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1      **Revealing the Underestimation of Anthropogenic Organosulfates in**  
2      **Atmospheric Aerosols in Urban Regions**

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20 **ABSTRACT**

21 Organosulfates (OSs) are important components of organic aerosols, which serve as  
22 critical tracers of secondary organic aerosols (SOA). However, molecular composition,  
23 ~~classification~~precursor-OS correspondence, and formation driving factors of OSs at  
24 different atmospheric conditions have not been fully constrained. In this work, we  
25 integrated OSs molecular composition, precursor-constrained positive matrix  
26 factorization (PMF) source apportionment, and OSs-precursor correlation analysis to  
27 classify OSs detected from PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples according to their volatile organic compounds  
28 (VOCs) precursors collected from three different cities (Beijing, Taiyuan, and Changsha)  
29 in China. This new approach enables the accurate classification of OSs from molecular  
30 perspective. Compared with conventional classification methods, we found the mass  
31 fraction of Aliphatic OSs and (including) nitrooxy OSs (; NOSs) increased by 22.0%,  
32 17.8%, and 10.3% in Beijing, Taiyuan, and Changsha, respectively, highlighting the  
33 underestimation of Aliphatic OSs and NOSs in urban regions. The formation driving  
34 factors of Aliphatic OSsand NOSs were further investigated. We found that elevated  
35 aerosol liquid water content promoted the formation of Aliphatic OSsand NOSs only  
36 when aerosols transition from non-liquid state to liquid state. In addition, enhanced  
37 inorganic sulfate mass concentrations, and O<sub>x</sub> (O<sub>x</sub> = NO<sub>2</sub> + O<sub>3</sub>) concentrations, as well as  
38 decreased aerosol pH commonly facilitated the formation of Aliphatic OSsand NOSs.  
39 These results reveal a significant underestimation of OSs derived from anthropogenic  
40 emissions, particularly Aliphatic OSs, highlighting the need for a deeper understanding  
41 of SOA formation and composition in urban environments.These results reveal the  
42 underestimation of OS derived from anthropogenic emission, highlighting the potential  
43 indicative role of Aliphatic OSs and NOSs in urban SOA.

44 **KEY WORDS:** organosulfate; non-target analysis; high-resolution mass spectrometry;  
45 secondary organic aerosol; PMF source apportionment

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## 47 1. Introduction

48 Due to the diversity of natural and anthropogenic emissions and the complexity of atmospheric  
49 chemistry, investigating the chemical characterization and formation mechanisms of secondary  
50 organic aerosols (SOA) remains challenging. Among SOA components, organosulfates (OSs) have  
51 emerged as key tracers (Brüggemann et al., 2020; Hoyle et al., 2011), as their formation is primarily  
52 governed by secondary atmospheric processes. Moreover, OSs significantly influence the aerosol  
53 physicochemical properties, including acidity (Riva et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019), hygroscopicity  
54 (Estillore et al., 2016; Ohno et al., 2022; Hansen et al., 2015), and light-absorption properties (Fleming  
55 et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2025). Therefore, a deeper understanding of OSs abundance, sources, and  
56 formation drivers is crucial for elucidating SOA formation and its properties.

57 Quantifying OSs abundance is ~~vital critical~~ to assess their contribution to SOA. However, this is  
58 difficult due to the large number and structural diversity of OSs molecules and the lack of authentic  
59 standards. Most studies quantify a few representative OSs using synthetic or surrogate standards  
60 (Wang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2018b; He et al., 2022), while non-target analysis  
61 (NTA) with high-resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) offers broader molecular characterization  
62 (Huang et al., 2023a; Wang et al., 2022b; Cai et al., 2020). Although NTA combined with surrogate  
63 standards allows molecular-level (semi-)quantification, overall OS mass concentrations remain  
64 underestimated, and many OSss remain unidentified (Lukács et al., 2009; Cao et al., 2017; Tolocka  
65 and Turpin, 2012; Ma et al., 2025).

66 ~~Accurate classification of classifying OSs by based on~~ their precursors is ~~essential for reliable~~  
67 ~~quantification and mechanistic insights~~ a powerful approach for understanding OS formation from a  
68 ~~mechanistic perspective~~. OSs from specific precursors generally share similar elemental compositions,  
69 with characteristic ranges of C atoms, double bond equivalents (DBE), and aromaticity equivalents  
70 (Xc). For example, isoprene-derived OSs typically contain 4–5 C atoms; monoterpene- and  
71 sesquiterpene-derived OSs usually have 9–10 and 14–15 C atoms, respectively (Lin et al., 2012; Riva  
72 et al., 2016c; Wang et al., 2019a; Surratt et al., 2008; Riva et al., 2015). An “OS precursor map,”  
73 correlating molecular weight and carbon number based on chamber studies, has been developed to  
74 classify OSs accordingly (Wang et al., 2019a). However, these approaches often oversimplify OSs  
75 formation by relying solely on elemental composition, leaving many OSs without identified precursors.

76 The formation mechanisms of OSs remain incompletely understood, though several driving  
77 factors have been identified through controlled chamber experiments and ambient observations. For  
78 instance, increased aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) enhances OSs formation by promoting the  
79 uptake of gaseous precursors (Xu et al., 2021a; Wang et al., 2021b) (Edwards et al., 2017; Brown et  
80 al., 2012). Inorganic sulfate can also affect OSs formation by acting as nucleophiles via epoxide  
81 pathway (Eddingsaas et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2020). However, meteorological conditions vary across  
82 cities, meaning the relative importance of these factors may differ by location. Thus, evaluating these  
83 formation drivers under diverse atmospheric conditions is essential. Identifying both common and  
84 region-specific drivers is key to a comprehensive understanding of OSs formation mechanisms.

85 In this study, we employed ~~non target analysis~~ (NTA) using ultra-high performance liquid  
86 chromatography (UHPLC) coupled with high-resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS) to characterize

87 OSs molecular composition in PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples from three cities. Identified OSs were classified by their  
88 VOCs precursors—including aromatic, aliphatic, monoterpene, and sesquiterpene VOCs—via  
89 precursor-constrained positive matrix factorization (PMF). Mass concentrations were quantified or  
90 semi-quantified using authentic or surrogate standards. Additionally, spatial variations in OS  
91 concentrations and co-located environmental factors were analyzed to distinguish both common and  
92 site-specific drivers of OS formation.

## 93 2. Methodology

### 94 2.1 Sampling and Filter Extraction

95 Field observations were conducted during winter (December 2023 to January 2024) at three urban  
96 sites in China: Beijing, Taiyuan, and Changsha. The site selection was based on contrasts in winter  
97 meteorological conditions and dominate PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources. For meteorological conditions, Beijing and  
98 Taiyuan represent northern Chinese cities with cold, dry conditions (low RH). In comparison,  
99 Changsha is characterized by relatively higher winter RH. In terms of PM<sub>2.5</sub> sources, Taiyuan is a  
100 traditional industrial and coal-mining base, Changsha's pollution profile is more influenced by traffic  
101 and domestic cooking emissions, whereas Beijing is characterized by a high mass fraction of  
102 secondary aerosols. This enables a comparative analysis of OS formation mechanisms under varied  
103 atmospheric conditions. In Beijing, PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples were collected at the Peking University Atmosphere  
104 Environment Monitoring Station (PKUERS; 40.00°N, 116.32°E), as detailed in previous studies  
105 (Wang et al., 2023a). Sampling in Taiyuan and Changsha took place on rooftops at the Taoyuan  
106 National Control Station for Ambient Air Quality (37.88°N, 112.55°E) and the Hunan Hybrid Rice  
107 Research Center (28.20°N, 113.09°E), respectively (see Figure S1).

