1	The Positive Effect of Formaldehyde on the Photocatalytic
2	Renoxification of Nitrate on TiO₂ Particles
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23	concentration can reach up to more than 100 ppb for nitrate-doped TiO ₂ particles,
24	while almost no NO _x was generated in the absence of HCHO. Nitrate type, relative
25	humidity and HCHO concentration were found to influence NO _x release. Adsorbed
26	HCHO may react with nitrate radicals through hydrogen abstraction to form adsorbed
27	<u>HNO₃ on the surface, which is responsible for the release of NO_x. The mass</u>
28	generation of NO _x was suggested to via the NO ₃ ⁻ -NO ₃ ·-HCHO-HNO ₃ -NO _x pathway,
29	with HCHO and TiO ₂ exhibiting a significant synergistic effect. Our proposed
30	reaction mechanism by which HCHO promotes photocatalytic renoxification is
31	helpful for deeply understanding the atmospheric photochemical processes and
32	nitrogen cycling.Renoxification is the recycling of NO3=/HNO3 into NO* under
33	illumination; it is promoted by the photocatalysis of TiO2- Formaldehyde (HCHO),
34	the most abundant carbonyl compound in the atmosphere, may participate in the
35	renoxification of nitrate-doped TiO2 (NO3-TiO2) aerosols. In this study, we
36	established an environmental chamber reaction system under different light sources,
37	excluding direct photolysis of nitrate by adjusting the illumination wavelength, to
38	explore the photocatalytic renoxification process. It is suggested that HCHO and TiO2
39	have a significant synergistic effect on photocatalytic renoxification via the
40	NO3 ⁼ -NO3-HCHO-HNO3-NO* pathway. Adsorbed HCHO may react with nitrate
41	radicals through hydrogen abstraction to form HNO3-on the surface, resulting in the
42	mass generation of NO _x . We found that for 4 wt% NO ₃ ⁼ $-TiO_2$ aerosols (e.g.,
43	KNO3-TiO2), the NO* concentration reached up to 110 ppb, and was 2 orders of
44	magnitude higher than in the absence of HCHO. Nitrate type and contents, relative

45	humidity, and HCHO concentration were found to influence NO _* release. The
46	significant synergistic enhancement effect of renoxification affects photochemical
47	processes such as atmospheric oxidation and nitrogen cycling on the surfaces of
48	particles containing semiconductor oxides, with the participation of hydrogen donor
49	organies

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51 1 Introduction

The levels of ozone (O₃) and hydroxyl radicals (·OH) in the troposphere can be 52 promoted by nitrogen oxides (NO_x = NO + NO₂), such that NO_x plays an important 53 54 role in the formation of secondary aerosols and atmospheric oxidants (Platt et al., 1980; Stemmler et al., 2006; Harris et al., 1982; Finlayson-Pitts and Pitts, 1999). NO_x 55 can be converted into nitric acid (HNO3) and nitrate (NO3-) through a series of 56 oxidation and hydrolysis reactions and is eventually removed from the atmosphere 57 through subsequent wet or dry deposition (Dentener and Crutzen, 1993; Goodman et 58 al., 2001; Monge et al., 2010; Bedjanian and El Zein, 2012). However, comparisons 59 60 of observations and modeling results for the marine boundary layer, land, and free troposphere (Read et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2009; Seltzer et al., 2015) have shown 61 underestimation of HNO3 or NO3⁻ content, NOx abundance, and NOx/HNO3 ratios, 62 indicating the presence of a new, rapid NO_x circulation pathway (Ye et al., 2016b; 63 Reed et al., 2017). Some researchers have suggested that deposited NO₃⁻ and HNO₃ 64 65 can be recycled back to gas phase NO_x under illumination, via the renoxification process (Schuttlefield et al., 2008; Romer et al., 2018; Bao et al., 2020; Shi et al., 66

67 2021). Photolytic renoxification occurs under light with a wavelength of < 350 nm, through the photolysis of NO3⁻/HNO3 adsorbed on the solid surface to generate NOx. 68 69 Notably, the photolysis of NO3-HNO3 is reported to occur at least 2 orders of magnitude faster on different solid surfaces (natural or artificial) or aerosols than in 70 the gas phase (Ye et al., 2016a; Zhou et al., 2003; Baergen and Donaldson, 2013). 71 72 Several recent studies have shown that renoxification has important atmospheric 73 significance (Deng et al., 2010; Kasibhatla et al., 2018; Romer et al., 2018; Alexander et al., 2020), providing the atmosphere with a new source of photochemically reactive 74 nitrogen species, i.e., HONO or NOx, resulting in the production of more 75 76 photooxidants such as O₃ or OH (Ye et al., 2017), which further oxidize volatile organic compounds (VOCs), leading to the formation of more chromophores, thereby 77 affecting the photochemical process (Bao et al., 2020). 78

Renoxification processes have recently been observed on different types of 79 80 atmospheric particles, such as urban grime and mineral dust (Ninneman et al., 2020; 81 Bao et al., 2018; Baergen and Donaldson, 2013; Ndour et al., 2009). Atmospheric 82 titanium dioxide (TiO₂) is mainly derived from windblown mineral dust, with mass mixing ratios ranging from 0.1 to 10% (Chen et al., 2012). TiO₂ is widely used in 83 industrial processes and building exteriors for its favorable physical and chemical 84 properties. Titanium and nitrate ions have been found to coexist in atmospheric 85 particulates in different regions worldwide (Sun et al., 2005; Schwartz-Narbonne et al., 86 2019). The relative content of TiO₂ and NO₃⁻ in atmospheric particles varies greatly, 87 and nitrate-coated TiO₂ (NO₃⁻-TiO₂) aerosols containing TiO₂ as the main body can 88

89 be used to effectively represent particles for sandstorm modeling (Sun et al., 2005; Kim et al., 2012). TiO₂ is a semiconductor metal oxide that can facilitate the 90 91 photolysis of nitrate and the release of NOx due to its photocatalytic activity (Ndour et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2012; Verbruggen, 2015; Schwartz-Narbonne et al., 2019). 92 Under ultraviolet (UV) light, TiO2 generates electron-hole pairs in the conduction and 93 valence bands, respectively (Linsebigler et al., 1995). Nitrate ions adsorbed at the 94 95 oxide surface react with the photogenerated holes (h^+) to form nitrate radicals (NO₃·), which are subsequently photolyzed to NOx, mainly under visible light illumination 96 (Schuttlefield et al., 2008; George et al., 2015; Schwartz-Narbonne et al., 2019). Thus, 97 98 the renoxification of NO₃⁻ is faster on TiO₂ than on other oxides in mineral dust aerosols such as SiO2 or Al2O3 (Lesko et al., 2015; Ma et al., 2021). In this study, we 99 refer to renoxification involving h⁺ and NO₃⁻ in the reaction as photocatalytic 100 renoxification based on the photocatalytic properties of TiO₂. 101

102 Many previous studies have focused mainly on particulate nitrate-NO_x photochemical cycling reactions, despite the potential impact of other reactant gases 103 104 in the atmosphere. Formaldehyde (HCHO), the most abundant carbonyl compound in the atmosphere, which can react at night with NO3. via hydrogen abstraction reactions 105 to form HNO₃ (Atkinson, 1991). Our previous study showed that the degradation rate 106 of HCHO was faster on NO₃⁻-TiO₂ aerosols than on TiO₂ particles, perhaps as a result 107 of HCHO oxidation by NO₃ (Shang et al., 2017). To date, no studies have reported the 108 effect of HCHO on photocatalytic renoxification. Adsorbed HCHO would react with 109 NO_3 · generated on the NO_3 -TiO₂ aerosol surface, thus alter the surface nitrogenous 110

species and renoxification process. The present study is the first to explore the combined effect of HCHO and photocatalytic TiO₂ particles on the renoxification of nitrate. The wavelengths of the light sources were adjusted to exclude photolytic renoxification while making photocatalytic renoxification available for better elucidate the reaction mechanism. We investigated the effects of various influential factors including nitrate type, nitrate content, RH, and initial HCHO concentration, to understand the atmospheric renoxification of nitrate in greater detail.

