Reply to comments from Referees

We would like to thank the editor and two anonymous referees whose comments helped us improve the manuscript. Below we give a point-to-point response to address the referees' comments. The original comments are in blue italics and our responses are in black. The corrections are marked as red color in the attached revised manuscript.

1. Response to Anonymous Referee #1

The Authors have done an extremely commendable revision to this manuscript. Despite the highly limited nature of their observational dataset, they have derived insight into some of the competing HONO mechanisms in the Beijing atmosphere under haze and clear pollution conditions. Pending some minor revisions and clarifications, the paper is acceptable for publication in Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics.

Minor Comments:

1. The Authors state in a number of places throughout the manuscript that aerosol production of HONO under haze conditions is dominant. This is incorrect. It is significant, but in the comparison against the ground source throughout the nocturnal boundary layer, aerosol production still only accounts for one third of the total HONO produced. This estimate is made using the upper limit for NO_2 reactive uptake from the literature, so it is likely less significant that reported and more in line with a wealth of prior studies. The Authors need to do a better job of performing their calculations using upper and lower limits instead of just an upper limit estimate. A conservative calculation or one which includes the variability in the observations is more reliable. Specific comments below provide some areas where this improvement is required to produce a more balanced interpretation of the dataset. Given the very limited nature of the observations, such analysis is likely to provide more robust insight for comparison when more targeted measurements are made in the future, raising the impact of this work.

Response: Thank you very much for your valuable comments and suggestions. We have revised the manuscript according to the referee's specific comments below. Considering the upper and lower

limits of uptake coefficient of NO_2 as suggested, the uptake coefficient of 5×10^{-6} have been taken into account in the calculation and interpretation of the dataset. The aerosol production of HONO is an important nocturnal HONO source during haze episodes. The aerosol surface dominates HONO production aloft by heterogeneous uptake of NO_2 during haze episodes, and the surface production of HONO and direct emissions into the overlying air are minor contributors. The statements have been revised as the referee suggested.

2. In Section 3.2 the Authors discuss the decreasing slopes determined using orthogonal least squares analysis. First, why the orthogonal approach was used is not clear, but presumably this was used as an extension from the revised intercomparison of the HONO measurements. The error in the measurement height must be quite a lot smaller than in the HONO measurement, which means that a least-squares regression is more likely appropriate. In either case, no examples of the regression line through the data are provided, nor are the parameters used to constrain the regression line. This limits the ability of bias in these trends to be identified. Were regressions performed through HONO data only above the surface layer? There is an exponential decrease in HONO with altitude within the surface layer that would be incorrect to apply a linear trend to, where the lowest HONO observation having the highest mixing ratio would significantly affect the slope of the line. The Authors need to clarify this approach in the manuscript so it can be compared to in future studies.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. As the referee suggested, we used the linear squares regression of HONO and NO_2 to altitude to evaluate the nocturnal gradient of HONO and NO_2. Vertical profile data were used above the surface layer and 10 m vertical average from the surface to 240 m above ground level (AGL) to constrain the regression line, which has been clarified in the revised manuscript. An example of the regression line of HONO and NO_2 were added in the supplementary in formation as suggested. The alterations in the values of the slopes were revised throughout the manuscript.

3. The Authors report 1-simga limit of detection (LOD). This is a gross error and misrepresentation of instrumental capability. Detection limits are standardly reported at 3-sigma which results in measurements with approximately 50 % error, decreasing quickly to 10 % error (or less) at the 10-sigma threshold (limit of quantitation). Report the 3-sigma LOD and indicate where this threshold

lies for each instrument on the Figures associated with the intercomparison and also on any plots of HONO mixing ratios where measurements are below the 3-sigma LOD. The Authors need to revise their error assigned to data between the 3-sigma and 10-sigma levels to be at least +/- 20 % of the measured value, while data below the 3-sigma LOD should be reported with +/- 100 % uncertainty. Finally, while the errors of the HONO measurements from the IBBCEAS are quantified nicely, the accuracy from the intercomparison is not actually reported. Once the LOD error re-analysis has been completed, then the slopes from the resulting intercomparisons should give a good estimate of between-instrument accuracy.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. As the referee suggested, the 3σ limit of detection (LOD) of IBBCEAS instrument was reported in the manuscript. The errors assigned to data between the 3σ and 10σ were modified, and Figure 2 was also revised as suggested. As the referee pointed out, we re-analyzed the LOD error and reported the relative accuracy of comparison between the different instruments in the manuscript.

Detailed Comments:

1. Lines 34-37: The results of this analysis need to be updated to reflect the relative importance under haze and clean conditions according to comments below.

Response: We have updated and modified this analysis as the referee suggested.

2. Lines 49-51: The references used in this sentence appear to be placed backwards. Swap them.

Response: Revision has made as the referee suggested.

3. Line 87: Should be 'Americas'

Response: Revision has made as the referee suggested.

4. Line 118: Should be '…aerosol surfaces play a…'

Response: Revision has made as the referee suggested.

5. Lines 161-162: Please provide an estimate of the total path length.

Response: An estimate of the total optical path length has been added in the manuscript as suggested.

6. Lines 164-174: Revise according to Minor Comment 3. Be very clear in how the 3-sigma LOD was calculated so it can be used for comparison by others who also measure HONO by IBBCEAS. It is too bad that a standard amount of gas phase HONO was not delivered to these systems to ensure that inlet or cavity-sorption losses of HONO were not changing over time and impacting the accuracy of the measurements.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. We have calculated the 3σ LOD of the IBBCEAS instrument as suggested, which has been modified in the manuscript. As the referee pointed out, a HONO standard generator was used to determine the sample loss of HONO. In the experiment, the RH was about 65% and the temperature was about 23 ℃, the sample loss of HONO was found to be ~2.0% as shown in Figure 1. The variation of HONO sample loss over time was negligible. The similar approach was used to determine the sample loss of NO_2 and found that it was negligible. A more detailed description of the IBBCEAS instrument can be found in our published manuscript (Duan et al., 2018).

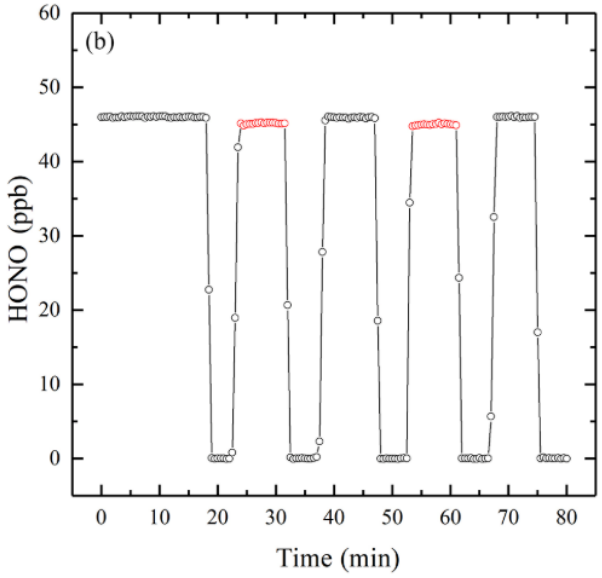

Figure 1. The black circles correspond to the HONO observed from the HONO standard generator. The red circle correspond to the HONO measured with the extra 1 μm PTFE filter, 3 m PFA inlet tube and the simulative PFA optical cavity tube added in front of the IBBCEAS instrument.

7. Lines 178-183: This section needs clarification. Were these measurements made at all heights? Only on the ground? Or were these instruments located in the moving basket?

Response: Thanks for your comments. CO and O_3 were measured simultaneously at ground level and

at 260 m on the tower, while NO was measured only at ground level. We have made the clarification in the manuscript as the referee suggested.

8. Line 184: In comparison to what? Clarify.

Response: We have removed this sentence and added the accuracy of the instrument in the manuscript to make our statement more clearly.

9. Line 202: Please add why use of these a and b terms are reasonable to use. The paper cited is for measurements made much further south, in the Pearl River Delta. A sound justification for the use of aerosol parameters from a location so far away, with far more agricultural impact on particulate composition (also different typical T and RH).

Response: As the referee suggested, we have made the clarification in the manuscript. The parameters *a* and *b* were derived using the measurement dataset from Guangzhou region, which, like Beijing, is one of the mega-cities in China. The curve-fitting parameters *a* (2.06) and *b* (3.6) for urban areas were used in the manuscript.

10. Lines 213-219: Use all of these intercomparisons to determine some measure of relative accuracy between these four instruments (i.e. the relative standard deviation of the slopes).

Response: We have modified this section and added the relative measurement difference between the four instruments.

11. Line 235: 0.05 ppb is below the 1-sigma LOD. These low mixing ratios cannot be reported with any reliability. The Authors need to reconsider their interpretation anywhere that measurements are below 3-sigma LOD.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. We have revised the manuscript as the referee suggested. The measurements below 3σ LOD have been removed in the manuscript.

12. Line 241: Delete 'other'

Response: Revision has made as the referee suggested.

13. Line 244: Which measurement or period these numbers correspond to is not clear. Please revise for clarity.

Response: The sentence have been revised to make our statement more clearly.

14. Line 264: +/- 0.4 ppb is very close to the 3-sigma detection limit, which suggests that these reported values may only be an evaluation of the difference in noise between the two instruments.

Response: We have revised the discussion as the referee suggested.

15. Lines 331-347: Apply corrections for Minor Comment 2 here and make changes throughout manuscript to match any alterations in the values of the slopes and their interpretation.

Response: Revision has made as the referee suggested

16. Lines 470-472: This should be calculated using the lower limit of the NO_2 mixing ratio (~40 ppbv) to provide a conservative estimate of the production rate. This reads as if the upper limit was used because it conveniently matched the observations, yet all of the remaining NO_2 measurements are below this value, which indicates that the aerosol surface conversion is a major contributor in isolated air parcels, but not the only contributor. This is more internally-consistent with the findings presented later in the manuscript where ground and aerosol surface contributions are compared throughout two nocturnal boundary layers after direct emissions are accounted for.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. We calculated the HONO production using the average NO_2 mixing ratio (52.88 ppb) observed in the residual layer during E3. The absolute amount produced in an interval of 1.5 h could match the observations between vertical profile measurements (time interval: 1.5 h). As the referee pointed out, the aerosol surface dominates HONO production aloft by heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 during haze episodes, and surface production of HONO and direct emissions into the overlying air are minor contributors.

17. Lines 472-474: This is a comparison between the calculation and the observations, yet it is not clear which numbers belong to the calculation and the observation here. Also, the Authors should normalize to a constant time interval (e.g. pptv per hour) for both the calculation and the observation numbers, since one interval given here is 1.5 hours and the other is 'between two vertical profile

measurements'. There are other instances of comparisons between calculations and observations from here onward that make following the results difficult, if not impossible.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. As the referee suggested, we have revised this section to make our argument more clearly. The constant interval time for both the calculation and the observation was used for comparison between the calculation and the observation. The time interval of 1.5 h used in the calculation is same as the time interval between two vertical profile measurements (1.5 h). The statement throughout the section 3.4.2 have been revised to make our argument more clearly.

18. Lines 481-482: The end of this sentence should be modified to indicate that ground production of HONO or direct emission into the surface layer are minor contributors, according to the results of the addressing the prior comments in this section.

Response: Revision has made as the referee suggested.

19. Line 487: The Authors should again emphasize the severe limitation of the number of transects in their dataset here. This haze event has not been characterized for how typical or atypical it may be in terms of chemical composition and so these results may not hold under a more thorough investigation of HONO formation in Beijing during other haze episodes, yet provides motivation to find out!

Response: As the referee suggested, we have emphasized the limitation of the number of vertical profile data in our study.

20. Lines 501-507: Upper limit used again here, should use lower limit. Calculated formation rates are in ppbv/hr while HONO increases are pptv between transects. Please use the same units for both values to make the comparison simple for your readers. Also clearly state what fraction of the total HONO production these calculated rates account for.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. The average concentration of NO_2 observed in the residual layer were used in the calculation. As the referee suggested, we have revised the discussion of the comparison between the calculation and the observation to make our argument more clearly. The fraction of the calculated HONO production to the total HONO have been added in the manuscript as suggested.

21. Lines 510-516: The clarity of writing here makes this challenging to follow. Given the limitations given in the discussion here, it would seem that this vertical transect was not a very good case study for analysis. It may be better to remove this from the discussion.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. We have revised this section as the referee suggested.

22. Lines 521-522: The Authors state 'presumably dominated', yet they performed a quantitative assessment. Give the calculated fraction of the observed total HONO production. Clearly state that it only applies for a limited number of transects over a short period of a given night.

Response: The sentence has been revised as the referee suggested.

23. Lines 546-547: The Zhang et al (2018) observation in Beijing during haze has a value much higher than given here. Is this a typo? If not, then this much higher observation should be moved to the next sentence. A period should precede 'However' as well, instead of a comma.

Response: As the referee pointed out, this is not a typo. We have moved it to the next sentence as the referee suggested.

24. Line 559: The Authors are creating confusion here. The aerosol surface conversion of HONO in the residual layer dominated its production in that layer, but this does not tell us anything about how important aerosol conversion is throughout the nighttime troposphere until it is compared in the following discussion of surface production. Revise this here to 'is an active HONO production mechanism during haze episodes' to improve accuracy and clarity.

Response: Revision has made as the referee suggested.

25. Line 568: Revise to use the lower limits calculated and/or give the mean with +/- corresponding to reach the upper and lower limits. This will give a much better picture of the chemistry in this very nice comparison section of the discussion.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. As the referee suggested, we gave the upper limit and the lower limit, and the mean with +/- corresponding to reach the upper and lower limits.

