

1 Reconciling modelled and observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  in Beijing  
2 winter haze with heterogeneous chlorine chemistry

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**Abstract**

The air quality in Chinese megacities has been improved as indicated by large decreases in fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) due to remarkable decreases in key precursors (e.g., SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>) after the implementation of strict mitigation strategies. However, nitrate concentrations in PM<sub>2.5</sub> (p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) have not decreased and mass fractions of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in PM<sub>2.5</sub> have increased, especially during wintertime haze events. Discerning chemical mechanisms leading to nitrate growth during haze events is critical to implement effective mitigation policies. Chemical transport models incorporating oxygen isotope anomaly of nitrate ( $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ ) have been widely used to investigate nitrate formation mechanisms, showing general consensus on the modelled and observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ . However, under Beijing haze days, the same model tends to underestimate observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ . Here we compiled reported  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  data in Beijing haze along with relevant observational parameters (e.g., OH total reactivity, peroxy radical concentrations), tested assumptions on  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of key precursors (e.g., OH and NO<sub>2</sub>), re-calculated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  and compared with observations. Our results indicate that considering heterogeneous N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> reactions on Cl-containing aerosols with a ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield of ~ 0.75 can explain the observed high  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ . According to the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  data, this heterogeneous N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + Cl<sup>-</sup> chemistry can explain ~ 60% of nighttime nitrate production and makes daytime and nocturnal pathways equally important in winter Beijing haze. Meanwhile, the high yield of ClNO<sub>2</sub> means that on the following day the subsequent photolysis of ClNO<sub>2</sub> would enhance atmospheric oxidation capacity and promote haze pollution, highlighting the critical role of reactive chlorine chemistry in air pollution/chemistry in inland cities.

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**Plain language summary**

$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  has been proposed to be useful in assessing the nitrate formation mechanisms. However, the GEOS-Chem model persistently underestimates the observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  during extreme haze periods in urban Beijing, implying an unknown or misunderstood NO<sub>x</sub> chemistry characterized by high  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  signatures. Here, we aim to reconcile the discrepancy to better understand the nitrate formation mechanisms in winter haze in Beijing. To this end, we re-assess the isotopic signatures of key precursors relating to the NO<sub>x</sub> chemistry constrained by atmospheric

37 chemistry parameters (e.g., OH and OH reactivity, HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>). We find that 1) steady-state OH  
38 radical should bear positive  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  values but are unable to reconcile the gap between the observed  
39 and modelled  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ ; 2) ClNO<sub>2</sub> production is efficient under typical haze conditions in urban  
40 Beijing, which is able to explain the gap between the model predicted and observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ .  
41 The photolysis of ClNO<sub>2</sub> has significant effects on atmospheric oxidative capacity and aerosol  
42 pollution. Although halogen chemistry is prevailing in the marine boundary layer, our results  
43 highlight the important roles of halogen chemistry in nitrate pollution which should be  
44 comprehensively incorporated into the air quality models and field observational research to better  
45 understand the atmospheric chemistry in urban air.

46 **Key Points:**

- 47 • Heterogeneous N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + Cl<sup>-</sup> chemistry is important for nitrate production in winter Beijing  
48 haze.
- 49 • A ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield of 0.75 from the heterogeneous N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + Cl<sup>-</sup> chemistry can explain both the  
50 observed high  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  and ClNO<sub>2</sub> concentration.
- 51 • Diurnal sampling and subsequent data interpretation need to consider the differences in the  
52 surface and the residual layers.

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## 1. Introduction

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Since 2013, air quality in most regions of China has steadily improved following the implementation of a series of clean air policies and measures, e.g., “Action Plan for Air Pollution Prevention and Control” [Q Zhang *et al.*, 2019]. Substantial reductions in atmospheric pollutants have been observed across China over the past decade, particularly in the North China Plain (NCP) [Cheng *et al.*, 2019; Q Zhang *et al.*, 2019]. In particular, from 2013 to 2017, emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) in the NCP have decreased by approximately 59.5% and 22.9%, respectively, leading to significant declines in the total mass of fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and sulfate concentrations [Cheng *et al.*, 2019; Zhou *et al.*, 2019]. However, the concentration of nitrate in PM<sub>2.5</sub> (particulate nitrate, p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) has only decreased in summer but with little changes in winter [Xie *et al.*, 2022; Zhai *et al.*, 2021], making high loadings of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> a principal cause of winter haze pollution in recent years [Fu *et al.*, 2020]. A similar non-linear response of nitrate production to NO<sub>x</sub> emission reductions has also been observed in Western Europe and the Eastern United States [Shah *et al.*, 2018; Tørseth *et al.*, 2012]. Abatement of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is now an increasing priority to reduce PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution in China.

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The decoupling between NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction and p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration could be attributed to various factors, e.g., varying nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>) formation mechanisms, HNO<sub>3</sub> gas-particle partitioning, deposition mechanisms of atmospheric nitrate, etc. [Fu *et al.*, 2020; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016; Z Zhang *et al.*, 2020]. Typically, the gas-particle partitioning of HNO<sub>3</sub> is influenced by temperature, relative humidity, and particle acidity [Guo *et al.*, 2017]. In the urban environment of China during winter, where gaseous ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) is abundant and temperature is low, atmospheric nitrate is assumed to primarily exist in the particle phase [M Liu *et al.*, 2017; Zhai *et al.*, 2021]. Moreover, because particulate nitrate deposition velocity is about 5-15 times slower than gaseous nitrate [Zhai *et al.*, 2021], the deposition of particle phase nitrate dominates the lifetime of total atmospheric nitrate and even a small alteration of the gas-particle partition ratio would significantly impact the retention of atmospheric nitrate. In the NCP region, the weak response of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction is probably in part caused by increases in particulate nitrate fraction in total atmospheric nitrate (90% in 2013 to 98% in 2017), which

81 extends the lifetime of total atmospheric nitrate against deposition [Zhai *et al.*, 2021]. A similar  
82 subdued response of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction controlled by the gas-particle partition  
83 process over the Eastern United States has been investigated by Shah *et al.*, 2018 [Shah *et al.*,  
84 2018]. They observed an increase in particulate nitrate fraction relative to total atmospheric nitrate  
85 from 29% in 2007 to 44% in 2015 due to decreases in particle acidity [Shah *et al.*, 2018]. The  
86 subdued response of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction can also be caused by enhanced  
87 conversion efficiency of NO<sub>x</sub> to HNO<sub>3</sub> [Fu *et al.*, 2020; Zang *et al.*, 2022]. For instance, a  
88 modeling study by Fu *et al.* 2020 suggested that the mixing ratio of O<sub>3</sub> and OH increased by  
89 approximately 30% from 2010 to 2017 in the NCP, and this led to an enhanced conversion  
90 efficiency of NO<sub>x</sub> to HNO<sub>3</sub> by 38.7% [Fu *et al.*, 2020], partially offsetting the effect of decreasing  
91 NO<sub>x</sub> emission on nitrate production. Field observations have also indicated that in NCP the  
92 wintertime atmospheric oxidation capacity is unexceptionally high, characterized by a high OH  
93 oxidation rate and ozone production rate [Lu *et al.*, 2019]. This increased atmospheric oxidation  
94 capacity, which may be relevant to pollution mitigation strategies, counteracts the effect of  
95 reduced NO<sub>x</sub> emissions on nitrate production [Lu *et al.*, 2019; Leung *et al.*, 2020; M Liu *et al.*,  
96 2022]. Overall, in order to better understand the non-linear response of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to NO<sub>x</sub> emission  
97 decline, a thoughtful understanding of the chemical mechanisms driving the conversion of NO<sub>x</sub> to  
98 nitrate is important.