118 2 Methods

119 2.1 Environmental chamber setup

120 Details of the experimental apparatus and protocol used in the current study have been previously described (Shang et al., 2017). Briefly, the main body of the 121 environmental chamber is a 400 L polyvinyl fluoride (PVF) bag filled with synthetic 122 air (high purity N2 (99.999%) mixed with high purity O2 (99.999%) in the ratio of 123 79:21 by volume, Beijing Huatong Jingke Gas Chemical Co.). The chamber is 124 capable of temperature (~293 K) and relative humidity (0.8-70%) control using a 125 126 water bubbler and air conditioners, respectively. The chamber is equipped with two 127 light sources both with the central wavelength of 365 nm. One is a set of <u>36 W</u> tube lamps with a main spectrum of 320-400 nm and a small amount of 480-600 nm 128 129 visible light (Figure S1a). The other is a set of <u>12 W</u>Light-emitting diode (LED) lamps with a narrow main spectrum of 350-390 nm (Figure S1b). The light intensities 130 for the tube and LED lamp at 365 nm were 300 µW·cm⁻² and 200 µW·cm⁻², 131 respectively, measured in the middle of the chamber. NO_x concentrations at the outlet 132

133 of the chamber were monitored by a chemiluminescence NO_x analyzer (ECOTECH, EC9841B). HCHO was generated by thermolysis of paraformaldehyde at 70 °C and 134 detected via acetyl acetone spectrophotometric method using a UV-Vis 135 spectrophotometer (PERSEE, T6) or a fluorescence spectrophotometer (THERMO, 136 Lumina), depending on different initial HCHO concentrations. The particle size 137 distribution was measured by a Scanning Nano Particle Spectrometer (HCT, 138 139 SNPS-20). Electron Spin Resonance (Nuohai Life Science, MiniScope MS 5000) was used to measure OH on the surface of particles. 5,5-dimethl-1-pyrroline-N-oxide 140 (DPMO, Enzo) was used as the capture agent. 50 µL particle-containing suspension 141 142 mixed with 50 µL DMPO (concentration of 200 µM) was loaded in a 1 mm capillary. Four 365 nm LED lamps were placed side by side vertically at a distance of about 1 143 cm from the capillary, and the measurement was carried out after 1 min of irradiation. 144 The modulation frequency was 100 kHz, the modulation amplitude was 0.2 mT, the 145 microwave power was 10 mW and the sweep time was 60 s. 146

147 2.2 Nitrate-TiO₂ composite samples

In our experiments, two nitrate salts, potassium nitrate (AR, Beijing Chemical Works Co., Ltd) or ammonium nitrate (AR, Beijing Chemical Works Co., Ltd), were complexed with pure TiO₂ (\geq 99.5%, Degussa AG) powder or TiO₂ (1 wt.%)/SiO₂ mixed powder to prepare NO₃⁻-TiO₂ or NO₃⁻-TiO₂ (1 wt.%)/SiO₂ samples. <u>250 mg</u> TiO₂ was simply mixed in nitrate solutions at the desired mass mixing ratio (with nitrate content of <u>1 wt.%</u>, 4 wt.%, <u>20 wt.%</u>, <u>80 wt.%</u> and <u>95 wt.%</u>) to obtain a mash. The mash was dried at 90 °C and then ground carefully for 30 min. A series of

155	samples with different amount of nitrate were prepared and diffuse reflectance fourier
156	transform infrared spectroscopy (DRIFTS) measurements were made to test their
157	homogeneity. Figure S2 shows DRIFTS spectra of these KNO ₃ -TiO ₂ composites, of
158	which 1760 cm ⁻¹ peak is one of the typical vibrating peaks of nitrate (Aghazadeh,
159	2016; Maeda et al., 2011). Ratio value of peak area from 1730-1790 cm ⁻¹ for 1, 4, 32,
160	80 wt.% composited samples is 1: 4.1: 29.8: 81.6, which is very close to that of
161	theoretical value, proving that the samples were uniformly mixed. The mash was
162	dried at 90 °C and then ground carefully to ensure a uniform composite of particles.
163	SiO_2 (AR, Xilong Scientific Co., Ltd.) with no optical activity was also chosen for
164	comparison, and samples of KNO_3-SiO_2 and KNO_3-TiO_2(1 wt.%)/SiO_2 samples with
165	a potassium nitrate content of 4 wt.% were prepared. The blank 250 mg TiO ₂ sample
166	was solved in pure water with the same procedure as mentioned above. 4 wt.%
167	HNO3-TiO2 composite particles were prepared for comparison. Concentrated nitric
168	acid (AR, Beijing Chemical Works Co., Ltd) was diluted to 1 M and 250 mg TiO ₂ was
169	added to the nitric acid solution and stirred evenly. A layer of aluminum foil was
170	covered on the surface of the HNO3-TiO2 homogenate and dried naturally in the room.
171	After air-drying, follow the same steps above to grind for use. We also selected
172	Arizona Test Dust (ATD, Powder Technology Inc.), whose chemical composition and
173	weight percentage were shown in Table S1, as a substitute of NO_3^-/TiO_2 to investigate
174	the "photocatalytic renoxification" process of nitrate and the positive effect of HCHO.
175	2.3 Environmental chamber experiments

- **2.3 Environmental chamber experiments**
- 176 For the chamber operation, we completely evacuated the chamber after every

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177	experiment, then cleaned the chamber walls with deionized water and then dried by
178	flushing the chamber with ultra-zero air to remove any particles or gases collected on
179	the chamber walls. The experiments carried out in the environmental chamber can be
180	divided into two categories according to whether HCHO was involved or not. (1) No
181	HCHO involvement in the reaction. The PVF bag was inflated by 260 L synthetic air,
182	and then 75 mg particles were instantly sprayed into the chamber by a transient
183	high-pressure airflow. then 75 mg TiO2 particles were sprayed into PVF bag. As
184	shown in Figure S23, the concentration of the 4 wt.% KNO3-TiO2 particles decreased
185	rapidly due to the sedimentation of the larger particles and the electrostatic adsorption
186	of the particles by the environmental chamber. The size distribution $\frac{1}{100}$ -reached
187	stable after about 60 min with the peak particle size was about 120 nm, similar to that
188	of atmospheric particles in some urban areas in China (Wang et al., 2015; Li et al.,
189	2019). The size distribution could maintain for more than 4 hours, with the number
190	concentration in the chamber decreased by no more than 5% per hour. (2) With the
191	participation of HCHO. The PVF bag was inflated by 125 L synthetic air, followed by
192	the introduction of HCHO, and then the chamber was filled up with zero air to about
193	250 L. In order to know the HCHO adsorption before and after the particles'
194	introduction, we conducted a conditional experiment in the dark. It can be seen from
195	Figure S4 that it took about 90 min for the concentration of HCHO to reach stable,
196	and can be sustained. It can be seen from Figure S3 that it took about 60 min for the
197	HCHO concentration to reach stable. Then, 75 mg TiO ₂ or NO ₃ ⁻ /TiO ₂ powders were
198	introduced instantly and the concentration of HCHO decreased upon the introduction.

