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# Budget of nitrous acid (HONO) and its impacts on atmospheric oxidation capacity at an urban site in the fall season of Guangzhou, China

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Abstract. Nitrous acid (HONO) can produce hydroxyl radicals (OH) by photolysis and plays an important role in atmospheric photochemistry. Over the years, high concentrations of HONO have been observed in the Pearl River Delta 20 region (PRD) of China, which may be one reason for the elevated atmospheric oxidation capacity. A comprehensive atmospheric observation campaign was conducted at an urban site in Guangzhou from 27 September to 9 November 2018. During the period, HONO was measured from 0.02 to 4.43 ppbv with an average of  $0.74 \pm 0.70$  ppbv. The emission ratios (HONO/NOx) of  $0.9 \pm 0.4$  % were derived from 11 fresh plumes. The primary emission rates of HONO at night were

- calculated to be between  $0.04 \pm 0.02$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> and  $0.30 \pm 0.15$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> based on a high-resolution emission inventory. The 25 HONO formation rate by the homogeneous reaction of OH + NO at night was  $0.26 \pm 0.08$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which can be seen as secondary results from primary emission. They were both much higher than the increase rate of HONO (0.02 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ )
- during night. The soil emission rate of HONO at night was calculated to be  $0.019 \pm 0.001$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>. Assuming dry deposition as the dominant removal process of HONO at night, a deposition velocity of at least ~ 2.5 cm s<sup>-1</sup> is required to balance the direct emissions and OH + NO reaction. Correlation analysis shows that  $NH_3$  and relative humidity (RH) may participate in
- 30 the heterogeneous transformation from NO<sub>2</sub> to HONO at night. In the daytime, the average primary emission P<sub>emis</sub> was 0.12  $\pm$  0.01 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, and the homogeneous reaction P<sub>OH+NO</sub> was 0.79  $\pm$  0.61 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, larger than the unknown sources P<sub>Unknown</sub>  $(0.65 \pm 0.46 \text{ ppbv h}^{-1})$ . These results suggest primary emissions as a key factor affecting HONO at our site, both during daytime and nighttime. Similar to previous studies, the daytime unknown source of HONO, PUnknown, appeared to be related





to the photo-enhanced conversion of NO<sub>2</sub>. The daytime average OH production rates by photolysis of HONO was  $3.7 \times 10^6$ cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, lower than that from O<sup>1</sup>D + H<sub>2</sub>O at  $4.9 \times 10^6$  cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>. Simulations of OH and O<sub>3</sub> with the Master Chemical 35 Mechanism (MCM) box model suggested strong enhancement effect of HONO on OH and O<sub>3</sub> by 59 % and 68.8 %, respectively, showing a remarkable contribution of HONO to the atmospheric oxidation in the fall season of Guangzhou.

Keywords: HONO; Atmospheric oxidation capacity; Budget analysis; Heterogeneous reaction

#### 40 **1** Introduction

As a primary source of hydroxyl radical (OH), HONO has attracted scientific researchers' great interest. The photolysis of HONO (Reaction R1) can generate a substantial amount of OH, which is a primary atmosphere oxidant that is responsible for oxidizing and removing of most natural and anthropogenic trace gases. Additionally, OH radicals can initiate the oxidation of the volatile organic compounds (VOC) to produce hydroperoxyl radicals (HO<sub>2</sub>) and organic peroxy radicals

- 45  $(RO_2)$ . These free radicals can further lead to the formation of ozone  $(O_3)$  in the presence of nitrogen oxides (NOx) (Xue et al., 2016; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 2000; Hofzumahaus et al., 2009; Lelieveld et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2018). Up to 33-92 % OH formation can be attributed to HONO photolysis in both rural and urban sites (Kleffmann et al., 2005; Michoud et al., 2012; Tan et al., 2017; Xue et al., 2020; Hendrick et al., 2014). However, the detailed formation mechanisms of HONO are still not well understood and the observed HONO concentrations cannot be completely explained by current research (Sörgel 50
- et al., 2011a; Kleffmann et al., 2005; Sarwar et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2019a; Lee et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2020c).

$$HONO + hv \rightarrow OH + NO (300nm < \lambda < 405nm)$$
(R1)

HONO sources generally include direct emissions, homogeneous reactions and heterogeneous reactions. HONO can be 55 directly emitted into the troposphere from combustion processes such as biomass burning, vehicle exhaust, domestic heating, and industrial exhaust (Liu et al., 2019b; Neuman et al., 2016; Nie et al., 2015; Kramer et al., 2020). The emission ratios of HONO/NOx of traffic sources have been estimated in the range of 0.3 %-0.85 % through tunnel experiments considering various engine types (Kirchstetter et al., 1996; Kurtenbach et al., 2001; Kramer et al., 2020). Soil nitrite formed through the processes of biological nitrification and denitrification, were proposed to be a prominent HONO source in the troposphere 60 (Maljanen et al., 2013; Oswald et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2019; Su et al., 2011). Subsequently, biological soil crusts (biocrusts) were also found to release HONO (Weber et al., 2015; Porada et al., 2019; Meusel et al., 2018). In addition, an acid displacement mechanism has also been suggested to contribute substantial fraction of daytime HONO formation (VandenBoer et al., 2015). The reaction between NO and OH is considered an important pathway of HONO formation when OH and NO concentrations are relatively high (Alicke et al., 2002; Li et al., 2012; Pagsberg et al., 1997; Qin et al., 2009;

65 Wong et al., 2011), whereas this pathway often cannot explain the observed HONO concentrations, especially during





daytime (Tang et al., 2015; Li et al., 2010; Czader et al., 2012; Tong et al., 2016). Bejan et al. (2006) studied the HONO formation by the photolysis of different gaseous nitrophenols and proposed that the photolysis of nitrophenols can partly explain the observed HONO formation in the urban atmosphere. Li et al. (2008) suggested that the homogeneous reaction between water vapor (H<sub>2</sub>O) and electronically excited NO<sub>2</sub> ( $\lambda > 420$  nm) can form OH and HONO. While the reaction rate and yield of this reaction are still under discussion (Carr et al., 2009), and this formation mechanism can only marginally 70 contribute to the formation of atmospheric HONO (Amedro et al., 2011; Crowley and Carl, 1997; Sörgel et al., 2011a; Wong et al., 2011; Dillon and Crowley, 2018). Zhang and Tao (2010) proposed that HONO can form through homogeneous nucleation of NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. However, this reaction has not yet been observed in field experiments nor tested by laboratory studies. Li et al. (2014b) proposed that the reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> with HO<sub>2</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O could be a gas-phase source of HONO in the lower troposphere. But Ye et al. (2015) estimated the HONO yield of the reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> with HO<sub>2</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O was only 3 %. 75 Additionally, heterogeneous reactions on different kinds of surfaces have also been found to be possible significant HONO sources, including heterogeneous reactions of NO<sub>2</sub> on ground surfaces (Meusel et al., 2016; VandenBoer et al., 2013), building surfaces (Acker et al., 2006; Indarto, 2012), ocean surfaces (Wen et al., 2019; Wojtal et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2021a), soil surfaces (Laufs et al., 2017; Kleffmann et al., 2003; Yang et al., 2021b) and vegetation surfaces (Stutz et al., 80 2002), etc. Photosensitized reduction reaction of  $NO_2$  on organic surfaces (such as humic acids and aromatics) has been considered as an effective pathway to generate HONO (George et al., 2005; Stemmler et al., 2006; Liu et al., 2020a; Ammar et al., 2010; Brigante et al., 2008; Cazoir et al., 2014; Sosedova et al., 2011). The heterogeneous conversion of NO<sub>2</sub> to HONO on humid surfaces have also been studied (Finlayson-Pitts et al., 2003; Ammann et al., 1998; Ndour et al., 2008) and this conversion can be further promoted by ambient  $NH_3$  and  $SO_2$  (Ge et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2019; Li et 85 al., 2018b). In addition, HONO can also be formed by heterogeneous conversion of NO<sub>2</sub> on secondary organic aerosols and fresh soot particles (Arens et al., 2001; Ziemba et al., 2010), but the contributions and mechanisms are still under discussion (Arens et al., 2001; Aubin and Abbatt, 2007; Bröske et al., 2003; Qin et al., 2009). Both field observations and laboratory studies found that the photolysis of adsorbed HNO<sub>3</sub> and particulate nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) made an important contribution to HONO formation (Ye et al., 2016; Ye et al., 2017; Zhou et al., 2003; Zhou et al., 2002b; Zhou et al., 2011; Ziemba et al., 2010).

