 (150-300 Th), Range 2
176 (250-400 Th), and Range 3 (350-500 Th). Such mass range division can generally
177 separate heavier, more condensable OOM from lighter, less condensable ones.
178 Therefore, this sub-range strategy minimizes the impact of sink-induced variations
179 while enabling better resolution of source processes. The overlapping regions between
180 adjacent ranges (250-300 Th and 350-400 Th) serve as crucial links for cross-validating
181 and comparing factors across different mass ranges.

182 The PMF analysis was performed using Source Finder (SOFI), an Igor Pro-based
183 interface for efficient source apportionment analysis. After determining the optimal
184 solution for each mass range, high-resolution peak fitting was conducted through
185 tofTools (version 6.11) in MATLAB (MathWorks Inc.) to obtain detailed molecular
186 composition of OOMs in each resolved factor.

187



3 Results

3.1 Overview

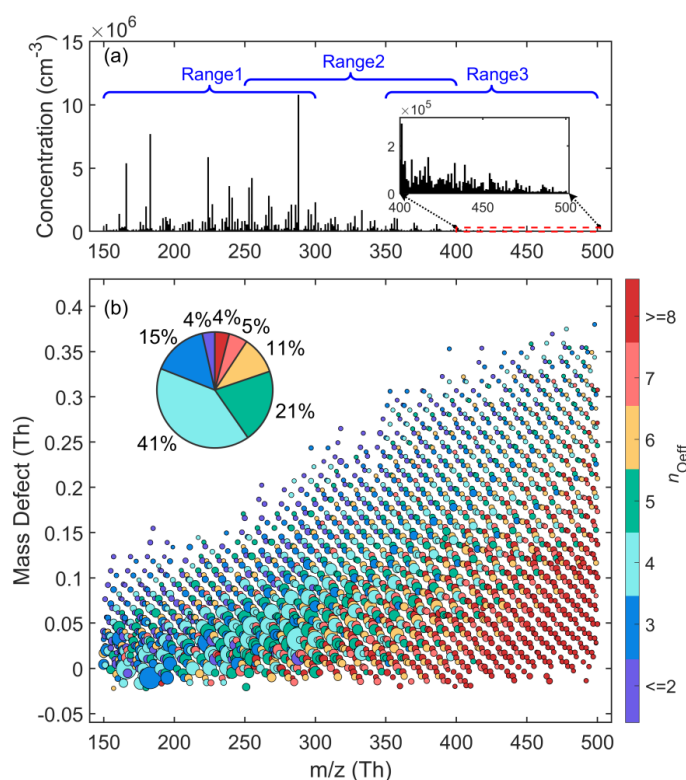
The average binned mass spectrum of detected ions (m/z 150-500) is shown in Figure 1a. Notably, mass spectral signals at m/z 201, which were dominated by intense nitrophenol peaks ($C_6H_5OHNO_3^-$), were excluded to prevent their disproportionate influence on the PMF results. The mass spectrum was divided into three ranges: R1 (150-300 Th), R2 (250-400 Th), and R3 (350-500 Th), with binPMF analysis performed independently on each range to determine optimal solutions. This approach enabled successful decomposition of complex mass spectra into distinct factors, effectively separating overlapping peaks. Details regarding factor selection criteria and diagnostic evaluations of PMF solutions for each range are provided in the Supplementary Information. The factor-specific spectra obtained from binPMF exhibited systematic chemical patterns, facilitating high-resolution peak fitting. Compared to traditional HR fitting of raw spectra, this binPMF-based approach improved molecular formula assignments through purified factor spectra and systematic pattern recognition. Through peak fitting and reconstruction of binPMF factor spectra, we identified 2571 OOM molecules in the mass range of m/z 150-500 Th, comprising CHO and CHON compounds. Nitrated phenols were excluded from this analysis given their relatively well-characterized formation pathways. The mass defect (MD) plot (Fig. 1b), colored by effective oxygen number (total oxygen minus two oxygen atoms from nitrate groups), shows characteristic chemical gradient or clustered distribution. The majority of observed OOMs include 3–6 effective oxygen atoms, accounting for 85% of the total signals. This high oxygenation distinguishes these compounds from traditional oxygenated VOCs (typically 1-2 oxygen atoms). The prevalence of these highly oxygenated species indicates extensive atmospheric oxidation processes, which will be discussed subsequently.

Beyond peak identification, binPMF analysis provided insights into the atmospheric evolution of OOMs. An integrated comparison of binPMF results across the three spectral subranges was performed to identify common factors. Factors with strong correlations ($r > 0.70$) in both spectral profiles and time series across overlapping subranges were classified as representing the same source and were merged accordingly (Figures 2 and S2-S4). Correlation analyses focused on adjacent subranges with 50 Th overlapping regions (Figure 3). While most factors demonstrated strong consistency across overlapping subranges, a few deviations were observed. For instance, the D1-AVOC-I factor exhibited a lower spectral profile correlation between R2 and R3 ($r = 0.52$) but was reliably identified as the same factor based on consistent temporal patterns.

In total, 11 merged factors were identified, excluding those dominated by nitrated



phenols. These include five factors associated with daytime chemistry (denoted by the "D-" prefix), four factors linked to nighttime chemistry ("N-" prefix), and two factors with no significant diurnal patterns. The identified factors display distinct molecular compositions and volatility distributions (Figures 4 and 5). This multi-subrange PMF approach, by focusing on narrower mass windows, enhanced sensitivity to minor spectral features that full-range analyses often overlook. For example, a factor dominated by sesquiterpene oxidation products was successfully isolated using this approach; this factor would otherwise have been merged into major nighttime factors in traditional full-range PMF analysis. To the best of our knowledge, few PMF studies identified the sesquiterpene oxidation-related factor in a polluted megacity region. A detailed characterization of all the factors, including their molecular signatures, oxidation pathways, and environmental implications, is provided in subsequent sections.

