



Supplement of

Measurement report: Elevated atmospheric ammonia may promote particle pH and HONO formation – insights from the COVID-19 pandemic

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1 S1. Detailed description of the aerosol and gas monitor.

2	The aerosol and gas monitor (MARGA, Metrohm, Switzerland) was used to analyze
3	the hourly water-soluble ions (Na ⁺ , NH ₄ ⁺ , K ⁺ , Mg ²⁺ , Ca ²⁺ , Cl ⁻ , NO ₃ ⁻ , and SO ₄ ²⁻) in
4	PM _{2.5} , as well as gaseous species (NH ₃ , HNO ₃ , HCl, and HONO) at ten sampling sites.
5	The atmospheric sample passes through a PM _{2.5} cut-off head, and both particles and
6	gases enter a wet rotating dissolution device for diffusion. Subsequently, the particles
7	in the sample undergo hygroscopic growth and condensation in an aerosol
8	supersaturated vapor generator, followed by collection and ion chromatographic
9	analysis. The gases in the sample are oxidized by H2O2 in the dissolution device,
10	absorbed into a liquid solvent, and then entered the gas sample collection chamber for
11	ion chromatographic quantification. During this process, the sample is extracted
12	through a liquid diffusion filter, where interfering acidic and alkaline gases are removed
13	To achieve high collection efficiency, the airflow containing loaded ions then enters an
14	aerosol supersaturated collector until the particles can be injected into the ion
15	chromatograph. The ion chromatography system utilizes either suppressor or non-
16	suppressor conductivity detection methods for ion analysis. Before running the samples
17	the ion chromatograph system needs to be calibrated using standard solutions. By
18	comparing the data obtained from the sample with the data obtained from known
19	standard solutions, the identification and quantification of sample ions can be
20	performed. The data acquisition system generates chromatograms, and the

chromatography software further converts each peak in the chromatogram into sample
concentrations and outputs the results.

23 **QA/QC**

The instrument underwent daily checks and maintenance, which typically involved 24 ensuring the stability of the internal standard response and maintaining a relative error 25 within $\pm 10\%$ between the measured and theoretical concentrations of the internal 26 standard. The system's data acquisition and transmission were carefully examined, 27 along with monitoring the instrument's status information and collected data. This 28 included checking parameters such as sampling flow rate, chromatographic column 29 30 pressure, column temperature, conductivity, target compound peak retention time, and peak width to ensure their normal functioning. Regular replacement of consumables 31 used by the instrument was carried out at predetermined intervals and frequencies. 32 33 Additionally, standard curve measurements and calibration were performed in each season to guarantee the accuracy of the instrument's data. Calibration curve verification 34 was performed at least once per quarter. A standard series containing at least 6 35 calibration points, including zero concentration, was prepared using standard solutions. 36 The concentration range of the calibration curve was set according to the actual 37 environmental concentration levels and determined by manual injection. The obtained 38 calibration curve had a linear correlation coefficient (r) of ≥ 0.995 . If this requirement 39 was not met, the rationality of the internal standard solution concentration settings 40 would be checked. When key components such as the quantitative loop, 41

42	chromatographic column, or suppressor are replaced, a new calibration curve will be
43	promptly established. After establishing the new calibration curve, the sample sequence
44	in the analysis software would be updated. The minimum detection limit was
45	determined as follows: 0.002 μ g/m ³ (Cl ⁻), 0.081 μ g/m ³ (NH ₄ ⁺), 0.02 μ g/m ³ (NO ₃ ⁻), 0.06
46	μ g/m ³ (SO ₄ ²⁻), 0.002 μ g/m ³ (Na ⁺), 0.08 μ g/m ³ (K ⁺), 0.06 μ g/m ³ (Ca ²⁺) and 0.007 μ g/m ³
47	(Mg ²⁺). According to the research about the uncertainties in MARGA measurements,
48	such as a 20% uncertainty for MARGA measurements (Song et al., 2018), an error of
49	10% for detecting SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^{-} , and HNO ₃ , and 15% for NH ₃ and NH ₄ ⁺ (Rumsey et al.,
50	2014), we set the uncertainties of 20% for NH_3 and NH_4^+ 10% for other components.
51	Due to the complex conditions encountered during the actual sampling process,
52	including variations in calibration slopes, sampling volumes, solvent concentrations,
53	temperature, atmospheric pressure, and sampling flow rates at different sampling points,
54	the assumed values mentioned above may not accurately reflect the actual situation.

