Seasonal modeling analysis of nitrate formation pathways in Yangtze River Delta region, China

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Abstract

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Nitrate (NO₃⁻) has been the dominant and the least reduced chemical component of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) since the stringent emission control implemented in China in 2013. The formation pathways of NO₃ vary seasonally and differ substantially in daytime vs. nighttime. They are affected by precursor emissions, atmospheric oxidation capacity, and meteorological conditions. Understanding NO₃ formation pathways provides insights for the design of effective emission control strategies to mitigate NO₃ pollution. In this study, the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model was applied to investigate the impact of regional transport, predominant physical processes, and different formation pathways to NO₃ and total nitrate (TNO₃, i.e., HNO₃+NO₃⁻) production in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region during the four seasons of 2017. NO₃-/PM_{2.5} and NO₃-/TNO₃ are the highest in the winter, reaching 21% and 94%, respectively. Adjusted gas ratio (adjGR \rightarrow ([NH₃] + $[NO_3^-]/([HNO_3] + [NO_3^-]))$ in the YRD is generally greater than two in different the four seasons across most areas in the YRD, indicating that YRD is mostly in the NH₃-rich regime and NO₃ is limited by HNO₃ formation. Local emissions and regional transportation contribute to YRD NO₃ concentrations throughout the YRD region by 50-62% and 38-50%, respectively. Majority of the regional transport of NO₃ concentrations is contributed by indirect transport (i.e., NO₃ formed by transported precursors reacting with local precursors). Aerosol (AERO, including condensation, coagulation, new particle formation and aerosol growth) processes are the dominant source of NO₃ formation. In summer, NO₃ formation is dominated by AERO and total transport (TRAN, sum of horizontal and vertical transport) processes. The OH+NO₂ pathway contributes to 60–83% of the TNO₃ production, and the N₂O₅ heterogeneous (HET N₂O₅) pathway contributes to 10–36% in the YRD region. HET N₂O₅ contribution becomes more important in cold seasons than warm seasons.

Within the planetary boundary layer in Shanghai, the TNO_3 production is dominated by the $OH+NO_2$ pathway during the day (98%) in the summer and spring, and by the $HET\ N_2O_5$ pathway during the night (61%) in the winter. Local contribution dominates the $OH+NO_2$ pathway for TNO_3 production during the day, while indirect transport dominates the $HET\ N_2O_5$ pathway at night.

Keywords: Nitrate formation pathways; chemical transport model, process analysis; local and transport contributions; Yangtze River Delta.

1. Introduction

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The Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region, located in eastern China, is among the most populous and developed economic regions in China. Because of rapid population growth, economic advancement, urbanization, and industrialization during recent decades, the YRD region has been frequently suffering from both fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) and ozone (O₃) pollution problems (Qin et al., 2021;Sun et al., 2019;Dai et al., 2021). Particulate nitrate (NO₃⁻) is a major PM_{2.5} component and high concentrations of NO₃⁻ are often observed during cold seasons in the YRD region, due to high precursors emissions and regional transport contribution. Huang et al. (2014) reported that the daily average PM_{2.5} concentrations in Shanghai were 91 μg m⁻³ during haze pollution events of 5–25 January 2013, whereas NO₃⁻ accounted for 14% total PM_{2.5} mass. Huang et al. (2020a) observed that PM_{2.5} concentrations in Nanjing were 271 μg m⁻³ on 30–31 December of 2017, and the fraction of NO₃⁻ was ~27%. Lin et al. (2020) found that the peak concentration of NO₃⁻ in Nanjing was 85 μg m⁻³ during haze pollution events in the spring of 2016.

Owing to the stringent emission control strategies implemented in China since 2013, primary $PM_{2.5}$, the major precursors (i.e., sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x = nitric oxide (NO) + nitrogen dioxide (NO₂)) emissions have decreased

substantially in China, which led to significant decreases in primarytotal PM_{2.5} and sulfate (SO₄²⁻) mass concentrations—in China (Li et al., 2022;Chen et al., 2021). However, compared to SO₄²⁻ and other PM_{2.5} components, the reduction rate of NO₃⁻ was much less slower (Wen et al., 2018;Zhai et al., 2021;Zhou et al., 2022;Wang et al., 2022). This led to a rise in the ratio of NO₃⁻ mass to total PM_{2.5} in eastern China, rendering NO₃⁻ the dominant chemical component of PM_{2.5} (accounting for 24–35 %, especially during the cold season and haze pollution events) (Ding et al., 2019;Wen et al., 2018;Lin et al., 2020;Fu et al., 2020;Zhou et al., 2022;Xie et al., 2022). High concentrations of NO₃⁻ influence the hygroscopicity and optical properties of particles, contributing to the formation of haze and to visibility degradation (Hu et al., 2021;Xie et al., 2020). Mitigating NO₃⁻ pollution has become an urgent concern in the YRD.

NO₃⁻ is formed in the atmosphere by a series of chemical reactions leading to the production of nitric acid (HNO₃) and then following gas-to-particle partitioning (Griffith et al., 2015;Guo et al., 2018;Lin et al., 2020). The key NO₃⁻ formation pathways include the gas-phase oxidation (hydroxyl (OH) and NO₂) and the heterogeneous hydrolysis of dinitrogen a dinitrogen pentoxide (HET N₂O₅) on the wet particles' surface (Fan et al., 2021;Wang et al., 2018;Chen et al., 2020). Several studies investigated the importance of different pathways to NO₃⁻ formation in various locations usingThe chemical transport models (CTMs), field observations, the box model, of as well as oxygen and nitrogen isotope techniques apply to quantify the contribution of different pathways to NO₃⁻ formation in various locations. For example, He et al. (2020) and Li et al. (2021b) reported that the OH+NO₂ pathway dominates daytime NO₃⁻ formation in the YRD, accounting for 60–92 % and 55–86 % in warm and cold seasons, respectively. The HET N₂O₅ pathway is the main nocturnal-NO₃⁻ formation in winter, especially in severe haze episodes, with contributions of 44–97 % at night (Fu et al., 2020;He et al., 2018). Furthermore, Tan

et al. (2021) and Wang et al. (2018) indicated that the chemical formation cannot explain the variation of TNO₃ at the surface (sum of NO₃⁻ and HNO₃), due to the concentrations of N₂O₅ being close to zero and controlled by high NO emissions at night. Fan et al. (2021) and Kim et al. (2014) further emphasized the contributions of NO₃⁻ formation pathways differ significantly at vertical altitudes, owing to the vertical gradients of nocturnal NO₃ and total oxidant (NO₂+O₃) level within the planetary boundary layer (PBL). Prabhakar et al. (2017) revealed that the active nocturnal NO₃⁻ formation via the HET N₂O₅ pathway from the upper PBL contributed 80 % to daytime surface NO₃⁻ concentrations in winter of 2013 in California, accounting for 80 %.

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The complex NO₃ formation chemistry involves the anthropogenic emission of precursors (i.e., NO_x, and ammonia (NH₃)) and atmospheric oxidants (i.e., OH, O₃, and N₂O₅NO₃) (Chan et al., 2021; Womack et al., 2019). Studies Previous studies suggested that NO₃ responds nonlinearly to its precursors emissions reductions in major Chinese regions (i.e., the North China Plain (NCP) and YRD), emphasizing that the uncoordinated control of precursors (i.e., SO₂, NH₃, and NO_x) increase the atmospheric oxidant capacity (AOC) and enhance NO₃ formation in NO_x-rich regimes (Li et al., 2021b; Huang et al., 2020b; Lu et al., 2021a). Coupled with the chemical formation, regional transport also plays important roles in NO₃ pollution formation. Previous modeling studies using the CTMs highlighted the important role of the regional transport in NO₃⁻ concentrations in major regions of eastern China (Itahashi et al., 2017; Qu et al., 2021; Ying et al., 2014; Shen et al., 2020). For example, Huang et al. (2020a) reported that secondary pollutants are regionally transported between the NCP and YRD regions (a distance of 1000 km), and hence simultaneously exacerbate the levels of secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA) in two major Chinese regions. Ying et al. (2014) revealed that the regional air pollution transport from the north and central China contributed about 45 % to NO₃ in

Shanghai during the winter of 2009. Wu et al. (2017) suggested that the regional transport plays a key role in NO₃⁻ sources in Shanghai (accounting for about 90 %), while local emission only contributed 10 % for NO₃⁻ in January 2013. Shen et al. (2020) Shen et al. (2020) reported that the contribution of regional transport amounted to around 60–98 % to the high concentrations of NO₃⁻ under severe haze episodes in two winters of 2015 and 2016 in the YRD. Qu et al. (2021) found that the indirect transport made a contribution of 43 % to NO₃⁻ in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) region in cold season of 2015, mainly due to chemical reactions between the locally emitted NOx and transported O₃ at night. Du et al. (2020) also revealed that regional transport contributed about 56 % to NO₃⁻ in Beijing in winter 2017, mainly produced via indirect transport.