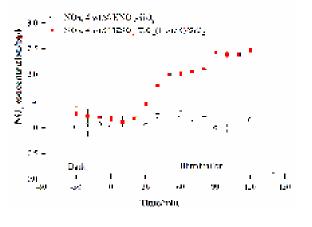
199	It took about another 60 min for HCHO to reach its second adsorption equilibrium,
200	and the concentration of HCHO can be stable for several hours in the dark. Therefore,
201	for the irradiation experiments, the particles were injected at 90 min after HCHO's
202	introduction, and the lamps were turned on at 60 min after the particle's
203	introduction.for HCHO concentration to get stable. After the concentrations of both
204	HCHO and aerosol became stable, the lamps were turned on and the concentrations of
205	NO _* were monitored.

206 To determine the background value of NO_x in the reaction system, four blank experiments were carried out under illumination without nitrate: "synthetic air", 207 "synthetic air + TiO2", "synthetic air + HCHO" and "synthetic air + HCHO + TiO2". 208 In the blank experiments of "synthetic air" and "synthetic air + TiO_2 ", the NO_x 209 210 concentration remained stable during 180 min illumination, and the concentration change was no more than 0.5 ppb (Figure S45a). Therefore, the environmental 211 chamber, synthetic air and the surface of TiO₂ particles were thought to be relatively 212 clean, and there was no generation and accumulation of NO_x under illumination. 213 214 When HCHO was introduced into the environmental chamber, NOx accumulated ~2 215 ppb in 120 min with or without TiO₂ particles (Figure S45b). Compared with the blank experiment results when there was no HCHO, NOx might come from the 216 generation process of HCHO (impurities in paraformaldehyde). However, considering 217 the high concentration level of NOx produced in the NO3-TiO2 system containing 218 219 HCHO under the same conditions in this study (see later in Figure 2), the NO_x generated in this blank experiment can be negligible. 220

221 3 Results and discussion

222 3.1 The positive effect of TiO₂ on the renoxification process

We investigated the photocatalytic role of TiO₂ on renoxification. The light source 223 was two 365 nm tube lamps containing small amounts of 400-600 nm visible light; 224 this setup was suitable for exciting TiO2 and the photolysis of available nitrate 225 radicals. Raw NOx data measured in the chamber under dark and illuminated 226 227 conditions for 4 wt.% KNO3-SiO2 and 4 wt.% KNO3-TiO2 (1 wt.%)/SiO2 are shown in Figure 1. The ratio of 1 wt. % TiO2 to SiO2 corresponds to their ratio in sand and 228 dust particles. We observed no NOx in the KNO3-SiO2 sample under dark or 229 230 illumination, indicating very weak direct photolysis of nitrate under our 365 nm tube-lamp illumination conditions. However, when the sample containing TiO₂/SiO₂ 231 was illuminated, NO_x continually accumulated in the chamber. This finding confirms 232 that NO_x production arising from photodissociation of NO₃⁻ on TiO₂/SiO₂ was caused 233 by the photocatalytic property of TiO₂ (i.e., photocatalytic renoxification) and was not 234 due to the direct photolysis of NO₃⁻ (photolytic renoxification). 235



236

237	Figure 1. Effect of illumination on the release of NO _x from 4 wt.% KNO ₃ -SiO ₂ and 4		
238	wt.% KNO ₃ -TiO ₂ (1 wt.%)/SiO ₂ at 293 K and 0.8% of relative humidity. 365 nm tube		
239	lamps were used during the illumination experiments.		
240	TiO ₂ can be excited by UV illumination to generate electron-hole pairs, and the		
241	h^+ can react with adsorbed NO_3^- to produce NO_3^{\cdot} (Ndour et al., 2009). Thus, in the		
242	present study, NO3. mainly absorbed visible light emitted from the tube lamps, which		
243	was subsequently photolyzed to NO_x through Eqs. (3) and (4) (Wayne et al., 1991),		
244	which explains why NO_x was observed in this study. Thus, we demonstrated that TiO_2		
245	can be excited at illumination wavelengths of ~365 nm, even when then content was		
246	very low, and that NO_x accumulated due to the production and further phytolysis of		
247	NO_3 . However, the production rate of NO_x was very slow, reaching only 1.3 ppb		
248	during 90 min of illumination. This result may have been caused by the blocking		
249	effect of K^+ on NO ₃ ⁻ . K^+ forms ion pairs with NO ₃ ⁻ , and electrostatic repulsion		
250	between $K^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$ and $h^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$ prevents $NO_3^{\scriptscriptstyle -}$ from combining with $h^{\scriptscriptstyle +}$ to generate $NO_3^{\scriptscriptstyle \cdot}$ to a		
251	certain extent, thereby weakening the positive effect of TiO_2 on the renoxification of		
252	KNO ₃ (Rosseler et al., 2013).		
253	$TiO_2 + hv (\lambda < 390 \text{ nm}) \rightarrow e^- + h^+ $ (1)		
254	$NO_3 + h^+ \rightarrow NO_3$ (2)		
255	NO_3 · + hv ($\lambda < 640 \text{ nm}$) $\rightarrow NO_2$ +O· (3)		

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NO₃· + hv (585 nm < λ < 640 nm) \rightarrow NO +O₂ (4)

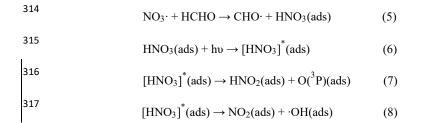
3.2 The synergistic positive effect of TiO₂ and HCHO on the renoxification
process

259 LED lamps with a wavelength range of 350-390 nm and no visible light were used to irradiate 4 wt.% KNO3-TiO2 without generating NOx (NO2 and NO 260 261 concentrations fluctuate within the error range of the instrument) (Figure S_{56}). TiO₂ can be excited under this range of irradiation, producing NO3 radicals as discussed 262 above. The lack of NOx generation indicates that neither nitrate photolysis nor 263 NO3. photolysis occurred under 365 nm LED lamp illumination conditions. In 264 265 addition, it has been shown that NO3. photolysis only occurs in visible light (Aldener et al., 2006). Therefore, the LED lamp setup was used in subsequent experiments to 266 exclude the direct photolysis of both KNO3 and NO3, but allow the excitation of TiO2. 267 268 This approach allowed us to investigate the process of photocatalytic renoxification caused by HCHO in the presence of photogenerated NO3. 269

270 Atmospheric trace gases can undergo photocatalytic reactions on the surface of TiO₂ (Chen et al., 2012). As the illumination time increased, the concentration of 271 272 HCHO showed a linear downward trend, which was found to fit consistent with zero-order reaction kinetics (Figure S67). The zero-order reaction rate constants of 273 HCHO on TiO₂ and 4 wt.% KNO₃-TiO₂ particles were 9.1×10^{-3} and 1.4×10^{-2} ppm 274 min⁻¹, respectively, which were much higher than that for gaseous HCHO photolysis 275 (Shang et al., 2017). We suggested that the produced NO3. contributed to the 276 277 enhanced uptake of HCHO. Therefore, we suggest that NO3- production contributed to enhanced HCHO uptake. In the following study, the effect of HCHO on the 278 279 photocatalytic renoxification of NO3-TiO2 was explored. Future studies should explore whether HCHO affects the photocatalytic renoxification of NO3=-TiO2-280