55 S2. HONO measurement

The HONO monitoring method adopted in MARGA is the wet-flow diffusion tube 56 method (WEDD) in the diffusion tube method (C.Zellweger, 1999; Takeuchi M, 2013), 57 which is a common method for measuring HONO in wet chemistry and has high 58 absorption efficiency. The device adopts a vertical setting, through the diffusion tube, 59 the air in the atmosphere is pulled upward from the bottom, and the absorbent liquid is 60 transported to the top of the diffusion tube through the air pump. When flowing under 61 the action of gravity, a thin absorbent liquid film will be generated on the inner surface 62 of the tube by the tension. The absorbent liquid film will absorb HONO, and the 63 solution at the bottom of the diffusion tube will be sucked out through the air pump. 64 Then it is sent to the ion chromatography for analysis. The integration time of the 65 sample mainly depends on the running time of the ion chromatography, which is about 66 5-30 min (C.Zellweger, 1999; Takeuchi M, 2013). Based on the original, some scholars 67 developed the flow injection-chemiluminescence method and used it together with 68 WEDD for the measurement of HONO. The detection limit is about 0.03 μ g/m³ 69 70 (Mikuska et al., 2008;Zhao et al., 2010). In addition, HONO observations measured with this AIM-IC system agree well with HONO observations measured with the other 71 systems (VandenBoer et al., 2014). Therefore, it is feasible to measure HONO using 72 this instrument. 73

The NO₂ analyzer utilized the chemiluminescence technique to measure the 75 concentration of NO₂ in the air. This involved converting NO₂ to NO using a 76 molybdenum converter, and then quantifying the NO concentration. The principle 77 behind the SO₂ analyzer involved measuring the amount of ultraviolet light emitted 78 79 during the decay of high-energy state SO₂. This emitted light was used to calculate the 80 concentration of SO₂. The carbon analyzer principle is primarily based on the NIOSH-5040 method, which 81 82 involves analyzing the thermal optical transmittance of quartz filter samples. It employs 83 a calibrated non-dispersive infrared sensor to detect the evolving carbon. Under controlled conditions with inert helium gas, carbon formed during a gradually 84 85 increasing temperature gradient is referred to as OC, while carbon evolved under a

86 mixture of 90% helium.

87 S4. Sources of HONO

88 4.1 Direct emission

HONO can be released directly into the atmosphere through vehicle exhaust (Burling et al., 2010;Veres et al., 2010). The lifetime of HONO in the atmosphere is relatively short, so vehicle emissions significantly contribute to urban atmospheric HONO (Chen et al., 2023;Liu et al., 2021a). Considering that there has been a

93	significant reduction in vehicle emissions in urban areas during DC. Additionally, the
94	R-PY site is far from roads. Thus, vehicle emissions may not be the primary source of
95	HONO for the U-ZK site during DC and R-PY sites during entire periods. To further
96	validate the above conclusions, the conditional bivariate probability function diagrams
97	of NO ₂ at U-ZK and R-PY sites during PC and DC are depicted in Figure S2. NO ₂
98	predominantly originated from long-distance transport at the U-ZK site during DC and
99	the R-PY site during both PC and DC. Consequently, vehicle emissions are only
100	calculated for the U-ZK site during the PC.
101	Here we use the HONO/NOx ratio to estimate HONO concentration, which is
102	generally considered to be the vehicle emission factor (Kramer et al., 2020;Hao et al.,
103	2020;Yu et al., 2022) for HONO. The calculation formula is as follows:
104	$[\text{HONO}_{\text{emi}}] = 0.8\% \times [\text{NO}_{x}] $ (S1)
105	where $[HONO_{emi}]$ and $[NO_x]$ represent the HONO concentration emitted by vehicles
106	and the observed NO _x concentration, respectively. Regarding previous studies (Table
107	S3), 0.8% was selected as the vehicle emission factor, considering differences in vehicle
108	type, fuel composition, and other factors (Kramer et al., 2020;Hao et al., 2020;Huang
109	et al., 2017).
110	4.2 Homogeneous reaction of NO and •OH

The reaction between NO and •OH is the primary gas-phase reaction source of
HONO at high NO concentrations, and the production rate contribution (P_{OH+NO}) for this

113 reaction can be calculated as:

114
$$P_{OH+NO} = k_{OH+NO}[OH][NO]$$
(S2)

where k_{OH+NO} (7.2 × 10⁻¹² cm³ molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹) is the rate constant for the reactions at 298K (Li et al., 2012). •OH concentration was simulated according to the empirical

117 model (Hu et al., 2022;Wang et al., 2025):

118
$$[OH] = 4.1 \times 10^9 \times \frac{J(O^1D) \times J(NO_2) \times (140 \times [NO_2] + 1) + [HONO] \times J(HONO)}{0.41 \times [NO_2]^2 + 1.7 \times [NO_2] + 1 + [NO] \times k_{NO+OH} + [HONO] \times k_{NO+OH}} (S3)$$

where, J (O^1 D), J (NO_2), and J (HONO) are the photolysis rates calculated using the

TUV model (v5.2; available at http://cprm.acom.ucar.edu/Models/TUV/). The cloud optical depth value for the TUV model was adjusted so that the predicted UVB radiation intensity matched the observations (Lyu et al., 2019;Wang et al., 2022). The calculated •OH concentration varied from 0.1×10^6 to 4×10^6 molecule/cm³ at U-ZK and $0.1 \times$ 10^6 to 5×10^6 molecule/cm³ t R-PY, which was comparable to the levels in other cities of North China (Li et al., 2018;Fuchs et al., 2017;Yang et al., 2017). Since there is no photolysis at night, the •OH concentration was assumed to be 0.8×10^6 molecule/cm³

127 (Wang et al., 2022).