26. Line 598: Again, only an upper limit is used here, yet a reactive uptake coefficient of 10^-6 is common to find in the literature. The lower limit or the entire range should be explored. The upper limit use here, again, suggests the Authors are more interested in the upper limit of aerosol conversion importance rather than providing a balanced perspective. Given their extremely limited dataset, caution in the interpretation of this data will make the results of this work more valuable for future comparisons. Please revise here and for the calculations moving forward through the remaining discussion.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. As the referee suggested, we considered the upper and lower limits of the uptake coefficient (1×10^{-5} – 1×10^{-6}), the uptake coefficient of 5×10^{-6} was used in the calculation. We have modified the calculations here and in the discussion below, as the referee suggested.

27. Lines 609-610: And when the reactive uptake of NO_2 is 10^-6, then how does it compare? The Authors should provide the fraction of aerosol HONO production to the total calculated here to indicate its importance. It is only one third of the total, at the upper limit, which means it is important, but not dominant.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. Considering the upper and lower limits of the uptake coefficient of NO_2, the uptake coefficient of 5×10^{-6} was used in the calculation. As the referee suggested, we have provided the fraction of aerosol production of HONO to the total production of HONO, contributing about 20% of the production of HONO, suggesting that aerosol production of HONO is an important nocturnal HONO source.

28. Line 619: Revise this section according to manuscript changes throughout.

Response: As the referee suggested, we have revised the conclusion according to the changes in the manuscript.

References:

Duan, J., Qin, M., Ouyang, B., Fang, W., Li, X., Lu, K. D., Tang, K., Liang, S. X., Meng, F. H., Hu, Z. K., Xie, P. H., Liu, W. Q., and Häsler, R.: Development of an incoherent broadband cavity-enhanced

absorption spectrometer for in situ measurements of HONO and NO_2, Atmos. Meas. Tech., 11, 4531-4543, https://doi.org/10.5194/amt-11-4531-2018, 2018.

2. Response to Anonymous Referee #3

General comments:

I feel that the authors have satisfactorily addressed most of my concerns. The only comment I have is regarding equation (4) and (5) on p. 16. The Authors state "the yield of the hydrolysis reaction assumes that HONO and HNO_3 are formed by equimolar disproportionation of two NO_2 molecules and immediately release HONO." (line 454-456) They further state that equations (4) and (5) have been modified to account for the disproportionation. However, the NO_2 uptake coefficients used are independent of any product yield for reaction (R2). I recommend deleting the above quoted sentence on line 454-456 since it does not have any bearing on equation (4) and (5). In fact, as mentioned in my first review of this paper. It is well established in the literature that hydrolysis of N_2O_4 only occurs at ppm levels of NO_2, when the $2NO_2 = N_2O_4$ equilibrium favors N_2O_4 formation; those concentrations are not present in the air of Beijing.

Response: Thanks for the comment and suggestion. The quoted sentence have been removed as the referee suggested.

High resolution vertical distribution and sources of HONO and NO_2 in the nocturnal boundary layer in urban Beijing, China

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Abstract. Nitrous acid (HONO), an important precursor of the hydroxyl radical (OH), plays a key role in atmospheric chemistry, but its sources are still debated. The production of HONO on aerosol surface or on ground surface in nocturnal atmospheres remains controversial. The vertical profile provides vertical information on HONO and NO_2 to understand the nocturnal HONO production and loss. In this study, we report the first high-resolution (<2.5 m) nocturnal vertical profiles of HONO and NO_2 measured from in-suit instruments on a movable container that was lifted on the side wiring of a 325-m meteorological tower in Beijing, China. High-resolution vertical profiles revealed the negative gradients of HONO and NO_2 in nocturnal boundary layers, and a shallow inversion layer affected the vertical distribution of HONO. The vertical distribution of HONO was consistent with stratification and layering in the nocturnal urban atmosphere below 250 m. The increase of HONO/NO_2 ratio was observed throughout the column from the clean episode to the haze episode, and a relatively constant

HONO/NO_2 ratios in the residual layer were observed during the haze episode. Direct HONO emissions from traffic contributed 29.3% ± 12.4% to the ambient HONO concentrations at night. The ground surface dominates HONO production by heterogeneous uptake of NO_2 during ~~the~~ clean episodes. In contrast, the HONO production ~~solely~~ on aerosol~~s~~ surface (30–300 ppt) explained the observed HONO increases (15–368 ppt) in the residual layer, suggesting that the aerosol surface dominates HONO production aloft during haze episodes, while the surface production of HONO and direct emissions into the overlying air are minor contributors. ~~was the location where the HONO was formed, which could presumably dominate the production of HONO aloft during the haze episode.~~ Average dry deposition rates of 0.74 ± 0.31 and 1.55 ± 0.32 ppb h^{-1} were estimated during the clean and haze episodes, implying that significant quantities of HONO could be deposited to the ground surface at night. Our results highlight ever-changing contributions of aerosol and ground surfaces in nocturnal HONO production at different pollution levels and encourage more vertical gradient observations to evaluate the contributions from varied HONO sources.

1 Introduction

It is well known that the rapid photolysis of nitrous acid (HONO) (R1) after sunrise is the most important hydroxyl radical (OH) source. 25%–60% of daytime OH production was accounted for due to HONO photolysis, according to previously reported (Lu et al., 2012; Ma et al., 2017; Tong et al., 2016; Su et al., 2008b; Huang et al., 2017; Spataro et al., 2013). OH initiates daytime photochemistry and promotes the formation of secondary products (including ozone (O_3) and peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN)) and secondary aerosols (Alicke and Platt, 2002; Tang et al., 2015; Kleffmann, 2007; An et al., 2012). In addition, HONO as a nitrosating agent forms carcinogenic nitrosamines ~~(Sleiman et al., 2010; Bartolomei et al., 2015; Gómez Alvarez et al., 2014)~~ (Hanst et al., 1977; Pitts et al., 1978), and its health effects have attracted increasing amounts of concern ~~(Hanst et al., 1977; Pitts et al., 1978)~~ (Sleiman et al., 2010; Bartolomei et al., 2015; Gómez Alvarez et al., 2014).

$$\mathrm{HONO}+h\nu\left(320\mathrm{nm}<\lambda<405\mathrm{nm}\right)\rightarrow\mathrm{NO}+\mathrm{OH} \quad \text{(R1)}$$

Despite the importance of HONO, the details of the formation processes of HONO in the atmosphere are debated for decades. New state-of-the-art science instruments have observed much higher daytime HONO concentrations than simulated values from atmospheric chemical models in both rural and urban areas, implying missing HONO sources (Li et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2017; Oswald et

al., 2015; Wong et al., 2012; Li et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2019; Karamchandani et al., 2015; Kleffmann, 2007; Mendez et al., 2017; Michoud et al., 2014; Michoud et al., 2015; Tang et al., 2015; Vogela et al., 2003; Sörgel et al., 2011). Several homogeneous reaction mechanisms for HONO have been proposed, but the latter have been considered as irrelevant under actual atmospheric conditions, including photolysis of ortho-substituted nitroaromatics (Bejan et al., 2006) and the reaction of photoexcited NO_2 with H_2O (Li et al., 2008). The heterogeneous reduction of NO_2 with organic substrates is proposed to be another effective pathway to generate HONO (Brigante et al., 2008; Stemmler et al., 2006; George et al., 2005). However, extrapolation of lab results to real surfaces remains challenging. The nocturnal production of HONO has been considered to be dominated by the NO_2 heterogeneous reaction (R2). Although the heterogeneous reaction (R2) of HONO formation is first-order in NO_2, the mechanism for the conversion of NO_2 on surfaces remains unclear (Finlayson-Pitts et al., 2003; Finlayson-Pitts, 2009).

$$2NO_{2(g)}+H_2O_{(ads)} \xrightarrow{surface} HONO_{(g)}+HNO_{3(ads)} \quad \text{(R2)}$$

A few studies have evaluated the relative importance of aerosol and ground surfaces in the nocturnal production of HONO via reaction (R2). The heterogeneous reaction on ground surface have been suggested as the primary nocturnal HONO source based on vertical measurements and fluxes in HONO (Harrison and Kitto, 1994; Harrison et al., 1996; Laufs et al., 2017; Kleffmann et al., 2003; Su et al., 2008b; VandenBoer et al., 2013; Villena et al., 2011; Wong et al., 2011; Wong et al., 2013; Stutz et al., 2002; Ye et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2009). However, other ground level studies have found significantly positive correlations between $HONO/NO_2$ and aerosol surface areas, which suggests that the aerosols play an important role in the heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 to HONO (Reisinger, 2000; Cui et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018; Hou et al., 2016; Tong et al., 2016; An et al., 2012; Bao et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2014; Reisinger, 2000). Therefore, the primary reaction surfaces for the nighttime HONO formation is still controversial, and the role of the aerosols in the heterogeneous production of HONO remains an open question.

Vertical gradient observations provide evidence regarding surfaces and in situ HONO formation, which can help to understand the nighttime HONO sources. Methods of long-path differential optical absorption spectroscopy (LP-DOAS) (Stutz et al., 2002; Wong et al., 2011; Wong et al., 2012), instruments mounted on a movable elevator of a tall tower or a fixed height on a building (Kleffmann et al., 2003; VandenBoer et al., 2013; Villena et al., 2011) and aircraft measurements (Zhang et al.,

2009; Li et al., 2014; Ye et al., 2018) have been applied for HONO vertical gradient observations in Europe and the Americas. To determine the surface responsible for nocturnal HONO formation, Kleffmann et al. (2003) and Wong et al. (2011) measured the HONO vertical gradient between 10 and 190 m altitude in a semi-rural area in Germany and at three different height intervals (lower: 20–70 m, middle: 70–130 m and upper: 130–300 m) in downtown Houston. Their consistent conclusion was that the reaction on the ground surfaces dominated the nocturnal formation of HONO. However, these types of measurements are limited by the measurement frequency or vertical resolution between the surface and the planetary boundary layer (PBL). VandenBoer et al. (2013) performed measurements of high resolution vertical profiles (vertical resolution ~10 m) of HONO on a 300-m tower. The total column observations of HONO also showed the ground as the dominant nocturnal surface on which HONO was generated from the heterogeneous reaction of NO_2. The vertical information of HONO were interpreted in conjunction with a chemical model. The results suggested a conservative surface reservoir that was formed by the deposition of HONO could be a significant fraction of the unknown daytime source. Furthermore, in an attempt to understand the importance of HONO photochemistry in the troposphere, HONO gradients were measured in the PBL and the lower free troposphere (FT) over a forested region in Michigan (Zhang et al., 2009). An evaluation of the relative importance of aerosol and ground surfaces for the heterogeneous production of HONO also suggested that the ground surface was a major HONO source in the lower boundary layer. In addition, a substantial amount of daytime HONO existed in the FT (~8 ppt).

Beijing, as the largest and the most densely populated city in China, has suffered from severe haze pollution for several years due to rapid economic development and urbanization. Several ground-based observations of HONO have been conducted in urban and suburban areas of Beijing in recent years (Tong et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018; Hou et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017; Lu et al., 2012; Hendrick et al., 2014). Higher levels of HONO have been observed (up to 9.71 ppb) in Beijing during winter (Spataro et al., 2013). Although few near real-time HONO vertical gradients have been made, and they have suggested that the reaction at the ground surface is the most important nighttime HONO source (Kleffmann et al., 2003; VandenBoer et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2009). The relative importance of aerosol and ground surface in the production of nocturnal HONO may be different in the Beijing region. First, as the primary precursor of nighttime HONO, NO_2 has a much higher concentration during winter in Beijing due to the burning of fossil fuels and vehicle emissions. Second,

the aerosol surface area has been reported to be two to three orders of magnitude higher than the typical background area (Cai et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2015). High aerosol surface area levels favor aerosol surfaces to play a heterogeneous reaction~~s~~ ~~on aerosol~~ surface~~s~~ (haze period: 3000 μm^2 cm^{-3}; Wang et al., 2018), which presumably makes aerosol surfaces to play a more important role in the production of nighttime HONO. Third, there is more stable nocturnal stratification during the haze period in winter in Beijing, which may have influenced the vertical distribution of HONO. The contribution of the surface production of HONO to HONO levels aloft may be overestimated.

In this study, the first high-resolution vertical profile measurements of HONO and NO_2 in the megacity of Beijing at different pollution levels (following the transition from a clean episode to a haze episode) are reported. The vertical profiles of HONO and NO_2 are measured at high vertical resolution (< 2.5 m over 240 m height) between the surface, the nocturnal boundary layer, and the residual layer. Although the vertical profile measurements are rather limited in scope, including only four nights in December 2016, with limited ancillary data, this study is unique due to the high vertical resolution obtained and due to the continuous HONO and NO_2 vertical measurements obtained at different stages of pollution. The vertical profiles are then interpreted to evaluate the aerosol and ground surfaces responsible for the nighttime HONO formation during different pollution periods. The vertical measurements and simultaneous observations at ground level are then used to identify and quantify nighttime HONO sources.

2 Experimental Methods

2.1 Measurement site

Vertical profile measurements were conducted from December 7th to 12th of 2016 at the Tower Branch of the Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP), Chinese Academy of Science (39°58'N, 116°23'E) as part of the "In-depth study of air pollution sources and processes within Beijing and its surrounding region (APHH-Beijing)" winter campaign. The site is a typical urban residential area located between the 3rd and 4th Ring Road in the north of Beijing. It is approximately 1 km from the 3rd Ring Road, 200 m from the Beijing-Tibet Expressway, and 50 m from the Beitucheng West Road (Fig. S1). The primary sampling platform was the Beijing 325-m meteorological tower (BMT), equipped with an external container that was lifted on the side wiring of the tower, which could ascend and descend at a relatively constant rate of ~ 9 m min^{-1}. A single vertical ascent or descent required less

than 30 min. After reaching the top, the container stopped and data were measured continuously for 5–20 min of each cycle. For security reasons, the container reached a maximum height limit of 260 m during the daytime and 240 m at night (Fig. 1). The container instruments included the following: a global position system (GPS), an altimeter, and an incoherent broadband cavity enhanced absorption spectrometer (IBBCEAS) for measurements of HONO and NO_2. In addition, another IBBCEAS was mounted in temperature-stabilized lab containers for the measurement of HONO and NO_2 at ground level.