281	Variation in NO_x concentration within the chamber containing nitrate-TiO ₂			
282	particles with or without HCHO is shown in Figure 2. For <u>4 wt.%</u> KNO ₃ -TiO ₂			
283	particles, the NO_x concentration began to increase upon irradiation in the presence of			
284	HCHO, reaching ~3861 mmol-normalized ppb (equivalent to 110 ppb)-110 ppb			
285	within 120 min. This result indicates that HCHO greatly promoted photocatalytic			
286	renoxification of KNO_3 on the surfaces of TiO_2 particles. This reaction process can be			
287	divided into two stages: a rapid increase within the first 60 min and a slower increase			
288	within the following 60 min, each consistent with zero-order reaction kinetics. The			
289	slow stage is due to the photodegradation of HCHO on KNO ₃ -TiO ₂ aerosols, which			
290	led to a decrease in its concentration, gradually weakening the positive effect. NO_x is			
291	the sum of NO_2 and NO , both of which showed a two-stage concentration increase			
292	(Figure S8). The NO ₂ generation rate was nearly 6 times that of NO, as compared to			
293	using the zero-order rate constant within 60 min (1.18 ppb min ⁻¹ NO ₂ , $R^2 = 0.96$; 0.19			
294	ppb min ⁻¹ NO, $R^2 = 0.91$). This burst-like generation of NO _x can be ascribed to the			
295	reaction between generated $\mathrm{NO}_3{}^{\cdot}$ and HCHO via hydrogen abstraction to form			
296	adsorbed nitric acid (HNO3(ads)) on TiO2 particles. We measured the pH of water			
297	extracts in NO3TiO2 systems with and without HCHO. It was found that the pH			
298	decreased by 1.7% for KNO ₃ -TiO ₂ , suggesting the formation of acidic species such as			
299	HNO ₃ (ads) in this study. Based on the analysis of the absorption cross section of			
300	HNO3 adsorbed on fused silica surface, the HNO3(ads) absorption spectrum has been			
301	reported to be red-shifted compared to HNO ₃ (g), extending from 350 to 365 nm, with			
302	a simultaneous cross-sectional increase (Du and Zhu, 2011). Therefore, HNO ₃ (ads)			

303 was subjected to photolysis to produce NO2 and HONO (Eqs. (6)-(8)) under the LED lamp used in this study. A previous study of HNO3 photolysis on the surface of Pyrex 304 glass showed that the ratio of the formation rates of photolysis products 305 $(J_{NOx}/J_{(NOx+HONO)})$ was > 97% at RH = 0% (Zhou et al., 2003), suggesting that NO_x is 306 the main gaseous product under dry conditions. Thus, the effect of HONO on product 307 distribution and NO_x concentration was negligible in this study. Together, these results 308 309 suggest that NO3 and HCHO generate HNO3(ads) on particle surfaces through 310 hydrogen abstraction, which contributes to the substantial release of NOx via photolysis. This photocatalytic renoxification via the NO3⁻-NO3⁻-HCHO-HNO3-NOx 311 312 pathway is important considering the high abundance of hydrogen donor organics in the atmosphere. 313



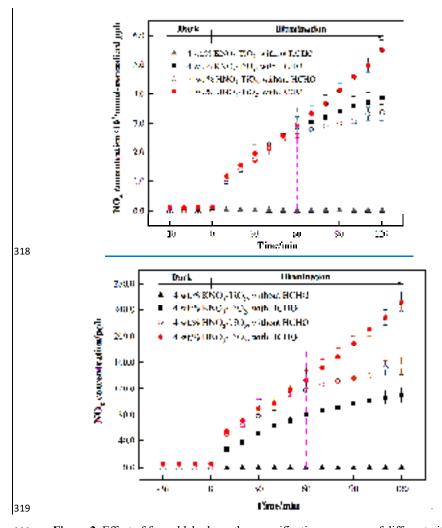


Figure 2. Effect of formaldehyde on the renoxification processes of different nitrate doped particles at 293 K and 0.8% of relative humidity. 365 nm LED lamps were used
 during the illumination experiment. The initial concentration of HCHO was about 9
 ppm.

To demonstrate the proposed HCHO mechanism and the photolysis contribution of HNO₃ to NO_x, we prepared an HNO₃-TiO₂ sample by directly dissolving TiO₂ into

326	dilute nitric acid. The formation of NO_x on $\mathrm{HNO}_3\text{-}\mathrm{TiO}_2$ without HCHO under			
327	illumination was obvious and at a rate comparable with (Figure 2), and occurred even			
328	more rapidly than that on KNO ₃ -TiO ₂ with HCHO (Figure 2). The renoxification of			
329	HNO_3 -TiO ₂ particles was further enhanced following the introduction of HCHO. The			
330	NO _* -concentration increased by ~250 ppb after 2 h of illumination, which was 2.2			
331	times faster than the increase in KNO3-TiO2-concentration under the same conditions.			
332	This is -difference is due to the factbecause that HNO3 dissociates on particle			
333	surfaces to generate NO_3^- , such that HNO_3 exists on TiO_2 as both $HNO_3(ads)$ and			
334	NO ₃ ⁻ (ads). Similarly, NO ₃ ⁻ (ads) completed the NO ₃ ⁻ -NO ₃ ·-HCHO-HNO ₃ -NO _x			
335	pathway as described above through the reaction process shown in Eqs. (2) to (8). The			
336	rates of NO _x production from HNO ₃ -TiO ₂ particles with and without HCHO were			
337	similar for the first 60 min (Figure 2), mainly due to the direct photolysis of partial			
338	HNO ₃ (ads). However, after 60 min, NO_x was generated rapidly in the presence of			
339	HCHO, perhaps due to the dominant photocatalytic renoxification of $NO_3^-(ads)$.			
340	These findings indicate that HCHO converts NO_3^- on particle surfaces into $HNO_3(ads)$			
341	by reacting with NO3 $\cdot,$ and then HNO3(ads) photolyzes at a faster rate to generate			
342	NO _x , allowing HCHO to enhance the formation of NO _x . Overall, the photocatalytic			
343	renoxification of NO_3^- -TiO ₂ particles affects atmospheric oxidation and the nitrogen			
344	cycle, and the presence of HCHO further enhances this impact.			

