

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_{2.5}) due to remarkable decreases in key precursors (e.g., SO₂, NO_x) after the implementation of strict mitigation strategies. However, nitrate concentrations in PM_{2.5} (p-NO₃⁻) have not decreased and mass fractions of p-NO₃⁻ in PM_{2.5} 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 NO₂), re-calculated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ and compared with observations. Our results indicate that considering heterogeneous N₂O₅ reactions on Cl⁻-containing aerosols with a ClNO₂ 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 N₂O₅ + Cl⁻ 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 ClNO₂ means that on the following day the subsequent photolysis of ClNO₂ would enhance atmospheric oxidation capacity and promote haze pollution, highlighting the critical role of reactive chlorine chemistry in air pollution/chemistry in inland cities.

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_x 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_x chemistry constrained by atmospheric

chemistry parameters (e.g., OH and OH reactivity, HO₂ and RO₂). We find that 1) steady-state OH radical should bear positive $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values but are unable to reconcile the gap between the observed and modelled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$; 2) ClNO₂ production is efficient under typical haze conditions in urban Beijing, which is able to explain the gap between the model predicted and observed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$. The photolysis of ClNO₂ has significant effects on atmospheric oxidative capacity and aerosol pollution. Although halogen chemistry is prevailing in the marine boundary layer, our results highlight the important roles of halogen chemistry in nitrate pollution which should be comprehensively incorporated into the air quality models and field observational research to better understand the atmospheric chemistry in urban air.

Key Points:

- Heterogeneous N₂O₅ + Cl⁻ chemistry is important for nitrate production in winter Beijing haze.
- A ClNO₂ yield of 0.75 from the heterogeneous N₂O₅ + Cl⁻ chemistry can explain both the observed high $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ and ClNO₂ concentration.
- Diurnal sampling and subsequent data interpretation need to consider the differences in the surface and the residual layers.

1. Introduction

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 SO₂ and NO_x (NO + NO₂) 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_{2.5}) and sulfate concentrations [Cheng *et al.*, 2019; Zhou *et al.*, 2019]. However, the concentration of nitrate in PM_{2.5} (particulate nitrate, p-NO₃⁻) has only decreased in summer but with little changes in winter [Xie *et al.*, 2022; Zhai *et al.*, 2021], making high loadings of p-NO₃⁻ a principal cause of winter haze pollution in recent years [Fu *et al.*, 2020]. A similar non-linear response of nitrate production to NO_x 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-NO₃⁻ is now an increasing priority to reduce PM_{2.5} pollution in China.

The decoupling between NO_x emission reduction and p-NO₃⁻ concentration could be attributed to various factors, e.g., varying nitric acid (HNO₃) formation mechanisms, HNO₃ 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 HNO₃ is influenced by temperature, relative humidity, and particle acidity [Guo *et al.*, 2017]. In the urban environment of China during winter, where gaseous ammonia (NH₃) 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-NO₃⁻ to NO_x 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

extends the lifetime of total atmospheric nitrate against deposition [Zhai *et al.*, 2021]. A similar subdued response of p-NO_3^- to NO_x emission reduction controlled by the gas-particle partition process over the Eastern United States has been investigated by Shah *et al.*, 2018 [Shah *et al.*, 2018]. They observed an increase in particulate nitrate fraction relative to total atmospheric nitrate from 29% in 2007 to 44% in 2015 due to decreases in particle acidity [Shah *et al.*, 2018]. The subdued response of p-NO_3^- to NO_x emission reduction can also be caused by enhanced conversion efficiency of NO_x to HNO_3 [Fu *et al.*, 2020; Zang *et al.*, 2022]. For instance, a modeling study by Fu *et al.* 2020 suggested that the mixing ratio of O_3 and OH increased by approximately 30% from 2010 to 2017 in the NCP, and this led to an enhanced conversion efficiency of NO_x to HNO_3 by 38.7% [Fu *et al.*, 2020], partially offsetting the effect of decreasing NO_x emission on nitrate production. Field observations have also indicated that in NCP the wintertime atmospheric oxidation capacity is unexceptionally high, characterized by a high OH oxidation rate and ozone production rate [Lu *et al.*, 2019]. This increased atmospheric oxidation capacity, which may be relevant to pollution mitigation strategies, counteracts the effect of reduced NO_x emissions on nitrate production [Lu *et al.*, 2019; Leung *et al.*, 2020; M Liu *et al.*, 2022]. Overall, in order to better understand the non-linear response of p-NO_3^- to NO_x emission decline, a thoughtful understanding of the chemical mechanisms driving the conversion of NO_x to nitrate is important.