- 128 4.3 Heterogeneous conversion of NO₂ to HONO
- 129 4.3.1 Heterogeneous dark reactions

The heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 to HONO on the ground (P_{ground}) and on the aerosol surface ($P_{aerosol}$) was calculated based on parameters obtained from experiments or observations.

133
$$\mathbf{P}_{\text{ground}} = \frac{1}{8} \gamma_1 \times [\text{NO}_2] \times \mathbf{C}_{\text{NO}_2} \times \frac{\mathbf{S}_{\text{g}}}{\mathbf{V}}$$
(S4)

134
$$P_{aerosol} = \frac{1}{4} \gamma_2 \times [NO_2] \times C_{NO_2} \times \frac{S_a}{V}$$
(S5)

135
$$\frac{S_g}{V} = \frac{1}{MLH}$$
 (S6)

$$C_{NO_2} = \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M}}$$
(S7)

137 where C_{NO2} is the average molecular velocity of NO₂ molecule (m s⁻¹); R is the ideal 138 gas constant; T is the temperature (K); M is the molecular weight of NO₂ (kg mol⁻¹); 139 MLH is the height of the mixed layer, which is determined to be 50 m due to HONO 140 formation on the ground level and its short lifetime (Liu et al., 2020a); S_a/V is the 141 surface area to volume ratio of aerosol, estimated by Su et al. (2008).

142 4.3.2 Heterogeneous photo-enhanced reactions

The heterogeneous photo-enhanced reactions of NO₂ on the surface of the ground ($P_{ground+hv}$) and the surface of the aerosol ($P_{aerosol+hv}$) were calculated following (Zhang et al., 2020a):

146
$$P_{\text{ground+hv}} = \frac{1}{8} \times C_{\text{NO}_2} \times \frac{1}{\text{MLH}} \times \gamma_1 \times \frac{J_{\text{NO}_2}}{J_{\text{NO}_{2,\text{noon}}}} \times [\text{NO}_2]$$
(S8)

147
$$P_{\text{aerosol+hv}} = \frac{1}{4} \times C_{\text{NO}_2} \times \frac{S_a}{V} \times \gamma_2 \times \frac{J_{\text{NO}_2}}{J_{\text{NO}_{2,noon}}} \times [\text{NO}_2]$$
(S9)

where JNO₂ and JNO_{2, noon} are the photolysis rate of NO₂ and the photolysis rate of NO₂
at noon during the day, respectively.

150 γ_1 and γ_2 are the absorption coefficient of NO₂ on the ground and aerosol surface,

151	respectively, which is assumed to be 4×10^{-6} (Yu et al., 2022;Zhang et al., 2021;Zhang
152	et al., 2020a). Moreover, we discuss the uncertainties based on the recommended values
153	of 2×10^{-6} -1 × 10 ⁻⁵ as upper and lower bounds(Chen et al., 2023;VandenBoer et al.,
154	2013; Wong et al., 2011). Results show (Figure S3) that the uncertainties for P_{ground} ,
155	$P_{aerosol}$, $P_{groung+hv}$, and $P_{aerosol+hv}$ are -50% to 150%, -50% to 151%, -20% to 120%, and
156	-50% to 121% at the U-ZK, respectively. At the R-PY, the uncertainties for P _{ground} ,
157	$P_{aerosol}$, $P_{groung+hv}$, and $P_{aerosol+hv}$ are -50% to 150%, -50% to 151%, -20% to 120%, and
158	-20% to 121%, respectively.

159 4.4 Nitrate photolysis

160 The nitrate photolysis ($P_{nitrate}$) was calculated based on the measured nitrate 161 concentration (NO_3^-) from $PM_{2.5}$ and nitrate photolysis rate ($J_{nitrate \rightarrow HONO}$):

162
$$\mathbf{P}_{\text{nitrate}} = \mathbf{J}_{\text{nitrate} \to \text{HONO}} \times [\text{NO}_3^-]$$
(S10)

where the J_{nitrate \rightarrow HONO} was simulated by normalizing UV values, when the Zenit Angle is 0°, J_{nitrate \rightarrow HONO} varied within the range of 1.22×10^{-5} to 4.84×10^{-4} s⁻¹, with an average value of 8.24×10^{-5} s⁻¹ (Bao et al., 2018).