99 Conventionally, the major formation pathways of atmospheric nitrate in inland cities include  
100 (1) the oxidation of NO<sub>2</sub> by OH radical in the daytime and (2) the heterogeneous uptake of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>  
101 on wet aerosol at night. There is an increasing body of investigations on nitrate formation  
102 mechanisms across China, especially during winter haze events over the NCP region [Chen *et al.*,  
103 2016; Fu *et al.*, 2020; Su *et al.*, 2017; H Wang *et al.*, 2022; Xie *et al.*, 2022] (and references  
104 therein). However, the dominant formation pathway leading to the explosive growth of pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> is  
105 still a subject of debate [Chan *et al.*, 2021; H Wang *et al.*, 2022; Xie *et al.*, 2022]. A variety of  
106 chemical transport models (CTMs) have been used to investigate the sources and formations of  
107 p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> [Chan *et al.*, 2021; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016; Su *et al.*, 2017; Zhao *et al.*, 2023; Xie *et al.*,  
108 2022]. These model results are uncertain due to challenges in accurately representing the  
109 hydrolysis of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> on aerosol [H Wang *et al.*, 2020; Yang *et al.*, 2022; Yu *et al.*, 2020; Xie *et al.*,

110 2022] and most models struggle to properly reproduce the observed concentrations of oxidants  
111 such as OH and HO<sub>2</sub>/RO<sub>2</sub> radicals [Slater *et al.*, 2020]. By incorporating updated N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>  
112 heterogeneous chemistry (i.e., N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous uptake coefficient on aerosols, ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield)  
113 and reactive nitrogen chemistry, Fu *et al.*, 2020 found that the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> heterogeneous hydrolysis and  
114 the OH + NO<sub>2</sub> reaction contribute 43% and 44% of nitrate production within the planetary  
115 boundary layer, respectively [Fu *et al.*, 2020]. In comparison, by direct measurement of  
116 atmospheric radicals and relevant parameters (i.e., OH, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), some observational constrained  
117 box models calculated that OH oxidation reaction is much more important than N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> hydrolysis in  
118 wintertime nitrate formation [X Chen *et al.*, 2020; Slater *et al.*, 2020; Tan *et al.*, 2018]. For  
119 example, a study based on ground and tall-tower field observations suggested that the gas-phase  
120 OH oxidation pathway dominates wintertime nitrate production in urban Beijing (average of 74%)  
121 [X Chen *et al.*, 2020].

122 Nitrate oxygen isotope signatures, particularly  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  ( $\Delta^{17}\text{O} = \delta^{17}\text{O} - 0.52 \cdot \delta^{18}\text{O}$ ) have been  
123 widely used to quantify nitrate formation pathways [Alexander, 2009; Geng *et al.*, 2017; Hastings,  
124 2004; He *et al.*, 2018; Michalski *et al.*, 2003; Morin *et al.*, 2008; Savarino *et al.*, 2016]. Unlike  
125 conventional methods, this isotope tool provides direct constraints on the chemical fluxes of  
126 individual reactions contributing to nitrate formation [Geng *et al.*, 2017; Michalski *et al.*, 2003;  
127 Morin *et al.*, 2008]. Theoretically, nitrate  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  signature ( $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ ) generated from daytime  
128 OH + NO<sub>2</sub> reaction is smaller than that from nocturnal pathways for a given  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  value, as  
129 the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of OH radical is significantly lower (most case is zero) than that of O<sub>3</sub> in the troposphere  
130 [Chan *et al.*, 2021; Michalski *et al.*, 2003; Savarino and Thiemens, 1999; Vicars and Savarino,  
131 2014; X Liu *et al.*, 2018]. In the context of winter Beijing haze, several observations of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$   
132 have been conducted to understand the nitrate production mechanisms [Fan *et al.*, 2022; He *et al.*,  
133 2018; Song *et al.*, 2020; Y Wang *et al.*, 2019]. Based on simple isotope mass-balance models, these  
134 isotopic results indicated that the nocturnal pathways (N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> hydrolysis and NO<sub>3</sub> + HC) dominate  
135 nitrate formation during haze days (>70%) [Fan *et al.*, 2022; He *et al.*, 2018; Y Wang *et al.*, 2019],  
136 in contrast to results derived from the observation-constrained box model and CTMs which either  
137 predicted daytime OH + NO<sub>2</sub> was dominant or N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> hydrolysis and daytime OH + NO<sub>2</sub> reaction  
138 were equally important. In addition, the GEOS-Chem model constrained using observed

139  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  also predicted the dominance of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  hydrolysis in nitrate production in winter  
140 Beijing [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. However, the GEOS-Chem model underestimated the observed  
141  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  values during extreme haze events [Chan *et al.*, 2021], despite the fact that the same  
142 model in general reproduced well the observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  (sometimes with slight overestimation)  
143 in many other locations [Alexander *et al.*, 2020]. The disagreement between the observed and  
144 modeled  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  in Beijing winter haze events suggests either the contribution of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$   
145 hydrolysis to nitrate production is still underestimated, or other pathways leading to high  
146  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  are omitted or underestimated by the model. In particular, heterogeneous  
147  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  reaction on  $\text{Cl}^-$ -containing aerosols (heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry) would yield nitrate  
148 with a higher  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  signature compared to nitrate produced from  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  hydrolysis  
149 [Alexander *et al.*, 2020]. But current studies either ignored anthropogenic Cl emission (e.g., Fu *et*  
150 *al.*, 2020) which is important for inland cities [Thornton *et al.*, 2010; B Zhang *et al.*, 2022; X Wang  
151 *et al.*, 2020] and/or with uncertain  $\text{ClNO}_2$  yield from heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry [Chan  
152 *et al.*, 2021]. The former would underestimate the overall heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry,  
153 and the latter would underestimate the production of nitrate from heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$   
154 chemistry. Recent field campaigns conducted across China have reported elevated concentrations  
155 of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  and  $\text{ClNO}_2$ , indicating active  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry [Li *et al.*, 2022; X Liu *et al.*, 2017; H  
156 Wang *et al.*, 2018b; X Wang *et al.*, 2017; Xia *et al.*, 2020; Yu *et al.*, 2020]. In particular, the  
157 observed  $\text{ClNO}_2$  concentration is several times higher than modeled  $\text{ClNO}_2$  by Chan *et al.*, 2021  
158 [Chan *et al.*, 2021; X Wang *et al.*, 2017]. Therefore, the contribution of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry to  
159 nitrate production and  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  in the Beijing winter haze needs to be revisited.

160 Quantifying the propagation of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  in  $\text{NO}_x$  chemistry constrained by observations of key  
161 precursors (i.e., OH,  $\text{RO}_2$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ ) offers valuable insights into the nitrate formation mechanisms  
162 and the associated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  during winter haze events. In this study, field observations of  
163  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  near the surface (winter of 2014~2016) and tall tower (winter of 2016, within the  
164 framework of the campaign of Air Pollution and Human Health in Chinese Megacities in Beijing  
165 (APHH)), as well as radical concentrations and other related parameters are compiled and  
166 dissected [Fan *et al.*, 2022; He *et al.*, 2018; Song *et al.*, 2020; Y Wang *et al.*, 2019]. The APHH  
167 campaign represents one of the few field observations in urban environments including in-situ

168 measurements of radicals (OH, HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>), the OH reactivity, gas and particle pollutants  
169 relating to NO<sub>x</sub> chemistry, and especially Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) measurements in three different layers. With  
170 these data, we hope to reconcile the observed Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) with improved nitrate chemistry and/or  
171 Δ<sup>17</sup>O propagations in the NO<sub>x</sub> cycle and the subsequent nitrate formations and to better understand  
172 the formation mechanisms of nitrate in Beijing winter haze.

## 173 **2. Data and Methods**

### 174 **2.1 Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and ancillary data in haze events**

175 Observations of Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) in Beijing haze, as well as the available meteorological and chemical  
176 parameters compiled from the literature, are summarized in Table 1. In total, 128 pairs of  
177 Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and δ<sup>15</sup>N(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) measurements in the winter seasons of Beijing are compiled (see SI).  
178 PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples were either collected near the surface or simultaneously at three heights (8m, 120m,  
179 and 260m in the winter of 2016) of a tall tower. During the sampling period of Fan et al., 2022  
180 (November-December, 2016), the OH, HO<sub>2</sub>/RO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, OH reactivity (*k*(OH)), trace gas  
181 and aerosol concentration, as well as meteorological conditions were also monitored and available  
182 on <https://archive.ceda.ac.uk/> (last accessed on November 6, 2022). These field measurements of  
183 OH, *k*(OH), HO<sub>2</sub>, and RO<sub>2</sub> have been described in detail by Slater et al., 2020 [Slater et al., 2020].  
184 In this study, we mainly focus on haze days with PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations higher than 75 μg m<sup>-3</sup>  
185 (several days with nitrate concentrations higher than 5 μg m<sup>-3</sup> are also included). This definition  
186 has been widely used in many previous studies [Ma et al., 2019].