The NO₃ formation chemical pathways and formation controlling factors

regionlocations. Most previous studies on NO₃ have focused on one oronly a few short period of NO₃ pollution episodes, but lack of and lacked the seasonal analysis for the full year. This study aims to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the seasonal variations in the NO₃ formation mechanisms, as well as to determine key precursors, dominant processes and chemical pathways in the YRD. The Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model was employed to investigate the contributions of various physical and chemical processes to NO₃ and HNO₃ formation. Regional transport and chemical reaction pathways were quantified for the YRD region. The analyses were conducted in the four seasons of 2017 to compare and identify the key impact factors for NO₃ in different seasons, and to provide a scientific basis for designing effective emissions control strategies to mitigate the urgent NO₃ pollution in the YRD region.

2. Methods

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2.1. Model configuration

The CMAQ v5.2 model (Wyat Appel et al., 2018;Liu et al., 2020b;Sheng et al., 2022) was applied to investigate the major chemical pathways and physical processes that contribute to NO₃ and TNO₃ formation in the YRD region. Two nested domains were used, as shown in Fig. 1. The outer domain (36 km horizontal resolution) spanned eastern and southeastern China, while the inner domain (12 km horizontal resolution) spanned the entire YRD region. The simulation periods were January, April, July, and October 2017, representing the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. The simulation began three days prior to each of the study periods, and the results were not included in the model analysis as they served as a spin-up of the model.

The CMAQ model was configured using the photochemical mechanism of the State-wide Air Pollution Research Center version 07 (SAPRC07tic) and the sixth-generation aerosol (AERO6i) module (Fu et al., 2020;Sulaymon et al., 2021). Further details about the CMAQ modeling system provided in previous studies (Hu et al., 2016;Liu et al., 2020b). The Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF v4.2, http://www.wrf-model.org) was used to simulate the required meteorological fields inputs, with initial and boundary meteorological conditions from the 1 °×1 ° National Centers for Environmental Prediction Final (NCEP/FNL) reanalysis data (https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/). DetailedThe detailed configurations of the WRF model providedshown in the studies ofTable S1, consistent with Hu et al. (2016) and Wang et al. (2021), shown in Table S1,... The anthropogenic emissions offor the 2017 in the YRD region were releasedestablished by the Shanghai Academy of Environmental Sciences (SAES)), a high-resolution (4 km × 4 km) anthropogenic emission inventory across the entire YRD region (An et al., 2021), and used for the entire YRD region. The Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China of the year

2017 with resolution of 0.25 ° × 0.25 ° (MEIC v1.3, http://meicmodel.org) served as the anthropogenic emissions for other Chinese regions outside the YRD (Zheng et al., 2018). Emissions from other regions outside China in the inner domain were calculated using the gridded Regional Emission inventory in ASia (REAS v3.2, 0.25 ° × 0.25 ° resolution) emissions of the year 2015. The global model of emissions of gases and aerosols from nature (MEGAN v2.1) was used to estimate biogenic emissions (Guenther et al., 2012). Biomass burning emissions were based on satellite observations including both gases and aerosols from the 2017 Fire Inventory from NCAR (FINN) (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011). Further descriptions of the emissions processing are provided in previous studies by Hu et al. (2016) and Qiao et al. (2015), and therefore not repeated here.

2.2. Contributions of transport

To quantify the contributions of local and regional transport to the surface concentrations of the nitrate-phase species (i.e., HNO₃ and NO₃⁻), four scenarios were simulated under the same meteorological fields. Briefly, in the first (base) scenario, the anthropogenic emissions of 2017 in the YRD and outside regions were included. In the second (YRD-zero) scenario, anthropogenic emissions in the YRD were set to zero, while anthropogenic emissions in regions outside YRD were used. In the third (outside-zero) scenario, only anthropogenic emissions in the YRD were included, while the regions outside the YRD were set to zero. The fourth (all-zero) scenario represented the background case, where the anthropogenic emissions within the study domain were set to zero.

The predicted concentrations were denoted as C_{base} , $C_{YRD-zero}$, $C_{outside-zero}$, and $C_{all-zero}$, representing <u>concentration NO₃</u> <u>concentrations</u> associated with the base, YRD-zero, outside-zero, and all-zero scenarios, respectively. For NO₃ in YRD, the The contributions of local YRD emissions, <u>regional transport</u> (the sum of direct and indirect transport from outside regions), direct transport (NO₃ contributed by

transported precursors from outside regions), indirect transport (NO_3^- contributed by transported and local-emitted precursors <u>via the OH+NO2</u> and <u>HET N2O5</u> chemical <u>pathway</u>), and background were defined as F_{Local} , F_{Region} , F_{Direct} , $F_{Indirect}$, and $F_{Background}$, and they were quantifiedcalculated as follows:

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$$F_{\text{Local}} = (C_{\text{outside-zero}} - C_{\text{all-zero}})/C_{\text{base}}$$
 (1)

$$F_{\text{Region}} = (C_{\text{base}} - C_{\text{outside-zero}})/C_{\text{base}}$$
 (2)

$$F_{\text{Direct}} = (C_{\text{YRD-zero}} - C_{\text{all-zero}})/C_{\text{base}}$$
 (23)

$$F_{\text{Indirect}} = [(C_{\text{base}} - C_{\text{outside-zero}}) - (C_{\text{YRD-zero}} - C_{\text{all-zero}})]/C_{\text{base}}$$
 (34)

$$F_{\text{Background}} = C_{\text{all-zero}} / C_{\text{base}} \tag{45}$$

In addition to Besides NO₃, the major gases pollutants (i.e., Θ_3 , NH₃, NO₂, and HNO₃), atmospheric oxidants (i.e., OH,O_3 and N_2O_5OH ,) and particulate pollutants (i.e., $PM_{2.5}$, SO_4^{2-} ; and $SOCTNO_3$) were also quantified. The values of the contributions of the local, direct and indirect transport emissions can be greater or less than zero, which represents the generation or depletion of pollutants through chemical reactions between local and non-local precursors.

2.3. Process analysis

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In the CMAQ model system, the process analysis (PA) tool has two components, including the Integrated Process Rate (IPR) and Integrated Reaction Rate (IRR) (Liu et al., 2011;Byun and Schere, 2006). The IPR analysis was applied to investigate the cumulative effect of chemical and physical processes to NO₃⁻ and HNO₃ formation and their daily variation within the PBL (Chen et al., 2019;Yang et al., 2020;Kim et al., 2014). These processes, as explained in Table S2, include aerosol processes (AERO), gas chemistry (CHEM), emission (EMIS), horizontal transport (HTRA), vertical transport (VTRA), dry deposition (DDEP), and cloud processes (CLDS). Furthermore, the IRR analysis was employed to quantify the rates of TNO₃ chemical reactions pathways (Qu et al., 2021;Fu et al., 2020;Shen et al., 2020). The complex chemical

production of TNO₃ involves eight reactions pathways, detailed in Table S3 (Qu et al., 2021;Fu et al., 2020;Chuang et al., 2022). In the latter analyses, these pathways are grouped into three major TNO₃ production pathways, including the OH+NO₂, HET N₂O₅, and "Others" pathways, according to their importance. Shanghai is selected as an example in the IPR and IRR analysis to explore the impacts of physical and chemical processes of NO₃ and HNO₃ formation because it is the largest city in the YRD and has the most abundant measurement data.

2.4. Observation data

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Hourly concentrations of six routine air pollutants (i.e., O₃, PM_{2.5}, NO₂, SO₂, and carbon monoxide (CO)) in five representative YRD cities (i.e., Shanghai, Nanjing, Hefei, Hangzhou, and Changzhou, shown in Fig. 1) during the four seasons were obtained China Ministry from the of **Ecology** and Environment (http://106.37.208.233:20035/, last accessed on April 30, 2022). Furthermore, hourly NO₃ concentrations were measured by the Monitors for AeRosols and Gases (MARGA 1S ADI 2080, Netherlands) (Khezri et al., 2013) at four urban atmospheric environment supersites, including Shanghai (31.23 N, 121.54 E), Hefei (31.78 N, 117.20 °E), Hangzhou (30.29 °N, 120.16 °E), and Changzhou (31.76 °N, 119.96 °E). Observation data of meteorological parameters (temperature (T2, °C), relative humidity (RH, %), wind speed (WS, m/s) and wind direction (WD, %) for 75 weather stations in the YRD were downloaded from the Chinese Meteorological Agency (http://data.cma.cn/en, last accessed on November 30, 2021).