166 4.5 Soil emissions

The emission of HONO from soil is an important source, but the rate is low at lower temperatures. Zhang et al.(2023) suggests that when the atmospheric temperature is below 10°C, the contribution of soil emission to HONO can be disregarded. Furthermore, calculation results from Liu et al.(2020b), Zhang et al.(2023), and others(Liu et al., 2020a) in the North China Plain during winter all indicate that soil emissions only contribute 1% to HONO. During the observation period of U-ZK and R-PY sites, the average temperatures of PC and DC were 4°C and 7 °C, and -1°C and 4 °C, respectively. Therefore, it is likely that soil HONO emissions have a minimal impact. Additionally, using a formula to calculate the change in [HONO]* (defined below)(Su et al., 2011) from 3°C to 7°C at U-ZK site in PC and DC is 0.4 ppb, which yields a negligible value. Hence, this study does not take it into consideration.

178

$$[\text{HONO}]^* = \frac{[\text{H}^+] \cdot [\text{NO}_2^-]}{\text{K}_{a.\text{HNO}_2} \cdot \text{H}_{\text{HONO}}} = \frac{[\text{HNO}_2] + [\text{NO}_2^-]}{(1 + \text{K}_{a.\text{HNO}_2} / [\text{H}^+]) \text{H}_{\text{HONO}}} = \frac{[\text{N(III)}]}{(1 + \text{K}_{a.\text{HNO}_2} / [\text{H}^+]) \text{H}_{\text{HONO}}}$$
179

(S11)

where [N(III)] is the total nitrite concentration ($HNO_2 + NO_2^{-}$), [H⁺] is determined by the soil acidity (pH value), K _{a. HNO2} is the acid dissociation constant and H _{HONO} is the Henry's law coefficient of nitrous acid. Both K_{a. HNO2} and H_{HONO} are functions of temperature:

185
$$K_{a.HNO_{2}}(T) = K_{a.HNO_{2}}(298K) \exp(\frac{\Delta H_{a.HNO_{2}}}{R}(\frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{T}))$$
(S12)

186
$$H_{HONO}(T) = H_{HONO}(298K) \exp\left(\frac{\Delta H_{HONO}}{R} (\frac{1}{298} - \frac{1}{T})\right)$$
(S13)

187 The total nitrite concentration in the aqueous phase of soil, [N(III)], is given by the188 following equation:

$$[N(III)] = \frac{\rho_w C_{N(III)}}{\theta_g M_N}$$
(S14)

190	where ρ_w is the density of water, θ_g is the gravimetric soil water content (mass of soil
191	water / mass of oven-dry soil), $M_{\rm N}$ = 0.014 kg / mol is the molar mass of nitrogen, and
192	$C_{N(III)}$ is the total nitrite (NO ₂ ⁻ + HNO ₂) content of soil expressed as a mass fraction of
193	nitrogen in oven-dry soil (kg / kg). Note that in this study the mass of nitrite or nitrous
194	acid is generally expressed in terms of nitrogen mass (not total molecular mass). The θ_{g}
195	for most natural soils varies between ~ 0 - 0.4 kg / kg.

197 S5. Estimation of HONO formation rate

198	The redox reaction	of NO_2 with	$SO_2(R_1)$	is considered	a crucial	potential	source of

199 high concentrations of HONO in Northern China (Wang et al., 2016b;Cheng, 2016):

200
$$S(IV) + 2NO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow S(IV) + 2H^+ + 2NO_2^-$$
 (R₁)

201 The rate expression for the reaction was estimated to:

202
$$d[S(VI)]/dt = k_1[NO_2][S(VI)],$$
 (S15)

203 where the
$$k_1 = (1.4 \times 10^5 + 1.24 \times 10^7)/2 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$$
 for the pH range < 5;

204
$$k_1 = (23.25 \times (pH-5) + 1.4 + 124)/2 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$$
 for the pH range 5 < pH < 5.3;

205
$$k_1 = (23.25 \times (pH-5) + 1.4 + 12.6 \times (pH-5.3) + 124)/2 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$$
 for the pH range 5.3 <

206 pH < 5.8;

207
$$k_1 = (12.6 \times (pH-5.3) + 124+20)/2 \times 10^5 \text{ M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$$
 for the pH range 5.8 < pH < 8.7;

and $k_1 = (2 \times 10^6 + 1.67 \times 10^7)/2$ M⁻¹s⁻¹ for the pH range pH > 8.7. (Seinfeld et al., 1998)

209 In the above calculation formulas, the concentration of gas in the liquid is determined

by Henry's constant (H^{*}). The calculation formula is in Table S4. SO₂ has a dissociation equilibrium in the solution, producing HSO_3^- and SO_3^{2-} . The ionization constants (K) are shown in the following Table S5. The H^{*} and K are temperature-dependent. The values are given in Tables S4 and S5 under the condition of 298K, converted to the value under the actual temperature using the following calculation formula:

215
$$H(T) \text{ or } K(T) = H(T_{298K}) \text{ or } K(T_{298K}) \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta H_{298K}}{R}(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{298K})\right]$$
(S16)

where H(T), K(T), $H(T_{298K})$, and $K(T_{298K})$ represent the H* and K at actual temperature and 298 K, respectively.