345 Photocatalytic renoxification reaction occurs on the surfaces of mineral dust due 346 to the presence of semiconductor oxides with photocatalytic activity such as TiO_2 347 (Ndour et al., 2009). In order to confirm this, we synthesized nitrate with inert SiO_2

348 as a comparison. It can be seen from Figure S9 that no NO₂ formation was observed whether HCHO was present or not, indicating that photocatalytically active particle 349 TiO₂ is critical to the photocatalytic renoxification process. Furthermore, a kind of 350 351 commercial mineral dust ATD was selected In this study, we selected the commercial mineral dust ATD_to study the effects of HCHO on this process. We detected OH in 352 353 irradiated pure TiO2 and ATD samples using electron spin resonance (ESR) technique, 354 and found that for ATD samples, the peak intensity of OH generation was 40% that 355 of TiO₂ samples (Figure S810). OH originates in the reaction of h⁺ with surface adsorbed water (Ahmed et al., 2014). ATD contains semiconductor oxides such as 356 357 TiO₂ and Fe₂O₃, and is thought to exhibit photocatalytic properties affecting the renoxification of nitrate. The NO₃⁻ content of ATD is 4×10^{17} molecules m⁻², which is 358 ~0.25 wt.% of the total mass (Huang et al., 2015; Jiyeon et al., 2017). The NO_x 359 concentration changes observed in the environmental chamber demonstrated that 360 HCHO promoted the renoxification of ATD particles (Figure S911). This result 361 362 suggests that mineral dust containing photocatalytic semiconductor oxides such as 363 TiO₂, Fe₂O₃, and ZnO can greatly promote the conversion of granular nitrate to NO_x in the presence of HCHO. 364

365

366 **3.3 Influential factors on the photocatalytic renoxification process**

367 **3.3.1 The influence of nitrate type**

As discussed above, HNO₃ and KNO₃ undergo different renoxification processes on the surface of TiO₂ under the same illumination conditions, suggesting that cations 370 bound to NO₃⁻ significantly affect NO_x production. Different types of cations coexist with nitrate ions in atmospheric particulate matter, among which ammonium ions 371 372 (NH_4^+) are important water-soluble ions that can be higher in content than K^+ in urban fine particulate matter (Zhou et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021), 373 especially in heavily polluted cities.(Tian et al., 2020) Equal amounts of 4 wt.% 374 375 NH₄NO₃-TiO₂ particles were introduced into the chamber and illuminated under the 376 same conditions. Similar as Figure 2, millimole normalized ppb was used in order to 377 compare the amount of NOx release for different kinds of nitrate with same percentage weight. It can be seen that HCHO had a much stronger positive effect on the release 378 379 of NO_x over NH₄NO₃-TiO₂ particles (Figure 3), which may be ascribed to NH₄⁺. Combined with the results of NH4NO3-TiO2 and KNO3-TiO2 particles, it seems that 380 the affinity rather than electrostatic repulsion should be the primary effect of cations 381 382 on the production of NOx. On substrates without photocatalytic activity such as SiO2 and Al₂O₃, NH₄NO₃ cannot generate NO_x,(Ma et al., 2021) such that NO_x production 383 depends on the effect of TiO2. The h⁺ generated by TiO2 excitation reacts with 384 385 adsorbed H₂O to produce ·OH (Eq. (9)), which gradually oxidizes NH₄⁺ to NO₃⁻ (Eq. (10)). In our previous study, we demonstrated that irradiated (NH₄)₂SO₄-TiO₂ samples 386 had lower NH4⁺ and NO3⁻ peaks (Shang et al., 2017). Therefore, more NO3⁻ 387 participated photocatalytic renoxification 388 in the process via the NO_3^{-} -NO₃·-HCHO-HNO₃-NO_x pathway to generate NO_x. Moreover, the results 389 390 without HCHO are shown in Figure 4aS12, both NH4NO3-TiO2 particles and 391 KNO3-TiO2 particles produced almost no NOx, indicating the importance of HCHO

for renoxification to occur. Due to the high content of NH_4NO_3 in atmospheric particulate matter, the positive effect of HCHO on the photocatalytic renoxification process may have some impact on the concentrations of NO_x and other atmospheric oxidants.

396

 $h^{+} + H_2 O \rightarrow \cdot OH \tag{9}$

(10)

$$\cdot OH + NH_4^+ / NH_3 \rightarrow NO_2 \rightarrow NO_3$$

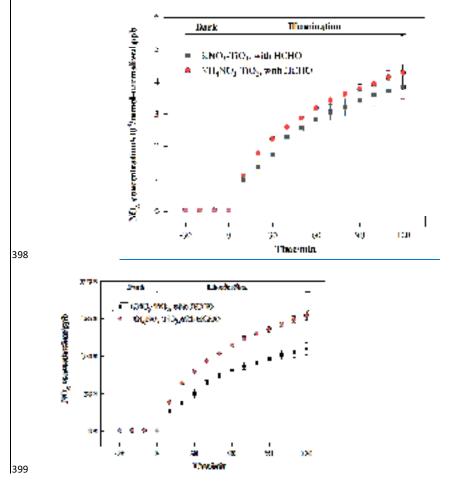
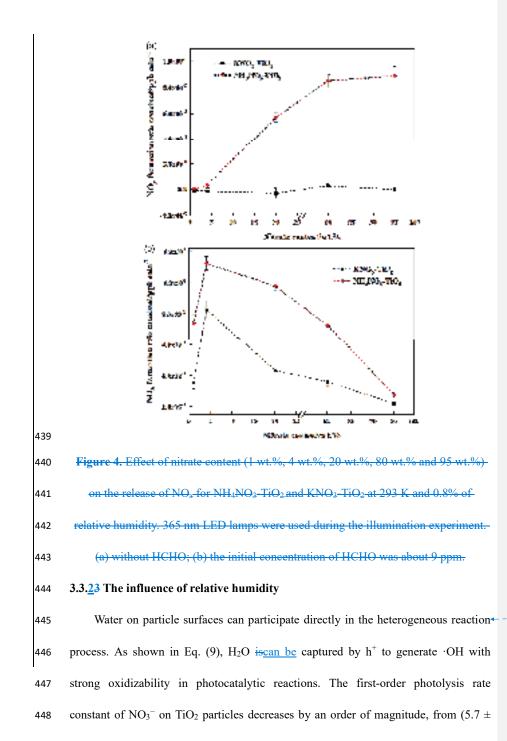




Figure 3. Effect of formaldehyde on the renoxification processes of 4 wt.%

401	NH ₄ NO ₃ -TiO ₂ and 4 wt.% KNO ₃ -TiO ₂ particles at 293 K and 0.8% of relative		
402	humidity. 365 nm LED lamps were used during the irradiation experiment. The initial		
403	concentration of HCHO was about 9 ppm.		
404			
405	3.3.2 The influence of nitrate content		
406	Atmospheric particles have a wide range of nitrate content; differences in the relative		
407	amounts of nitrate and TiO2-in atmospheric particles may affect the renoxification		
408	process. Therefore, we investigated the effects of nitrate concentration gradients on		
409	renoxification. Changes in the NO _x concentrations of NO ₃ ⁻ -TiO ₂ composite particles,		
410	with or without HCHO, according to reaction time under 365 nm LED illumination		
411	confirmed zero order reaction kinetics. Therefore, we applied zero order rate		
412	constants to compare particles with different nitrate contents. For KNO3-TiO2, NO*		
413	was not generated in the absence of HCHO, even at high NO3 ⁻ nitrate concentrations		
414	(Figure 4a) because no photolysis of either NO3 ⁻ or the NO3-radical occurred under		
415	365 nm LED illumination. For NH4NO3-TiO2, the rate of NO* generation increased in		
416	the absence of HCHO as NH4NO3 content increased, and at higher levels (80 and 95		
417	wt.%), the NO _x -generation rate constant reached a plateau at $\sim 8.0 \times 10^{-2}$ ppb min ⁻¹		
418	because both NH4 ⁺ and NO are photochemically oxidized on TiO2 to generate NO3 ⁻ ;		
419	and part of this NO was oxidized to NO2 by O2. (Ma et al., 2021) Higher NO3 ⁻ content		
420	leads to higher NH_4^+ concentration; thus, more NH_4^+ participated in the generation of		
421	NO _* through photooxidation. When NO ₃ ⁻ content reached 80 wt.% or higher, limited		
422	TiO ₂ -content in the chamber led to the saturation of NH4 ⁺ -photooxidation, preventing		