2.2 Instrumentation

HONO and NO_2 were simultaneously measured using a home-made IBBCEAS. A detailed description of the IBBCEAS instrument can refer to Duan et al (2018), and its application to the measurement made during this study is described below. IBBCEAS is a spectroscopic technique that combines broad-band light source (UV-LED) with the principle of time-integrated cavity output spectroscopy. The HONO was sampled into an inlet tube (1.5 m length with a 4 mm outside diameter (OD)) before entering an optical cavity (550 mm in length and 25.4 mm OD) that utilized PFA to minimize the HONO loss. The sampling gas flow rate was controlled at six standard liters per minute (SLPM) by a gas pump (KNF). In the optical cavity, light was reflected between the two highly reflective mirrors (R = 99.980% @368 nm, CRD Optics, California, USA) to obtain a long optical absorption length (the total optical path ~4.5 km). To protect the highly reflective mirrors, pure N_2 was used to continuously purge the mirrors to prevent contact between the mirrors and the sample airflow. The purge flow rate was controlled at 0.1 SLPM using mass flow controllers (MFCs, CS200A, Sevenstar, Beijing, China). The typical time resolution of the IBBCEAS instrument was 30 s, and the ~~1~~ 3 σ detection limits for HONO and NO_2 were ~~90~~ 270 ppt and ~~170~~ 510 ppt, respectively. In this study, the IBBCEAS instrument was mounted in a movable container of the BMT for vertical profile measurements, and this made measurements with a time resolution of 15 s (vertical resolution of 2.4 m). The detection limits for HONO and NO_2 were ~~120~~ 360 ppt and ~~200~~ 600 ppt, respectively. Another IBBCEAS instrument was mounted in temperature-stabilized lab containers at ground level, and it collected data with a time resolution of 30 s. The total relative uncertainty of the IBBCEAS instrument was 8.7%, and it considered the uncertainty in the cross section (5%), the calibration of reflectivity (5%), spectral fitting (4%), the effective cavity length (3%), the pressure in the cavity (1%), $\Delta I/I_0$

(1%), and sample loss (0.5%). Correction of the light intensity was performed every hour, and the mirror reflectivity was calibrated daily.

Meteorological parameters that included wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), temperature (*T*), and relative humidity (RH) were obtained using a 15-level meteorological gradient observation system installed at fixed intervals along the meteorological tower (at heights of 8, 15, 32, 47, 65, 80, 100, 120, 140, 160, 180, 200, 240, 280, and 320 m). The gaseous species, including nitrogen monoxide (NO), ozone (O_3), and carbon monoxide (CO) were measured using a commercial gas analyzer from Thermo Scientific (Waltham, Massachusetts, USA) (Tan et al., 2017). NO was detected using NO-O_3 chemiluminescence (Model 42iTL, Thermo Scientific), with an accuracy of ±20% and a detection limit of 50 ppt. O_3 and CO were measured by an O_3 analyzer (Model 49i, Thermo Scientific) and a CO analyzer (Model 48iTLE, Thermo Scientific), with the detection limits of 0.50 ppb and 0.04 ppm, and an O_3 accuracy of ±20%. ~~respectively. Measurements of NO, O_3 and CO agreed well within the instrumental accuracies.~~ The 7-wavelength aethalometer (AE33, Magee Scientific Corp, Berkeley, California, USA) was deployed to measure the black carbon (BC) at a time resolution of 1 min (Xie et al., 2019). Aerosol particles were continuously collected onto a quartz filter in the instrument to measure their light attenuation at 370, 470, 520, 590, 660, 880, and 950 nm. Trace gas (CO and O_3) and aerosol parameters (BC, NR-PM_1 and aerosol surface area) were measured simultaneously at ground level and at 260 m on the tower, while NO was measured only at ground level. The non-refractory submicron aerosol (NR-PM_1) species were measured simultaneously at ground level and at 260 m using an aerodyne high-resolution time-of-flight aerosol mass spectrometer (AMS) and an aerosol chemical speciation monitor (ACSM), respectively. The detailed sampling setup and calibration of the AMS and ACMS, as well as data analysis, have been described by Xu et al. (2019) and Sun et al. (2013). The dry-state particle number size distributions were measured at ground level and at 260 m using a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS) (Du et al., 2017). The particle number size distributions of 15-500 nm was used to calculate the aerosol surface area (S_a) by assuming the particles are in spherical shape. A hygroscopic factor f(RH) was applied to correct S_a to the aerosol surface area in the real atmosphere (S_{aw}) (Li et al., 2012). The S_{aw} was calculated using following equations:

$$f(RH) = 1 + a\left(\frac{RH}{100}\right)^b \quad (1)$$

$$S_{aw} = S_a \times f(RH) \quad (2)$$

where a and b are the empirical fitting parameters used to estimate f(RH), which were set to 2.06 and 3.6 in urban region~~, respectively~~ (Liu et al., 2008). The curve-fitting parameters a and b were derived from the measurements in Guangzhou region, which, like Beijing, is one of the mega-cities in China. The uncertainty of S_{aw} was estimated to be ~30%, which was associated with the uncertainty from the S_a measurement (~20%) and the growth factor (~20%).

2.3 Inter-comparison

In the present study, the measurements of HONO and NO_2 were conducted simultaneously in the container and at ground level. Therefore, the calibration and inter-comparison of the two IBBCEAS instruments were crucial. Comparison experiments were conducted in a temperature-stabilized laboratory. The sampling unit and sampling flow rate of the two instruments were identical to minimize measured deviations. Figure. 2 shows the excellent agreement between the two IBBCEAS instruments (HONO: R^2 = 0.99, NO_2: R^2 = 0.99), with a slope of 1.00 ± 0.01 (NO_2), ~~1.02 ± 0.01~~ 1.00 ± 0.01 (HONO) and a small intercept of 180 ± 90 ppt (NO_2) and ~~-30~~ -10 ± 10 ppt (HONO). ~~The difference was approximately 2%, within the measurement error range of the instruments.~~

To verify the relative accuracy of the IBBCEAS instrument, an inter-comparison between the IBBCEAS of this study and the IBBCEAS of Cambridge University was conducted. The HONO measurements from the two different IBBCEAS instruments were highly consistent (R^2 = ~~0.97~~ 0.98, Fig. 2c), with a small intercept and a slope close to 1. The difference of 4% was within the range of the instrumental measurement error. In addition, the IBBCEAS instrument was also compared with the long optical path absorption photometer (LOPAP) and the stripping coil ion chromatography (SC-IC) from our previous studies (Tang et al., 2019; Duan et al., 2018). This also showed good agreements of the HONO measurements (LOPAP: R^2 = 0.894, SC-IC: R^2 = 0.98). The regression slope and intercept of LOPAP to IBBCEAS was 0.941 ± 0.0069 and 0.110 ± 0.0089, respectively, with a difference of ~6%. The linear regression of IBBCEAS against the SC-IC exhibited a slope of 0.82 with an intercept of 0.22. The difference of ~8% between the two instruments may be caused by the gas sampling.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 General observations and vertical measurements

The time-series of meteorological parameters, trace gases, and aerosol parameters are shown in Fig. 3. Based on the NR-PM_1 mass concentration level, three different meteorological conditions were

characterized during the measurement periods (Table 1). The first episode (E1) from December 7th to 10:00 on December 8th was a haze event. The NR-PM$_1$ mass concentration increased rapidly from 30 to ~150 μg·m^{-3} at ground level and at 260 m on the tower due to a low wind speed (0.78 ± 0.42 m·s^{-1}) and a high RH (51% ± 13%).

The second episode (December 8-11, C2) was a clean event with low NR-PM$_1$ mass loading (mean: 24 ± 19 μg·m^{-3}) and a high wind speed (> 5 m·s^{-1}), primarily from northwest. The third episode (E3) from December 11th to December 12th was another haze event. During this period, the atmosphere was characterized by stagnant weather, lower wind speeds (an average of 0.77 ± 0.4 m·s^{-1}) and a high RH (55% ± 5%). The mass concentration of the NR-PM$_1$ gradually increased and then remained at relatively constant levels at ground level and 260 m on the tower, and ranging from 69 to 218 μg·m^{-3} with a mean value of 154 ± 35 μg·m^{-3}.

Throughout the entire measurement periods, HONO concentrations ranged from ~~0.05~~ 0.27 to 7.59 ppb. The mean HONO mixing ratios during E1, C2, and E3 were 4.26 ± 2.08, ~~0.83 ± 0.65~~ 0.90 ± 0.65, and 3.54 ± 0.91 ppb, respectively. The maximum HONO concentration was 7.59 ppb, which was observed during E1 (at 08:10 on December 8th). From December 11th to 12th the pollutants continuously increased with the stagnant weather. The HONO concentrations remained at high levels, and the daytime mean HONO mixing ratio even reached 3.10 ± 0.92 ppb. Figure 3 also shows the time series of simultaneously measured ~~other~~ relevant species. The mean NO_2 mixing ratios during E1, C2, and E3 were 51.98 ± 8.41, 23.30 ± 11.91, and 51.88 ± 5.97 ppb, respectively. Because NO and O_3 were not measured at ground level after 14:00 on December 10th, the mean concentrations of NO and O_3 during E1 ~~and C2~~ were 90.99 ± 67.98 and 14.66 ± 21.79 ppb, ~~respectively, and~~ while the concentration of NO and O_3 during C2 were 4.04 ± 1.81 and 14.37 ± 10.65 ppb, respectively. After sunset, the concentration of O_3 at the surface was rapidly titrated due to the elevated NO and increased with an increase in height. The mixing ratio of O_3 below 260 m was less than 9 ppb during the vertical measurements. The BC, NR-PM$_1$, and aerosol surface area showed very similar patterns both at ground level and at 260 m. The RH corrected aerosol surface area (S_{aw}) is shown in Fig. S2. Higher BC, NR-PM$_1$ and S_{aw} levels were observed at ground level during the haze periods (E1 and E3).

Nocturnal stable surface layers of air generally form at low wind speeds (< 6 m·s^{-1}) (VandenBoer et al., 2013). Hence, the vertical profile data were used when the wind speeds were less than 6 m·s^{-1}, except on December 7th. Vertical measurements during low wind events were successfully conducted

on three occasions (December 9–10, 10–11, and 11–12) and will be discussed below. The near-continuous vertical measurements avoided the observation bias from prolonged fixed sampling. The date and time of the measurement for each vertical profile is detailed in Table S1 in the supplementary information.

3.2 Nocturnal HONO vertical profiles

3.2.1 Vertical measurements after sunset

Vertical measurements were conducted from ground level to 240 m after sunset. The mixing ratios of HONO and NO_2 at ground level were consistent with those measured in the container. The mixing ratios of HONO and NO_2 showed nearly flat profiles throughout the column during C2 and E3 (Fig. S3), indicating that HONO and NO_2 were relatively well mixed after sunset The vertical variations of △HONO, which is the difference in the HONO concentrations between measured in the container and at ground level, centered around 0 ppb. ~~and varied between −0.4 and 0.4 ppb~~. The variation of △HONO throughout the column were close to the detection limit of the IBBCEAS instrument and were barely observed. This result also indicated the relatively uniform vertical distribution of HONO. The vertical variations in *T* and RH during these three vertical measurements were similar (Fig. S4). While *T* decreased gradually with increasing height, RH increased gradually with increasing height. In addition, RH was relatively higher during the haze episode. Also, there was no *T* inversion just after sunset, and the consistent variations in the HONO and NO_2 at ground level and in the vertical measurements all supported a relatively well-mixed boundary layer, which explained the uniform vertical distribution of HONO and NO_2.

3.2.2 Nocturnal vertical profiles

Nocturnal small-scale stratification and layering was determined according to the method of Brown et al. (2012), who used the potential temperature profile as an indicator of atmospheric static stability. According to the vertical variations in the potential temperature, the stable layer was divided into the “surface layer”, the “nocturnal boundary layer (NBL)”, the “top of the nocturnal boundary layer”, and the “residual layer (RL)”.

Figure 4 depicts the nocturnal vertical profiles of HONO, NO_2, and potential temperature during C2. The ~~orthogonal~~ linear least squares regression slope and correlation coefficients of HONO and NO_2 to altitude were applied to estimate the nocturnal gradient of HONO and NO_2 (Table 2). Vertical profile

data were used above the surface layer and 10 m vertical average from the surface to 240 m AGL to evaluate vertical gradient of HONO and NO_2. An example of the regression line was shown in Fig. S5. On the night of December 9th (Fig. 4a), negative profiles of both HONO and NO_2 were clearly seen. When the container ascended during 22:42–23:06, the potential temperature profile showed distinct stratification. The surface layer extended to 10–20 m and the NBL extended to ~140 m. The obviously negative gradient of HONO (~~-4.49 ± 0.31~~ -4.56 ± 0.34 ppt m^{-1}) and NO_2 (~~-14.38 ± 1.62~~ -16.41 ± 1.22 ppt m^{-1}) were observed throughout the heights from 0 to 240 m. A negative gradient of HONO was observed in the RL, but was not consistently observed in other measurements (see below). During the descent of the container from 23:15–23:40, the potential temperature profile showed that a shallow *T* inversion had rapidly formed between 130 and 200 m. The obvious vertical variation in RH during 23:15–23:40 (Fig. S3) also indicated the different layers at different heights, which was due to the influence of a shallow inversion layer. Within the shallow inversion layer, vertical convection and transport were inhibited, and a remarkable negative gradient was observed there. However, within the NBL, the negative gradient of HONO and NO_2 disappeared. This might have been due to the continuous vertical mixing below the shallow inversion layer from 23:06 to 23:40. Additionally, the surface source of HONO was obvious, as evidenced by the apparently negative gradient of HONO in Table 2.

