

1 **Measurement Report: Elevated atmospheric ammonia**
2 **may promote the particle pH and HONO formation:**
3 **Insights from the COVID-19 pandemic**

4 Xinyuan Zhang^{1,2}, Lingling Wang³, Nan Wang³, Shuangliang Ma³, Shenbo
5 Wang^{2,4} *, Ruiqin Zhang^{2,4**}, Dong Zhang^{1,2}, Mingkai Wang^{2,4}, Hongyu
6 Zhang^{1,2}.

7
8 ¹ College of Chemistry, Zhengzhou University, Zhengzhou, 450000, China

9 ² Research Institute of Environmental Sciences, Zhengzhou University, Zhengzhou
10 450000, China

11 ³ Henan Provincial Ecological Environment Monitoring and Safety Center, Zhengzhou,
12 450000, China

13 ⁴ School of Ecology and Environment, Zhengzhou University, Zhengzhou, 450000,
14 China

15

16 **Correspondence:** Shenbo Wang (shbwang@zzu.edu.cn) and Ruiqin Zhang
17 (rqzhang@zzu.edu.cn)

18

19 **Abstract**

20 HONO plays a crucial role as a precursor to OH radicals in the tropospheric atmosphere.
21 The incongruity between HONO concentration and NO_x emissions during the COVID-
22 19 pandemic remains puzzling. Here, we show evidence from field observations of ten
23 sites in China that there was a noticeable increase in NH₃ concentrations during the
24 COVID-19 pandemic. In addition to the meteorological conditions, the significant
25 decrease in sulfate and nitrate concentrations enhanced the portioning of NH₄⁺ to NH₃.
26 Sensitivity analysis indicated that the decrease in anion concentrations (especially
27 sulfate and nitrate) and the increase in cation concentrations during the COVID-19
28 pandemic led to an increase in particle pH. In other words, the excess ammonia
29 determined the promoting pH. The calculation of reaction rates indicates that during the
30 epidemic, the increase in pH may promote the generation of HONO by facilitating
31 redox reactions, which highlights the importance of coordinating the control of SO₂,
32 NO_x, and NH₃ emissions.

33 **Keywords:** Ammonia, HONO, Gas-particle portioning, Acidity, COVID-19 pandemic

34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Nitrous acid (HONO) is a critical precursor of hydroxyl radical (OH), contributing
37 to more than 60% of OH production (Alicke, 2003;Platt et al., 1980;Kleffmann et al.,
38 2005). The OH can react with carbon monoxide, nitrogen oxides (NO_x), sulfur dioxide
39 (SO₂), and volatile organic compounds to produce secondary pollutants such as ozone
40 (O₃) and PM_{2.5} (particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter less than or equal to
41 2.5 μm), thereby affecting air quality, human health, and global climate change (Li et
42 al., 2021a;Wang et al., 2023b;Lu et al., 2018)

43 High concentrations of HONO are present in urban daytime atmospheres, and
44 exploring its sources has become a hot and challenging topic in the field of atmospheric
45 chemistry (Jiang et al., 2022;Xu et al., 2019). Various sources of atmospheric HONO
46 have been identified, including combustion processes (e.g., vehicle emissions) (Kramer
47 et al., 2020;Liao et al., 2021a;Li et al., 2021b), direct emissions from soil (Su and Zhang,
48 2011;Oswald et al., 2013;Meusel et al., 2018), homogeneous reactions between NO and
49 OH radicals (Pagsberg, 1997;Atkinson and Rossi, 2004), heterogeneous reactions of
50 NO₂ on aerosols and ground surfaces (Zhang et al., 2020a;McFall et al., 2018;Liu et al.,
51 2014;Liu et al., 2020a), and photolysis of nitrate (Spataro and Ianniello, 2014;Scharko
52 et al., 2014;Romer et al., 2018;Ye et al., 2017;Shi et al., 2021). During the pandemic
53 control periods, there was a substantial reduction in vehicle traffic flow and industrial
54 emissions, leading to a decrease of more than 60% in NO_x emissions in eastern China
55 (Huang et al., 2021a). It was initially expected that the concentration of HONO would
56 also decrease proportionally. However, Liu et al. (2020b) observed that the decrease in

57 HONO concentration during the pandemic period was only 31% (from 1.5 ppb to 0.9
58 ppb), which was significantly lower than the reductions in NO (62%, from 26.3 to 4.2
59 ppb) and NO₂ (36%, from 15.5 to 6.2 ppb). Furthermore, the observed concentrations
60 of HONO during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020 were higher than those during the
61 corresponding period in 2021 in Beijing (Luo et al., 2023). These findings suggest the
62 existence of a considerable unknown source of HONO during the COVID-19 pandemic
63 period.