90 However, Laufs and Kleffmann (2016) obtained a very low HNO<sub>3</sub> photolysis frequency in laboratory, almost two orders of magnitude lower than the result by (Zhou et al., 2003).

The Pearl River Delta (PRD) region is one of the biggest city clusters in the world with dense population and large anthropogenic emissions. Rapid economic development and urbanization have led to severe deterioration of air quality in this region, which was characterized by atmospheric "compound pollution" with concurrent high fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) (Tang, 2004; Chan and Yao, 2008; Yue et al., 2010). While O<sub>3</sub> has been increasing along with reduced PM<sub>2.5</sub> over recent years in the region (Li et al., 2014a; Liao et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2009; Zhong et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2018), indicating the enhancement of atmospheric oxidation capacity. Numerous studies have observed high concentrations of atmospheric HONO in Guangzhou (Hu et al., 2002; Su et al., 2008b; Su et al., 2008a; Qin et al., 2009; Li





100 et al., 2012). Fast OH production through HONO photolysis may be a key factor for the increasing atmospheric oxidation capacity and ozone concentration in this area.

In this work, we performed continuous measurements of HONO, along with trace gases, photolysis frequencies and meteorological conditions at an urban site in Guangzhou from 27 September to 9 November 2018, as part of the field

- 105 campaign named "Particles, Radicals, Intermediates from oxiDation of primary Emissions in Greater Bay Area" (PRIDE-GBA2018). Benefiting from numerous prior field observational studies in the PRD region, our study stands in a strong position to ensure high quality of data acquisition and analysis of HONO, along with a full suite of other chemical species, providing a unique and valuable opportunity to refine our knowledge of HONO sources and sinks, as well as the role of HONO in the photochemistry of  $O_3$  and OH in such a region with extensive air pollution as well as rigorous emission control
- 110 over recent years. A high resolution  $(3 \text{ km} \times 3 \text{ km})$  NOx emission inventory for the Guangzhou city (Huang et al., 2021) was used to estimate the primary emission rates of NOx and HONO, which would reduce the uncertainty of HONO primary emission rate. By analysing our observational data, both nighttime HONO formation pathways and daytime HONO budgets have been investigated in this study. The contribution of HONO photolysis to OH production has been calculated and compared with that of O<sub>3</sub> photolysis. The impact of HONO on atmospheric oxidation capacity and O<sub>3</sub> formation is further
- 115 investigated using a chemical box model based on Master Chemical Mechanism (MCMv3.3.1).

# 2 Experiment

#### 2.1 Observation site

The sampling site (23.14° N, 113.36° E) is located in the Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry Chinese Academy of Sciences (GIGCAS). The instruments were deployed in the cabin on the rooftop of a seven-story building (~ 40 m above the ground). The site is surrounded by residential communities and schools, with no industrial manufacturers or power plants around, representing a typical urban environment in the PRD region. The south China Expressway and Guangyuan Expressway, both with heavy traffic loading, are located at west and south of the site, with distances of about 300 m. As a result, the site often experienced local emissions from traffic. The location and surroundings of the site are shown in Fig. S1.

# 125 **2.2 Measurements**

HONO was measured by a custom-built LOPAP (LOng Path Absorption Photometer) based on wet chemical sampling and photometric detection (Heland et al., 2001). Ambient air is sampled into an external sampling unit consisting of two similar stripping coils in series. Almost all of the HONO and a small fraction of interfering substances (PAN, HNO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, etc.) are absorbed in solution in the first stripping coil, while in the second stripping coil only the interfering species are absorbed. To

130 minimize the potential interferences, we assume the interferences absorbed in the first and the second coil are the same, so



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the real HONO concentration in the atmosphere is determined by subtracting the measured signal of the second coil from the measured signal of the first coil. The absorption solution R1 is a mixture reagent of 1 L hydrochloric acid (HCl) (37 % volume fraction) and 100 g sulfanilamide dissolved in 9 L pure water. The dye solution R2, 2 g n-(1-naphtyl)-ethylendiamine-dihydrchloride (NEDA) dissolved in 10 L pure water, is then reacted with the absorption solution from two stripping coils pumped by a peristaltic pump to form colored azo dye. The light-absorbing colored azo dye is then pumped through a debubbler by the peristaltic pump and flows into the detection unit, which consists of two liquid waveguide capillary cells (World Precision Instrument, LWCC), one LED light source (Ocean Optics), two miniature spectrometers

(Ocean Optics, Maya2000Pro) and several optical fibers. To correct for the small zero-drifts in the instrument's baseline, the

- zero measurements were conducted every 12 h by introducing zero air (highly pure nitrogen) at a flow rate of 1 L min<sup>-1</sup>.
  140 During the instrument's operation, the instrument calibration was performed every week using the standard sodium nitrite (NaNO<sub>2</sub>) solution. The detection limit, time resolution and uncertainty of the measurement were 5 pptv, 15 min and 8 %, respectively. More detailed information of LOPAP instrument can be found in previous studies (Heland et al., 2001; Kleffmann et al., 2006; Kleffmann et al., 2002).
- 145 In addition to HONO, ambient VOCs were measured using a TH-300B On-Line VOCs Monitoring System involving detection technology of ultralow temperature preconcentration coupled with gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC/MS) with the time resolution of 1 h. NOx (NO + NO<sub>2</sub>) was measured by a nitrogen oxides analyzer (Thermo Scientific, Model 42i), which used a NO-NO<sub>x</sub> chemiluminescence detector equipped with a molybdenum-based converter with the time resolution and detection limit of 1 min and 1 ppbv respectively. O<sub>3</sub> was measured by an O<sub>3</sub> analyzer (Thermo Scientific,
- 150 Model 49i) via ultraviolet absorption method with the time resolution and detection limit of 1 min and 1 ppbv respectively. SO<sub>2</sub> was measured by SO<sub>2</sub> analyzer (Thermo Scientific, Model 43i) via pulsed fluorescence method with the time resolution and detection limit of 1 min and 1 ppbv respectively. CO was measured by a CO analyzer (Thermo Scientific, Model 48i) with the time resolution and detection limit of 1 min and 0.1 ppmv respectively. NH<sub>3</sub> was measured by laser absorption spectroscopy (PICARRO, G2508) with the time resolution and detection limit of 1 min and 1 ppbv respectively. Gaseous
- 155 HNO<sub>3</sub> was detected by a Time-Of-Flight Chemical Ionization Mass Spectrometer (Aerodyne Research Inc., TOF-CIMS) with a time resolution of 1 min. And particulate nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) was measured by Time-Of-Flight Accelerator Mass Spectrometry (Aerodyne Research Inc., TOF-AMS) with a time resolution of 1 min. PM<sub>2.5</sub> was measured by a Beta Attenuation Monitor (MET One Instruments Inc., BAM-1020) with the time resolution and detection limit of 1 h and 4.0 µg m<sup>-3</sup> respectively. The meteorological data, including temperature (T), relative humidity (RH) and wind speed and direction
- 160 (WS, WD) were recorded by Vantage Pro2 Weather Station (Davis Instruments Inc., Vantage Pro2) with the time resolution of 1 min. Photolysis frequencies including J(HONO), J(NO<sub>2</sub>), J(H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>) and J(O<sup>1</sup>D) were measured by a filter radiometry (Focused Photonics Inc., PFS-100) with a time resolution of 1 min.