The vertical profile of potential temperature on December 10th (Fig. 4b) showed that a shallow inversion layer formed between the surface layer and the NBL. In the shallow inversion layer, the mixing ratios of HONO decreased rapidly with increasing height, and a significant negative gradient was observed within the shallow inversion layer and surface layer. With the attenuation of the shallow inversion layer during the descent of the container from 23:01 to 23:25, the inhibition of vertical transport and mixing gradually weakened. The increase in the negative gradient of HONO and NO_2 and the correlation coefficients of HONO and NO_2 to altitude from 22:36 to 23:25 also showed the weakened shallow inversion layer near the surface, which suggested the nighttime HONO surface source. The attenuation event of the shallow inversion layer may have also been the result of an increase in the wind speed and the interaction of different air masses that changed from the west to southeast between 15 and 100 m (Fig. S~~5~~6). Above the 100 m height, the mixing ratio of HONO decreased with increasing height, and the fluctuation in HONO was likely due to the interaction of different air masses. In contrast, the vertical profiles of NO_2 showed that NO_2 rapidly decreased

towards the ground, and a significant positive gradient was observed near the surface that was caused by several factors. Nocturnal NO_2 is produced by the reaction of O_3 with NO, which primarily occurs near the surface, resulting in a negative gradient in NO_2. However, this effect was counteracted by the dry deposition of NO_2, which by itself would result in a positive gradient (Stutz et al., 2004b). Additionally, the mixing ratio of NO_2 was also affected by local traffic emission sources, and a near-surface shallow inversion layer was formed on December 10th. All of these presumably led to a clearly positive gradient for the near-surface NO_2. In contrast to the vertical profiles measured on December 9th, a positive gradient observed in near-surface NO_2 on December 10th indicated that the shallow inversion layer affected the vertical distribution of HONO and NO_2 at night.

Although the surface layer was a common feature in the potential temperature profiles, it was absent during E3, and the NBL extended downward to the lowest measurement height (8 m above the ground). As shown in Fig. 5, the vertical profile of HONO showed a significant negative gradient as the container ascended during 22:35–23:00, and higher HONO mixing ratio was observed at ground level. With the development of the boundary layer, the negative gradient of HONO continued to decrease from ~~6.91 ± 0.33~~ 6.92 ± 0.36 ppt m^{-1} during 22:35–23:00 to ~~1.79 ± 0.28~~ 1.98 ± 0.28 ppt m^{-1} during 00:45–01:09 and even disappeared between 00:00 and 00:26. Moreover, the consistent HONO/NO_2 ratios (~5.6% ± 0.3%) were observed throughout the depth of the NBL between 23 and 01 h (Fig. S~~6~~7). A near-steady state plateau of the HONO mixing ratio and HONO/NO_2 was established near midnight with the NBL. Similar vertical measurements were reported by VandenBoer et al (2013), who also observed a near-steady state in the HONO mixing ratio and HONO/NO_2, and an approximate balance between the production and loss of HONO late in the night. A possible physical and chemical process, the loss of HONO to the ground surface due to dry deposition could account for the buildup and near-steady state observed in the HONO mixing ratio and HONO/NO_2. This implied that significant quantities of HONO were deposited to the ground surface at night.

The utility of the ~~orthogonal~~ linear least squares regression slope of HONO to altitude to estimate the vertical gradient of HONO at night implies that the potential nocturnal HONO production from the heterogeneous reaction of NO_2 on aerosol surface. A positive gradient of HONO (~~0.23 ± 0.36~~ 0.24 ± 0.39) between 00:00 and 00:26 was observed during E3. The aerosol surface area (S_{aw}) in the residual layer was greater than 1500 μm^2 cm^{-3} throughout the night (range: 1592-2655 μm^2 cm^{-3}). The S_{aw} was 2314 μm^2 cm^{-3} from 22 to 01 h on December 11th and reached a maximum of 2569 μm^2 cm^{-3} in the

residual layer. These aerosol surface areas are a factor of 14-38 greater than that observed in previous studies of HONO vertical gradient, which ranged between 60 and 158 μm^2 cm^{-3} (Kleffmann et al., 2003; VandenBoer et al., 2013). Such high aerosol surface areas may provide a sufficient surface for the heterogeneous reaction. The vertical profiles also showed an enhanced HONO/NO_2 ratios from C2 to E3 (Fig. S~~7~~8). Moreover, a relatively constant HONO mixing ratio and HONO/NO_2 ratio above 160 m were observed from 22:35 to 01:09 during E3. Both of these observations are indicative of a potential aerosol surface source of HONO aloft during the haze episode. Assuming that aerosol surface production dominated the observed HONO mixing ratio in the overlying air during the haze episode, the mixing ratios of HONO and NO_2 observed at 240 m and the aerosol surface area measured at 260 m were parameterized to estimate the nocturnal production of HONO on aerosol surface, which is explored in more detail in section 3.4.2.

3.3 Direct emissions

In the present study, the measurement site was surrounded by several main roads, and thus might have been affected by vehicle emissions. CO and NO, as the primary pollutants, are emitted from combustion processes like the burning of fossil fuels as well as vehicle emissions (Sun et al., 2014; Tong et al., 2016; Bond et al., 2013). BC is another primary pollutant typically emitted from diesel engines and residential solid fuels (Zhang et al., 2018). Good correlations of the nocturnal HONO with CO (R^2=0.85), NO (R^2=0.76) and BC (R^2=0.84) at ground level were observed (Fig. S~~8~~9), indicating the potential effect of direct emissions on the observed HONO at night. The emission ratio of HONO/NO_x have been determined from tunnel measurements in California (Kirchstetter et al., 1996), Germany (Kurtenbach et al., 2001), and Hong Kong (Laing et al., 2017). However, considering the differences in the type of vehicles, fuel compositions, and other factors, the reported emission factor of HONO/NO_x might not be representative for the Beijing region. To evaluate the influence of direct emissions, the local emission factor of HONO was derived from ambient measurements. Since NO was not measured at ground level after December 10th, the nighttime measurement data of HONO and NO_x from November 9th to December 10th were used to evaluate the local HONO emission factor.

Considering the potential secondary HONO formation with air mass aging during the transport process, five criteria were applied to ensure as much of the freshly emitted air masses as possible: (a) only nighttime data (from 18:00 LT to next 6:00 LT) were included to avoid the fast photolysis of

HONO; (b) only sharp peaks during nighttime and the elevations of HONO and NO_x over the background levels were estimated; (c) $\Delta NO/\Delta NO_x > 0.80$; (d) good correlation between HONO and NO_x; (e) short duration of the plume (< 30 min). The typical nighttime wind speed at measurement site was 1.2 m s^{-1}, thus the duration for fresh air masses should have been less than 30 min during transport from the emission to the measurement site. Criteria (b) and (c) were used as indicators for identifying fresh vehicular emissions. Criteria (d) and (e) further confirmed that the increase in HONO was primarily caused by freshly emitted plumes instead of heterogeneous reactions of NO_2.

Figure 6 shows two emission plumes observed on December 9th to 10th, 2016 based on the preceding selection criteria. The slopes of HONO to NO_x can be considered as the emission ratios (Rappenglück et al., 2013). The HONO/NO_x emission ratios were estimated for the 11 fresh emission plumes that satisfied the preceding criteria (see Table 3). The derived emission factors of 0.78%–1.73% had an average value of 1.28% ± 0.36%, which was larger than the 0.53%–0.8% measured in the tunnel in Wuppertal (Kurtenbach et al., 2001). The minimum ratio of 0.78% approximated the value (0.8%) measured in Wuppertal. It is worth mentioning that the value of 0.8% is widely used as the upper limit of the HONO/NO_x emission ratio from road traffic in interpreting field observations and modeling HONO emissions (Stutz et al., 2002; Su et al., 2008a; Tong et al., 2016). The maximum ratio of 1.73% in this study is comparable to the value of 1.7% in Houston, Texas, observed by Rappenglück et al. (2013). The derived emission ratios were within the range of other published results (0.19%–2.1%) (Kirchstetter et al., 1996; Kurtenbach et al., 2001; Su et al., 2008a; Rappengluck et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2015; Liang et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018; Li et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2019). Comparisons of the derived HONO/NO_x ratios with the results obtained previously are summarized in Table S2. To minimize the risk of overestimating the direct emissions, the minimum HONO/NO_x ratio was used as an upper limit for the emission factor (Su et al., 2008a). The minimum HONO/NO_x ratio of 0.78% was used to evaluate the contribution of vehicle emissions to the ambient HONO levels at night (Eq. (3)). In this case, the risk of overestimating direct emissions was minimized, but there was still the effect of potential secondary HONO formation.

$$[HONO]_{emis} = 0.0078 \times [NO_x] \quad (3)$$

where $[HONO]_{emis}$ and $[NO_x]$ are the HONO mixing ratios from vehicle emissions and the observed NO_x mixing ratios, respectively. The direct emissions contributed an average of 29.3% ± 12.4% to the ambient HONO concentrations at night, with an average $HONO_{emis}$/HONO value of 35.9% ± 11.8%

during the clean episode and an average $HONO_{emis}$/HONO value of 26% ± 11.3% during the haze episode. The frequency distribution of $HONO_{emis}$/HONO during the clean and the haze episodes are shown in Fig. 7. The lower vehicle emissions contribution during the haze episode could have been caused by an odd-even car ban, which required alternate driving days for cars with even- and odd-numbered license plates.

3.4 Nocturnal HONO chemistry

3.4.1 Correlation studies

The heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 is an important pathway for HONO formation during the nighttime, as many field observations have found a good correlation between HONO and NO_2 (Zhou et al., 2006; Su et al., 2008a; Wang et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2017). However, the use of a correlation analysis to interpret the heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 should be treated carefully, as physical transport and source emissions also contribute to the correlation. In this study, the correlations of vertical profiles between HONO and NO_2 were analyzed. Vertical profile data without horizontal transport were used to avoid the influence of physical transport. As shown in Fig. 8, the linear least squares regression correlations of HONO to NO_2 exhibited moderate but significant correlations (C2: R^2 = 0.72, E3: R^2 = 0.69), supporting that NO_2 participated in the formation of HONO. The column of HONO and NO_2 showed a significantly positive correlation during the haze episode. However, the negative correlation between HONO and NO_2 was observed at ground level during the haze episode (Fig. S~~9~~10), which was also observed in the previous ground-based observations (Hou et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). The observed significant correlation between the HONO column and NO_2 column could be due to: (1) emissions and vertical mixing of HONO and NO_2, and (2) a possible heterogeneous reaction of NO_2 on aerosol surface.

Adsorbed water on a surface has been shown to affect the heterogeneous formation of HONO (Stutz et al., 2004a). The relationship between HONO/NO_2 and RH is illustrated in Fig. 9. Following the method introduced by Stutz et al (2004a), the average of the five highest HONO/NO_2 values in each 10% RH interval was evaluated to eliminate much of the influence of factors like the time of night, advection, the surface density, etc. An increase in the HONO/NO_2 ratio along with RH was observed at each height interval when the RH was less than 70%. A previous observation at ground level also reported that the HONO/NO_2 ratio increased with an increase in RH when the RH was less than 70%. A

442 further increase in RH would lead to a decrease in the HONO/NO_2 ratio, which was considered to be
443 caused by the number of water monolayers that formed on the surface leading to an efficient uptake of
444 HONO (Li et al., 2012; Yu et al., 2009; Liu et al., 2019). However, a decreased uptake coefficient of
445 HONO with increasing RH from 0% to 80% was observed in a laboratory study (Donaldson et al.,
446 2014). The NO_2 to HONO conversion efficiency depended negatively on RH at an RH above 70%,
447 which was presumably caused by the relative humidity affecting both HONO uptake onto the surface
448 and the NO_2-to-HONO conversion. A decrease in the HONO/NO_2 ratio with an increase in height at a
449 similar RH level were observed during C2 and E3. A higher conversion efficiency of NO_2 to HONO
450 was observed near the surface, and the HONO/NO_2 ratios at different heights were significantly
451 different during C2. However, this differences decreased, and similar HONO/NO_2 ratios were observed
452 at different heights during E3. This observation implied a possible heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 on
453 aerosol surface in the overlying air. It is necessary to note that the limited vertical measurements
454 resulted in a limited variation range in the RH, which limits this analysis. Additional efforts are needed
455 to conduct more comprehensive vertical measurements to interpret the HONO/NO_2 ratios versus RH
456 for different heights in the future.

457 **3.4.2 Relative importance of aerosol and ground surfaces in nocturnal HONO production**

458 The observed positive HONO gradient implied a potential heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 on
459 aerosol surface. The aerosol surface area observed during the haze episode was an order of magnitude
460 higher than in other studies of HONO vertical gradient (Kleffmann et al., 2003; VandenBoer et al.,
461 2013), which presumably provided sufficient aerosol surface area to account for the observed nighttime
462 HONO production (Liu et al., 2019). The surface area information for particles larger than 0.5 μm were
463 not valid at ground level and 260 m during the measurement periods. Hence, this is a lower limit
464 estimate of the total surface area for the heterogeneous reaction.