Conventionally, the major formation pathways of atmospheric nitrate in inland cities include (1) the oxidation of NO_2 by OH radical in the daytime and (2) the heterogeneous uptake of N_2O_5 on wet aerosol at night. There is an increasing body of investigations on nitrate formation mechanisms across China, especially during winter haze events over the NCP region [Chen *et al.*, 2016; Fu *et al.*, 2020; Su *et al.*, 2017; H Wang *et al.*, 2022; Xie *et al.*, 2022] (and references therein). However, the dominant formation pathway leading to the explosive growth of pNO_3^- is still a subject of debate [Chan *et al.*, 2021; H Wang *et al.*, 2022; Xie *et al.*, 2022]. A variety of chemical transport models (CTMs) have been used to investigate the sources and formations of p-NO_3^- [Chan *et al.*, 2021; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016; Su *et al.*, 2017; Zhao *et al.*, 2023; Xie *et al.*, 2022]. These model results are uncertain due to challenges in accurately representing the hydrolysis of N_2O_5 on aerosol [H Wang *et al.*, 2020; Yang *et al.*, 2022; Yu *et al.*, 2020; Xie *et al.*,

2022] and most models struggle to properly reproduce the observed concentrations of oxidants such as OH and HO₂/RO₂ radicals [Slater *et al.*, 2020]. By incorporating updated N₂O₅ heterogeneous chemistry (i.e., N₂O₅ heterogeneous uptake coefficient on aerosols, ClNO₂ yield) and reactive nitrogen chemistry, Fu *et al.*, 2020 found that the N₂O₅ heterogeneous hydrolysis and the OH + NO₂ reaction contribute 43% and 44% of nitrate production within the planetary boundary layer, respectively [Fu *et al.*, 2020]. In comparison, by direct measurement of atmospheric radicals and relevant parameters (i.e., OH, N₂O₅), some observational constrained box models calculated that OH oxidation reaction is much more important than N₂O₅ hydrolysis in wintertime nitrate formation [X Chen *et al.*, 2020; Slater *et al.*, 2020; Tan *et al.*, 2018]. For example, a study based on ground and tall-tower field observations suggested that the gas-phase OH oxidation pathway dominates wintertime nitrate production in urban Beijing (average of 74%) [X Chen *et al.*, 2020].

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 widely used to quantify nitrate formation pathways [Alexander, 2009; Geng *et al.*, 2017; Hastings, 2004; He *et al.*, 2018; Michalski *et al.*, 2003; Morin *et al.*, 2008; Savarino *et al.*, 2016]. Unlike conventional methods, this isotope tool provides direct constraints on the chemical fluxes of individual reactions contributing to nitrate formation [Geng *et al.*, 2017; Michalski *et al.*, 2003; Morin *et al.*, 2008]. Theoretically, nitrate $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ signature ($\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$) generated from daytime OH + NO₂ reaction is smaller than that from nocturnal pathways for a given $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ value, as the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of OH radical is significantly lower (most case is zero) than that of O₃ in the troposphere [Chan *et al.*, 2021; Michalski *et al.*, 2003; Savarino and Thiemens, 1999; Vicars and Savarino, 2014; X Liu *et al.*, 2018]. In the context of winter Beijing haze, several observations of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ have been conducted to understand the nitrate production mechanisms [Fan *et al.*, 2022; He *et al.*, 2018; Song *et al.*, 2020; Y Wang *et al.*, 2019]. Based on simple isotope mass-balance models, these isotopic results indicated that the nocturnal pathways (N₂O₅ hydrolysis and NO₃ + HC) dominate nitrate formation during haze days (>70%) [Fan *et al.*, 2022; He *et al.*, 2018; Y Wang *et al.*, 2019], in contrast to results derived from the observation-constrained box model and CTMs which either predicted daytime OH + NO₂ was dominant or N₂O₅ hydrolysis and daytime OH + NO₂ reaction were equally important. In addition, the GEOS-Chem model constrained using observed

$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ also predicted the dominance of N_2O_5 hydrolysis in nitrate production in winter Beijing [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. However, the GEOS-Chem model underestimated the observed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ values during extreme haze events [Chan *et al.*, 2021], despite the fact that the same model in general reproduced well the observed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ (sometimes with slight overestimation) in many other locations [Alexander *et al.*, 2020]. The disagreement between the observed and modeled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ in Beijing winter haze events suggests either the contribution of N_2O_5 hydrolysis to nitrate production is still underestimated, or other pathways leading to high $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ are omitted or underestimated by the model. In particular, heterogeneous N_2O_5 reaction on Cl^- -containing aerosols (heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry) would yield nitrate with a higher $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ signature compared to nitrate produced from N_2O_5 hydrolysis [Alexander *et al.*, 2020]. But current studies either ignored anthropogenic Cl emission (e.g., Fu *et al.*, 2020) which is important for inland cities [Thornton *et al.*, 2010; B Zhang *et al.*, 2022; X Wang *et al.*, 2020] and/or with uncertain ClNO_2 yield from heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. The former would underestimate the overall heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry, and the latter would underestimate the production of nitrate from heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry. Recent field campaigns conducted across China have reported elevated concentrations of N_2O_5 and ClNO_2 , indicating active $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry [Li *et al.*, 2022; X Liu *et al.*, 2017; H Wang *et al.*, 2018b; X Wang *et al.*, 2017; Xia *et al.*, 2020; Yu *et al.*, 2020]. In particular, the observed ClNO_2 concentration is several times higher than modeled ClNO_2 by Chan *et al.*, 2021 [Chan *et al.*, 2021; X Wang *et al.*, 2017]. Therefore, the contribution of $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry to nitrate production and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ in the Beijing winter haze needs to be revisited.