# 2.3 Box model

To evaluate the influence of HONO chemistry on the atmospheric oxidation capacity, a zero dimensional box model based on the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCMv3.3.1) (Jenkin et al., 2015; Jenkin et al., 2003; Saunders et al., 2003) was applied to calculate the concentrations of O<sub>3</sub> and OH radicals. The Master Chemical Mechanism describes atmospheric gasphase organic chemistry in detail which has been widely used in atmospheric chemistry modelling. Kinetic rate coefficients were derived from the MCM v3.3.1 website (http://mcm.leeds.ac.uk/MCM). In this work, the boundary layer diurnal cycle has been modified and the dilution factor k<sub>dil</sub> was set at 86400<sup>-1</sup> s. The solar altitude was calculated based on longitude, latitude and time of the observation. Photolysis rate correction coefficient j<sub>corr</sub> was set to 1. The model simulation was constrained by hourly averaged measurement data, including HONO, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, VOC species, and temperature, water vapor, wind speed, wind direction, pressure and photolysis frequencies J(NO<sub>2</sub>), J(HONO), J(O<sup>1</sup>D) and J(H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>). The simulation results were evaluated by comparing against the measurements, and index of agreement (IOA), a statistical parameter was employed for the evaluation (Jeon et al., 2018; Xing et al., 2019; Li et al., 2010). Two simulations with and

175 without HONO constrained by measured values were conducted to examine the impact of HONO on OH and O<sub>3</sub> formation.

# **3** Results and discussion

### 3.1 Data overview

The time series of meteorological parameters and pollutants during the campaign are shown in Fig. 1. The HONO concentrations ranged from 0.02 to 4.43 ppbv with an average of 0.74 ± 0.70 ppbv. Table 1 summarizes the HONO observations reported in PRD region since 2002. HONO appears to have shown a decreasing trend in Guangzhou, as improvement of air quality in Guangzhou was witnessed during the past decade. Spikes of NO occurred frequently, even up to 134.8 ppbv, as a result of traffic emissions from two major roads near the site. The concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> ranged from 5.4–102.0 ppbv, 0–6.3 ppbv, 2.8–7.8 ppbv and 4–109 µg m<sup>-3</sup> respectively with the average values of 50.8 ± 17.2 ppbv, 1.9 ± 1.2 ppbv, 6.3 ± 2.7 ppbv, and 36 ± 16 µg m<sup>-3</sup> respectively. The O<sub>3</sub> concentrations ranged from 0.3–149.8
ppbv with an average peak concentration of 73.9 ± 28.4 ppbv. During the observation, the temperature ranged from 17 °C to 30 °C with an average of 24 ± 3 °C, and the relative humidity ranged from 28 % to 97 % with an average of 70 ± 17 %. The

average wind speed was  $6.8 \pm 4.5 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , while the maximum wind speed was 22.7 m s<sup>-1</sup>. There was a pollution period from 8th to 10th October with elevated PM<sub>2.5</sub> ( $60 \pm 12 \ \mu \text{g m}^{-3}$ ) and HONO ( $0.94 \pm 0.58 \ \text{ppbv}$ ). By contrast, from 29 October to 3 November, efficient ventilation driven by strong winds (> 11 m s<sup>-1</sup>) led to low levels of most pollutants in this period, with average concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and HONO at  $28 \pm 11 \ \mu \text{g m}^{-3}$  and  $0.56 \pm 0.34 \ \text{ppbv}$ , respectively.







Figure 1. Temporal variations of meteorological and pollutants during the observation period.





# Table 1. Overview of the ambient HONO, NO2 and NOx measurement, as well as the ratios of HONO/NO2 in the PRD region195ordered chronologically. Data from Guangzhou are in italic.

Location	Date	HONO (ppbv)	HONO (ppbv)		NO <sub>2</sub> (ppbv)		NOx (ppbv)		HONO/NO <sub>2</sub>		Reference
			Night	Day	Night	Day	Night	Day	Night	Day	
Guangzhou	Jul 2002	1.89									1
(China)	Nov 2002	1.52									1
Xinken	Oct–Nov 2004	1.20	1.30	0.80	34.8	30.0	37.8	40.0	0.037	0.027	2
(China)											
Back Garden	Jul 2006	0.93	0.95	0.24	16.5	4.5	20.9	5.5	0.057	0.053	3
(China)											
Guangzhou	Jul 2006	2.80	3.50	2.00	20.0	30.0			0.175	0.067	4
(China)											
Guangzhou	Oct 2015	1.64	2.25	0.90	40.5	27.3	57.9	<i>39</i> .8	0.060	0.030	5
(China)											
Guangzhou	Jul 2016	1.03	1.27	0.70	35.0	25.9	66.3	52.1	0.040	0.070	6
(China)											0
This work	Sep-Nov 2018	0.74	0.91	0.44	36.9	23.3	47.7	30.1	0.026	0.022	
Jiangmen	Oct-Nov 2008	0.60	0.48				9.1			7	
(China)	001-1107 2008	0.00		0.48				9.1			7
	Aug 2011	0.66	0.66	0.70	21.8	18.1	29.3	29.3	0.031	0.042	
Hong Kong	Nov 2011	0.93	0.95	0.89	27.2	29.0	37.2	40.6	0.034	0.030	8
(China)	Feb 2012	0.91	0.88	0.92	22.2	25.8	37.8	48.3	0.036	0.035	0
	May 2012	0.35	0.33	0.40	14.7	15.0	19.1	21.1	0.022	0.030	
Heshan	Oct 2013	1.57									9
(China)											7
Heshan	Oct-Nov 2014	1.40	1.78	0.77	19.3	17.9	21.5	22.7	0.093	0.055	10
(China)											
Hong Kong	Mar–May 2015	2 20	2.86	2.01							11
(China)		3.30	2.86	3.91							11

References: 1. (Hu et al., 2002); 2. (Su et al., 2008a; Su et al., 2008b); 3. (Li et al., 2012; Su, 2008); 4. (Qin et al., 2009); 5. (Tian et al., 2018); 6. (Yang et al., 2017a); 7. (Yang, 2014); 8. (Xu et al., 2015); 9. (Yue et al., 2016); 10. (Liu, 2017); 11. (Yun et al., 2017).





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The time series of photolysis frequencies J(HONO), J(O<sup>1</sup>D) and J(NO<sub>2</sub>) in the whole observation period are shown in Fig. S2. The maximum values of J(HONO), J(O<sup>1</sup>D) and J(NO<sub>2</sub>) are  $1.58 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ,  $2.54 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $9.31 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ , respectively. These J values tracked a similar diurnal pattern, reaching a maximum at noon with high solar radiation and decreasing to zero at night.