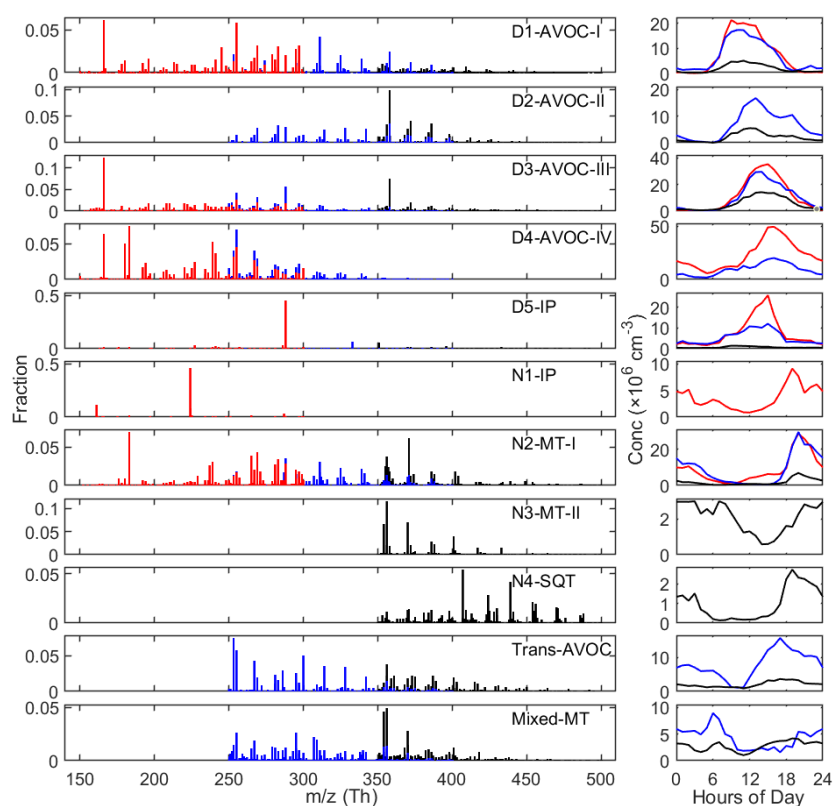


238

239 Figure 1. Overview of all non-nitro OOMs identified. (a) Combined overall mass
240 spectrum of the three subranges. (b) Mass defect plot of OOMs identified from the
241 reconstructed dataset based on binPMF results. Dots are colored by the number of
242 effective oxygen atoms and scaled according to the square root of concentration. The
243 pie chart displays the distribution of OOM fractions grouped by the number of effective
244 oxygen atoms.



245



246

247 Figure 2. Mass spectral profiles and median diurnal variations of the selected binPMF
 248 factors. Factors describing the similar process were assembled, red for Range 1, blue
 249 for Range 2 and black for Range 3.

250



Table 1 Summary of molecular characteristics of eleven discussed factors.

Factors	Ranges	Total Conc. (cm^{-3})	DBE	OSc	O:C	N:C	Peak time	Fingerprint molecules
D1-AVOC-I	1,2,3	1.74E+07	2.78	-0.19	0.88	0.11	9:00-13:00	$\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-1}\text{O}_6\text{N}$, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-5}\text{O}_8\text{N}$, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-4}\text{O}_{10}\text{N}_2$
D2-AVOC-II	2,3	1.11E+07	1.81	-0.73	0.89	0.17	13:00; 19:00	$\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-2}\text{O}_8\text{N}_2$, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-4}\text{O}_{10}\text{N}_2$
D3-AVOC-III	1,2,3	3.25E+07	2.73	0.13	1.01	0.10	13:00-15:00	$\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-4,2x-6}\text{O}_5$, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-3}\text{O}_7\text{N}$, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-5}\text{O}_{7,8}\text{N}$
D4-AVOC-IV	1,2	2.92E+07	2.16	-0.12	1.02	0.13	15:00-16:00	$\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-2}\text{O}_4$, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-1,2x-3}\text{O}_6\text{N}$
D5-IP	1,2,3	2.53E+07	1.55	-0.39	1.31	0.28	15:00	$\text{C}_5\text{H}_{10}\text{O}_8\text{N}_2$, $\text{C}_5\text{H}_9\text{O}_{10}\text{N}_3$
N1-IP	1	1.17E+07	1.99	-0.35	0.94	0.14	19:00	$\text{C}_5\text{H}_8\text{O}_5\text{N}^{\cdot}$
N2-MT-I	1,2,3	1.84E+07	2.35	-0.21	1.03	0.16	19:00-20:00	$\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-3}\text{O}_{6,7}\text{N}$, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{15,17}\text{O}_x\text{N}$, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16}\text{O}_x\text{N}_2$
N3-MT-II	3	2.67E+06	1.75	-0.79	0.95	0.21	0:00-3:00	$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16,18}\text{O}_x\text{N}_2$, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{17}\text{O}_x\text{N}_3$
N4-SQT	3	2.18E+06	2.99	-0.64	0.78	0.12	19:00	$\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{23,25}\text{O}_x\text{N}$, $\text{C}_{15}\text{H}_{24}\text{O}_x\text{N}_2$
Trans-AVOC	2,3	1.47E+07	1.70	-0.64	1.01	0.21	/	$\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-1,2x-3}\text{O}_6\text{N}$, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-2}\text{O}_8\text{N}_2$, $\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-3}\text{O}_{10}\text{N}_3$
Mixed-MT	2,3	8.96E+06	2.13	-0.79	0.78	0.14	/	$\text{C}_x\text{H}_{2x-1,2x-3}\text{O}_6\text{N}$, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{15,17}\text{O}_x\text{N}$, $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{16,18}\text{O}_x\text{N}_2$