Quantifying the propagation of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ in NO_x chemistry constrained by observations of key precursors (i.e., OH, RO_2 , O_3 , NO_x) offers valuable insights into the nitrate formation mechanisms and the associated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ during winter haze events. In this study, field observations of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ near the surface (winter of 2014~2016) and tall tower (winter of 2016, within the framework of the campaign of Air Pollution and Human Health in Chinese Megacities in Beijing (APHH)), as well as radical concentrations and other related parameters are compiled and dissected [Fan *et al.*, 2022; He *et al.*, 2018; Song *et al.*, 2020; Y Wang *et al.*, 2019]. The APHH campaign represents one of the few field observations in urban environments including in-situ

measurements of radicals (OH, HO₂ and RO₂), the OH reactivity, gas and particle pollutants relating to NO_x chemistry, and especially Δ¹⁷O(NO₃⁻) measurements in three different layers. With these data, we hope to reconcile the observed Δ¹⁷O(NO₃⁻) with improved nitrate chemistry and/or Δ¹⁷O propagations in the NO_x cycle and the subsequent nitrate formations and to better understand the formation mechanisms of nitrate in Beijing winter haze.

2. Data and Methods

2.1 Δ¹⁷O(NO₃⁻) and ancillary data in haze events

Observations of Δ¹⁷O(NO₃⁻) in Beijing haze, as well as the available meteorological and chemical parameters compiled from the literature, are summarized in Table 1. In total, 128 pairs of Δ¹⁷O(NO₃⁻) and δ¹⁵N(NO₃⁻) measurements in the winter seasons of Beijing are compiled (see SI). PM_{2.5} samples were either collected near the surface or simultaneously at three heights (8m, 120m, and 260m in the winter of 2016) of a tall tower. During the sampling period of Fan et al., 2022 (November-December, 2016), the OH, HO₂/RO₂ concentrations, OH reactivity (*k*(OH)), trace gas and aerosol concentration, as well as meteorological conditions were also monitored and available on <https://archive.ceda.ac.uk/> (last accessed on November 6, 2022). These field measurements of OH, *k*(OH), HO₂, and RO₂ have been described in detail by Slater et al., 2020 [Slater et al., 2020]. In this study, we mainly focus on haze days with PM_{2.5} concentrations higher than 75 μg m⁻³ (several days with nitrate concentrations higher than 5 μg m⁻³ are also included). This definition has been widely used in many previous studies [Ma et al., 2019].

2.2 Evaluation of Δ¹⁷O of key precursors relating to nitrate formation

The traditional steady-state formalism is used to interpret the measured Δ¹⁷O(NO₃⁻), which is expressed by the isotopic mass balance as the following equation:

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

where *f_i* represents the relative contribution of individual reaction to the production of p-NO₃⁻, and (Δ¹⁷O(NO₃⁻)_{*i*}) is the Δ¹⁷O 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:

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

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

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

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 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 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- H_2O 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 H_2O [*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- H_2O 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 H_2O
 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 H_2O (as β). In this study, using the relevant parameters (i.e., OH loss rate, the source and

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

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

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

in which “E” represents the isotopic exchange rate between OH and H₂O, and “L” represents the total loss rate of OH. To calculate the β , the isotopic exchange rate between OH and H₂O recommended by Dubey et al. (1997) is applied [Dubey et al., 1997].

For the estimation of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})_{\text{prod}}$ (Eq. 5), a simple isotope mass balance equation is used. Recent wintertime campaigns found that the HO₂/RO₂ + NO recycle reaction (80~90%) and the photolysis of HONO (10~20%) are the most important sources of OH during winter haze days in urban Beijing [Slater et al., 2020]. The pathway of O₃ photolysis is neglected, because its contribution to OH production is negligible (<1%) [Slater et al., 2020]. Usually, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ generated from the recycling process (i.e., HO₂ + NO) is predicted to be negligible. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})_{\text{prod}}$ will therefore depend on the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of HONO and the fraction of HONO photolysis relative to the total primary source of OH.

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

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

However, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of HONO has not been reported and is indeed more difficult to estimate because of the rapid cycling of HONO with NO_x, as well as the different sources involved in HONO formation (i.e., NO₂ conversion on aerosol surfaces and ground, primary emission, nitrate photolysis, etc.) [Jiang et al., 2020; Xue et al., 2020], which are characterized by distinct $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$

signatures. For instance, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of HONO from the NO_2 heterogeneous reaction can be approximated as $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$, assuming a mass-dependent fractionation process during the NO_2 heterogeneous reaction. We assume that the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of HONO from nitrate photolysis is equal to that of particulate nitrate because the oxygen atoms in HONO can be traced back to the nitrate. The $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of HONO produced from gas-phase reaction ($\text{NO} + \text{OH}$) is approximately half of that of NO. The previous observational-based model study suggested that the NO_2 heterogeneous reaction, the gas-phase reaction of NO with OH, and the photolysis of nitrate are critical daytime HONO sources in urban Beijing [W Zhang *et al.*, 2020]. For simplicity, an upper limit of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{HONO})$ corresponding to the daytime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ is used in this study, which may lead to an overestimate of steady-state $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$.