#### 205

The diurnal variations of HONO, NO<sub>2</sub>, HONO/NO<sub>2</sub>, and NO are shown in Fig. 2. A daytime trough and a night-time peak of HONO were observed, as typically seen in cities and rural sites (Lee et al., 2016; Xue et al., 2020; Villena et al., 2011; Yang et al., 2021c). The observed high HONO concentration around 0.5 ppbv at daytime implies strong HONO production to balance its rapid loss through photolysis. NO<sub>2</sub> showed a similar diurnal pattern. It is worth noting that the diurnal variation of NO was quite similar to that of HONO, implying the potential association between them. Additionally, the observed large

- NO was quite similar to that of HONO, implying the potential association between them. Additionally, the observed large amount of NO ( $10.8 \pm 17.2 \text{ ppbv}$ ) at night indicates strong primary emission near the site. As an indicator of NO<sub>2</sub> to HONO conversion, the ratio of HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> rose at night and decreased after sunrise due to photolysis, ranging from 1.4 % to 3.0 % with an average of  $2.3 \pm 1.3$ %, which is lower than most previous field observations in PRD region (Li et al., 2012; Qin et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2015), and is typical for relatively fresh plumes. Previous many field observations also reported low
- 215 values of HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> ranging from 2 % to 10 % in freshly polluted air masses (Febo et al., 1996; Lammel and Cape, 1996; Sörgel et al., 2011b; Stutz et al., 2004; Zhou et al., 2007; Su et al., 2008a). The relatively stable and low value of HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> in nighttime seems to indicate the low contribution of heterogeneous reactions of NO<sub>2</sub> to HONO concentrations.







Figure 2. Diurnal profiles of HONO, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO and HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> during the observation period. The blue line in the box and red circle refer to the median and mean, respectively. Boxes represent 25 % to 75 % of the data, and whiskers 95 % of the data. The box plots presented in this study is generated by an Igor Pro-based computer program, Histbox (Wu et al., 2018).

#### 3.2 Nocturnal HONO formation and sources

# 3.2.1 Direct emissions

- As noted in Sect. 1, the site was expected to receive substantial direct emission of HONO from two major roads nearby. We obtained the emitted HONO/NOx ratios in fresh plumes defined with the following criteria (Xu et al., 2015):
  - (a) NOx > 49.7 ppbv (highest 25 % of NOx data);
  - (b) NO/NOx > 0.8;
  - (c) good correlation between NOx and HONO ( $R^2 > 0.70$ , P < 0.05);
- 230 (d) short duration of plumes (< 2 h);





(e) global radiation < 10 W m<sup>-2</sup> (J(NO<sub>2</sub>) <  $0.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ).

During the campaign, 11 fresh plumes were identified to satisfy criteria (a)–(e) (see Table S1). Two cases among them are shown in Fig. S3. The HONO/NOx ratios in these selected plumes varied from 0.1 % to 1.5 % with an average value of 0.9 ± 0.4 %, which is comparable to the average value of 1.2 % measured in Hong Kong (Xu et al., 2015), 1.0 % observed in Hong Kong (Yun et al., 2017), 0.79 % measured in Nanjing (Liu et al., 2019b) and 0.69 % observed in Changzhou (Shi et al., 2020b). It should be noted that the emission factor derived in this study is based on field observation and the screening criterion for fresh air mass is NO/NOx > 0.8, while the fresh air mass was characterized by NO/NOx > 0.9 in the tunnel experiments conducted by (Kurtenbach et al., 2001), so the air masses we selected were still slightly aged and the emission 240 factor derived in this study is slightly overestimated.

To calculate the primary emission P<sub>emis</sub>, three methods have been used in previous studies (Liu et al., 2019b; Liu et al., 2020b; Meng et al., 2020). In method (1), P<sub>emis</sub> is equal to the product of emission coefficient K and observed NOx concentration (Cui et al., 2018; Huang et al., 2017) (see Eq. (1)). This method ignores the sink of NOx and HONO, as well as transport and convection. On this basis, the observed NOx is equal to the accumulation of NOx emission, and HONO emission is linearly related to NOx concentration. However, ubiquitous loss of NOx would increase the uncertainty of this method, especially during daytime. In method (2), P<sub>emis</sub> is equal to the product of emission coefficient K and ΔNOx, the increase of NOx concentration during Δt (Liu et al., 2019b; Zheng et al., 2020) (see Eq. (2)). The promise of this method is similar to method (1), and it can only be used when NOx is increasing. As expected, a decrease in NOx would yield a negative HONO emission rate, which is unrealistic. In method (3), P<sub>emis</sub> is equal to the product of emission coefficient K and NOx\*, the NOx emission from source emission inventory (Michoud et al., 2014; Su et al., 2008b) (see Eq. (3)). This method adheres to the definition of HONO emission rate, assuming that the primary sources are evenly mixed in a specific area. It is desirable that emission inventory data with high spatial and temporal resolution are used to obtain an accurate estimate.

255 
$$P_{emis} = K \times NOx$$
 (1)  
 $P_{emis} = K \times \Delta NOx$  (2)  
 $P_{emis} = K \times NOx x$  (2)

$$P_{emis} = K \times NOx *$$
(3)

In this study, we first used NOx emission rate from a high-resolution emission inventory (Huang et al., 2021) to calculate

260 emission rate of HONO  $P_{emis}$  at night (18:00–6:00). The NOx emission rate was extracted from a 3 km × 3 km grid cell centred around our site. As a comparison, we also used the 2017 NOx emission inventory of Guangzhou city to repeat the calculation. The two inventories are primarily different in spatial resolution. The high-resolution 3 km × 3 km data is expected to better represent local traffic emissions, whereas the city-level emission inventory represents the total emission. Since we cannot quantify the relative contribution of the local and regional emissions to this site, two results are used to





represent upper and lower limits of the contribution of primary emissions to HONO. The nighttime height of the boundary layer is assuming to 200 m according to the previous study by (Fan et al., 2008).

Hourly HONO primary emission rates calculated with the two inventories are shown in Fig. 3.  $P_{emis}$  calculated with the high-resolution emission data (3 km × 3 km) shows a steep downward trend from 18:00 (0.56 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) to 4:00 (0.14 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>),

- 270 followed by an upward trend from 4:00 (0.14 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ ) to 6:00 (0.25 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ ). The average of  $P_{emis}$  is 0.30 ± 0.15 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ , far larger than the average accumulating rate of HONO at night (0.02 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ ) derived from observed HONO variation. By contrast,  $P_{emis}$  with the city level emission data (Guangzhou) is much lower (0.04 ± 0.02 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ ) and varied smoothly throughout the night, but is still larger than the observed HONO accumulation rate. Direct emission of HONO appears to be a large HONO source at night along with other sources of HONO that remain to be considered. Furthermore, a large sink of
- 275 HONO was necessary to explain the observed trend of HONO.



(4)





- 280 Figure 3. The nocturnal variation of HONO primary emission rates. The black and blue lines represent the HONO primary emission rates calculated by the 2017 NOx emission source inventory of the 3 km  $\times$  3 km grid cell centred on the Guangzhou Institute of Geochemistry and the 2017 NOx emission source inventory of Guangzhou city respectively. The coloured areas represent  $1 \sigma$  standard deviations.
- Method (1) is also adopted here to calculate P<sub>emis</sub>, and P<sub>emis</sub>/HONO can simply represent the primary emission's contribution
  to HONO. The ratio of P<sub>emis</sub>/HONO is 47 %, much higher than previous estimates in Shanghai (12.5 %) (Cui et al., 2018), Ji'nan (18 %) (Li et al., 2018a), Xi'an (23.6 %) (Huang et al., 2017) and Hong Kong (35.2 %) (Xu et al., 2015). It is possible that the observation site in this study is more strongly affected by primary emission from vehicle exhaust compared to those previous studies.
- 290 In addition to traffic emissions, we also estimated the HONO emission rate from soil  $P_{soil}$  (ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) according to Eq. (4):

$$P_{soil} = \frac{\alpha F_{soil}}{H}$$





where  $F_{soil}$  is the emission flux (g m<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>); H is the height of boundary layer (H, m) and was assumed to be 200 m (Fan et al., 2008);  $\alpha$  is the conversion factor ( $\alpha = \frac{1 \times 10^9 \times 3600 \times R \times T}{M \times P} = \frac{2.99 \times 10^{13} \times T}{M \times P}$ ); T is the temperature (K); M is the molecular weight (g mol<sup>-1</sup>) and P is the atmospheric pressure (Pa). HONO emission flux from soil depends on the temperature, water content and nitrogen nutrient content of soil, which have been considered according to the parameters reported in the literature (Oswald et al., 2013), assuming the site is surrounded by grassland. The water content was set at 35–45%. The average nighttime P<sub>soil</sub> varied from 0.011 to 0.035 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, with a mean value of 0.019 ± 0.001 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>. It is comparable to the lower limit of primary emission rate of 0.04 ± 0.02 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>.