108 Daily PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples were collected on quartz fiber filters ( $\phi = 47$  mm, Whatman Inc.) from 9:00  
109 to 8:00 local time the next day. All quartz fiber filters were pre-baked at 550 °C before sampling to  
110 remove the background organic matters. In Beijing and Taiyuan, RH-resolved sampling was  
111 performed using an RH-resolved sampler, stratifying daily samples into low (RH  $\leq 40\%$ ), moderate  
112 ( $40\% < RH \leq 60\%$ ), and high ( $RH > 60\%$ ) RH regimes with the sampling flow rate of 38 L/min. Due  
113 to persistently high RH in Changsha, a four-channel sampler (TH-16, Wuhan Tianhong Inc.) collected  
114 PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples without RH stratification with the flow rate of 16.7 L/min. Consequently, Beijing and  
115 Taiyuan collected one or more samples daily, whereas Changsha collected one sample per day. A total  
116 of 40, 64, and 30 samples were obtained from Beijing, Taiyuan, and Changsha, respectively. The  
117 samples were stored in a freezer at -18 °C immediately after collection. The maximum duration  
118 between the completion of sampling and the start of chemical analysis was approximately 40 days.  
119 Prior to analysis, all samples were equilibrated for 24 hours under controlled temperature (20 ± 1 °C)  
120 and RH (40-45%) within a clean bench, in order to allow the filters to reach a stable, reproducible  
121 condition for subsequent handling and to minimize moisture condensation. Average daily PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass  
122 concentrations and RH during sampling are summarized in Table S1.

123 Sample extraction followed established protocols (Wang et al., 2020). Briefly, filters were  
124 ultrasonically—extracted twice for 20 minutes. A total volume of 10 mL with LC-MS grade  
125 methanol (Merck Inc.) was used for each sample. All extracts were filtered through 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$  PTFE

126 syringe filters, and evaporated under a gentle stream of high-purity N<sub>2</sub> (>99.99%). The dried extracts  
127 were then redissolved in 2 mL of LC-MS grade methanol for analysis. This step was necessary to  
128 achieve sufficient sensitivity for the detection of OSs with low concentration.

129 During the campaign, gaseous pollutants (SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, CO) were monitored using automatic  
130 analyzers. PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> mass concentrations were measured by tapered element oscillating  
131 microbalance (TEOM). Water-soluble ions (Na<sup>+</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup>, Mg<sup>2+</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) were  
132 analyzed with the Monitor for AeRosols and Gases in ambient Air (MARGA) coupled with ion  
133 chromatography. Organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) were quantified by online OC/EC  
134 analyzers or carbon aerosol speciation systems. Trace elements in PM<sub>2.5</sub> were determined by X-ray  
135 fluorescence spectrometry (XRF). Additionally, VOCs concentrations were measured using an online  
136 gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) system with a one-hour time resolution in Taiyuan  
137 and Changsha. Table S2 summarizes the monitoring instruments deployed at each site. All instruments  
138 were calibrated to ensure the reliability of the measurement data. Specifically, the online gas pollutants  
139 and particulate matter automatic analyzers underwent automatic zero/span checks every 24 hours at  
140 0:00 local time. For MARGA-ion chromatography, OC/EC analyzers, and XRF systems were  
141 calibrated weekly. The online GC-MS system was automatically calibrated every 24 hours using  
142 standard VOCs mixture.

## 143 2.2 Identification of Organosulfates

144 The molecular composition of PM<sub>2.5</sub> extracts was analyzed using an ultra-high performance  
145 liquid chromatography (UHPLC) system (Thermo Ultimate 3000, Thermo Scientific) coupled with an  
146 Orbitrap HRMS (Orbitrap Fusion, Thermo Scientific) equipped with an electrospray ionization (ESI)  
147 source operating in negative mode. Chromatographic separation was achieved on a reversed-phase  
148 Accucore C18 column (150 × 2.1 mm, 2.6 μm particle size, Thermo Scientific). For tandem MS  
149 acquisition, full MS scans (*m/z* 70–700) were collected at a resolving power of 120,000, followed by  
150 data-dependent MS/MS (ddMS<sup>2</sup>) scans (*m/z* 50–500) at 30,000 resolving power. Detailed UHPLC-  
151 HRMS<sup>2</sup> parameters are provided in Text S1.

152 NTA was performed using Compound Discoverer (CD) software (version 3.3, Thermo Scientific)  
153 to identify chromatographic peak features (workflow details in Table S3). Molecular formulas were  
154 assigned based on elemental combinations C<sub>c</sub>H<sub>h</sub>O<sub>o</sub>N<sub>n</sub>S<sub>s</sub> (c = 1–90, h = 1–200, o = 0–20, n = 0–1, s =  
155 0–1) within a mass tolerance of 0.005 Da with up to one <sup>13</sup>C isotope. Formulas with hydrogen-to-  
156 carbon (H/C) ratios outside 0.3–3.0 and oxygen-to-carbon (O/C) ratios beyond 0–3.0 were excluded  
157 to remove implausible assignments. We calculated the double bond equivalent (DBE) and aromatic  
158 index represented by Xc based on assigned elemental combinations using eqs. (1) and (2), where m  
159 and k were the fractions of oxygen and sulfur atoms in the π-bond structures of a compound (both m  
160 and k were presumed to be 0.50 in this work (Yassine et al., 2014)). Double bond equivalent (DBE)  
161 and Xc (Ma et al., 2022) were calculated using eqs. (1) and (2), where m and k were the fractions of  
162 oxygen and sulfur atoms in the π-bond structures of a compound (both m and k were presumed to be  
163 0.50 in this work (Yassine et al., 2014)).

164 DBE = c – 0.5h + 0.5n + 1 (1)

165 Xc = (3 × (DBE – m × o – k × s) – 2)/(DBE – m × o – k × s) (if DBE < (m × o +

166  $k \times s)$  or  $X_c < 0$ , then  $X_c$  was set to 0 (2)

167 In eq. (2),  $X_c$  is an important indicator of whether aromatic rings exist in a molecule. Studies  
168 have proved that a molecule is considered aromatic if its  $X_c$  value exceeds 2.50 (Ma et al., 2022;  
169 Yassine et al., 2014). OSs were selected based on compounds with  $O/S \geq 4$  and  $HSO_4^-$  ( $m/z$  96.96010)  
170 and/or  $SO_3^-$  ( $m/z$  79.95736) fragments were observed in their corresponding  $MS^2$  spectra. Among them,  
171 if N number is 1,  $O/S \geq 7$ , and their  $MS^2$  spectra showed  $ONO_2^-$  ( $m/z$  61.98837) fragment, these OSs  
172 were defined as nitrooxy OSs (NOSs). It should be noted that several CHOS (composed of C, H, O,  
173 and S atoms, hereinafter) and CHONS species were not determined as OSs due to their low-abundance  
174 and insufficient to trigger reliable data-dependent  $MS^2$  acquisition, which may lead to an  
175 underestimation of total OS mass concentration.