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

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 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 $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ interpretation. Measurements of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ suggested a radically different NO_2 chemistry during the day and at night, resulting in significant contrast of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ signatures between day and night [Albertin *et al.*, 2021]. However, previous interpretations of observed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ as well as model simulations always use 24-h average NO_2 production rates to calculate the daytime 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 different vertical layers at night [Alexander *et al.*, 2020; Chan *et al.*, 2021]. In urban environments, daytime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ is predicted to be determined by the O_3 isotopic anomaly and its relative importance in the NO oxidation [Michalski *et al.*, 2014; Savarino *et al.*, 2008]. The daytime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ can be estimated using Eq. 8:

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

with $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3^*)$ being the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value of terminal oxygen atoms in ozone ($\sim 39.3\text{‰}$) [Vicars and Savarino, 2014], and the concentrations of O_3 , HO_2 , and RO_2 have been measured directly during the APHH campaign [Slater *et al.*, 2020]. This equation assumes NO and NO_2 reach isotope equilibrium given the fast daytime cycling between NO and 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 NO_2 to NO is muted given the absence of sunlight, and nighttime
273 emission of NO at the surface and its conversion to 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 NO_x chemical regimes (i.e., NO - 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 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 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 θ is the fraction of daytime leftover NO_x ($\text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$) at sunset relative to the total NO_x
289 overnight, and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sunset}}$ is the oxygen isotope anomaly of NO_2 at sunset that can be
290 estimated according to Eq. 8. The θ 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 NO emissions, θ 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 NO_x in the residual layers would be converted to NO_2 since

NO is quickly oxidized by O₃ (NO lifetime of several minutes) and the surface freshly emitted NO would not disperse into the residual layer [H Wang *et al.*, 2018a]; (2) $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ in the residual layer is composited of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ at sunset (i.e., daytime leftover NO₂) and newly formed from O₃ oxidation of NO leftover from the day. Following Albertin *et al.*, 2021, the nighttime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ in the residual layer can be expressed as:

$$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{residual}} = \left\{ \rho \times \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sunset}} + (1 - \rho) \times \frac{\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO})_{\text{sunset}} + \Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3^*)}{2} \right\} \text{ (Equation 11)}$$

with ρ representing the fraction of NO₂ in total NO_x at sunset, and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO})_{\text{sunset}}$ would equal to $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{sunset}}$ given the photo-driven cycling of NO and NO₂.

3. Results

3.1 Comparison of observed and modelled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ in winter haze in Beijing

As shown in Figure 2, $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ of PM_{2.5} near the surface varies significantly, from 19.6‰ to 36.5‰ with mean values of (29.6 ± 3.7) ‰. Compared to surface samples, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ and p-NO₃⁻ aloft increase considerably (Fig. S1) [Fan *et al.*, 2022]. $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ in surface samples is correlated positively with p-NO₃⁻ (Fig. 2), as has been reported in previous studies [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. However, the CTM modeled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ generally showed a slightly decreasing trend as p-NO₃⁻ increased [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. Under moderate haze days, the modelled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ is approximately higher by ~2.0‰ than the observed value. In contrast, the modelled $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ under extreme haze days is lower by 1.6‰ than the observed values, partly because the modelled maximum $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ (~31.8‰) is significantly lower than the observed maximum $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ values [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. The comparison suggests an incomplete understanding of NO_x chemistry and/or the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ transfer mechanisms under haze days.

3.2 The estimation of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$

Table S1 presents an example of the mass balance calculation of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$, and the estimated steady-state $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ is presented in Figure 3. The calculated β (0.10~0.86) and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ (1.0‰~6.5‰) show large variations. Both the β and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ tend to increase with the increase

of PM_{2.5}, implying a growing proportion of initial $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ preserved against exchange with H₂O with the development haze events (Fig. S2). Since the OH + NO₂ reaction is the dominant OH loss process [Slater *et al.*, 2020], the calculated steady-state $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ is also positively and significantly correlated with the NO₂ (Fig. S2). This positive relationship between $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ and NO₂ indicates that $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ is potentially important for model underestimation of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$.

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

The diurnal profiles of peroxy radical mixing ratio, relative humidity (RH), temperature, CO, SO₂, O₃, NO, and NO₂ during the APHH campaign are shown in Fig. S3. Days with available peroxy radicals cover a wide range of PM_{2.5} concentrations, ensuring our estimated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$ is representative. The estimated daytime-averaged $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$ is presented in Figure. 4, which 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 the measured daytime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ in late spring in Grenoble, France (34.5‰) [Albertin *et al.*, 2021]. Opposite to $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$, the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$ is negatively correlated with PM_{2.5}, because O₃ declines significantly but peroxy radicals remain constant on haze days [Slater *et al.*, 2020]. It should be noted that our estimated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{day}}$ values are significantly lower than that simulated in the model studies (38.5‰~39.0‰) [Chan *et al.*, 2021; Alexander *et al.*, 2020].