465 An estimate of the nocturnal HONO production on aerosol surface was made using the RH
466 corrected aerosol surface area (S_{aw}) and NO_2 observations from the residual layer. The CO and BC
467 measured at ground level were independent of the CO and BC observed at 260 m during the haze
468 period (Fig. S~~10~~11), since it can be expected that air masses in the residual layer were decoupled from
469 the ground-level processes and largely free of NO_2 emissions. (Brown et al., 2012; VandenBoer et al.,
470 2013). The HONO production from the heterogeneous NO_2 conversion (Reaction R1) on aerosol

surface would then have become the primary HONO source in the residual layer during E3. ~~The yield of the hydrolysis reaction assumes that HONO and HNO_3 are formed by equimolar disproportionation of two NO_2 molecules and immediately release HONO (Finlayson-Pitts et al., 2003; Finlayson-Pitts, 2009).~~ The reactive uptake of NO_2 by the aerosols was assumed to occur on all measured aerosol surface areas, regardless of their chemical composition. HONO production (*P(HONO)*) can then be expressed using the equation of Ye et al. (2018) modified to account for the disproportionation:

$$\frac{P(HONO)}{[NO_2]} = \frac{1}{8} \times S_{aw} \times \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M}} \times \gamma_{NO_2} \quad (4)$$

where γ_{NO_2} is the uptake coefficient, *R* is the gas constant, *T* is the absolute temperature (K), *M* is the molecular mass of NO_2 (M=4.6×10^{-2} kg mol^{-1}), and S_{aw} is the RH corrected aerosol surface area (μm^2 cm^{-3}). The NO_2-normalized HONO production over time, $\Delta\frac{[HONO]}{[NO_2]}/\Delta t$, can be calculated using the following Eq. (5):

$$\Delta\frac{[HONO]}{[NO_2]}/\Delta t \sim \frac{1}{8} \times S_{aw} \times \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M}} \times \gamma_{NO_2} \quad (5)$$

Assume an NO_2 uptake coefficient of 1×10^{-5} to 1×10^{-6} in the dark, which fits the NO_2 uptake coefficient values observed in relevant studies (J.Kleffmanna et al., 1998; Kurtenbach et al., 2001; Saastad et al., 1993; Bröske et al., 2003). A representative temperature of 273 K, and an average observed S_{aw} of 2314 μm^2 cm^{-3} in the residual layer between 22 and 01 h during E3 were used. A relative HONO accumulation rate of $\Delta\frac{[HONO]}{[NO_2]}/\Delta t$ ranged between 0.00037 and 0.0037 h^{-1}, equivalent to the HONO production of 0.02 to 0.20 ppb h^{-1} at a constant NO_2 concentration of ~~54~~ 52.88 ppb, which was the average value ~~upper limit~~ of the ~~observed~~ nocturnal NO_2 observed in the residual layer during E3. ~~The produced HONO amount of 30–300 ppt in an interval of 1.5 h could account for the HONO increases of 15–368 ppt in the residual layer between the two vertical profile measurements.~~ The absolute amount produced of HONO in an interval of 1.5 h (30–300 ppt) could account for the observed increases of HONO (15–368 ppt) in the residual layer between vertical profile measurements on December 11th (time interval: 1.5 h). Thus, production from the heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 ~~solely~~ on aerosol surface can explain the HONO observations during E3. In addition, if the HONO production aloft was indeed dominated by reactions on aerosol surface, the column average concentration of HONO would be expected to be independent of the amount of HONO observed at ground level. Figure 10a shows that the column of HONO is independent of the mixing ratio of HONO

observed from the ground level to 10 m in height (R^2 = 0.27), which is consistent with the hypothesis that the aerosol surface ~~presumably~~ dominates HONO production aloft by heterogeneous uptake of NO_2 during the haze episode, and the production of HONO at ground level and direct HONO emissions ~~is not transported to~~ into the overlying air are minor contributors. This result was contrary to previous observations that the production of HONO on aerosol surface was insignificant compared to the ground surface (Kleffmann et al., 2003; Wong et al., 2011; VandenBoer et al., 2013), which could have been due to the higher aerosol surface area observed in this study. An order of magnitude higher aerosol surface area in the residual layer than in previous vertical observations (<160 $\mu m^2\ cm^{-3}$) was observed, which could provide sufficient aerosol surface area for the heterogeneous formation of HONO. However, the limited vertical profile dataset limits a comprehensive investigation of HONO formation in Beijing, yet provides a data basis and research direction.

An estimate of HONO production from the heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 on aerosols was also made during C2 using S_{aw} and NO_2 observations from the residual layer. The column of the average HONO concentration was related to the amount of HONO observed between ground level and 10 m (Fig. 10b, R^2 = 0.93), suggesting that the surface HONO sources affected the HONO observed throughout the depth of boundary layer during C2. A high correlation (R^2 = 0.83) between the measured CO and BC at ground level and the CO and BC at 260 m was also observed (Fig. S10), which indicated that vehicle emissions affected air masses in the residual layer. The lack of the NO vertical profile cannot directly correct the influence of direct HONO emissions. If it is assumed that the contribution of direct HONO emissions was consistent at ground level and in the residual layer, the relative contribution of the aerosol and ground surfaces to nocturnal HONO production in the residual layer could be roughly estimated during C2. The direct emissions contribution of 35.9% ± 11.8% during C2 is a higher limit estimate of the contribution of direct emissions to the HONO levels in the residual layer.

The averages S_{aw} of 791 and 894 $\mu m^2\ cm^{-3}$ from 17 to 24 h, and ~~an upper limit of~~ the average NO_2 mixing ratio ~~observations~~ of ~~36~~ 34.67 and ~~44~~ 42.40 ppb from the residual layer were used to estimate HONO production on aerosol surface on December 9th and 10th. The formation rates of HONO on aerosol surface were ~~0.0047–0.047~~ 0.0045–0.045 ppb h^{-1} on the 9th and ~~0.0062–0.062~~ 0.0059–0.059 ppb h^{-1} on the 10th. The observed HONO increased by 305–608 ppt between vertical profile measurements (time interval: 5.5 h), which have the contributions from direct HONO emissions

529 subtracted, were higher than the production of HONO (~~26–259~~ 25–248 ppt) in ~~the~~ an interval of 5.5 h
530 on December 9th. The formation of HONO on aerosol surface cannot explain the observed HONO
531 increases in the residual layer, which suggests that the HONO observed in the residual layer was
532 primarily derived from the heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 on the ground surface followed by
533 vertical transport throughout the column. The aerosol production of HONO could account for up to
534 about 40% of HONO observations in the residual layer. The HONO production from the aerosol
535 surface in ~~the~~ an interval of 5.35 h was ~~33–332~~ 32–316 ppt ~~in the residual layer~~ on December 10th,
536 which was comparable to the corrected HONO increases of 114–369 ppt observed between vertical
537 profile measurements (time interval: 5.35 h). A shallow inversion layer formed near the surface could
538 account for the aerosol~~s~~ surfaces play a heterogeneous reaction surface ~~presumably dominated HONO~~
539 ~~production~~ in the residual layer.~~, and this could have been due to the following: (1) the inhibition of~~
540 ~~vertical transport of nighttime HONO source at ground level, and/or (2) an overestimation of the~~
541 ~~contribution from direct HONO emissions to HONO concentrations in the residual layer.~~

542 In conclusion, HONO production solely on aerosol surface accounted for the HONO observations
543 during E3. The ground surface dominated HONO production by heterogeneous conversion of NO_2
544 during the clean episode, which was then transported throughout the column. With the increases in the
545 NO_2 mixing ratio and aerosol surface areas from the clean episode to the haze episode, the aerosol
546 surface production became an important nocturnal source of HONO and ~~presumably~~ dominated the
547 heterogeneous production of HONO aloft from NO_2 during the haze episode.

548 **3.4.3 Nocturnal HONO production and loss at ground level**

549 The nocturnal HONO observed throughout the depth of the boundary layer is primarily from the
550 heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 on the ground surface during ~~the~~ clean episodes. The HONO
551 conversion frequency can be estimated using the data from the nocturnal measurements at ground level
552 (18:00–06:00 LT). The heterogeneous formation of HONO in reaction (R2) is first order in NO_2, and
553 the HONO formation is proportional to the NO_2 concentration. The conversion frequency was derived
554 using the method proposed by Alicke et al. (2002). The emission ratio of HONO/NO_x derived in
555 section 3.3 was used to correct the HONO concentration by Eq. (6). Because NO was not measured at
556 ground level after 14:00 on December 10th, the NO_x data was not available during the nocturnal vertical
557 measurements on December 10th and 11th. The average $HONO_{emis}$/HONO ratio of 35.9% ± 11.8% and

26% ± 11.3% were used to correct the observed HONO concentrations (i.e. $[HONO]_{corr} = [HONO] - [HONO]_{emis}$) during the clean and the haze episodes after December 10th, respectively. The NO_2-to-HONO conversion frequency, k_{HONO}, can be calculated using Eq. (7), by assuming that observed HONO comes from the conversion of NO_2 (Su et al., 2008a).

$$[HONO]_{corr} = [HONO] - [NO_x] \times 0.0078 \quad (6)$$

$$k_{HONO} = \frac{[HONO_{corr}]_{t_2} - [HONO_{corr}]_{t_1}}{(t_2 - t_1)[\overline{NO_2}]} \quad (7)$$

where $[\overline{NO_2}]$ is the average NO_2 mixing ratio during the time interval of $t_2 - t_1$. The conversion frequencies, k_{HONO}, on December 9th, 10th, and 11th were 0.0082, 0.0060 and 0.0114 h^{-1}, respectively, corresponding to a HONO production rate by NO_2 (P_{NO_2}) of 0.25 ± 0.03, 0.28 ± 0.02, and 0.60 ± 0.02 ppb h^{-1} (i.e. $C_{HONO} \times [\overline{NO_2}]$), respectively. It is necessary to elaborate that the derived P_{NO_2} is the net HONO production, which means sources and sinks of HONO (aerosol and ground surface sources, deposition, etc.) have already been taken into account in the P_{NO_2}. The HONO conversion frequency obtained in this study is comparable to the observations by Hou et al. (2016) (clean episode: 0.0065 h^{-1}, haze episode: 0.0039 h^{-1}) and Zhang et al. (2018) in the Beijing region (haze episode: 0.058 h^{-1}~~, severe haze episode: 0.0146 h^{-1}~~)~~,~~. However, they are lower than the observations made by Zhang et al. (2018) during the severe haze episode in Beijing (0.0146 h^{-1}), Li et al. (2012) (0.024 ± 0.015 h^{-1}) and Su et al. (2008b) (0.016 ± 0.014 h^{-1}) at a rural site in southern China.

It was assumed that production of HONO on aerosol surface was insignificant compared to the ground surface during the clean episode, which has been suggested in other studies of HONO vertical gradient (VandenBoer et al., 2013; Wong et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2009). Therefore, the HONO production (P_{NO_2}) could be considered as a net contribution of the surface production of HONO to the total column of HONO when HONO deposition is considered in P_{NO_2}. The surface production rate of HONO of 0.25 ± 0.03 and 0.28 ± 0.02 ppb h^{-1} were an order of magnitude higher than the maximum production rate of HONO on aerosol surface (0.047 and 0.062 ppb h^{-1}) on December 9th and 10th. This result suggests that ground surface dominated HONO production by heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 during the clean episode. In contrast, the production of HONO solely on aerosol surface can explain the HONO observations in the residual layer during E3, indicating that the aerosol surface production was ~~an important nocturnal source of HONO during the haze episodes~~ an active HONO production mechanism during haze episodes. The derived P_{NO_2} is the total HONO production rate of the aerosol

and ground surfaces by heterogeneous conversion of NO_2. To compare the HONO heterogeneous production on aerosol and ground surfaces, a deposition velocity of NO_2 to the surface in the dark, V_{dep,NO_2} of 0.07 cm s^{-1} (VandenBoer et al., 2013), in a boundary layer of height, *h* of 140 m, was used to estimate the HONO production rate by NO_2 on the ground surface. The nocturnal production of HONO by heterogeneous uptake of NO_2 on ground surface can be estimated by the following,

$$P_{HONO,ground} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{V_{dep,NO_2}}{h}\overline{[NO_2]} \quad (8)$$

The surface production rate of HONO ($P_{HONO,ground}$) was 0.47 ± 0.02 ppb h^{-1} on December 11th (E3), which was comparable to the HONO production rate on aerosol surface of 0.02–0.2 (0.11 ± 0.09) ppb h^{-1}. This result also suggests that the production of HONO on aerosols is an important nocturnal source of HONO during ~~the~~ haze episodes. The higher production rates of HONO on the ground surfaces were consistent with the fact that the ground had a much greater surface area than the aerosol (i.e, the ground surface area was 7140 μm^2 cm^{-3} in a 140 m deep NBL, versus the average S_{aw} of 2255 μm^2 cm^{-3} during E3). However, the vertical transport of the surface production of HONO throughout the column was likely inhibited during E3. The column average concentration of HONO was independent of the mixing ratio of HONO observed between ground level and 10 m (Fig. 10a), which may have been due to a more stable nocturnal boundary layer structure during the haze episode.

A budget equation of nighttime HONO (Eq. 9) was utilized to separate the contributions of the individual chemical processes involved in the nocturnal production and loss of HONO (Su et al., 2008b; Oswald et al., 2015).

$$\frac{d[HONO]}{dt} = P_{emis} + P_{aerosol} + P_{ground} + P_A - L_{dep} \pm T_h \pm T_v \quad (9)$$

The production terms of the HONO consist of the direct emission rate (P_{emis}); the heterogeneous production rate on aerosol ($P_{aerosol}$) and ground surfaces (P_{ground}); and the additional nighttime HONO source/sink (P_A). The loss process (L_{dep}) is the dry deposition rate at nighttime. T_h and T_v describe the horizontal and vertical transport processes, respectively. The horizontal transport, T_h, is negligible in a relative calm atmosphere with low wind speeds (<1.6 m s^{-1}) during vertical measurements. The vertical transport, T_v, acts as a sink close to the surface and as an additional source at elevated levels. However, it is difficult to quantify T_v without direct measurements of fluxes or using the chemical transport model, and its contribution is uncertain. Without explicitly considering T_v, the budget analysis is reasonable for relatively well-mixed conditions. Thus, the budget analysis is used

for the measurements conducted on December 9th and 10th, when no shallow inversion layer was observed near the surface.