### 176 2.3 Classification and Quantification/Semi-quantification of Organosulfates

177 To ensure the reliability of quantitative analysis and source attribution, this study focuses on OS  
178 species with  $C \geq 8$ . The exclusion of smaller OSs ( $C \leq 7$ ) is based on challenges in their unambiguous  
179 identification, including co-elution with interfering compounds (Liu et al., 2024), and higher  
180 uncertainty in precursor assignment due to the lack of characteristic “tracer” molecules in laboratory  
181 experiments. Though redissolve using pure methanol may not be the ideal solvent for retaining polar,  
182 early-eluting compounds on the reversed-phase column, it provided a consistent solvent for the  
183 analysis of the mid- and non-polar OS species ( $C \geq 8$ ) that are the focus of this study.

184 Due to reversed phase column limitations, concentration estimates of small OSs ( $C \leq 7$ ) are  
185 highly uncertain (Liu et al., 2024); thus, only OSs with  $C \geq 8$  were analyzed. To classify the identified  
186 OSs, we employed and compared two distinct classification approaches. Firstly, a conventional  
187 classification approach relies primarily on precursor–product relationships established through  
188 controlled laboratory chamber experiments and field campaigns. Firstly, we used conventional  
189 classification approach following previous studies (Zhao et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2021a; Deng et al.,  
190 2021; Xu et al., 2021b; Mutzel et al., 2015; Brüggemann et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2024; Duporté et al.,  
191 2020; Huang et al., 2023b; Wang et al., 2022b; Riva et al., 2016a). Based on these established  
192 precursor–product relationships, All-detected OSs and NOSs were classified into seven-four groups:  
193 Monoterpene OSs and (including Monoterpene NOSs, hereinafter), Aliphatic OSs (including Aliphatic  
194 NOSs, hereinafter), Aromatic OSs and (including Aromatic NOSs, hereinafter), and Sesquiterpene  
195 OSs and (including Sesquiterpene NOSs, hereinafter) (see Table S4 for details). NOSs from aliphatic  
196 precursors were not observed. Those without identified precursors were labeled Unknown OSs or  
197 NOSs. It is apparently that this approach has notable limitations when applied to detected OS in  
198 atmospheric aerosols. A substantial fraction of detected OSs does not match known laboratory tracers  
199 and are thus labeled Unknown OSs (including Unknown NOSs, hereinafter).

200 Synthetic  $\alpha$ -pinene OSs ( $C_{10}H_{17}O_5S^-$ ) and NOSs ( $C_{10}H_{16}NO_7S^-$ ) served for (semi-)quantifying  
201 Monoterpene and Sesquiterpene OSs and NOSs. Their detailed synthesis procedure was described in  
202 previous study (Wang et al., 2019b). Potassium phenyl sulfate ( $C_6H_5O_4S^-$ ) and sodium octyl sulfate  
203 ( $C_8H_{17}O_4S^-$ ) were used for Aromatic OSs and NOSs and Aliphatic OSs due to lack of authentic  
204 standards (Yang et al., 2023; He et al., 2022; Staudt et al., 2014). Unknown OSs and NOSs were semi-  
205 quantified by surrogates with similar retention times (RT) (Yang et al., 2023; Huang et al., 2023b).  
206 Table 1 lists the standards, retention times, and quantified categories. Unknown OSs and NOSs were

207 absent between 2.00–5.00 min and after 13.60 min.

208

209 **Table 1** Chemical structure, UHPLC retention time, and quantified categories of standards used in  
210 the quantification/semi-quantification of OSs and NOSs

Formula (M-H)	<i>m/z</i> ([M-H] <sup>-</sup> )	Chemical structure	UHPLC RT (min)	Quantified OSs categories
C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>5</sub> O <sub>4</sub> S <sup>-</sup>	172.99140		0.92	Aromatic OSs and NOSs, Unknown OSs and NOSs (RT 0.50-2.00 min)
C <sub>8</sub> H <sub>17</sub> O <sub>4</sub> S <sup>-</sup>	209.08530		10.30	Aliphatic OSs, Unknown OSs and NOSs (RT 10.00- 13.60 min)
C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>17</sub> O <sub>5</sub> S <sup>-</sup>	249.08022		7.73	Monoterpene OSs, Sesquiterpene OSs, Unknown OSs and NOSs (RT 5.00-10.00 min)
C <sub>10</sub> H <sub>16</sub> NO <sub>7</sub> S <sup>-</sup>	294.06530		9.26	Monoterpene NOSs and Sesquiterpene NOSs

211 This quantification approach introduces inherent uncertainty, as differences in molecular  
212 structure and functional groups between a surrogate and detected OSs have different ionization  
213 efficiency (Ma et al., 2025), which is a well-documented challenge in NTA of complex mixtures.  
214 However, this approach provides a consistent basis for comparing the relative abundance of OS in  
215 different cities and their formation driving factors. Hence, the mass concentration of detected OSs is  
216 still reliable in understanding their classification and formation driving factors.

217 To classify the Unknown OSs and NOSs, we first calculated the Xc of each specie. Those with  
218 DBE > 2 and Xc > 2.50 were designated as Aromatic OSs and NOSs (Yassine et al., 2014).  
219 Subsequently, constrained positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis was performed using EPA  
220 PMF 5.0. The input matrix comprised the mass concentrations of 60 unclassified OS species across  
221 all samples.

222 Figure S2 shows the source profiles of PMF model. Four factors were identified in this study.  
223 Specifically, Factor 1 is identified as Aliphatic OSs due to the dominant contributions from species  
224 like C<sub>11</sub>H<sub>22</sub>O<sub>5</sub>S and C<sub>12</sub>H<sub>24</sub>O<sub>5</sub>S, which possess low DBE and are characteristic of long-chain alkane  
225 oxidation (Yang et al., 2024). This assignment is strongly supported by the co-variation of this factor  
226 with n-dodecane. Similarly, Factor 2 is classified as Aromatic OSs, highlighted by the significant  
227 contribution of C<sub>10</sub>H<sub>10</sub>O<sub>7</sub>S and C<sub>11</sub>H<sub>14</sub>O<sub>7</sub>S, which have been proved as OSs derived from typical  
228 aromatic VOCs (Riva et al., 2015). In addition, the high contributions of benzene, toluene, and styrene  
229 in Factor 2 further suggests that this factor should be classified as Aromatic OSs. As for Factor 3 and  
230 Factor 4 is confirmed by the prominence of established Monoterpene OSs (Surratt et al., 2008; Jinuma  
231 et al., 2007) (e.g., C<sub>10</sub>H<sub>18</sub>O<sub>5</sub>S, C<sub>10</sub>H<sub>17</sub>NO<sub>7</sub>S) and Sesquiterpene OSs (Wang et al., 2022b) (e.g.,  
232 C<sub>14</sub>H<sub>28</sub>O<sub>6</sub>S, C<sub>15</sub>H<sub>25</sub>NO<sub>7</sub>S), respectively. Moreover, isoprene showed high contribution in both Factors