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

In comparison, the calculated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{residual}}$ values in the residual layer at night range from 33.6‰ 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 dominance of O₃ in the oxidation of NO, which is associated with a relatively high $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ value reaching isotopic exchange equilibrium with NO₂ at sunset. Nevertheless, our estimated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{residual}}$ is still slightly lower than the model simulated values [Chan *et al.*, 2021;

Alexander *et al.*, 2020].

4. Discussion

Model simulations constrained by $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ suggested that the dominant pathway for nitrate production is N_2O_5 hydrolysis on deliquescent aerosols in urban Beijing during haze events [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. However, the model failed to reproduce the observed increasing trend of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ with nitrate concentration [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. In particular, the model predicted lower $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ values compared to the observed values under extreme haze days [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. This underestimation indicates that the understanding of processes or precursors with high $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ values that contribute to nitrate formation is incomplete. To address this discrepancy, potential factors are evaluated separately in the following discussions.

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

Recent field observations have provided evidence of active wintertime photochemistry in urban Beijing, which contributes significantly to the formation of secondary pollutants [Lu *et al.*, 2019; Tan *et al.*, 2018; Slater *et al.*, 2020]. For instance, during the APMH campaign, the measured average OH reactivity and concentration were found to be 47 s^{-1} and $2.7 \times 10^6 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3}$, 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 comparison, the average O isotopic exchange rate between OH and H_2O is approximately $9.8 \times 10^7 \text{ molecules cm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$. This comparison suggests that approximately 56% of the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ derived from its precursors is preserved against the oxygen isotope equilibrium exchange reaction between OH and H_2O . Additionally, the estimated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ tends to increase with the increasing NO_2 and p-NO_3^- levels (Fig. S2), as the $\text{OH} + \text{NO}_2$ reaction predominates the OH loss rate [Slater *et al.*, 2020]. Therefore, our findings indicate $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ in Beijing winter haze is likely positive and can in part account for the negative bias of $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ predicted by the CTM model, as the model assume a $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ value of zero.

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

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

4.2 The effect of nocturnal NO_x chemistry

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

One finding from the observational-constrained isotopes of nitrate intermediates is that the nighttime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ in the surface layer is lower than the modelled ones. This can be attributed to the effect of freshly emitted nighttime NO ($\sim 0\text{‰}$), which dilutes the overall $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of surface NO_x [Albertin *et al.*, 2021]. For example, the nighttime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ determined in Grenoble, France is significantly lower than the daytime values (25.8‰ vs 34.5‰) [Albertin *et al.*, 2021]. It is evident that CTM model simulations significantly overestimate the nighttime surface $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ values to a large extent, as the model assumes nighttime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ values are similar to those in daytime [Alexander *et al.*, 2020; Chan *et al.*, 2021]. Similar to that at the surface, the observational-constrained $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)_{\text{residual}}$ (36.2‰) at night in the residual layer is also lower than the model simulated values [Chan *et al.*, 2021]. Despite these, the CTM model still underestimates $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$. This implies the reasons leading to the underestimate may be related to terminal reactions from NO_2 to HNO_3 at night, which include reactions such as $\text{NO}_3 + \text{HC}$, N_2O_5 hydrolysis, and heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry. We evaluate the importance of these reactions in the following sections.

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

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

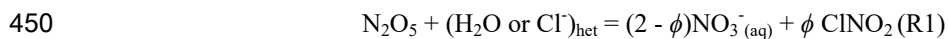
observation-based box models have shown that this pathway does not contribute significantly to
 nitrate production in winter Beijing haze [Chan *et al.*, 2021; X Chen *et al.*, 2020; H Wang *et al.*,
 2018a; Xie *et al.*, 2022; Zhao *et al.*, 2023; H Wang *et al.*, 2021]. For instance, an analysis of the
 long-term NO₃ radical budget in the winter of 2014-2019 in Beijing demonstrated that N₂O₅
 heterogeneous hydrolysis was the dominant process responsible for total NO₃ radical loss,
 accounting for 77% to 92% [H Wang *et al.*, 2021]. Another study conducted during the APHH
 campaign revealed that the NO₃ total loss resulting from the reaction with volatile organic
 compounds (VOCs) contributed less than 5% to the overall removal of NO_x [Li *et al.*, 2022].
 Additionally, the oxidation of VOCs by the NO₃ radical favors the production of organic nitrate, as
 reactions with unsaturated compounds are significantly efficient compared to saturated compounds
 [Ng *et al.*, 2008]. Due to the low ambient level of organic nitrate, its conversion to inorganic
 nitrate through hydrolysis only accounts for less than 3% of inorganic nitrate formation globally
 [Alexander *et al.*, 2020].