### 3.2.2 NO + OH homogeneous reaction

300 The reaction between NO and OH acts as the principle homogenous HONO source. It can contribute a substantial fraction to HONO formation when NO and OH concentrations are high (Alicke et al., 2003; Liu et al., 2019b; Wong et al., 2011; Tong et al., 2015). Taking the homogeneous Reactions R2 and R3 into account, the net HONO homogeneous production rate can be calculated by following Eq. (5):

305 NO + OH 
$$\rightarrow$$
 HONO (R2)  
HONO + OH  $\rightarrow$  NO<sub>2</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O (R3)  
 $P_{net} = k_{NO+OH}[NO][OH] - k_{HONO+OH}[HONO][OH] (5)$ 

In Eq. (5), k<sub>NO+OH</sub> (7.2 × 10<sup>-12</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and k<sub>HONO+OH</sub> (5.0 × 10<sup>-12</sup> cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) are the reaction rate constants of the Reactions
R2 and R3 at 298 K, respectively (Li et al., 2012). Since the OH concentration was not measured, an average nighttime value of 1.0 × 10<sup>6</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> measured in Heshan in the PRD region in autumn of 2014 was assumed (Liu, 2017). As shown in Fig. 4, the variation of P<sub>net</sub> is highly similar to NO, for the concentration of NO was 10 times larger than HONO. And the average value of P<sub>net</sub> is 0.26 ± 0.08 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, leading to a cumulative HONO contribution of 3.24 ppbv. However, the measured HONO only increased 0.26 ppbv in this period. It suggests that, (1) the reaction between NO and OH is adequate to explain the HONO increase in the whole night, even though other sources like NO<sub>2</sub> heterogeneous conversion might still exist; (2) except for HONO + OH, the strength of HONO sink should be at least 0.25 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, 5 times larger than that obtained by (Li

et al., 2012).

We carried out sensitivity tests using one tenth, twice and half of assumed OH concentration  $(1.0 \times 10^6 \text{ cm}^{-3})$  (Lou et al., 2010). As is shown in Table S2, within the range of nighttime OH concentration, the cumulative production of the homogeneous reaction of NO + OH in this study are all larger than the averaged measured accumulation of HONO, indicating that taking a value within the range of the observed nighttime OH concentration will not affect the conclusion of this study.







325 Figure 4. The mean nocturnal variation of P<sub>net</sub>, HONO and NO. The blue line in the box and red circle refer to the median and mean, respectively. Boxes represent 25 % to 75 % of the data, and whiskers 95 % of the data.

# 3.2.3 NO<sub>2</sub> to HONO heterogeneous conversion

pathways of heterogeneous NO<sub>2</sub> to HONO conversion at night (18:00-6:00).

Our analysis so far suggests that direct emissions and the homogeneous reaction between NO and OH are more than sufficient to explain the growth of HONO concentration through the night. The good correlation (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.5927) between 330 HONO and NO provides further evidence (Fig. 5 (a)). In addition, correlation analysis was conducted to explore possible





The ratio of HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> has often been used to indicate the heterogeneous conversion efficiency of NO<sub>2</sub> to HONO (Lammel and Cape, 1996; Stutz et al., 2002), for being less influenced by transport processes or convection. Figure 5 (c) shows a weak
correlation (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.0638) between HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, suggesting that the formation of HONO on aerosol surfaces might not be the main pathway (Kalberer et al., 1999; Kleffmann et al., 2003; Wong et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2009; Sörgel et al., 2011a; VandenBoer et al., 2013). Because the surface area of ground (including vegetation surface, building surface and soil, etc.) is generally larger than the surface area of aerosols (Zhang et al., 2016), some studies suggested that the heterogeneous reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> and water vapor on ground surfaces was the main source of HONO (Harrison and Kitto, 1994; Li et al., 2012;
Wong et al., 2012). Furthermore, the correlations between HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> and RH are 0.3746 and 0.2381, respectively, and the correlation further improved between HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> and the product of NH<sub>3</sub> and RH (R<sup>2</sup> = 0.4597). Some studies proposed that NH<sub>3</sub> can decrease the free-energy barrier in hydrolysis of NO<sub>2</sub> thus enhance the HONO formation (Xu et al., 2019; Li et al., 2018b; Zhang and Tao, 2010).



#### 345 Figure 5. Correlations between HONO, HONO/NO2 and various parameters during the time interval of 18:00–6:00.

In Fig. 6, we further explored the RH effect by focusing on high HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> values, i.e., the 5 highest HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> values for 5% RH intervals (Stutz et al., 2004). When RH was lower than 87.5 %, HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> increased with RH, which is in accordance with the reaction kinetics of disproportionation reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. Furthermore, the slope of linear fitting between HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> and RH was much smaller for RH range of 30 % ~ 70 % (slope = 0.04 %; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.5202) than for the RH range of 70 % ~ 87.5 % (slope = 0.25 %, R<sup>2</sup> = 0.8767). Similar piecewise correlations between HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> and RH have

350 range of 70 % ~ 87.5 % (slope = 0.25 %, R<sup>2</sup> = 0.8767). Similar piecewise correlations between HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> and RH have been found in previous studies (Qin et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2019b), which have been interpreted as evidence for the non-linear dependence of NO<sub>2</sub>-to-HONO conversion efficiency on RH. Once the relative humidity exceeded 87.5 %, NO<sub>2</sub>-to-





HONO conversion appeared to be inhibited by RH (slope = - 0.32 %; R<sup>2</sup> = 0.9750). A possible explanation is that the number of water layers formed on various surfaces increased rapidly with RH, resulting in effective uptake of HONO and making the surface inaccessible or less reactive to NO<sub>2</sub>. Previous studies also found fast growth of aqueous layers when RH over 70 % for glass (Saliba et al., 2001) and over 80 % for stone (Stutz et al., 2004). The tipping point inferred from ambient observations appear to vary across locales, likely reflecting the different composition of the ground surfaces, e.g., 60 % for Chengdu (Yang et al., 2021c), 65–70 % for Beijing (Wang et al., 2017), 70 % for Back Garden (Li et al., 2012), 75 % for Shanghai (Wang et al., 2013), and 85 % for Xi'an (Huang et al., 2017).

#### 360

In sum, our correlation analysis for HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> suggests that nighttime heterogenous conversion of NO<sub>2</sub> into HONO at our site might be related to  $NH_3$  and water vapor, whereas aerosol surfaces appeared unimportant.



Figure 6. Scatter plot of HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio against RH during nighttime from 18:00 to 6:00. Triangles are the average of top-5 HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> values in each 5 % RH interval.