3 and 4. As monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes cannot be detected by online GC-MS, considering that  
monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes mainly originate from biogenic sources and Given monoterpenes  
and sesquiterpenes primarily originate from biogenic sources and strongly correlate with  
isoprene strongly correlate with isoprene (Guenther et al., 2006; Sakulyanontvittaya et al., 2008),  
therefore, isoprene is used as a surrogate marker as Monoterpene OSs and Sesquiterpene OSs. High  
contribution of isoprene in Factors 3 and 4 proved that these factors were respectively determined as  
Monoterpene OSs and Sesquiterpene OSs. Several OSs with known precursors served as auxiliary  
tracers to guide source apportionment. Specifically,  $C_{11}H_{22}O_5S$  and  $C_{12}H_{24}O_5S$  for long-chain aliphatic  
OSs (Yang et al., 2024);  $C_{10}H_{10}O_7S$  and  $C_{11}H_{14}O_7S$  for Aromatic OSs and NOSs (Riva et al., 2015);  
 $C_{10}H_{18}O_5S$  and  $C_{10}H_{17}NO_7S$  for Monoterpene OSs and NOSs, respectively (Suratt et al., 2008; Iinuma  
et al., 2007);  $C_{14}H_{28}O_6S$  and  $C_{15}H_{25}NO_7S$  for Sesquiterpene OSs and NOSs, respectively (Wang et al.,  
2022b). These were selected due to their high detection frequency (>85%) and the highest average  
concentrations within their categories. Typical VOCs markers (isoprene, benzene, toluene, styrene, n-  
dodecane) were also included in the PMF model. Based on marker species, Unknown OSs and NOSs  
were further categorized into eight groups: Monoterpene, Aromatic, Aliphatic, and Sesquiterpene OSs  
and NOSs.

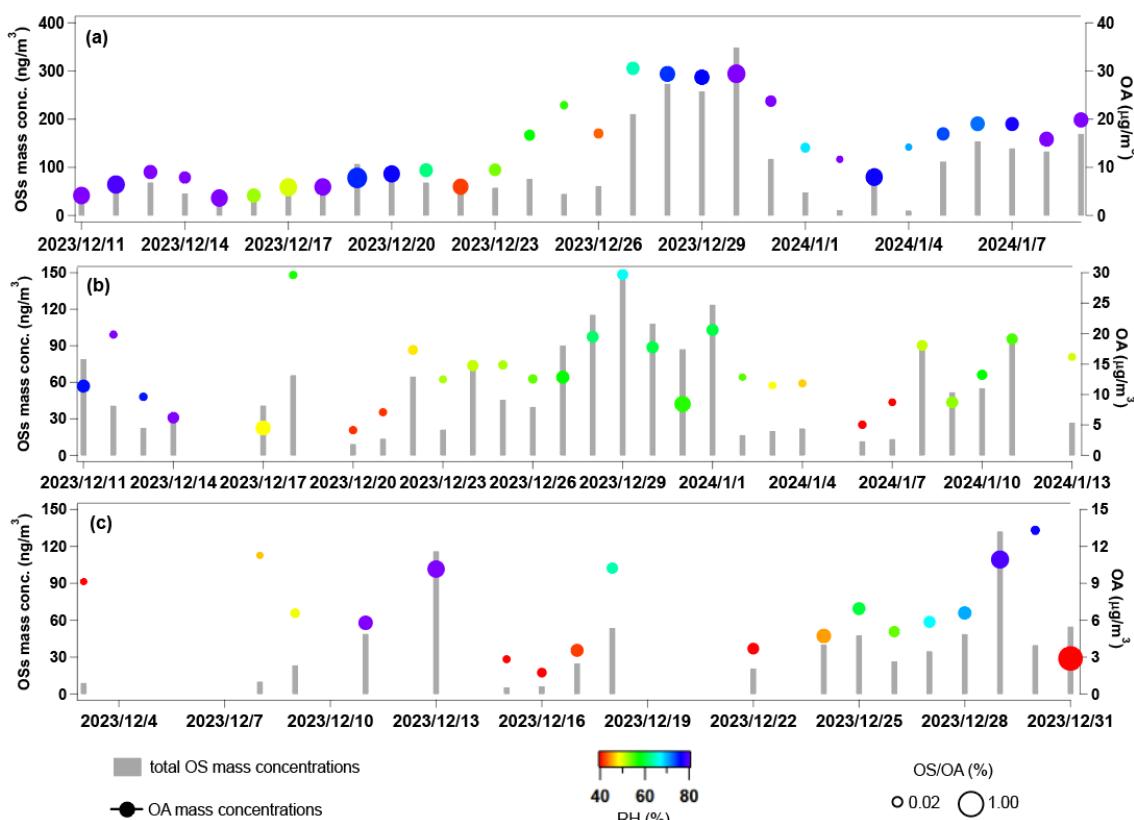
The model was executed with 10 runs to ensure stability. The ratio of  $Q_{\text{robust}}/Q_{\text{true}}$  for this solution  
was stabilized below 1.50, indicating a robust fit without over-factorization. Furthermore, the scaled  
residual matrix (see Figure S3), demonstrating that residuals are randomly distributed and  
predominantly within the acceptable range of -3 to 3. Correlation coefficients between classified  
OSs and corresponding VOCs (Monoterpene OSs and NOSs vs. isoprene; Aromatic OSs and  
NOSs vs. benzene; Aliphatic OSs and NOSs vs. n-dodecane; Sesquiterpene OSs and NOSs vs.  
isoprene) were calculated as a statistical auxiliary variable to verify the reliability of PMF results.  
The arithmetic mean of hourly VOCs within each corresponding filter sampling period was calculated  
to align the time resolution of VOCs and OS mass concentration. excluding species with  $R < 0.40$   
were excluded to avoid potential incorrect classification. Given monoterpenes and sesquiterpenes  
primarily originate from biogenic sources and strongly correlate with isoprene. Therefore, we checked  
the relationship between Monoterpene OSs and NOSs, Sesquiterpene OSs and NOSs, and isoprene.