423	further NO _* generation. NO _* release rates over NO ₃ ⁼ TiO ₂ as nitrate content increased
424	in the presence of HCHO are shown in Figure 4b. The NO _* production rate first
425	increased and then decreased, with a maximum of 4 wt.% nitrate content among both
426	KNO3-TiO2- and NH4NO3-TiO2- particles. This increasing trend was caused by the
427	increased opportunities for contact between TiO2 and NO3 as nitrate content
428	increased, which facilitated the combination of h ⁺ with NO3 ⁼ to form NO3 ⁻ . The trend
429	began to decrease when nitrate content exceeded 4 wt.%. Higher NO3= content
430	hindered reactions on the surface of TiO2, but rapidly decreased the Brunauer, Emmett
431	and Teller (BET) surface area of the composite particles (Shang et al., 2017), which
432	weakened HCHO uptake and particle surface reactions. The amount of NO _* produced
433	by NH4NO3-TiO2 was consistently higher than that of KNO3-TiO2. The possible
434	reasons for this difference are as follows. First, like the K^{+} -blocking effect discussed
435	in section 3.1, NO ₃ - generated from the reaction of NO ₃ ⁻ with h ⁺ was weakened; thus,
436	little adsorbed HNO3 was available for further renoxification. Additionally, NH4+ can
437	undergo a photooxidation reaction to generate more NO* by TiO2, as occurs in the
438	absence of HCHO.



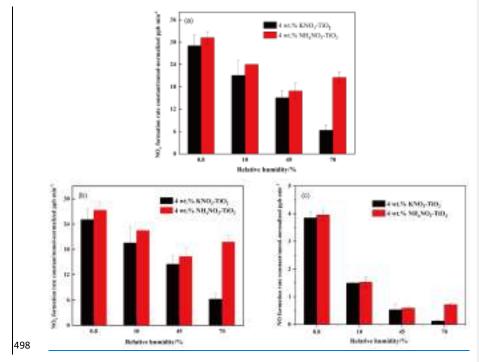
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 $(0.1) \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}^{-1}$ on dry surfaces to $(7.1 \pm 0.8) \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$ when nitrate is coadsorbed 449 with water above monolayer coverage (Ostaszewski et al., 2018). We explored the 450 451 positive effect of HCHO on the NO3-TiO2 particle photocatalytic renoxification at 452 different RH levels; the results are shown in Figure 54a. For KNO3-TiO2 particles, the rate of NO_x production decreased as the RH of the environmental chamber increased, 453 indicating that increased water content in the gas phase hindered photocatalytic 454 455 renoxification for two reasions: H₂O competes with NO3⁻ for h⁺ on the surface of TiO2 to generate ·OH, reducing the generation of NO3·, and competitive adsorption 456 between H₂O and HCHO causes the generated ·OH to compete with NO₃· for HCHO, 457 458 hindering the formation of HNO3(ads) on particle surfaces. Moreover, it is also possible that the loss of NOx on the wall increases under high humidity conditions, 459 resulting in a decrease in its concentration. This competitive process also occurs on 460 the surface of NH₄NO₃-TiO₂ particles, but at RH = 70%, the NO_x generation rate 461 constant is slightly higher. The deliquescent humidity of NH4NO3 at 298 K is ~62%, 462 such that NH_4NO_3 had already deliquesced at RH = 70%, forming an 463 464 NH4⁺/NH3-NO3⁻ liquid system on the particle surfaces. This quasi-liquid phase improved the dispersion of TiO₂ in NH₄NO₃, resulting in greater NO_x release. The 465 deliquescent humidity of KNO_3 -TiO₂ was > 90%,(2009) such that no phase change 466 occurred at RH = 70%, and the renoxification reaction rate retained a downward trend. 467 In the presence of H₂O, in addition to the NO₃⁻-NO₃·-HCHO-HNO₃ pathway 468 observed in this study, there are a variety of HNO₃ generation paths, such as the 469 hydrolysis of N2O5 via the NO2-N2O5-HNO3 pathway (Brown et al., 2005), the 470

471 oxidation of NO₂ by \cdot OH (Burkholder et al., 1993), and the reaction of NO₃ \cdot with 472 H₂O (Schutze and Herrmann, 2005), all of which require further consideration and 473 study.

474 The formation rates of NO and NO₂ are shown in Figure 54b and c, respectively. NO2 was the main product of surface HNO3 photolysis. Under humid conditions, 475 generated NO₂(ads) continued to react with H₂O adsorbed on the surface to form 476 477 HONO(ads). HONO was desorbed from the surface and released into the gas phase (Zhou et al., 2003; Bao et al., 2018; Pandit et al., 2021), providing gaseous HONO to 478 the reaction system. Because the NO_x concentration remained high, the effect of 479 480 HONO on NO_x analyzer results was negligible (Shi et al., 2021). As NO₂ can form NO_2^- with e^- , a reverse reaction also occurred between NO_2^- and HONO in the 481 presence of H₂O (Ma et al., 2021; Garcia et al., 2021). Therefore, the increase in H₂O 482 increased the proportion of HONO in the nitrogen-containing products, such that the 483 NO_x generation rate decreased as RH increased. Comparing Figure 54b and c shows 484 485 that, as RH increased, the NO production rate constant decreased more than that of 486 NO2. HONO and NO2 generated by the photolysis of HNO3(ads) decreased accordingly, i.e., the NO source decreased. However, generated NO2 and NO 487 underwent photocatalytic oxidation on the surface of TiO2, and NO photodegradation 488 was more significant under the same conditions (Hot et al., 2017). Generally, a certain 489 amount of HONO will be generated during the reaction between HCHO and 490 NO3-TiO2 particles when RH is high, which affects the concentrations of 491 atmospheric OH, NOx, and O3. This process is more likely to occur in summer due to 492

493 high RH and light intensity affecting atmospheric oxidation. In drier winters or dusty 494 weather, when TiO_2 content is high, HCHO greatly promotes the photocatalytic 495 renoxification of NO_3 ⁻- TiO_2 particles, thereby releasing more NO_x into the 496 atmosphere, affecting the global atmospheric nitrogen budget. Thus, regardless of the 497 seasonal and regional changes, renoxification has significant practical importance.



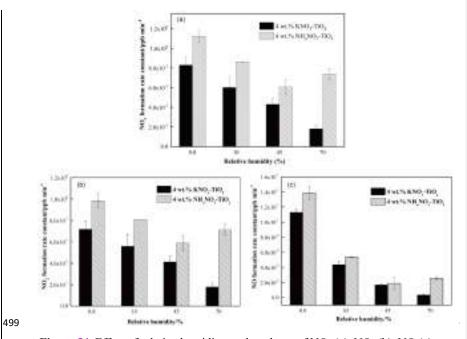


Figure 54. Effect of relative humidity on the release of NO_x (a), NO_2 (b), NO (c) over 4 wt.% NH₄NO₃-TiO₂ and 4 wt.% KNO₃-TiO₂ particles at 293 K. 365 nm LED lamps were used during the illumination experiment. The initial concentration of HCHO was about 9 ppm.