Simplifying Eq. (9), the $dHONO/dt$ was approximated by $\Delta HONO/\Delta t$, which is the difference in the observed HONO mixing ratios at two time points. An additional nocturnal production rate term (P_A) can be derived by Eq. (10). The emission ratio of HONO/NO_x (0.78%) and $HONO_{emis}$/HONO ratio (26% ± 11.3%) obtained in section 3.3 were used to estimate P_{emis}. The nocturnal production of HONO via NO_2 on aerosol and ground surfaces, and the production rate terms of $P_{aerosol}$ and P_{ground} in Eq. (4) and (8) were used as representations of the nocturnal production of HONO in Eq. (10). Here, with an overall consideration of uptake coefficient of γ_{NO_2} used in the literature, ~~An upper limit uptake coefficient of~~ the γ_{NO_2} ~~(1×10^{-5})~~ was assumed to be 5×10^{-6} to estimate the HONO production rate on aerosol surface. For L_{dep}, the temperature-dependent deposition velocity of HONO ($V(HONO)_T = \exp(23920/T - 91.5)$) was used to estimate the $V_{dep,HONO}$, which decreased exponentially to non-significant values at 40 °C (Laufs et al., 2017). The average $V_{dep,HONO}$ calculated from the nocturnal measurements (00:00–06:00 LT) was 1.8 cm s^{-1}, with a range of values spanning 0.9 to 3 cm s^{-1}, which was within the range of previously reported values between 0.077 and 3 cm s^{-1} (Harrison and Kitto, 1994; Harrison et al., 1996; Spindler et al., 1998; Stutz et al., 2002; Coe and Gallagher, 1992; Laufs et al., 2017).

$$\frac{\Delta HONO}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{V_{dep,NO_2}}{h}[NO_2] + \frac{1}{8}S_{aw}C_{NO_2}\gamma_{NO_2}[NO_2] + \frac{\Delta HONO_{emis}}{\Delta t} + P_A - \frac{V_{dep,HONO}}{h}[HONO] \quad (10)$$

Figure 11 shows the nocturnal HONO budgets from 18:00 to 06:00 LT on the 9th (C2) and 11th (E3) of December. The production rate of HONO on aerosol surface (~~0.04 ± 0.01~~ 0.02 ± 0.01 ppb h^{-1}) was insignificant compared to the ground surface (0.28 ± 0.03 ppb h^{-1}) during C2. However, an average $P_{aerosol}$ of ~~0.19 ± 0.01~~ 0.10 ± 0.01 ppb h^{-1} derived during E3 was comparable to the surface production rate of HONO (P_{ground}, 0.47 ± 0.03 ppb h^{-1}), contributing about 20% of the production of HONO, ~~which supported~~ supporting the preceding result that HONO production on aerosols was an important nocturnal source of HONO during the haze episode. For the source of direct HONO emissions, P_{emis} ~~only~~ just provided a ~~small portion~~ part of the HONO at a rate of 0.06 ± 0.07 and 0.10 ± 0.10 ppb h^{-1}. The loss of HONO due to surface deposition was the dominant sink for HONO during nighttime. The L_{dep} contributed 0.74 ± 0.31 and 1.55 ± 0.32 ppb h^{-1} to the nocturnal loss of HONO during C2 and E3, respectively, implying that significant amounts of HONO were deposited to the ground surface at night.

This had been suggested in another study on the vertical gradient of HONO (VandenBoer et al., 2013).

4 Conclusions

High-resolution vertical profiles of HONO and NO_2 were measured using an IBBCEAS instrument during the APHH-Beijing winter campaign. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first high-resolution vertical measurements of HONO and NO_2 in urban areas of China. The HONO concentrations observed during E1, C2, and E3 were 4.26 ± 2.08, ~~0.83 ± 0.65~~ 0.90 ± 0.65, and 3.54 ± 0.91 ppb, respectively. A relatively well-mixed boundary layer was observed after sunset, and the vertical distribution of HONO was consistent with reduced mixing and stratification in the lower several hundred meters of the nocturnal urban atmosphere. The small-scale stratification of the nocturnal atmosphere and the formation of a shallow inversion layer affected the vertical distribution of HONO and NO_2. A near-steady state in HONO mixing ratio and HONO/NO_2 ratio was observed near midnight on December 11th to 12th, and an approximate balance was established between the production and loss of HONO.

Direct HONO emissions contributed an average of 29.3% ± 12.4% to the ambient HONO levels at night. High-resolution vertical profiles of HONO revealed (1) the ground surface dominated HONO production by heterogeneous conversion of NO_2 during ~~the~~ clean episodes, (2) the production ~~solely~~ of HONO on aerosol~~s~~ surface explained the HONO observations in the residual layer during E3, suggesting that the aerosol~~s~~ production was an important nighttime HONO source during ~~the~~ haze episodes. The column average HONO concentration was irrelevant to the HONO observed between the ground level and 10 m during E3, implying that the aerosols ~~presumably~~ dominate~~d~~ the heterogeneous production of HONO aloft from NO_2 during ~~the~~ haze episodes, while the surface production of HONO and direct emissions into the overlying air are minor contributors. Average dry deposition rates of 0.74 ± 0.31 and 1.55 ± 0.32 ppb h^{-1} were identified during the clean and haze episodes, respectively, implying that significant amounts of HONO were deposited to the ground surface at night. Overall, these results draw a picture of the nocturnal sources of HONO during different pollution levels, and demonstrated the urgent need for high-resolution vertical measurements of HONO to a high height (e.g., using tethered balloons) and more comprehensive vertical observations to improve our understanding of the vertical distribution and chemistry of HONO in the PBL.

Data availability. The data used in this study are available from the corresponding author upon request (mqin@aiofm.ac.cn).

Supplement.

Author contributions. MQ and PX organized the field contributions from the Anhui Institute of Optics and Fine Mechanics group for the APHH-Beijing project. MQ and JD designed the study. WF and JD built the IBBCEAS instrument. JD and KT collected the HONO and NO_2 data. YS and CX provided the ancillary data. FM and MQ analyzed the data. FM wrote the paper and MQ revised it. The contributions of FM and MQ are the same for this paper.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Table

Table 1. Classification of the meteorological conditions and corresponding concentrations of NR-PM_1, NO_2 and HONO from December 7th to 12th.

Time period	Weather condition	NR-PM_1 ($\mu g \cdot m^{-3}$)	HONO (ppb)	NO_2 (ppb)	WS ($m \cdot s^{-1}$)	WD	*T* (°C)	RH (%)
7 Dec–8 Dec (10:00)	Haze (E1)	30–184	1.49–7.59	24.91–65.48	0.03–1.95	NW-ESE[a]	1.6–9.3	36–82
8 Dec (10:00)–11 Dec	Clean (C2)	3–97	~~0.05–3.75~~ 0.27–3.75	3.33–47.84	0.01–6.24	NE-NW	-2.4–9.1	16–53
11 Dec–12 Dec	Haze (E3)	69–217	1.54–5.51	38.58–66.57	0.02–1.81	NE-NW	-1.6–6.9	40–69

[a] NE: Northeast; ESE: East-southeast; NW: Northwest;

Table 2. The nocturnal gradient of HONO and NO_2 throughout the vertical measurements. The linear least squares regression slope and correlation coefficient of HONO and NO_2 to altitude identified in each vertical profile measurement.

~~Date~~	~~Time period (hh:mm, LT)~~	~~Gradient-HONO (ppt m^{-1})~~	~~R^2~~	~~Gradient-NO_2 (ppt m^{-1})~~	~~R^2~~
~~9/12/2016~~	~~22:42–23:06~~	~~-4.49 ± 0.31~~	~~0.90~~	~~-14.38 ± 1.62~~	~~0.77~~
~~9/12/2016~~	~~23:15–23:40~~	~~-4.35 ± 0.70~~	~~0.62~~	~~-16.54 ± 1.85~~	~~0.77~~
~~10/12/2016~~	~~22:36–23:01~~	~~-1.08 ± 0.49~~	~~0.15~~	~~-2.97 ± 1.53~~	~~0.11~~
~~10/12/2016~~	~~23:01–23:25~~	~~-3.61 ± 0.50~~	~~0.60~~	~~-7.59 ± 1.24~~	~~0.62~~
~~11/12/2016~~	~~22:35–23:00~~	~~-6.91 ± 0.33~~	~~0.95~~	~~-9.53 ± 1.01~~	~~0.79~~
~~11/12/2016~~	~~23:04–23:29~~	~~-0.03 ± 0.43~~	~~0.0003~~	~~-5.32 ± 0.80~~	~~0.67~~
~~12/12/2016~~	~~00:00–00:26~~	~~0.23 ± 0.36~~	~~0.02~~	~~-5.21 ± 0.79~~	~~0.65~~
~~12/12/2016~~	~~00:45–01:09~~	~~-1.79 ± 0.28~~	~~0.64~~	~~-5.28 ± 0.84~~	~~0.63~~

Date	Time period (hh:mm, LT)	Gradient-HONO (ppt m^{-1})	R^2	Gradient-NO_2 (ppt m^{-1})	R^2
9/12/2016	22:42–23:06	-4.56 ± 0.34	0.89	-16.41 ± 1.22	0.89
9/12/2016	23:15–23:40	-4.70 ± 0.73	0.65	-18.69 ± 1.50	0.87
10/12/2016	22:36–23:01	-0.45 ± 0.34	0.04	-2.22 ± 1.23	0.10
10/12/2016	23:01–23:25	-3.36 ± 0.52	0.65	-7.59 ± 1.24	0.62

11/12/2016	22:35–23:00	-6.92 ± 0.36	0.94	-10.52 ± 0.91	0.86
11/12/2016	23:04–23:29	-0.16 ± 0.46	0.006	-5.45 ± 0.87	0.63
12/12/2016	00:00–00:26	0.24 ± 0.39	0.02	-6.01 ± 0.69	0.77
12/12/2016	00:45–01:09	-1.98 ± 0.28	0.71	-5.70 ± 0.87	0.65

Table 3. Emission ratios (△HONO/△NO_x) of the fresh direct emission plumes.

Date	Local Time	R^2	△NO/△NO_x	△HONO/△NO_x (%)
15/11/2016	18:05–18:15	0.97	0.99	1.07
16/11/2016	20:50–21:10	0.83	0.96	0.92
24/11/2016	20:50–21:10	0.92	1.13	1.12
26/11/2019	02:10–02:40	0.94	0.94	1.31
26/11/2016	22:15–22:30	0.95	1.00	1.73
28/11/2019	04:40–04:55	0.87	0.85	0.78
29/11/2016	03:30–03:50	0.95	0.98	1.60
2/12/2016	23:40–23:55	0.95	1.01	1.67
7/12/2016	02:25–02:35	0.87	0.90	1.67
10/12/2016	01:00–01:25	0.84	0.95	1.43
10/12/2016	02:40–02:55	0.86	0.93	0.79

Figures

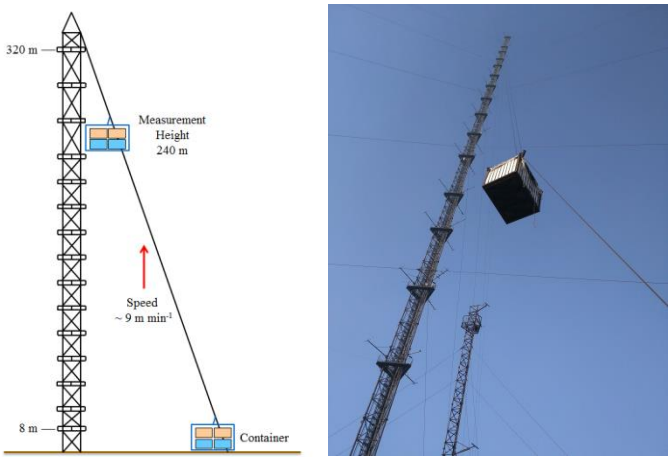
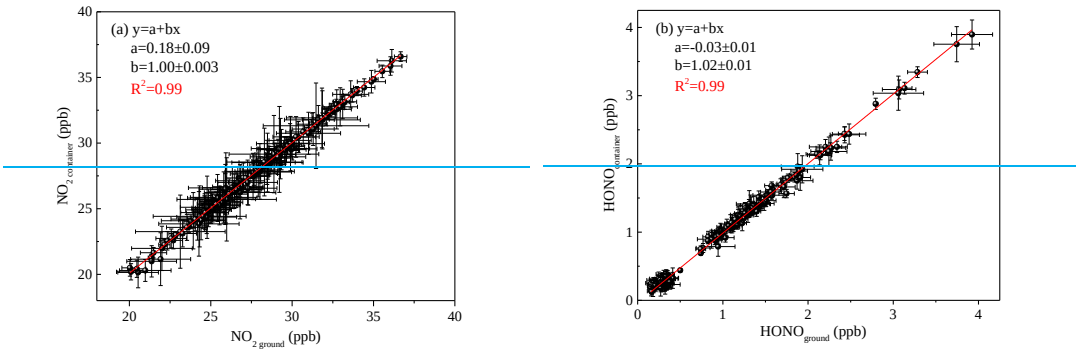


Figure 1. The Beijing 325-m meteorological tower (BMT) at the Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP).