Influences of ionic strength on R_1 were not considered because of the high values predicted by the ISORROPIA-II model during the sampling periods (Cheng et al., 2016). To evaluate the effects of mass transport, the formulation of a standard resistance model was adopted:

222
$$\frac{1}{R_{\rm H,aq}} = \frac{1}{R_{\rm aq}} + \frac{1}{J_{\rm aq,lim}}$$
(S17)

where $R_{H, aq}$ is the sulfate production rate, R_{aq} is the aqueous-phase reaction rate and J_{aq,lim} is the limiting mass transfer rate. which could be calculated by the formulas as follows:

226
$$J_{aq,lim} = \min\{J_{aq}(SO_2), J_{aq}(X)\}$$
 (S18)

227
$$J_{aq}(X) = k_{MT}(X) \cdot [X]$$
(S19)

where [X] refers to the aqueous-phase concentrations of SO₂ or the oxidants O_{xi} calculated by the equation in Table S4. The mass transfer rate coefficient $k_{MT}(X)$ (s⁻¹) can be calculated by:

231
$$k_{_{\rm MT}} = \left[\frac{R_{\rm p}^2}{3D_{\rm g}} + \frac{4R_{\rm p}}{3\alpha\nu}\right]^{-1}$$
(S20)

where R_p is the aerosol radius, D_g is the gas-phase molecular diffusion coefficient (0.2 cm² s⁻¹ at 293K), *v* is the mean molecular speed of X (3×10⁴ cm s⁻¹), and *a* is the mass accommodation of X on the droplet surface, and we adopted values of 0.11 and 2E⁻⁴ for SO₂ and NO₂, respectively referring to Cheng et al. (2016).



Figure S1. Sampling point map in Henan Province, China. © 2019 National Geomatics
Center of China. i.e., urban sites at Sanmenxia (U-SMX), Zhoukou (U-ZK), Zhuamdian
(U-ZMD) and Xinyang (U-XY), rural sites at Anyang (R-AY), Xinxiang (R-XX),
Puyang (R-PY), Jiaozuo(R-JZ), Shangqiu (R-SQ) and Nanyang (R-NY). All rights
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244

Figure S2. Result of conditional bivariate probability function plots: NO₂ at U-ZK and

- 246 R-PY sites before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. The color scale bar
- 247 represents NO₂ concentration.



 $250 \qquad \mbox{Figure S3. HONO production rate using different uptake rates of NO_2 at the U-ZK}$

and R-PY sites before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. (a)P_{ground}, (b)

- $P_{aerosol}$, (c) $P_{ground+hv}$, and (d) $P_{aerosol+hv}$







Figure S4. Relationship between HONO and main influencing factors during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak at U-ZK and R-PY sites. In each box, the top, middle, and bottom lines represent the 75, 50, and 25 percentiles of statistical data, respectively; the upper and lower whiskers represent the 90 and 10 percentiles of statistical data, respectively.



Figure S5. Daily changes in temperature and relative humidity (RH) in rural sites before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak, the error bar represents the standard deviation. The upper and lower whiskers represent the standard deviation.



269 during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak.



Figure S7. Concentrations of the water-soluble ions at the ten sites before (PC) and

272 during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak.



274

Figure S8. Sensitivity tests of pH to each factor. The vertical bar represents the mean 275 values before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. A given range for a 276 variable (i.e., TNH_x) with corresponding average values of other parameters (i.e., 277 TH₂SO₄, TNO₃, TCl, TNa, K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , T, and RH) was simulated to compare its 278 effects on pH. 279



Figure S9. Maximum uncertainty values for HONO sources at U-ZK and R-PY sites were compared between the pre-COVID-19 outbreak (PC) and (DC) periods. Refer to Text S4 for details on the calculation methods.







Figure. S11. HONO production rate through R_1 at U-ZK and R-PY sites before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. In each box, the top, middle, and bottom lines represent the 75, 50, and 25 percentiles of statistical data, respectively; the upper and lower whiskers represent the 90 and 10 percentiles of statistical data, respectively.



Figure S12. Sensitivity of HONO product rate to each factor. The vertical bar represents the mean values before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. The real-time measured values of a variable and the average values of other parameters were input into the production rate of the R_1 reaction.



305 Figure S13. pH and R_1 uncertainties at the U-ZK and R-PY sites are based on two

306 extreme scenarios of sensitivity to measurement uncertainty.