The statistical metrics used for the WRF-CMAQ model evaluation include the mean bias (MB), normalized mean bias (NMB), normalized mean error (NME), correlation coefficient (R), root mean square error (RMSE), and index of agreement (IOA). Definitions and criteria of all statistical metrics are illustrated in Table S4. The benchmarks of major air pollutants (PM_{2.5}, NO₂, O₃, and NO₃) concentrations are suggested by Emery et al. (2017) and Huang et al. (2021). The benchmarks of major

meteorological parameters (T2, WS, and WD) are suggested by Emery and Tai (2001).

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Model evaluation

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3.1.1. WRF model performance

Table 1 shows the modeling performance statistics of the meteorological parameters in the four seasons of 2017. Predicted T2 and WS values are slightly higher than the observations, and MB values of T2 and WS exceed the suggested benchmark (MB $\leq \pm 0.5$) in all seasons. The seasonal and annual IOA values of T2 occur within the suggested benchmark (IOA ≥ 0.8). For WS, the seasonal and annual values of RMSE and IOA all meet the suggested criterion (RMSE ≤ 2.0 and IOA ≥ 0.6). The MB values of WD are slightly above the suggested benchmark (MB $\leq \pm 10$) in the four seasons, except during spring. RH is generally under-estimated compared to the observations with averaged MB values of -6.96, -10.7, -9.06, and -5.98 in winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. No suggested criterion for MB value of RH. In addition, high seasonal and annual values of R (0.85-0.95 for T; 0.87-0.91 for RH; 0.70-0.85 for WS; and 0.75-0.89 for WD) are found. The WRF performance in this study is comparable to WRF performance in our previous simulation studies (Wang et al., 2021; Hu et al., 2016; Sulaymon et al., 2021).

3.1.2. CMAQ model performance

Table 2 and Fig. S1 show the model performance and time series of major air pollutants in the four seasons. Overall, the CMAQ model has reasonably reproduced the observed $PM_{2.5}$, O_3 , and NO_2 concentrations in the YRD region, especially in Shanghai. The daily concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ are efficiently simulated in the five cities except Hefei, illustrated by the NMB, NME, and R values meeting the criteria established by Emery et al. (2017) (NMB $\leq \pm 0.30$, NME ≤ 0.50 , and R > 0.70).

MDA8 O_3 are slightly overestimated in Nanjing, Hefei, Hangzhou, and Changzhou. Predicted concentrations of NO_2 are generally lower than the observations in all five cities ($-0.15 < NMB \le -0.05$, $-10.37 < MB \le -1.89$). When compared to <u>our previous air quality simulation</u> studies (Hu et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2021; Sulaymon et al., 2021; Li et al., 2021a), the <u>statistical</u> results in this study show a better model performance.

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Fig. 2 illustrates the comparison of predicted and observed NO₃ concentrations at the four supersites on daily timescales (Fig. S2 shows the hourly predicted and observed NO₃ concentrations). The general temporal variations of observed NO₃ concentrations are efficiently captured by the model. The daily concentrations of NO₃⁻¹ are efficiently predicted in four supersites, all within the benchmark (NMB $\leq \pm 0.60$, NME ≤ 0.75 , and R > 0.6). But in Hefei (Fig. 2b), the wintertime NO₃ measurement data is not available, when NO₃ shows the highest concentrations and is of most concern. Good agreement between predicted and observed values is demonstrated on daily timescales, especially in Shanghai (NMB = -0.49, R = 0.70), Hangzhou (NMB = 0.11, MB = 0.64) and Changzhou (NMB = 0.36, R = 0.56). The seasonal daily concentrations of NO₃ are efficiently predicted in Shanghai, Hangzhou and Changzhou, within the benchmark (NMB $\leq \pm 0.60$, NME ≤ 0.75 , and R > 0.6). The Overall, the performance statistical metrics of predicted NO₃ in this study are comparable to those of our previous studies works (Shi et al., 2017; Qu et al., 2021; Xie et al., 2022). Fig. S2 shows the hourly predicted and observed NO₃ concentrations in each season. NO₃ concentrations are generally underestimated during the summer and autumn. One possible reason is that RH is slightly underestimated by the WRF model during these seasons (Table 1), which results in a lower buildup of NO₃⁻ concentrations. Other reasons could be associated with uncertainties in the NO₃ formation mechanisms (i.e., missing or insufficient heterogeneous reactions) in the current CMAQ model) and uncertainties in NOx and NH₃ emissions (Zheng et al., 2020; Lu et al., 2021b; Zheng et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2022).

3.2. Regional transport contribution to nitrate in YRD

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Fig. S3 shows the spatial distribution of the seasonal (winter, spring, summer and autumn) and annual mean—(average of the four seasons) NO₃⁻, HNO₃, and TNO₃ concentrations under four different—emissions scenarios in the d02 domain. Under C_{base}, the seasonal and annual predicted NO₃⁻ concentrations—of NO₃⁻ for the entire YRD region were 16.0, 7.4, 1.0, 5.4, and 7.4 μg m⁻³, respectively (Table S5). Compared to C_{base}, the seasonal and annual YRD—NO₃⁻ concentrations in C_{outside-zero} decreased by 8.0, 2.8, 0.4, 2.2, and 3.3 μg m⁻³, respectively. Even more significant differences in NO₃⁻ are observed between C_{base} and C_{YRD-zero}. The NO₃⁻ values decreased by 12.0, 6.9, 0.9, 4.8 and 6.1 μg m⁻³ in winter, spring, summer, autumn, and thea year, respectively, to become almost twice as high as those between C_{base} and C_{outside-zero}. The results suggest that the YRD-local anthropogenic emissions contribute more to the seasonal NO₃⁻ concentrations—in the YRD.

Fig. 3 shows the regional contributions of the background, local, direct and indirect transport to nitrate-related species in the four seasons (results for Shanghai are shown in Fig \$5\$4). The local emissions dominate NO₃ concentrations throughout the YRD-NO₃ accounting for 50.4–62.0 % in the four seasons (Fig. 3a). Fig 3c suggests that the precursors (NO₂ and NH₃) are dominated by the local emissions (more than 93.0%). The contributions of the total regional transport (sum of indirect and direct transport) are 49.5, 38.0, 41.6, and 42.0 % in winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. The indirect transport contributes 24.2–37.0% of NO₃ concentrations, and exceeds the contributions from direct transport in the spring, summer, and autumn. Similarly, Qu et al. (2021) reported that the reaction between the locally emitted NOxNO₂ and transported O₃ dominates the production of indirect NO₃ transport in the PRD region.

In Fig. 3b, the local emission and indirect transport have negative contributions

to O_3 concentration, leading to the depletion of O_3 in the four seasons. The For O_3 , the local emissions have negative contribution to O_3 in winter (-45.646%) and autumn (-12.3%), and %). The negative contributions of the indirect transport has negative contribution are -6, -8, -8, and -4% in winter, spring (-8.5%), summer, and autumn (-8.7%). For O_3 and OH (, respectively. In Fig. 3b and 3d), the indirect transport contributes about -8% and -from -42% to -12% -42% -of OH concentrations in all the four seasons, respectively. The negative indirect transport contributions to O_3 , O_5 , and OH suggest that the atmospheric oxidants are consumed in the YRD, which in turn enhances the chemical production of O_3 .

3.3. Formation processes of nitrate

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Fig. 4 shows the modeled diurnal variations of three nitrate-phases (NO₃, HNO₃, and TNO₃), the major precursors (i.e., O₃, NO₂, and NH₃), and the major atmospheric oxidants (OH and N₂O₅) in the four seasons for the entire YRD region in the base scenario. Except for summer, higher predicted TNO₃ and NO₃ concentrations are observed in early morning hours (6:00–8:00 am), while lower TNO₃ and NO₃ concentrations are observed around 16:00-18:00 pm. Predicted concentrations of TNO₃, HNO₃, and O₃ show the same diurnal variations in the summer, and peak around 12:00 pm (the most active photochemical hours). The opposite profiles of TNO₃'s diurnal variation between summer and non-summer are mainly attributed to the temperature effect on the gas-to-particle partitioning between NO₃ and HNO₃. As shown in Fig. S3, NO₃⁻ dominates the TNO₃ concentrations and determines its diurnal variations in non-summer, while HNO₃ dominates the diurnal variation in summer. A two-peak mode diurnal variation of NO₂ and NH₃ is identified in the four seasons. High concentrations of NO₂ and NH₃ occur in the early morning (hours 6:00–8:00 am) and early evening (hours 18:00-19:00 pm), due to the local transportation emissions during rush hours. OH and N₂O₅ have a one-peak mode diurnal variation in the four seasons. OH peaks around 12:00 pm, similar to HNO₃, while N₂O₅ peaks around

18:00-20:00 pm.

