

1 Improving the representation of HONO chemistry in 2 CMAQ and examining its impact on haze over China

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19 **Abstract.** We compare Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model predictions with measured
20 nitrous acid (HONO) concentrations in Beijing, China for December 2015. The model with the existing
21 HONO chemistry in CMAQ severely under-estimates the observed HONO concentrations with a
22 normalized mean bias of -97%. We revise the HONO chemistry in the model by implementing six
23 additional heterogeneous reactions in the model: reaction of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) on ground surfaces,
24 reaction of NO₂ on aerosol surfaces, reaction of NO₂ on soot surfaces, photolysis of aerosol nitrate,
25 nitric acid displacement reaction, and hydrochloric acid displacement reaction. The model with the
26 revised chemistry substantially increases HONO predictions and improves the comparison with
27 observed data with a normalized mean bias of -5%. The photolysis of HONO enhances day-time
28 hydroxyl radical by almost a factor of two. The enhanced hydroxyl radical concentrations compare
29 favourably with observed data and produce additional sulfate via the reaction with sulfur dioxide,
30 aerosol nitrate via the reaction with nitrogen dioxide, and secondary organic aerosols via the reactions
31 with volatile organic compounds. The additional sulfate stemming from revised HONO chemistry
32 improves the comparison with observed concentration; however, it does not close the gap between
33 model prediction and the observation during polluted days.

34 1 Introduction

35 China has been suffering from haze pollution (Lelieveld et al., 2015) in which secondary particles
36 contribute more than 70% to the haze formation (Guo et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2014; Quan et al., 2014;
37 Zheng et al., 2015). However, the mechanism for the formation of high levels of secondary particles is

38 not yet clearly understood and most current air quality models tend to under-estimate particle
39 concentrations compared with observed data in China. Several secondary particle formation pathways
40 have been proposed, such as ①sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) formation via the heterogeneous oxidation of sulfur
41 dioxide (SO_2) promoted by hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2) and/or ②nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) on mineral dust
42 (He et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2015; Ye et al., 2018), ③aqueous-phase oxidation of SO_2 promoted by
43 NO_2 in particle-bound water film (Wang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017), ④aqueous-phase oxidation of
44 SO_2 by nitrous acid (HONO) produced from the photolysis of aerosol nitrate (NO_3^-) in particle-bound
45 water (Wang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017), and ⑤ NO_3^- formation via efficient hydrolysis of dinitrogen
46 pentoxide (N_2O_5) on aerosol surfaces (Wang et al., 2017; Kulmala, 2018). However, the gap between
47 the model predictions and observed SO_4^{2-} is persistent and still large (Zhang et al., 2019c).

48
49 Previous studies suggested that the underestimation of atmospheric oxidation capacity during haze
50 limited the formation of secondary particles (Sun et al., 2013; Gen et al., 2019; Tsona and Du, 2019).
51 As a hydroxyl radical (OH) source, HONO plays an important role in the oxidation of precursors (Stutz
52 et al., 2002; Kleffmann et al., 2005). However, the large underestimation of HONO (up to the ppb level)
53 is prevalent during haze simulations around the world (Li et al., 2012; Fu et al., 2019; Zhang et al.,
54 2019d). Moreover, HONO underestimation is reported to be highly related to the formation of fine
55 particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$) (Wang et al., 2015; Xue et al., 2020), particularly for secondary $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.
56 Compared with summer, HONO concentrations in winter tend to be high when secondary particle
57 underestimation occurs (Li et al., 2018a; Zhang et al., 2019b). The underestimation of HONO may
58 partly explain the phenomenon of insufficient oxidant for the formation of secondary particles during
59 the winter haze (Li et al., 2018b; Li et al., 2018c).

60
61 Sarwar et al. (2008) compared the CMAQ predictions with HONO concentrations measured in
62 Philadelphia, PA, USA, during a summer month (July 2001) and reported that the model with only gas-
63 phase chemistry seriously under-estimates observed concentrations. They implemented HONO
64 emissions from motor vehicles, the heterogeneous reaction on the ground and aerosol surfaces, and the
65 photolysis of nitric acid (HNO_3) deposited on environmental surfaces, which improved predicted
66 HONO concentrations; however, the underprediction persisted. The model with the revised chemistry
67 enhanced OH and ozone (O_3) concentrations. Li et al. (2010) examined the impact of HONO chemistry
68 in Mexico City using the Weather Research and Forecasting model, coupled with chemistry (WRF-
69 CHEM). They considered five different HONO reactions: ① the existing homogeneous reaction
70 between NO (nitric oxide) and OH, ② the added heterogeneous reaction of NO_2 on the aerosol surfaces,
71 ③ the added heterogeneous reaction of NO_2 on the ground surfaces, ④the added heterogeneous
72 reaction of NO_2 with semi-volatile organics, and ⑤ the added heterogeneous reaction of NO_2
73 reaction with freshly emitted soot. The model successfully reproduced observed HONO concentrations
74 in Mexico City during March 2006. The model with the HONO chemistry increased OH, HO_2
75 (hydroperoxyl radical), O_3 , secondary organic aerosols (SOA), NO_3^- , and ammonium (NH_4^+) and
76 improved the comparison with observed data. The enhancements were particularly high in the morning.
77 However, the impact on SO_4^{2-} was negligible. Czader et al. (2012) compared CMAQv5.3 predictions
78 with HONO measured during August and September 2006 in Houston, TX, USA, and also reported
79 that the model with gas-phase alone was not sufficient to explain the observed data and predicted
80 concentrations. They added HONO emissions, NO_2 hydrolysis, active NO_2 chemistry, and conversion
81 of NO_2 into HONO on organic materials covered surfaces, which improved model performance for

82 HONO and, subsequently, increased OH and O₃ concentrations.

83

84 Fu et al. (2019) studied a 5-day episode (January 4-8, 2017) in the Pearl River Delta of China during
85 which high levels of particles, O₃, and HONO concentrations were measured. They implemented four
86 additional reactions for HONO production into the model: ① relative humidity-dependent
87 heterogeneous reaction of NO₂, ② light-dependent heterogeneous reaction of NO₂, ③ photolysis of
88 NO₃⁻, and ④ photolysis of HNO₃ on surfaces. The model with the additional chemistry successfully
89 reproduced measured HONO concentrations which subsequently enhanced and improved O₃ and PM_{2.5}
90 predictions. Xing et al. (2019) examined the impact of HONO chemistry on SOA in the Beijing-
91 Tianjin-Hebei area (BTH) of China using the WRF-CHEM model during January 9-26, 2014. They
92 employed the homogeneous and heterogeneous HONO chemistry of Li et al. (2010) and reported that
93 the HONO chemistry could increase the average SOA concentration by ~46%. Zhang et al. (2019a)
94 employed the WRF-CHEM model to examine the impact of HONO chemistry on OH, HO₂, and SOA
95 concentrations in the BTH region during a winter haze period (November 29–Dec. 3, 2017). They
96 employed six HONO sources in the model: ① traffic emissions, ② soil emissions, ③ biomass burning
97 emissions, ④ indoor emissions, ⑤ heterogeneous reaction on aerosol surfaces, and ⑥ heterogeneous
98 reaction on ground surfaces. The model reproduced observed HONO concentrations and substantially
99 elevated OH, HO₂, and SOA concentrations.

100

101 In this study, we employ the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model to simulate and
102 compare HONO predictions with observed data from the field campaign in Beijing. The field campaign
103 was conducted during December 7-22, 2015, in Beijing, China, during which high concentrations of
104 HONO and aerosols were measured.

105 2 Methodology

106 2.1 Modeling framework and homogeneous HONO chemistry

107 The Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQv5.3) (USEPA, 2019) (<https://www.epa.gov/cmaq>) was
108 used widely in this study. CMAQv5.3 includes the representation of important atmospheric processes
109 and has been used widely in air quality studies in many countries, including China (Byun and Schere,
110 2006; Sarwar et al., 2008; Xing et al., 2015). The modeling domain, which covered China and
111 consisted of 182 × 232 horizontal grid-cells with a 27 × 27 km horizontal resolution and 14 vertical
112 layers encompassing surface to 100 hPa. The first layer height of the model was about 36 m. The static
113 initial and boundary conditions from CMAQv5.3 were used for the study. A 22-day model spin-up
114 period was used to minimize the effect of initial conditions on model predictions. The Carbon Bond 6
115 (version 3, CB6r3) (Emery et al., 2015) chemical mechanism that contain six homogeneous reactions
116 related to HONO (错误!未找到引用源。) was used without any modification. The calculated
117 equilibrium constant in CB6 (Kaiser and Wu, 1977) is similar to reported rate constants by Chan et al
118 (5×10^{-20} in CB6 vs. 6×10^{-20} in Chan et al. (Chan et al., 1976a; Chan et al., 1976b)). CMAQv5.3
119 contains a treatment of heterogeneous conversion of NO₂ at aerosol and ground surfaces (Sarwar et al.,
120 2008), in which uptake coefficient at aerosol surfaces and aera density of ground surfaces were revised
121 in this study (Section 2.2). CMAQv5.3 accounts for HONO emissions from motor vehicles as 0.008 ×
122 NO_x emissions which were kept the same (NO_x = oxides of nitrogen, NO+NO₂). Photolysis rate

123 coefficients (min^{-1}) in CMAQv5.3 (J-values) are computed for photo dissociation reactions by Eq. (1).
 124 Absorption cross-section and quantum yield data suggested by the International Union of Pure and
 125 Applied Chemistry (IUPAC) are used for calculating photolysis rate coefficients of HONO (Table 1)
 126 (<http://iupac.pole-ether.fr/htdocs/datasheets/pdf>). Absorption cross-section and quantum yield data
 127 suggested by the IUPAC for NTR (organic nitrate) are used for calculating photolysis rate coefficients
 128 of CRON (nitro-cresol) (Table 1) (<http://iupac.pole-ether.fr/htdocs/datasheets/pdf>).

$$130 \quad J_i = \int_{\lambda_1}^{\lambda_2} F(\lambda) \sigma_i(\lambda) \phi_i(\lambda) d\lambda \quad (1)$$

131 Note: $F(\lambda)$ is the actinic flux ($\text{photons cm}^{-2} \text{ min}^{-1} \text{ nm}^{-1}$), $\sigma_i(\lambda)$ the absorption cross section for the
 132 molecule undergoing photo dissociation ($\text{cm}^2 \text{ molecule}^{-1}$), $\phi_i(\lambda)$ the quantum yield of the photolysis
 133 reaction ($\text{molecules photon}^{-1}$), and λ the wavelength (nm).