64 Ammonia (NH₃) is a primary alkaline gas in the atmosphere, capable of influencing
65 the pH level of particulate matter and plays a crucial role in the atmospheric nitrogen
66 cycle (Gu et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2020; Gong et al., 2011). Several studies have indicated
67 that NH₃ can promote the formation of HONO by promoting the hydrolysis of NO₂ (Xu
68 et al., 2019) or the redox reaction of NO₂ with SO₂ (Liu et al., 2023). Moreover,
69 previous studies have reported that NH₃ concentrations in the atmosphere, particularly
70 in rural areas, significantly increased during the pandemic (Xu et al., 2022).
71 Consequently, the rise in NH₃ may contribute to the enhanced formation of HONO
72 (Huang et al., 2021a). Unfortunately, there is currently a lack of research on the
73 relationship between enhanced NH₃ and HONO during the COVID-19 pandemic period.

74 To address this, online observational data on the chemical composition of PM_{2.5},
75 gaseous pollutants, and meteorological conditions at ten sites in China before and
76 during the COVID-19 pandemic period were analyzed to investigate the variation in
77 NH₃ concentrations and particle pH, and explore the promoting effect of increased pH
78 values on HONO formation.

79 **2. Materials and methods**

80 **2.1 Observation sites**

81 Online measurements were conducted at four urban and six rural sites in Henan
82 Province, China from January 1 to February 29, 2020, including Sanmenxia (U-SMX),
83 Zhoukou (U-ZK), Zhumadian (U-ZMD), and Xinyang (U-XY), as well as rural
84 locations including Anyang (R-AY), Xinxiang (R-XX), Jiaozuo (R-JZ), Shangqiu (R-
85 SQ), Nanyang (R-NY), and Puyang (R-PY). Descriptions and the spatial distribution
86 of these ten sites can be found in Table S1 and Fig. S1.

87 **2.2 Measurements**

88 The aerosol and gas monitor (MARGA, Metrohm, Switzerland) was used to analyze
89 the hourly water-soluble ions (Na^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+ , Mg^{2+} , Ca^{2+} , Cl^- , NO_3^- , and SO_4^{2-}) in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$,
90 as well as gaseous species (NH_3 , HNO_3 , HCl , and HONO) at ten sampling sites. The
91 MARGA instrument is widely used (Chen et al., 2017; Stieger et al., 2019; Twigg et al.,
92 2022). A detailed description of the instrument and QA/QC can be found in Text S1. In
93 brief, the atmospheric sample passes through a $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ cut-off head, and both particles
94 and gases enter a wet rotating dissolution device for diffusion. Subsequently, the
95 particles in the sample undergo hygroscopic growth and condensation in an aerosol
96 supersaturated vapor generator, followed by collection and ion chromatographic
97 analysis. The gases in the sample are oxidized by H_2O_2 in the dissolution device,
98 absorbed into a liquid solvent, and then entered the gas sample collection chamber for

99 ion chromatographic quantification. The range of minimum detection limits for water-
100 soluble ions was between 0.002 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Cl^-) to 0.081 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (NH_4^+). Uncertainties of 20%
101 are assumed for the detection of NH_3 and NH_4^+ , while uncertainties of 10% are assumed
102 for other components (Wang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022). In addition, a detailed
103 description of HONO measurement using this system can be found in Text S2. Overall,
104 the limit of detection for HONO was 4 pptv and the uncertainty was estimated to be \pm
105 20%.

106 The data for NO_2 and SO_2 were obtained from a series of instruments provided by
107 Thermo Fisher Scientific (USA). The hourly concentrations of organic carbon (OC) in
108 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were analyzed using a carbon analyzer (Model 4, Sunset Laboratory., USA).
109 Detailed descriptions of the NO_2 , SO_2 , and carbon analyzers can be found in Text S3.
110 The smart weather stations (LUFFTWS500, Sutron, Germany) were utilized for
111 synchronized observation of meteorological parameters including pressure,
112 temperature (T), and relative humidity (RH).

113 **2.3 Data analysis.**

114 **2.3.1 pH prediction.**

115 The thermodynamic model ISORROPIA-II was used to estimate the pH value of the
116 particles (Fountoukis, 2007) by inputting RH, T, K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , total ammonia
117 ($\text{TNH}_x = 17 \times (\frac{[\text{NH}_4^+]}{18} + \frac{[\text{NH}_3]}{17})$), total sulfuric acid (TH_2SO_4 , SO_4^{2-}), total sodium
118 (TNa , Na^+), total chlorine (TCl , Cl^-), and total nitrate ($\text{TNO}_3 = \text{NO}_3^- + \text{HNO}_3$). The

119 model has two calculation modes: the forward mode and reverse mode, and the aerosol
 120 dissolution systems can be set to simulate a metastable state (aqueous phase) or stable
 121 state (aqueous and solid phase). Studies have shown that the forward mode is less
 122 affected by instrument measurement errors than the reverse mode (Ding et al.,
 123 2019; Song et al., 2018). Additionally, the minimum average RH of about 55% was
 124 recorded during the sampling period at the ten sites. Thus, ISORROPIA-II was run in
 125 the forward model for the aerosol system in the metastable condition and only used data
 126 with $RH \geq 30\%$ for simulation accuracy (Ding et al., 2019; Song et al., 2018). The
 127 ISORROPIA model calculated the particle hydrate ion concentration per volume of air
 128 (H_{air}^+) and aerosol water associated with inorganic matter (AWC_{inorg}). The pH value
 129 was calculated using the following equation (Bougiatioti et al., 2016):

$$130 \quad pH = -\log_{10} H_{aq}^+ = -\log_{10} \frac{1000 H_{air}^+}{AWC_{inorg} + AWC_{org}} \quad (2.1)$$