Tables

315				Tab	le SI	1. De	escrij	ption	s of	the ter	ı sam	npling	g site	s in	Hena	n Pi	rovino	ce, (China.
-																			

Observation	Classifications	Abbreviations	Coordinates	Locations	Surrounding		
sites					environment		
Sanmenxia	Urban site	U-SMX	34.79 °N, 111.16 °E	Sanmenxia Environmental Protection Bureau	Roads, residential		
					areas		
Zhoukou	Urban site	U-ZK	33.65° N, 114.65° E	Chuanhui District People's Government	Roads, residential		
					areas		
Zhumadian	Urban site	U-ZMD	33.01° N, 114.01° E	Huanghuai College	Roads, residential		
					areas, shopping malls		
Xinyang	Urban site	U-XY	32.14° N, 114.09° E	Xinyang Museum	Roads, residential		
Anyang	Rural site	R-AY	36.22°N, 114.39° E	Baizhuang Town Xindian North Street China	Highways, villages,		
				Resources Gas (Andan Station)	farmland		
Xinxiang	Rural site	R-XX	35.38° N, 114.30° E	Banzao Township Central School in Yanjin	Villages, farmland		
				County			
Puyang	Rural site	R-PY	36.15° N, 115.10° E	Nanle County Longwang Temple Station	Villages, farmland		
Jiaozuo	Rural site	R-JZ	35.02° N, 113.35° E	The Second River Bureau of Jiefeng Village,	Villages, farmland		
				Beiguo Township, Wuxi County			
Shangqiu	Rural site	R-SQ	34.56° N, 115.61° E	Liangyuan Huanghe Gudao National Forest	Highways, villages,		
				Park	farmland		
Nanyang	Rural site	R-NY	32.68° N, 111.70° E	Nanyang Tangshan Park	Villages, farmland		

17		Table S2. The value of ρ_s in other studies.								
-	Observation site	Period	ρ_s (g/cm ³)	Reference						
-	Beijing	Dec 201	6 1.4	(Liu et al., 2017)						
	Tianjin	Dec-Jun 20	015 1.3	(Shi et al., 2017)						
	Xi'an	Nov-Dec 2	012 1.4	(Guo et al., 2017)						
	Hohhot	Winter 20	15 1.35	(Wang et al., 2019)						
	Northeastern USA	Feb-Mar 20	015 1.4	(Guo et al., 2016)						
	Crete, Greece	Aug-Nov 2	012 1.35	(Bougiatioti et al., 2016)						
	Alabama, USA	Jun-Jul 20	13 1.4	(Guo et al., 2015)						
_	Georgia, USA	Aug-Oct 20	016 1.4	(Nah et al., 2018)						
3										
9	T	able S3. Summ	ary of vehicle emission	factors.						
	Observation site	Period	Emission factor (%)	Reference						
	Beijing	2020	0.79	(Meng et al., 2020)						
	Hong Kong	2015	0.4–1.8	(Yun et al., 2017)						
	Hong Kong	2011	0.5–1.6	(Xu et al., 2015)						
	Kiesberg Tunnel	2001	0.8	(Kleffmann et al., 2003)						
	Kiesberg Tunnel	1997	03-08	(Kurtenbach and						
		1777		Wiesen, 2001)						
	Guangzhou	2019	1.31	(Li et al., 2021)						
0 1	Table S4. C	constants for cal	lculating the apparent F	Henry's constant (H*).						
	Equilibri	um	H (M atm ⁻) at 298K	$-\Delta H_{298K}/K(K)$						
	$SO_2(g) \leftarrow$	→ SO ₂ (aq)	1.23	3145.3						
	$NO_2(g) \leftarrow$	$NO_2(g) \leftrightarrow NO_2(aq)$		2516.2						
,										
3	Table S5. Constants for calculating the ionization constants (K).									
	Equilibri	um	K (M) at 298K	$-\Delta H_{298K} / R (K)$						
	SO ₂ ·H ₂ O	$\leftrightarrow \mathrm{H^{+} + HSO_{3}}$	1.30E-02	1960						
	$\mathrm{HSO}_{3}^{-} \leftrightarrow$	$H^{+} + SO_{3}^{2-}$	6.60E-08	1500						

Sampling sites	Seasons	Years	NH ₃	Sites	References
			$(\mu g/m^3)$		
Delhi, India	Winter	2013– 2015	19.2 ± 3.5	Urban	(Saraswati et al., 2019)
Osaka, Japan	Winter	2015	1.5 ± 0.7	Urban	(Huy et al., 2017)
Toronto, Canada	Winter	2007	0.8 ± 0.5	Urban	(Hu et al., 2014)
Kanpur, India	Winter	2007	21.7 ± 5.8	Urban	(Behera and Sharma, 2010)
Nanjing	Winter	2014	6.7	Urban	(Wang et al., 2016b)
Yangtze River Delta	Winter	2019	9.3 ± 4.0	Urban	(Wang et al., 2021)
Shanghai	Winter	2014	2.8 ± 1.0	Urban	(Wang et al., 2018)
Tianjin Xi'an	Winter Winter	2015 2012	12.0 17.5 ± 9.1	Urban Urban	(Shi et al., 2019) (Wang et al., 2016a)
Fujian	Winter	2016	12.8 ± 4.8	Urban	(Wu et al., 2017)
Beijing	Winter	2015	15.1 ± 2.9	Urban	(Wang et al., 2016a)
Beijing	Winter	2017	13.1 ± 1.6	Urban	(Zhang et al., 2020b)
Beijing	Winter	2020	19.9 ± 3.8	Urban	(Zhang et al., 2020b)
Taoyuan	Winter	2017– 2018	1.7 ± 1.9	Urban	(Duan et al., 2021)
Zhengzhou	Winter	2018	19.0 ± 4.0	Rural	(Wang et al., 2020)
Quzhou	Winter	2019	29.5 ± 2.2	Rural	(Feng et al., 2022)
Gucheng	Winter	2016	9.3	Rural	(Xu et al., 2019)
Chongming	Winter	2019–	9.3 ± 4.0	Rural	(Lv et al., 2022)
Shanglan	Winter	2020 2017– 2018	2.5 ± 2.6	Rural	(Duan et al., 2021)