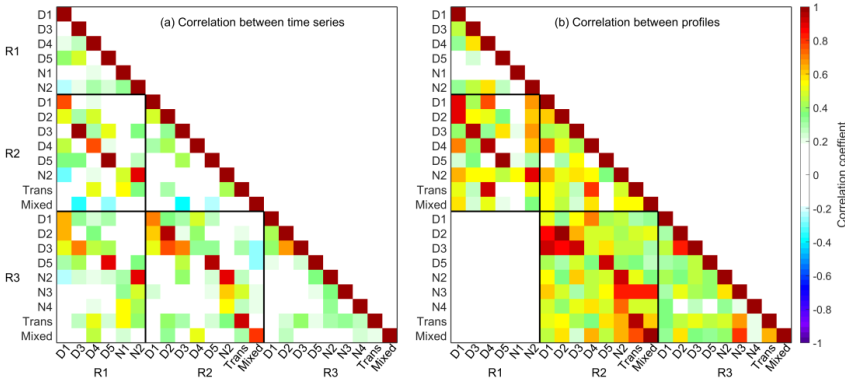


Figure 3. Correlation coefficient between (a) time series and (b) profiles of factors across all subranges. Values of correlation coefficient are shown as colors and numerically. The analysis of profile correlations is confined to the regions of overlap between the profiles.

3.2 Daytime chemistry

Among the identified factors, five were predominantly associated with daytime oxidation processes. Four of these factors were derived from anthropogenic VOC precursors, while one factor was attributed to the oxidation of biogenic isoprene. These daytime factors exhibited distinct temporal patterns that closely aligned with photochemical oxidation activities.



3.2.1 D1-AVOC-I

This factor exhibits a pronounced diurnal pattern characterized by low nighttime concentrations and the earliest onset of daytime increase, reaching a plateau earlier than other factors (Fig. 2). Its correlations with solar radiation and OH radical, particularly with the 'Arom $\times$ OH' proxy (representing aromatics-OH reaction rate), support its attribution to initial-stage photochemical processes (Fig. S5). Among all daytime factors, this factor shows the highest averaged double bond equivalent (DBE) (Table 1), primarily attributed to aromatic oxidation products (DBE > 2). The most abundant aromatic-derived species are $C_xH_{2x-5}O_{6-9}N$ ($x = [5, 17]$), consistent with products observed in OH-initiated oxidation experiments of aromatics under NO_x -influenced conditions (Tsiligiannis et al., 2019; Zaytsev et al., 2019). Notably, a similar factor, previously identified as 'Aro-OOM' in our summer and winter observations at the same site, showed comparable chemical characteristics (Liu et al., 2021, 2023). While aromatic products contribute significantly, the dominant components are $C_xH_{2x-1}O_6N$ ($x = [3, 13]$) series (Table S1), likely originating from alkane oxidation. The CHO compounds are predominantly formed through the RO_2+NO pathway, followed by alkoxy radical (RO) termination or fragmentation. The temporal behavior, oxidant dependency, and molecular compositions collectively characterize this factor as first-generation oxidation products of mixed anthropogenic VOCs.

3.2.2 D2-AVOC-II

As the only daytime factor lacking Range 1 components, this factor exhibits the lowest non-nitrate percentage among all daytime factors (Fig. 4). It is primarily composed of dinitrates, including $C_xH_{2x-2}O_8N_2$ ($x = [6, 18]$) and $C_xH_{2x-4}O_{10}N_2$ ($x = [7, 12]$), indicating that they should form through multi-generational oxidation processes. The first series represents typical aliphatic products, while the latter corresponds to second-generation aromatic products observed in laboratory studies. The temporal profile of this factor shows both a delayed onset and a peak concentration lagging the D1-AVOC-I factor, with maximum levels occurring around 13:00 LT. This timing is consistent with the behavior of multi-generational oxidation products. Notably, this factor shows a secondary peak around 19:00 LT (Fig. 2), likely attributed to NO_3 oxidation. It is important to note that NO_3 primarily reacts with carbon-carbon double bonds, targeting not only alkenes but also the unsaturated structures formed from OH-initiated aromatic ring opening during daytime. Therefore, we propose this factor represents a mixed oxidation process where precursors undergo initial OH oxidation with NO_x termination during the day, followed by further NO_3 oxidation at night. This mechanism explains the high organic nitrate fraction (93%) observed in this factor.

3.2.3 D3-AVOC-III

This factor shows strong correlations with O_3 and temperature (Fig. S5). It contains the highest proportion of CHO compounds, with characteristic molecules $C_xH_{2x-4}O_5$ (x



306 = [4, 10]) and $C_xH_{2x-6}O_5$ ($x = [5, 10]$, Table S4). These compounds are typical aromatic
307 oxidation products. While correlating with O_3 , it is important to note that O_3 itself does
308 not oxidize aromatics. Instead, OH radical serves as the primary oxidant for aromatics,
309 alkanes, and alkenes during daytime. The factor peaks in the afternoon, during periods
310 of high temperatures and low NO concentrations. These conditions favor RO_2
311 termination by HO_2 (also at its peak), leading to CHO compound formation (Newland
312 et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2023). Elevated temperatures suppress the $RO_2 + NO$ reaction
313 toward nitrate formation, instead promoting alkoxy RO and NO_2 production (Perring et
314 al., 2013). This RO termination involves fragmentation reactions, explaining the
315 abundance of C_3 - C_4 fragmentation products observed. The additional NO_2 production
316 contributes to O_3 formation. Therefore, we propose this factor represents a
317 characteristic photochemical process associated with O_3 formation, with anthropogenic
318 VOCs as primary reactants. A similar factor was previously identified at the same site
319 during summer observations, defined as 'Temp-related' (Liu et al., 2021).