134
 135 We also instrumented the model with the Integrated Reaction Rate (IRR) option, which enabled
 136 estimating the contribution of each reaction to the predicted HONO concentrations (Czader et al.,
 137 2013). The Sulfur Tracking Model in CMAQv5.3 was used to quantitatively calculate the contribution
 138 of each reaction to predicted SO_4^{2-} concentration (Mathur et al., 2008).

141 **Table 1: Gas-phase chemical reactions related to HONO in CB6r3**

142

Reaction Number	Reaction	Reaction Rate Constant (k)
1	$\text{NO} + \text{OH} = \text{HONO}$	$k = \left\{ \frac{k_0[M]}{(1 + k_0[M]/k_1)} \right\} 0.81 \left\{ 1 + \left[\log_{10} \left(\frac{k_0[M]}{k_1} \right) / 0.87 \right]^2 \right\}^{-1}$ $k_0 = 7.4 \times 10^{-31} \left(\frac{T}{300} \right)^{-2.4}$ $k_1 = 3.3 \times 10^{-11} \left(\frac{T}{300} \right)^{-0.3}$
2	$\text{NO} + \text{NO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} = 2.0 \times \text{HONO}$	$k = 5.0 \times 10^{-40}$
3	$\text{HONO} + \text{HONO} = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	$k = 1.0 \times 10^{-20}$
4	$\text{HONO} = \text{NO} + \text{OH}$	J_{HONO}
5	$\text{HONO} + \text{OH} = \text{NO}_2$	$k = 2.5 \times 10^{-12} e^{(260/T)}$
6	$\text{CRON} = \text{HONO} + \text{HO}_2 + \text{FORM} + \text{OPEN}$	J_{NTR}

143 Note: NO = nitric oxide, NO_2 = nitrogen dioxide, OH = hydroxyl radical, HO_2 = hydroperoxy radical,
 144 H_2O = water vapor, HONO = nitrous acid, CRON = nitro cresol; FORM = formaldehyde, OPEN =
 145 aromatic ring open product, [M] = total pressure (molecules/cm^3), T = air temperature (K), and k = rate
 146 constant. First-order rate constants are in units of s^{-1} , second-order rate constants are in units of cm^3

147 molecule⁻¹ s⁻¹, third-order constants are in units of cm⁶ molecule⁻² s⁻¹. CMAQv5.3 converts cm-
148 molecule-s units into ppm-min units before solving the system of ordinary differential equations for
149 chemistry. J_{HONO} = photolysis of HONO, and J_{NTR} = photolysis of NTR (organic nitrate)..
150

151 2.2 Heterogeneous HONO chemistry

152 The heterogeneous formation of HONO has been studied for several decades (Fig.S1). The long
153 research history of HONO heterogeneous reaction can be found in Finlayson-Pitts (2000). The
154 understanding of heterogeneous HONO chemical reactions and parameter method is evolving.
155 Investigators have proposed hydrolysis of NO₂ on the humid aerosol surfaces, heterogeneous
156 conversion of NO₂ on ground surfaces, photolysis of NO₃⁻, catalytical formation on soot particles and
157 acid displacement process in the atmosphere during the past several years (Stemmler et al., 2006; Liu et
158 al., 2014; Karamchandani et al., 2015; VandenBoer et al., 2015; Tong et al., 2016; Ye et al., 2016; Ye et
159 al., 2017; Lu et al., 2018; Gen et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019d). Xue et al. (2020) and
160 Liu et al. (2019) recently measured summertime atmospheric HONO concentrations in a rural area in
161 China and performed simulations using a box model with updated chemical reactions for HONO
162 production published in the literature. They reported that the simulations generally reproduced
163 observed HONO concentrations using the updated HONO chemical reactions. However, the box model
164 did not consider horizontal and vertical transportation, limiting the impact of HONO formation on air
165 quality. We implement these updated chemical reactions into a three-dimensional (3D) air quality
166 model, CMAQv5.3, to examine their impacts on air quality.
167

168 Hydrolysis processes on the humid aerosol surfaces is an important HONO-producing reaction in the
169 atmosphere (An et al., 2012; Cui et al., 2018). And we use the uptake coefficient (Table 2) employed by
170 Liu et al. (2019) at night-time (Reaction 7a). The selection criteria and possible ranges of the uptake
171 coefficient are discussed in SI. The reaction on aerosols can be enhanced by light (Zhang et al., 2019b);
172 thus, we use a radiation-dependent uptake coefficient during day-time (Reaction 7b). We use
173 CMAQv5.3-calculated aerosol surface area-to-volume ratio (S/V_a) to calculate rate constant for the
174 reaction on aerosol surfaces. Heterogeneous conversion of NO₂ on ground surfaces also has been
175 studied intensively in the laboratory and field (Li et al., 2018a). Vertical night-time profile
176 measurements suggest that heterogeneous HONO formation on the ground is the dominant reaction;
177 thus, we also use this reaction. Similar to the heterogeneous reaction on aerosol surfaces, we employ an
178 uptake coefficient used by Liu et al. (2019) for the reaction at night (Reaction 8a) and a radiation-
179 dependent uptake coefficient during day-time (Reaction 8b). Following the suggestions of Vogel et al.
180 (2003), Li et al., (2019) and Liu et al., (2019), we use a value of 1.7/H (S/V_g = 1.7S'/HS' = 1.7/H, S'
181 represents the geometric surface area of the first layer. 1.7 is the effective surface factor per ground
182 surface in first layer. H is the model's first-layer height.) for surface area-to-volume ratio of ground
183 (S/V_g) to calculate the rate constant for the reaction on ground surfaces. We also conducted sensitivity
184 analysis by using the value of 2.2/H which is suggested from Voogt and Oke(1997). The result suggests
185 slightly higher concentrations but with similar model performance (details in Figure S4 in
186 Supplemental Information).
187

188 Ye et al. (2016) proposed that the photolysis of NO₃⁻ can lead to HONO production in the atmosphere
189 and reported that its photolysis rate coefficients can be several hundred times faster than the photolysis

190 rate coefficients of HNO₃. Bao et al. (2018) also reported similar photolysis rate coefficients of NO₃⁻.
 191 Fu et al. (2019) used this high photolysis rate coefficient in their study to examine the winter-time
 192 HONO production in Hong Kong. However, Romer et al. (2018) reported that such high photolysis rate
 193 coefficients of NO₃⁻ are not consistent with observed data over the Yellow Sea and should not be used
 194 in air quality models. They suggested that the photolysis rate coefficients of NO₃⁻ in air quality models
 195 should be 1 to 30 times the photolysis rate coefficient of HNO₃. For photolysis of NO₃⁻, we use a
 196 photolysis rate coefficient of 30 times the photolysis rate coefficient of HNO₃ (Reaction 9).

197
 198 HONO formation on soot particles can be catalytically enhanced in the presence of artificial solar
 199 radiation and lead to persistent reactivity of soot over long periods (Monge et al., 2010). The surface of
 200 soot particles as a heterogeneous conversion media has been reported by several studies (Monge et al.,
 201 2010; Liu et al., 2014; Spataro and Ianniello, 2014; Cui et al., 2018). The reported heterogeneous
 202 uptake coefficient on soot ranges from 10⁻⁸ to 10⁻⁶, with HONO yields ranging between 50% and 100%
 203 (Spataro et al., 2013). This heterogeneous soot photochemistry potentially may contribute to day-time
 204 HONO concentration. We also employ the reaction using the upper limit of the reported uptake
 205 coefficient and calculate the HONO formation rate following Spataro et al. (2013) (Reaction 10).

206
 207 VandenBoer et al. (2013) reported that deposited HONO can react with carbonates or soil at night and,
 208 subsequently, be released from the soil during the day by reactions with atmospheric HNO₃ and HCl
 209 (hydrochloric acid). They suggest that this acid displacement process can contribute to a substantial
 210 fraction of day-time HONO. We also use this process (Reactions 11 and 12) and employ a parameter
 211 similar to that of Liu et al. (2019), except that we utilize a displacement efficiency of 6% for HNO₃ and
 212 20% for HCl following VandenBoer et al. (2015). The dry deposition velocities of HNO₃ and HCl in
 213 CMAQ is calculated using a big-leaf resistance model (Wesely, 1989; Wesely, 2007). Calculated
 214 deposition velocities fall in the reported ranges of values by Jaeglé et al. (2018) (details in
 215 Supplemental Information).

216
 217 Zhou et al., (2003) reported that HNO₃ deposited on environmental surfaces can undergo rapid
 218 photolysis leading to day-time HONO production. Several studies (Sarwar et al., 2008; Fu et al., 2019;
 219 Liu et al., 2019) included such a reaction in their models. However, we do not include it because the
 220 rate constant has high uncertainty and it could also pose a problem for performing long-term model
 221 simulations. For long-term (annual and multiyear) that the deposited amount of HNO₃ could
 222 accumulate with time, which could continue increasing the HONO production rates with time. Soil can
 223 emit HONO and other nitrogen-containing compounds (Su et al., 2011; Oswald et al., 2013). Rasool et
 224 al. (2019) implemented these emissions into CMAQv5.3 by using a mechanistic representation of the
 225 underlying processes and examined their impacts on air quality over North America. The impacts of
 226 HONO emitted from soil are generally low, and we do not include these emissions in this study.