### 187 **2.2 Evaluation of Δ<sup>17</sup>O of key precursors relating to nitrate formation**

188 The traditional steady-state formalism is used to interpret the measured Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), which is  
189 expressed by the isotopic mass balance as the following equation:

$$190 \quad \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-) = f_i \times (\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)_i) \quad (\text{Equation 1})$$

191 where *f<sub>i</sub>* represents the relative contribution of individual reaction to the production of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and  
192 (Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>)<sub>*i*</sub>) is the Δ<sup>17</sup>O values of nitrate produced through individual reaction. Once the

193  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)_i$  is determined, the pathway-specific contribution can be resolved using a Bayesian  
194 mixing model (named Stable Isotope Mixing Models in R, *simmr*) [*Phillips et al.*, 2014; *Z Zhang*  
195 *et al.*, 2020]. The  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)_i$  can be calculated by accounting for  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of each intermediate  
196 scaled by their transferring factor, e.g., for the potentially important formation pathways in Beijing  
197 winter haze,  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)_i$  can be calculated as follows:

198 
$$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)_{\text{OH}+\text{NO}_2} = 2/3 \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}} + 1/3 \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH}) \text{ (Equation 2)}$$

199 
$$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5+\text{H}_2\text{O}} = 4/6 \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{night}} + 1/6 \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3^*) \text{ (Equation 3)}$$

200 
$$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_5+\text{Cl}} = 2/3 \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{night}} + 1/3 \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3^*) \text{ (Equation 4)}$$

201 Unlike  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3)$  which is well constrained by observations [*Ishino et al.*, 2017; *Vicars and*  
202 *Savarino*, 2014], the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of OH and  $\text{NO}_2$  are usually assumed based on theoretical predictions  
203 with little to no observational constraints [*Albertin et al.*, 2021]. To better understand the observed  
204  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ , it is necessary to evaluate the assumed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  values of OH and  $\text{NO}_2$ .

### 205 **2.2.1 $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of OH radicals in Beijing Haze**

206 Interpretation of observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  as well as model simulation always set  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of steady-state  
207 OH as zero by assuming OH- $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  isotope equilibrium is rapidly achieved [*Chan et al.*, 2021],  
208 while  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of OH is expected to be positive when OH loss rate can compete with or outweigh its  
209 equilibrium exchange reaction with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  [*Savarino et al.*, 2016; *Z Zhang et al.*, 2021b]. Since  
210 unprecedentedly high OH oxidation rates have been observed in winter haze events in Beijing [*Lu*  
211 *et al.*, 2019; *Slater et al.*, 2020], it is necessary to evaluate whether OH- $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  isotope equilibrium is  
212 achieved or not in Beijing winter haze. Previous study has found that in winter Beijing the OH  
213 chemical loss rate can compete with or even outweigh its equilibrium exchange rate with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$   
214 under conditions of abundant primary pollutants and relatively low water mixing ratios [*Z Zhang*  
215 *et al.*, 2021b], implying a possibly positive  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  signature of steady-state OH under such  
216 conditions. The steady-state  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  signature is a function of the initial  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  upon its  
217 formation (denoted  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})_{\text{prod}}$ ) and the degree of the isotopic exchange equilibration between  
218 OH and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (as  $\beta$ ). In this study, using the relevant parameters (i.e., OH loss rate, the source and

219 sinks of OH) from direct observations or computed using box models constrained by observations  
220 that have been reported by Slater et al (2020) [Slater et al., 2020], we calculate the steady-state  
221  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  in Beijing haze following the same method in Savarino et al., 2016 [Savarino et al.,  
222 2016] as follows:

$$223 \quad \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH}) = \beta \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})_{\text{prod}} \quad (\text{Equation 5})$$

$$224 \quad \beta = L / (L + E) \quad (\text{Equation 6})$$

225 in which “E” represents the isotopic exchange rate between OH and H<sub>2</sub>O, and “L” represents the  
226 total loss rate of OH. To calculate the  $\beta$ , the isotopic exchange rate between OH and H<sub>2</sub>O  
227 recommended by Dubey et al. (1997) is applied [Dubey et al., 1997].

228 For the estimation of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})_{\text{prod}}$  (Eq. 5), a simple isotope mass balance equation is used. Recent  
229 wintertime campaigns found that the HO<sub>2</sub>/RO<sub>2</sub> + NO recycle reaction (80~90%) and the photolysis  
230 of HONO (10~20%) are the most important sources of OH during winter haze days in urban  
231 Beijing [Slater et al., 2020]. The pathway of O<sub>3</sub> photolysis is neglected, because its contribution to  
232 OH production is negligible (<1%) [Slater et al., 2020]. Usually, the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  generated from the  
233 recycling process (i.e., HO<sub>2</sub> + NO) is predicted to be negligible. The  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})_{\text{prod}}$  will therefore  
234 depend on the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of HONO and the fraction of HONO photolysis relative to the total primary  
235 source of OH.

$$236 \quad \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})_{\text{prod}} = f \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{HONO}) \quad (\text{Equation 7})$$

237 where  $f$  represents the fractional contribution of HONO photolysis to OH formation. An upper  
238 limit of the contribution of HONO photolysis (20%) is used in the following discussion [Slater et  
239 al., 2020; Tan et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2019].

240 However, the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  value of HONO has not been reported and is indeed more difficult to estimate  
241 because of the rapid cycling of HONO with NO<sub>x</sub>, as well as the different sources involved in  
242 HONO formation (i.e., NO<sub>2</sub> conversion on aerosol surfaces and ground, primary emission, nitrate  
243 photolysis, etc.) [Jiang et al., 2020; Xue et al., 2020], which are characterized by distinct  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$

244 signatures. For instance, the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of HONO from the  $\text{NO}_2$  heterogeneous reaction can be  
 245 approximated as  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ , assuming a mass-dependent fractionation process during the  $\text{NO}_2$   
 246 heterogeneous reaction. We assume that the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of HONO from nitrate photolysis is equal to  
 247 that of particulate nitrate because the oxygen atoms in HONO can be traced back to the nitrate.  
 248 The  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of HONO produced from gas-phase reaction ( $\text{NO} + \text{OH}$ ) is approximately half of that of  
 249 NO. The previous observational-based model study suggested that the  $\text{NO}_2$  heterogeneous reaction,  
 250 the gas-phase reaction of NO with OH, and the photolysis of nitrate are critical daytime HONO  
 251 sources in urban Beijing [*W Zhang et al.*, 2020]. For simplicity, an upper limit of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{HONO})$   
 252 corresponding to the daytime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  is used in this study, which may lead to an overestimate  
 253 of steady-state  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ .

## 254 2.2.2 Evaluation of Daytime and nighttime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ values

255 According to the mass-balance model of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  calculations (Eq.2-Eq.4),  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  is  
 256 largely driven by  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ . Therefore, a prior understanding of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  is essential for  
 257  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  interpretation. Measurements of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  suggested a radically different  $\text{NO}_2$   
 258 chemistry during the day and at night, resulting in significant contrast of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  signatures between  
 259 day and night [*Albertin et al.*, 2021]. However, previous interpretations of observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  as  
 260 well as model simulations always use 24-h average  $\text{NO}_2$  production rates to calculate the daytime  
 261 and nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  and don't consider the potential difference in  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  values in  
 262 different vertical layers at night [*Alexander et al.*, 2020; *Chan et al.*, 2021]. In urban environments,  
 263 daytime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  is predicted to be determined by the  $\text{O}_3$  isotopic anomaly and its relative  
 264 importance in the NO oxidation [*Michalski et al.*, 2014; *Savarino et al.*, 2008]. The daytime  
 265  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  can be estimated using Eq. 8:

$$266 \quad \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}} = \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3^*) \times \frac{k_{\text{NO}+\text{O}_3}[\text{O}_3]}{k_{\text{NO}+\text{O}_3}[\text{O}_3] + k_{\text{RO}_2+\text{NO}}[\text{RO}_2] + k_{\text{HO}_2+\text{NO}}[\text{HO}_2]} \quad (\text{Equation 8})$$

267 with  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3^*)$  being the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  value of terminal oxygen atoms in ozone ( $\sim 39.3\%$ ) [*Vicars and*  
 268 *Savarino*, 2014], and the concentrations of  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{HO}_2$ , and  $\text{RO}_2$  have been measured directly during  
 269 the APHH campaign [*Slater et al.*, 2020]. This equation assumes NO and  $\text{NO}_2$  reach isotope  
 270 equilibrium given the fast daytime cycling between NO and  $\text{NO}_2$ . During the daytime,

271  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$  can represent the well-mixed condition within the boundary layer.