504 **3.3.43** The influence of initial HCHO concentration

To explore whether HCHO promotes nitrate renoxification at natural concentration levels, we reduced the initial concentration of HCHO in the environmental chamber by a factor of 10, to \sim 1.0 ppm. The positive effect of HCHO on the photocatalytic renoxification of KNO₃-TiO₂ particles was clearly weakened, with NO₂ concentration first increasing and then decreasing, and NO concentration fremaining stable (Figure S103). The HCHO concentration decreased due to its consumption during the reaction, making its positive effect decline quickly. The photocatalytic oxidation reaction between NO_x and photogenerated reactive oxygen species (ROS) on the TiO₂ surface further decreased the NO_x concentration. Photocatalytic oxidation of NO_x by ROS on TiO₂ particles occurred at an HCHO concentration of 9 ppm, but the positive effect of HCHO remained dominant. Thus, no decrease in NO_x concentration was observed within 120 min in our experiments.

The concentration of HCHO in the atmosphere is relatively low, with a balance 517 518 between the photocatalytic oxidation decay of NOx and the release of NOx via photocatalytic renoxification. The mutual transformation between particulate NO3-519 and gaseous NOx is more complex. The effect of low-concentration HCHO on the 520 521 renoxification of NO3-TiO2 particles requires further investigation. However, many types of organics provide hydrogen atoms in the atmosphere, including alkanes (e.g., 522 methane and n-hexane), aldehydes (e.g., acetaldehyde), alcohols (e.g., methanol and 523 ethanol), and aromatic compounds (e.g., phenol) that react with NO3. to produce nitric 524 acid (Atkinson, 1991). These organics, together with HCHO, play similar positive 525 526 roles in photocatalytic renoxification and, therefore, influence NO_x concentrations.

527 528

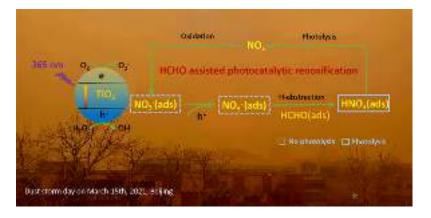
529 4 Atmospheric implications

Nitric acid and nitrate are not only the final sink of NO_x in the atmosphere but are also among its important sources. NO_x from nitrate through renoxification is easily overlooked. The renoxification of nitrate on the surface of TiO₂ particles can be divided into photolytic renoxification and photocatalytic renoxification. The 534 photocatalytic performance of TiO₂ promotes the renoxification process, which explains the influence of semiconducting metal oxide components on atmospheric 535 mineral particles during the renoxification of nitrate. Although most previous studies 536 have focused on solid-phase nitrate renoxification, our exploration of the roles of 537 538 HCHO in this study will allow us to examine complex real-world pollution scenarios, in which multiple atmospheric pollutants coexist, as well as the effects of organic 539 540 pollutants on the renoxification process. Atmospheric HCHO is taken up at the surface of particulate matter, accounting for up to ~50% of its absorption (Li et al., 541 2014), such that the heterogeneous participation of HCHO during renoxification is 542 543 important. This study is the first to report that HCHO has a positive effect on the photocatalytic renoxification of nitrate TiO₂ particles, on via the 544 NO_3^{-} -NO₃ -HCHO-HNO₃-NO_x pathway (Figure <u>65</u>), further increasing the release of 545 NOx and other nitrogen-containing active species, which in turn affects the 546 547 photochemical cycle of HO_x radicals in the atmosphere and the formation of 548 important atmospheric oxidants such as O3. Although in the case of high 549 concentrations of HCHO in our experiment, the response to the real situation will be biased, the results of this study illustrate a possible way of HCHO in influencing 550 nitrate renoxification in the atmosphere. Factors such as particulate matter 551 composition, RH, and initial HCHO concentration all influence the positive effect of 552 HCHO; notably, H2O competes with NO3⁻ for photogenerated holes. Based on these 553 findings, two balance systems should be explored in depth: the influence of RH on the 554 generation rates of HONO and NOx, as water increases the proportion of HONO in 555

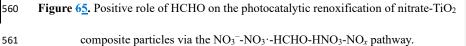
556 nitrogen-containing products; and the balance between the photocatalytic degradation

557 of generated NO_x on TiO_2 particles and the positive effect of HCHO on NO_x

558 generation at low HCHO concentrations.







Based on our results, we conclude that in photochemical processes on the 562 surfaces of particles containing semiconductor oxides, with the participation of 563 hydrogen donor organics, a significant synergistic photocatalytic renoxification 564 enhancement effect alters the composition of surface nitrogenous species via the 565 566 NO_3^{-} -NO₃ -hydrogen donor-HNO₃-NO_x pathway, thereby affecting atmospheric oxidation and nitrogen cycling. The positive effect of HCHO can be extended from 567 568 TiO2 in this study to other components of mineral dust such as Fe2O3 and ZnO with photocatalytic activity, which may have practical applications. Our proposed reaction 569 mechanism by which HCHO promotes photocatalytic renoxification will improve 570 existing atmospheric chemistry models and reduce discrepancies between model 571 simulations and field observations. 572

574	Supplement.	
575	Detailed information of Figures S1-103 (which include the spectra of the lamps,	
576	DRIFTS spectra of KNO3-TiO2 particles, size distribution of KNO3-TiO2 TiO2	Formatted: Font color: Red
577	particles, and changes of HCHO concentration in environmentalthe chamber,	Formatted: Font color: Red
578	changes of NO _x concentration under different reaction conditions, photodegradation	
579	curves of HCHO, ESR spectra of TiO_2 and ATD particles), and Table S1 (which	
580	demonstrates ATD chemical composition).	
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582		
583	Acknowledgments	
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588	(B20009) .	
589		
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835	Supplement of
836	The Positive Effect of Formaldehyde on the Photocatalytic
837	Renoxification of Nitrate on TiO₂ Particles
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839	Yuhan Liu, Xuejiao Wang, Mengshuang Sheng, Chunxiang Ye, Jing Shang*
840	
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845	Correspondence to: shangjing@pku.edu.cn
846	The supporting information has $\frac{89}{2}$ pages, 1 table, and 103 figures.
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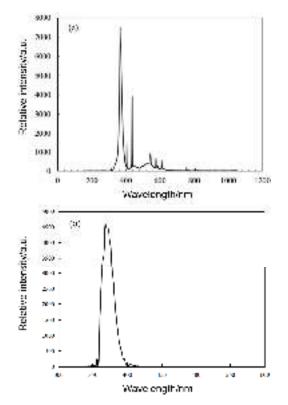
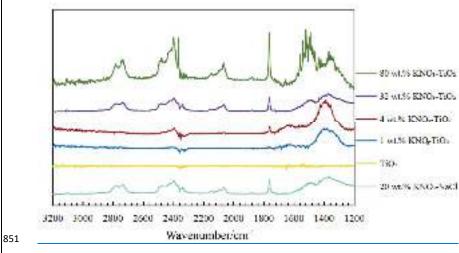
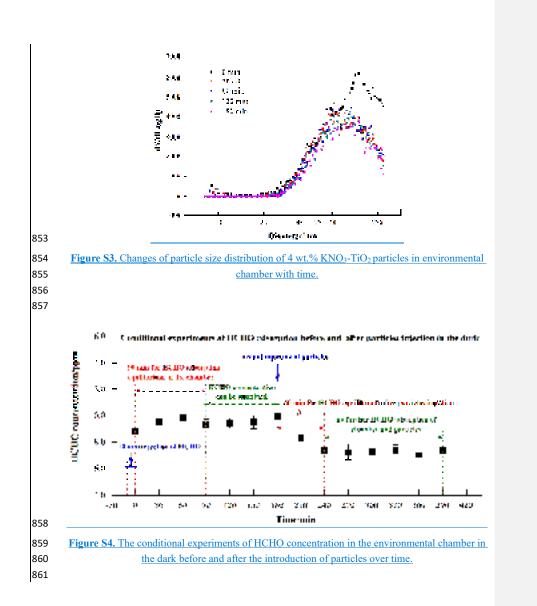


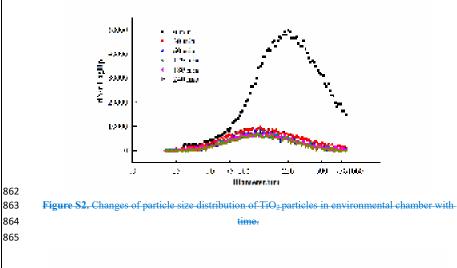


Figure S1. Spectral energy distribution of (a) 365 nm tube lamps and (b) 365 nm LED lamps.