# 3.2.4 Removal of HONO through dry deposition

As discussed in Sect. 3.2.2, a sink of at least 0.25 ppbv  $h^{-1}$  is required to balance the nighttime HONO production. Since the reactions of HONO + OH and HONO + HONO are negligible (Kaiser and Wu, 1977; Mebel et al., 1998), it is conceivable that HONO is mainly removed through deposition on the ground. HONO dry deposition velocity V<sub>d</sub> can be estimated with

370 Eq. (6) :

395

$$\frac{d[HONO]}{dt} = P_{emis} + P_{soil} + P_{net} - \frac{V_d \times [HONO]}{H}$$
(6)

The average deposition velocity V<sub>d</sub> between 18:00–6:00 was calculated to be 2.5 cm s<sup>-1</sup>, which is within the range of prior researches (0.5–6 cm s<sup>-1</sup>) (Harrison and Kitto, 1994; Harrison et al., 1996; Spindler et al.; Stutz et al., 2002). It should be noted that heterogeneous conversion of NO<sub>2</sub>-HONO has not been taken into account, so 2.5 cm s<sup>-1</sup> is the lower limit of dry deposition velocity. High RH at night probably increased the amount of adsorbed water on the ground surfaces and facilitates dry deposition of HONO.

#### 3.3 Daytime HONO budget and unknown sources analysis

In this section, we concentrate on the daytime chemistry of HONO by a detailed budget analysis. The time variation of 380 HONO concentration at our site can be related to its sources and sinks as follows:

$$\frac{\partial [\text{HONO}]}{\partial t} = P_{\text{HONO}} - L_{\text{HONO}} = (P_{\text{OH+NO}} + P_{\text{Unknown}} + P_{\text{emis}} + P_{\text{soil}} + T_{\text{V}} + T_{\text{H}}) - (L_{\text{OH+HONO}} + L_{\text{Phot}} + L_{\text{Depo}})$$
(7)

where ∂HONO/∂t represents the time variation of HONO; P<sub>HONO</sub> and L<sub>HONO</sub> are the sources and sinks of HONO, respectively;
P<sub>OH+NO</sub> and L<sub>OH+HONO</sub> are the homogeneous HONO formation and loss rates in Reactions R2 and R3, respectively; P<sub>Unknown</sub> is the HONO production rate from unknown sources; T<sub>V</sub> and T<sub>H</sub> are two terms representing vertical and horizontal transport processes, respectively; L<sub>Photo</sub> denotes the photolysis loss rate of HONO, which can be calculated with L<sub>Photo</sub> = J(HONO) × [HONO]; L<sub>dep</sub> represents the deposition loss rate of HONO and can be calculated as L<sub>dep</sub> = V<sub>d</sub> × [HONO]/H, where V<sub>d</sub> is the deposition velocity of HONO and H is the daytime mixing height. Assuming a daytime V<sub>d</sub> of 1.6 cm s<sup>-1</sup> (Hou et al., 2016; Li
et al., 2011) and an daytime mixing height (H) of 1000 m (Liao et al., 2018; Song et al., 2019), the average L<sub>dep</sub> is 0.003 ± 0.001 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, three orders of magnitude smaller than L<sub>Photo</sub> and therefore can be ignored in the following discussion.

OH was not measured and was calculated with a parameterized approach based on strong correlation between observed OH radicals and  $J(O^1D)$ . The parameterization was first proposed by (Rohrer and Berresheim, 2006) and has been applied by several studies in China (Lu et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2012; Lu et al., 2014). In this study, OH was estimated with observed

J(O<sup>1</sup>D) along with parameters from fitting the observed OH radicals and J(O<sup>1</sup>D) data in Guangzhou Back Garden by (Lu et





al., 2012). The daytime maximum OH concentration was estimated to be  $1.3 \times 10^7$  cm<sup>-3</sup>, which is slightly smaller than the daily peak values of  $1.5-2.6 \times 10^7$  cm<sup>-3</sup> observed in summer of Guangzhou by (Lu et al., 2012). And the estimated daily average OH concentration is  $6.7 \times 10^6$  cm<sup>-3</sup>, close to  $7.5 \times 10^6$  cm<sup>-3</sup> measured in the PRD region in autumn of 2014 by (Yang et al., 2017b). Daytime P<sub>emis</sub> was calculated based on the method (3) (mentioned in Sect. 3.2.1). Because the HONO lifetime was in the order of 20 min under typical daytime conditions (Stutz et al., 2000) and the transport distance is only a few kilometers, the NOx emission rate extracted from the 3 km × 3 km grid cell centred around sampling site is used to calculate the impact of primary emission on HONO.

405 To minimize interferences, we choose a period from 9:00 to 15:00 with intense solar radiation and a short HONO lifetime. Horizontal transport  $T_H$  was assumed negligible by selecting the cases with low wind speed (Su et al., 2008b; Yang et al., 2014). The magnitude of Vertical transport  $T_V$  can be estimated by using a parameterization for dilution by background air according to (Dillon et al., 2002), i.e.  $T_V = k_{(dilution)} \times ([HONO]-[HONO]_{background})$ . Where  $k_{(dilution)}$  is the dilution rate, [HONO]\_background represents the background HONO concentration. Assuming a  $k_{(dilution)}$  of 0.23  $h^{-1}$  (Dillon et al., 2002; Sörgel 410 et al., 2011a), a [HONO]\_background value of 10 pptv (Zhang et al., 2009), and taking the mean noontime [HONO] value of 400 pptv in this study, a value of about 0.09 ppbv  $h^{-1}$  can be derived, which is much smaller than  $L_{Phot}$  and can be ignored in the following discussion. The average daytime HONO emission rate from soil  $P_{soil}$  varied from 0.002 to 0.007 with a mean value

of 0.004  $\pm$  0.001 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which is three orders of magnitude smaller than L<sub>Photo</sub>, and can also be ignored in the following discussion. As a result, P<sub>Unknown</sub> can be expressed by Eq. (8), in which  $\partial$ HONO/ $\partial$ t is substituted by  $\Delta$ HONO/ $\Delta$ dt.

415

$$\frac{\Delta[\text{HONO}]}{\Delta t} = (P_{\text{OH+NO}} + P_{\text{emis}} + P_{\text{unknown}}) - (L_{\text{OH+HONO}} + L_{\text{Phot}})$$
(8)

Figure 7 shows the budget of HONO from 9:00 to 15:00. As expected, photolysis HONO L<sub>Photo</sub> (1.58 ± 0.82 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) is the main loss pathway in the day, followed by a small contribution by the homogeneous reaction of HONO + OH (L<sub>OH+HONO</sub>, 0.07 ± 0.03 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>). Among the sources, P<sub>OH+NO</sub> and P<sub>Unknown</sub> were comparable in magnitudes, with an average of 0.79 ± 0.61 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> and 0.65 ± 0.46 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. P<sub>Unknown</sub> showed a photo-enhanced feature, reaching its maximum at 12:00 at 0.97 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, similar to the observations in Xinken (Su et al., 2008b), Beijing (Yang et al., 2014), Wangdu (Liu et al., 2019a), Changzhou (Zheng et al., 2020) and Cyprus (Meusel et al., 2016). The average of P<sub>Unknown</sub> is comparable to the observation in Back Garden (0.77 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) by (Li et al., 2012), but smaller than those in Xinken (≈ 2.0 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) by (Su et al., 2008b) and Cyprus reaction of NO + OH masshed its

425 al., 2008b) and Guangzhou city area (1.25 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ ) by (Yang et al., 2017a). Homogeneous reaction of NO + OH reached its maximum in the early morning, and contributed the most fraction in the whole day. Apparently, high NO concentrations at our site made  $P_{OH+NO}$  the biggest daytime source of HONO, exceeding  $P_{Unknown}$ , similar to other high-NOx sites such as Santiago de Chile (Elshorbany et al., 2009), London (Heard et al., 2004), Paris (Michoud et al., 2014), Beijing (Liu et al.,





2021; Slater et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019b; Liu et al., 2020c), Taiwan (Lin et al., 2006) and Hebei (Xue et al., 2020). Next, 430 we investigate possible factors relating to P<sub>Unknown</sub>.