320 **3.2.4 D4-AVOC-IV**

321 The formation mechanism of this factor is not yet fully understood due to its complex
322 temporal patterns and molecular composition. This factor is primarily composed of C_5 -
323 C_8 OOMs (Fig. 4), with a daytime peak occurring around 16:00 LT (Fig. 2). The
324 concentration does not drop to very low levels during the night, and in certain periods
325 (2 May to 7 May and 9 May to 16 May), higher nighttime values are observed,
326 suggesting some transport influence (Fig. S2 and S3). A significant proportion of the
327 factor consists of non-nitrates, with the most prominent components being $C_xH_{2x-2}O_4$
328 ($x = [3, 9]$, where $C_3H_4O_4$ has the highest concentration). These compounds have been
329 observed in previous studies and are identified as dicarboxylic acids (Ehn et al., 2010;
330 Ye et al., 2021). Many $C_xH_{2x-1}O_6N$ ($x = [3, 12]$) and $C_xH_{2x-3}O_6N$ ($x = [4, 14]$) series
331 were also present in this factor, which should mainly come from the oxidation of
332 alkanes in this site (Liu et al., 2021, 2023).

333 **3.2.5 D5-IP**

334 This factor is dominated by C_5 compounds, particularly $C_5H_{10}O_8N_2$ (Table S5). This
335 compound, an isoprene oxidation product containing two hydroxyl and two nitrate
336 groups, is likely formed through a two-step OH oxidation of isoprene followed by
337 RO_2+NO termination (Jenkin et al., 2015). Recent studies have identified this molecule
338 as a major isoprene nitrate component in the upper troposphere over the Amazon
339 rainforest, where it plays a crucial role in new particle formation (Zha et al., 2023;
340 Curtius et al., 2024). In our previous summer observations at this site, isoprene
341 oxidation processes exhibited stronger influences on OOMs, resulting in two distinct
342 factors characterized by $C_5H_{10}O_8N_2$: one representing local formation and another
343 indicating transport processes (Liu et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2021). Additionally, this factor
344 contains substantial nitrogen-containing C_{10} compounds in the R3 region, including
345 $C_{10}H_{16}O_xN_2$ ($x = [8, 14]$) and $C_{10}H_{17}O_xN_3$ ($x = [10, 14]$), which are likely products of



multi-generational processes involving OH oxidation of monoterpenes followed by RO₂+NO termination reactions.

3.3 Nighttime chemistry

In contrast to the complex photochemical processes during daytime, nighttime chemistry is driven by NO₃ radical oxidation of carbon-carbon double bonds, leading to factors with more distinct source characteristics. The following four factors exhibit clear chemical signatures associated with biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) and their NO₃-initiated oxidation pathways.

3.3.1 N1-IP

This factor, exclusively present in the R1 region, exhibits elevated concentrations during nighttime with a peak at 19:00 LT (Fig. 2). The two most prominent peaks in the mass spectrum correspond to the same compound C₅H₈O₅N, appearing at m/z 224 and 161, which represent its NO₃⁻ adduct and deprotonated forms, respectively. This RO₂ radical originates from NO₃-initiated oxidation of isoprene. This RO₂ radical arises from the NO₃-initiated oxidation of isoprene and represents the first RO₂ species formed in this reaction. It accounts for 57.4% of the total factor intensity (Table S6). While this compound was also observed in our summer measurements at this site, it was previously incorporated into a broader factor representing NO₃-oxidized BVOCs, including monoterpene oxidation products, due to the wider mass spectral range used in the binPMF analysis at that time. A series of similar RO₂ radicals have been reported in previous laboratory studies investigating isoprene NO₃ oxidation (Zhao et al., 2021). However, more highly oxygenated radicals (C₅H₈O₆₋₁₁N) were not observed in the present study, likely due to the suppression of further RO₂ radical oxidation under high NO_x conditions at this site.

3.3.2 N2-MT-I

This factor exhibits pronounced nocturnal characteristics, with peak concentrations observed at 20:00 LT (Fig. 2). A distinctive feature of this factor is the presence of a series of nitrogen-containing RO₂ radicals (C₁₀H₁₆O₈₋₁₁N), which serve as key markers of NO₃-initiated monoterpene oxidation. The factor's composition is predominantly comprised of C₆-C₁₀ OOMs (Fig. 4). In the R3 region, the major products are C₁₀ monoterpene-derived OOMs, consisting almost exclusively of organic nitrates, including C₁₀H_{15,17}O₉₋₁₂N and C₁₀H_{16,18}O₈₋₁₃N₂. In contrast, R1 and R2 regions are dominated by monoterpene fragmentation products, such as C₇H₉O₆₋₉N and C₉H₁₅O₆₋₉N (Table S7). These molecular compositions align well with laboratory observations from NO₃ oxidation experiments of β-pinene and limonene (Shen et al., 2021; Guo et al., 2022a). A similar factor, previously labeled as 'BVOC-OOMs-II', was also identified in our summer measurements at this site (Liu et al., 2021).