131 where the modeled concentrations for AWC_{inorg} and H_{air}^+ are $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and AWC_{org} is the
 132 particle water associated with the organic matters predicted using the following method:

$$133 \quad AWC_{org} = \frac{m_s}{\rho_s} \frac{k_{org}}{\left(\frac{1}{RH} - 1\right)} \quad (2.2)$$

134 where m_s is the mass concentration of organic matter ($OM = OC \times f$). The f is the
 135 conversion factor of OC, which is dependent on the extent of OM oxidation and
 136 secondary organic aerosol formation (Chow et al., 2015). Studies on the ratio of
 137 OM/OC in fourteen cities in China suggested that the mean value of f was 1.59 ± 0.18
 138 during the winter season in Northern China (Xing et al., 2013), and thus we adopted 1.6
 139 as the f in this study. k_{org} is the organic hygroscopicity parameter and depends on organic

140 functionality, water solubility, molecular weight, and oxidation level. Han et al. (2022)
141 have reported that the k_{org} generally increased with O: C ratios, with a range of 0–0.3
142 for 23 organics, including carboxylic acids, amino acids, sugars, and alcohols. Gunthe
143 et al. (2011) estimated a $k_{org} = 0.06 \pm 0.01$ for the effective average hygroscopicity of
144 the non-refractory organic particulate matter in the aerosols in Beijing. Our previous
145 study has estimated that the uncertainties of k_{org} value (0.06) for pH in the range of 0–
146 0.3 only lead to –1–3% errors, which can be neglected (Wang et al., 2023a). Therefore,
147 the value of 0.06 was selected in this paper. ρ_s is the organic density, which was chosen
148 to be 1.35 g/cm³ following previous studies (Table S2).

149 **2.3.2 The sources of HONO**

150 The sources of HONO include direct emission (P_{emi}), the homogeneous reaction of
151 NO and •OH (P_{OH+NO}), the heterogeneous reaction of NO₂ on the ground (P_{ground}) and
152 aerosol ($P_{aerosol}$), the photo-enhanced heterogeneous reaction of NO₂ on the ground
153 ($P_{ground+hv}$) and aerosol ($P_{aerosol+hv}$), and nitrate photolysis ($P_{nitrate}$). The detailed
154 calculation method is described in the Supplementary Material (Text S4, Table S3, Figs.
155 S2 and S3).

156 Soil emission has been demonstrated to be a major source of HONO, which is affected
157 by temperature to some extent (Liu et al., 2020c; Liu et al., 2020b). However, during the
158 sampling periods, there was no significant positive correlation between HONO
159 concentration and temperature (Fig. S4). In addition, temperatures did not exceed 10°C,
160 under which the soil HONO emission rate is generally considered to be zero (Zhang et

161 al., 2023). Furthermore, the equilibrium gas-phase concentration over an aqueous
162 solution of nitrous acid, [HONO]*, a key parameter controlling the exchange of HONO
163 between the gas and aqueous phase in soil, is calculated according to Su et al.(2011).
164 The results indicate that the temperature difference between PC and DC periods only
165 led to approximately a 0.01% concentration change. On the other hand, studies on the
166 sources of HONO in the North China Plain of China during winter consistently showed
167 that soil HONO emissions contribute around 1% (Liu et al., 2020c;Liu et al.,
168 2020b;Zhang et al., 2023). Therefore, this study does not consider soil HONO
169 emissions.

170 2.3.3 Redox reaction of NO₂ with SO₂.

171 The redox reaction of NO₂ with SO₂ (R₁) is considered a crucial potential source of
172 high concentrations of HONO in Northern China (Cheng et al., 2019;Wang et al., 2016):



174 the rate expression for reaction (R₁) was estimated to:

$$175 \quad d[\text{S(VI)}] / dt = k_1[\text{NO}_2][\text{S(VI)}], \quad (2.3)$$

176 the rate constant k₁ value is pH dependent, e.g., for pH, 5, k₁ = (1.4×10⁵+1.24×10⁷)/2
177 M⁻¹ s⁻¹. For k₁ values under other pH conditions and other related information, please
178 refer to Text S5, Table S4, and Table S5.