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Fig. \$7<u>S6</u> shows seasonal variations in NO₃-/PM_{2.5}, NO₃-/TNO₃, nitrogen oxidation ratios (NOR = $[NO_3]/([NO_3] + [NO_2])$), and adjusted gas ratio (adjGR = $([NH_3] + [NO_3])/([HNO_3] + [NO_3])$) in the YRD. NO₃-/PM_{2.5} and NO₃-/TNO₃ are the highest in the winter, accounting for 21 ±5% and 94 ±3%, respectively. The averaged NOR values for the entire YRD region are 0.24, 0.16, 0.03, and 0.13 mol/mol in winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. The highest value of NOR in winter suggests a high conversion efficiency of NO₂ to NO₃-. AdjGR values are generally greater than two in the four seasons across most areas in the YRD, indicating that YRD is mostly in the NH₃-rich regime. Therefore, NH₃ is not a limiting factor of NO₃- formation in YRD.

Shanghai is selected as the example city in the IPRs analysis to explore the impacts of physical and chemical processes of NO₃ and HNO₃ formation within the PBL. Fig. 5 illustrates a two-peak mode diurnal variation of the net IPRs rates of NO₃ production in the four seasons. Peak hours are around mid-noon (10:00–11:00 am) and early evening (19:00–21:00 pm), with peak rates of 1.2–1.5, 0.7–0.8, 0.4–0.6, and 0.1-0.2 µg m⁻³ h⁻¹ in the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. AERO processes (including condensation, coagulation, and aerosol growth) are the dominant contributors of NO₃⁻ formation, with the peak rates of 2.1, 1.3, 1.5, and 0.4 µg m⁻³ h⁻¹ in the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. The sharp decline hours of the net IPRs (around 11:00-18:00 pm) are mainly dominated by TRAN (sum of HTRA and VTRA) processes, with the mean rates of -1.4, -0.8, -0.7, and -0.3 µg m⁻³ h⁻¹ in the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. However, in summer, TRAN processes constitute the dominant source during midnight (1:00-6:00 am), owing to higherthe stable PBL weakening the contribution of vertical transport and accelerating the accumulation of NO₃ concentrations at the upper PBL contributing to the surface through the vertical mixing and development of the PBL (Huang et al.,

2020c). In Fig. \$987, VTRA processes act as the main positive contributor to NO₃ buildup production from 0:00 to 23:00 at layer 1 (surface layer), while AERO processes make the negative contribution to NO₃ within layers 1–8 (from the surface to 800 m). Above layer 10, AERO processes for NO₃ production are positive in the daytime, which is conducive to the accumulation of NO₃ concentrations.

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For HNO₃, a one-peak mode diurnal variation of the net IPRs rates is found, and peak times are at 20:00 pm in the winter and around 9:00-12:00 am in other seasons (Fig. 5). Meanwhile, CHEM (gas chemical processes) processes are the major contributor to HNO₃ formation, with the peak rates being 0.6, 1.4, 2.3, and 0.7 ppb h⁻¹ in the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. In the spring, summer and autumn, the peak times of HNO₃ formation are consistent with the first-peak times of NO₃. The seasonal net IPRs rates reached a maximum of 0.3, 1.0, and 0.1 ppb h⁻¹, respectively. CHEM and VTRA processes are the dominant contributors of HNO₃ production, especially during 7:00 to 13:00 (net IPRs rates > 0), with the seasonal peak rates of 1.5, 2.7, and 0.8 ppb h⁻¹, respectively. AERO, DDEP, and HTRA processes are the dominant contributors of the HNO₃ sharp decline (14:00–17:00 pm), with the lowest net IPRs rates of -0.8, -0.7, and -0.3 μg m⁻³ h⁻¹ in the spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. DDEP processes are the dominant sink of HNO₃ in summer $(-0.64 \pm 0.20 \text{ ppb h}^{-1})$. However, in the winter, the peak times of HNO₃ production are opposite with the first-peak time of NO₃, production, but consistent with the second-peak time. HTRA make a positive contribution to HNO₃, with peak rates of 0.18 ppb h⁻¹ at 20:00 pm. In Fig. S12, the only-largest sink is the AERO process, consistent with efficient partitioning of HNO₃ into particle phase NO₃ in cold seasons.

Table 3 illustrates that within the PBL, in cold seasons (winter and autumn), about 60-78 % of TNO₃ is produced through OH+NO₂, 21-36 % through HET N₂O₅, and 2-5 % through the "Others" pathways in the five representative YRD cities.

420 Meanwhile, 71–83 % of TNO₃ is produced through OH+NO₂, 10–23 % through HET N₂O₅, and 4–13 % through the "Others" pathways (mainly contributed by NO₃+Org and N₂O₅ H₂O) in warm seasons (summer and spring). Table 4 shows the comparison of the contribution of the major TNO₃ production pathways studies in China and other regions using different methods. The results are in agreement with the contribution of 425 NO₃ pathways in previous modeling and observational studies. For example, Li et al. (2021b) modeled that OH+NO₂ and HET N₂O₅ pathways dominate NO₃ production in the YRD region in warm and cold seasons of 2016 by the CTM, accounting for 86-92 % and 8–14 % in the surface layer, respectively. He et al. (2020) reported that the OH+NO₂ pathway dominates NO₃ production in Shanghai on the surface layer using 430 nitrogen isotopes analysis, accounting for 84–92 % and 55–77 % in the warm and cold seasons of 2016, respectively. Alexander et al. (2020) highlighted that the OH+NO₂ and HET N₂O₅ pathways contribute the same proportion (both 41 % in the four seasons) to NO₃ production in the global region using the CTM and oxygen isotopes analysis.

Fig. 6a shows the diurnal variations of TNO₃ formation reactions rates through three major pathways in Shanghai within the PBL. The average diurnal trends of TNO₃ production rates are consistent with the CHEM processes rates of HNO₃ production (Figs. 5–6). The chemical production of HNO₃ quickly transforms to particulate NO₃⁻, through AERO processes in the presence of abundant NH₃. In the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, the The averaged TNO₃ production rates are 0.31 \pm 0.14, 0.65 \pm 0.37, 1.09 \pm 0.68, and 0.28 \pm 0.22 ppb h⁻¹,— in the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively (Table S6). Moreover, the seasonal peak rates of TNO₃ production are 0.6, 1.4, 2.3, and 0.7 ppb h⁻¹ around 11:00 am –13:00 pm, respectively. In accordance with the seasonal variation of HNO₃ net IPRs rates, TNO₃ production rates are the fastest in summer.

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In Shanghai, TNO₃ chemical production is dominated by the OH+NO₂ pathway

on the daily timescale, accounting for 69.3–86.9 % of the total, while the HET N₂O₅ pathway is likewise a relatively important pathway (accounting for 11.1–28.4 %) in the four seasons (Fig. 6b). Notably, TNO₃ production rates are dominated by the OH+NO₂ pathway during the daytime (7:00 am-18:00 pm, accounting for 88.4–97.9 % of the total) in all seasons, while the HET N₂O₅ pathway becomes more important for the TNO₃ production during the nighttime (19:00 pm - 06:00 am, accounting for 42.5–61.6%). During winter, TNO₃ formation via the HET N₂O₅ pathway becomes dominant over the OH+NO₂ pathway, accounting for 62, 65, and 68% in Shanghai, Hangzhou and Nanjing at night, respectively. O₃ strongly coordinates TNO₃ production in YRD via the HET N₂O₅ pathway during the nighttime. Similarly, He et al. (2018) observed that the HET N₂O₅ pathway was the major contributor to NO₃ production in the winter of Beijing at the surface layer, using oxygen and nitrogen isotopes analysis, accounting for 56–97 % of the total during the nighttime. In another CTM study in the NCP, the HET N₂O₅ pathway was the dominant contributor to nocturnal-NO₃ production within the PBL in winter, with a contribution of 83 % at night (Liu et al., 2020a). In Fig. S8, the seasonal TNO₃ production rates (ppb/h) and contributions (%) of the major pathways have been compared between vertical layers and PBL. The OH+NO₂ pathway dominated TNO₃ production at all layers, accounting for more than 58%, 78%, 80%, and 83% in winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. The OH+NO₂ pathway rate decreases with altitude at vertically layers, where its contribution decreases from 87% to 58%, from 91% to 78%, from 93% to 80%, and from 95% to 83% in the four seasons, respectively. The HET N₂O₅ pathway becomes more important for the TNO₃ production within layers 4~8 (250 to 580 m) in winter, accounting for 37% (Fig. S8b).

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Fig. 7 displays the contributions of TNO₃ formation pathways from the local and transport (sum of indirect and direct transport) contributions. For the local contribution, the averaged TNO₃ production rates are 0.27 ± 0.14 , 0.56 ± 0.37 , $1.05 \pm$

0.69, and 0.26 \pm 0.21 ppb h⁻¹ in the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively (Table \$8857). During the daytime, the OH+NO₂ pathway contributes almost all TNO₃ production rates from the local contribution, accounting for about 89–98 % of the total, with mean rates of 0.33 \pm 0.17, 0.83 \pm 0.34, 1.55 \pm 0.59, and 0.40 \pm 0.22 ppb h⁻¹ in the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively. The results suggest that the locally-emitted NO₂ reacts with locally-formed OH dominated TNO₃ production rates during the day in the urban-YRD region.