3.3.3 N3-MT-II

This factor, exclusively detected in the mass spectral sub-region R3, exhibits strong nighttime signals with minima occurring during the afternoon (Fig. 2). The dominance of C_{10} compounds indicates its primary composition of monoterpene oxidation products (Fig. 4). Unlike N2-MT-I, this factor features predominantly dinitrates and trinitrates (e.g., $C_{10}H_{16,18}O_{8-13}N_2$ and $C_{10}H_{17}O_{10-13}N_3$), with nitrate-containing compounds accounting for 98% of its total composition, indicating that it primarily consists of multi-generation oxidation products. The abundance of multi-nitrates and nighttime maximum strongly indicates NO_3 participation in driving repeated oxidation processes at night. Notably, this factor persists after sunrise, unlike the rapid morning decline observed in N2-MT-I, matching the behavior of the 'BVOC-OOM-III' factor from our summer campaign (Liu et al., 2021). This pattern suggests a potential mechanism where NO_3 -initiated nighttime monoterpene oxidation products undergo further oxidation, possibly involving OH, in the morning, yielding the observed multi-nitrate species.

3.3.4 N4-SQT

This factor is characterized by abundant C_{15} highly oxygenated organic molecules ($C_{15}H_{23,25}O_{6-13}N$, $C_{15}H_{24}O_{8-12}N_2$), attributed to sesquiterpene oxidation products (Table S9), with organic nitrates constituting 97% of the total products (Fig. 4). Similar to isoprene-derived N1-IP and monoterpene-derived N2-MT-I factors, NO_3 -derived C_{15} RO_2 radicals ($C_{15}H_{24}O_{7-13}N$) were detected, supported by the distinct diurnal pattern showing elevated nighttime concentrations and morning decrease (Fig. 2). Due to their extended carbon skeleton (C_{15}), sesquiterpene oxidation products demonstrate significantly lower volatility compared to monoterpene (C_{10}) and isoprene (C_5) products (Fig. 5), a property that recent laboratory and field studies have linked to their crucial role in early-stage new particle formation (Dada et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2024). In our previous summer measurements at this site, sesquiterpene signals were mixed with isoprene and monoterpene products without mass spectral sub-range analysis, often being overshadowed by stronger monoterpene signals (Liu et al., 2021). To our knowledge, this represents the first successful separation of sesquiterpene oxidation products in ambient measurements, enabling a clearer understanding of NO_3 -driven sesquiterpene chemistry under real atmospheric conditions.

3.4 Regional mixed sources

The remaining two factors show sustained concentrations throughout day and night with weak diurnal patterns, a characteristic feature of regional background.

3.4.1 Trans-AVOC

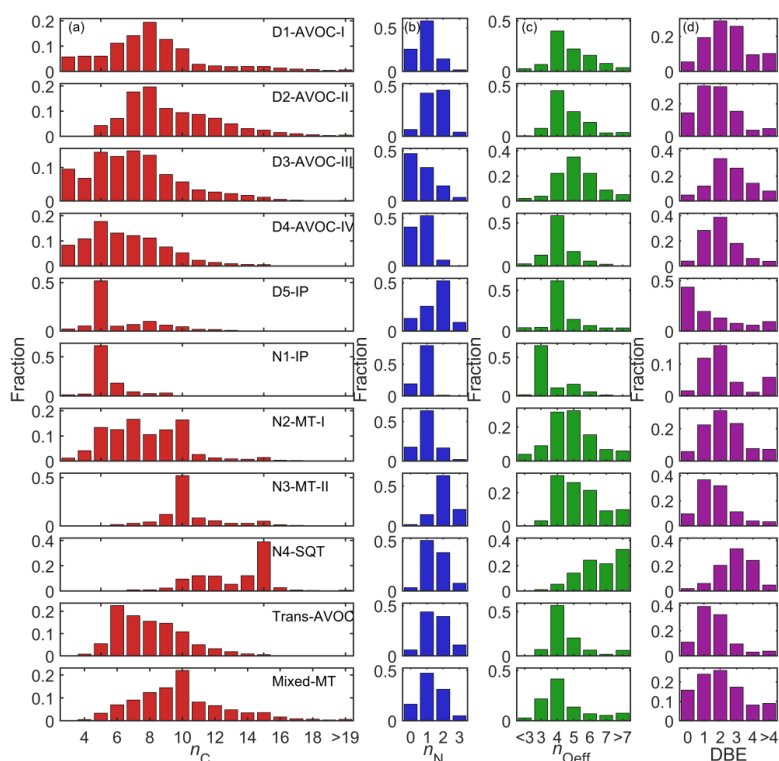
This factor is characterized by a high abundance of nitrogen-containing compounds, particularly di- and tri-nitrates, with predominant homologous series of $C_xH_{2x-2}O_8N_2$ (x



421 = [4, 14]) and $C_xH_{2x-1, 2x-3}O_{10,11}N_3$ ($x = [7, 13]$), indicating multiple RO_2+NO_x reactions.
 422 The molecular composition features both a high proportion of C_6 - C_{10} OOMs (81%) and
 423 consistently low double bond equivalents (DBE < 2), strongly indicating oxidation
 424 products from aliphatic precursors (Fig. 4). The factor shows elevated signal intensity
 425 during May 8-13, coinciding with regional transport events (Fig. S3 and S4). Such
 426 aliphatic-dominated spectral patterns associated with transport processes were more
 427 prominent in winter observations at this site, showing strong correlations with regional
 428 pollutants like $PM_{2.5}$. Combined with its multi-generation oxidation characteristics,
 429 these features suggest highly aged air masses of regional origin.

430 3.4.2 Mixed-MT

431 This factor exhibits a complex molecular composition. Although dominated by
 432 monoterpene-derived dinitrates ($C_{10}H_{16}O_{8,9}N_2$, $C_{10}H_{18}O_{8,9}N_2$), indicating multi-
 433 generation oxidation processes, its molecular distribution spans a broad range (C_5 - C_{15}),
 434 with significant signals observed across different carbon numbers, suggesting a mixture
 435 of oxidation products from various precursors beyond monoterpenes. The lack of
 436 distinct diurnal patterns in these mixed precursor contributions suggests either regional
 437 background characteristics or potential non-linear processes not fully resolved by PMF
 438 analysis.