179 **3. Results and discussion**

180 **3.1 Variations of NH₃, NH₄⁺ and TNH_x.**

181 The temporal variations of NH₃, NH₄⁺, and TNH_x at 10 sampling sites in the pre-
182 COVID-19 pandemic period (PC, January 1 to 23, 2020) and during the COVID-19
183 pandemic period (DC, January 24 to February 29, 2020) are presented in Fig. 1, with
184 their average concentration listed in Table 1. In general, rural sites exhibited higher
185 concentrations of NH₃, NH₄⁺, and TNH_x compared to urban sites, except for the R-NY
186 site. This finding is consistent with previous studies conducted in Zhengzhou (Wang et
187 al., 2020), Shanghai (Chang et al., 2019), and Quzhou (Feng et al., 2022), owing to the
188 intense agricultural ammonia emissions. The highest concentrations of NH₃ and TNH_x
189 were recorded at site R-JZ, with average values of 25.3 ± 11.5 and 40.8 ± 20.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
190 respectively. Site R-AY had the highest NH₄⁺ concentration, measuring 19.3 ± 12.9
191 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Note that the current study area exhibited higher NH₃ levels compared to other
192 regions (Table S6), which probably was attributed to the highest NH₃ emissions of
193 Henan Province in China, primarily from nitrogen fertilizer application and livestock
194 farming (Wang et al., 2018;Ma, 2020).

195 Compared to the PC, NH₃ concentrations increased in the DC at all sites. Notably,
196 rural sites experienced more significant increases in NH₃ concentrations than urban
197 sites, which was similar to the trend in Shanghai (Xu et al., 2022). The largest increases
198 in NH₃ concentrations were observed at R-SQ (71%, $7.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and U-ZK (37%, 4.8
199 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) for rural and urban sites, respectively. In contrast, the concentrations of NH₄⁺

200 and TNH_x decreased in the DC with the largest reduction at rural site R-PY (51%, 12.9
201 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and urban site U-ZMD (48%, 9.3 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). Regarding TNH_x , rural sites exhibited
202 larger reductions, with site R-SQ experiencing the largest decrease of 37% (4.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

203 Figure 2 illustrates the spatial distribution and the diurnal variation of NH_3
204 concentrations at the ten sites before and during the pandemic. NH_3 concentrations in
205 most sites exhibited an unimodal trend in PC that NH_3 concentrations gradually
206 increased after sunrise, reaching a peak around noon (11:00–12:00), and then decreased
207 to a valley around 16:00–17:00. This diurnal pattern is similar to NH_3 variations
208 observed in urban areas of Houston, USA, as a result of the natural emissions from
209 vegetation and soil during photosynthesis (Gong et al., 2011). However, other studies
210 have recorded a significant NH_3 peak during the early morning of 8:00–10:00 (Ellis et
211 al., 2011; Meng et al., 2018; Gu et al., 2022), suggesting the influence of vehicle
212 emissions (Gong et al., 2011; Gu et al., 2022), residual NH_3 mixing, soil or plant
213 emissions (Ellis et al., 2011), and dew volatilization (Wentworth et al., 2016; Huang et
214 al., 2021b). Therefore, the NH_3 in urban and rural areas of this study was probably less
215 affected by NH_3 emissions from vehicles, different from the recent studies in megacities
216 of China (e.g., Beijing and Shanghai) (Gu et al., 2022; Wu et al., 2023; Zhang et al.,
217 2020b). In addition to the transport from agricultural emissions, urban NH_3 in this
218 region might also originate from other non-agricultural sources, such as wastewater
219 treatment, coal combustion, household waste, urban green spaces, and human
220 excrement (Chang et al., 2019).

221 During the COVID-19 pandemic, the diurnal variation of NH_3 in both urban and rural

222 sites still maintained an unimodal distribution. The peak values in urban sites remained
223 consistent with PC levels, further demonstrating that the influence of vehicles on NH₃
224 in urban areas was limited. Notably, the peak time of NH₃ in rural sites shifted 1–2 hours
225 earlier compared to the trend in PC. Ammonia in rural areas primarily originates from
226 nitrogen fertilizer application, livestock, and poultry breeding (Feng et al., 2022; Meng
227 et al., 2018), which are significantly influenced by T and RH (Liu et al., 2023). Table
228 S7 and Fig. S5 reveal that there was an increased T and a decreased RH at rural sites in
229 the DC than the PC, which could accelerate the evaporation of NH₃ and thus potentially
230 lead to earlier peak NH₃ concentrations.

231 **3.2 Gas-to-particle conversion of NH₃**

232 The increased NH₃ accompanying decreased NH₄⁺ in the DC suggests that the gas-
233 particle partition of NH₃/ NH₄⁺ may determine the elevated NH₃ concentrations.
234 Meteorological parameters, including RH and T, play a crucial role in the gas-particle
235 partitioning of NH₃ (Liu et al., 2023; Xu et al., 2020). Therefore, the higher T and lower
236 RH in the DC (Table S7 and Fig. S5) favored the conversion of NH₄⁺ to NH₃, resulting
237 in a decrease in $\epsilon(\text{NH}_4^+)$ ($[\text{NH}_4^+]/([\text{NH}_3] + [\text{NH}_4^+])$) compared to those in the PC (Table
238 S7).