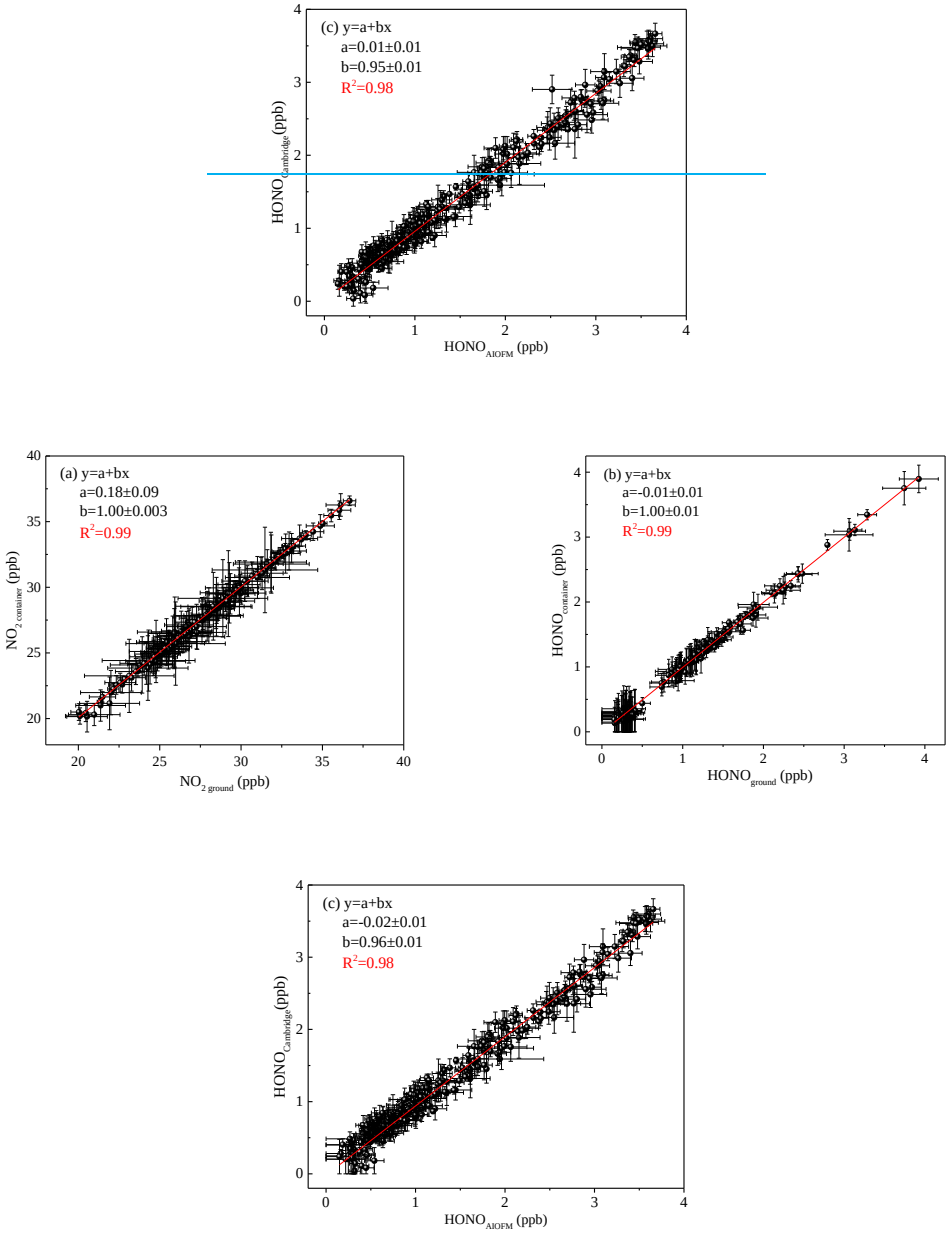
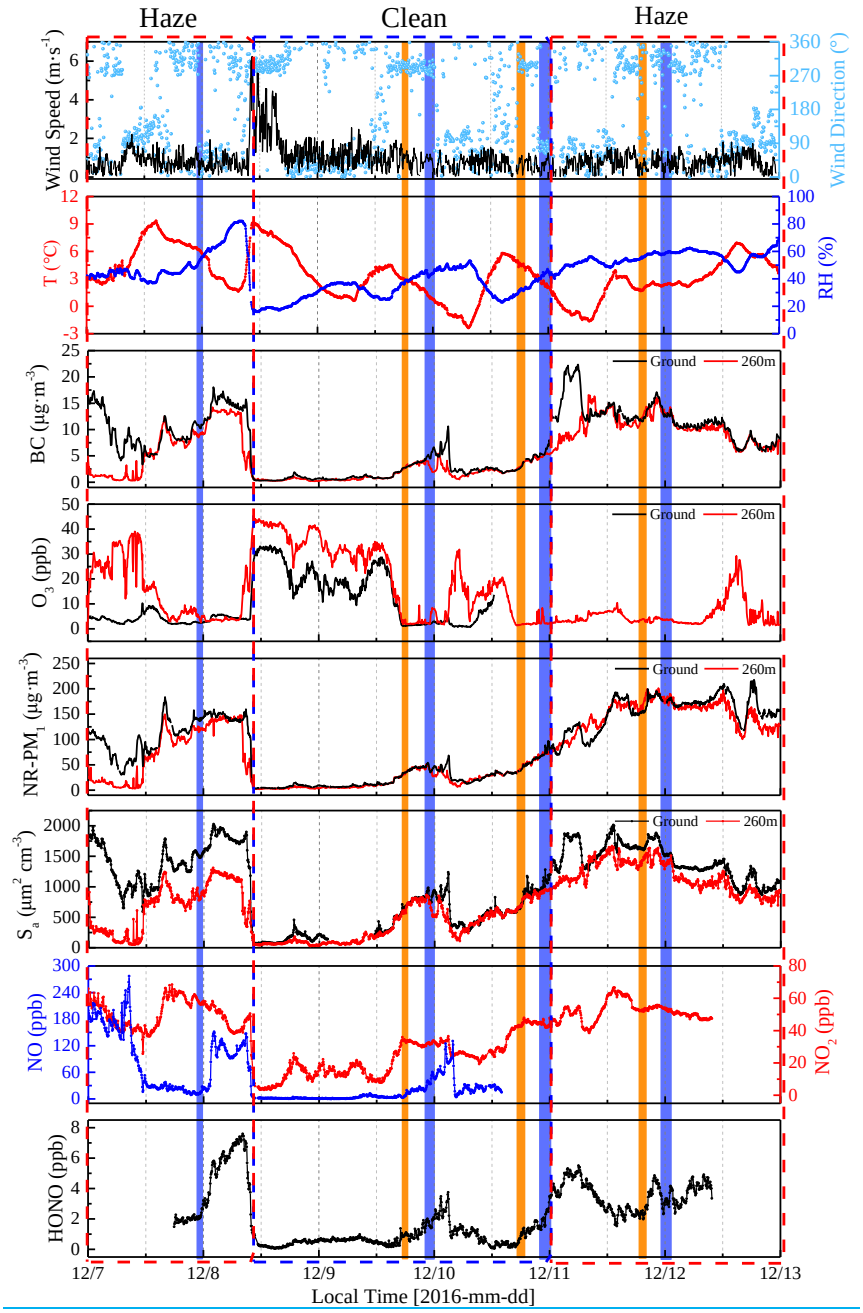


Figure 2. (a) Correlation of NO_2 concentration was measured using the two IBBCEAS instruments; (b) correlation of HONO concentration was measured using the two IBBCEAS instruments; (c) an inter-comparison between the IBBCEAS of Cambridge University and the IBBCEAS of the Anhui Institute of Optics and Fine Mechanics (AIOFM). The solid lines (red lines) show the orthogonal linear least squares regression between the two IBBCEAS instruments


Haze
Clean
Haze
Wind Speed (m·s-1)
Wind Direction (°)
T (°C)
RH (%)
BC (μg·m-3)
O3 (ppb)
NR-PM1 (μg·m-3)
Sa (μm2 cm-3)
NO (ppb)
NO2 (ppb)
HONO (ppb)
Ground
260m
12/7
12/8
12/9
12/10
12/11
12/12
12/13
Local Time [2016-mm-dd]

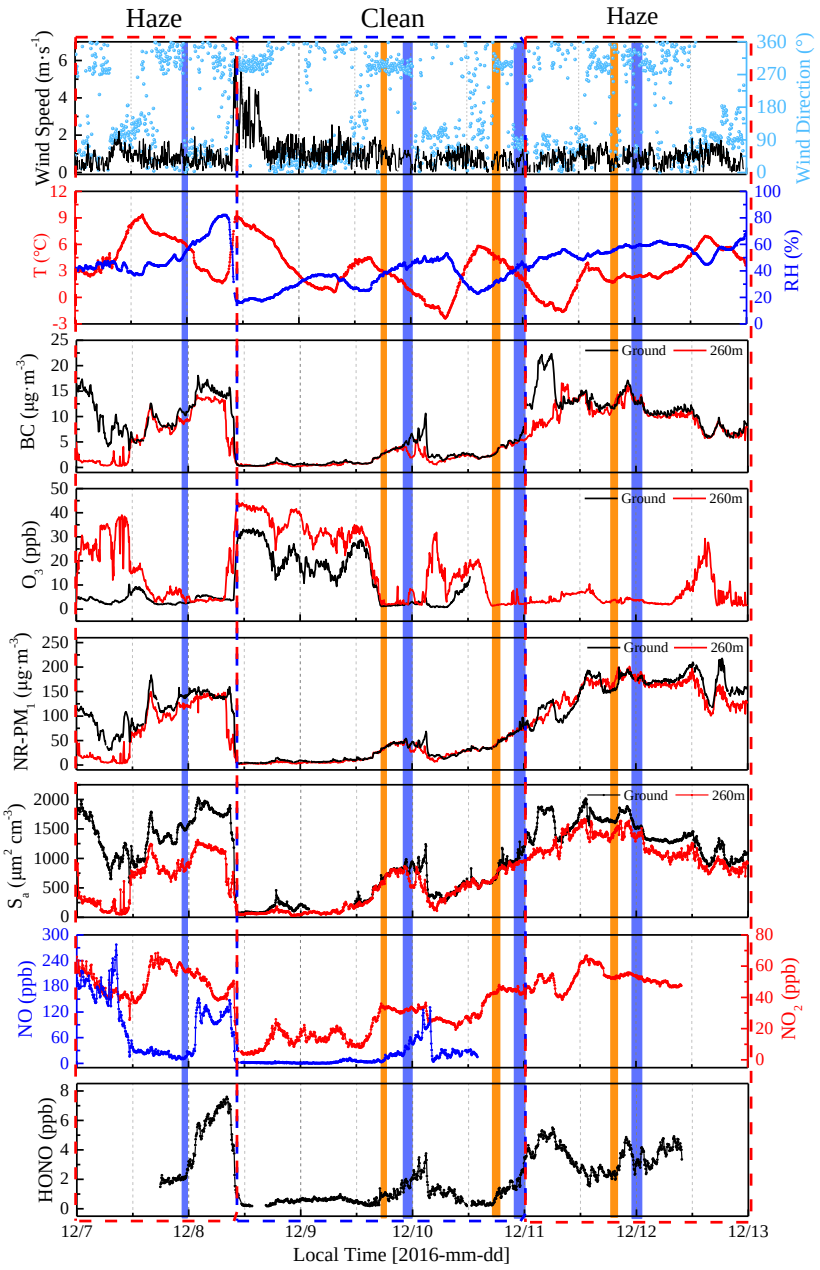


Figure 3. Time-series of wind speed (WS) and direction (WD), temperature (*T*), relative humidity (RH), BC, O_3, $NR\text{-}PM_1$, aerosol surface area (S_a), NO, NO_2, and HONO from December 7th to 12th 2016 at the IAP-Tower Division in Beijing, China. The shaded region represents the eight vertical measurements (Table S1). The orange shaded region represents the vertical measurements after sunset, and the violet shaded region represents the vertical measurements at night and midnight.

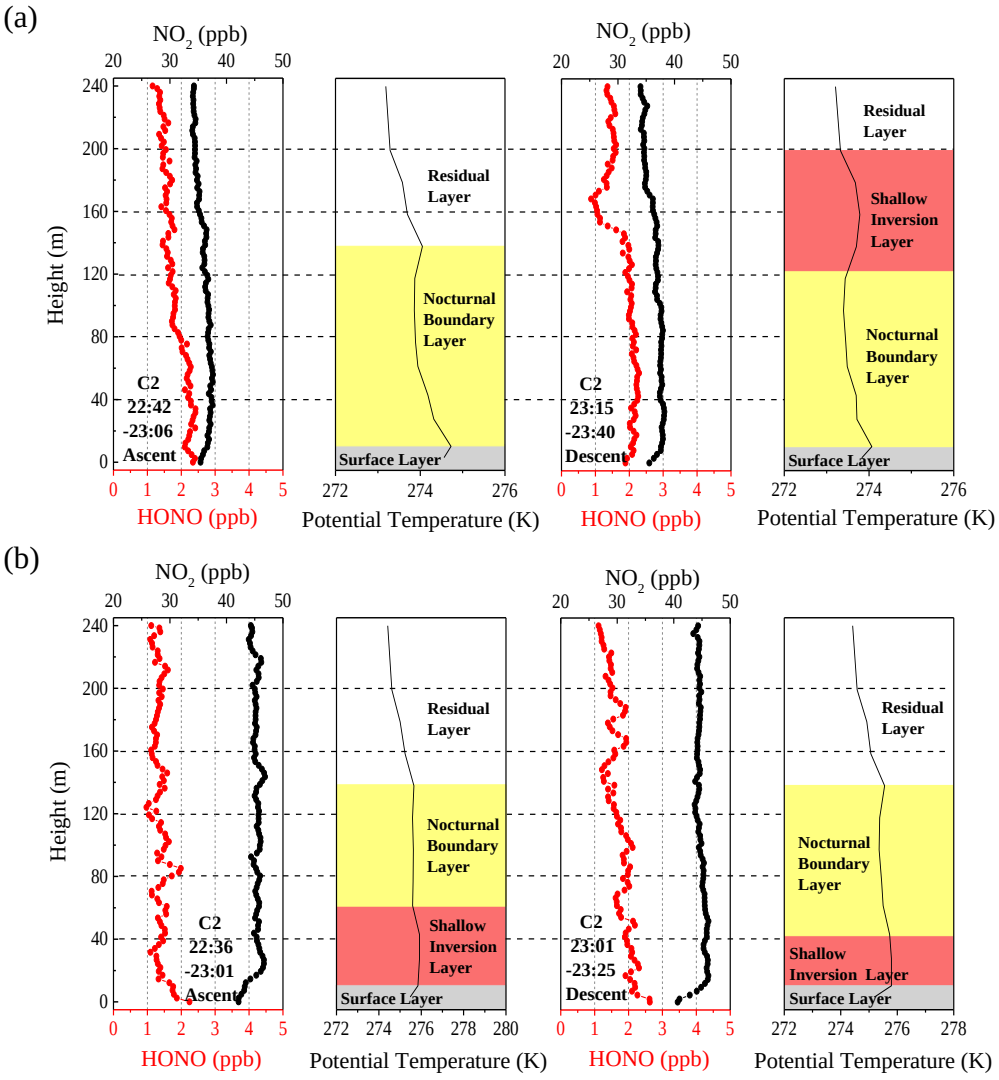


Figure 4. Nocturnal vertical profiles of HONO, NO_2, and the potential temperatures during the ascent and descent of the container on the (a) 9th and (b) 10th of December. The time in the figure corresponds to the measurement time of the vertical profile of the HONO and NO_2. The different colored shaded region indicates the nocturnal small-scale stratification (surface layer, nocturnal boundary layer, shallow inversion layer, and residual layer). The heights of the surface layer, the shallow inversion layer, the nocturnal boundary layer, and the residual layer are denoted by grey shaded regions, pink shaded regions, yellow shaded regions, and white shaded regions, respectively.