To validate classification accuracy,  $MS^2$  fragment patterns were analyzed (Table S5). Diagnostic  
fragments supported the assignments: Aliphatic OSs and NOSs showed sequential alkyl chain  
cleavages ( $\Delta m/z = 14.0157$ ) and saturated alkyl fragments ( $[C_nH_{2n+1}]^-$  or  $[C_nH_{2n-1}]^-$ ); Monoterpene  
OSs and NOSs displayed  $[C_nH_{2n-3}]^-$  fragments; Aromatic OSs and NOSs exhibited characteristic aromatic  
substituent fragments ( $[C_6H_5R-H]^-$ , R = alkyl, carbonyl, -OH, or H). While absolute certainty for every  
individual OS in a complex ambient mixture is unattainable, integrating the precursor-constrained  
PMF model, tracer VOCs correlation analysis, and  $MS^2$  fragment patterns validation significantly  
reduces the likelihood of systematic misclassification. These fragment patterns confirm the reliability  
of our classification approach.

270 **3. Results and Discussion**

271 **3.1 Concentrations, Compositions, and Classification of Organosulfates**

272 Figure 1 shows the temporal variations of OS and organic aerosols (OA) mass concentrations, as  
 273 well as RH, during the sampling period across the three cities. The total mass concentration of OS  
 274 reported in this study is the sum of the (semi-)quantified concentrations of all individual OS species  
 275 that met the identification criteria described in Section 2.3. The mean OSs concentrations were (41.1 $\pm$   
 276 34.475) ng/m<sup>3</sup> in Beijing, (57.394 $\pm$  39.23) ng/m<sup>3</sup> in Taiyuan, and (102.061 $\pm$  80.54) ng/m<sup>3</sup> in  
 277 Changsha. Table S6 summarizes the average concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, OC, gaseous pollutants, OS mass  
 278 concentrations, and the mean meteorological parameters during sampling period for all three cities.  
 279 OS accounted for 0.64% $\pm$  0.44%, 0.41% $\pm$  0.24%, and 0.76% $\pm$  0.34% of the total OA in Beijing,  
 280 Taiyuan, and Changsha, respectively.



281 **Figure 1** Temporal variations of daily total OS mass concentrations and average OA mass  
 282 concentrations in (a) Changsha, (b) Taiyuan, and (c) Beijing. The markers of OA mass concentrations  
 283 are colored by average RH during sampling period, and marker sizes indicate the OS/OA mass  
 284 concentration ratios.  
 285

286 The highest OS mass concentrations and OS/OA ratios were observed in Changsha. As shown in  
 287 Figure 1(a), a distinct episode with OS mass concentrations exceeding 300 ng/m<sup>3</sup> occurred between  
 288 December 27<sup>th</sup> and 31<sup>st</sup>, leading to the elevated OS mass concentrations in Changsha. This episode  
 289 coincided with a period of intense fireworks activity, as evidenced by significant increases in the  
 290 concentrations of recognized fireworks tracers, especially Ba and K (see Figure S4), leading to an

increase in  $\text{SO}_2$  emission. We noted that though K may originate from biomass burning, its trend in concentration shows good consistency with that of Ba. Therefore, we still infer that fireworks activity are also the primary source of K. Considering persistently high RH (consistently  $>70\%$ ) during this period, as displayed in Figure S5, ALWC (117.9  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  in average) therefore increased and facilitated the heterogeneous oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  to particulate sulfate (Wang et al., 2016a; Ye et al., 2023). Since particulate sulfate serves as a key reactant in OS formation pathways, its elevated concentration directly promoted OS production (Xu et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2020). Furthermore, fireworks activity led to concurrent increases in the concentrations of transition metals, notably Fe and Mn (Figure S4), which are known to catalyze aqueous-phase radical chemistry and OS formation (Huang et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2018a). Therefore, the pronounced OS mass concentration during this period is attributed to a combination of elevated precursor emissions ( $\text{SO}_2$ ), high-RH conditions favoring aqueous-phase processing, and the potential catalytic role of co-emitted transition metals.

It is noteworthy that the single highest OS/OA ratio in Beijing was observed on December 31<sup>st</sup> under low RH. This phenomena highlights that ALWC, while a major driving factor of OS formation, is not an exclusive control. Specifically, this day showed high atmospheric oxidative capacity and aerosol acidity. We note that under such conditions, efficient acid-catalyzed heterogeneous reactions of gas-phase oxidation products could drive substantial OS formation. The impact of ALWC, atmospheric oxidative capacity, and aerosol pH on OS formation will be discussed in detail in Section 3.2.

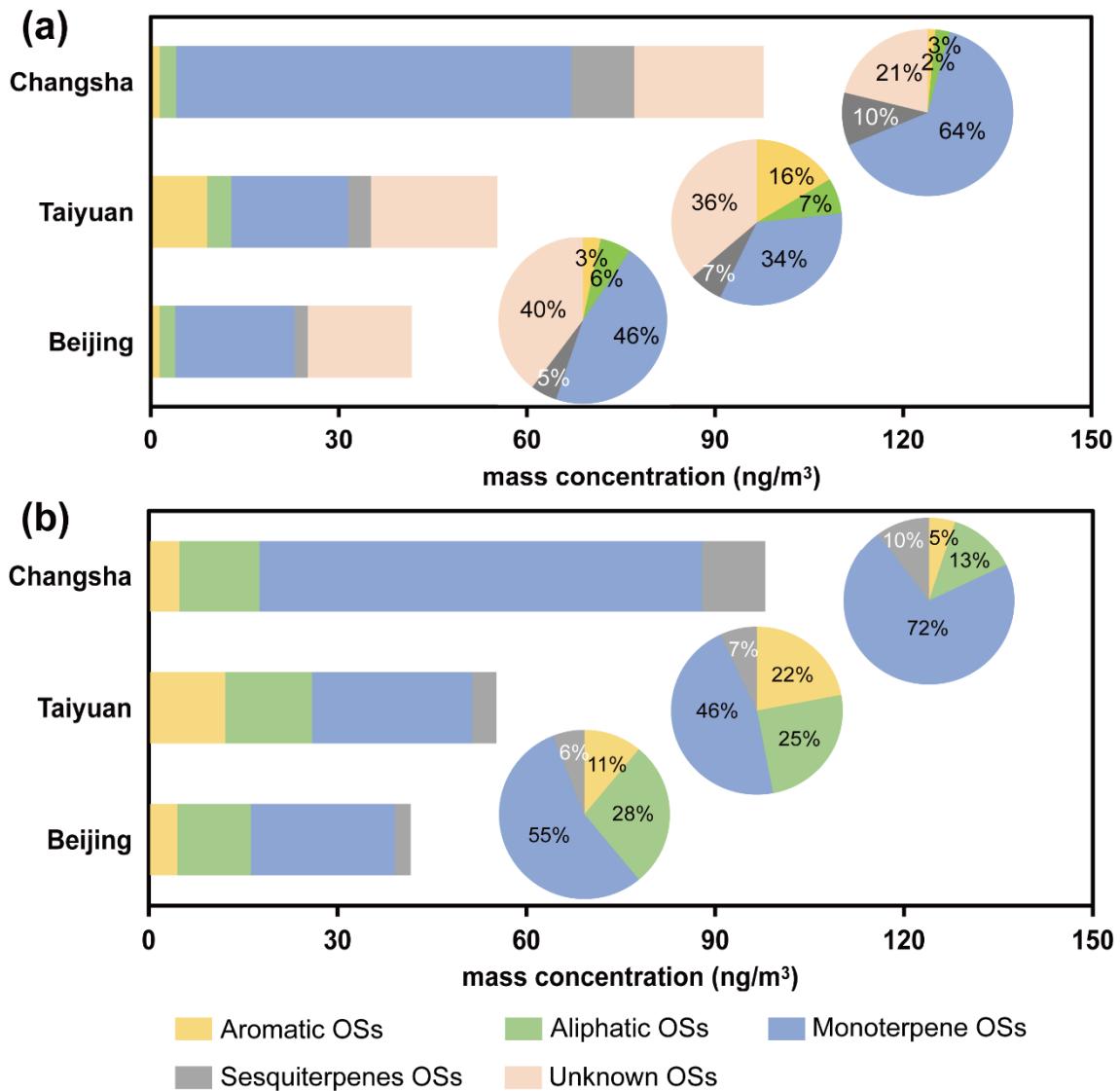
During this period, RH remained consistently above 70%, and the resulting increase in ALWC facilitated OSs formation through aqueous-phase reactions (Cheng et al., 2016a; Wu et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2015). Furthermore, as shown in Figure S4, concentrations of Ba and K – tracers for fireworks emissions – were elevated, indicating intense fireworks activity. The high ALWC accelerated the heterogeneous conversion of  $\text{SO}_2$  from fireworks into particulate sulfate (Figure S5), further promoting OSs formation (Xu et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2020). Additionally, transition metals such as Fe and Mn, emitted during fireworks combustion (Figure S4), catalyzed OS formation (Huang et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2018a). Collectively, these factors contributed to the pronounced OS mass concentration observed during this period.