239 NH₃ primarily enters particles to neutralize acidic ions (Wang et al., 2020; Xu et al.,
240 2020; Liu et al., 2017; Ye et al., 2011; Wells, 1998). Accordingly, the concentrations of
241 required ammonia (Required-NH_x) and excess ammonia (Excess-NH_x) were calculated
242 based on the acidic substances as follows (Wang et al., 2020):

243

$$\text{Required-NH}_x = 17 \times \left(\frac{[\text{SO}_4^{2-}]}{48} + \frac{[\text{NO}_3^-]}{63} + \frac{[\text{Cl}^-]}{35.5} + \frac{[\text{HNO}_3]}{64} + \frac{[\text{HCl}]}{36.5} \right) - 17 \times \left(\frac{[\text{Na}^+]}{23} + \frac{[\text{K}^+]}{39} + \frac{[\text{Ca}^{2+}]}{20} + \frac{[\text{Mg}^{2+}]}{12} \right) \quad (3.1)$$

244

$$\text{Excess-NH}_x = \text{TNH}_x - \text{Required-NH}_x \quad (3.2)$$

245 where [W] represents the concentration of the substance ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). The significant linear
 246 fitting (R^2 is greater than 0.96, and the slope is close to 1) in Fig. S6 demonstrates that
 247 the anions and cations at each site were close to the equilibrium state. Therefore, the
 248 organic acids in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ may have less effect on NH_3 and NH_4^+ and were not considered
 249 in Formula 3.1.

250 As shown in Fig. 3 and Table S8, compared to those in the PC, the concentration of
 251 Required- NH_x in the DC significantly decreased (ranging from 37% at site R-JZ to 58%
 252 at site R-PY), while the concentration of Excess- NH_x increased (ranging from 9% at
 253 site R-AY to 78% at site R-SQ). The reduction in the concentrations of sulfate and
 254 nitrate (Fig. S7) was responsible for the decrease in the concentration of Required- NH_x .
 255 To sum up, in addition to meteorological conditions, the substantial reduction in
 256 anthropogenic emissions of SO_2 , NO_x , and other pollutants in the DC had led to a
 257 decrease in acidic substances (e.g., sulfate and nitrate) in particles, in turn, resulting in
 258 more gas-phase NH_3 concentration remaining in the atmosphere.

259 3.3 Particle pH before and during COVID-19

260 Diurnal patterns of particle pH in PC and DC at ten sites are summarized in Fig. 4
 261 with their average values listed in Table S9. $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ shows consistent moderate acidity,
 262 with mean values in the range of 4.2–5.1, which were close to the values in previous

263 studies (Table S9). Compared to the PC, the particle pH at ten sites increased obviously
264 in the DC, with the highest increase of 0.5 (U-ZK) and 0.3 (R-PY) at urban and rural
265 sites, respectively, which were the subject of an in-depth discussion in the following
266 text.

267 To explore the dominant factors that determine the local particle pH level and result
268 in the high pH during the DC, sensitivity tests of pH to chemical species (i.e., TNH_x ,
269 TH_2SO_4 , TNO_3 , TCl , TNa , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , and Mg^{2+}) and meteorological parameters (i.e., T
270 and RH) were performed. A given range for a variable (i.e., TNH_x) with corresponding
271 average values of other parameters (i.e., TH_2SO_4 , TNO_3 , TCl , TNa , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+} , T ,
272 and RH) was input into the model and simulated to compare its effects on pH. As shown
273 in Fig. S8, pH increases with the cation concentrations (i.e., TNH_x , Na^+ , K^+ , Ca^{2+} , and
274 Mg^{2+}) increasing as well as the anion concentrations (i.e., TH_2SO_4 , TNO_3 , and Cl^-), T
275 and RH decreasing. According to the average values of input data during PC (Blue line
276 in Fig. S8) and DC (Red line in Fig. S8) at U-ZK and R-PY sites respectively, the
277 changes in pH (ΔpH in Fig. 5) indicate that the decrease in TNH_x concentration and the
278 increase in T in DC led to a decrease in pH values (ΔpH : 0.09 at U-ZK and 0.08 at R-
279 PY sites) compared to PC. However, this effect was outweighed by the decrease in
280 TH_2SO_4 (ΔpH : 0.07 and 0.8 at U-ZK and R-PY sites, respectively) and TNO_3 (ΔpH :
281 0.05 and 0.4 at U-ZK and R-PY sites, respectively) concentrations as well as the
282 increase in K^+ (ΔpH : 0.03 at U-ZK and 0.2 at R-PY site) and Mg^{2+} (ΔpH : 0.01 at U-ZK
283 and 0.04 at R-PY site) concentrations in the DC, and resulting in an overall increase in
284 pH values in the DC. Furthermore, the relationship between particle pH with the

285 concentrations of Required-NH_x, and Excess-NH_x, which considers all chemical
286 components, is investigated to examine the dominant factor on the increasing pH in DC.
287 As shown in Fig. 6, the higher Excess-NH_x concentrations in the DC led to higher
288 increases in pH values (Δ pH: 1 at U-ZK and 0.5 at R-PY site) than those in PC (Δ pH:
289 0.3 at U-ZK and 0.2 at R-PY site), thus Excess-NH_x concentrations may be the key
290 factor in promoting the pH values.