However, isotopic studies suggested that NO₃ reacting with VOCs is crucial for nitrate formation,
 constituting approximately one-third and being particularly important on haze days [Fan *et al.*,
 2022; Y Wang *et al.*, 2019; Zhang *et al.*, 2022]. From the view of isotopic signature, the
 contribution of the NO₃ + HC channel is difficult to distinguish from the N₂O₅ + Cl⁻ channel as
 these two pathways exhibit similar Δ¹⁷O endmembers [Fan *et al.*, 2022; He *et al.*, 2018; Alexander
et al., 2020]. Moreover, relying solely on the Δ¹⁷O tracer to estimate multiple pathways'
 contributions may introduce significant uncertainties [Phillips *et al.*, 2014]. To address this, the
 evaluation of the Δ¹⁷O–δ¹⁵N (or δ¹⁸O–δ¹⁵N) array of p-NO₃⁻ can provide valuable insights [Walters
 and Michalski, 2016; Z Zhang *et al.*, 2021a]. Theoretically, the N₂O₅ + H₂O and N₂O₅ + Cl⁻
 pathways will result in enrichments in δ¹⁵N of nitrate while the NO₃ + HC pathway will cause
 depletions in δ¹⁵N of nitrate compared to the precursors [Walters and Michalski, 2015]. In terms of
 Δ¹⁷O, the NO₃ + HC and N₂O₅ + Cl⁻ pathways will produce more enriched oxygen anomaly,
 approximately 6.5‰ higher than the N₂O₅ + H₂O pathway (~1/6 of Δ¹⁷O(O₃*)). Consequently, the
 more significant the NO₃ + HC pathways, the more negative the slopes of Δ¹⁷O against δ¹⁵N in
 nitrate. Based on these findings, Zhang *et al.*, 2021 reported that the NO₃ + HC pathway accounted
 for an average of only 8% of wintertime (2017-2018) nitrate production in Beijing [Z Zhang *et al.*,

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

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

Recent field observations in the NCP region have revealed elevated levels of ClNO_2 , suggesting the prominent role of the $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ pathways in nitrate formation as ClNO_2 is a byproduct of heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry (R1-R2) [Tham *et al.*, 2018; Xia *et al.*, 2021; Yan *et al.*, 2019; Yu *et al.*, 2020]. In addition, the presence of ClNO_2 can significantly affect the regional atmospheric oxidation capacity. For instance, Yang *et al.*, 2022 estimated that the ClNO_2 chemistry can increase the surface O_3 by up to 4.5ppbv across China [Yang *et al.*, 2022]. However, the field campaign-derived yield of ClNO_2 (ϕ in R1) from heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry shows large variations, ranging from 0.01 to 0.73 across China (Table 2). In addition to the traditional laboratory experiment or field observational approach, we propose that nitrate $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ composition at night may be used to constrain the yield of ClNO_2 (ϕ) because the nighttime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ values depend on the branching ratio of ClNO_2 production that represents the relative importance of $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ pathways. In particular, the nighttime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ endmembers will be approximately 30.7‰ when $\phi = 0$, while it will be approximately 37.2‰ when $\phi = 1$, considering that the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ in the residual layer is calculated to be 36.2‰ during haze days.



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

estimated to be about 60% and 40%, respectively, corresponding to an average yield ratio of ClNO₂ at approximately 0.75 (Text S2). Our isotopic approach-derived yield ratio of ClNO₂ aligns with the higher end of previous studies (Table 2). The relatively high ClNO₂ yield can be attributed to the significant availability of chloride in PM_{2.5} from anthropogenic sources (average of 0.04 μg/m³, corresponding to 5.6M in the aerosol aqueous phase from the ISORROPIA-II model) [Fan et al., 2022; Thornton et al., 2010; X Wang et al., 2023; B Zhang et al., 2022], as laboratory experiments or field observations suggest that the yield of ClNO₂ is primarily determined by the concentration of available Cl⁻ [Bertram and Thornton, 2009; Yu et al., 2020].

The high product yield of ClNO₂ estimated in this study implies an elevated mixing ratio of ClNO₂ during winter haze days. In fact, previous studies frequently observed high mixing ratios of ClNO₂ (i.e., above 0.5 ppbv) in the NCP region in winter [Xia et al., 2021 and reference therein]. Noted that the photolysis of ClNO₂ and its subsequent reactions (RS1-RS5, Text S3) in the next morning have a significant impact on the budget of ozone, the fate of pollutants, and the oxygen isotope transfer among O-bearing molecules [Savarino et al., 2016; Thornton et al., 2010]. It is expected that the oxidation of NO by ClO will increase the daytime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ because the $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of ClO is equal to $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{O}_3)_{\text{terminal}}$. Although the oxidation rate of NO + ClO is much higher than that of NO + O₃ by approximately three orders of magnitude, its effect on the daily $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ is estimated to be small due to the extremely low ClO concentrations in winter in Beijing (on the order of 10⁶ cm⁻³) [Li et al., 2021]. Similarly, the uptake of ClNO₃ is unlikely to significantly impact the daytime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ for two reasons: 1) the reaction rate of ClO with NO₂ is slower than the OH + NO₂ reaction under the typical wintertime conditions in Beijing (3.0*10⁻¹² cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹ versus 1.3*10⁻¹¹ cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹) [Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016]; 2) the photolysis rate of ClONO₂ during daytime is much higher than its hydrolysis rate by three orders of magnitude [Le Breton et al., 2018; Peng et al., 2022; Stimpfle et al., 1999]. In summary, our findings suggest that the heterogeneous N₂O₅ + Cl⁻ chemistry may play a crucial role in nitrate formation during winter haze in Beijing.

4.3 Implications for nitrate formation pathways in winter haze days

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 $1.9) \text{‰}$ during haze days by accounting for the transfer of the daytime $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$ of 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_2 yield of 0.75 (ϕ in R1) during heterogeneous $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5 + \text{Cl}^-$ chemistry. The high ClNO_2 yield
490 used in this study is consistent with the observed high concentrations of ClNO_2 (up to several
491 ppbv) in field campaigns over China which are difficult to reconcile with lower ClNO_2 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 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ 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 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ 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 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ 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_3 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 N_2O_5 heterogeneous chemistry increases. According to
507 our estimates, on average, approximately 72% of nitrate formation in daily $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ samples
508 collected at 260m (i.e., in the residual layer at night) can be attributed to N_2O_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 N_2O_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 NO_x emissions in China. The subdued response of the nitrate to 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 NO_x to nitrate. However, there is still uncertainty regarding the relative importance of the
534 OH oxidation pathway and the N_2O_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 NO_x chemistry such as NO_x , O_3 , OH , HO_2 , RO_2 , and 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 ClNO_2 yield of 0.75. The estimated
547 high product yield of ClNO_2 is somewhat consistent with the observed high mixing ratios of
548 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 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 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 (OH , 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 OH should exhibit a positive $\Delta^{17}\text{O}$, as the chemical rate of OH loss
562 can compete with OH exchange with H_2O . In addition, the observed $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ constrained using
563 observational data (O_3 and RO_2) is significantly lower than the values simulated by the model.
564 Given 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 NO_x chemistry in urban polluted environments.

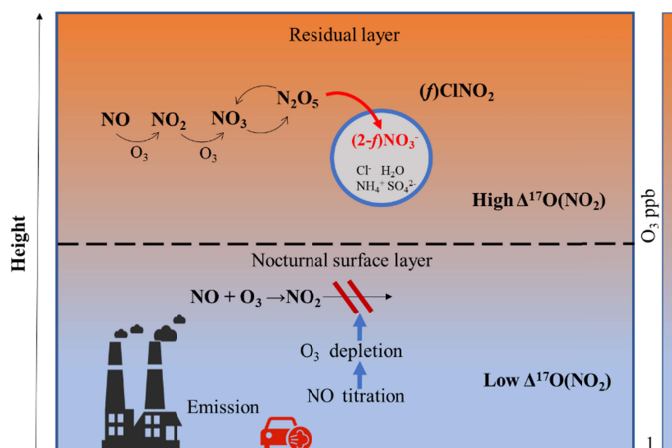
567 **Open research**

568 The nitrate isotope datasets (PM_{2.5} 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**

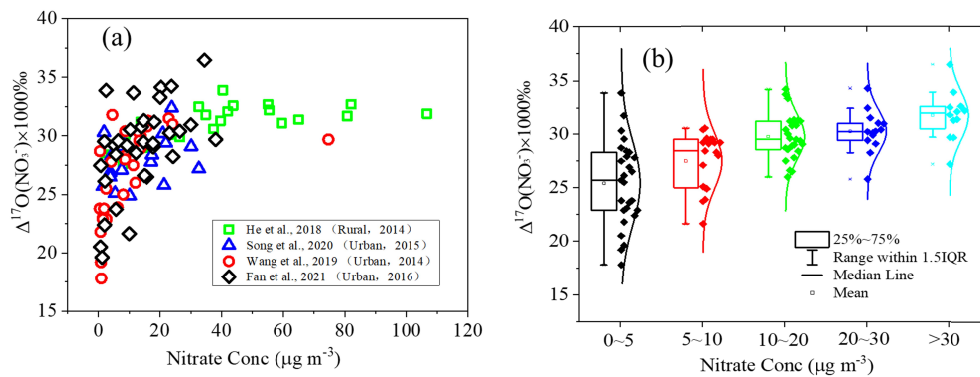
574 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest

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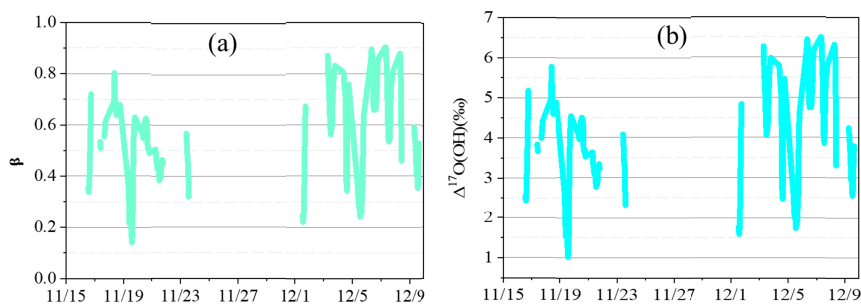
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586 **Figure 1.** Schematic description of nocturnal NO_x chemistry at different layers during haze
 587 episodes. The surface air masses are chemically inert as ozone will be fully titrated by freshly
 588 emitted NO. In comparison, the residual layer air masses are chemically reactive, in which the fast
 589 N_2O_5 heterogeneous chemistry promotes nitrate accumulation. The O_3 concentrations at different
 590 heights were referred from HC Wang et al., 2018.



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590 **Figure 2.** The relationship between $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$ and 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 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.

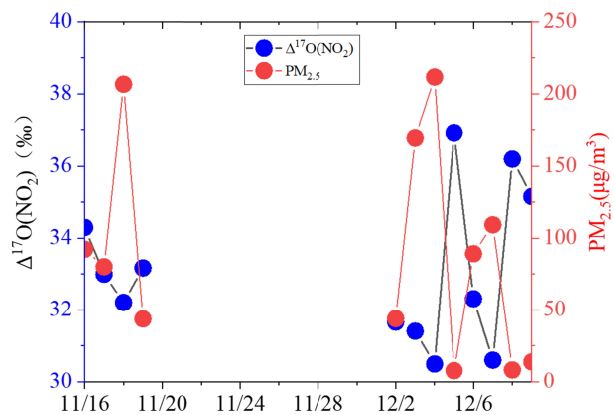


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595 **Figure 3.** The time series of β (panel a) and $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{OH})$ (panel b) during the APHH campaign
 596 (2016 winter in urban Beijing). β represents the degree of OH exchange with H_2O relative to the
 597 OH isotope exchange rate and its total loss rate. The OH total loss rate is measured online using
 598 the laser flash photolysis pump-probe technique.

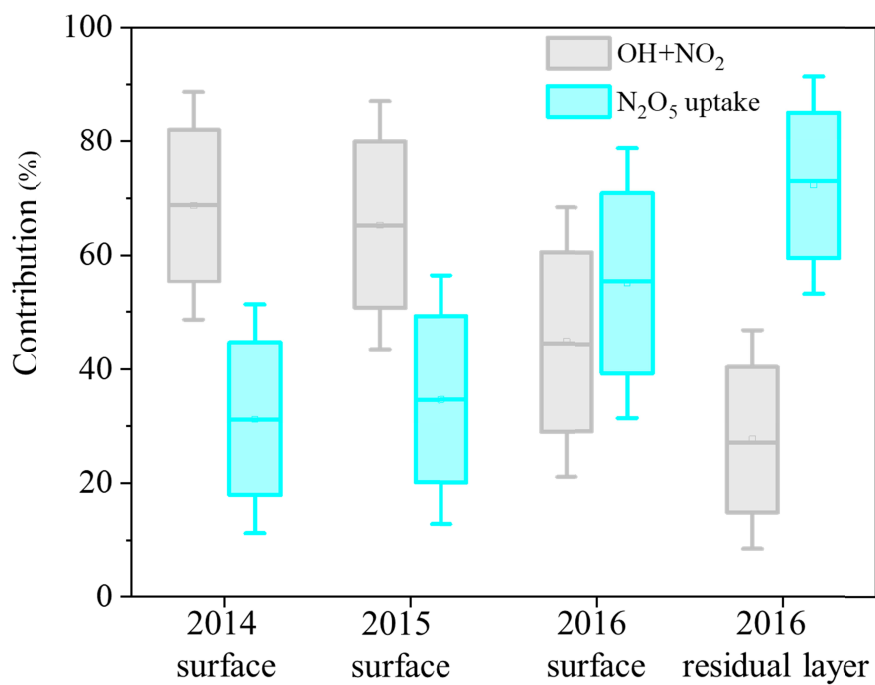
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601 **Figure 4.** The time series of calculated $\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_2)$ during the APHH campaign (2016 winter in
 602 urban Beijing). The peroxy radicals and O_3 concentrations were directly measured during the
 603 APHH campaign period.



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605 **Figure 5.** Fractional contributions (mean \pm SD values) of daytime OH + NO₂ and nocturnal N₂O₅
 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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Data	Site	Period	References
$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$;	IAP	November-December 2016	Fan et al., 2021
p- NO_3^- ;	CRAES	November-December 2014	Wang et al., 2019
(Field observation)	CRAES	January 2015	Song et al., 2020
	UCAS-Huairou	October – November 2014	He et al., 2017
$\Delta^{17}\text{O}(\text{NO}_3^-)$	Nested-grid		
(Model simulation)	simulations for	Winter 2014–2015	Chan et al., 2022
	East Asia		
Radical concentration;			
OH reactivity rate;	IAP	November-December 2016	Slater et al., 2020
O_3 , NO, NO_2 , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$;			
Meteorological parameters			

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611 Table 2. The yield of ClNO₂ in previous field campaign that have taken place in China and several
612 model results.

Date	Location	ϕ ClNO ₂	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 ^a	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 ^a: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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