272 At night, the cycling from  $\text{NO}_2$  to  $\text{NO}$  is muted given the absence of sunlight, and nighttime  
273 emission of  $\text{NO}$  at the surface and its conversion to  $\text{NO}_2$  will dilute any  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  signatures that  
274 survived from the day. Moreover, the strong and stable nighttime stratification during haze events  
275 would lead to distinct  $\text{NO}_x$  chemical regimes (i.e.,  $\text{NO}$ - $\text{NO}_2$  conversion and nitrate formation) at  
276 different vertical layers, i.e., the surface layer and the residual layer as illustrated by Fig. 1 [X  
277 *Chen et al.*, 2020; *Fan et al.*, 2022; *H Wang et al.*, 2018a]. This further complicates the  
278 interpretation of nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  and subsequently the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  signatures. Since  $\text{NO}$  is  
279 mainly emitted from the surface and at winter night it will stay near the surface because radiation  
280 inversion leads to vertically stable air near the surface, thereby we assume no fresh  $\text{NO}$  would  
281 enter the residual layer above the surface inversion layer. Therefore,  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  in the residual  
282 layer cannot be diluted. In summary, we expect that the nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  signals also differ  
283 between vertical layers. Here we consider the nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  values are different between  
284 the surface (i.e., the bottom of the inversion layer) and the residual layer. We follow *Albertin et al.*,  
285 2021 to estimate the surface  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  signatures at night in the polluted urban environment as  
286 follows:

$$287 \quad \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{surface}} = \left\{ \theta \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sunset}} + (1 - \theta) \times \frac{1}{2} \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3^*) \right\} \text{ (Equation 9)}$$

288 where  $\theta$  is the fraction of daytime leftover  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $\text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$ ) at sunset relative to the total  $\text{NO}_x$   
289 overnight, and  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sunset}}$  is the oxygen isotope anomaly of  $\text{NO}_2$  at sunset that can be  
290 estimated according to Eq. 8. The  $\theta$  is calculated as follows:

$$291 \quad \theta = \frac{c[\text{NO}_x]_{\text{left}}}{c[\text{NO}_x]_{\text{left}} + \int_0^t k_{\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}}[\text{O}_3][\text{NO}] dt} \text{ (Equation 10)}$$

292 Usually, in urban cities of China (i.e., Beijing) with abundant nighttime  $\text{NO}$  emissions,  $\theta$  would be  
293 on the order of 1%~5%.

294 For nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  in the residual layer, a few assumptions are made based on the  
295 observations: (1) at night nearly all the  $\text{NO}_x$  in the residual layers would be converted to  $\text{NO}_2$  since

296 NO is quickly oxidized by O<sub>3</sub> (NO lifetime of several minutes) and the surface freshly emitted NO  
297 would not disperse into the residual layer [H Wang *et al.*, 2018a]; (2) Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>2</sub>) in the residual  
298 layer is composited of Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>2</sub>) at sunset (i.e., daytime leftover NO<sub>2</sub>) and newly formed from O<sub>3</sub>  
299 oxidation of NO leftover from the day. Following Albertin *et al.*, 2021, the nighttime Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>2</sub>)  
300 in the residual layer can be expressed as:

$$301 \quad \Delta^{17}O(NO_2)_{residual} = \left\{ \rho \times \Delta^{17}O(NO_2)_{sunset} + (1 - \rho) \times \frac{\Delta^{17}O(NO)_{sunset} + \Delta^{17}O(O_3^*)}{2} \right\} \text{ (Equation 11)}$$

302 with  $\rho$  representing the fraction of NO<sub>2</sub> in total NO<sub>x</sub> at sunset, and Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO)<sub>sunset</sub> would equal to  
303 Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>2</sub>)<sub>sunset</sub> given the photo-driven cycling of NO and NO<sub>2</sub>.

### 304 3. Results

#### 305 3.1 Comparison of observed and modelled Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) in winter haze in Beijing

306 As shown in Figure 2, Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) of PM<sub>2.5</sub> near the surface varies significantly, from 19.6‰ to  
307 36.5‰ with mean values of (29.6 ± 3.7) ‰. Compared to surface samples, the Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) and  
308 p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> aloft increase considerably (Fig. S1) [Fan *et al.*, 2022]. Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) in surface samples is  
309 correlated positively with p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Fig. 2), as has been reported in previous studies [Chan *et al.*,  
310 2021]. However, the CTM modeled Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) generally showed a slightly decreasing trend as  
311 p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> increased [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. Under moderate haze days, the modelled Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) is  
312 approximately higher by ~2.0‰ than the observed value. In contrast, the modelled Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>)  
313 under extreme haze days is lower by 1.6‰ than the observed values, partly because the modelled  
314 maximum Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) (~31.8‰) is significantly lower than the observed maximum Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>)  
315 values [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. The comparison suggests an incomplete understanding of NO<sub>x</sub>  
316 chemistry and/or the Δ<sup>17</sup>O transfer mechanisms under haze days.

#### 317 3.2 The estimation of Δ<sup>17</sup>O(OH)

318 Table S1 presents an example of the mass balance calculation of Δ<sup>17</sup>O(OH), and the estimated  
319 steady-state Δ<sup>17</sup>O(OH) is presented in Figure 3. The calculated  $\beta$  (0.10~0.86) and Δ<sup>17</sup>O(OH)  
320 (1.0‰~6.5‰) show large variations. Both the  $\beta$  and Δ<sup>17</sup>O(OH) tend to increase with the increase

321 of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, implying a growing proportion of initial  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  preserved against exchange with H<sub>2</sub>O  
322 with the development haze events (Fig. S2). Since the OH + NO<sub>2</sub> reaction is the dominant OH loss  
323 process [Slater *et al.*, 2020], the calculated steady-state  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  is also positively and  
324 significantly correlated with the NO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S2). This positive relationship between  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  and  
325 NO<sub>2</sub> indicates that  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  is potentially important for model underestimation of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ .

### 326 3.3 The estimation of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$

327 The diurnal profiles of peroxy radical mixing ratio, relative humidity (RH), temperature, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>,  
328 O<sub>3</sub>, NO, and NO<sub>2</sub> during the APHH campaign are shown in Fig. S3. Days with available peroxy  
329 radicals cover a wide range of PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations, ensuring our estimated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$  is  
330 representative. The estimated daytime-averaged  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$  is presented in Figure. 4, which  
331 ranges from 30.5‰ to 36.6‰ (on average  $33.1 \pm 2.1\%$ ). Our estimated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$  is close to  
332 the measured daytime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  in late spring in Grenoble, France (34.5‰) [Albertin *et al.*,  
333 2021]. Opposite to  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ , the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$  is negatively correlated with PM<sub>2.5</sub>, because O<sub>3</sub>  
334 declines significantly but peroxy radicals remain constant on haze days [Slater *et al.*, 2020]. It  
335 should be noted that our estimated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$  values are significantly lower than that simulated  
336 in the model studies (38.5‰~39.0‰) [Chan *et al.*, 2021; Alexander *et al.*, 2020].

337 Constrained by the observational dataset from the APHH campaign, the estimated nocturnal  
338 surface  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{surface}}$  value is on average 23.0‰ during haze events. This is consistent with the  
339 findings of Albertin *et al.* (2021), in which a low  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  value averaged of 25.8‰ at night was  
340 observed [Albertin *et al.*, 2021]. The small  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{surface}}$  value at night is attributed to high  
341 nighttime NO emissions associated with a negligible  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  value in the urban polluted  
342 environment.