Figures 2(a) and 2(b) shows the average mass concentrations and fractions of different OSs categories across the three cities, based on classification approach based on OSs' elemental composition and laboratory chamber-derived precursor–OS relationshipseconventional and our precursor-based PMF classification approach developed in this worknew classification approach, respectively (see Section 2.3 for details). As displayed in Figure 2(b), Monoterpene OSs and NO<sub>x</sub> dominated detected OSs across all cities, contributing 55.2% (Beijing), 46.8% (Taiyuan), and 72.3% (Changsha) to total OS, respectively. Biogenic-emitted monoterpene is the precursor of Monoterpene OSs and NO<sub>x</sub>s. However, monoterpene are primarily biogenic precursors, their limited emissions during winter cannot fully explain the high mass fractions of Monoterpene OSs and NO<sub>x</sub>s. Recent studies have highlighted anthropogenic sources, particularly biomass burning, as significant contributors to monoterpene (Wang et al., 2022a; Koss et al., 2018). The PM<sub>2.5</sub> source apportionment analysis (Text S2, Figure S6) confirmed that biomass burning substantially contributed to PM<sub>2.5</sub> across all cities. The highest total mass fractions of Monoterpene OSs and NO<sub>x</sub>s in Changsha are mainly attributed to the high RH (Table S6), which facilitates their formation via heterogeneous reactions

333 (Hettiyadura et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018; Ding et al., 2016a; Ding et al., 2016b; Li et al., 2020).

334 In Taiyuan, the total mass fractions of Aromatic OSs ~~and NOSs~~ (21.2%) were significantly higher  
335 than those in Beijing (10.7%) and Changsha (4.6%). Aromatic OSs ~~and NOSs~~—primarily formed via  
336 aqueous-phase reactions between S(IV) and aromatic VOCs (Huang et al., 2020). Taiyuan exhibited  
337 the highest sulfate mass concentration among the three cities (Table S6), which promoted the  
338 formation of these species. Additionally, transition metal ions—particularly  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ —catalyze aqueous-  
339 phase formation of Aromatic OSs ~~and NOSs~~ (Huang et al., 2020). High Fe mass concentration was  
340 observed in Taiyuan ( $0.79 \pm 0.53 \text{ }\mu\text{g/m}^3$ ), further facilitated the formation of Aromatic OSs ~~and NOSs~~.

341 The highest total mass fractions of Aliphatic OSs ~~and NOSs~~ ~~was~~ ~~were~~ observed in Beijing  
342 (28.1%). ~~Since vehicle emissions, which is an important source of long-chain alkenes~~ (He et al., 2022;  
343 Wang et al., 2021a; Riva et al., 2016b; Tao et al., 2014; Tang et al., 2020), ~~substantially contributed to~~  
344 ~~PM<sub>2.5</sub> in all cities (Figure S6), the relative dominance of Aliphatic OSs in Beijing can be attributed to~~  
345 ~~a comparative reduction in the emissions of precursors for Monoterpene OSs and Aromatic OSs.~~  
346 ~~Specifically, Beijing exhibits lower emissions of monoterpene and aromatic VOCs precursors relative~~  
347 ~~to Taiyuan and Changsha, which results in a reduced contribution of Monoterpene and Aromatic OSs~~  
348 ~~to the total OS (see Figure 2(b)). Therefore, the relative mass fraction of Aliphatic OSs, which~~  
349 ~~primarily derived from between sulfate and photooxidation products of alkenes~~ (Riva et al., 2016b),  
350 ~~becomes more prominent in Beijing. Additionally, low RH in Beijing further suppresses the aqueous-~~  
351 ~~phase formation of Monoterpene OSs, amplifying the relative importance of Aliphatic OSs. The~~  
352 ~~formation mechanisms of Aliphatic OSs and NOSs still remains highly uncertainty up to now. Potential~~  
353 ~~pathways include heterogeneous reactions between  $\text{SO}_2$  and alkenes (Passananti et al., 2016), as well~~  
354 ~~as reactions between sulfate and photooxidation products of alkenes~~ (Riva et al., 2016b). ~~Their~~  
355 ~~precursors, mainly long-chain alkenes, are predominantly emitted from fossil fuel combustion and~~  
356 ~~vehicle emissions~~ (He et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021a; Riva et al., 2016b; Tao et al., 2014; Tang et al.,  
357 2020). ~~Since fossil fuel combustion and vehicle emissions substantially contributed to PM<sub>2.5</sub> in all~~  
358 ~~cities (Figure S4), it is suggested that relatively low anthropogenic emissions and low RH promote the~~  
359 ~~dominance of Aliphatic OSs and NOSs. Specifically, low anthropogenic emissions reduce the~~  
360 ~~precursor concentrations for Monoterpene OSs/NOSs and Aromatic OSs/NOSs, while low RH limits~~  
361 ~~their formation through aqueous-phase reactions.~~



362  
363 **Figure 2** The average mass concentrations of different OSs categories (a) before and (b) after  
364 ~~classification across three cities using (a) conventional classification approach based on OSs' elemental~~  
365 ~~composition and laboratory chamber-derived precursor-OS relationships and (b) precursor-based~~  
366 ~~PMF classification approach developed in this work across all cities.~~ The inserted pie chart indicates  
367 the average mass fractions of different OSs categories.