Figure 7. Items of the HONO budget (Eq. (8)) in Guangzhou during the observation period.

Figure 8 shows the correlation between P<sub>Unknown</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> and J(NO<sub>2</sub>) was 0.0681 and 0.2713, respectively. The correlation between P<sub>Unknown</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> × J(NO<sub>2</sub>) further improved to 0.4116, indicating that P<sub>Unknown</sub> may be related to the photoenhanced reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> (Jiang et al., 2020; Li et al., 2018a; Liu et al., 2019a; Liu et al., 2019b; Su et al., 2008b; Zheng et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2017).

No correlation was found between  $P_{\text{Unknown}}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  ( $R^2 = 0.00014$ ), indicating that particulate matters may not be a key factor in daytime HONO production (Wong et al., 2012; Sörgel et al., 2011a; Wang et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2020; Li et al.,

440 2018a). Meanwhile, the correlations between  $P_{Unknown}$  and nitrate in  $PM_1$  and the sum of gaseous nitric acid and nitrate in  $PM_1$  were very low, with  $R^2$  of 0.0348 and 0.0062 respectively. And the correlation between  $P_{Unknown}$  and the product of nitrate and J(NO<sub>2</sub>) was also poor  $R^2 = 0.0007$ , which does not relate  $P_{Unknown}$  to the photolysis of nitrate or gaseous nitric acid. Wang et al. (2016) and Ge et al. (2019) suggested that NH<sub>3</sub> can efficiently promote the reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> to form





HONO and sulfate. However, we did not find good correlations for  $P_{Unknown}$  vs. NH<sub>3</sub>,  $P_{Unknown}$  vs. SO<sub>2</sub>, or  $P_{Unknown}$  vs. NH<sub>3</sub> × 445 SO<sub>2</sub>.

In summary, at our site with relatively strong traffic impact and high NO, NO + OH appears to be the largest daytime HONO source followed by an unknown photolytic source, which does not seem to be related to aerosols, nor the photolysis of nitrate/nitric acid, nor the reaction between NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub>.

450



Figure 8. Correlations between daytime HONO unknown sources PUnknown and related parameters.

# 3.4 The contribution of HONO and O<sub>3</sub> to OH

455

Photolysis of HONO and O<sub>3</sub> contribute dominant the primary source of OH radicals. Here we evaluated and compared the contribution of the two pathways. Other sources such as ozonolysis reactions of alkenes and the photolysis of peroxides, are usually not very significant in urban areas, especially during daytime, thus were not considered in this study (Li et al., 2018a). The contribution of HCHO photolysis to OH was also not considered due to the lack of measurement for HCHO. The OH





radicals' production rate from HONO photolysis  $P_{OH(HONO)}$  can be calculated from the measured photolysis frequencies and the mixing ratios of HONO using Eq. (9). The net OH radicals' production from HONO  $P_{(HONO-OH)}$  can be calculated by subtracting the OH loss caused by Reactions R1 and R2 from  $P_{OH(HONO)}$  (Eq. (10)). The OH radicals' production rate from O<sub>3</sub> photolysis  $P_{(O3-OH)}$  can be calculated from Eq. (11). Only part of O(<sup>1</sup>D) atoms, formed through the photolysis of O<sub>3</sub> at solar radiation below 320 nm (Reaction R4), can generate OH radicals by reacting with water vapor (Reaction R5) in the atmosphere, so we used the absolute mixing ratio of water vapor, which can be derived from the temperature and relative humidity data, to calculate the fraction of OH ( $\Phi_{OH}$ ) between Reactions R5 and R6. The reaction rate of O(<sup>1</sup>D) with N<sub>2</sub> and  $O_2$  is  $3.1 \times 10^{-11}$  cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and  $4.0 \times 10^{-11}$  cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> respectively (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016).

$$P_{OH(HONO)} = J(HONO)[HONO]$$
(9)  

$$P_{(HONO-OH)} = P_{OH(HONO)} - k_{NO+OH}[NO][OH] - k_{HONO+OH}[HONO][OH]$$
(10)  

$$P_{(O3-OH)} = 2\Phi_{OH}[O_3]J(O^{1}D)$$
(11)  

$$470 \quad \Phi_{OH} = k_{4}[H_{2}O]/(k_{4}[H_{2}O] + k_{5}[M])$$
(12)  

$$O_{3} + hv \rightarrow O(^{1}D) + O_{2}(\lambda < 320 \text{ nm})$$
(R4)  

$$O(^{1}D) + H_{2}O \rightarrow 2OH$$
(R5)  

$$O(^{1}D) + M \rightarrow O(^{3}P) + M (M \text{ is } N_{2} \text{ or } O_{2})$$
(R6)

- Figure 9 shows that P<sub>(HONO-OH)</sub> was larger than P<sub>(O3-OH)</sub> before 10:00, while the latter became always higher with the solar radiation enhanced after 10:00. Both the two sources of OH reached their maximum around 12:00, while P<sub>(O3-OH)</sub> was approximately two times of that of P<sub>(HONO-OH)</sub>. On average, the OH production rates by photolysis of HONO and O<sub>3</sub> were 3.7 × 10<sup>6</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and 4.9 × 10<sup>6</sup> cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Table 2 summarizes the OH production rate from HONO and O<sub>3</sub> photolysis from previous studies worldwide. It can be seen that P<sub>(HONO-OH)</sub> are larger than P<sub>(O3-OH)</sub> in most of the observations, but sometimes the opposite is reported. Apparently, the relative importance of P<sub>(HONO-OH)</sub> and P<sub>(O3-OH)</sub> strongly depends on
- the ratio of HONO/O<sub>3</sub>. Especially in winter, photolysis of HONO tends to be the predominant OH source due to the low concentration of  $O_3$  and water vapor.







Figure 9. The yield and comparison of OH radicals by HONO and O<sub>3</sub>.

485





Location	Date	Season	$P_{(HONO-OH)}$	$P_{(O3-OH)}$	Reference	
			(ppbv h <sup>-1</sup> )	(ppbv h <sup>-1</sup> )		
New York, USA	Jun-Jul 1998	Summer	0.10	0.22	1	
Nashville, USA	Jun-Jul 1999	Summer	0.29	0.33	2	
Birmingham, UK	Jan-Feb 2000	Winter	0.45	0.01	3	
New York, USA	Jun-Aug 2001	Summer	0.81	0.19	4	
Santiago Chile	May-Jun 2005	Winter	2.90	0.01	5	
Santiago, Chine	Mar 2005	Summer	1.70	0.13	5	
El Arenosillo,	Dec 2008	Winter	0.11	0.09	6	
Spain						
Colorado, USA	Feb-Mar 2011	Winter	0.45	0.04	7	
Beijing, China	Sep-Oct 2004	Autumn	1.31	0.18	8	
Xinken, China	Oct-Nov 2004	Autumn	3.66	0.88	9	
Back Garden,	Jul 2006	Summer	1.32	2.20	10	
China						
Yufa, China	Aug 2006	Summer	1.68	0.38	11	
Tung Chung, China	Aug 2011	Summer	1.50	0.90	12	
Wangdu, China	June 2014	Summer	1.68	1.20	13	
Hong Kong, China	Mar-May 2015	Spring	6.40	а	14	
Changzhou, China	Dec 2015	Winter	1.04	0.36	15	
Guangzhou, China	Oct 2015	Autumn	1.24	0.41	16	
Guangzhou, China	Jul 2016	Summer	0.71	0.44	10	
Ji'nan, China	Aug 2016	Summer	1.88	0.63	17	
Changzhou, China	Apr 2017	Spring	1.66	2.78	18	
Mount Toi China	Dec 2017	Winter	0.52	0.02	10	
Mount Tai, Cinna	Mar-Apr 2018	Spring	0.51	0.18	19	
Nanjing, China	Nov-Nov 2017/2018	A year	1.16	0.41	20	
Gucheng, China	Jan-Feb 2018	Winter	1.40	0.01	21	
Guangzhou, China	Sep-Nov 2018	Autumn	0.54	0.72	22	

a: far less than P<sub>(HONO-OH)</sub>.