343 In comparison, the calculated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{residual}}$  values in the residual layer at night range from 33.6‰  
344 to 39.0‰, with an average of 36.2‰. The high  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{residual}}$  can be attributed to the  
345 dominance of O<sub>3</sub> in the oxidation of NO, which is associated with a relatively high  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  value  
346 reaching isotopic exchange equilibrium with NO<sub>2</sub> at sunset. Nevertheless, our estimated  
347  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{residual}}$  is still slightly lower than the model simulated values [Chan *et al.*, 2021;

348 *Alexander et al., 2020*].

## 349 **4. Discussion**

350 Model simulations constrained by  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  suggested that the dominant pathway for nitrate  
351 production is  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  hydrolysis on deliquescent aerosols in urban Beijing during haze events [*Chan*  
352 *et al., 2021*]. However, the model failed to reproduce the observed increasing trend of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$   
353 with nitrate concentration [*Chan et al., 2021*]. In particular, the model predicted lower  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$   
354 values compared to the observed values under extreme haze days [*Chan et al., 2021*]. This  
355 underestimation indicates that the understanding of processes or precursors with high  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  values  
356 that contribute to nitrate formation is incomplete. To address this discrepancy, potential factors are  
357 evaluated separately in the following discussions.

### 358 **4.1 The effect of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$**

359 Recent field observations have provided evidence of active wintertime photochemistry in urban  
360 Beijing, which contributes significantly to the formation of secondary pollutants [*Lu et al., 2019*;  
361 *Tan et al., 2018*; *Slater et al., 2020*]. For instance, during the APHH campaign, the measured  
362 average OH reactivity and concentration were found to be  $47 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $2.7 \times 10^6 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$ ,  
363 respectively [*Slater et al., 2020*], resulting in an OH loss rate of  $12.7 \times 10^7 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . In  
364 comparison, the average O isotopic exchange rate between OH and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  is approximately  $9.8 \times 10^7$   
365  $\text{molecules cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . This comparison suggests that approximately 56% of the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  derived  
366 from its precursors is preserved against the oxygen isotope equilibrium exchange reaction between  
367 OH and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Additionally, the estimated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  tends to increase with the increasing  $\text{NO}_2$  and  
368  $\text{p-NO}_3^-$  levels (Fig. S2), as the OH +  $\text{NO}_2$  reaction predominates the OH loss rate [*Slater et al.,*  
369 *2020*]. Therefore, our findings indicate  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  in Beijing winter haze is likely positive and can  
370 in part account for the negative bias of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  predicted by the CTM model, as the model  
371 assume a  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  value of zero.

372 Accounting for the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  can increase the modeled  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  by  $\sim 1\%$  and note that this is  
373 the upper limit. However, the model still falls short of accurately capturing the true extent of  
374  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  even with this adjustment. In other words, if the disagreement between the modelled

375 and observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  ( $\sim 1.6\text{‰}$ ) were solely reconciled by accounting for the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ , we  
376 would expect a substantial rise of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  to approximately  $9.6\text{‰}$  on haze days, which  
377 significantly exceeds our estimated values that are already at its upper limit. Furthermore,  
378 considering that the estimated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$  is significantly lower than the simulated values by the  
379 model, it is highly improbable that the daytime  $\text{OH} + \text{NO}_2$  reaction can account for the model's  
380 underestimation of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  in extreme haze days. Consequently, we propose that the observed  
381 and modelled  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  discrepancy during haze events in Beijing stems from underestimates of  
382 some nocturnal  $\text{NO}_x$  chemistry.

## 383 **4.2 The effect of nocturnal $\text{NO}_x$ chemistry**

### 384 **4.2.1 The potential effects of nighttime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ estimation**

385 One finding from the observational-constrained isotopes of nitrate intermediates is that the  
386 nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  in the surface layer is lower than the modelled ones. This can be attributed to  
387 the effect of freshly emitted nighttime  $\text{NO}$  ( $\sim 0\text{‰}$ ), which dilutes the overall  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of surface  $\text{NO}_x$   
388 [Albertin *et al.*, 2021]. For example, the nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  determined in Grenoble, France is  
389 significantly lower than the daytime values ( $25.8\text{‰}$  vs  $34.5\text{‰}$ ) [Albertin *et al.*, 2021]. It is evident  
390 that CTM model simulations significantly overestimate the nighttime surface  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  values to  
391 a large extent, as the model assumes nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  values are similar to those in daytime  
392 [Alexander *et al.*, 2020; Chan *et al.*, 2021]. Similar to that at the surface, the  
393 observational-constrained  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{residual}}$  ( $36.2\text{‰}$ ) at night in the residual layer is also lower than  
394 the model simulated values [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. Despite these, the CTM model still underestimates  
395  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ . This implies the reasons leading to the underestimate may be related to terminal  
396 reactions from  $\text{NO}_2$  to  $\text{HNO}_3$  at night, which include reactions such as  $\text{NO}_3 + \text{HC}$ ,  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  hydrolysis,  
397 and heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry. We evaluate the importance of these reactions in the  
398 following sections.

### 399 **4.2.2 The effects of the $\text{NO}_3 + \text{HC}$ pathway**

400 The importance of the  $\text{NO}_3 + \text{HC}$  pathway in nitrate production has been a subject of debate  
401 among different research approaches. However, both chemical transport models and

402 observation-based box models have shown that this pathway does not contribute significantly to  
403 nitrate production in winter Beijing haze [Chan et al., 2021; X Chen et al., 2020; H Wang et al.,  
404 2018a; Xie et al., 2022; Zhao et al., 2023; H Wang et al., 2021]. For instance, an analysis of the  
405 long-term NO<sub>3</sub> radical budget in the winter of 2014-2019 in Beijing demonstrated that N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>  
406 heterogeneous hydrolysis was the dominant process responsible for total NO<sub>3</sub> radical loss,  
407 accounting for 77% to 92% [H Wang et al., 2021]. Another study conducted during the APHH  
408 campaign revealed that the NO<sub>3</sub> total loss resulting from the reaction with volatile organic  
409 compounds (VOCs) contributed less than 5% to the overall removal of NO<sub>x</sub> [Li et al., 2022].  
410 Additionally, the oxidation of VOCs by the NO<sub>3</sub> radical favors the production of organic nitrate, as  
411 reactions with unsaturated compounds are significantly efficient compared to saturated compounds  
412 [Ng et al., 2008]. Due to the low ambient level of organic nitrate, its conversion to inorganic  
413 nitrate through hydrolysis only accounts for less than 3% of inorganic nitrate formation globally  
414 [Alexander et al., 2020].

415 However, isotopic studies suggested that NO<sub>3</sub> reacting with VOCs is crucial for nitrate formation,  
416 constituting approximately one-third and being particularly important on haze days [Fan et al.,  
417 2022; Y Wang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2022]. From the view of isotopic signature, the  
418 contribution of the NO<sub>3</sub> + HC channel is difficult to distinguish from the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + Cl<sup>-</sup> channel as  
419 these two pathways exhibit similar Δ<sup>17</sup>O endmembers [Fan et al., 2022; He et al., 2018; Alexander  
420 et al., 2020]. Moreover, relying solely on the Δ<sup>17</sup>O tracer to estimate multiple pathways'  
421 contributions may introduce significant uncertainties [Phillips et al., 2014]. To address this, the  
422 evaluation of the Δ<sup>17</sup>O–δ<sup>15</sup>N (or δ<sup>18</sup>O–δ<sup>15</sup>N) array of p-NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> can provide valuable insights [Walters  
423 and Michalski, 2016; Z Zhang et al., 2021a]. Theoretically, the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + Cl<sup>-</sup>  
424 pathways will result in enrichments in δ<sup>15</sup>N of nitrate while the NO<sub>3</sub> + HC pathway will cause  
425 depletions in δ<sup>15</sup>N of nitrate compared to the precursors [Walters and Michalski, 2015]. In terms of  
426 Δ<sup>17</sup>O, the NO<sub>3</sub> + HC and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + Cl<sup>-</sup> pathways will produce more enriched oxygen anomaly,  
427 approximately 6.5‰ higher than the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O pathway (~1/6 of Δ<sup>17</sup>O(O<sub>3</sub>\*)). Consequently, the  
428 more significant the NO<sub>3</sub> + HC pathways, the more negative the slopes of Δ<sup>17</sup>O against δ<sup>15</sup>N in  
429 nitrate. Based on these findings, Zhang et al., 2021 reported that the NO<sub>3</sub> + HC pathway accounted  
430 for an average of only 8% of wintertime (2017-2018) nitrate production in Beijing [Z Zhang et al.,

431 2021b], which aligns with the results obtained from atmospheric transport models and  
432 observation-based box models. Re-analysis of paired  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  and  $\delta^{15}\text{N}$  values from existing literature  
433 demonstrates positive linear relationships (Fig. S4), suggesting that the  $\text{NO}_3 + \text{HC}$  pathway may  
434 play a minor role in wintertime nitrate formation in the NCP region.