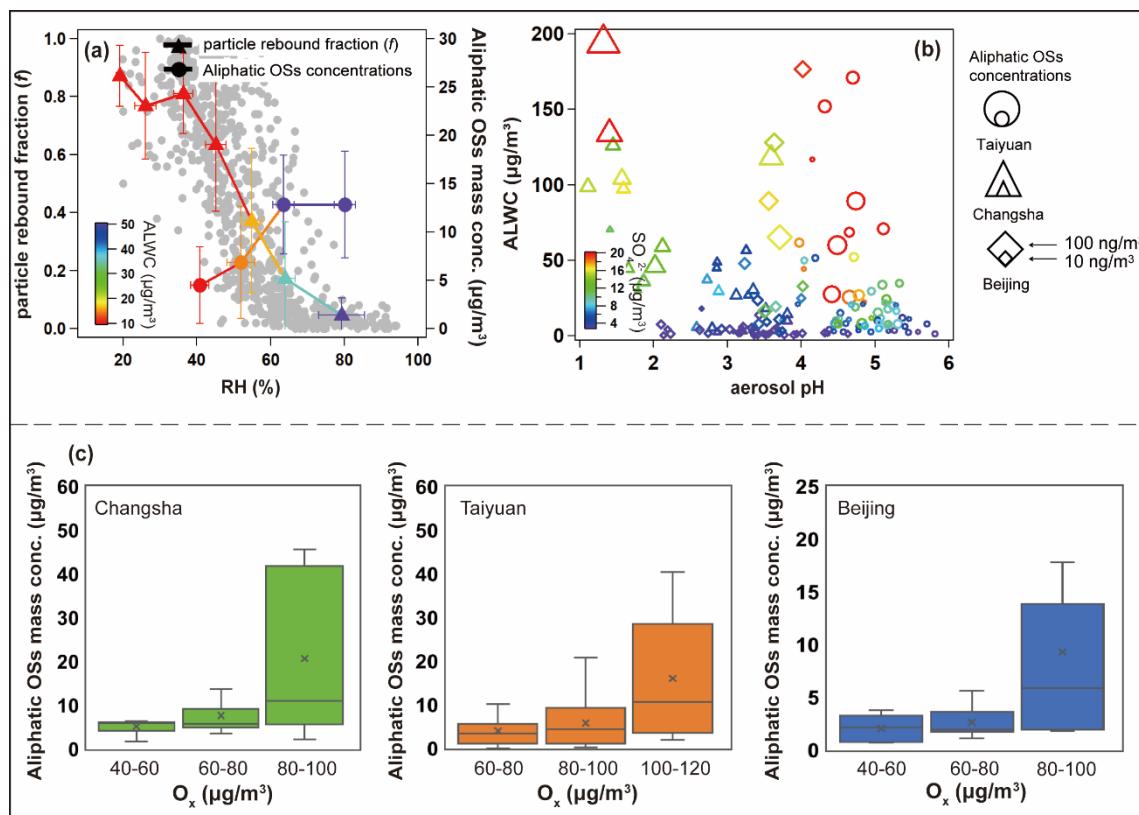
368 **3.2 Formation Driving Factors of Aliphatic OSs and NOs**

369 Compared with conventional classification approach (Figure 42(a)), we found Aliphatic OSs and  
370 NOs increased markedly (by 22.0%, 17.8%, and 10.3% in Beijing, Taiyuan, and Changsha,  
371 respectively) with Aliphatic NOs newly identified. Therefore, we further examined the formation  
372 drivers of Aliphatic OSs and NOs.

373 ALWC plays a key role in facilitate OSs formation (Wang et al., 2020). Using PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical  
374 composition and RH, ALWC was calculated via the ISORROPIA-II model (details in Text S3)  
375 (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007). Given the direct influence of ambient RH on ALWC (Figure S7)  
376 (Bateman et al., 2014) and leveraging RH-resolved samples from Beijing and Taiyuan, we assessed

377 RH effects on Aliphatic OSs and NOSs under low ( $\text{RH} < 40\%$ ), medium ( $40\% \leq \text{RH} < 60\%$ ), and high  
 378 ( $\text{RH} \geq 60\%$ ) conditions.

379 In Changsha, where RH remains consistently high, Aliphatic OSs and NOSs mass concentrations  
 380 strongly correlated with RH ( $R = 0.78$ ). In Beijing and Taiyuan, correlations increased from low to  
 381 medium RH (Beijing: 0.53 to 0.82; Taiyuan: 0.38 to 0.77) but declined slightly at higher RH (Beijing:  
 382 0.82 to 0.69; Taiyuan: 0.77 to 0.72). The initial correlation rise reflects ALWC-enhanced sulfate-driven  
 383 heterogeneous OSs formation (Wang et al., 2016b; Cheng et al., 2016b), while the decline at elevated  
 384 RH is unexplained. It may be due to the increase in ALWC dilutes the concentrations of precursors and  
 385 intermediates of Aliphatic OSs within the aqueous phase. Therefore, Aliphatic OSs formation were  
 386 not further promoted, exhibiting the non-linear response of their mass concentrations and ALWC.



388 **Figure 3** (a) The measured particle rebound fraction ( $f$ ) and total mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs  
 389 and NOSs as a function of RH, the plots were colored by the calculated ALWC concentrations in  
 390 Taiyuan, grey dots indicate the mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs; (b) the relationship between  
 391 aerosol pH and ALWC across three cities, the markers were colored by the inorganic sulfate mass  
 392 concentrations, the marker sizes represented the total mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs and NOSs;  
 393 (c) the box plot of total mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs and NOSs at different  $\text{O}_x$  concentration  
 394 levels.

395 This threshold behavior aligns with aerosol phase transitions. Particle rebound fraction ( $f$ ),  
 396 indicating phase state, was measured in Taiyuan using a three-arm impactor (Liu et al., 2017). As RH  
 397 exceeded 60%,  $f$  dropped below 0.2 (Figure 3(a)), signaling a transition from non-liquid to liquid  
 398 aerosol states. This transition at  $\text{RH} > 60\%$  aligns with prior field (Liu et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2023;  
 399 Meng et al., 2024; Song et al., 2022) and modeling (Qiu et al., 2023) studies in Eastern China.

400 Correspondingly, Aliphatic OSs concentrations increased with RH below 60% but plateaued beyond  
401 that despite further humidity rises. These findings underscore aerosol phase state as a critical factor:  
402 initial liquid phase formation (RH < 60%) promotes heterogeneous OS formation (Ye et al., 2018),  
403 whereas at higher RH, saturation of reactive interfaces limits further ALWC effects.