439

440 Figure 4. Distribution of (a) the numbers of Carbon (n_C), (b) the numbers of Nitrogen



(n_N), (c) the numbers of Effective Oxygen (n_{Oeff}) and (d) double bond equivalents (DBE) of each factor.

4 Discussion: from volatility distribution to dynamic chemical processing

The application of multiple sub-range binPMF analysis provides novel insights into the volatility-dependent behavior of OOMs. A systematic examination of the identified factors reveals a clear volatility gradient across the three sub-ranges (R1–R3), which transition progressively from higher to lower volatility compounds (Fig. 5). Specifically, the major products in R1–R3 correspond to semi-volatile organic compounds (SVOCs, $10^{-0.5} < C^* < 10^{2.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), low-volatility organic compounds (LVOCs, $10^{-4.5} < C^* < 10^{-0.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and extremely low-volatility organic compounds (ELVOCs, $10^{-8.5} < C^* < 10^{-4.5} \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). These classifications, based on saturation vapor concentrations (C^*), validate our hypothesis that wider mass ranges inherently encompass greater variations in OOM volatility, often influenced by differential condensation sinks. The calculation of the saturation vapor concentrations is given in the Supplement. The sub-range approach minimizes such influences, allowing for a more accurate representation of chemical processes responsible for OOM formation.

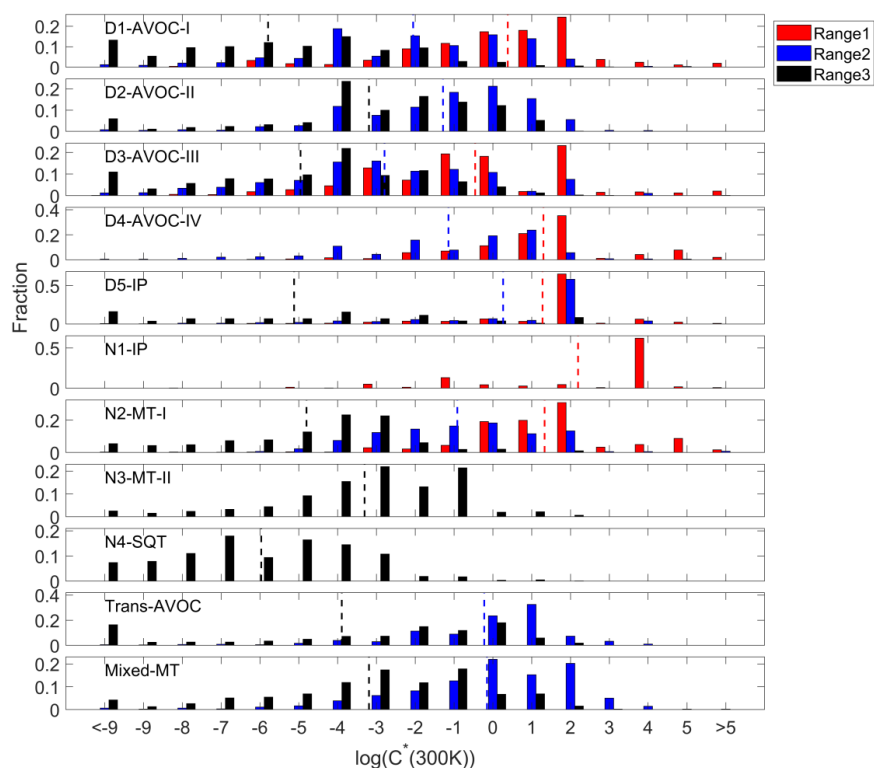




Figure 5. Volatility distribution of each factor at 300K. Columns in red, blue and black represent Range1, Range2 and Range3, respectively. The dotted lines represent the average volatility of the subranges with corresponding colors.

More importantly, this methodology enables us to capture the dynamics driving OOM formation. In contrast to traditional single-range PMF analysis, which assumes static factor profiles, this methodology reveals how chemical conditions and processing pathways evolve over time, reflected by temporal variations in the relative contributions of spectral sub-ranges to individual factors. These dynamic observations better represent atmospheric processes, where constantly changing oxidation conditions alter OOM distributions across different volatility ranges. By resolving these dynamics, our method avoids the oversimplification inherent to single-range analyses, which tend to average out temporal variability. Among the identified factors, three (D1-AVOC-I, D3-AVOC-III, and N2-MT-I) are particularly noteworthy as they span all three mass spectral sub-ranges, highlighting both the source and sink processes influencing their formation and distribution under varying atmospheric conditions.