#### 435 **4.2.3 The potential contribution of heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry**

436 Recent field observations in the NCP region have revealed elevated levels of  $\text{ClNO}_2$ , suggesting  
437 the prominent role of the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  pathways in nitrate formation as  $\text{ClNO}_2$  is a byproduct of  
438 heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry (R1-R2) [Tham *et al.*, 2018; Xia *et al.*, 2021; Yan *et al.*, 2019;  
439 Yu *et al.*, 2020]. In addition, the presence of  $\text{ClNO}_2$  can significantly affect the regional  
440 atmospheric oxidation capacity. For instance, Yang *et al.*, 2022 estimated that the  $\text{ClNO}_2$  chemistry  
441 can increase the surface  $\text{O}_3$  by up to 4.5ppbv across China [Yang *et al.*, 2022]. However, the field  
442 campaign-derived yield of  $\text{ClNO}_2$  ( $\phi$  in R1) from heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry shows large  
443 variations, ranging from 0.01 to 0.73 across China (Table 2). In addition to the traditional  
444 laboratory experiment or field observational approach, we propose that nitrate  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  composition  
445 at night may be used to constrain the yield of  $\text{ClNO}_2$  ( $\phi$ ) because the nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  values  
446 depend on the branching ratio of  $\text{ClNO}_2$  production that represents the relative importance of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$   
447 +  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  pathways. In particular, the nighttime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  endmembers will be  
448 approximately 30.7‰ when  $\phi = 0$ , while it will be approximately 37.2‰ when  $\phi = 1$ , considering  
449 that the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  in the residual layer is calculated to be 36.2‰ during haze days.



452 Since nocturnal nitrate formation in the surface layer is negligible on haze days relative to the  
453 residual layer [X Chen *et al.*, 2020; H Wang *et al.*, 2018b], we can estimate the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$   
454 endmember aloft by comparing the mass-weighted difference of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  between daily  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
455 samples at the surface and in the residual layer (Text S2). Consequently, the derived nighttime  
456  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  endmembers were on average 34.6‰ (Text S2). Therefore, the average contributions  
457 of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  and  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$  pathways to nighttime nitrate formation at the residual layer are

458 estimated to be about 60% and 40%, respectively, corresponding to an average yield ratio of  
459 ClNO<sub>2</sub> at approximately 0.75 (Text S2). Our isotopic approach-derived yield ratio of ClNO<sub>2</sub> aligns  
460 with the higher end of previous studies (Table 2). The relatively high ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield can be  
461 attributed to the significant availability of chloride in PM<sub>2.5</sub> from anthropogenic sources (average  
462 of 0.04 μg/m<sup>3</sup>, corresponding to 5.6M in the aerosol aqueous phase from the ISORROPIA-II model)  
463 [Fan et al., 2022; Thornton et al., 2010; X Wang et al., 2023; B Zhang et al., 2022], as laboratory  
464 experiments or field observations suggest that the yield of ClNO<sub>2</sub> is primarily determined by the  
465 concentration of available Cl<sup>-</sup> [Bertram and Thornton, 2009; Yu et al., 2020].

466 The high product yield of ClNO<sub>2</sub> estimated in this study implies an elevated mixing ratio of  
467 ClNO<sub>2</sub> during winter haze days. In fact, previous studies frequently observed high mixing ratios of  
468 ClNO<sub>2</sub> (i.e., above 0.5 ppbv) in the NCP region in winter [Xia et al., 2021 and reference therein].  
469 Noted that the photolysis of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and its subsequent reactions (RS1-RS5, Text S3) in the next  
470 morning have a significant impact on the budget of ozone, the fate of pollutants, and the oxygen  
471 isotope transfer among O-bearing molecules [Savarino et al., 2016; Thornton et al., 2010]. It is  
472 expected that the oxidation of NO by ClO will increase the daytime Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>2</sub>) and Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>)  
473 because the Δ<sup>17</sup>O of ClO is equal to Δ<sup>17</sup>O(O<sub>3</sub>)<sub>terminal</sub>. Although the oxidation rate of NO + ClO is  
474 much higher than that of NO + O<sub>3</sub> by approximately three orders of magnitude, its effect on the  
475 daily Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>2</sub>) is estimated to be small due to the extremely low ClO concentrations in winter in  
476 Beijing (on the order of 10<sup>6</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup>) [Li et al., 2021]. Similarly, the uptake of ClNO<sub>3</sub> is unlikely to  
477 significantly impact the daytime Δ<sup>17</sup>O(NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) for two reasons: 1) the reaction rate of ClO with NO<sub>2</sub>  
478 is slower than the OH + NO<sub>2</sub> reaction under the typical wintertime conditions in Beijing (3.0\*10<sup>-12</sup>  
479 cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> versus 1.3\*10<sup>-11</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) [Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016]; 2) the  
480 photolysis rate of ClONO<sub>2</sub> during daytime is much higher than its hydrolysis rate by three orders  
481 of magnitude [Le Breton et al., 2018; Peng et al., 2022; Stimpfle et al., 1999]. In summary, our  
482 findings suggest that the heterogeneous N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> + Cl<sup>-</sup> chemistry may play a crucial role in nitrate  
483 formation during winter haze in Beijing.

#### 484 **4.3 Implications for nitrate formation pathways in winter haze days**

485 We employ a Bayesian mixing model of simmr to resolve the relative contribution of major nitrate

486 formation pathways (Text S4). The daytime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  endmembers are estimated to be  $(23.7 \pm$   
487  $1.9)$  ‰ during haze days by accounting for the transfer of the daytime  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  of  $\text{NO}_2$  and OH (Eq.  
488 2). The average nocturnal  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  endmember of 34.6‰ is used by considering an average  
489 ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield of 0.75 ( $\phi$  in R1) during heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry. The high ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield  
490 used in this study is consistent with the observed high concentrations of ClNO<sub>2</sub> (up to several  
491 ppbv) in field campaigns over China which are difficult to reconcile with lower ClNO<sub>2</sub> yield [Xia  
492 *et al.*, 2021 and reference therein]. With these endmembers, we estimate the average contributions  
493 of daytime pathways vs. nocturnal pathways to nitrate production in haze events.

494 For PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples collected at the surface, we estimate that the gas phase OH oxidation pathway  
495 (i.e., the daytime pathway) contributes significantly to the particulate nitrate accumulation, with an  
496 average of 55% on haze days during the winter seasons of 2014-2016 (Fig. 5). The percentage of  
497 nocturnal nitrate pathways in nitrate formation in surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples, on average, is 45% and  
498 where 27% is from the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  pathway and 18% is from the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$  pathway. It should be  
499 noted that the contribution of nocturnal nitrate pathways to nitrate production in the planetary  
500 boundary layer may be underestimated when isotope data from only surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples is used,  
501 as the surface samples do not fully represent nocturnal nitrate chemistry, i.e., the chemically inert  
502 air masses near the surface due to O<sub>3</sub> titration would suppress nocturnal nitrate formation while  
503 above the surface layer in the residual layer nocturnal nitrate formation may be still active [X Chen  
504 *et al.*, 2020; H Wang *et al.*, 2018a].