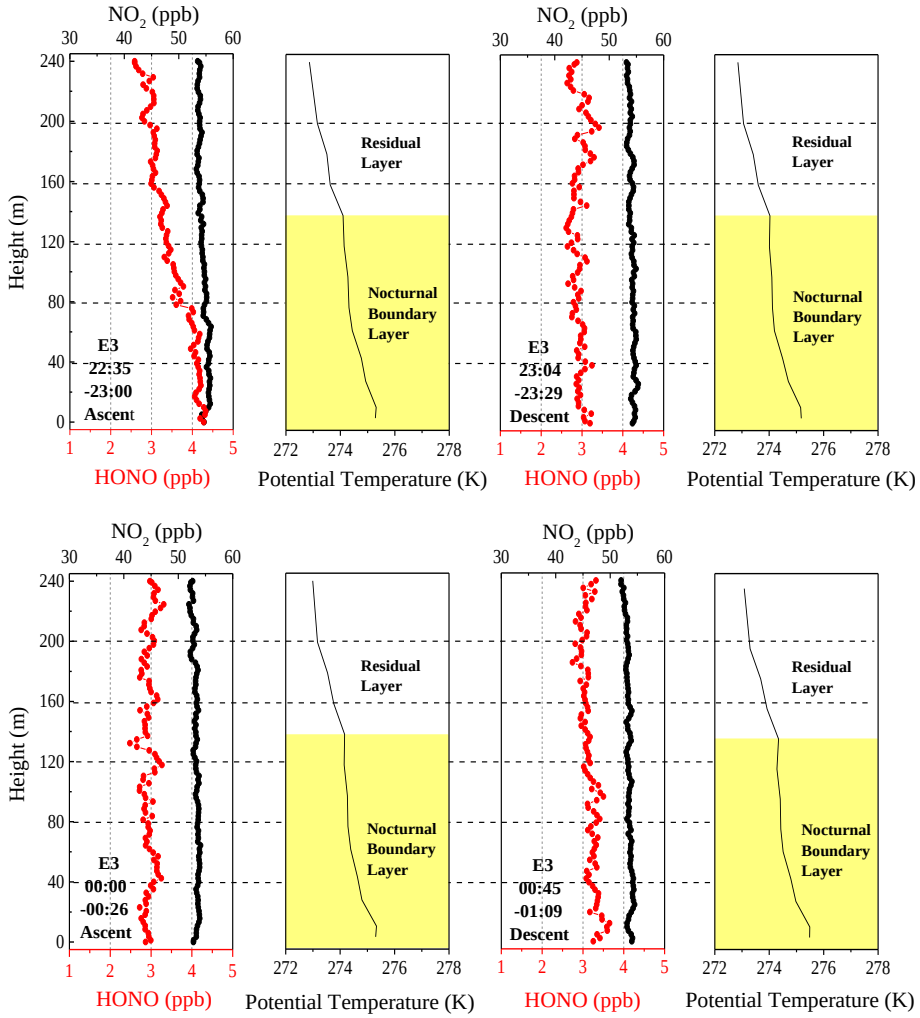


Figure 5. Vertical profiles of HONO and NO_2 on the night of December 11th and midnight of December 12th. The potential temperature profiles indicate nocturnal small-scale stratification (a nocturnal boundary layer and a residual layer). The height of the nocturnal boundary layer (NBL) is denoted by the yellow shaded region. The time in the figure corresponds to the measurement time of the vertical profiles of HONO and NO_2.

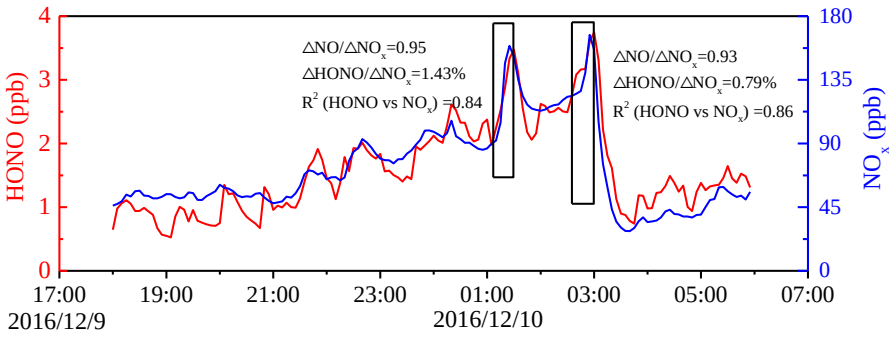


Figure 6. Temporal variation of nocturnal HONO and NO_x on December 9th to 10th, 2016. The HONO emission ratios were estimated using data collected in the black frame.

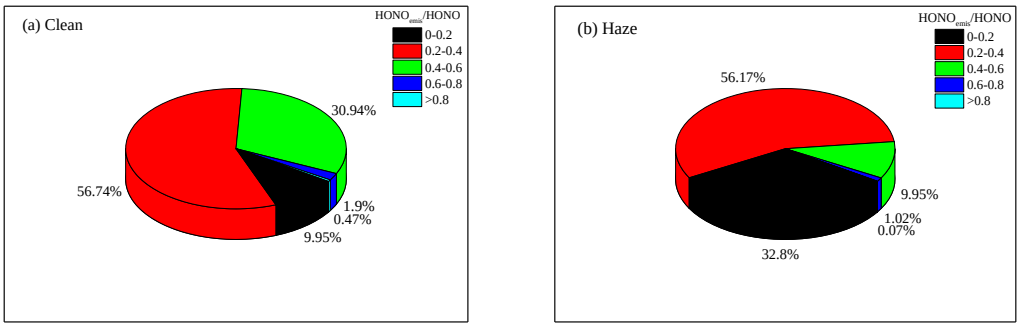


Figure 7. The nocturnal $HONO_{emis}$/HONO ratios frequency distribution during (a) clean and (b) haze episodes.

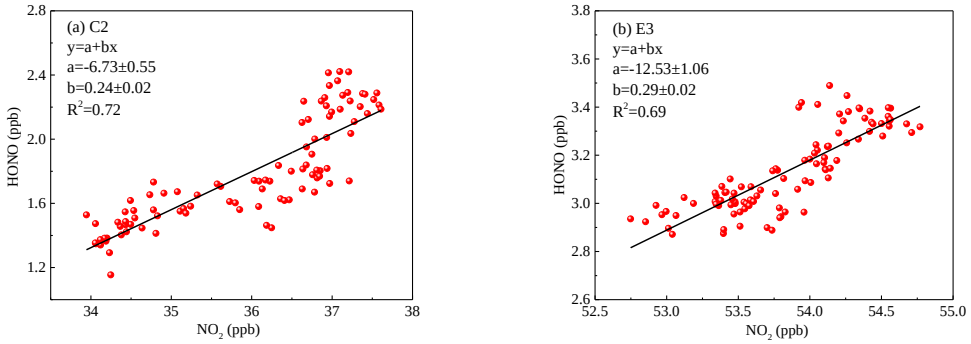


Figure 8. The correlation of the vertical profiles between HONO and NO_2 during (a) the clean episode (C2) and (b) the haze episode (E3) using a linear least squares regression fit.

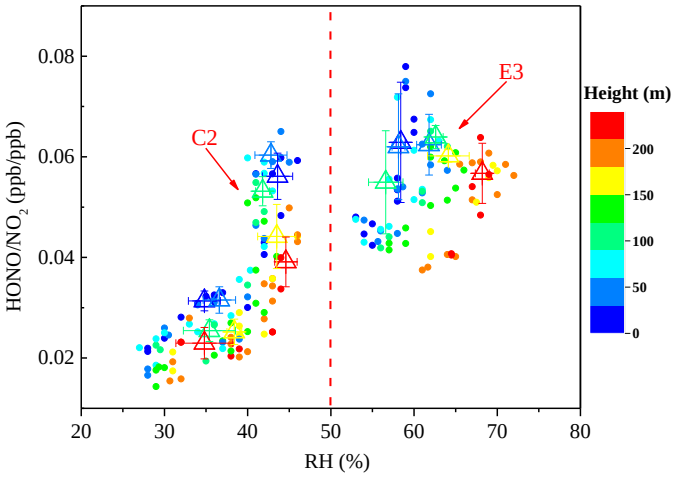


Figure 9. Scatter plot of $HONO/NO_2$ against RH of all vertical profiles during the clean episode (C2) and the haze episode (E3). The $HONO/NO_2$ ratio is color coded by the heights. Triangles are the average of the first five $HONO/NO_2$ values in each 10% RH interval at different height intervals (8–65 m, 65–120 m, 120–180 m, and 180–240 m).

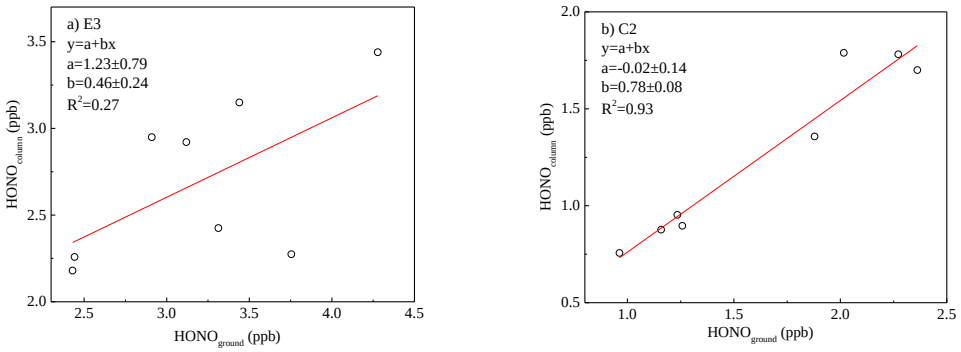


Figure 10. Orthogonal linear least squares correlation between the column average concentration of HONO (the average HONO column concentration from 10 to 240 m) and HONO measured from the ground level to 10 m above the ground level (AGL). Column values were calculated for (a) E3 and (b) C2.

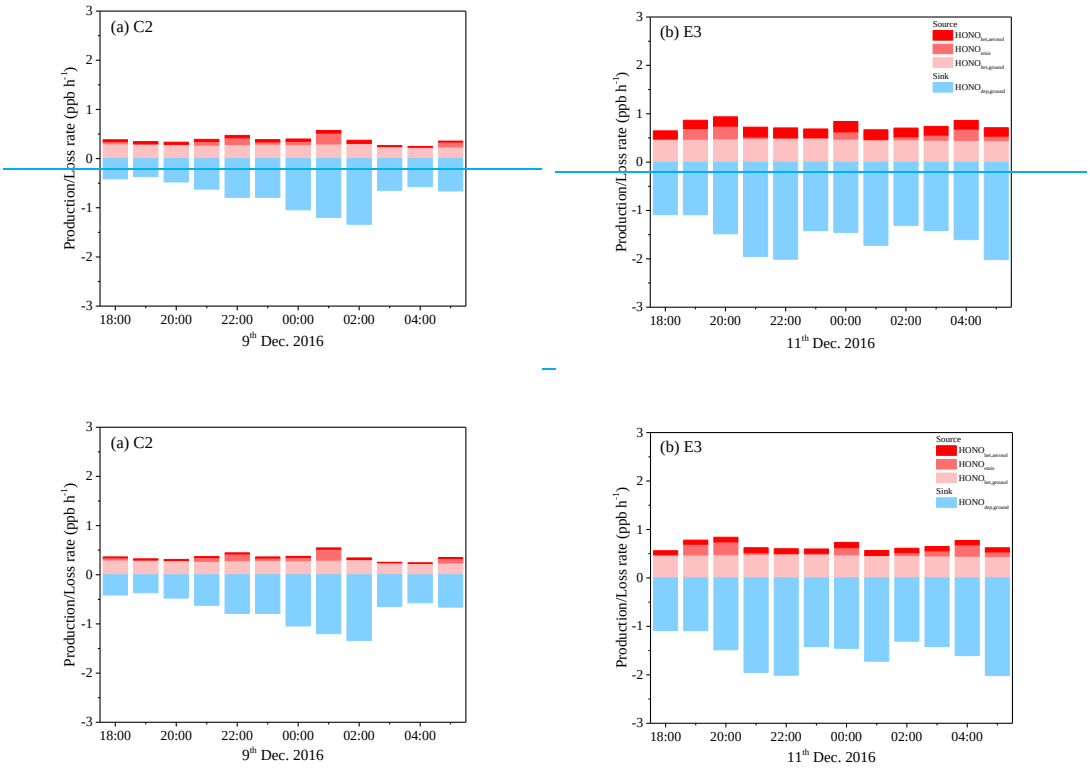


Figure 11. Separated contributions of production and loss terms (colored bars) of HONO on (a) the 9th (C2) and (b) 11th (E3) of December 2016. An upper limit uptake coefficient for NO_2 was adopted to calculate the HONO production rate on aerosol surface.