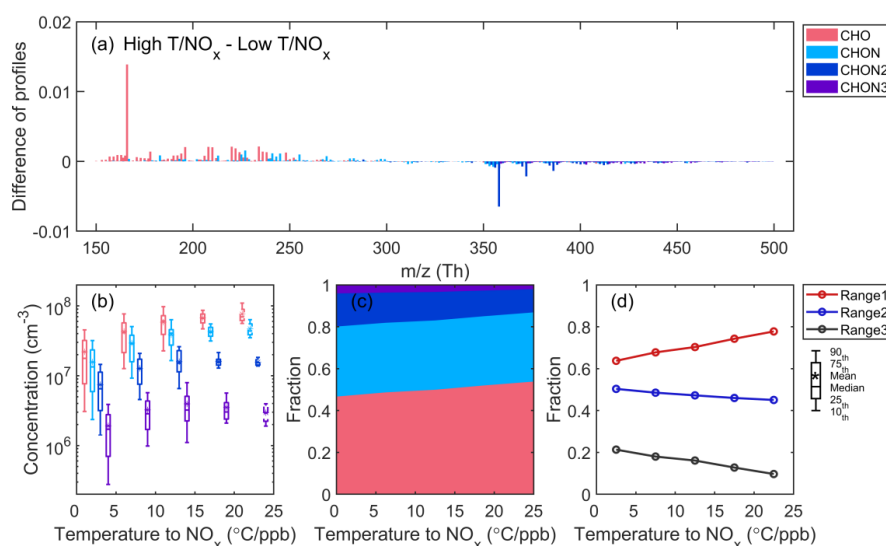


Figure 6. Characteristics of D3-AVOC-III under varying temperature and NO_x conditions. (a) Difference between the average mass spectra of D3-AVOC-III under high T/NO_x (above the upper quartile) and low T/NO_x (below the lower quartile) conditions. (b) Boxplots of the concentrations of CHO and CHON_x (x = [1,3]) species binned by T/NO_x ratio in each 5 °C/ppb interval. Data for T/NO_x > 20 °C/ppb are represented by dashed box plots owing too few data points. (c) Fractional contributions of CHO and CHON_x (x = [1,3]) species for different T/NO_x conditions. (d) Evolution

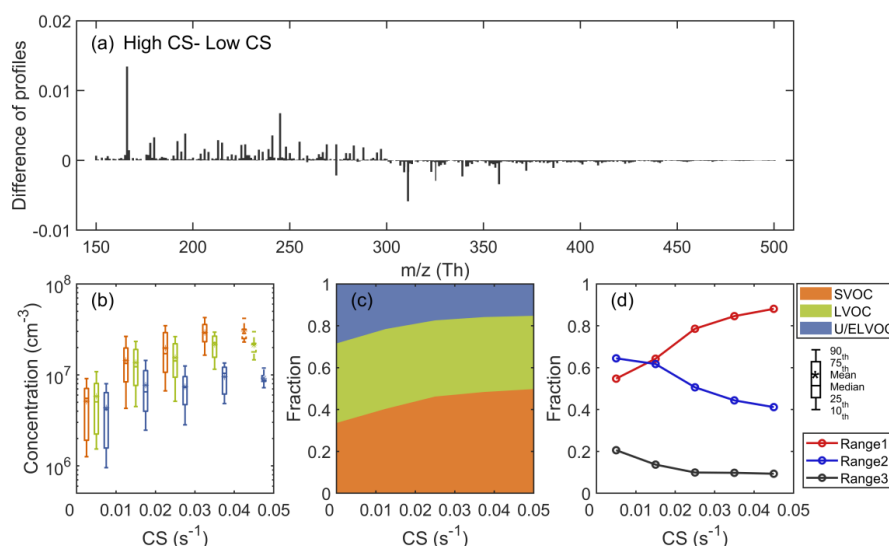


484 of fractional contributions of three sub-ranges as a function of T/NO_x ratio.

485

486 We examine the D3-AVOC-III factor to demonstrate how varying chemical
487 conditions influence OOM formation pathways. This factor showed limited sensitivity
488 to condensation sink (CS) variations (Fig. S6), suggesting its temporal evolution
489 primarily reflects formation processes rather than loss mechanisms. To systematically
490 investigate its behavior under different chemical environments, we focused on periods
491 with significant daily variations (09:00-21:00 LT) where concentrations exceeded $1 \times$
492 10^4 cm^{-3} across all sub-ranges. Given this factor's temperature dependence (Fig. S5),
493 we aimed to examine its impact on chemical composition, particularly the influence
494 on organic nitrate formation, to validate our proposed reaction pathways. Since NO_x
495 plays a key role in organic nitrate formation and is typically lower at higher
496 temperatures due to enhanced atmospheric mixing and photochemical activity, using
497 the T/NO_x ratio allows us to better isolate the effect of chemical mechanisms on
498 oxidation product distributions. To further explore how temperature-to-NO_x (T/NO_x)
499 conditions influence the composition of this factor, we analyzed the difference between
500 the average mass spectra under high T/NO_x (above the upper quartile) and low T/NO_x
501 (below the lower quartile) conditions (Fig. 6a). The results indicate that CHO species
502 contribute more under high temperature and low NO_x conditions. This pattern suggests
503 that elevated temperatures and lower NO_x levels promote pathways favoring non-
504 nitrated oxidation products. Concentrations of all species increased with the T/NO_x
505 ratio (Fig. 6b), indicative of enhanced oxidation processes likely driven by elevated OH
506 concentrations at higher temperatures and moderately reduced NO_x levels. Interestingly,
507 the relative abundance of product species exhibited distinct patterns within this factor:
508 the fraction of CHO species increased, while that of di- and tri-nitrates decreased as the
509 T/NO_x ratio increased (Fig. 6c). This trend reflects shifts in RO₂ radical chemistry—
510 under high NO_x conditions, RO₂ preferentially reacts with NO, whereas elevated
511 temperatures favor the RO + NO₂ channel, reducing the formation of RONO₂ from the
512 RO₂ + NO reaction. The observed chemical evolution of this factor is largely driven by
513 shifts in the fractional contributions of different sub-ranges (Fig. 6d). The increase in
514 R1's proportion suggests that lower m/z oxidation products (likely associated with
515 CHO species) become more dominant under high T/NO_x conditions. However, the
516 oxygen number distribution across this factor remained relatively stable, regardless of
517 the T/NO_x ratio. This observation suggests that our current sub-range resolution may
518 not fully capture autooxidation products, which typically involve the addition of 1–3
519 molecular oxygen units (O₂) and may remain confined to individual sub-ranges. Finer
520 mass spectral resolution could potentially reveal additional insights into the competition
521 between autooxidation and NO-mediated termination pathways.