505 When consider  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  data from samples collected at higher altitudes representing the  
506 residual layer at night, the importance of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  heterogeneous chemistry increases. According to  
507 our estimates, on average, approximately 72% of nitrate formation in daily PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples  
508 collected at 260m (i.e., in the residual layer at night) can be attributed to  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  heterogeneous  
509 chemistry (43% for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  pathway and 29% for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$  pathway), while the gas phase  
510 OH oxidation pathway only accounts for approximately 28% of the particulate nitrate formation.  
511 However, it's important to consider samples from the residual layer with the surface layer together  
512 as aerosols from these two layers get mixed after sunrise and contribute to nitrate in the entire  
513 planetary boundary layer. Considering the scaling ratio of the residual layer to the boundary layer

514 is approximately 0.5-0.75 in pollution periods in Beijing [*X Chen et al.*, 2020], we find nocturnal  
515 pathways contribute 56%-65% of total nitrate budget in the boundary layer and the rest is from  
516 OH pathway.

517 Therefore, in order to accurately determine nitrate formation mechanisms, it is essential to  
518 consider not only the pathway-specific  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  endmembers but also the proper aerosol samples that  
519 are representatives of different vertical layers where the chemistry is very different at night. It  
520 should be cautioned to avoid sampling biases that can arise from collecting samples exclusively at  
521 the surface or higher altitudes. Such biases can disproportionately influence the assessment of the  
522 contributions of nocturnal pathways to nitrate budget due to nighttime stratification. For instance,  
523 field observations and model simulations have consistently highlighted the predominant role of  
524  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  heterogeneous chemistry in the residual layer compared to the surface layer [*Benton et al.*,  
525 2010; *S Brown et al.*, 2007; *S Brown et al.*, 2013; *Prabhakar et al.*, 2017]. Therefore, incorporating  
526 mass-weighted nitrate  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  signatures from different layers would provide a more representative  
527 understanding of the processes involved.

## 528 **5. Conclusion**

529 Nitrate has been playing an increasingly significant role in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  pollution, despite the substantial  
530 reduction in  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions in China. The subdued response of the nitrate to  $\text{NO}_x$  emission  
531 reductions in recent years can be attributed to the increased levels of photochemical oxidants and  
532 the extended atmospheric lifetime of nitrate. The former influence the conversion mechanisms  
533 from  $\text{NO}_x$  to nitrate. However, there is still uncertainty regarding the relative importance of the  
534 OH oxidation pathway and the  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  heterogeneous chemistry in nitrate formation in winter haze  
535 events.

536 The use of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  has been proposed as a valuable tool for assessing nitrate formation  
537 mechanisms. Nevertheless, the GEOS-Chem model constrained using  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  consistently  
538 underestimates the observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  during severe haze periods in urban Beijing. This  
539 discrepancy suggests that our current understanding of processes or precursors with high  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$   
540 values that contribute to nitrate formation is incomplete. To address this, the potential factors (i.e.,

541  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ ,  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ , and nitrate formation pathways) are evaluated separately which are  
542 constrained using parameters related to  $\text{NO}_x$  chemistry such as  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{HO}_2$ ,  $\text{RO}_2$ , and  $\text{OH}$   
543 reactivity. Our findings indicate that the model underestimation of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  can be reconciled  
544 by considering the impact of heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  chemistry, which is associated with higher  
545  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  values. The average contribution of heterogeneous  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$  pathways to nocturnal nitrate  
546 formation is estimated to be 60%, corresponding to an average  $\text{ClNO}_2$  yield of 0.75. The estimated  
547 high product yield of  $\text{ClNO}_2$  is somewhat consistent with the observed high mixing ratios of  
548  $\text{ClNO}_2$  during winter haze days (i.e., above 0.5 ppbv) in the NCP region in winter. This high yield  
549 and subsequent high concentration of  $\text{ClNO}_2$  imply the potential importance of Cl chemistry not  
550 only in nitrate production in winter Beijing haze but also in the oxidation environment.

551 In addition, the vertical difference in  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  of samples collected at the surface and the  
552 residual layer may indicate the different chemistry in these two layers, where the surface layer is  
553 chemically inert compared to the residual layer due to surface  $\text{O}_3$  titration at night in winter haze.  
554 As such, using  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  to constrain nitrate formation pathways should consider proper  
555 sampling strategies to make the samples more representative of the entire boundary layer  
556 especially doing diurnal or higher resolution sampling and studies.

557 Meanwhile, we note it is important to acknowledge that there are several uncertainties when  
558 inferring nitrate formation pathways using the oxygen mass balance equation of atmospheric  
559 nitrate, particularly related to assumptions about the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  values of key precursors ( $\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ ) and  
560 the  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$  transfer function. For instance, our analysis revealed that in typical urban polluted  
561 environments, the steady-state  $\text{OH}$  should exhibit a positive  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ , as the chemical rate of  $\text{OH}$  loss  
562 can compete with  $\text{OH}$  exchange with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . In addition, the observed  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  constrained using  
563 observational data ( $\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{RO}_2$ ) is significantly lower than the values simulated by the model.  
564 Given  $\text{NO}_2$  is a central species in the atmospheric reactive nitrogen cycle and atmospheric  
565 oxidation capacity, quantifying  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  should be given priority to improve understanding of  
566  $\text{NO}_x$  chemistry in urban polluted environments.

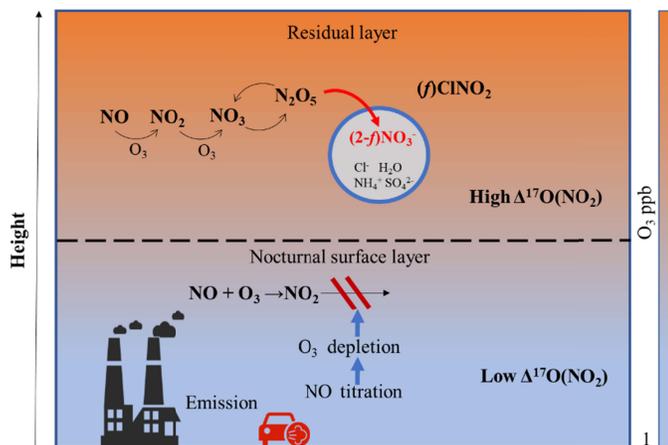
567 **Open research**

568 The nitrate isotope datasets (PM<sub>2.5</sub> samples collected in Beijing in winter seasons) used in this  
569 analysis are described in Chan et al. (2021) and Fan et al., (2021), which are publicly available at  
570 <http://hdl.handle.net/1773/46927> and <https://osf.io/w4png/>. The meteorological and atmospheric  
571 chemistry parameters used in this analysis are described by Slater et al., (2020) and are publicly  
572 available at <https://archive.ceda.ac.uk/>.

### 573 **Conflicts of interest**

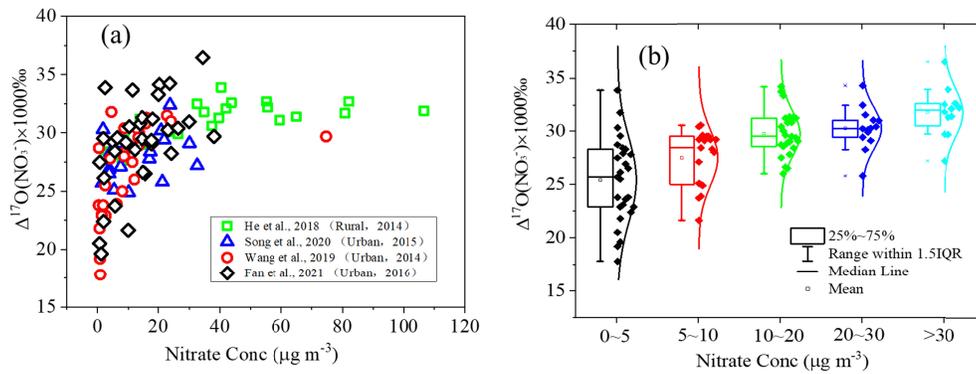
574 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest

575 **Acknowledgments.** L.G. acknowledges financial support from the National Natural Science  
576 Foundation of China (Awards: 41822605 and 41871051) and the Strategic Priority Research  
577 Program of Chinese Academy of Sciences (XDB 41000000), and the National Key R&D Program  
578 of China (2022YFC3700701). Z.Y acknowledges financial support from the National Natural  
579 Science Foundation of China (Awards: 42273001 and 41863001)



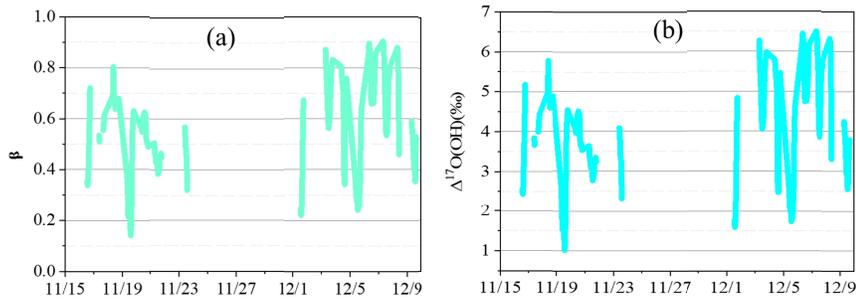
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586 **Figure 1.** Schematic description of nocturnal  $\text{NO}_x$  chemistry at different layers during haze  
 587 episodes. The surface air masses are chemically inert as ozone will be fully titrated by freshly  
 588 emitted NO. In comparison, the residual layer air masses are chemically reactive, in which the fast  
 589  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  heterogeneous chemistry promotes nitrate accumulation. The  $\text{O}_3$  concentrations at different  
 590 heights were referred from HC Wang et al., 2018.