291 3.4 The influence of pH on HONO.

292 The observed HONO concentrations decreased by 18% and 54% at U-ZK (0.8 ppb)
293 and R-PY (0.9 ppb) sites in the DC, respectively, compared to those (1.0 and 2.2 ppb)
294 in the PC. Moreover, all the known HONO production sources rates including P_{emi} , P_{OH}
295 + NO, P_{ground} , $P_{\text{ground+hv}}$, P_{aerosol} , $P_{\text{aerosol+hv}}$, and P_{nitrate} (Fig. 7, Fig S9 and S10) show a
296 decreasing trend from PC to DC, with the total reductions of 38% (from 30% to 45%
297 in the scenario with the minimum and maximum uncertainty, respectively) and 79%
298 (from 77% to 82% in the scenario with the minimum and maximum uncertainty,
299 respectively) for U-ZK and R-PY, respectively. At the U-ZK, $P_{\text{ground+hv}}$ decreased the
300 most (84%), while at the R-PY, P_{nitrate} had the largest decrease about 85%, which was
301 speculated to be related to the decrease of NO_x and NO₃⁻ concentration in DC. Note that
302 the reduction rates in the overall known source and almost individual sources were
303 greater than the reduction rates in HONO concentrations (Figs. 7 and 8), thus we
304 hypothesized that there should be other sources capable of promoting HONO
305 production.

306 There were positive correlations between HONO with SO₂, Excess-NH_x, SO₄²⁻, and
307 pH (Fig. S12) indicating that the R₁ reaction might form an amount of HONO and
308 contribute to less reduction in the observed HONO concentrations. Considering that R₁
309 mainly reacts in the liquid phase, the calculated reaction rates of R₁ under the conditions

310 of RH > 60% in the PC and DC periods are illustrated in Figs. 8 and S12. Despite the
311 decrease in NO₂ and SO₂ concentrations in the DC, the increase in particle pH,
312 increasing HSO₃⁻ concentration in the aqueous phase, promoted the R₁ reaction rates by
313 58% and 59% at U-ZK and R-PY (Figure 8), respectively. Consequently, the enhanced
314 R₁ reaction might prevent a large decrease in HONO (18% at U-ZK and 53% at R-PY)
315 under the conditions of a significant reduction in vehicle emissions and a decline of 66%
316 and 69% in NO₂ concentrations at U-ZK and R-PY, respectively.

317 3.5 Uncertainty

318 According to sensitivity tests of pH (Fig. S8) and R₁ (Fig. S12), pH increases with
319 the concentrations of cations (TNH_x, TNa, K⁺, Ca²⁺, and Mg²⁺) and OC increasing as
320 well as anions (TH₂SO₄, TNO₃, and Cl⁻) concentrations, T, and RH decreasing. R₁
321 reaction rate increases with the concentrations of AWC, NO₂, SO₂, pH, and pressure,
322 while increasing as well as T decreasing. Therefore, two extreme scenarios (i.e., the
323 maximum and minimum rate scenarios) were evaluated to estimate the uncertainty of
324 pH, and R₁ based on the measurement uncertainties at the U-ZK and R-PY sites. Figure
325 S13 suggests that the two extreme scenarios can lead to -10-7% and -71-125%
326 uncertainties at the U-ZK site and -10-7% and -78-123% uncertainties at the R-PY
327 site for pH and R₁, respectively. Even considering the above uncertainty in Fig. 8, it can
328 still be observed that during the DC period, the decrease in HONO was less than that
329 of NO₂, and the rate of the R₁ reaction increased.

330 Considering the conclusions of this study are based solely on observational data,

331 there are certain limitations. For example, only the changes in the R_1 reaction of $PM_{2.5}$
332 were calculated, without considering variations in components, pH values, and R_1
333 reaction rates of coarse particles. Additionally, although this study selected scenarios
334 with $RH > 60\%$ to calculate the R_1 reaction to ensure the presence of a liquid phase, it
335 is evident that this approach overlooks some R_1 reactions. Furthermore, due to
336 thermodynamic model calculations of pH values, changes in the mixed state of particle
337 components, and the omission of organic acids, alongside the absence of gaseous HNO_3
338 and HCl in this study, these factors may lead to inaccuracies in pH value simulations
339 and uncertainty in R_1 calculations (Pye et al., 2020; Haskins et al., 2018; Nah et al., 2018).
340 Therefore, there is a certain degree of uncertainty in the conclusions regarding the
341 growth of R_1 reactions in this paper. Nevertheless, by calculating the changes in R_1
342 reactions, this study provides a possible explanation for the relatively small decrease in
343 $HONO$ during the epidemic period.

344 **4. Conclusions**

345 Elevated NH_3 concentration was observed during the COVID-19 pandemic at both
346 urban and rural sites in China. In addition to the rise in T and decrease in RH during the
347 COVID-19 pandemic, which favored the conversion of NH_4^+ to NH_3 , the significant
348 decrease in sulfate and nitrate concentrations led to the decline in Required- NH_x and
349 was beneficial to the particle-phase NH_4^+ partitioning to gas-phase NH_3 . Furthermore,
350 under the environmental conditions of increased anion concentrations (especially
351 sulfate and nitrate) and increased cation concentrations, the pH values increased by 0.5

352 and 0.3 at U-ZK and R-PY sites increased during the pandemic, respectively.