For the transport contribution, the averaged TNO₃ production rates are 0.04 ± 0.01 , 0.08 ± 0.02 , 0.03 ± 0.02 , and 0.02 ± 0.01 ppb h⁻¹ in the winter, spring, summer, and autumn, respectively (Table \$9\$8). The HET N₂O₅ pathway is noted as the dominant pathway for TNO₃ production of the transport contribution, accounting for around 72–86 % during the nighttime. Fig. 7b8 compares the seasonal TNO₃ production pathways rates between local, indirect and direct transport contributions. within the PBL. The regional production is mainly contributed by indirect transport, especially in the winter and summer. The results suggest that the transported O₃ from outside YRD region can react with the locally-emitted NO₂, supporting HNO₃ formation TNO₃ production via the HET N₂O₅ chemistrychemical pathway at nightduring the nighttime.

Overall, our findings illustrate that local emissions dominate NO₃⁻ formation in the YRD (50–62%), more specifically, locally-emitted NOx reacting with OH and partitioning into particles with NH₃ (mostly from local sources, more than 93.0%), indicating that the uncoordinated control of precursors (i.e., NO_x and NH₃) and reduction of the oxidative capacity of the atmosphere is crucial for NO₃⁻ reduction. Furthermore, regional transport contributes 38–50% to NO₃⁻ formation in the YRD region. Indirect transport contributes 24–37% through transported O₃ reacting with local NO_x at night, indicating that the simultaneous controlling of O₃ and NO₃⁻ in the larger scale region is also important for NO₃⁻ reduction in the YRD.

This manuscript investigated the seasonal variations in the NO₃ formation mechanisms, including local emission and regional transport contributions, as well as dominant processes and major chemical pathways in the YRD region. However, there are still some limitations in this manuscript, such as the insufficient heterogeneous chemistry on the dust particles' surface and uncertainties in precursors emissions in the model affect the model performance of NO₃ during the spring and autumn (Xie et al., 2022). Furthermore, the Integrated Reaction Rate (IRR) analysis was employed to quantify the rates of TNO₃ (sum of NO₃ and HNO₃) chemical pathways, which potentially lead to differences in chemical pathways rates and contributions between NO₃ and TNO₃. Figure 6(b) illustrates that TNO₃ chemical production is dominated by the OH+NO₂ pathway on the daily timescale, accounting for 69.3–86.9 % in Shanghai. Notably, due to the higher temperature during the daytime, the potential production for NO₃ is not as high as that of the nocturnal chemical pathway (mainly the HET N₂O₅ pathway at night), which potentially lead to underestimate in the nocturnal pathway contribution to NO₃.

4. Conclusions

This study investigates the contributions of regional transport and major chemical pathways to the of NO₃⁻ and HNO₃ formation in the YRD in different seasons using the WRF-CMAQ model. The modeled results show that local emissions dominate YRD-regional NO₃⁻ concentrations in the YRD (50–62%), while regional transport contributes 38–50% to NO₃⁻ (indirect transport contributes 24–37%). Except for winter, HNO₃ was dominated by the contributions of local emissions (61–75%) and indirect transport contributed negatively –24 to –41%. In Shanghai, the IPRs analysis reveals that AERO processes were the predominant contributors in NO₃⁻ formation within the PBL. TRAN processes were the largest sinks in NO₃⁻ formation in the winter, spring and autumn, while the positive contributors at night in summer.

For HNO₃, CHEM processes were the only positive contributor during the day. The OH+NO₂ pathway is the predominant contributor (60–83%) among all chemical pathways, while the HET N₂O₅ pathway is also important (10–36%) in the YRD region. The TNO₃ production is dominated by the OH+NO₂ pathway during the day (98%) in summer, while the HET N₂O₅ pathway dominates during the night (61%) in winter. The TNO₃ production rates from the local and transport contributions were further elucidated. The OH+NO₂ pathway from the local contribution strongly dominates the TNO₃ production during the day (89–98%). At night, the HET N₂O₅ pathway mainly dominate by indirect transport (via reaction with transported O₃ at night).

Code and data availability

Hourly concentrations of O₃, PM_{2.5}, NO₂, SO₂, and CO used in this study are freely available through the website of http://106.37.208.233:20035/ (last accessed on April 30, 2022). Observation data of meteorological parameters used in this study are available from http://data.cma.cn/en (last accessed on November 30, 2021). The CMAQ outputs are currently available upon request, all python codes used to create any of the figures are available upon request.

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Author contributions

JS, MQ and JH designed research. JS, MQ, XX, WF, YQ, LS, and LL contributed to model development, simulations, and data processing. JL, IS, LJ, LH, XY contributed to result discussion. JS prepared the manuscript and all coauthors helped improve the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Tables and Figures

Table 1. Model performance for meteorological parameters for January, April, July, October and the annual average of 2017 in the entire YRD region. The values that do not meet the criteria are denoted in bold.

Parameters	Statistic(benchmarks)	January	April	July	October	Annual
T2(°C)	MB (≤±0.5)	1.56	1.04	0.67	1.98	1.31
	RMSE	1.99	1.76	1.57	2.24	1.89
	$IOA (\geq 0.8)$	0.89	0.93	0.85	0.89	0.89
	R	0.94	0.93	0.85	0.95	0.92
RH(%)	MB	-6.96	-10.70	-9.06	-5.98	-8.17
	RMSE	9.73	13.14	10.91	8.02	10.45
	IOA	0.88	0.83	0.72	0.82	0.81
	R	0.90	0.91	0.88	0.87	0.89
WD(°)	MB (≤±10)	-12.78	-0.92	12.26	-24.42	-6.46
	RMSE	37.68	36.04	26.61	55.85	39.05
	IOA	0.88	0.89	0.88	0.76	0.85
	R	0.85	0.82	0.85	0.70	0.81
WS(m/s)	MB ($\leq \pm 0.5$)	0.61	0.76	1.03	0.69	0.77
	RMSE (≤ 2.0)	0.82	1.06	1.31	0.96	1.04
	$IOA (\geq 0.6)$	0.84	0.71	0.65	0.82	0.76
	R	0.89	0.75	0.75	0.88	0.82

Notes: The following equations of MB, RMSE and IOA are defined in Table S4. The benchmarks are suggested by Emery and Tai (2001).

Table 2. Model performance of major pollutants for the full year of 2017 in five representative YRD cities ^a.

^b Pollutants	c NIMI	Shar 3 NM	nghai ME Ml	B R	NMI		njing IE ME	3 R	NMI		efei IE ME	B R	NME	•	gzhou IE ME	B R	NME		gzhou	 B R
MDA8 O ₃	-0.01		-1.07	0.88	0.17			0.76	0.17	0.24	17.23	0.81			26.60	0.80	0.19	0.26	19.85	0.84
NO_2	-0.05	0.23	-1.89	0.71	-0.07	0.26	-3.20	0.50	-0.11	0.26	-5.21	0.67	-0.25	0.34	-10.37	0.51	-0.07	0.24	-2.67	0.56
SO_2	-0.38	0.43	-4.61	0.66	0.12	0.45	1.83	0.32	0.01	0.36	0.18	0.75	-0.28	0.40	-3.15	0.46	0.09	0.34	1.54	0.48
CO	-0.38	0.40	-0.29	0.67	-0.17	0.33	-0.17	0.45	-0.22	0.26	-0.19	0.76	-0.30	0.34	-0.25	0.55	0.06	0.25	0.05	0.64
$PM_{2.5}$	-0.08	0.30	-2.80	0.73	0.28	0.44	10.29	0.75	0.41	0.51	21.42	0.76	0.05	0.31	1.88	0.69	0.25	0.37	10.59	0.78
NO_3	-0.49	0.63	-3.25	0.70					0.07	0.65	0.32	0.59	0.11	0.79	0.64	0.43	-0.36	0.58	-3.34	0.56

Notes: ^a The year of 2017 includes the four typical months (January, April, July, and October). ^b MDA8 O₃, NO₂, SO₂ and PM_{2.5} units (µg/m³), CO units (mg/m³).

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The recommended benchmarks for MDA8 O₃, 24-h PM_{2.5} and NO₃ are suggested by Emery et al. (2017) and Huang et al. (2021).

^c The equations of NMB, NME, MB and R are found in Table S4. The values that do not meet the criteria are highlighted in bold.

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Table 3. Model performance for Seasonal TNO₃ production rates (ppb/h) and daily contributions in percentage(%) of the major production pathways (%) for the four seasons of 2017 in five representative YRD cities.