Table S6. Comparisons of NH₃ concentrations (mean \pm standard deviation) (μ g/m³) from studies in other cities.

Table S7. The concentration (mean \pm standard deviation) of relative humidity (RH),

330	temperature (T), ϵ (NH ₄ ⁺)	at the ten sites befo	re (PC) and du	uring (DC) the COVID-19
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331	outbreak.

Sites	Substances	Total	PC	DC
U-SMX	RH (%)	54.8 ± 18.0	60.6 ± 16.5	51.2 ± 18.0
	T (°C)	5.6 ± 4.2	3.1 ± 2.1	7.0 ± 4.4
	$\epsilon(NH_4^+)$	0.43 ± 0.20	0.54 ± 0.18	0.36 ± 0.18
U-ZK	RH (%)	70.1 ± 21.9	73.6 ± 14.5	69.4 ± 22.4
	T (°C)	6.4 ± 4.3	3.8 ± 2.3	7.0 ± 4.5
	$\epsilon(NH_4^+)$	0.43 ± 0.20	0.59 ± 0.14	0.32 ± 0.17
U-ZMD	RH (%)	74.9 ± 23.3	84.4 ± 17.8	68.9 ± 24.4
	T (°C)	5.6 ± 4.6	2.9 ± 2.7	7.4 ± 4.8
	$\epsilon(\mathrm{NH_4^+})$	0.48 ± 0.21	0.62 ± 0.17	0.38 ± 0.18
U-XY	RH (%)	77.0 ± 22.1	86.7 ± 13.3	74.3 ± 23.3
	T (°C)	7.7 ± 4.5	4.7 ± 2.2	8.5 ± 4.6
	$\epsilon(\mathrm{NH_4^+})$	0.55 ± 0.21	0.71 ± 0.14	0.45 ± 0.18
R-AY	RH (%)	62.2 ± 17.9	70.1 ± 14.9	57.2 ± 17.8
	T (°C)	2.6 ± 0.9	-0.2 ± 2.5	4.4 ± 4.7
	$\epsilon(\mathrm{NH_4^+})$	0.46 ± 0.17	0.57 ± 0.15	0.39 ± 0.14
R-XX	RH (%)	63.0 ± 17.0	68.7 ± 14.6	59.5 ± 17.5
	T (°C)	2.9 ± 4.6	0.3 ± 2.8	4.4 ± 4.8
	$\epsilon(NH_4^+)$	0.40 ± 0.17	0.52 ± 0.16	0.35 ± 0.14
R-PY	RH (%)	63.6 ± 18.0	71.5 ± 14.6	57.6 ± 18.0
	T (°C)	1.7 ± 4.8	-0.8 ± 3.2	3.6 ± 4.9
	$\epsilon(NH_4^+)$	0.43 ± 0.17	0.58 ± 0.13	0.34 ± 0.13
R-JZ	RH (%)	56.3 ± 18.5	62.0 ± 16.7	52.8 ± 18.7
	T (°C)	4.1 ± 4.4	1.7 ± 2.6	5.6 ± 4.7
	$\epsilon(\mathrm{NH_4^+})$	0.37 ± 0.14	0.46 ± 0.13	0.32 ± 0.13
R-SQ	RH (%)	63.2 ± 15.6	67.5 ± 12.6	60.5 ± 17.0
	T (°C)	4.2 ± 4.5	2.0 ± 2.9	5.6 ± 4.7
	$\epsilon(NH_4^+)$	0.45 ± 0.19	0.63 ± 0.12	0.35 ± 0.14
R-NY	RH (%)	75.9 ± 19.1	79.3 ± 17.7	73.9 ± 19.6
	T (°C)	5.7 ± 3.8	3.6 ± 2.6	6.9 ± 3.9
	$\epsilon(\mathrm{NH_4}^+)$	0.59 ± 0.19	0.73 ± 0.12	0.52 ± 0.18