404 In addition, the increase in ALWC with rising RH altered aerosol pH (Figure 3(b)), which  
405 inhibited OSs formation via acid-catalyzed reactions (Duporté et al., 2016). In Changsha, as aerosol  
406 pH increased from ~~below approximately~~ 1.0 to above 3.0, the average total mass concentrations of  
407 Aliphatic OSs ~~and NOSS~~ decreased significantly from 9.3 to 4.6 ng/m<sup>3</sup> (Figure S8), with further  
408 declines as pH increased. In Taiyuan, OS concentrations dropped from 12.2 to 6.8 ng/m<sup>3</sup> as pH rose  
409 from below 4.5 to above 5.0. However, in Beijing, total mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs ~~and~~  
410 ~~NOSS~~ remained stable within a narrow pH range of 3.2–3.9. Elevated ALWC facilitates aqueous-phase  
411 radical chemistry that forms OSs via non-acid pathways, which can dominate over pH-dependent  
412 processes (Rudziński et al., 2009; Wach et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019). Thus, pH-dependent  
413 suppression of Aliphatic OSs formation is common across urban aerosol pH ranges, but less evident  
414 when pH varies narrowly.

415 Inorganic sulfate plays a crucial role in OSs formation via sulfate esterification reactions (Xu et  
416 al., 2024; Wang et al., 2020). We thus examined its effect on the formation of Aliphatic OSs ~~and NOSS~~.  
417 Figure 3(b) illustrates the relationships among ALWC, pH, inorganic sulfate mass concentration, and  
418 total mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs ~~and NOSS~~ across all cities. A consistent positive correlation  
419 was observed, consistent with previous field studies (Lin et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023b; Le Breton  
420 et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018). This correlation was strongest when sulfate concentrations were below  
421 20 µg/m<sup>3</sup>. Below this threshold, total mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs ~~and NOSS~~ increased  
422 significantly with inorganic sulfate, whereas above it, the correlation weakened. Additionally,  
423 inorganic sulfate mass concentration showed a clear positive correlation with ALWC (Figure 3(b)),  
424 suggesting that ionic strength did not increase linearly with sulfate mass. This likely reflects saturation  
425 effects in acid-mediated pathways, driven by limitations in water activity and ionic strength (Wang et  
426 al., 2020). Overall, these results highlight the nonlinear influence of inorganic sulfate on Aliphatic OSs  
427 ~~and NOSS~~ formation.

428 Atmospheric oxidative capacity, represented by O<sub>x</sub> (O<sub>x</sub> = O<sub>3</sub> + NO<sub>2</sub>) concentrations, typically  
429 modulates OSs formation via acid-catalyzed ring-opening reactions pathways. As shown in Figure  
430 3(c), total mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs and NOSSs exhibited significant increases with rising  
431 O<sub>x</sub> levels across all cities. Especially, total mass concentrations of Aliphatic OSs ~~and NOSS~~  
432 significantly increased across all cities when O<sub>x</sub> concentrations raised from 60–80 µg/m<sup>3</sup> to > 80 µg/m<sup>3</sup>.  
433 As shown in Figure S9, O<sub>3</sub> dominated the O<sub>x</sub> composition during high-O<sub>x</sub> episodes (> 80 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) across  
434 all cities. Previous laboratory studies have suggested that enhanced atmospheric oxidation capacities  
435 promote Therefore, we inferred that high O<sub>x</sub> conditions enhance the oxidation of VOCs (Zhang et  
436 al., 2022; Wei et al., 2024), forming cyclic intermediates. We therefore inferred that the increase in O<sub>x</sub>  
437 facilitates the formation of cyclic intermediates derived from long-chain alkenes. Subsequent acid-  
438 catalyzed and ring-opening reactions are important pathways of leading to heterogeneous OSs  
439 formation, including Aliphatic OSs and NOSSs formation via acid catalyzed ring opening reactions  
440 pathways (Eddingsaas et al., 2010; Iinuma et al., 2007; Brüggemann et al., 2020).

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441 **4 Conclusions and Implications**

442 In this study, we applied a NTA approach based on UHPLC-HRMS to investigate the molecular  
443 composition of OSs in PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples from three cities. By integrating molecular composition data,  
444 precursor-constrained PMF source apportionment, and OS-precursor correlation analysis, we  
445 developed a comprehensive method for accurate classification of detected OSs, demonstrating  
446 superior discrimination between Aliphatic OSs and NOSs. Conventional classification methods rely  
447 on laboratory chamber-derived precursor-OS relationships (Wang et al., 2019a), which provide  
448 limited insight into the formation of Aliphatic OSs and NOSs and tend to underestimate their mass  
449 fractions. The abundant Aliphatic OSs and NOSs detected in ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub> suggest complex  
450 formation pathways, such as OH oxidation of long-chain alkenes (Riva et al., 2016b) and  
451 heterogeneous SO<sub>2</sub>-alkene reactions in acidic environments (Passananti et al., 2016), which remain  
452 incompletely understood in laboratory studies. Our findings highlight the importance of emphasizing  
453 the formation of Aliphatic OSs and NOSs in urban atmospheres.

454 However, this study still faces several challenges. This work was conducted during the winter.  
455 OS formation exhibits seasonal variability, particularly for pathways driven by biogenic VOCs  
456 emissions and photochemical activity, which are generally enhanced in warmer months. Hence, the  
457 underestimation of Aliphatic OSs, and their key formation factors determined in this work remain  
458 valid insights for the winter period but may not fully represent annual OS behavior. Future long-term  
459 observations are necessary to resolve the complete annual cycle of OS composition, quantify the  
460 shifting contributions of anthropogenic versus biogenic precursors, and understanding how key  
461 formation driving factors evolve with changing atmospheric conditions.

462 For NTA, the use of surrogate standards for quantification OS mass concentration introduced  
463 uncertainty, particularly due to the extraction efficiency of individual OSs species from quartz fiber  
464 filters could not be determined. Although we have adopted standardized extraction protocol ensures  
465 high comparability across our samples, absolute extraction recoveries may vary. In addition, this  
466 approach depends on public molecular composition such as mzCloud and ChemSpider integrated  
467 within the Compound Discoverer software, which contain limited entries for organosulfates. Reliance  
468 on these databases for compound identification may therefore underestimate OS mass concentrations  
469 in urban environments. However, this approach depends on public molecular composition datasets,  
470 potentially underestimating OSs mass concentrations in urban environments. For example, OSs  
471 identified here accounted for less than 1% of total OA mass, whereas recent work (Ma et al., 2025)  
472 reported approximately 20% contributions.

473 Furthermore, OSs may become increasingly significant in OA, particularly in coastal regions  
474 influenced by oceanic dimethyl sulfate emissions (Brüggemann et al., 2020). Our Future-future work  
475 will focus on synthesizing OSs standards representing various precursors and establishing a dedicated  
476 fragmentation database through multi-platform MS<sup>2</sup> validation to elucidate OSs sources in more detail.

477 **Author Contributions**

478 Y.Q., J.W., and Z.W. designed this work. J.L., Y.Wei, C.L., J.Y., T.L., R.M., T.Z., W.F., J.Y., Z.F., Y.X.  
479 and K.B. collected PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples. Y.Q., J.W., T.Q., Y.B., and D.L. conducted UHPLC-HRMS

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480 experiments. Y.Q., J.W., Z.G., and Y.Wang wrote this manuscript. Z.W., Y.Wang, and M.H. edited this  
481 manuscript. All authors have read and agreed to submit this manuscript. Y.Q. and J.W. contributed  
482 equally to this work.

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488 **Notes**

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

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