353 Consequently, the high pH values accelerated the formation rate of HONO through the
354 oxidation-reduction reaction of NO_2 with SO_2 (an increase of 58% at U-ZK and 59% at
355 R-PY, respectively), partially compensating for the decrease in HONO concentration
356 caused by the decline in vehicle emissions, NO_2 and NO_3 concentrations during the
357 COVID-19 pandemic.

358 **5. Implications**

359 HONO plays a crucial role as a precursor to OH radicals in the tropospheric
360 atmosphere (Xue, 2022). There have been significant observations of high HONO
361 concentrations in urban areas during the daytime, leading to a growing interest in
362 understanding its sources in atmospheric chemistry (Jiang et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2019).
363 The heterogeneous reaction mechanism of NO_2 on aerosol surfaces is currently the
364 focus of research on HONO sources, particularly in regions with elevated levels of
365 atmospheric particulate matter, where it could potentially become a major contributor
366 to HONO production (Zhang et al., 2022; Liao et al., 2021b). One of the pathways for
367 heterogeneous reactions on aerosol surfaces is the redox reaction of NO_2 with SO_2 .
368 However, the significance of this reaction in HONO production in the real atmosphere
369 is often overlooked, as it relies on the high pH of aerosols (Ge et al., 2019). In recent
370 years, there has been increasing attention on the enhancing effect of NH_3 on the redox
371 reaction, with laboratory experiments demonstrating its ability to generate substantial
372 amounts of HONO (Ge et al., 2019). This study highlights the importance of this

373 reaction based on actual atmospheric observations. Furthermore, numerous studies
374 have indicated that if control over NH₃ emissions continues to relax while SO₂ and NO₂
375 emissions decrease, the particle pH in future China is expected to rise steadily (Xie et
376 al., 2020; Song et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020). Consequently, the redox reaction of NO₂
377 with SO₂ could become a significant source of HONO in China. Therefore, it is crucial
378 to coordinate the control of SO₂, NO_x, and NH₃ emissions to avoid a rapid increase in
379 the particle pH.

380

381 **Data availability:** All the data presented in this article can be accessed through
382 <https://zenodo.org/records/10273539>. (Zhang, 2023).

383

384 **Author contributions.** XZ Data Curation, Writing - Original Draft, Visualization.
385 LW, NW, SM, and DZ Investigation, Visualization, Data Curation. DZ, HZ, and MW
386 Investigation. SW Conceptualization, Data Curation, Supervision. RZ Data Curation,
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388

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390

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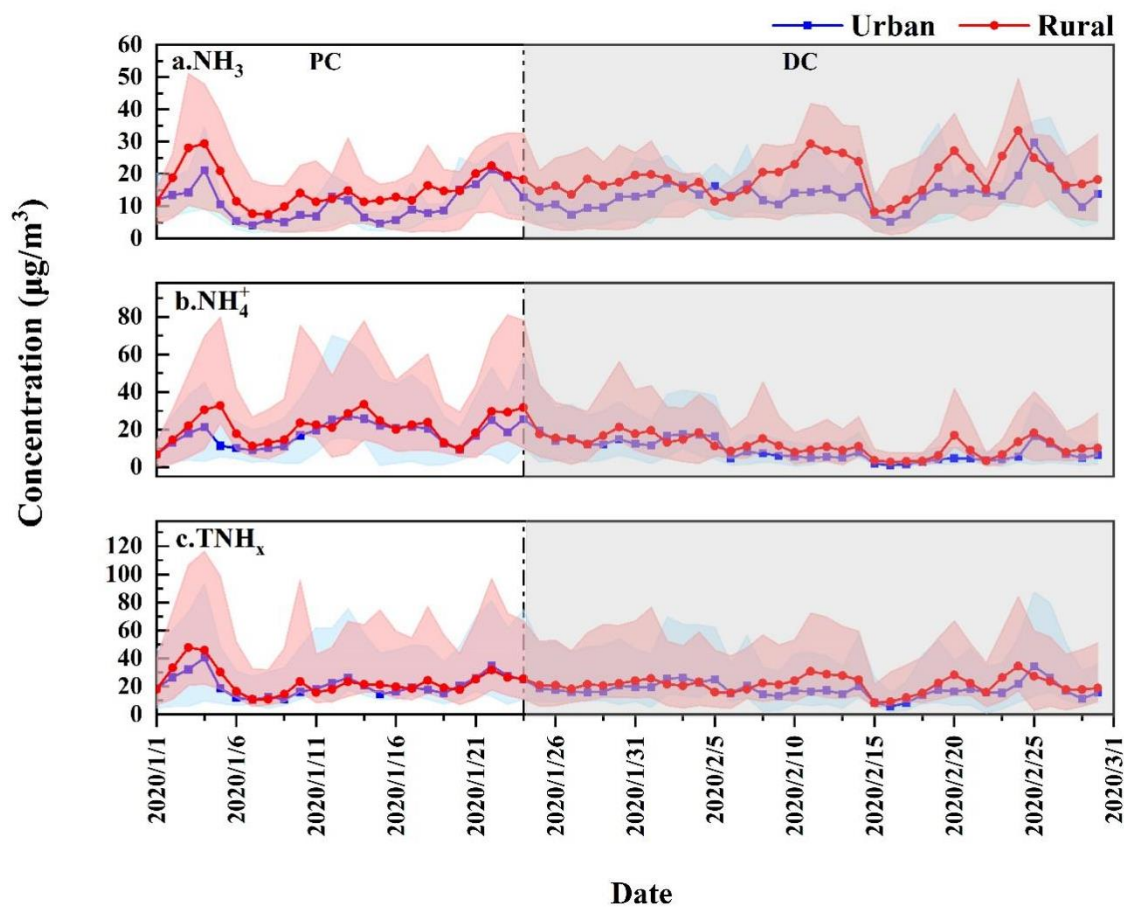
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705 **Figures:**