Reference: 1. (Zhou et al., 2002a); 2. (Martinez et al., 2003); 3. (Heard et al., 2004); 4. (Ren et al., 2003); 5. (Elshorbany et al., 2010);
6. (Sörgel et al., 2011a); 7. (Kim et al., 2014); 8. (An et al., 2009); 9. (Su et al., 2008b); 10. (Su, 2008); 11. (Yang et al., 2014); 12.
(Xue et al., 2016); 13. (Liu et al., 2019a); 14. (Yun et al., 2017); 15. (Zheng et al., 2020); 16. (Yang et al., 2017a); 17. (Li et al., 2018a);
18. (Shi et al., 2020a); 19. (Jiang et al., 2020); 20. (Liu et al., 2019b); 21. (Li in preparation); 22. This study





# 3.5 Box model simulation of HONO impact on atmospheric oxidation capacity

Atmospheric oxidation capacity refers to the total removal rates of CO and VOCs by major oxidants (e.g., OH, NO<sub>3</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>) (Elshorbany et al., 2010; Xue et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2019). As the primary oxidant in the atmosphere, the OH concentration is widely used to quantitatively describe the atmospheric oxidation capacity (Zheng et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Shi et al., 2020b; Zhang et al., 2019a). And ozone is another indicator of atmospheric oxidation capacity. A box model (MCMv3.3.1) was conducted to simulate OH and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations with and without HONO constrained with observational data. Figure S4 shows the time series of measured and simulated O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The model performance was evaluated to be good by the index of agreement (IOA) (see Supplementary infomation). It should be noted that the box model ignores the influence of transport and convection, so the simulated O<sub>3</sub> concentration does not represent the actual O<sub>3</sub> concentration in the atmosphere.

The time series of simulation results of  $O_3$  and OH can be found in Fig. S5. Figure 10 shows diurnal variations of simulated  $O_3$  and OH with and without HONO constrained. Daytime maximum OH concentration with HONO ( $6.1 \times 10^6$  cm<sup>-3</sup>) was simulated to be 59 % higher than the simulation without HONO ( $3.9 \times 10^6$  cm<sup>-3</sup>), and the daily maximum concentration of

- 505 O<sub>3</sub> with HONO (43.2 ppbv) was simulated to be 68.8 % higher than the simulation without HONO (25.6 ppbv). These results are both within the range of prior studies (Elshorbany et al., 2012; Fu et al., 2019; Gil et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2021; Malkin et al., 2016; Xue et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021a; Yun et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2016), suggesting a strong HONO enhancement effect on atmospheric oxidation capacity. In addition, the impact of HONO on O<sub>3</sub> appeared two hours later than on OH, likely reflecting that HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>, which are key proxy radicals in O<sub>3</sub> production were not significantly higher
- 510 during early morning hours, despite higher HONO and OH.







Figure 10. The diurnal variations of simulated O<sub>3</sub> and OH output with and without the HONO constrained in model.

#### 4 Conclusions

- 515 Nitrous acid (HONO) was measured with a custom-built LOPAP instrument, along with meteorological parameters and other atmospheric constituents at an urban site in Guangzhou in Pearl River Delta from 27 September to 9 November 2018. The HONO concentrations varied from 0.02 to 4.43 ppbv with an average of  $0.74 \pm 0.70$  ppbv. Compared to prior measurements in Guangzhou, a decreasing trend of HONO can be seen along with improved air quality in the city over the past decade. The emission ratios (HONO/NOx) were derived from an analysis of 11 fresh plumes, varying from 0.1 % to 1.5 %
- 520 with an average value of 0.9 %  $\pm$  0.4 %. Using this estimated emission ratio and an estimate of NOx emission rate extracted from a grid cell around our site in a high-resolution (3 km × 3 km) NOx emission inventory, we estimated a primary HONO emission rate of 0.30  $\pm$  0.15 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which turned out far larger (almost by an order of magnitude) than what would be estimated with a city-level NOx emission estimate, which does not adequately represent NOx emission rate specifically for the observation site. Thus, for future analysis of HONO data to properly estimate direct emission of HONO, we suggest that
- 525 high quality emission data be used to reduce uncertainty. This is especially crucial for a site that receives nearby traffic emissions like ours. HONO produced by the homogeneous reaction of OH + NO at night was  $0.26 \pm 0.08$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which can be seen as secondary results from primary emission. They were both much higher than the observed increase rate of HONO (0.02 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) during the night. Nighttime soil emission rate was calculated to be  $0.019 \pm 0.001$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which is comparable to the observed increase rate of HONO during night, thus further demonstrating the importance of direct
- 530 emissions. In order to balance the nighttime HONO budget and assuming dry deposition to be the principle loss process, a dry deposition rate of at least 2.5 cm s<sup>-1</sup> is required. Correlation analysis shows that the heterogeneous reaction of NO<sub>2</sub> related to NH<sub>3</sub> and RH may contribute to the nighttime HONO formation. Daytime HONO budget analysis revealed that in order to sustain the observed HONO concentration around 450 pptv despite fast photolysis of HONO, an additional unknown source production rate (P<sub>Unkonwn</sub>) of 0.65 ± 0.46 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> was needed, in addition to the primary emission P<sub>emis</sub> at 0.12 ± 0.01
- 535 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, and the homogenous reaction source  $P_{OH+NO}$  at 0.79 ± 0.61 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>. It is worth noting that the homogenous HONO source by NO + OH appeared to be a stronger source of HONO than the unknown source ( $P_{Unkonwn}$ ), because of high levels of NO at our site. Correlation analysis between  $P_{Unknown}$  and proxies of different mechanisms showed that  $P_{Unknown}$  appeared to be photo-enhanced, and yet the mechanism remains unclear. Aerosols should not be as important as ground as a heterogenous reaction media, as very weak correlation between  $P_{Unknown}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$ . Moreover, no correlations were found
- 540 between  $P_{Unknown}$  and nitrate/HNO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>. We assessed the role of HONO in the production of OH and O<sub>3</sub> by calculating OH production rate as well as by simulating the chemistry with a box model (MCMv3.3.1). The average net formation rate of OH attributed to HONO and O<sub>3</sub> to was  $3.7 \times 10^6$  cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> and  $4.9 \times 10^6$  cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Box model simulations confirmed strong HONO enhancement effect on OH and O<sub>3</sub> by 59 % and 68.8 %, respectively.





# 545 Data availability

HONO data, other trace gases data and meteorological data are available upon request from the corresponding author.

#### Contribution

Yihang Yu: Validation, Formal analysis, Writing - Original Draft, Visualization. Peng Cheng: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing - Review & Editing, Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. Huirong Li:
Validation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Data Curation. Wenda Yang: Software, Investigation, Data Curation. Baobin Han: Investigation. Wei Song: Resources. Weiwei Hu: Resources. Xinming Wang: Resources. Bin Yuan: Resources. Min Shao: Resources. Zhijiong Huang: Resources. Zhen Li: Resources. Junyu Zheng: Resources. Haichao Wang: Writing -

Review & Editing. Xiaofang Yu: Investigation.

### **Competing interests**

555 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

#### Acknowledgments

This work was funded by the National Key Research and Development Program of China (No. 2018YFC0213904) and the Guangzhou City Science and Technology Plan Project (No. 201804010115).

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