587

590 **Figure 2.** The relationship between  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in surface  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  samples  
 591 in urban Beijing. Panel (a) is the scatter plot  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  versus  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentrations in the  
 592 previous reports. The boxplot in panel (b) is the statistics of  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$  in each nitrate regime.

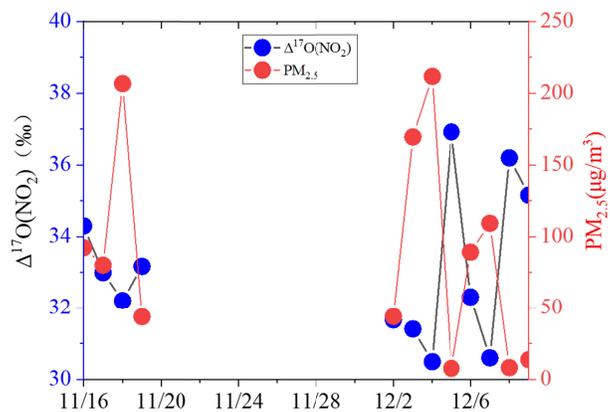


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595 **Figure 3.** The time series of  $\beta$  (panel a) and  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$  (panel b) during the APHH campaign  
 596 (2016 winter in urban Beijing).  $\beta$  represents the degree of OH exchange with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  relative to the  
 597 OH isotope exchange rate and its total loss rate. The OH total loss rate is measured online using  
 598 the laser flash photolysis pump-probe technique.

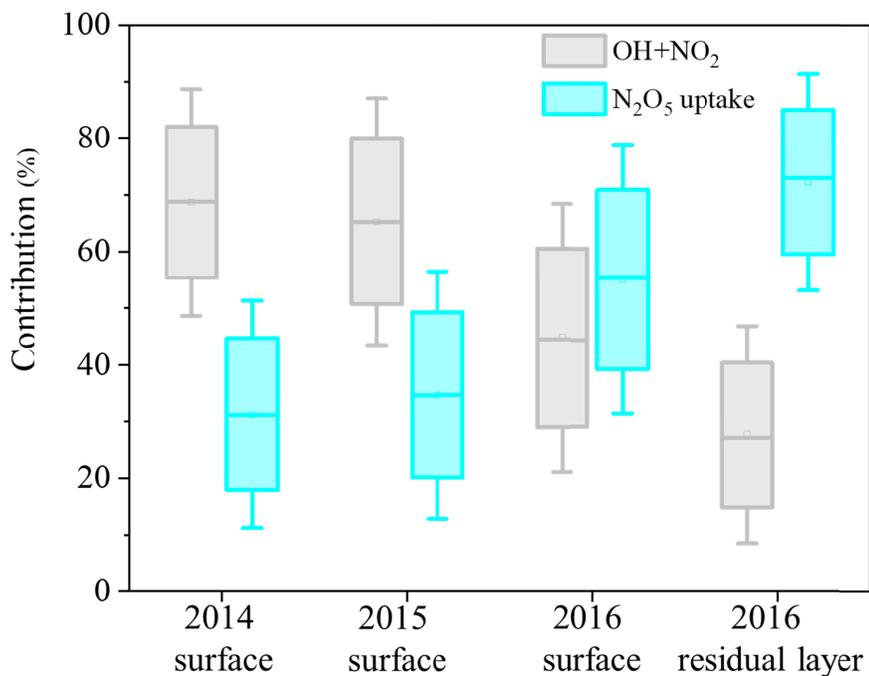
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601 **Figure 4.** The time series of calculated  $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$  during the APHH campaign (2016 winter in  
 602 urban Beijing). The peroxy radicals and  $\text{O}_3$  concentrations were directly measured during the  
 603 APHH campaign period.



602

605 **Figure 5.** Fractional contributions (mean  $\pm$  SD values) of daytime OH + NO<sub>2</sub> and nocturnal N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>  
 606 uptake pathways to wintertime nitrate production at the surface (2014, 2015, and 2016) or residual  
 607 layer (2016).

605 Table 1. Compiled data including field observation and model simulation regarding the nitrate  
 606 formation mechanisms. All the field campaigns were conducted in Beijing from 2014-2016.  
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 608

Data	Site	Period	References
$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ ; p- $\text{NO}_3^-$ ; (Field observation)	IAP CRAES CRAES UCAS-Huairou	November-December 2016 November-December 2014 January 2015 October – November 2014	Fan et al., 2021 Wang et al., 2019 Song et al., 2020 He et al., 2017
$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ (Model simulation)	Nested-grid simulations for East Asia	Winter 2014–2015	Chan et al., 2022
Radical concentration; OH reactivity rate; O <sub>3</sub> , NO, NO <sub>2</sub> , PM <sub>2.5</sub> ; Meteorological parameters	IAP	November-December 2016	Slater et al., 2020

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611 Table 2. The yield of ClNO<sub>2</sub> in previous field campaign that have taken place in China and several  
 612 model results.

Date	Location	$\phi$ ClNO <sub>2</sub>	Notes	Reference
Sep 2014	Jinan, NCP (urban)	0.014/0.082	Observation-derived	[Xinfeng Wang et al., 2017b]
Dec 2017	Wangdu (rural)	0.06	Observation-derived	[Xia et al., 2021]
Jun 2017	Beijing (urban)	0.10-0.35	Observation-derived	[Zhou et al., 2018]
Jan 2017	Heshan(semi-rural), PRD	0.18-0.32	Observation-derived	[Hui Yun et al., 2018b]
Apr-May 2017	Beijing (urban)	0.05-0.68	Observation-derived	[Xia et al., 2019]
Jan-Feb 2018	Beijing (urban)	0.25± 0.24	Observation-derived	[Xia et al., 2021]
Jul 2014	Mt. Tai, NCP	0.28±0.24	Observation-derived	[Z Wang et al., 2017]
Jun-Jul 2014	Wangdu(rural), NCP	0.34±0.28	Observation-derived	[Tham et al., 2018]
Dec 2013	Mt. Tai Mo Shan in Hongkong	0.43±0.16	Observation-derived	[H. Yun et al., 2018a]
Apr 2018	Nanjing, (suburban) Eastern China	0.56±0.20	Observation-derived	[Xia et al., 2020]
2014-2018	Four sites <sup>a</sup>	0.57 ± 0.33	Fitted field data	[Yu et al., 2020]
2018	Beijing (urban)	0.6-0.8 (annual mean)	Parameterization base on Yu et al.,2020	[Yang et al., 2022]
Oct 2019	Yangmeikeng(rural), PRD	0.71 ± 0.26	Observation-derived	[Niu et al., 2022]
May-Jun 216	Beijing (urban)	0.73 ± 0.25	Observation-derived	[H Wang et al., 2018b]
Sep 2006	Yufa (rural), NCP	0.74 (mean)	Parameterization	[H Wang et al., 2017a]

613 <sup>a</sup>:Four sites include the semirural site (Heshan) in southern China, Mt. Tai in northern China, the rural site at  
 614 Wangdu, and Mt. Tai Mo Shan in South China.

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