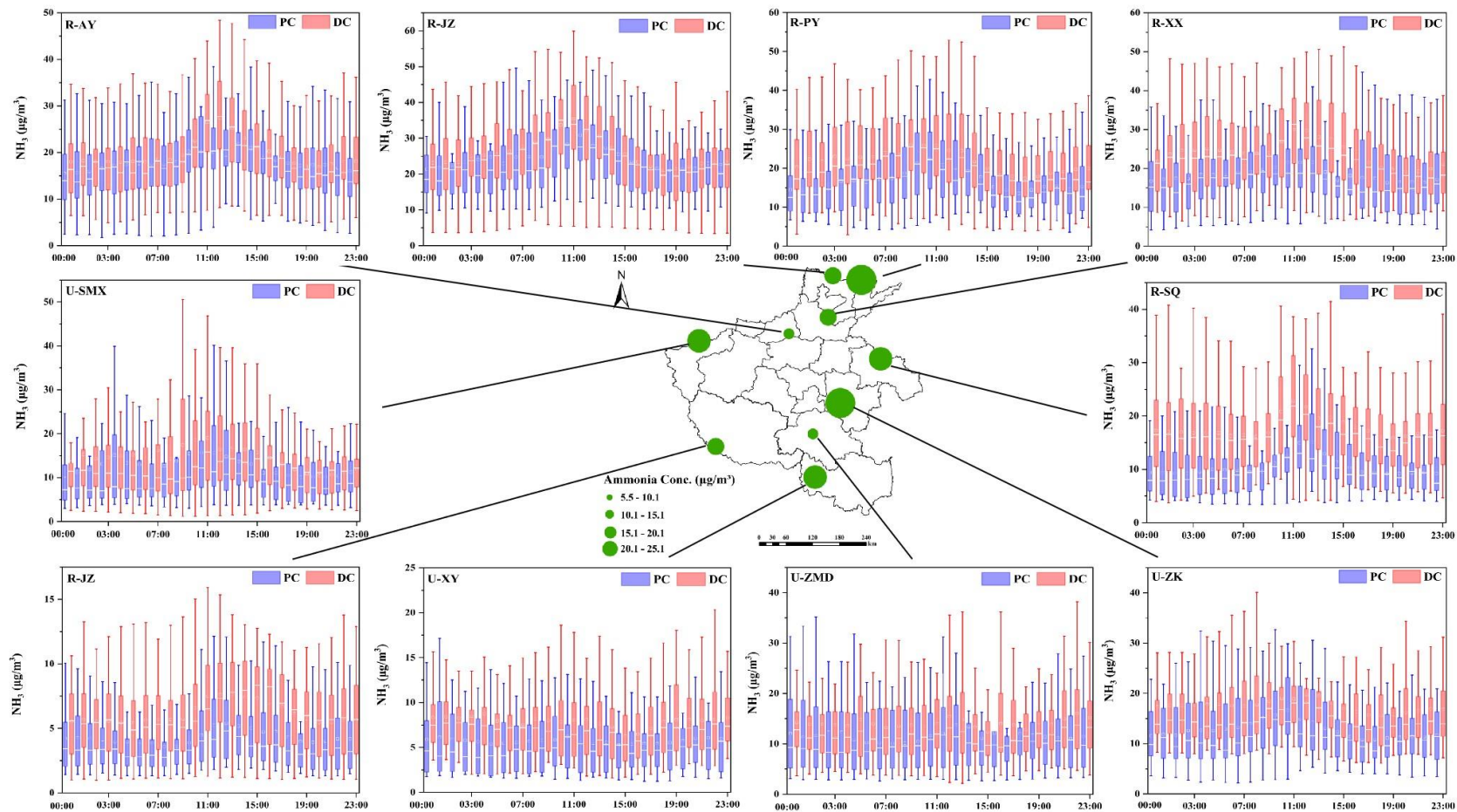


706

707 Figure 1. