



<b>Title</b>	Aerosol Liquid Water Promotes the Formation of Water-Soluble Organic Nitrogen in Submicrometer Aerosols in a Suburban Forest
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1 **Aerosol liquid water promotes the formation of**  
2 **water-soluble organic nitrogen in submicrometer**  
3 **aerosols in a suburban forest**

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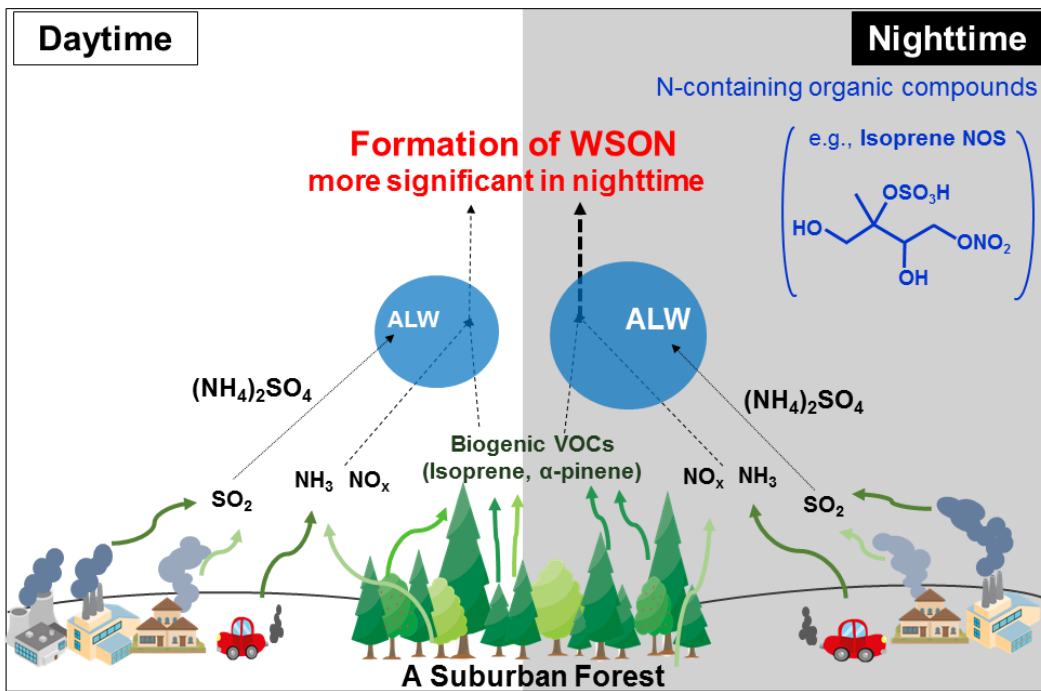
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23 **ABSTRACT:** Water-soluble organic nitrogen (WSO<sub>N</sub>) affects the formation, chemical  
24 transformations, hygroscopicity, and acidity of organic aerosols as well as  
25 biogeochemical cycles of nitrogen. However, large uncertainties exist in the origins and  
26 formation processes of WSO<sub>N</sub>. Submicrometer aerosol particles were collected at a  
27 suburban forest site in Tokyo in summer 2015 to investigate relative impacts of  
28 anthropogenic and biogenic sources on WSO<sub>N</sub> formations and their linkages with  
29 aerosol liquid water (ALW). The concentrations of WSO<sub>N</sub> (ave.  $225 \pm 100$  ngN m<sup>-3</sup>)  
30 and ALW exhibited peaks during nighttime, which showed a significant positive  
31 correlation, suggesting that ALW significantly contributed to WSO<sub>N</sub> formation. Further,  
32 the thermodynamic predictions by ISORROPIA-II suggest that ALW was primarily  
33 driven by anthropogenic sulfate. Our analysis, including positive matrix factorization,  
34 suggests that aqueous-phase reactions of ammonium and reactive nitrogen with  
35 biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs) play a key role in WSO<sub>N</sub> formation in  
36 submicrometer particles, which is particularly significant in nighttime, at the suburban  
37 forest site. The formation of WSO<sub>N</sub> associated with biogenic VOCs and ALW was  
38 partly supported by the molecular characterization of WSO<sub>N</sub>. The overall result  
39 suggests that ALW is an important driver for the formation of aerosol WSO<sub>N</sub> through  
40 a combination of anthropogenic and biogenic sources.

41

42

43 ■ **INTRODUCTION.**

44 Water-soluble organic nitrogen (WSON) typically accounts for up to ~30% of water-  
45 soluble total nitrogen by mass in atmospheric aerosols.<sup>1-4</sup> WSON can affect water-  
46 solubility, acidity, and hygroscopicity of aerosol particles,<sup>3, 5, 6</sup> which are closely linked  
47 with air quality and climate-relevant factors such as cloud formation. Moreover, the  
48 atmospheric deposition of WSON onto terrestrial and marine environments affects the  
49 structure and function of natural ecosystems, such as eutrophication and changes in  
50 biodiversity.<sup>5, 7-10</sup> Therefore, it is of great importance to understand the origins and  
51 formation processes of WSON in aerosols.

52 WSON in atmospheric aerosols can be associated with primary emissions from  
53 terrestrial vegetation such as fragments of plants, bacteria, fungi, and pollen.<sup>1, 3, 11</sup> In  
54 addition, secondary formation is also a possible source of WSON, which includes  
55 reactions of biogenic volatile organic compounds (VOCs), such as monoterpenes and  
56 isoprene, with reactive nitrogen.<sup>12-14</sup> A laboratory chamber experiment conducted by  
57 Surratt et al.<sup>15</sup> reported that the oxidation of isoprene with nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) results  
58 in the formation of methacryloyl peroxyxynitrate (MPAN)-derived ON in particle phase.  
59 Other laboratory experiments have demonstrated the production of nitrooxy  
60 organosulfates (NOSs) and other organic nitrates (e.g., dihydroxynitrates and  
61 monohydroxynitrates) through reactions of  $\alpha$ -/ $\beta$ -pinene and NO<sub>x</sub>.<sup>14, 16, 17, 18</sup> Furthermore,  
62 glyoxal monomers can react with ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>)/ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) to form nitrogen-  
63 containing organic compounds (NOCs) in aqueous-phase particles or nanodroplets  
64 containing ammonium.<sup>19, 20</sup> Nevertheless, there are still substantial gaps in our current

65 knowledge on the sources and formation processes of WSON in ambient aerosols.

66 It has been recognized that aerosol liquid water (ALW) can significantly enhance  
67 secondary organic aerosol (SOA) mass yield.<sup>21-25</sup> This is because ALW not only  
68 facilitates partitioning of gas-phase water-soluble organic matter into the particle phase  
69 but also provides a medium for aqueous reactions to form SOA.<sup>21, 23, 26</sup> Previous studies  
70 have reported that the amount of ALW is closely associated with local ambient  
71 conditions, such as relative humidity (RH) and aerosol mass of chemical components  
72 (e.g., sulfate or nitrate).<sup>22, 25, 27-29</sup> In general, forest environments have potentially high  
73 RH and larger emissions of water-soluble precursors of biogenic SOA compared to  
74 urban environments.<sup>30</sup> In addition, a forest region influenced by anthropogenic air  
75 masses with high NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations is expected to promote SOA associated with  
76 ALW.<sup>31, 32</sup> A recent field study conducted at a cool-temperate forest site suggested that  
77 biogenic SOA and primary biological aerosol particles (PBAPs) accounted for  
78 substantial fractions of the submicrometer water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC)  
79 aerosols by mass.<sup>33</sup> Despite WSON being an important compound class of WSOC, the  
80 potential roles of ALW in the formation of WSON aerosols, particularly in the forest  
81 atmosphere, are not well-documented.

82 In this study, we present the ambient measurements of the concentrations of  
83 WSON, the predicted ALW, and the relevant chemical parameters in submicrometer  
84 aerosol particles collected at a suburban forest site in Tokyo in summer 2015. The aims  
85 of the study are (1) to investigate the origins of ALW and WSON in the aerosols at the  
86 forest site, (2) to elucidate the role of ALW in WSON formation, and (3) to investigate

87 the potential formation processes for WSON with a focus on the relative impacts of  
88 anthropogenic and biogenic sources.

89

## 90 ■ EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

91 **Site Description.** Intensive measurements of aerosol and gas species were performed  
92 from July 23 to August 8 in 2015 at the Field Museum Tama Hill (FM-Tama, 35.6385°N,  
93 139.3781°E) measurement station of Tokyo University of Agriculture and  
94 Technology.<sup>34, 35, 36</sup> The site is located approximately 30 km west of center of Tokyo,  
95 Japan (**Figure S1a**). The dominant species of the trees at the forest site are *Quercus*  
96 *serrata* (Japanese konara oak), *Quercus acutissima* (sawtooths oak), and *Cryptomeria*  
97 *japonica* (Japanese cedar). The biogenic emissions of VOCs and aerosols have been  
98 previously reported for this forest site.<sup>34</sup> Because the forest site is characterized as a  
99 typical suburban forest area, the site is also expected to be influenced by anthropogenic  
100 air masses transported from the urban area.<sup>36</sup>

101 Meteorological parameters, including local wind speeds and wind directions,  
102 amount of rainfall, RH, ambient temperature, and photosynthetically active radiation  
103 (PAR), were monitored at the site. The local wind speeds were mostly  $< 5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  during  
104 the study period (**Figures S1b** and **S2a**), indicating that most of the observed aerosols  
105 were affected by emission sources in the forest area. However, the wind speeds  
106 sometimes exceeded  $5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , particularly in daytime when the southerly winds were  
107 predominantly observed, suggesting that the observed air masses were mostly  
108 transported from the south directions of the urban area during the daytime. This

109 suggests that the forest site was also influenced by anthropogenic air masses in addition  
110 to the local biogenic sources, particularly in daytime. Only four rainfall events occurred  
111 during the entire sampling period (**Figure S2**), indicating that the removal of  
112 atmospheric components by rainfall is likely insignificant in this study.

### 113 **Aerosol Sampling, Chemical Analysis, and Measurements of Gas Species.**

114 Submicrometer aerosol particles (with diameters of less than 0.95  $\mu\text{m}$ ) were  
115 continuously collected using a high-volume air sampler (HVAS; Model 120SL, Kimoto  
116 Electric, Osaka, Japan). A cascade impactor (CI; Series 230, Tisch Environmental,  
117 Cleves, OH, USA) was attached to HVAS, which collected submicrometer particles  
118 onto quartz fiber filters (25 cm  $\times$  20 cm) set on the bottom stage of CI. The duration of  
119 each aerosol sampling was approximately 3 h during daytime (9:00–18:00 LT) and  
120 approximately 15 h during nighttime (18:00–9:00 LT). The collected aerosol samples  
121 were stored individually in glass jars with a Teflon-lined screw top cap at  $-20\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  prior  
122 to the analysis.

123 For the determination of inorganic ions, a portion of each filter sample was  
124 extracted with ultrapure water ( $>18\text{ M}\Omega\text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) using an ultrasonic bath. The extracts  
125 were then filtrated with a disc filter (Millex-GV, 0.22  $\mu\text{m}$ , Millipore, Billerica, MA,  
126 USA). The mass concentrations of major inorganic ions, including sulfate, nitrate, and  
127 ammonium, were measured using an ion chromatograph (Model 761 compact IC;  
128 Metrohm).<sup>37</sup>

129 To determine the concentrations of WSOC and water-soluble total nitrogen  
130 (WSTN), another filter cut was extracted with ultrapure water. The extracts were



131 filtrated with the disc filter in the same way as above, and WSOC and WSTN  
132 concentrations were determined using a total organic carbon (TOC)/total nitrogen (TN)  
133 analyzer (Model TOC-Vcsh, Shimadzu).<sup>38</sup> In this study, the mass concentrations of  
134 WSOC were converted to those of water-soluble organic matter (WSOM) using a  
135 conversion factor of 1.8.<sup>33, 39-41</sup> The mass concentration of WSON is defined as the  
136 difference in the concentrations between WSTN and inorganic nitrogen (IN =  $\text{NH}_4^+$ \_N  
137 +  $\text{NO}_3^-$ \_N +  $\text{NO}_2^-$ \_N), namely  $[\text{WSON}] = [\text{WSTN}] - [\text{IN}]$ .

138 For the analysis of biogenic molecular tracer compounds, a filter portion was  
139 extracted with dichloromethane/methanol. The –COOH and –OH functional groups in  
140 the extracts were reacted with N,O-bis-(trimethylsilyl) trifluoroacetamide (BSTFA) to  
141 derive trimethylsilyl (TMS) esters and TMS ethers, respectively. The TMS derivatives  
142 were then analyzed for 2-methyltetrols, 3-methyl-1,2,3-butanetricarboxylic acid (3-  
143 MBTCA), pinic acid, pinonic acid, arabitol, mannitol, sucrose, and trehalose (**Table S1**)  
144 by using a capillary gas chromatograph (GC7890, Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA)  
145 coupled with a mass spectrometer (5973 MSD, Agilent, Santa Clara, CA, USA).<sup>1</sup>

146 To determine the concentrations of NOSs, another filter portion was extracted  
147 with methanol. Prior to the extraction, sodium ethyl sulfate-d5 was added to each filter  
148 sample as an internal standard. The extracted sample was injected into negative-mode  
149 electrospray ionization/liquid chromatography-mass spectrometry (ESI/LC-MS) (LC-  
150 MS-2020, Shimadzu).<sup>42</sup> In this study, we measured a molecular marker of isoprene-  
151 derived NOS detected at m/z 260 (isoprene NOS).<sup>42</sup> Sodium methyl sulfate was used  
152 as the surrogate standard for NOS, because it has been often used as a surrogate standard

153 for isoprene organosulfate.<sup>43</sup> It is noted that several chromatographic peaks were  
154 observed for the NOS of m/z 260, suggesting that several isomers are present for NOS.  
155 In the present study, the sum of these isomers was used to calculate the total  
156 concentrations of the NOS of m/z 260.

157 The mass concentrations of organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) were  
158 measured using an OC/EC analyzer.<sup>38</sup> The concentrations of  $\alpha$ -pinene and limonene  
159 were measured using a proton-transfer-reaction mass spectrometer (PTR-MS,  
160 IONICON).<sup>34</sup> Ambient measurements of ozone ( $O_3$ ), carbon monoxide (CO), and  $NO_x$   
161 (= NO +  $NO_2$ ) concentrations were simultaneously performed using an ultraviolet  
162 absorption analyzer (Thermo Scientific, model 49C), a non-disperse infrared absorption  
163 analyzer (Thermo Scientific, model 48C), and a chemiluminescence analyzer (Thermo  
164 Scientific, model 42iTL).<sup>34</sup>

165 **Predicting ALW using a Thermodynamic Model.** To predict the mass  
166 concentration of ALW, we used a thermodynamic model, ISORROPIA-II,<sup>27, 29</sup> which  
167 calculates the ALW concentration with particle-phase concentrations of  $Na^+$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  
168  $NH_4^+$ ,  $NO_3^-$ ,  $Cl^-$ ,  $Ca^{2+}$ ,  $K^+$ , and  $Mg^{2+}$ , as well as meteorological conditions (RH and  
169 ambient temperature) as input. For our analysis, the inputs to ISORROPIA-II included  
170 the inorganic ions measured by IC as well as the RH and temperature monitored at the  
171 forest site (**Supporting Information (SI)**). To estimate the contributions of particle  
172 water associated with organic fractions to ALW, the organic hygroscopicity parameter  
173 was calculated (**SI**). ALW was calculated as the sum of water associated with individual  
174 aerosol chemical components (i.e., the sum of ions and lumped organics) based on the

175 Zdanovskii–Stokes–Robinson (ZSR) relationship.<sup>29, 44, 45</sup> The calculation assumed that  
176 the particles were internally mixed.

## 177 ■ RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

178 **Temporal Variations of Water-Soluble Components in Submicrometer Aerosol**  
179 **Particles.** **Figures 1a** and **1b** show the time series of the mass fractions and  
180 concentrations of the major components of submicrometer water-soluble aerosols. On  
181 average, WSOM and sulfate were the dominant components, which accounted for  $33 \pm$   
182  $11\%$  and  $49 \pm 13\%$  of the submicrometer water-soluble aerosols, respectively.  
183 Ammonium was the third most abundant chemical component, whose concentrations  
184 showed a temporal variation similar to that of sulfate (**Figure 1b**). During July 27 to  
185 August 3, the mass concentration levels and fractions of sulfate tended to increase,  
186 whereas those of WSOM (WSOC) showed an opposite trend. The mass fractions and  
187 concentrations of WSOC exhibited a distinct diurnal cycle, with a maximum in the  
188 morning until noontime and a minimum in the nighttime. A clear diurnal pattern was  
189 also observed for the sulfate concentrations, with peaks in the afternoon. These  
190 dissimilarities in the temporal variations of WSOM and sulfate suggested that the  
191 dominant sources differed between these two major components.

192 **Figure 1c** shows temporal variations in the concentrations of 2-methyltetrols and  
193 3-MBTCA, which are oxidation products of isoprene and  $\alpha$ -pinene, respectively.<sup>1, 46-48</sup>  
194 The temporal variation of 2-methyltetrols was similar to that of WSOC during the study  
195 period ( $R^2 = 0.47$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). Moreover, the temporal variations of the concentrations  
196 of 3-MBTCA and WSOC were similar during the entire sampling period ( $R^2 = 0.74$ ,  $P$

197 < 0.001). These results indicated that most of the WSOC in the submicrometer aerosols  
198 was associated with the emissions of isoprene and  $\alpha$ -pinene and their oxidation at this  
199 forest site.

200 The average concentration of sulfate in the submicrometer particles was  $5.5 \pm 3.1$   
201  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during the study period. Regarding the possible sources of the observed sulfate,  
202 the local wind data suggested that the observed sulfate was likely transported by the  
203 surrounding urban area in both daytime and nighttime, as mentioned above (**Figure S1**).  
204 Therefore, it is likely that anthropogenic sources dominantly contributed to the  
205 observed sulfate at this forest site, which is also supported by the negligible contribution  
206 of sea salt to the observed sulfate (0.1%) in this study. The major sources of sulfate  
207 observed in Tokyo are attributable to manufacturing industries and energy production.<sup>49</sup>  
208 The average concentration observed at the current forest site was larger than that (ave.  
209  $3.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) reported for an urban area of Tokyo in summer.<sup>29</sup> The observed sulfate at  
210 this forest site was likely more aged due to the transport from the urban area, which can  
211 explain the difference in the concentration levels.

212 Overall, the temporal variation in the concentrations of WSON is similar to that  
213 of sulfate, rather than WSOC (**Figures 1b** and **1d**). At some specific nights (e.g., July  
214 31 to August 1 and August 7–8), WSON showed a significant increase in the  
215 concentrations, which is contrary to the case of WSOC. This resulted in no significant  
216 difference in the average concentration of WSON between daytime and nighttime  
217 (**Table S1**). The WSON concentrations also showed a temporal trend similar to that of  
218 ALW concentrations (**Figure 1d**). The similarity in the temporal variations suggests

219 that WSON formation is closely linked with ALW at this forest site.

220 In general, volatile species like ammonium are expected to be volatilized more  
221 in daytime when ambient temperature was higher. In this study, the sampling duration  
222 was set for 3 hours in daytime, partly in order to avoid volatilization of the aerosol  
223 components within this shorter time of the sampling in daytime. However, ammonium,  
224 which is one of the major volatile species in this study, systematically showed larger  
225 concentrations in daytime than in nighttime. Moreover, the diurnal variations of  
226 isoprene SOA and monoterpene SOA were similar to those of their precursor VOCs  
227 obtained by in-situ measurements<sup>34</sup> during the entire period. Although the possibility of  
228 volatilization loss during the sampling cannot be ruled out, it is expected that the  
229 difference in the sampling time between daytime and nighttime did not significantly  
230 affect our discussion.

231 **Potential Sources of ALW.** To investigate the potential sources of ALW in the  
232 submicrometer aerosols, **Figure 2** investigates different outputs of the ALW  
233 concentrations calculated by ISORROPIA-II to evaluate the contribution of sulfate and  
234 nitrate to the ALW mass. The calculation showed insignificant difference (~5.4%) in  
235 the ALW concentrations between the cases with and without an  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  input. In  
236 contrast, the calculation without an  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  input resulted in a significant decrease  
237 in the ALW concentrations compared to the base-case calculation. On average,  
238  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  contributed to 75% of the ALW mass at the forest site. The average fractions  
239 of the ALW mass derived by  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  were similar during daytime (75%) and  
240 nighttime (72%). The results quantitatively suggest that most of the ALW mass was

241 controlled by sulfate. Cheng et al.<sup>50</sup> suggested that SO<sub>2</sub> from anthropogenic sources can  
242 be trapped by alkaline aerosol components such as ammonium in fine particles during  
243 a haze event, followed by oxidation by NO<sub>2</sub> to form sulfate. This production mechanism  
244 of sulfate might be self-amplified with an increase in ALW concentrations<sup>50</sup>.

245 **Figure 2** also includes the ALW concentrations derived by organic matter. On  
246 average, the mass concentrations of the ALW derived by organics were similar during  
247 daytime ( $0.98 \pm 0.35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and nighttime ( $1.02 \pm 0.43 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). Organic components  
248 in aerosols can promote or inhibit water uptake, which depends on the chemical  
249 composition and relative abundance of organic matter as well as particle mixing  
250 states.<sup>51-56</sup> In this study, the calculation assumed a hygroscopic parameter  $\kappa$  of 0.1 for  
251 organic matter, which is a typical value for biogenic SOA.<sup>33, 57, 58</sup> The calculation  
252 resulted in an insignificant increase (ave. 16%) in ALW concentration (**Figure 2**). The  
253 ALW concentrations driven by organics were substantially lower than those derived by  
254 (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> both in daytime and nighttime, suggesting that the contribution of organic  
255 matter to the ALW mass was insignificant in this study. Insignificant contribution of  
256 organics to the ALW mass was also suggested by a previous study, which predicted  
257 ALW in the urban area of Tokyo.<sup>29</sup> The overall results suggest that the amount of ALW  
258 in the submicrometer aerosol particles was mainly controlled by that of sulfate at this  
259 forest site.

260 ALW mainly driven by anthropogenic sulfate has been reported by previous  
261 studies.<sup>27, 29, 45, 59</sup> However, the current result differs from those obtained by Hodas et  
262 al. in an agricultural region in Po Valley, Italy.<sup>25</sup> They suggested that anthropogenic

263 nitrate from local sources mainly controls the formation of ALW in PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Indeed, the  
264 concentrations of nitrate reported by Hodas et al.<sup>25</sup> are much larger than the values  
265 presented in this study. Thus, the difference in the major contributor to ALW may be  
266 due to the differences in the relative abundance of the aerosol components (i.e., sulfate  
267 vs. nitrate) responsible for ALW, as also suggested by Hodas et al.<sup>25</sup> Moreover, it is  
268 expected that in regions with larger NO<sub>x</sub> emission under the concentration levels of  
269 biogenic VOCs and sulfate similar to those in this study, the formation of ALW may be  
270 promoted.

271 **Possible Sources of WSOC and WSON and their Linkages with ALW.** While  
272 ISORROPIA-II was used to predict the ALW mass, a positive matrix factorization  
273 (PMF) analysis<sup>60</sup> was performed to apportion sources of the measured WSOC and  
274 WSON. The PMF resolved six interpretable factors, which were characterized by the  
275 enrichment of each tracer compound (**Figure S3**). **Figure 3** presents the contribution of  
276 each factor to the mass concentrations of WSOC, WSON, and ALW during daytime and  
277 nighttime. The PMF showed that, on average, most of the WSOC mass was attributable  
278 to biogenic sources both in daytime (86%) and nighttime (77%). Most of the biogenic  
279 sources are isoprene-SOA and  $\alpha$ -pinene-SOA (F2 and F3), followed by PBAPs such as  
280 bacteria, fungi, and pollen (F4 and F5) (**Figures 3a** and **3d**). As shown previously, the  
281 mass concentrations of WSOC showed a distinct diurnal variation with a maximum in  
282 daytime. The overall result suggests that most of the WSOC mass was attributable to  
283 local biogenic sources. In contrast, anthropogenic sulfate-rich factor (F1) contributed  
284 small fractions of WSOC mass both in daytime (9.4%) and nighttime (19%), suggesting

285 that organic carbon from anthropogenic sources contributed to the small fraction of  
286 WSOC mass.

287 In contrast, the anthropogenic sulfate-rich factor (F1) contributed to 48% and 61%  
288 of WSON mass during the daytime and nighttime, respectively (**Figures 3b** and **3e**). In  
289 addition, the sum of the biogenic-SOA-relevant factors (F2 and F3) and the pollen-rich  
290 factor (F5) accounted for 51% (daytime) and 38% (nighttime) of WSON mass, which  
291 are also significant sources. The PMF showed that most of ALW concentrations were  
292 attributable to the anthropogenic sulfate-rich factor (F1) both in daytime (74%) and  
293 nighttime (83%), as shown in **Figures 3c** and **3f**. This result agrees with those derived  
294 by ISORROPIA-II, where  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  is a major factor controlling ALW mass in this  
295 study (**Figure 2**).

296 **Figures 4a** and **4b** show the concentrations of WSOC and WSON as functions  
297 of ALW concentrations. The WSOC concentrations tended to increase with increasing  
298 ALW concentrations. However, the concentrations of these two parameters showed less  
299 significant correlation coefficient ( $R^2 < 0.1$ ) in this study. This result is different from  
300 that obtained by a recent study conducted in an agriculture area in Italy,<sup>25</sup> according to  
301 which the WSOC concentrations showed a significant positive correlation with ALW  
302 concentrations in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . Their study implied that ALW promoted the formation of  
303 particulate WSOC in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . The difference between the current study and Hodas et al.<sup>25</sup>  
304 may be due to the additional contributions of the other formation processes of WSOC  
305 in this study, such as gas-phase reactions of biogenic VOCs, and PBAPs (**Figures 3a**  
306 and **3d**), and/or the difference in the size cut of aerosol particles.



307 In contrast, the concentrations of WSON showed significant positive correlations  
308 with those of ALW both in daytime ( $R^2 = 0.41$ ,  $P < 0.01$ ) and nighttime ( $R^2 = 0.55$ ,  $P <$   
309  $0.01$ ), as also expected from **Figure 1d**. The overall results suggest that the amount of  
310 ALW, mainly driven by anthropogenic sulfate, is significantly linked with WSON  
311 formation. Moreover, the mass ratio of WSON/WSOC showed significant correlations  
312 with ALW concentrations (**Figure 4c**), indicating that the increasing rate of the WSON  
313 mass was higher than that of WSOC with increasing mass of ALW.

314 **Possible Formation Mechanisms of WSON.** As shown in the previous section, the  
315 current result suggests that ALW, mainly driven by anthropogenic sulfate, significantly  
316 contributed to WSON formation at the forest site. One plausible mechanism for WSON  
317 formation is the aqueous-phase reactions of  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$  with biogenic organic carbon.<sup>12</sup>  
318 The formation of NOCs has been found in recent laboratory experiments as a result of  
319 reactive uptake of  $\text{NH}_3$  by carbonyl species in aqueous-phase SOA.<sup>12, 61, 62</sup> More  
320 recently, Gen et al.<sup>20</sup> reported that  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$  in the aqueous phase can react with  
321 glyoxal monomers to form NOCs (e.g., imidazole, 2,2'-biimidazole, and imidazole-2-  
322 carboxaldehyde). In our current study, the concentrations of WSON indeed showed  
323 positive correlations with those of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (**Figure S5a**).

324 Gen et al.<sup>20</sup> also suggested that the formation rates of NOCs can be increased due  
325 to the “salting-in” effect caused by a large concentration of salts such as sulfate. In  
326 addition, it has also been reported that organic gas species have a stronger potential to  
327 be partitioned in the liquid phase compared to particle-phase organic matter.<sup>26</sup> It is thus  
328 likely that high abundance of ALW in this study promotes NOC formation. In the

329 present study, the WSON concentrations showed significant positive correlations with  
330 those of sulfate and ALW (**Figure S4**). The overall results support the idea that WSON  
331 formation from  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -related aqueous-phase reactions is promoted by the increased  
332 mass of ALW.

333 As shown in **Figure 3e**, the anthropogenic sulfate-rich factor (F1) contributed to  
334 the dominant source fraction of WSON, which was much larger in nighttime than in  
335 daytime. Moreover, the correlation coefficient between WSON and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in nighttime  
336 was larger than that in daytime (**Figure S5a**). This result also indicated that the aqueous-  
337 phase reactions of biogenic VOCs with  $\text{NH}_4^+$  to form WSON were more important in  
338 nighttime at this forest site. In general, relatively high RH in nighttime leads to the  
339 phase partitioning of  $\text{NH}_3$  into liquid phase, followed by a rapid equilibrium of  $\text{NH}_3$   
340 with the particle phase.<sup>63</sup> Previous laboratory studies suggested that chemical aging of  
341 biogenic SOA formed by ozonolysis of both  $\alpha$ -pinene and limonene under the presence  
342 of  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$  can produce a significant amount of NOCs.<sup>64-68</sup> Such NOC formation  
343 associated with  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$  has been attributed to the mechanism of carbonyl-to-imine  
344 conversion.<sup>64, 65, 68</sup> In order to support the idea that  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$  efficiently reacted with  
345 biogenic VOCs to form WSON in our study, we compared the WSON and the product  
346 of ozone with  $\alpha$ -pinene and limonene which were simultaneously measured at the  
347 sampling site. The results showed that the mass concentrations of WSON significantly  
348 correlated with the product of ozone with  $\alpha$ -pinene and limonene particularly in  
349 nighttime with  $R^2$  of 0.57 and 0.49, respectively (**Figures S6a** and **S6b**). This result  
350 together with the PMF analysis provides evidence that aqueous-phase reactions of

351  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$  with biogenic VOCs can partly explain the WSON formation in  
352 submicrometer particles at the forest site. Consequently, the increases in ALW  
353 concentrations in nighttime can serve as an abundant medium for  $\text{NH}_4^+$ -related aqueous  
354 reactions to form WSON.

355 Another possible mechanism is the formation of organic nitrate through reactions  
356 of biogenic VOCs and  $\text{NO}_x$ . Previous studies have suggested that  $\text{NO}_x$  oxidation of  
357 isoprene is closely related to the formation of MPAN, which can account for 8–13% of  
358 gas-phase organic nitrate.<sup>69-71</sup> These organic nitrates can be partitioned into the particle  
359 phase, followed by reactions in the aqueous phase.<sup>14, 71, 72</sup> In addition, particulate NOCs,  
360 including NOSs, dihydroxynitrates, and monohydroxynitrates, were found to be the  
361 reaction products of  $\alpha$ -/ $\beta$ -pinene and  $\text{NO}_x$ .<sup>14, 17</sup> To support the reactions of biogenic  
362 VOCs with reactive nitrogen to form organic nitrate, **Figure 5** compares the  
363 concentrations of isoprene NOS identified by ESI/LC-MS and WSON during a specific  
364 period (July 31 to August 2, 2015) of this study. The concentrations of WSON showed  
365 a positive correlation with those of isoprene NOS, which is formed through the  
366 reactions of isoprene with  $\text{NO}_x$  and sulfate. Although this NOS is one example and it is  
367 difficult to cover all the molecular compounds of WSON, this result provides a direct  
368 evidence for WSON formation, partly by the reactions of biogenic VOCs and  $\text{NO}_x$ .

369 Production of organic nitrates in aerosols has been observed in nighttime at forest  
370 sites in northeastern Bavaria, Germany;<sup>16</sup> K-puszt, Hungary;<sup>73</sup> and Antwerp,  
371 Belgium.<sup>74</sup> These field studies suggest the importance of nitrate radical ( $\text{NO}_3$ )-driven  
372 chemistry in the formation of SOA. Such importance of  $\text{NO}_3$  chemistry in nighttime

373 was also demonstrated by laboratory experiments, using sulfate seed aerosol under the  
374 conditions of both high and intermediate NO<sub>x</sub> levels.<sup>17</sup> In this study, the observed  
375 concentration of NO<sub>x</sub> was larger in nighttime (**Table S1**). Moreover, a positive  
376 correlation between the concentrations of WSON and the product of NO<sub>x</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>  
377 ([NO<sub>x</sub>][O<sub>3</sub>]) was evident only in nighttime ( $P < 0.05$ ) (**Figure S6c**). The results indicate  
378 that the NO<sub>x</sub>-related reactions were more important in the formation of WSON in  
379 nighttime than in daytime. It is noted that photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) as  
380 a surrogate of the sunlight did not show any significant correlations with ALW or NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
381 ( $R^2 < 0.1$ ) in this study (data not shown). This also supports that WSON and ALW is  
382 not a coincidence but are linked in terms of the formation of WSON.

383 Particle acidity is also an important factor affecting NO<sub>x</sub>-involved chemistry to  
384 produce organic nitrates from isoprene and  $\alpha$ -/ $\beta$ -pinene.<sup>14, 22</sup> In particular, particle  
385 acidity with pH < 2 can significantly influence the ring-opening reactions of isoprene  
386 epoxydiols.<sup>22, 75</sup> Indeed, the average pH values predicted by ISORROPIA-II in this  
387 study were as low as  $1.18 \pm 0.67$  and  $1.52 \pm 0.50$  in daytime and nighttime, respectively  
388 (**Table S1**). The high particle acidity supports the fact that the acid-catalyzed  
389 mechanism can also promote WSON formation from biogenic VOCs. This is in  
390 accordance with the conclusion of Miyazaki et al.,<sup>1</sup> who also indicated that a strong  
391 aerosol acidity can promote WSON formation.

392 Note that the pollen-rich factor (F5), which represents PBAPs, accounted for 18%  
393 of WSON in daytime (**Figure 3b**), whereas it was negligible in nighttime (<1.0%)  
394 (**Figure 3e**). Such PBAPs can contain amino acids, which are one of the most well-

395 known NOCs.<sup>76, 77</sup> While our study suggests the dominance of secondary processes in  
396 WSON formation in summer, similar studies need to be conducted in the other seasons,  
397 such as spring and autumn, when PBAP emissions are expected to be large.<sup>33, 76</sup>

398 In conclusion, our study suggests that ALW, mainly driven by local  
399 anthropogenic sulfate, significantly promoted WSON formation in submicrometer  
400 aerosol particles at this study site. Although it is difficult to quantitatively estimate the  
401 WSON mass increased by ALW only from our data, the coefficient of determination  
402 between WSON and ALW, at least showed that 41% (daytime) and 55% (nighttime) of  
403 the variability in the WSON mass concentrations can be explained by ALW. Aqueous-  
404 phase reactions involving ammonium and biogenic VOCs are likely important  
405 pathways for WSON formation. In addition, the interactions between biogenic VOCs  
406 and atmospheric reactive nitrogen also play a key role in WSON formation in aqueous-  
407 phase submicrometer particles, particularly in nighttime, at this forest site. These  
408 findings may provide not only new insights to the formation processes of WSON  
409 associated with ALW but also management strategies to control the abundance of  
410 submicrometer aerosol particles.

## 411 ■ ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### 412 **Supporting Information**

413 Details of the calculation of ALW and pH, PMF analysis, one table (Table S1), and five  
414 extensive figures (Figures S1–S6) (PDF)

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424 **Notes**

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696 precipitation in suburban Guiyang, southwestern China: Seasonal variations and  
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699

700 **FIGURE CAPTIONS**

701

702 **Figure 1.** Temporal variations in (a) the mass fractions of the chemical components in  
703 submicrometer water-soluble aerosols, mass concentrations of (b) WSOC, sulfate, and  
704 ammonium, (c) 2-methyltetrols and 3-MBTCA, and (d) WSON and ALW. Shaded areas  
705 in each panel indicate nighttime.

706

707 **Figure 2.** Temporal variations in the mass concentrations of ALW, compared to those  
708 without ammonium sulfate and ammonium nitrate, and those derived from organics  
709 calculated by ISORROPIA-II.

710

711 **Figure 3.** Contribution of each PMF-derived factor to the mass concentrations of (a)  
712 WSOC, (b) WSON, and (c) ALW during daytime and (d) WSOC, (e) WSON, and (f)  
713 ALW during nighttime.

714

715 **Figure 4.** Mass concentrations of (a) WSOC, (b) WSON, and (c) mass ratios of WSON  
716 to WSOC as a function of ALW concentrations during daytime (open circles) and  
717 nighttime (solid circles).

718

719 **Figure 5.** Scatter plot of mass concentrations of WSON and isoprene NOS with its  
720 chemical structure in submicrometer aerosol samples obtained during July 31 to August  
721 2, 2015. Isoprene NOS is a molecular marker of isoprene-derived nitrooxy  
722 organosulfate detected at  $m/z$  260 by ESI/LC-MS. Note that the chemical structure  
723 includes isomers of that compound.

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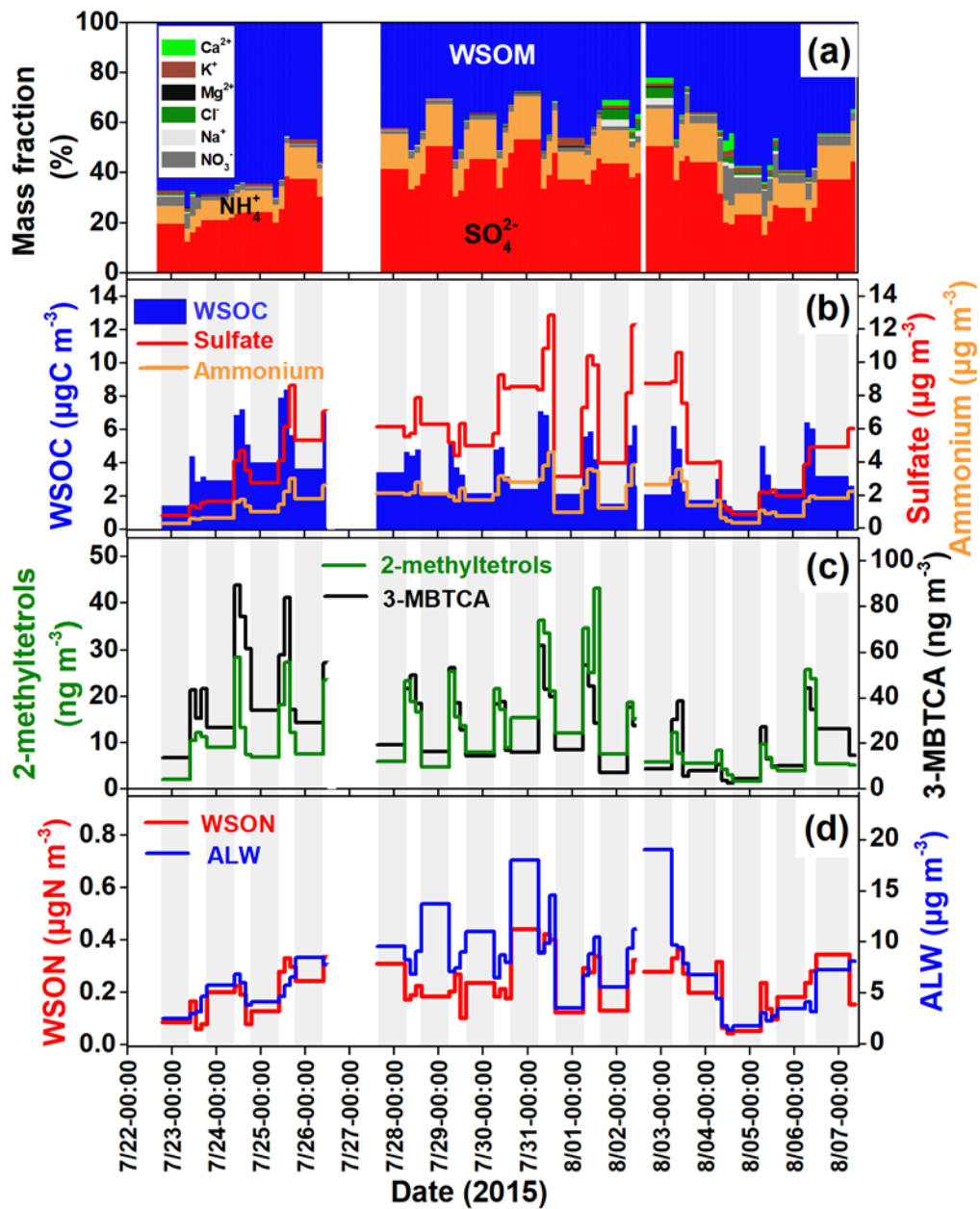
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727 **Figures**

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729 **Fig. 1.**

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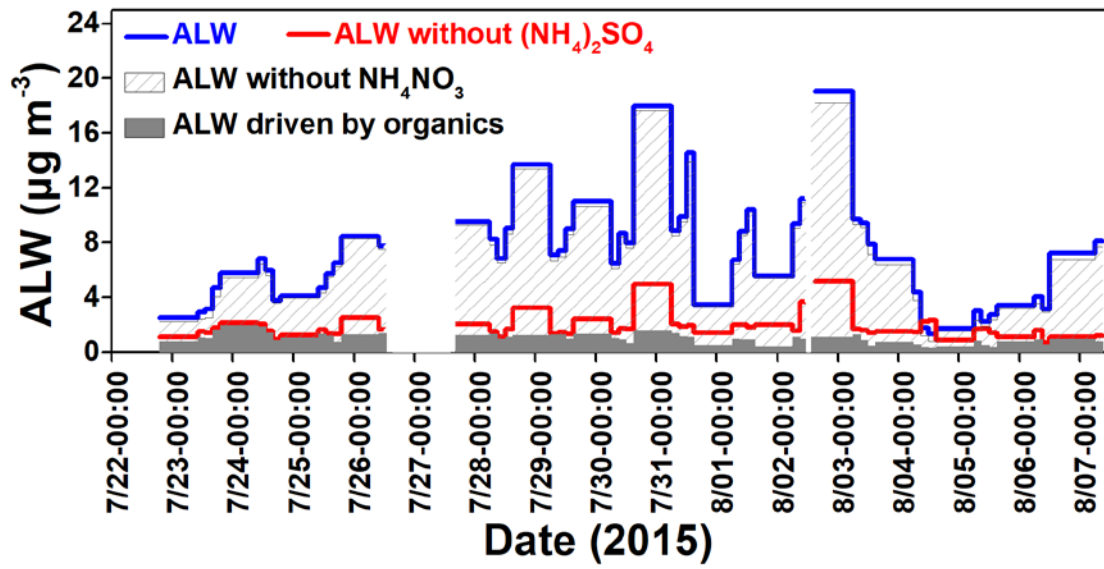
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738 Fig. 2.  
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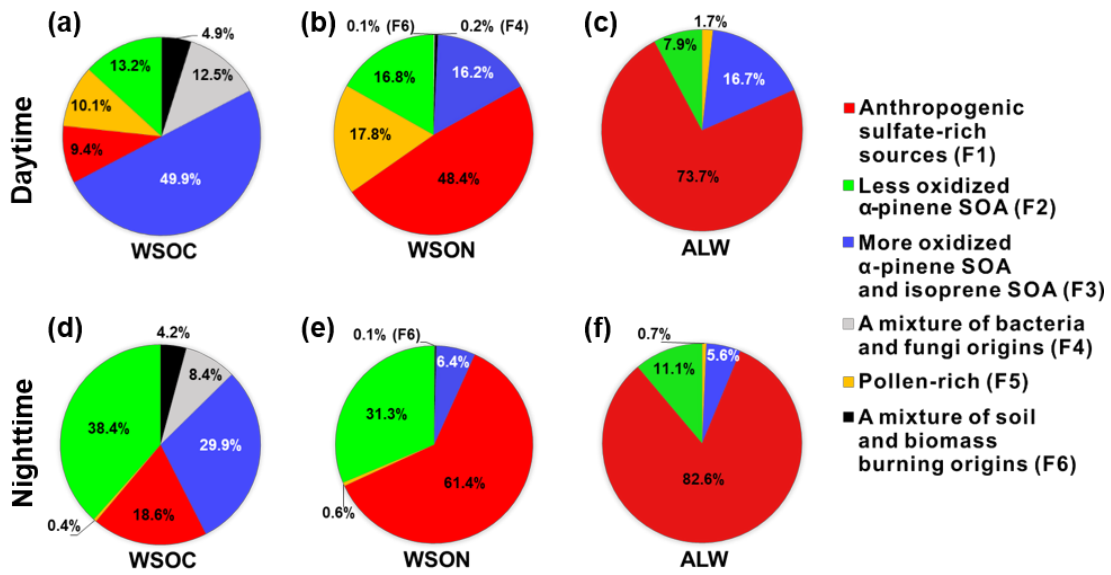
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747 **Fig. 3.**

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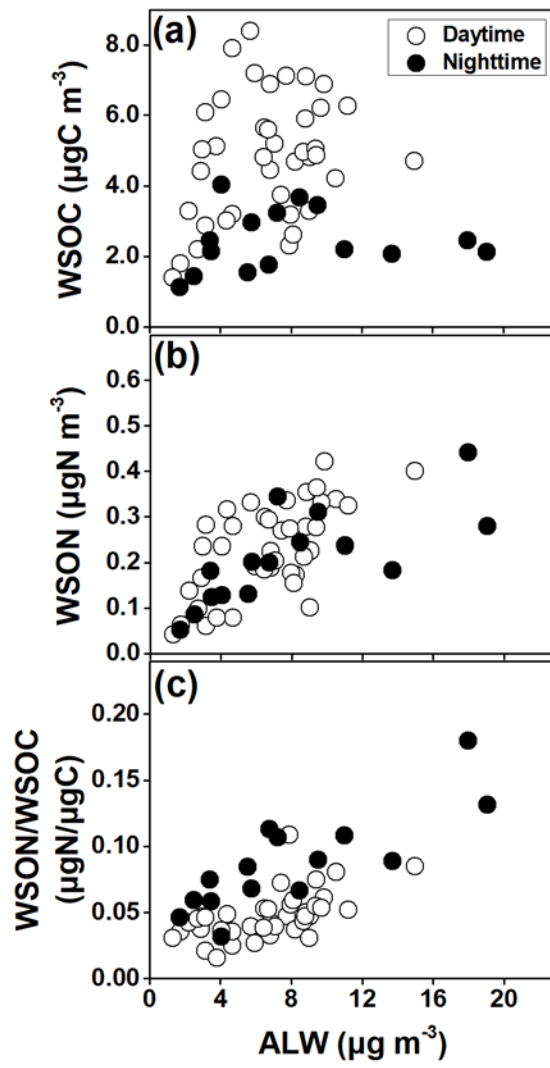
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768 **Fig. 4.**



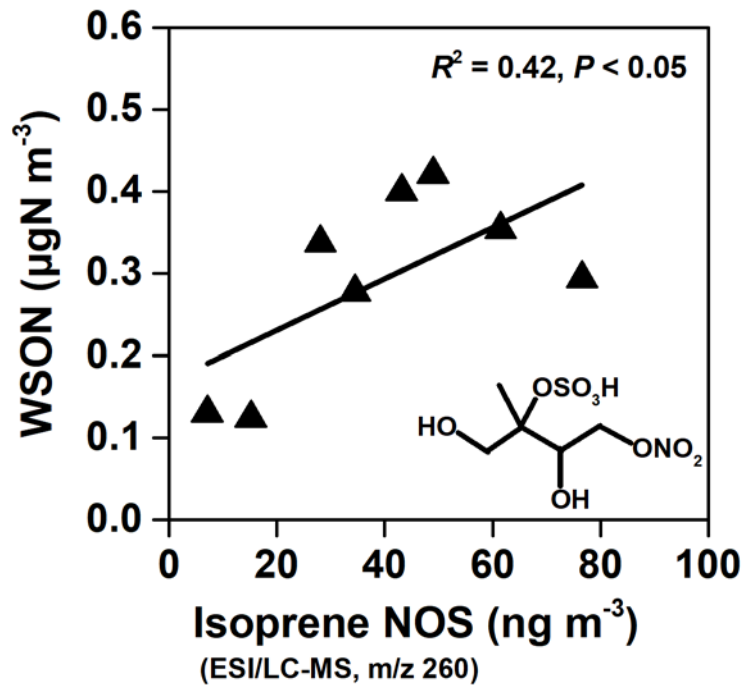
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770 **Fig. 5.**

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1 **Aerosol liquid water promotes the formation of**  
2 **water-soluble organic nitrogen in submicrometer**  
3 **aerosols in a suburban forest**

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26	<b>Table of Contents</b>	
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34	Figure S5	Page 13
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## 37 **Aerosol Liquid Water (ALW) and pH Calculated by ISORROPIA-II**

38 The mass concentrations of ALW associated with inorganic species were predicted  
39 by ISORROPIA-II.<sup>1-3</sup> This thermodynamic model also calculated the equilibrium  
40 particle hydronium ion concentration per volume air ( $H^+_{\text{air}}$ ), which along with ALW  
41 was then used to predict particle pH.<sup>1,4</sup> The calculation was based on concentrations of  
42 inorganic ions ( $\text{Na}^+$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{Cl}^-$ ,  $\text{Ca}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{K}^+$ , and  $\text{Mg}^{2+}$ ) measured by the ion  
43 chromatograph, as well as relative humidity (RH) and ambient temperature (T). In this  
44 study, ISORROPIA-II was run in the “reverse mode”, which involves predicting the  
45 thermodynamic composition based only on the aerosol composition (i.e., without gas-  
46 phase parameters) together with RH and T as input. Moreover, the reverse mode with  
47 the thermodynamically metastable state was selected.<sup>1,2,5</sup>

48 Additionally, the “forward mode” was run with inputs of only aerosol-phase data,  
49 T, and RH. The resulting prediction of ALW concentration remained almost identical  
50 (reverse vs. forward: slope = 0.96, intercept:  $-0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , and  $r = 0.99$ ) irrespective of  
51 the mode used. This is in agreement with the findings of Guo et al.<sup>1</sup> and Hennigan et  
52 al.<sup>6</sup>. When the ALW mass derived from organic matter accounts for less than 50% of  
53 the total ALW mass, the prediction of  $H^+_{\text{air}}$  by ISORROPIA-II is less sensitive to the  
54 amount of water derived by organics.<sup>1</sup> In such a case, ISORROPIA-II can calculate  
55  $H^+_{\text{air}}$  without a large uncertainty even if the inputs are only inorganic species, T, and by  
56 the forward mode.<sup>1,4</sup> Moreover, a previous study suggested that gas-phase input does  
57 not have an important impact on  $H^+_{\text{air}}$  calculation.<sup>1,4</sup> Therefore, we also ran

58 ISORROPIA-II in the forward mode to estimate pH values of submicrometer aerosol  
59 particles.

60 The concentrations of ALW derived from organic compounds were estimated  
61 using a simplified model with the Zdanovskii–Stokes–Robinson (ZSR) mixing rule.<sup>2</sup>  
62 This rule shows that the hygroscopic growth of aerosol mixtures can be calculated using  
63 weighted hygroscopicity of each composition based on their dry volume fractions.<sup>2, 7, 8</sup>  
64 The ALW concentration derived from organic compounds was predicted according to  
65 the following equation:

$$66 \quad V_{w, o} = V_o \kappa_{org} a_w / (1 - a_w) \quad (1)$$

67 where  $V_{w, o}$  and  $V_o$  are volumes of ALW and organic components, respectively.  $\kappa_{org}$   
68 represents the hygroscopicity parameter for organics, and  $a_w$  is water activity. For the  
69 calculation, the  $a_w$  value is considered equal to ambient RH based on the assumption  
70 that the effect of aerosol curvature is limited and that the effect of aerosol water uptake  
71 on ambient vapor pressure can be ignored.<sup>7</sup> In addition, the typical values of  $1.4 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$   
72 and 0.1 were used for the density of organics and  $\kappa_{org}$ , respectively.<sup>9-16</sup>

73 The total concentration of ALW from inorganic and organic fractions was  
74 calculated using the aerosol inorganic–organic mixture functional group activity  
75 coefficient (AIOMFAC) model.<sup>17</sup> Hodas et al.<sup>17</sup> suggested that organic compounds that  
76 are not measured in aerosols may change aerosol hygroscopicity, resulting in over- or  
77 under-estimates of the ALW concentrations. Consequently, the  $\kappa$ -Kohler theory with the  
78 ZSR mixing rule has been generally accepted as a reliable method for predicting ALW  
79 concentration from the organic fraction in aerosols.<sup>2, 7, 8</sup>

80 **Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) Analysis.**

81 The PMF version 5.0 (PMF 5.0)<sup>18</sup> was applied to develop source apportionments of  
82 WSOC, WSON, and ALW in submicrometer aerosol particles. Sixteen chemical  
83 components were used as the model inputs, including 2-methyltetrols, pinic acid, 3-  
84 methyl-1,2,3-butanetricarboxylic acid (3-MBTCA), arabitol, mannitol, trehalose,  
85 sucrose, ammonium, sulfate, calcium, potassium, nitrate, EC, ALW, WSON, and  
86 WSOC.

87 We ran the PMF model with 4–9 factors and changed the seed value from 1 to 40.  
88 Moreover, we examined the Q(robust) and Q(true) values as well as the number of  
89 scaled residuals beyond three standard deviations to select the optimal number of  
90 factors. The uncertainties of the PMF solutions for each test run were estimated using  
91 the analyses of displacement (DISP) and bootstrap (BS).<sup>19, 20</sup>

92 The PMF analysis resulted in six interpretable factors, as shown in Figure S3.  
93 Factor 1 (F1) was dominated by sulfate (85%) and ammonium (79%). As stated in the  
94 main text and shown in Figure S1, the local wind data suggest that the forest site was  
95 influenced by anthropogenic air masses transported from the urban area in the south, as  
96 well as by local biogenic sources, particularly in daytime. Therefore, F1 is referred to  
97 as “anthropogenic sulfate-rich sources.” Factor 2 (F2) is characterized by the  
98 dominance of pinic acid, which is the first-generation oxidation product of  $\alpha$ -pinene.<sup>21</sup>  
99 <sup>22</sup> Thus, F2 is referred to here as “less oxidized  $\alpha$ -pinene SOA.”

100 Factor 3 (F3) is characterized by large contributions of 3-MBTCA (67%) and 2-  
101 methyltetrols (58%). This profile can be explained by the dominant contributions of

102 both more oxidized  $\alpha$ -pinene SOA and isoprene SOA.<sup>22-24</sup> F3 is defined as “more  
103 oxidized  $\alpha$ -pinene SOA and isoprene SOA.” Note that 54% of nitrate and 49% of EC  
104 also contributed to this factor. While the observed concentrations of nitrate and EC were  
105 relatively low (Table S1), the result implies that anthropogenic sources also contributed  
106 to F3 to some extent, and that NO<sub>x</sub> was likely involved in the reactions with biogenic  
107 VOCs (see text).

108 Factor 4 (F4) is characterized by arabitol (81%), mannitol (86%), and trehalose  
109 (82%), whereas Factor 5 (F5) is dominated by sucrose (84%). On the basis of the  
110 characteristics of each source profile, F4 and F5 are referred to here as “a mixture of  
111 bacteria and fungi origins”<sup>19, 25</sup> and “pollen-rich”<sup>19</sup>, respectively. Factor 6 (F6) is  
112 dominated by nss-Ca<sup>2+</sup> (91%) and K<sup>+</sup> (75%). Moreover, there were some contributions  
113 of three sugar compounds, such as trehalose, to F6. Based on these characteristics, F6  
114 is referred to here as “a mixture of soil and biomass burning origins”.

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123 **Table S1.** The minimum, maximum, and mean values of the major parameters observed  
 124 and predicted in daytime and nighttime.

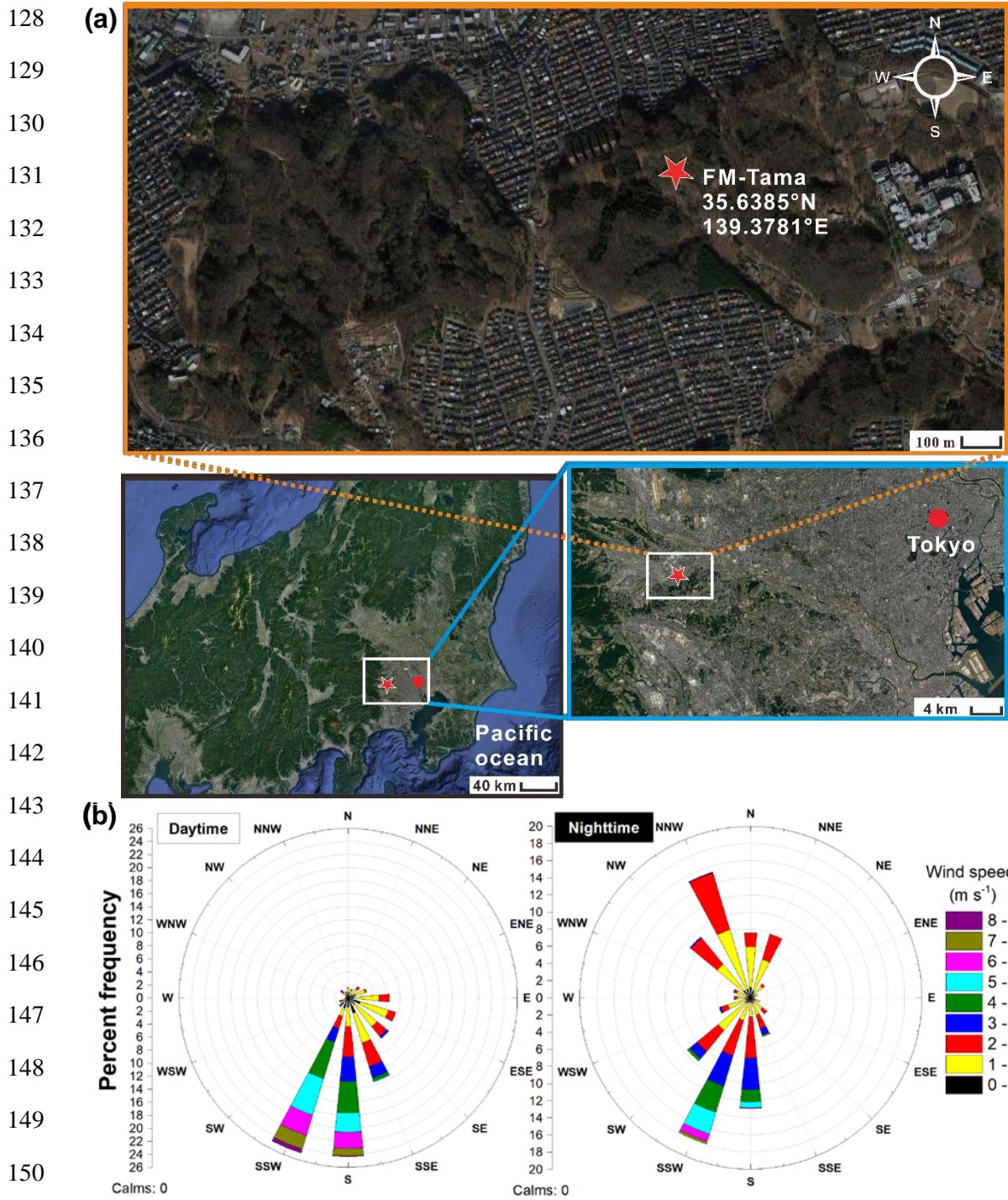
	Daytime			Nighttime		
	Min.	Max.	Mean $\pm$ SD	Min.	Max.	Mean $\pm$ SD
WSON ( $\mu\text{gN m}^{-3}$ )	0.04	0.42	0.23 $\pm$ 0.10	0.05	0.44	0.21 $\pm$ 0.10
WSOC ( $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ )	1.40	8.39	4.84 $\pm$ 1.72	1.12	4.03	2.44 $\pm$ 0.83
SO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2-</sup> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.09	12.84	6.02 $\pm$ 3.19	0.75	8.70	4.24 $\pm$ 2.42
NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.39	1.46	0.65 $\pm$ 0.26	0.12	0.50	0.21 $\pm$ 0.09
NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.44	4.57	2.16 $\pm$ 1.04	0.27	2.77	1.41 $\pm$ 0.76
2-methyltetrols (ng m <sup>-3</sup> )	2.90	43.07	16.92 $\pm$ 9.62	1.60	15.28	6.70 $\pm$ 3.40
3-MBTCA (ng m <sup>-3</sup> )	2.55	89.11	38.23 $\pm$ 20.33	4.41	34.35	16.80 $\pm$ 8.64
Pinonic acid (PNA) (ng m <sup>-3</sup> )	0.36	29.59	9.52 $\pm$ 5.87	1.12	3.81	2.06 $\pm$ 0.78
Pinic acid (PA) (ng m <sup>-3</sup> )	0.11	9.41	2.70 $\pm$ 2.28	0.78	4.98	2.45 $\pm$ 1.25
Arabitol (ng m <sup>-3</sup> )	0.04	7.81	2.94 $\pm$ 1.86	0.42	3.88	1.14 $\pm$ 0.93
Mannitol (ng m <sup>-3</sup> )	0.28	20.99	7.73 $\pm$ 5.64	0.80	8.15	2.56 $\pm$ 2.02
Sucrose (ng m <sup>-3</sup> )	0.07	21.35	4.38 $\pm$ 4.62	0.04	2.08	0.48 $\pm$ 0.60
Trehalose (ng m <sup>-3</sup> )	0.07	9.31	3.33 $\pm$ 2.47	0.34	8.63	1.82 $\pm$ 2.11
EC ( $\mu\text{gC m}^{-3}$ )	BDL <sup>a</sup>	0.22	0.13 $\pm$ 0.08	0.10	0.18	0.16 $\pm$ 0.04
NO <sub>2</sub> (ppbv)	1.42	5.90	3.57 $\pm$ 1.27	5.48	10.67	8.30 $\pm$ 1.59
NO (ppbv)	BDL <sup>a</sup>	0.98	0.44 $\pm$ 0.36	0.50	2.45	1.07 $\pm$ 0.63
O <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	19.85	104.96	64.79 $\pm$ 23.32	5.57	49.34	21.28 $\pm$ 11.24
Temperature (°C)	27.00	34.85	30.63 $\pm$ 1.58	25.81	28.13	26.79 $\pm$ 0.77
RH (%)	40.14	79.85	60.80 $\pm$ 6.99	63.83	83.62	75.38 $\pm$ 6.37
Inorganic ALW ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.01	13.46	5.69 $\pm$ 2.82	1.33	17.97	7.00 $\pm$ 5.00
Organic ALW ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	0.31	1.85	0.98 $\pm$ 0.35	0.39	1.96	1.02 $\pm$ 0.43
Total ALW ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )	1.32	14.96	6.68 $\pm$ 2.96	1.72	19.05	8.01 $\pm$ 5.20
pH	0.09	3.51	1.18 $\pm$ 0.67	0.26	1.90	1.52 $\pm$ 0.50

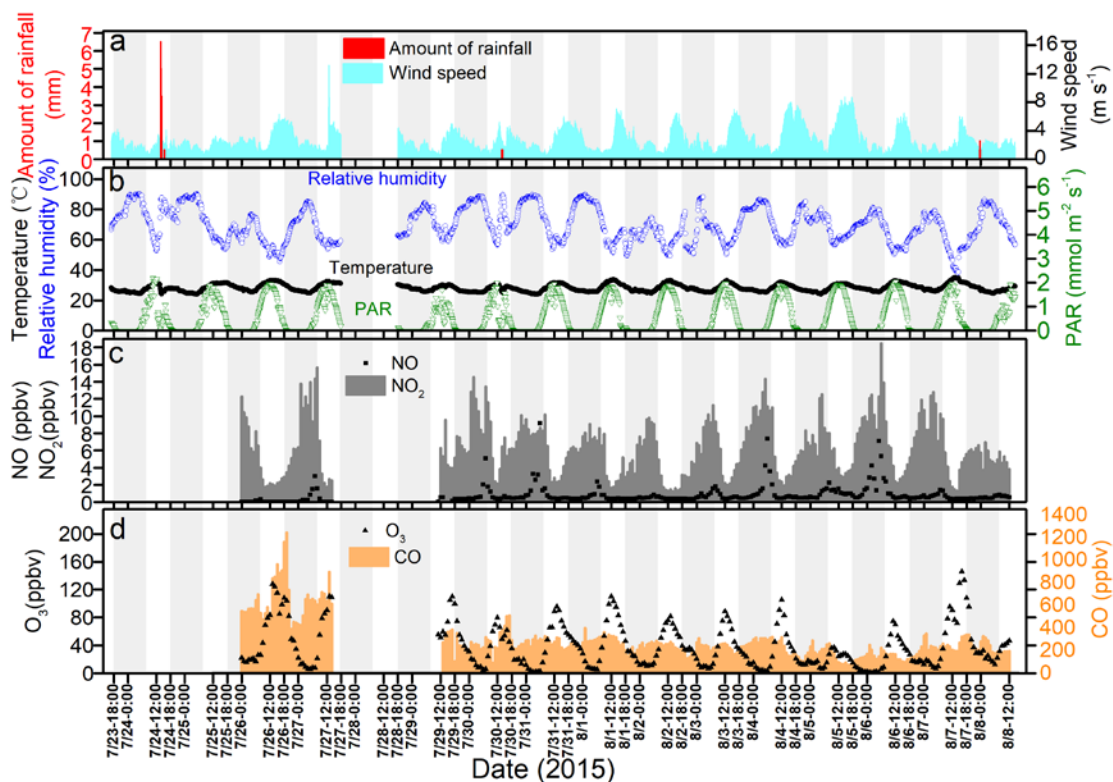
125 a BDL indicates value is below detection limit

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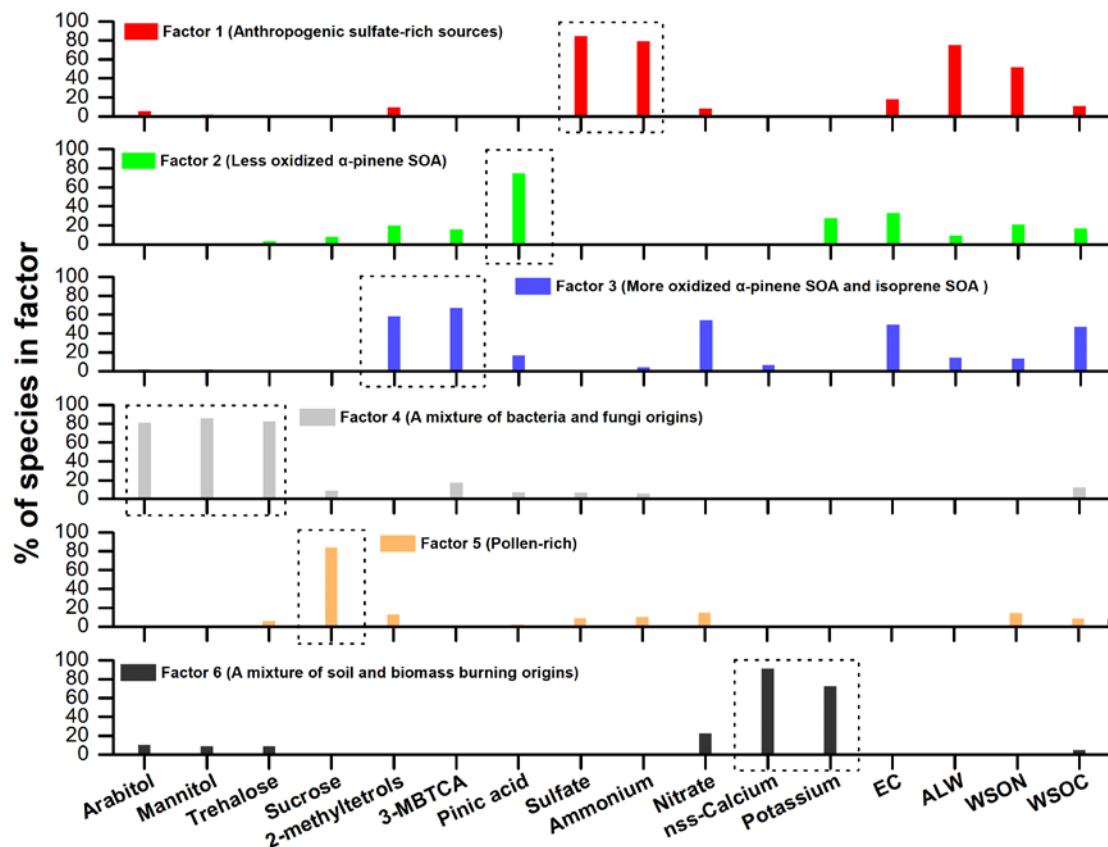
154 **Figure S2.** Temporal variations in (a) amount of rainfall and wind speed, (b)

155 temperature, relative humidity, and photosynthetically active radiation (PAR), (c) NO

156 and NO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratios, and (d) O<sub>3</sub> and CO mixing ratios at the aerosol sampling site.

157 Shaded areas in each panel indicate the nighttime.

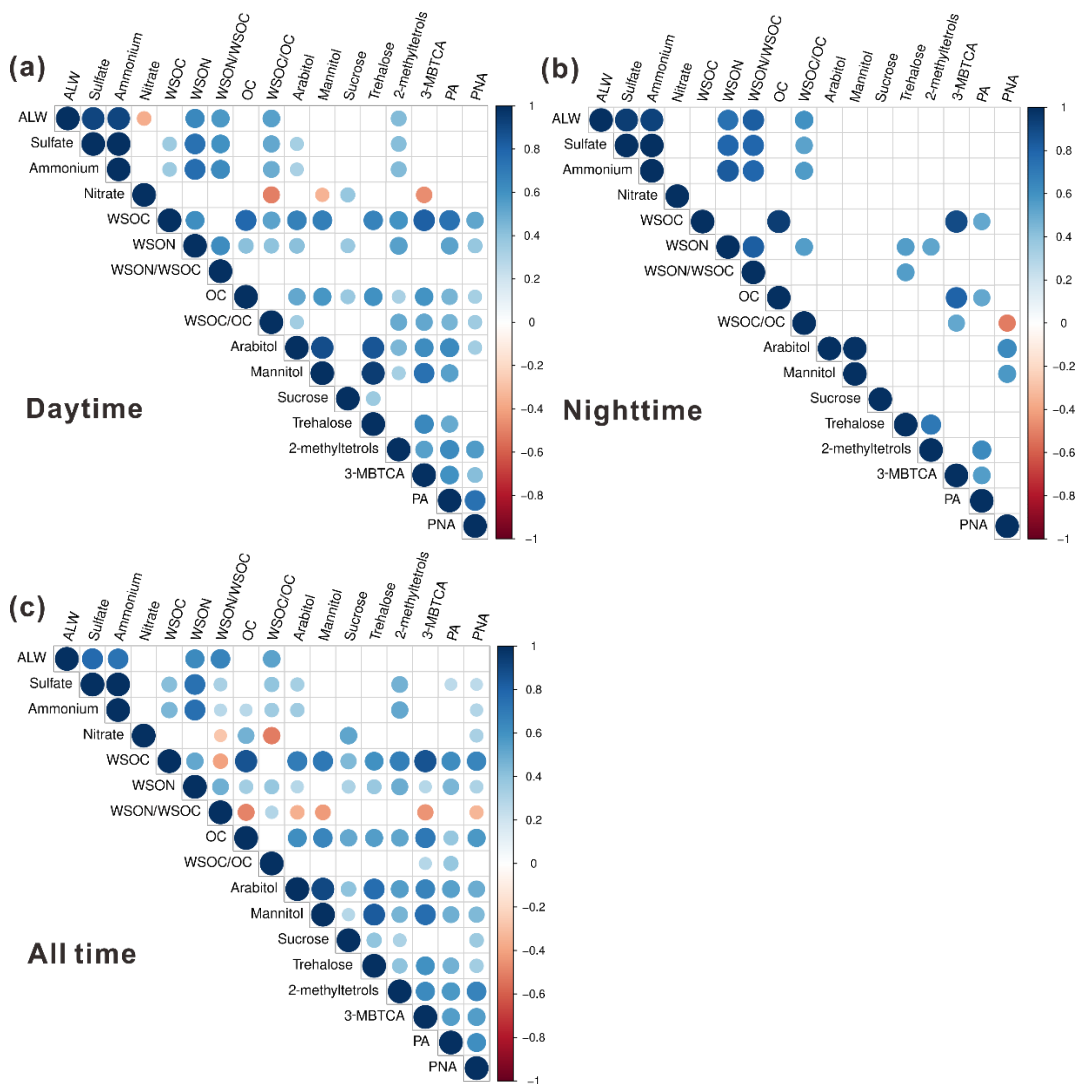
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160 **Figure S3.** Six factor profiles derived from the PMF solution. The percentage of  
 161 chemical species in each factor is shown.

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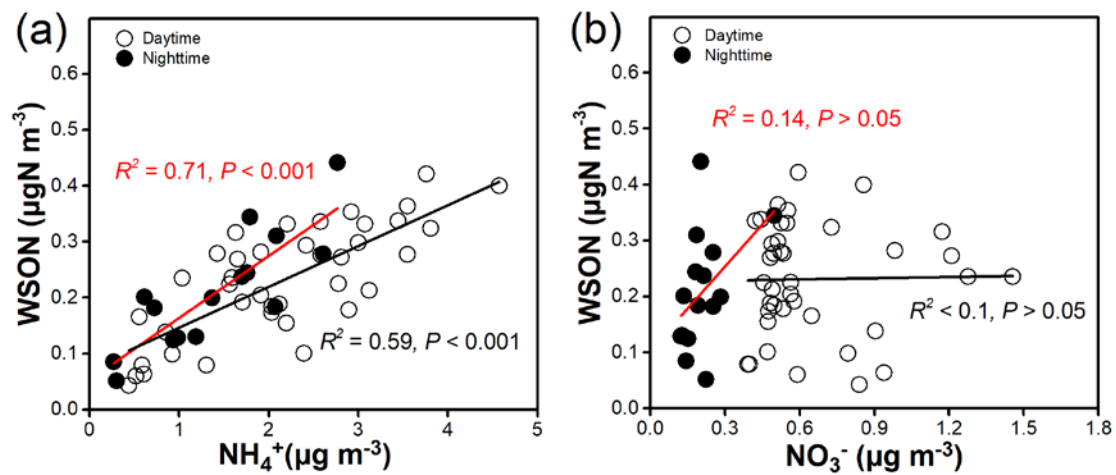
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165 **Figure S4.** Diagrams presenting Spearman correlations among the parameters in the  
 166 submicrometer aerosols for (a) daytime, (b) nighttime, and (c) all the data. The color of  
 167 a solid circle denotes a correlation coefficient value  $r$ . The size of the solid circle  
 168 indicates a significance of the correlation between the two corresponding parameters:  
 169 the larger circle indicates that the correlation is more significant, whereas the smallest  
 170 circle indicates  $P$ -value less than 0.05.

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174 **Figure S5.** Scatterplots of the mass concentrations of WSON with those of (a)  $\text{NH}_4^+$

175 and (b)  $\text{NO}_3^-$ . Black and red lines show regression lines in daytime and nighttime,

176 respectively.

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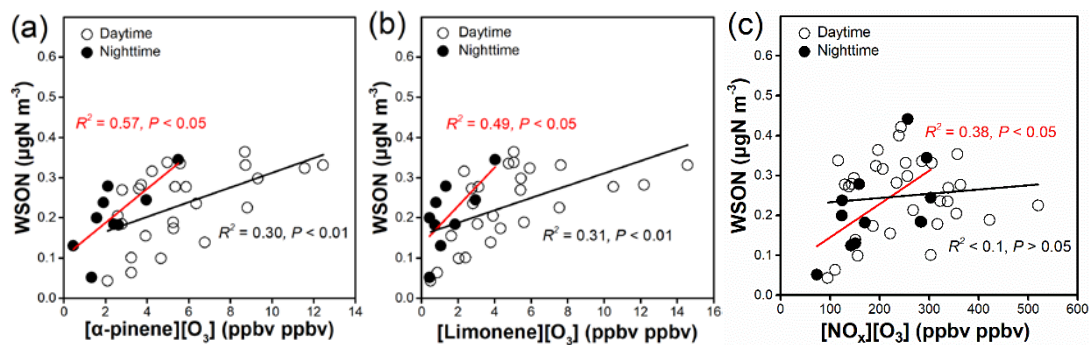
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183 **Figure S6.** The mass concentrations of WSON as functions of the products by  $\text{O}_3$  with

184 (a)  $\alpha$ -pinene ( $[\alpha\text{-pinene}][\text{O}_3]$ ), (b) limonene ( $[\text{limonene}][\text{O}_3]$ ), and (c)  $\text{NO}_x$  ( $[\text{NO}_x][\text{O}_3]$ ).

185 Black and red lines show regression lines in daytime and nighttime, respectively.

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