Table S8. The concentration (mean \pm standard deviation) of required ammonia

(-)	34 ((Required-NH _x)) and excess ammonia	(Excess-NH _x) a	at the ten sites	before (PC	C) and
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Sites	Substances	Total (µg/m ³)	PC (μg/m ³)	DC ($\mu g/m^3$)
U-SMX	Required-NH4 ⁺	9.1 ± 7.1	12.7 ± 7.1	7.0 ± 6.2
	Excess-NH ₄ ⁺	14.7 ± 11.2	13.6 ± 10.4	15.3 ± 11.6
U-ZK	Required-NH4 ⁺	15.2 ± 9.6	21.4 ± 8.6	11.6 ± 8.4
	Excess-NH4 ⁺	14.6 ± 8.3	11.9 ± 6.0	16.1 ± 9.0
U-ZMD	Required-NH4 ⁺	13.9 ± 9.8	19.4 ± 9.8	10.4 ± 8.0
	Excess-NH4 ⁺	12.8 ± 8.7	11.6 ± 8.2	13.6 ± 8.8
U-XY	Required-NH4 ⁺	10.2 ± 7.5	14.6 ± 7.3	7.4 ± 6.2
	Excess-NH ₄ ⁺	7.8 ± 4.6	6.5 ± 4.4	8.7 ± 4.5
R-AY	Required-NH4 ⁺	17.1 ± 12.4	23.9 ± 13.4	12.8 ± 9.5
	Excess-NH ₄ ⁺	21.2 ± 9.4	20.2 ± 9.2	21.9 ± 9.4
R-XX	Required-NH4 ⁺	13.5 ± 9.6	18.0 ± 9.8	10.7 ± 8.2
	Excess-NH4 ⁺	23.3 ± 11.4	19.6 ± 10.8	25.6 ± 11.2
R-PY	Required-NH4 ⁺	13.8 ± 11.0	22.1 ± 12.5	9.3 ± 6.6
	Excess-NH ₄ ⁺	22.3 ± 10.8	17.5 ± 8.6	25.0 ± 11.0
R-JZ	Required-NH4 ⁺	15.4 ± 10.4	20.3 ± 10.6	12.5 ± 9.1
	Excess-NH ₄ ⁺	27.5 ± 12.9	26.0 ± 13.1	28.4 ± 12.7
R-SQ	Required-NH4 ⁺	13.2 ± 9.1	19.1 ± 8.9	9.9 ± 7.3
	Excess-NH4 ⁺	15.1 ± 8.6	10.1 ± 5.4	17.9 ± 8.7
R-NY	Required-NH4 ⁺	9.9 ± 6.6	13.0 ± 6.9	8.1 ± 5.8
	Excess-NH ₄ ⁺	6.0 ± 3.6	4.4 ± 3.3	6.9 ± 3.4

335 during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak.

	Sites	Periods	pН	References
Urban	Sanmenxia	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.6 \pm 0.5/4.8 \pm 0.9$	This study
	Zhoukou	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.6 \pm 0.6/5.1 \pm 0.4$	
	Zhumadian	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.6 \pm 0.3/4.8 \pm 1.2$	
	Xinyang	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.2 \pm 0.3/4.6 \pm 1.3$	
Rural	Anyang	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.5 \pm 0.4/4.6 \pm 0.8$	-
	Xinxiang	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.8 \pm 0.5/4.9 \pm 0.9$	
	Puyang	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.8 \pm 0.3/5.1 \pm 0.9$	
	Jiaozuo	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.9 \pm 0.5/5.1 \pm 0.8$	
	Shangqiu	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.5 \pm 0.3/4.7 \pm 0.8$	
	Nanyang	Jan–Feb 2020	$4.2 \pm 0.5/4.4 \pm 0.7$	
Urban	Beijing	Jan–Feb 2015	4.5	(Guo et al., 2017)
	Beijing	Dec 2016	4.3 ± 0.4	(Liu et al., 2017)
	Beijing	Feb 2017	4.5 ± 0.7	(Ding et al., 2019)
	Tianjin	Dec-Jun 2015	4.9 ± 1.4	(Shi et al., 2017)
	Tianjin	Aug 2015	3.4 ± 0.5	(Shi et al., 2019)
	Hohhot	Winter	5.7	(Wang et al., 2019)
	Mt. Tai	Summer	2.9 ± 0.5	(Liu et al., 2021b)
	Taoyuan	Nov 2017–Jan 2018	5.1 ± 1.0	(Duan et al., 2021)
	Zhengzhou	Jan 2018	4.5	(Wang et al., 2020)
	Anyang	Jan 2018	4.8	(Wang et al., 2020)
Mountain	Mt. Tai	Summer	3.6 ± 0.7	(Liu et al., 2021b)
Rural	Shanglan	Nov 2017–Jan 2018	5.5 ± 1.1	(Duan et al., 2021)

Table S9. Comparison of the particle pH values in this study (PC/DC) and other sites (mean or mean \pm standard).

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