852 Figure S2. DRIFTS spectra of TiO₂ particles compounded with different mass fractions of KNO₃.





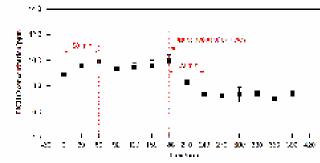


Figure S3. Changes of HCHO concentration in the environmental chamber before and after the
 introduction of particles over time.

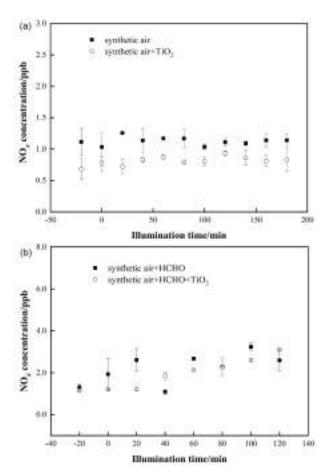


Figure S45. Changes of NO_x concentration in environmental chamber in (a) "synthetic air" and
"synthetic air + TiO₂" system, (b) "synthetic air + HCHO" and "synthetic air + HCHO + TiO₂"
system. 365 nm tube lamps were used during the blank experiment.

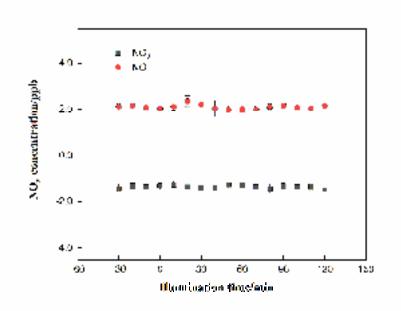
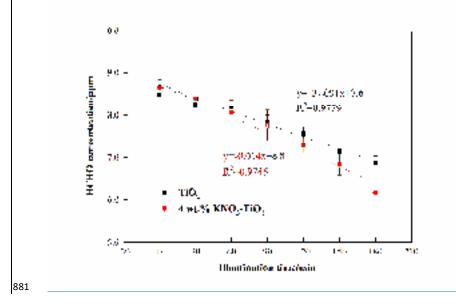




Figure S56. Effect of illumination on the release of NO and NO₂ over 4 wt.% KNO₃-TiO₂ at 293 K and 0.8% of relative humidity. 365 nm LED lamps were used during the illumination experiment.



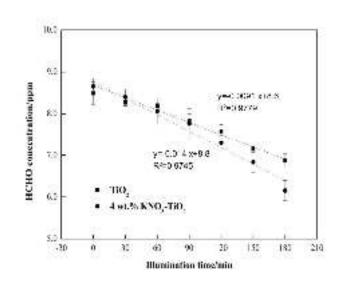


Figure S67. Photodegradation curve of HCHO on TiO₂ and 4 wt.% KNO₃-TiO₂ particles under 365 nm LED lamps at 293 K and 0.8% of relative humidity.

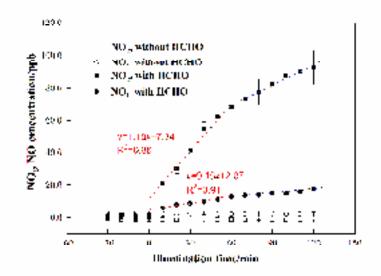
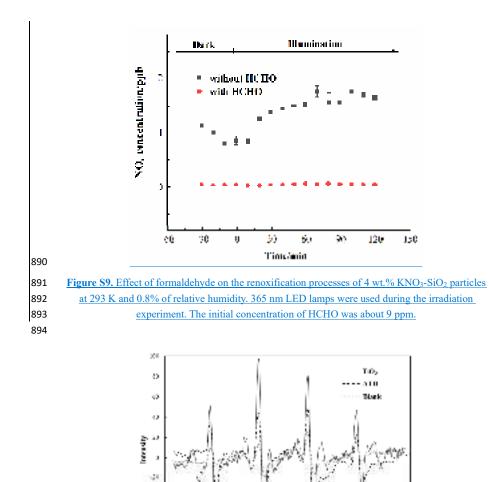
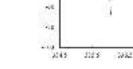


Figure S78. Effect of HCHO on the production of NO and NO2 over 4 wt.% KNO3-TiO2 particles
 at 293 K and 0.8% of relative humidity. 365 nm LED lamps were used during the illumination
 experiment. The initial concentration of HCHO was about 9 ppm.





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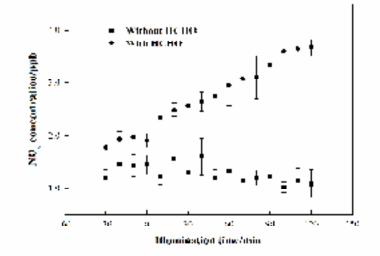


Figure S911. Effect of HCHO on the renoxification processes of Arizona Text Dust (ATD) at 293 K and 0.8% of relative humidity. 365 nm LED lamps were used during the illumination experiment. The initial concentration of HCHO was about 9 ppm.

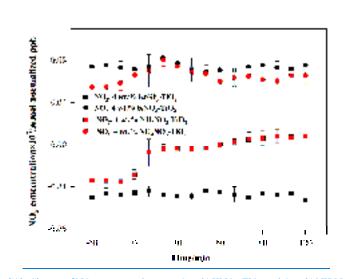


Figure S12. Change of NO₂ concentration over 4 wt.% KNO₃-TiO₂ and 4 wt.% NH₄NO₃-TiO₂



particles at 293 K and 0.8% of relative humidity. 365 nm LED lamps were used during the illumination experiment.

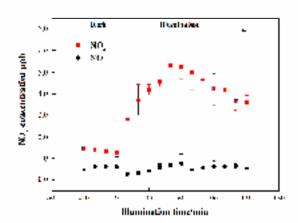


Figure S103. The release of NO2 and NO with 365 nm LED lamps illumination over 4 wt.% KNO3-TiO2 particles at 293 K and 0.8% RH. The initial concentration of HCHO was about 1.0 ppm.

Table S1. Arizona Test Dust (ATD) chemical composition.			
Chemical composition	Weight percentage (%)		
SiO ₂	68-76		
Al ₂ O ₃	10-15		
Fe ₂ O ₃	2.0-5.0		
Na ₂ O	2.0-4.0		
CaO	2.0-5.0		
MgO	1.0-2.0		
TiO ₂	0.5-1.0		
K ₂ O	2.0-5.0		

*Loss on Ignition 2-5 %