227

228 Table 2 Heterogeneous HONO reactions used in this study

Reaction No.	Reaction	Reaction Rate Constant (k)	Uptake coefficient (γ)	Reference
7a.	NO ₂ + aerosol = 0.5×HONO + 0.5×HNO ₃	$k = \frac{1}{4} \gamma v_{NO_2} \frac{S}{V_a}$	$\gamma_{an} = 8 \times 10^{-6}$	(Liu et al., 2019)

7b.	$\text{NO}_2 + \text{aerosol} + \text{hv} = 0.5 \times \text{HONO} + 0.5 \times \text{HNO}_3$	$k = \frac{1}{4} \gamma v_{\text{NO}_2} \frac{S}{V_a} \times \frac{J}{J_{\text{max}}}$	$\gamma_{\text{ad}} = 1 \times 10^{-3}$	(Liu et al., 2019)
8a.	$\text{NO}_2 + \text{ground} = \text{HONO}$	$k = \frac{1}{8} \gamma v_{\text{NO}_2} \frac{1.7}{H}$	$\gamma_{\text{gn}} = 4 \times 10^{-6}$	(Li et al., 2018a; Liu et al., 2019)
8b.	$\text{NO}_2 + \text{ground} + \text{hv} = \text{HONO}$	$k = \frac{1}{8} \gamma v_{\text{NO}_2} \frac{1.7}{H} \times \frac{J}{J_{\text{max}}}$	$\gamma_{\text{gd}} = 6 \times 10^{-5}$	(Liu et al., 2019)
9	$\text{NO}_3^- + \text{hv} = 0.67 \times \text{HONO} + 0.33 \times \text{NO}_2$	$J = 30 \times J_{\text{HNO}_3}$		(Romer et al., 2018)
10	$\text{NO}_2 + \text{EC} = 0.61 \times \text{HONO} + 0.39 \times \text{NO}$	$k = \frac{1}{4} \gamma v_{\text{NO}_2} \frac{S_{\text{BET}}}{V}$	$\gamma = 2 \times 10^{-6}$	(Spataro and Ianniello, 2014)
11	$\text{HNO}_3 + \text{NaNO}_2 (\text{s}) = \text{HONO} + \text{NaNO}_3 (\text{s})$	$k = 0.06 V_{\text{dep_HNO}_3} / H$		(VandenBoer et al., 2015)
12	$\text{HCl} + \text{NaNO}_2 (\text{s}) = \text{HONO} + \text{NaCl} (\text{s})$	$k = 0.2 V_{\text{dep_HCl}} / H$		(VandenBoer et al., 2015)

229 Note:

230 k = first order rate constant (sec^{-1}), γ = heterogeneous uptake coefficient (-), γ_{an} = night-time
231 heterogeneous uptake coefficient on aerosol, γ_{ad} = day-time heterogeneous uptake coefficient on aerosol,
232 γ_{gn} = night-time heterogeneous uptake coefficient on ground, γ_{gd} = day-time heterogeneous uptake
233 coefficient on ground, S/V_a = density of aerosol surface; S/V_g = density of ground surface; v = mean
234 molecular speed (m/s), HNO_3 = nitric acid, NaNO_2 = sodium nitrite, NaCl = sodium chloride, J = NO_2
235 photolysis rate coefficient, J_{max} = maximum NO_2 photolysis rate coefficient, $V_{\text{dep_HNO}_3}$ = deposition
236 velocity of HNO_3 (m/s), V_{HCl} = deposition velocity of HCl (m/s), H = the first-layer height (m), and
237 S_{BET}/V = BET surface area-to-volume ratio that we calculate as follows: CMAQv5.3 predicted
238 elemental carbon (EC) ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) $\times 1.0 \times 10^{-6}$ ($\text{g}/\mu\text{g}$) $\times 122$ m^2/g , NO_3^- = aerosol nitrate, EC = elemental
239 carbon. Reactions 7a, 7b, 8a, and 8b are revised from CMAQv5.3, while reaction numbers 9, 10, 11
240 and 12 are newly added reactions.

241 2.3 Simulation cases

242 We performed two different simulations using CMAQv5.3 for December 7-22, 2015. One simulation
243 denoted by “ORI” used the gas-phase HONO chemistry in CB6r3 along with the heterogeneous
244 hydrolysis of NO_2 in CMAQv5.3. The implementation of the heterogeneous hydrolysis of NO_2 in
245 CMAQ has previously been described by Sarwar et al. (2008). They accounted for aerosol surface area
246 as well as the ground surface area provided by leaves and building and other structures. Leaf area was
247 estimated using $2 \times \text{LAI}/H$ (LAI is the leaf area index and H is the surface layer height in the model)
248 while building and other structure surface areas were estimated using $0.002 \times \text{PURB}$ (PURB = percent
249 urban area of a grid-cell in the model). The other simulation denoted by “REV” used the gas-phase
250 HONO chemistry in CB6r3 and the heterogeneous reactions presented in Table 2. For this simulation,
251 we removed the heterogeneous hydrolysis of NO_2 in CMAQv5.3 and used the heterogeneous reactions
252 presented in Table 2. Both simulations used the same HONO emissions (section 2.1). We also
253 completed several additional sensitivity simulations as discussed in Section 3.0.

254 We used the ABaCAS national emissions inventory (<http://www.abacas-dss.com>) which resulted in
255 great performance in simulating both NO_2 and fine particle ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$). In previous studies, Zhao et al.

256 (2018) and Zheng et al. (2019) used these emissions and reported a normalized mean bias of 4% for
257 NO₂ and -17% for PM_{2.5} (Normalized Mean Bias (NMB)= $100 \times \sum(M_i - O_i) / \sum O_i$, O_i is observed
258 HONO concentration, and M_i is the simulated HONO concentration in model (Jaeglé et al.,
259 2018)). Meteorological fields for CMAQv5.3 were simulated using the Weather Research and
260 Forecasting model version 3.8 (WRFv3.8) (Skamarock and Klemp, 2008). WRF has consistent
261 parameterization for cloud fraction simulation, as well as other climate models (see (Xu and Krueger,
262 1991) and (Xu and Randall, 1996) for a review on this topics). We compared WRF predictions with
263 observed temperature, wind speed, and water vapor mixing ratio in China (Fig. S2). Mean bias (MB)
264 and root mean square error (RMSE) for temperature, wind speed and MB for water vapor mixing ratio
265 meet the benchmark limits suggested by Emery et al.(2001).

266 2.4 Observation data

267 A field campaign was conducted during December 7-22, 2015, at the Research Center for Eco-
268 Environmental Sciences (40.01° N, 116.35° E) to measure atmospheric pollutants and meteorological
269 parameters. Atmospheric concentrations of HONO were measured using a stripping coil (SC) equipped
270 with ion chromatograph (IC). The details of the instrument have been described elsewhere (Xue et al.,
271 2019a). We also completed a statistical analysis of the measurements from the instrument with data
272 from three other methods and concluded that it can provide reliable measurements. The instrument has
273 a minimum detection limit of 4.0 ppt and has been used in several field campaigns (Xue et al., 2019).
274 The concentrations of NO₂ and NO_x were measured by a nitrogen oxide analyzer (Thermo 42i, Thermo
275 Fisher, USA). Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) was measured by a pulsed fluorescence analyzer (Thermo 43i,
276 Thermo Fisher, USA). Fine particles (PM_{2.5}) was measured using an Aerosol Monitor (TSI, Thermo
277 Fisher TEOM 1405). Relative humidity (RH), temperature, wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD),
278 and other metrological data were measured by an automatic weather-monitoring system. Daily
279 atmospheric SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ samples were collected on the roof of a three-story building on the campus
280 of Tsinghua University in Beijing (40.0° N, 116.3° E) and measured by ion chromatography. Details of
281 the measurements method are described by Ma et al. (2020). The hourly averaged concentrations of the
282 main chemical species of PM_{2.5} were measured by the Gas and Aerosol Compositions Monitor (IGAC,
283 Fortelice International Co., Taiwan) monitoring system (Feng et al., 2018). The observed vertical
284 HONO concentrations from the study of Meng et al.(2020) was measured in December of 2016. The
285 OH measurements in January of 2016 were achieved from the study of Tan et al.(2018).
286

287 3 Results and discussions

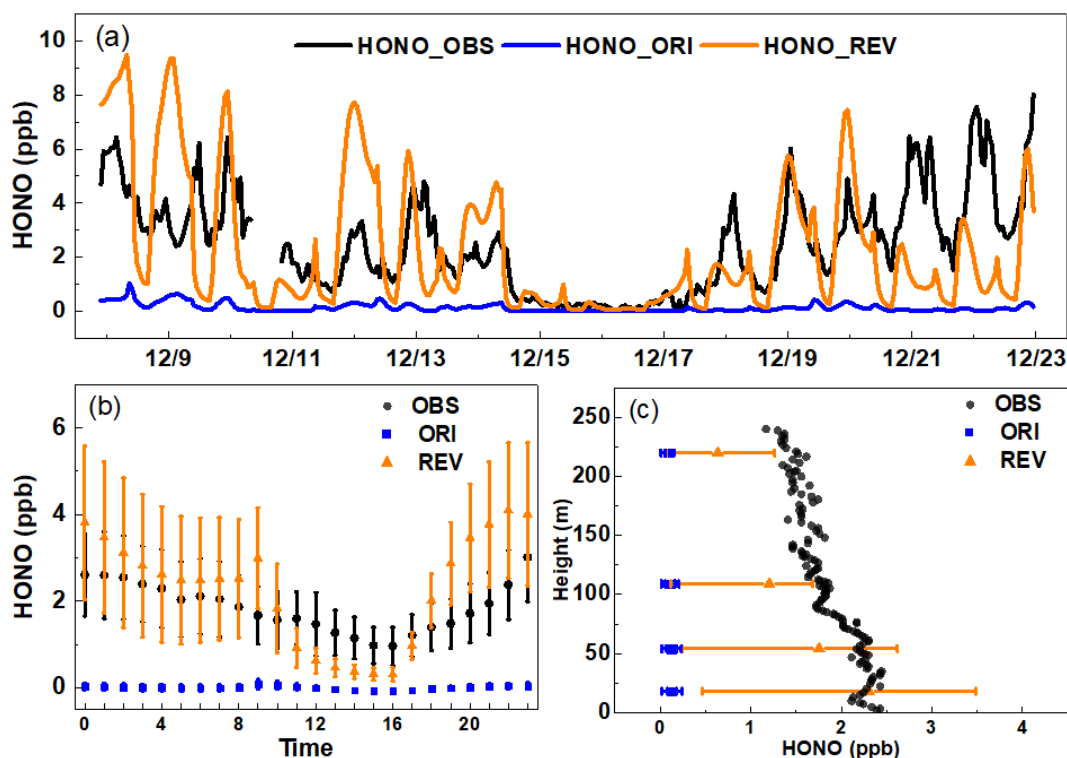
288 3.1 Comparison of model prediction with observed HONO

289 Observed HONO concentrations vary with time, range between 0.04 ppb to 8 ppb, and contains 11
290 episodes in which the daily peak concentration exceeds 3.3 ppb (Fig. 1a). The high HONO
291 concentration occurs during low wind speeds (Fig. S2). The average HONO concentration during the
292 period is comparable to the reported values for other cities (Table S1). Predicted HONO concentrations
293 obtained with the ORI case are substantially lower than the observed data. In contrast, predicted HONO
294 concentrations obtained with the REV case are substantially higher than those obtained with the ORI
295 case and generally similar to the observed data at night. The ORI case misses the peak values for all

296 episodes, whereas the REV case captures peak values for most episodes. The observed average
 297 concentration during the measurement period is 2.5 ppb, the ORI case only predicts an average
 298 concentration of 0.1 ppb, whereas the REV case predicts an average concentration of 2.3 ppb. The
 299 NMB of HONO is reduced from -96.5% with the ORI case to -4.8% with the REV case.

300

301 Consistent with observations at other cities (Platt et al., 1980; Bernard et al., 2015; Fu et al., 2019), the
 302 diurnal variation of observed HONO concentrations in Beijing also reveals higher night-time
 303 concentrations than day-time values (Fig. 1b). The predictions with ORI case are an order of magnitude
 304 lower than the observed diurnal concentrations. The diurnal variation with the REV case shows a
 305 remarkable enhancement of night-time HONO concentrations to levels similar to the observed
 306 concentrations. It also increases day-time concentrations, however, predicted values are substantially
 307 lower than the observed data, which suggests that additional processes (Oswald et al., 2013; Xing et al.,
 308 2017; Romer et al., 2018) are needed to close the gap between observed and predicted day-time HONO
 309 concentrations. Night-time and day-time heterogeneous reaction and other updated reactions contribute
 310 to the improvement of HONO diurnal pattern. More detailed analysis about this great enhancement is
 311 included in section 3.2. The diurnal pattern of the predicted HONO concentrations with the REV agrees
 312 better with the observed diurnal pattern.



313

Fig. 1 A comparison of simulated and observed HONO concentrations in Beijing (a) time series (b) diurnal variation, and (c) vertical comparison. Error bars represent 5%-95% values of all HONO concentrations.

314

315 We compare predicted vertical distribution with observed vertical HONO concentrations (39.97° N,
 316 116.38° E) from the study of Meng et al.(2020) (Fig. 1c). The measured concentration is the highest at
 317 the surface (2.3 ppb), and concentrations decrease with increasing altitude to a value of ~1.2 ppb at
 318 ~200 m, which supports the dominant role of the surface HONO production. Predicted HONO levels
 319 with ORI case are too small, whereas predictions with the REV agree better with observed data not

320 only at the surface but also aloft, which provides validity of the simulation results. Consistent with
321 previous HONO vertical concentrations and flux measurements (VandenBoer et al., 2013; Li et al.,
322 2018a), HONO concentration at the surface layer is highest. Model simulated HONO concentrations
323 (Fig. 1c) show a decreasing trend with height similar to the trend in observation data reported by Meng
324 et al.(2020). Model HONO concentrations at upper layers (above 50 m in Fig. 1c) are slightly under-
325 estimated. Model HONO concentrations in these layers are produced mainly by the heterogeneous
326 reaction of NO₂ on aerosol surfaces and the reaction of NO+OH. Aerosol indirect effects can reduce
327 photolysis rate coefficient of HONO (Xing et al., 2017). Decreasing photolysis can improve HONO
328 concentrations in the upper layers in polluted air.

329

330 The HONO/NO₂ ratio is used as an indicator to estimate the efficiency of heterogeneous NO₂-HONO
331 conversion (Kleffmann et al., 2006; Li et al., 2012). The observed HONO/NO₂ ratios ranging between
332 0.003 and 0.15 are much higher than reported values in the vehicle exhausts (0.001-0.008) which
333 suggests that HONO formation is governed mainly by the secondary production (Kirchstetter et al.,
334 1996; Kurtenbach et al., 2001). The diurnal variation of observed and predicted HONO/NO₂ ratios are
335 shown in Fig. S3. The predicted HONO/NO₂ ratios increase substantially with REV compared with the
336 ORI case. The average ratio of HONO/NO₂ increases from 0.0027 with ORI and to 0.053 with REV,
337 which is in agreement with the observed value of 0.055. The NMB of hourly average simulated
338 HONO/NO₂ ratios at night-time decreases from -94.4% with ORI and to -34.2% with REV. The model
339 results suggest that NO₂ heterogeneous conversion is the most important reaction for simulating
340 atmospheric HONO concentrations.

341

342 According to our detailed literature review in methodology part, uncertainties of HONO prediction
343 might be largely associated with four key parameters and inputs including the uptake coefficient of
344 NO₂ at ground surface, the aerosol nitrate photolysis rate coefficient, the daytime photolysis rate
345 coefficient, as well as the baseline NO_x emissions. Sensitivity analysis was conducted to examine the
346 influences from those parameters, suggesting that HONO concentration could be doubled with different
347 parameters (see Supplementary Information). Besides, some sources including the photolysis of
348 deposited HNO₃, soil emission and traffic emission could also affect predicted HONO concentration,
349 while the importance of these sources is difficult to quantify. Future studies in improving the accuracy
350 of these parameters are important to reduce the uncertainties of HONO prediction.

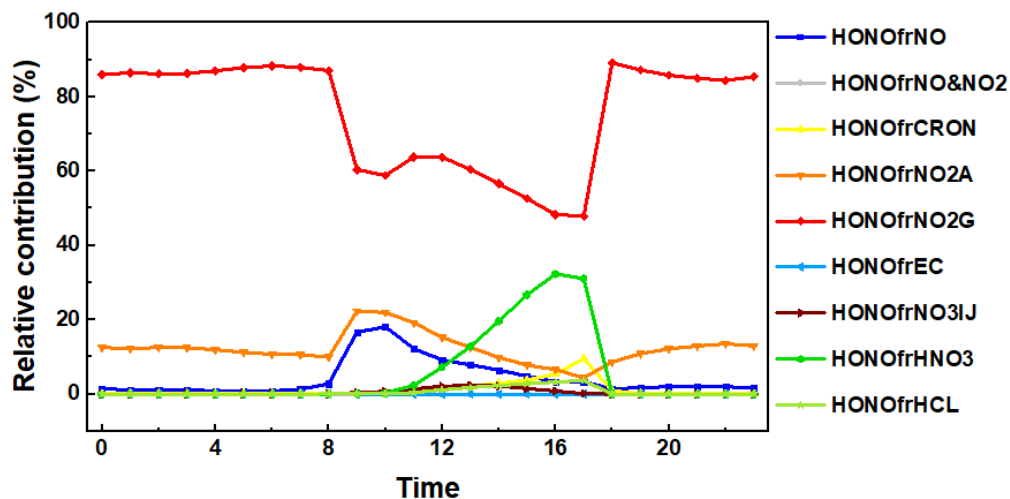
351 **3.2 Relative contribution of different HONO reactions**

352 To gain insights into HONO reactions, production rates of different reactions are calculated, and the
353 diurnal variation of the production rates is presented in Fig. S7. The production rates from the
354 heterogeneous reaction on ground surfaces (denoted HONOf_rNO₂G) are higher during the day than
355 those at night because of the higher rate constant. During night-time (18-5 h / 6:00 p.m.-5:00 a.m.), it
356 dominates the HONO production with an average production rate of 1.4 ppb/h. Similar to
357 HONOf_rNO₂G, the production rates from the heterogeneous reaction on aerosol surfaces (denoted
358 HONOf_rNO₂A) are also higher during day-time compared with those at night-time. It contributes an
359 average production rate of 0.2 ppb/h during night-time. The contribution of other reactions to night-
360 time HONO production are relatively small (<0.03ppb/h). During day-time (6-17 h / 6:00 a.m.-5:00
361 p.m.), HONOf_rNO₂G also dominates the production with an average contribution of 2.05 ppb/h.
362 HONOf_rNO₂A is the second most important contributor during day-time with an average production

363 rate of 0.54 ppb/h. The photolysis of NO_3^- is the third contributor with an average production of 0.04
364 ppb/h. Gas-phase reactions collectively contribute an average production rate of ~ 0.41 ppb/h. The
365 $\text{NO}+\text{OH}$ reaction is the most important gas-phase reaction, producing HONO at an average rate of 0.37
366 ppb/h. The average day-time production rates of the acid displacement reactions of HNO_3 and HCl are
367 0.25 ppb/h and 0.03 ppb/h, respectively. The contribution of the reaction on elemental carbon (EC) is
368 even smaller (<0.01 ppb/h). Day-time production from the heterogeneous reaction on ground and
369 aerosol surfaces is greater than the combined production from all other reactions. Although updated
370 day-time reaction rates are higher than that of night-time, accelerated photochemical loss slow down
371 the HONO increase during day-time.

372

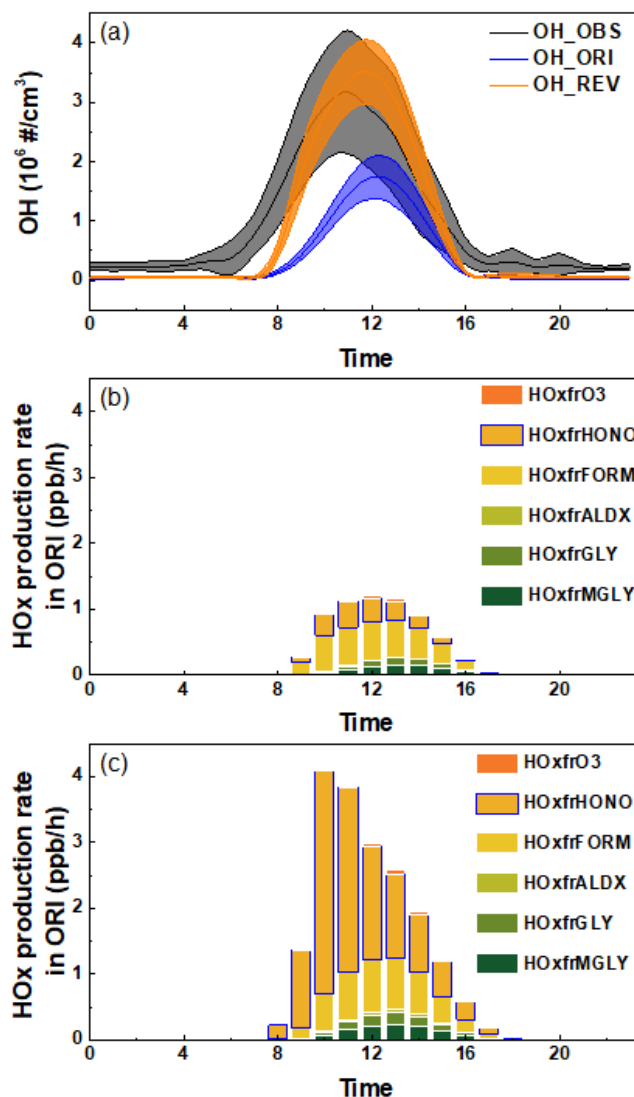
373 The relative contribution of the chemistry updates to HONO formation (REV) is shown in Fig. 2.
374 $\text{HONOfrNO}_2\text{G}$ is the most important reaction, contributing $\sim 86.2\%$ of night-time HONO production.
375 $\text{HONOfrNO}_2\text{A}$ is the second largest contributor, representing $\sim 12.3\%$ of night-time HONO production.
376 During day-time, $\text{HONOfrNO}_2\text{G}$ contributes $\sim 64.7\%$ of the HONO production, whereas
377 $\text{HONOfrNO}_2\text{A}$ is the second largest contributor, representing 12.6% of the HONO production. Day-
378 time HONO production rate from $\text{HONOfrNO}_2\text{A}$ is higher than that at night-time due to the higher rate
379 constant. Consequently, the relative importance of day-time heterogeneous reaction on aerosol surfaces
380 increases, whereas the relative importance of day-time heterogeneous reaction on ground surfaces
381 decreases. The acid displacement reaction of HNO_3 contributes 11% to day-time HONO formation, and
382 its contribution peaks at 5 p.m. (17 h). The average contribution of gas-phase reactions, photolysis of
383 NO_3^- and acid displacement reactions to day-time HONO production are 9.4%, 1.0%, and 1.3%,
384 respectively. Note that the reaction of $\text{OH}+\text{NO}$ becomes important in the morning (9 to 10 a.m.) during
385 which it contributes 17.4% of the total HONO production. Averaged over the day and night,
386 $\text{HONOfrNO}_2\text{G}$ is the most significant reaction, contributing 75.6% of the HONO production.
387 $\text{HONOfrNO}_2\text{A}$ is the second largest contributor, representing 12.3% of the HONO production. The
388 gas-phase reactions and the acid displacement reaction of HNO_3 are the third most important
389 contributor each accounting for 5.6% of HONO production. Although $\text{HONOfrNO}_2\text{G}$ had a relatively
390 lower uptake coefficient than the aerosol surface reaction, the reaction rate was large because of the
391 greater ground surface area density ($0.047 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-3}$) compared with the aerosol surface area density
392 ($0.0014 \text{ m}^2 \text{ m}^{-3}$).



393

394 Fig. 2 Relative contribution of different HONO reactions to near-ground-level HONO concentration in
 395 Beijing in December. The production from the NO+OH reaction is denoted as HONOfrNO, the production
 396 from the NO+NO₂+H₂O reaction is denoted as HONOfrNO&NO₂, the production from cresol is denoted as
 397 HONOfrCRON, the production from the heterogeneous reaction on ground surfaces is denoted as
 398 HONOfrNO₂G, the production from the heterogeneous reaction on aerosol surfaces is denoted as
 399 HONOfrNO₂A, the production from the reaction of EC is denoted as HONOfrEC, the production from the
 400 photolysis of NO₃⁻ is denoted as HONOfrNO₃IJ, the production from the acid displacement reaction of
 401 HNO₃ is denoted as HONOfrHNO₃, and the production from acid displacement reaction of HCl is denoted
 402 as HONOfrHCL.

403



405
 406 Fig 3 (a) A comparison of simulated and observed diurnal variation of OH. Shadow in Fig. 3a indicates the
 407 range of observation. (b) HO_x formation rates from different photolytic reactions with the ORI case and (c)
 408 HO_x formation rates from different photolytic reactions with the REV case. The production of HO_x from
 409 the O₃ photolysis is denoted as HOxfrO3, the production of HO_x from the HONO photolysis is denoted as
 410 HOxfrHONO, the production of HO_x from the formaldehyde photolysis is denoted as HOxfrFORM, the
 411 production of HO_x from the higher aldehyde photolysis is denoted as HOxfrALDX, the production of HO_x
 412 from the glyoxal photolysis is denoted as HOxfrGLY, and the production of HO_x from the methyl glyoxal
 413 photolysis is denoted as HOxfrMGLY.

414
 415 Enhanced HONO production increases model OH concentration via photolysis. We compare predicted
 416 OH concentrations with observed winter data (40.41° N, 116.68° E) reported by Tan et al. (2018) in
 417 Fig 3a. Observed concentrations are low ($\sim 2\text{--}3 \times 10^5 \text{ #/cm}^3$) at night and rapidly increase in the morning
 418 reaching a peak value of $\sim 3 \times 10^6 \text{ #/cm}^3$ at around 11:00 a.m., then slowly decrease to the low nightly
 419 values. The ORI case under-predicts the observed peak value by a factor of ~ 2 , and the model peak
 420 time occurs 1 to 1.5 hours after the observed peak time, which is consistent with a previous study in

421 which additional HONO reactions increased OH levels by a factor of >2 (Xue et al., 2020). In addition,
422 the morning enhancement rate with ORI is very low compared with the observed rate. In contrast, the
423 REV case reproduces the observed peak and improves the timing of the peak. The morning
424 enhancement rate also substantially increases and closely tracks the observed enhancement rate. The
425 daily average concentration of OH with REV increases by $\sim 98\%$ compared with that obtained with
426 ORI. Thus, the REV case successfully captures the morning enhancement rate and the peak, and
427 improves the timing of the peak in observed OH data in Beijing. Overall, it captures the observed OH
428 concentration in Beijing much better than the model with the original chemistry. To examine the
429 vertical extent of the impact on OH, predicted OH concentrations with altitude are shown in Fig. S8
430 (40.0° N, 116.3° E). Predicted OH concentration with ORI is the lowest at the surface and increases
431 with altitude primarily because of higher O_3 aloft. The REV case increases OH concentration not only
432 due to the surface HONO but also aloft. However, the impact on OH decreases with altitude as the
433 HONO production decreases with altitude.

434

435 Various photolytic reactions, including the photolysis of O_3 , HONO, formaldehyde, higher aldehyde,
436 glyoxal, and methyl glyoxal, produce HO_x ($OH+HO_2$) are in the model. To understand the relative
437 impacts of these HONO reactions on HO_x production, we compare the diurnal production rates of HO_x
438 from these reactions in Fig. 3b and c. In the ORI case (Fig. 3b), the production of HO_x is relatively
439 small and dominated by the photolysis of HONO and formaldehyde. The photolysis of HONO and
440 formaldehyde start producing HO_x at 9 a.m. which initiates day-time atmospheric chemistry. From late
441 morning, the production of HO_x from glyoxal and methyl glyoxal also contributes to the continuation
442 of day-time atmospheric chemistry. In our simulation, glyoxal and methyl glyoxal originate from the
443 oxidation of aromatics in the atmosphere because isoprene concentration in Beijing is low in winter.
444 Averaged over the entire day, the photolysis of formaldehyde is the largest contributor (0.14 ppb/h) and
445 the photolysis of HONO is the second largest contributor (0.08 ppb/h) to the total HO_x production rate.
446 The production from O_3 and higher aldehyde photolysis are small as their concentrations are low.

447

448 In contrast, the HO_x production rates in the REV case are much higher than those in the ORI case
449 because of the enhanced formation from HONO (Fig. 3c). The photolysis of HONO produces HO_x in
450 the morning, which then kick-starts day-time atmospheric chemistry at 8 a.m. (1 h earlier than in the
451 ORI case) and continues to play an important role during the entire day. From late morning, the
452 production of HO_x from formaldehyde, glyoxal, methyl glyoxal, and higher aldehyde also contributes
453 to the continuation of day-time atmospheric chemistry. The production of HO_x from glyoxal, methyl
454 glyoxal, and higher aldehydes plays a larger role compared with that in the ORI case because of higher
455 concentrations produced by the enhanced oxidation of aromatics by higher OH. The photolysis of
456 HONO is the largest contributor (0.5 ppb/h) to the overall HO_x production rate averaged over the entire
457 day while the photolysis of formaldehyde is the second largest contributor (0.18 ppb/h). Thus, HONO
458 plays a crucial role in producing OH in the morning, without updated reactions, the start of day-time
459 atmospheric chemistry is delayed; and the reaction rates are slower, it also plays an important role in
460 atmospheric chemistry throughout the day. Many other photolytic reactions also produce HO_x in the
461 model; however, the productions from the other pathways are small and do not affect our calculation,
462 hence, they are not shown in the figure. The daytime underestimation of HONO in Fig.1 may
463 potentially lead to the underestimation of OH concentration; however, the aerosol indirect effect may
464 lower the OH concentration by reducing the rates of HO_x formation. Therefore, more accurate HONO

465 simulation needs to consider more complex and significant atmospheric chemical processes.
 466
 467 HONO can affect greatly the daily OH budget (Platt et al., 1980; Harris et al., 1982; Li et al., 2018c; Lu
 468 et al., 2019; Xue et al., 2020). Our simulations with the additional HONO reactions enhances OH,
 469 which in turn increases HO₂ by the fast conversion between OH and HO₂ radicals (Heard and Pilling,
 470 2003; Lu et al., 2012). The reaction rate of the HO₂+NO reaction increases from 1.8 ppb/h in ORI to
 471 3.6 ppb/h in REV. This indicates that the HONO chemistry also indirectly promotes the formation of
 472 OH by increasing the activity of HO₂. This highlights the promoting role of HONO in gas-phase
 473 radicals.

474
 475 Increased OH concentration oxidizes additional volatile organic compounds (VOCs), lowers the
 476 concentrations of precursor species, and increases the concentrations of secondary species (Table S3).
 477 Enhanced oxidation of VOCs, sulfur dioxide, and NO₂ leads to secondary pollutants, including SO₄²⁻,
 478 NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and SOA, which are discussed in the next section.

479 3.4 Impacts of HONO chemistry on the formation of secondary particles

480 Daily averaged model predicted SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺ concentrations are compared with observed
 481 data in Beijing in Fig. 4. The ORI case captures the observed trend but generally under-estimates the
 482 observed SO₄²⁻ concentrations, whereas the REV case enhances SO₄²⁻ concentrations and closes the gap
 483 between model predictions and observation data. Over the entire simulation period, the average
 484 concentration of SO₄²⁻ is increased from 13.3 μg/m³ to 15.8 μg/m³ (19%). CMAQv5.3 includes six
 485 chemical pathways for the conversion of SO₂ into SO₄²⁻ (Sarwar et al., 2011). These are ① the gas-
 486 phase oxidation of SO₂ by OH, aqueous-phase oxidation of S(IV) (the sum of SO₂•H₂O [hydrated SO₂],
 487 HSO₃⁻ [bisulfite ion] and SO₃²⁻ [sulfite ion]) by ② H₂O₂ (hydrogen peroxide), ③ O₃, ④ PAA
 488 (peroxyacetic acid), ⑤ MHP (methylhydroperoxide), and ⑥ oxygen catalyzed by the iron (Fe[III]) and
 489 manganese (Mn[II]). We utilized the sulfate tracking model to examine SO₄²⁻ production from these
 490 chemical pathways over Beijing. The SO₄²⁻ production from the gas-phase oxidation of SO₂ by OH in
 491 the REV is ~79% greater than that of the ORI case because of the higher OH concentration from
 492 HONO photolysis. SO₄²⁻ production from the aqueous-phase oxidation of S(IV) by H₂O₂ in the ORI is
 493 relatively small because the predicted H₂O₂ concentration is also small in winter. However, the REV
 494 case enhances H₂O₂ concentration, which consequently also increases the SO₄²⁻ production from this
 495 pathway. The other chemical pathways produce similar concentrations in both models, except the
 496 oxygen catalyzed by the Fe[III] and Mn[II] pathway, which produce slightly lower SO₄²⁻ production in
 497 the REV case because of the competition among different chemical pathways and greater oxidation by
 498 the OH initiated pathway.

499

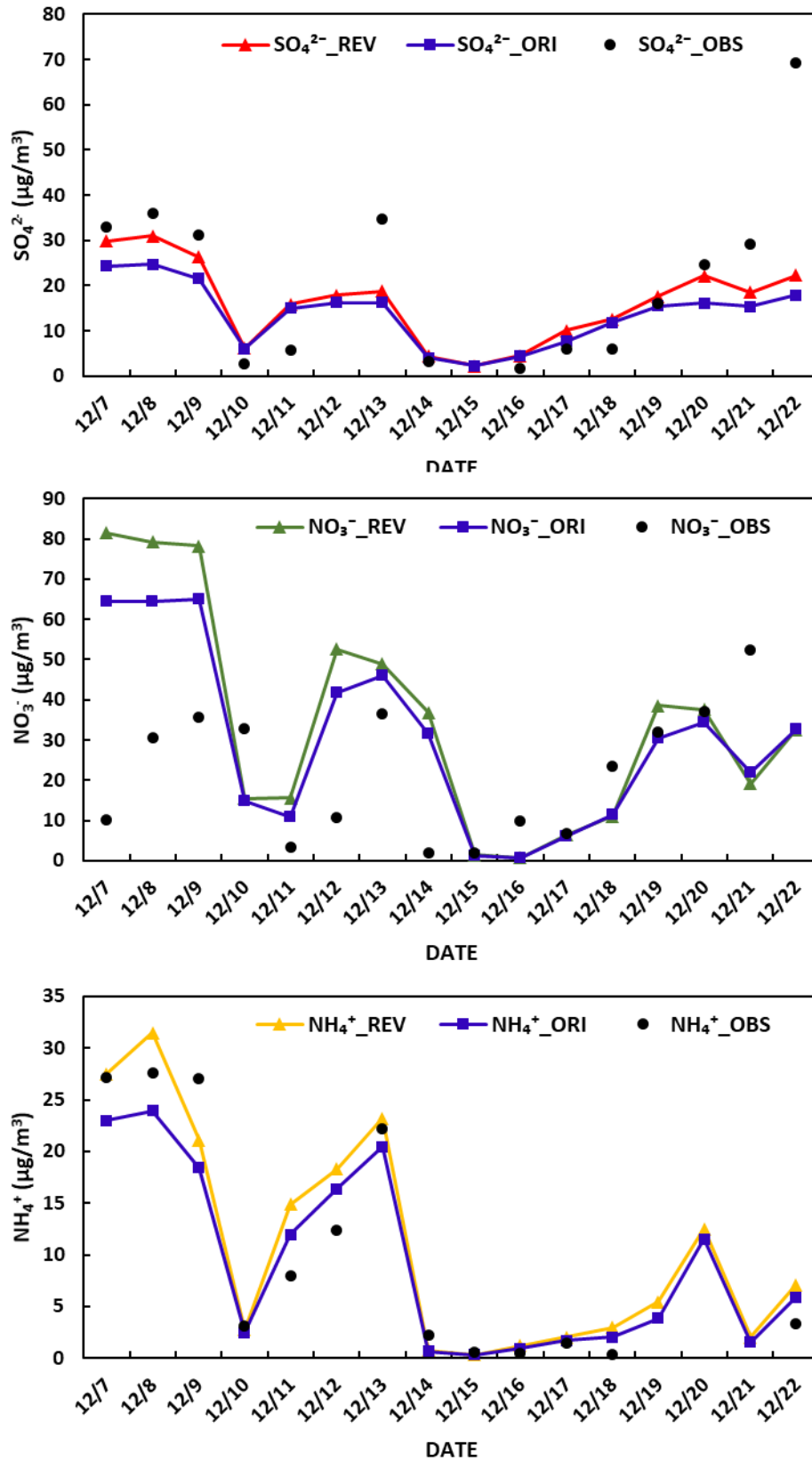
500 **Table 3. Predicted SO₄²⁻ concentration in Beijing from different chemical pathways in CMAQv5.3**

Chemical pathway	Average SO ₄ ²⁻ concentration in ORI (μg/m ³)	Average SO ₄ ²⁻ concentration in REV (μg/m ³)
SO ₂ + OH	2.23	3.99
S(IV) + H ₂ O ₂	0.25	0.41

S(IV) + O ₃	0.02	0.02
S(IV) + O ₂ (TMI)	0.61	0.50
S(IV) + MHP	0.01	0.01
S(IV) + PAA	<0.01	<0.01

501

502 TMI: S(IV) oxidation by oxygen catalyzed by Fe[III] and Mn[II]



503

504 Fig. 4 A comparison of simulated and observed daily averaged sulfate, nitrate and ammonium
 505 concentration in Beijing

506 Additional SO_4^{2-} production is needed in the model to close the gap between the model prediction and

507 observed data. Several investigators have proposed other pathways that can generate additional SO_4^{2-}
508 production. For example, Gen et al. (2019) conducted laboratory experiments and reported that the
509 photolysis of NO_3^- can generate N(III) ($\text{HONO} + \text{NO}_2^-$) in aerosol liquid water, which oxidizes S(IV)
510 into SO_4^{2-} . Zheng et al. (2020) recently incorporated such a pathway and reported that it can enhance
511 SO_4^{2-} production and can explain 15% to 65% of the gap between model predictions and observed
512 SO_4^{2-} concentrations in China. Shao et al. (2019) implemented several additional heterogeneous SO_4^{2-}
513 formation pathways for oxidation of S(IV) in aerosol liquid water and reported that the pathways can
514 enhance SO_4^{2-} production by 20% in China. Wang et al. (2020) recently reported that S(IV) can be
515 oxidized by HONO and NO_2 in cloud and fog to produce SO_4^{2-} in China. Other investigators (Wang et
516 al., 2016; Ye et al., 2018) have suggested additional chemical pathways for SO_4^{2-} production in China.
517 Additional research is needed to further understand the chemical pathways for SO_4^{2-} production in
518 China (Wang et al., 2020b). These pathways are not the focus of this study and, therefore, are not
519 included in our simulations that leads to the model underpredictions. However, our analysis reveals that
520 the HONO chemistry and the subsequent production of OH can enhance SO_4^{2-} production in China, so
521 should be included in air quality models.

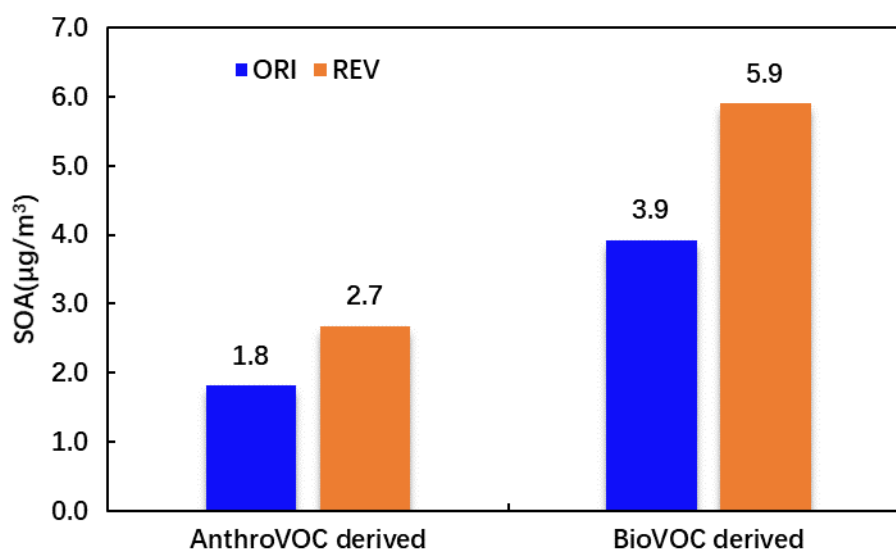
522

523 The ORI case has mixed performance in simulating observed NO_3^- (Fig. 4). It over-estimates the daily-
524 averaged observed NO_3^- concentration on some days but captures or under-estimates the observed
525 concentrations on the other. The over-estimation of winter NO_3^- by CMAQ has been reported in
526 previous studies (Yu et al., 2005; Appel et al., 2008). Several reactions contribute to the formation of
527 HNO_3 in CMAQv5.3, which then partitions into NO_3^- . The heterogeneous hydrolysis of N_2O_5 is the
528 most important night-time reaction, and the oxidation of NO_2 by OH is the most important day-time
529 reaction forming HNO_3 . CMAQv5.3 uses the parameterization of Davis et al. (2008) for calculating the
530 uptake coefficient for the heterogeneous hydrolysis of N_2O_5 . It does not include the organic-coating
531 effect (Anttila et al., 2006; Riemer et al., 2009) that can lower the uptake coefficient. Several studies
532 (Brown et al., 2006; Chang et al., 2016; McDuffie et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020a) have suggested that
533 the parametrizations used in air quality models, including box model, WRF-CHEM and CMAQv5.3,
534 produce higher uptake coefficients than that derived from observation-based studies. These higher
535 uptake coefficients produce high levels of HNO_3 and NO_3^- in the model. A recent study also suggests
536 that the heterogeneous uptake coefficient in China can be even lower than the values derived over the
537 United States (Wang et al., 2020b). Our current model does not include such lower uptake coefficient
538 and over-predicts NO_3^- concentrations. Our IRR analysis of the ORI case results suggests that 30.3% of
539 NO_3^- (averaged over the entire simulation period in Beijing) is produced via night-time heterogeneous
540 hydrolysis of N_2O_5 , and 69.7% is produced via day-time oxidation of NO_2 by OH. The revised
541 chemistry further enhances predicted NO_3^- primarily via the enhanced day-time oxidation of NO_2 .
542 Overall, night-time heterogeneous hydrolysis of N_2O_5 contributes 27.6%, and day-time oxidation of
543 NO_2 contributes 72.4% in the REV case. Consequently, predicted NO_3^- concentrations with the revised
544 chemistry further are overestimated on most days.

545

546 Because of the increased production of SO_4^{2-} and fNO_3^- , the average concentration of NH_4^+ also
547 increased from $11.1\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in ORI and to $13.1\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ in REV (Fig. 4). NH_4^+ formation is promoted by
548 enhancing the neutralization of sulfuric acid and HNO_3 by ammonia. The dissolution of the precursor
549 and the ion balance is the main factor for the growth of NH_4^+ in CMAQv5.3. The overestimation of
550 NO_3^- leads to the overestimation of NH_4^+ (Liu et al., 2020).

551



552

553 **Fig. 5 Predicted monthly average SOA concentration from anthropogenic VOCs (Anthro-VOC-derived)**
554 **and biogenic VOCs (Bio-VOC-derived) in Beijing. Numbers in this figure only involve SOA from**
555 **representative anthropogenic or biogenic VOCs.**

556

557 CMAQv5.3 has a comprehensive treatment of organic aerosols (Murphy et al., 2017; Pye et al., 2017;
558 Xu et al., 2018), including SOA production from anthropogenic-VOC (Anthro-VOC-derived) and
559 biogenic-VOC (Bio-VOC-derived) Fig. 5 displays the Anthro-VOC-derived and Bio-VOC-derived
560 SOA in Beijing.. The REV case enhances the concentration of Anthro-VOC-derived SOA by 0.9 µg/m³
561 (50%) and Bio -VOC-derived SOA by 2.0 µg/m³ (51%). Enhanced OH from additional HONO
562 enhances the oxidation of VOCs (Table S3) and promotes the SOA formation, which also is reported in
563 previous studies. For example, Xing et al. (2019) used the WRF-CHEM model to examine the impact
564 of HONO chemistry updates on SOA formation over the BTH region in winter and reported that the
565 heterogeneous HONO productions can increase the regional average SOA concentration by 46%.
566 Zhang et al. (2019b) implemented six additional HONO reactions (traffic, soil, biomass burning and
567 indoor emissions, and heterogeneous reactions on aerosol and ground surfaces) in the WRF-CHEM
568 model and reported that it successfully reproduced the observed HONO concentrations in Wangdu.
569 They suggested that the additional HONO reactions can increase 2 to 15 µg/m³ of SOA (meridional-
570 mean) in the BTH region on heavy haze days.

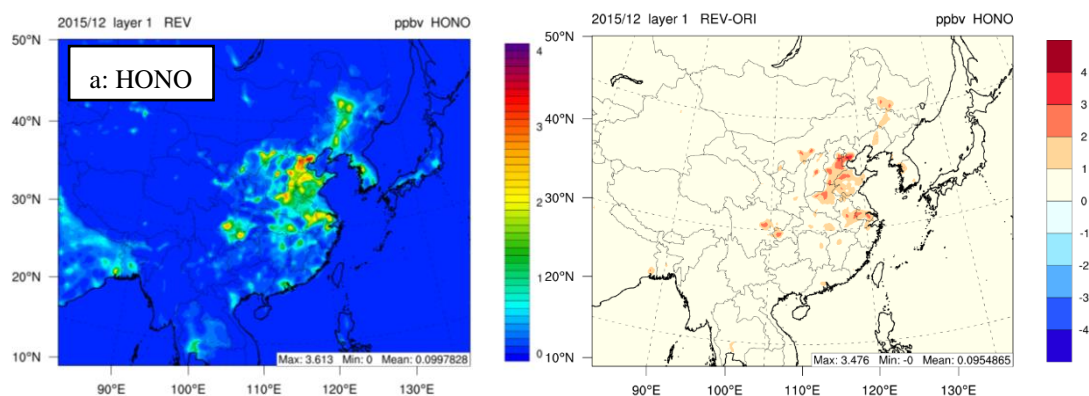
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572 3.5 Spatial impacts on selected species

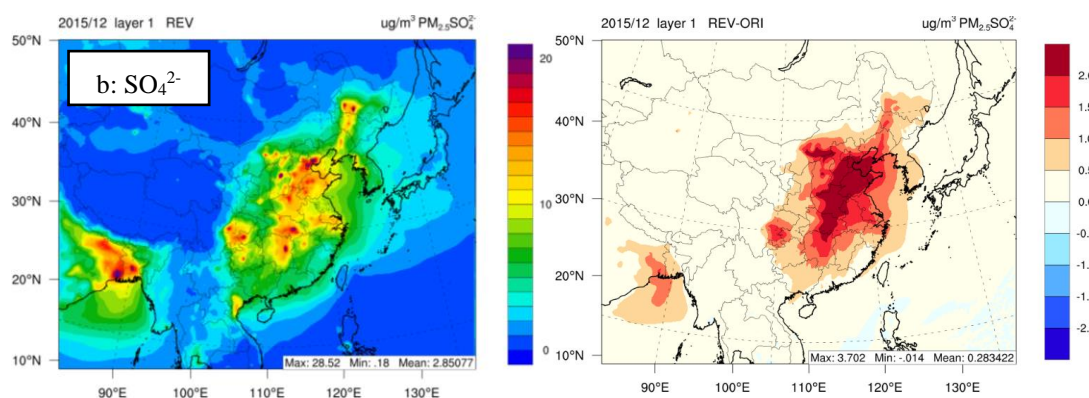
573 We examine the spatial impacts of the revised HONO chemistry on selected species (HONO, SO₄²⁻,
574 NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and SOA) in Fig. 6. Predicted average HONO concentrations with ORI are low (<0.18 ppb)
575 over the entire modeling domain. The revised chemistry increases HONO concentrations over the
576 North China Plain (i.e., BTH, Henan, Shandong) by 0.5 to 3.0 ppb. Abundant emissions of NO_x in this
577 area results in higher NO₂ concentrations, which subsequently enhance HONO concentrations, as the
578 NO₂ reaction on ground is the dominated HONO production source (Fig. 2). It also increases HONO in
579 some other urban areas; however, the impacts in most other areas are relatively small. The ORI case

580 predicts higher average SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ concentrations over the North China Plain and the
 581 northeast cities. The revised chemistry enhances average of SO_4^{2-} by 1 to 3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, with the maximum
 582 enhancements over the south part of the Hebei province. It increases NO_3^- by up to 1.5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and NH_4^+
 583 by up to 1.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ over the North China Plain. It also slightly decreases NO_3^- over the North China
 584 Plain. The revised HONO chemistry decreases NO_2 concentration while increasing OH concentration.
 585 Thus, day-time production of HNO_3 from the NO_2+OH pathway depends on the relative magnitude of
 586 the changes of the reaction rate and tends to increase the production in high- NO_x areas while
 587 decreasing it in low- NO_x areas. HNO_3 partitions into NO_3^- ; thus, changes in HNO_3 production leads to
 588 changes in NO_3^- concentration. The ORI case predicts the highest anthropogenic SOA (anthro-SOA)
 589 and biogenic SOA (bio-SOA) concentrations over northeast China and the North China Plain. The
 590 revised model increases anthro-SOA by 0.37 to 1.2 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ over this area and changes bio-SOA over the
 591 North China Plain and the northeast cities by -2.0 to 2.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Isoprene emissions in some southern
 592 cities are relatively higher than in cities in North China Plain in the model. Glyoxal and methylglyoxal
 593 generated from isoprene are oxidized by increased OH from the HONO chemistry. SOA derived from
 594 biogenic VOC, therefore, is reduced in some areas in Guangdong.
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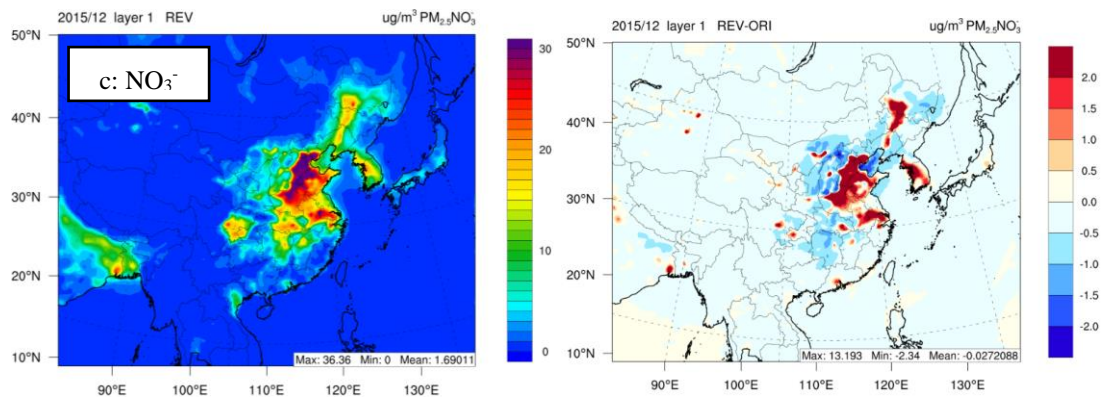


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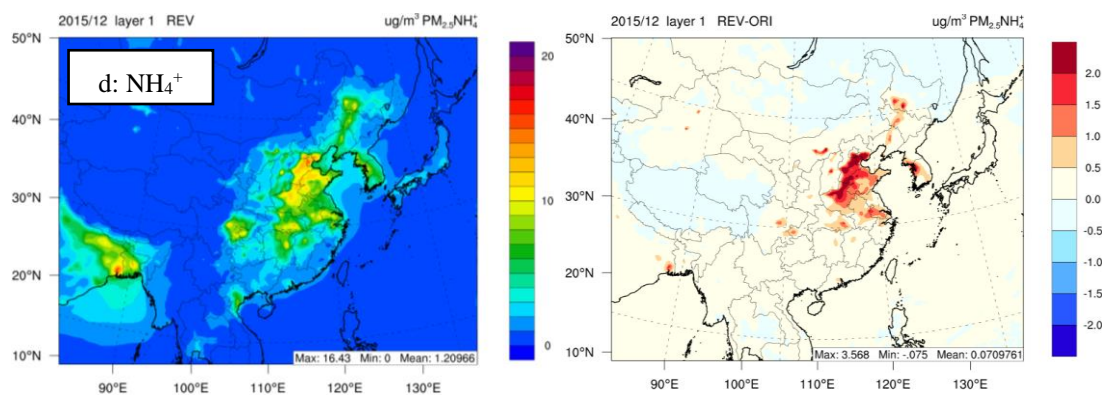


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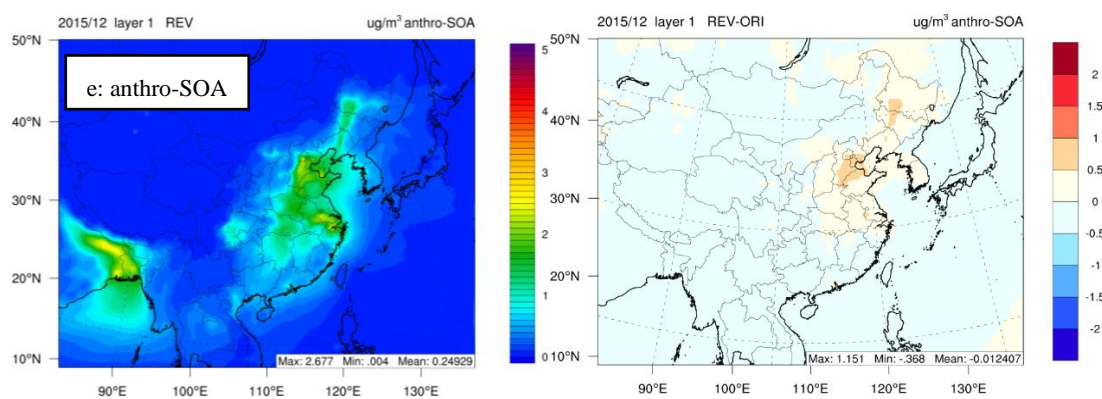
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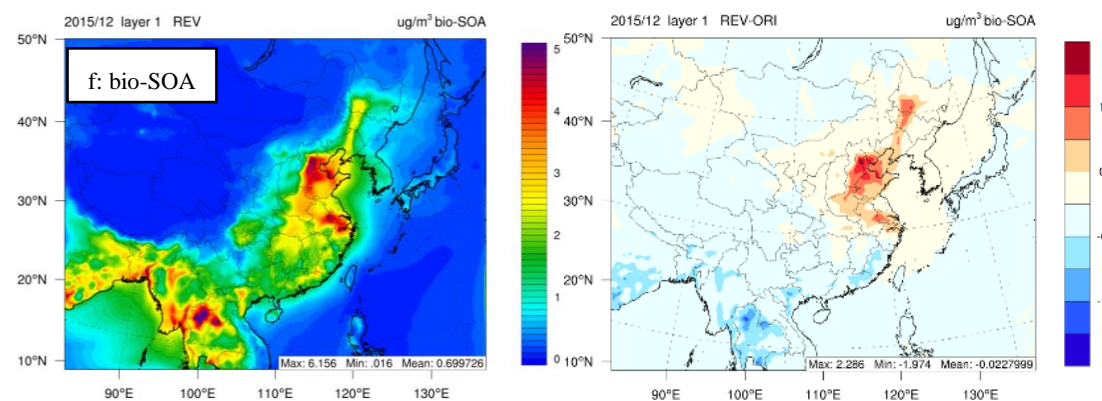
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Fig. 6 Spatial distributions of monthly averaged (a) HONO, (b) sulfate, (c) nitrate, (d) ammonium, (e) anthro-VOC-derived SOA, (f) and bio-VOC-derived SOA concentrations simulated with REV and the differences (REV-ORI) between the two simulations in December 2015.

606 4 Summary

607 The existing HONO chemistry in CMAQv5.3 cannot re-produce the observed winter HONO
608 concentrations in Beijing. Thus, we revised the HONO chemistry in CMAQv5.3 by implementing
609 several heterogeneous HONO formation pathways. Model predictions with the revised chemistry
610 generally agree with observed HONO concentrations, although the model cannot predict the higher
611 observed day-time concentrations. The heterogeneous production on ground accounts for nearly 75%
612 of the total HONO production. Enhanced HONO increases day-time OH concentrations, which also
613 agree well with observed data in Beijing. Predicted OH concentrations with the existing HONO
614 chemistry are lower than observed data almost by a factor of two. The morning OH enhancement rate is
615 lower than the observed rate, and the timing of the peak is delayed. The revised HONO chemistry
616 improves the morning OH enhancement rate and reproduces the daily peak and the timing of the daily
617 peak. Enhanced OH increases the oxidation rates of SO₂, NO₂, and VOCs in the atmosphere and
618 produces additional secondary pollutants. The revised HONO chemistry moderately enhances SO₄²⁻
619 concentration in this study. The impact of HONO chemistry on SO₄²⁻ concentration is likely to be
620 greater than shown in this article. For example, HONO chemistry enhances NO₃⁻, which, in turn, can
621 produce additional SO₄²⁻ via the photolysis of NO₃⁻ (Zheng et al., 2020). The oxidation of S(IV) by
622 HONO in cloud and fog also can produce additional SO₄²⁻ (Wang et al., 2020). Such pathways are not
623 the focus of this study and are not included in the current model. A recent study (Chen et al., 2019)
624 suggests that HONO also can form on snow-covered ground, which can potentially affect wintertime
625 air quality. Thus, a future study incorporating such chemical reactions to comprehensively examine the
626 impact of HONO chemistry on air quality in different seasons and geographical areas is envisioned.

627

628 Code and data availability

629 The standard CMAQ model is available at: <https://www.epa.gov/cmaq>. The code changes made in this
630 study and the observational data used in this study are available from the corresponding author upon
631 request (honghe@rcees.ac.cn xingjia@tsinghua.edu.cn).

632

633 Author contributions

634 SPZ initiated the study, carried out analysis, and wrote the initial draft. All authors helped interpret the
635 data, provided feedback, and commented on the manuscript.

636

637 Competing interests

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

639

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647 **Disclaimer**

648 The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the views or
649 policies of the U.S. EPA.

650

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