522



523

524 Figure 7. Characteristics of the D1-AVOC-I factor under varying condensation sink
525 (CS) conditions. (a) Difference between the average mass spectra of D1-AVOC-I under
526 high CS (above the upper quartile) and low CS (below the lower quartile) conditions.
527 (b) Boxplots of the concentrations of SVOC, LVOC, and U/ELVOC species binned by
528 CS in each 0.01 s⁻¹ interval. Data for CS > 0.04 s⁻¹ are represented by dashed box plots
529 owing too few data points. (c) Fractional contributions of SVOC, LVOC, and
530 U/ELVOC species across different CS conditions. (d) Evolution of fractional
531 contributions of three sub-ranges as a function of CS.

532

533 Beyond source processes, we also investigated how condensation sink influences the
534 loss mechanisms of these factors, particularly through their volatility-dependent
535 behavior. For this investigation, we focused on D1-AVOC-I and N2-MT-I factors,
536 which exhibited the most pronounced CS dependence (Fig. 7 and Fig. S7). By analyzing
537 their high-concentration periods (D1: 08:00-16:00 LT; N2: 20:00-04:00 LT), we
538 examined how CS modulates the contributions from species across different volatility
539 classes. By analyzing the difference in average mass spectra between high and low CS
540 conditions (Fig. 7a), we find that higher CS conditions are associated with a depletion
541 of lower-volatility species (LVOC and below) and an enrichment of more volatile
542 compounds (SVOC and above). Our results also reveal that concentrations across all
543 volatility classes initially increase with rising CS (Fig. 7b), a trend attributed to
544 enhanced precursor availability during pollution episodes, as discussed in detail in our
545 previous analysis. However, this growth pattern exhibits distinct volatility-dependent
546 variations. Lower-volatility species show more pronounced response to CS changes, as



they have higher condensation rates onto particles, making them more susceptible to condensational losses under high CS conditions. Consequently, as CS increases, we observe a systematic shift in the relative composition: the fraction of more volatile species increases, while the proportion of lower-volatility compounds decreases (Fig. 7c). This redistribution occurs because when CS values are elevated, the condensation process becomes increasingly competitive with chemical production, particularly for low-volatility species, leading to their preferential depletion from the gas phase. Under extremely high CS conditions, this shift becomes even more pronounced, as condensation onto particles surpasses chemical production, leading to a net decrease in gas-phase concentrations for low-volatility species. This observation aligns with prior theoretical predictions and laboratory findings (Peräkylä et al., 2020), which suggest that condensation processes under high CS conditions act as a controlling mechanism for species partitioning. We analyzed the fractional contributions of different sub-ranges under varying CS conditions, and the results indicate that the fraction of R1 species increases significantly with CS, while R2 and R3 exhibit decreasing trends, suggesting that higher CS conditions favor the persistence of lower m/z species, likely corresponding to SVOC and LVOC, while suppressing contributions from higher m/z species associated with ULVOC and ELVOC.

5 Conclusions

In this study, we demonstrated the effectiveness of integrating multiple sub-range mass spectral analysis with binPMF to investigate OOM formation and evolution in the complex urban atmosphere. By leveraging this advanced analytical strategy, we compiled a comprehensive dataset of 2,571 OOM molecules (m/z 150–500 Th, excluding nitrated phenols), significantly enhancing the reliability of high-resolution (HR) peak identification, particularly in higher mass ranges where peak densities become increasingly complex. Importantly, it reduced the dimensionality of complex atmospheric OOM processes into 11 interpretable factors: five factors from daytime photochemical processes, four from nighttime NO_3 -driven oxidation processes, and two from regional mixed sources. Notably, the analysis achieved the first successful separation of sesquiterpene oxidation products in ambient measurements, previously obscured in traditional full-range analysis due to weak signals and overlapping temporal patterns with other nighttime factors, demonstrating superior source apportionment capability.

Further analyses revealed systematic volatility distributions across different mass ranges, showing a clear transition from SVOCs (m/z 150–300 Th) to LVOCs (m/z 250–400 Th) and ELVOCs (m/z 350–500 Th). This observed volatility-dependent distribution validates the critical importance of accounting for condensation losses in mass spectral analyses and reinforces the effectiveness of our sub-range analytical strategy. Moreover, our method successfully captured the dynamic evolution of OOM



587 composition across different characteristic processes. The observed temporal variations
588 in factor profiles provide a more realistic representation of atmospheric processing,
589 revealing how source and sink processes simultaneously shape OOM composition and
590 distribution - insights that would be obscured in traditional single-range PMF analysis
591 where factor profiles remain static.

592 Overall, the dynamic chemical insights and improved OOM characterization
593 achieved in this study represent a significant step forward in understanding atmospheric
594 OOM chemistry. This integrated analytical approach offers an integrated framework for
595 future studies, with the improved chemical resolution and volatility-dependent analysis
596 providing a clearer understanding of OOM formation mechanisms. Furthermore, these
597 findings offer valuable constraints for refining atmospheric models of SOA formation
598 and assessing their broader environmental impacts.

599

600 *Data availability.* Measurement data at the SORPES station, including OOM data and
601 relevant trace gas and aerosol data as well as meteorological data, are available upon
602 request from the corresponding author before the SORPES database is open to the
603 public.

604 *Author contribution.* WN, YLL and AD designed this research. JY and YLL analyzed
605 the data and wrote the manuscript. YLL, WN and CY contributed to the advanced
606 writing. YLL conducted the OOM observations. CY, QZ, YYL, DG, CL, CZ and XC
607 collected other research materials. All authors participated in the relevant scientific
608 discussion and commented on the manuscript.

609 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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