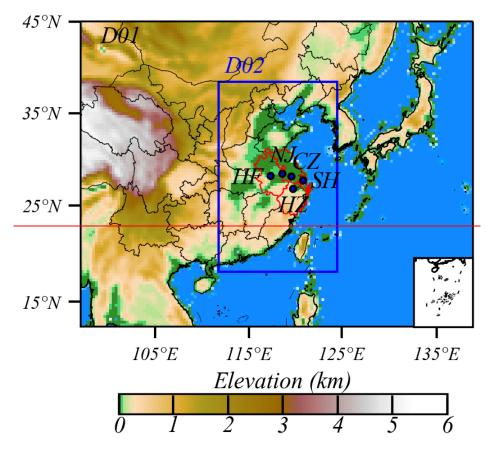
Selected cities	Seasons	TNO_3	OH NO ₂	HET N ₂ O ₅	OH NO ₂ (%)	HET N_2O_5 (%)	Others (%)
Shanghai	Winter	0.31 ± 0.13	0.21 ± 0.18	0.09 ± 0.06	69.3%	28.4%	2.2%
	Spring	0.65 ± 0.35	0.52 ± 0.43	0.10 ± 0.09	81.8%	15.3%	2.9%
	Summer	1.09 ± 0.68	0.90 ± 0.80	0.13 ± 0.15	82.9%	12.2%	4.9%
	Autumn	0.28 ± 0.22	0.24 ± 0.24	0.03 ± 0.03	86.9%	11.1%	2.0%
Nanjing	Winter	0.38 ± 0.13	0.23 ± 0.20	0.14 ± 0.11	59.2%	36.1%	4.7%
	Spring	0.65 ± 0.29	0.48 ± 0.40	0.14 ± 0.12	73.1%	21.4%	5.4%
	Summer	0.83 ± 0.41	0.62 ± 0.55	0.15 ± 0.17	74.7%	17.9%	7.4%
	Autumn	0.50 ± 0.25	0.35 ± 0.32	0.13 ± 0.11	69.7%	25.4%	4.9%
Hefei	Winter	0.38 ± 0.13	0.26 ± 0.18	0.10 ± 0.07	66.9%	27.1%	6.0%
	Spring	0.63 ± 0.24	0.49 ± 0.30	0.10 ± 0.09	78.5%	16.5%	5.0%
	Summer	0.66 ± 0.26	0.54 ± 0.30	0.07 ± 0.08	81.7%	10.4%	7.9%
	Autumn	0.48 ± 0.18	0.35 ± 0.24	0.11 ± 0.08	72.5%	21.8%	5.7%
Changzhou	Winter	0.41 ± 0.15	0.29 ± 0.20	0.11 ± 0.08	68.9%	26.8%	4.3%
	Spring	0.64 ± 0.25	0.48 ± 0.31	0.13 ± 0.12	74.9%	20.9%	4.2%
	Summer	0.70 ± 0.27	0.55 ± 0.31	0.10 ± 0.13	78.7%	14.3%	7.0%
	Autumn	0.46 ± 0.19	0.36 ± 0.24	0.08 ± 0.07	77.6%	18.3%	4.1%
Hangzhou	Winter	0.43 ± 0.15	0.26 ± 0.21	0.15 ± 0.12	59.7%	35.5%	4.8%
	Spring	0.57 ± 0.24	0.40 ± 0.33	0.13 ± 0.12	70.5%	23.3%	6.2%
	Summer	0.47 ± 0.23	0.36 ± 0.29	0.05 ± 0.05	76.4%	10.7%	12.9%
	Autumn	0.46 ± 0.26	0.34 ± 0.32	0.10 ± 0.09	73.8%	21.3%	4.9%

Table 4. Comparison of contributions of major nitrate formation pathways in China and others regions ^a.

References	Methods b	Study seasons	Year	Study regions	NO ₃ formation pathways ^c	Time metric	Contribution (%)
(Li et al., 2021b)	WRF-Chem	Warm (Aug –Sep)	2016	NCP, YRD	OH+NO ₂ (layer 1)	season-mean	60-92%
		Cold (Nov-Dec)			HET N ₂ O ₅ (layer 1)		8-40%
(Qu et al., 2021)	WRF-CMAQ PA	Transition season	2015	PRD	OH+NO ₂ (layers 1-4)	day-mean	92-96%
		(Oct-Dec)			HET N ₂ O ₅ (layers 1-4)	night- mean	64-72%
(Chuang et al., 2022)	WRF-CMAQ PA	Transition season	2017	Taiwan	$OH+NO_2$	day-mean	> 90%
		(Mar - Apr)			HET N ₂ O ₅	night- mean	30-90%
(Wu et al., 2021)	WRF-Chem; Nitrogen Isotopes	Cold (Dec-Jan)	2017	Xi'an	HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	season-mean	13-35 %
(Chan et al., 2021)	GEOS-Chem; Isotope tracing	Cold	2014-15	NCP	$OH+NO_2\&HET\ N_2O_5\ (surface)$	season-mean	34 % & 45 %
(Fu et al., 2020)	WRF-CMAQ PA	Cold (Dec)	2017	NCP	$OH+NO_2$ (HET N_2O_5) 10 layers	season-mean	43% (44%)
(Liu et al., 2020a)	WRF-Chem	Cold (Dec)	2016	NCP	HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	haze-mean	52 %
					HET N ₂ O ₅ (PBL)	night (day)	83% (10%)
(Zhang et al., 2022)	Nitrogen &Oxygen Isotopes	Cold (Jan)	2017-18	Nanjing	OH+NO ₂ & HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	season-peak	48% & 72%
(Zhang et al., 2021)	Nitrogen &Oxygen Isotopes	Cold (Nov-Jan)	2017-18	Nanchang	HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	season-mean	60%
(Fan et al., 2021)	Nitrogen &Oxygen Isotopes	Warm and Cold	2016-17	Beijing	$OH+NO_2\&HET\ N_2O_5\ (260\ m)$	Clean days	20% (80%)
(Luo et al., 2020a)	Nitrogen &Oxygen Isotopes	Spring(Mar-May)	2013	Beijing	OH+NO ₂ (surface)	Clean days	24-50%
					OH+NO ₂ (surface)	Polluted days	11-47%
(Luo et al., 2020b)	Nitrogen &Oxygen Isotopes	Four seasons	2018	Nanchang	OH+NO ₂ (HET N ₂ O ₅)	season-mean	12-59% (67-89%
(Fan et al., 2020)	Nitrogen &Oxygen Isotopes	Cold (Nov-Dec)	2018	Beijing	HET N ₂ O ₅	haze period	64%
(He et al., 2020)	Nitrogen &Oxygen Isotopes	Warm and	2016	Shanghai	OH+NO ₂ (warm)	season-mean	84-92%
		Cold season			OH+NO ₂ (cold)		48-74%
(Wang et al., 2019)	Nitrogen &Oxygen Isotopes	Warm and	2014	Beijing	$OH+NO_2$	annual-mean	$32\ \pm 10\%$
		Cold season			HET N_2O_5	annual-mean	$68\pm23\%$
(He et al., 2018)	Nitrogen isotopic	Cold (Oct-Jan)	2014	Beijing	HET N ₂ O ₅	night- haze	56-97 %
(Chen et al., 2020)	Field determination; Box model	Cold (Nov-Dec)	2016-17	Beijing	OH+NO ₂ & HET N ₂ O ₅ (240 m)	haze period	74-76% & 34%

(Sun et al., 2018) (Zang et al., 2022)	Field determination; Box model Field observations; Box model	Cold (Nov-Dec) Cold (Dec-Feb)	2015 2018-19	Nanjing Shanghai (urban	HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface) OH+NO ₂ &HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	haze period	80% 69% & 29%
(& ,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,			& suburban	OH+NO ₂ &HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	haze period	63% & 35%
				areas)			
(Womack et al., 2019)	Box model	Cold (Dec)	2016-17	Salt Lake Valley	HET N_2O_5 (RL)	season-mean	43%
(Vrekoussis et al., 2004)	Field determination, Box model	Summer(Jul-Aug)	2001	South-East Europe	HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	season-mean	21%
(Kim et al., 2014)	WRF-CMAQ PA	Cold (Dec)	2009	The Great Lakes	OH+NO ₂ &HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	season-mean	28% & 57%
(Shah et al., 2018)	GEOS-Chem	Cold (Feb-Mar)	2015	Eastern US	OH+NO ₂ &HET N ₂ O ₅ (surface)	season-mean	36% & 62%
(Alexander et al., 2020)	GEOS-Chem; Oxygen Isotopes	Four seasons	2000-15	Global	OH+NO ₂ (below 1 km)	annual-mean	41-42%
					HET N ₂ O ₅ (below 1 km)		28-41%

Notes: ^a The above studies24 peer-reviewed publications are conducted in the major regions and megalopolises of China (the North China Plain (NCP), Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Pearl River Delta (PRD)), the United States, and the Global region. The comparison serves to quantify the relative contribution of two main nitrate formation pathways in different seasons. ^b Methods include the 3-D CTMs, nitrogen and oxygen isotopes analysis, field determination, and box model. ^c Surface represents the surface layer.



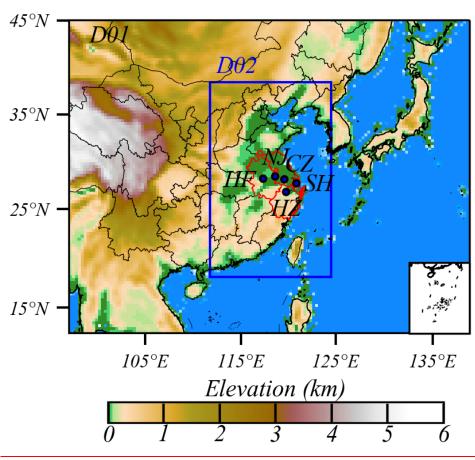


Fig 1. Entire YRD region as the target region (marked as red) in two nested simulation domains (36 and 12 km resolutions), and location of five representative YRD cities used in modeling evaluations in the d02 modeling domain.

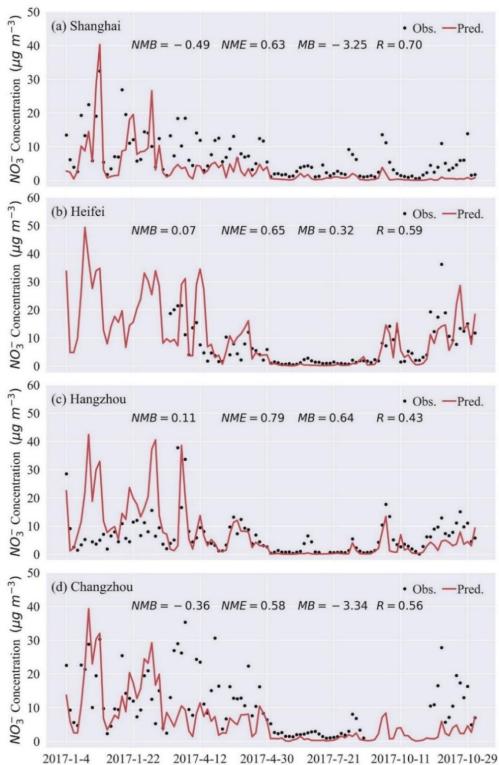
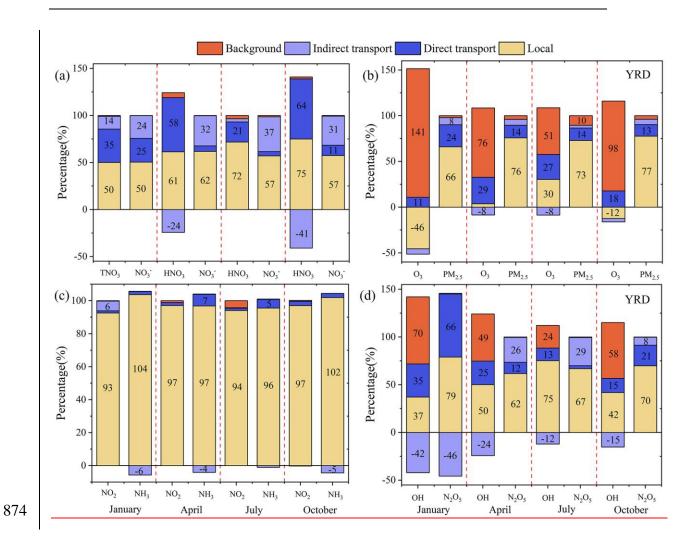


Fig 2. Time series of predicted (red) and observed (black) daily NO₃⁻ concentrations in four atmospheric environment supersites (a–d) in January, April, July, and October 2017.



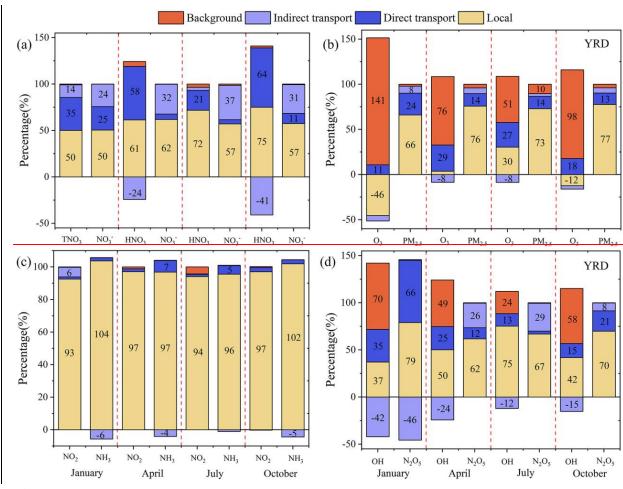
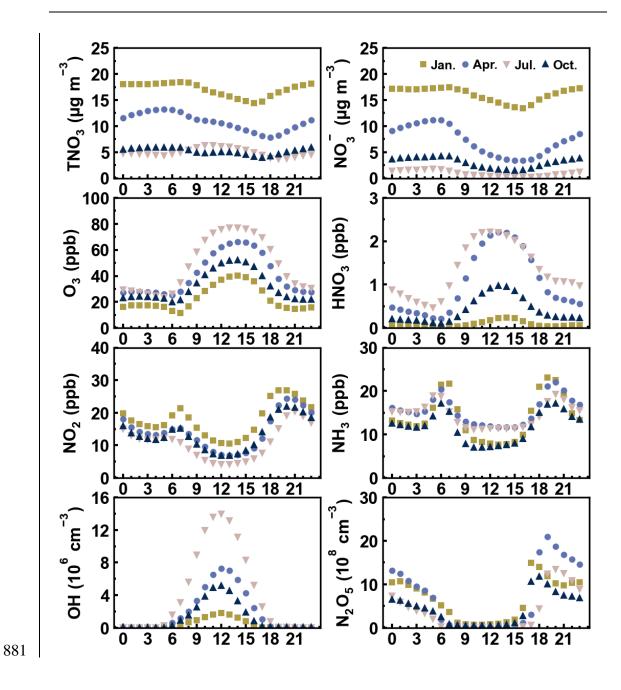


Fig 3. (a–d) Contributions of Background, Local, Indirect, and Direct transport to nitrate-related species in four months of 2017 for the entire YRD region. Notes: Nitrate-related species represent NO₃, HNO₃, PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, NH₃, OH, and N₂O₅. The contributions of HNO₃ in January 2017 are shown in Fig. S6.

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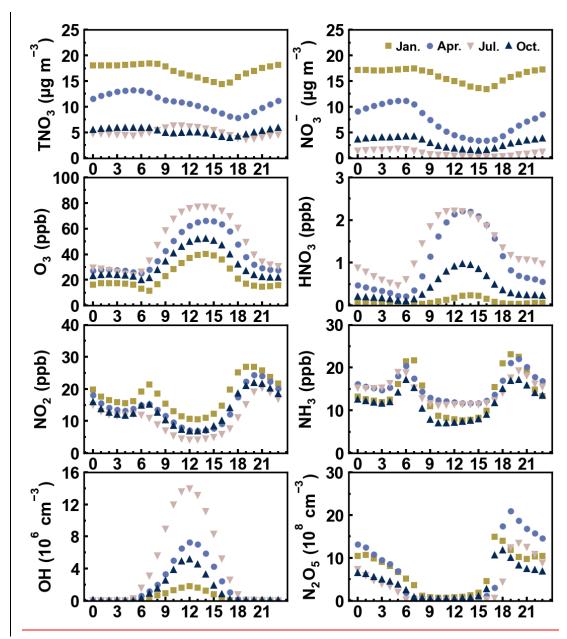
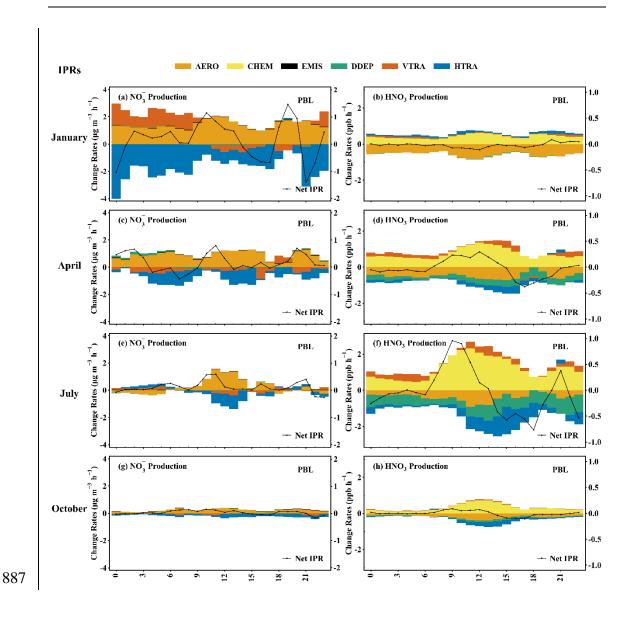


Fig 4. Monthly diurnal variations of three nitrate-phases (NO₃⁻, HNO₃, and TNO₃), the major nitrate-precursors (O_3 , NO₂, NH₃, and NH₃N₂O₅) and major atmospheric oxidants (OHO₃ and N₂O₅OH) for the entire YRD region under the base scenario. The X axis marks each hour of the day (Beijing time).



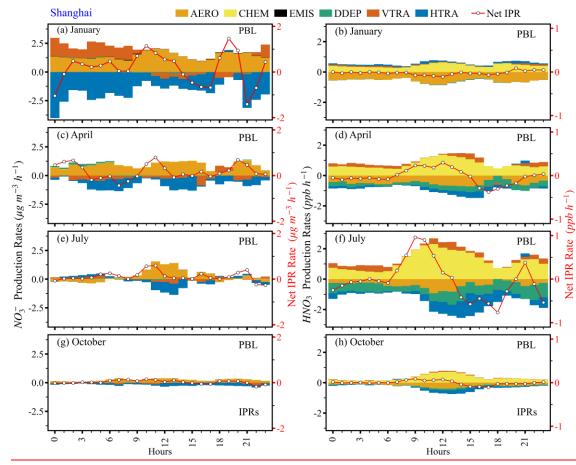
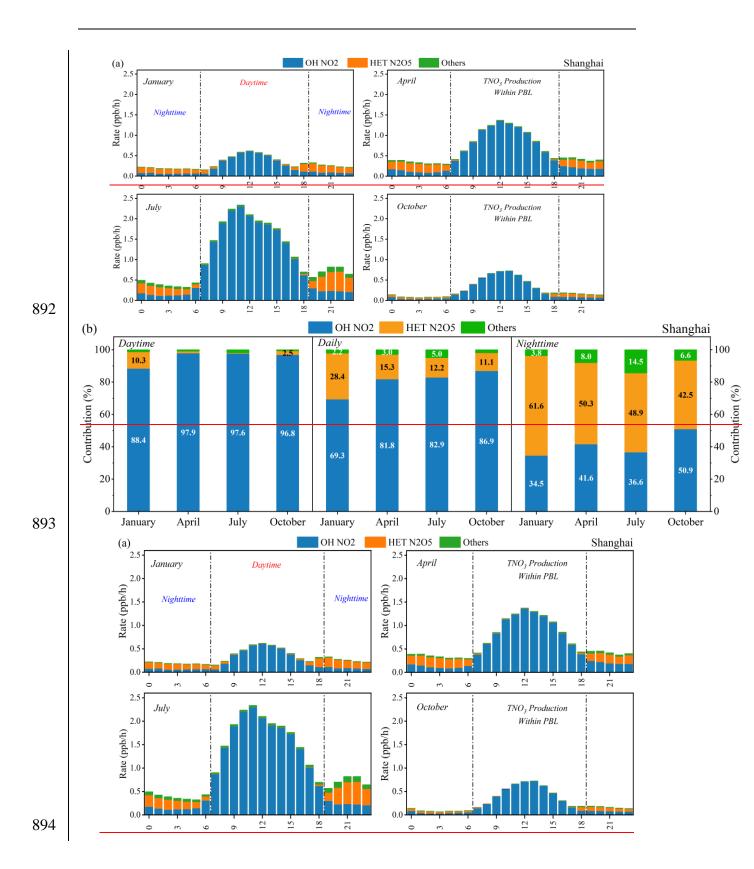


Fig 5. Diel variations in physical and chemical processes rates of NO₃ and HNO₃ production (a–h) within the PBL in Shanghai. BlackRed line represents the net IPR value for each hour of the day; its value scale is on the right Y axis.



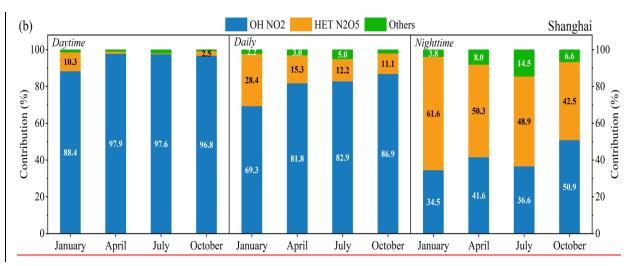
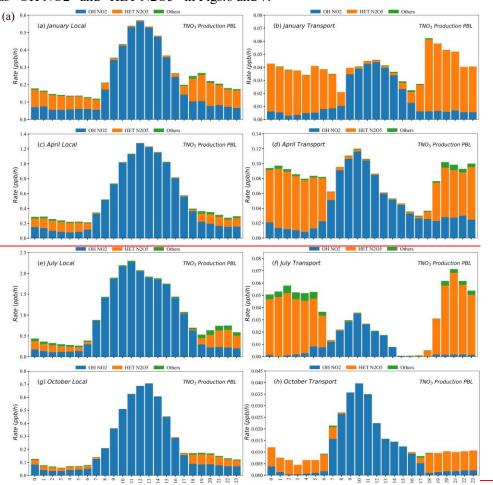
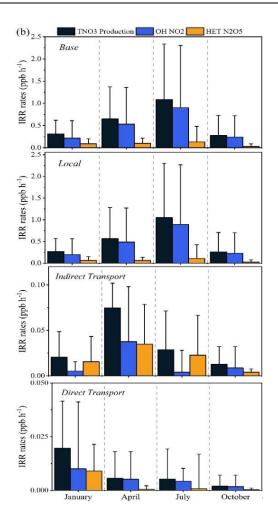


Fig 6. (a) Mean diurnal variations of TNO₃ production rates in different pathways in 2017 in Shanghai. (b) Average potential contribution of OH + NO₂, HET N_2O_5 and Others pathways to TNO₃ chemical production in Shanghai within the PBL under base case simulation.

Notes: Daytime (7:00–18:00), Nighttime (19:00–6:00). OH + NO_2 and HET N_2O_5 pathways are noted as "OH NO2" and "HET N2O5" in Figs.6 and 7.





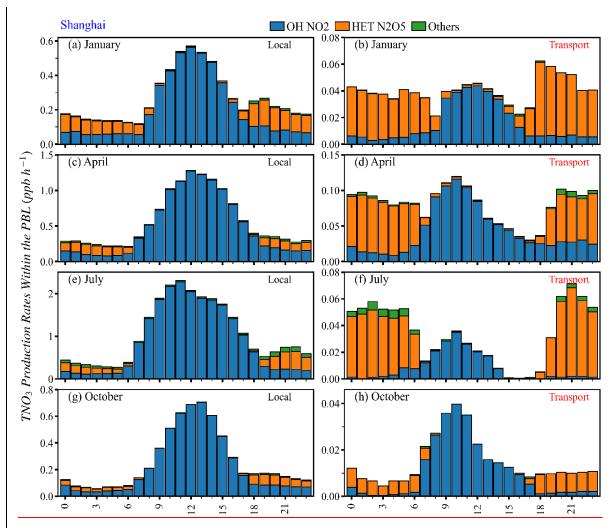


Fig 7. (a) Mean diurnal variations of TNO_3 production rates in major pathways from the local and transport (sum of indirect and direct transport) contributions. (b) Total IRRs

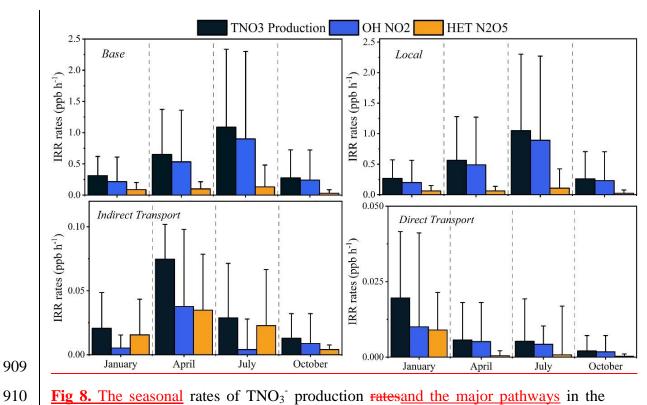


Fig 8. The seasonal rates of TNO_3 production rates and the major pathways in the base case, and from the local and transport contributions within the PBL. The error bar indicates one standard deviation.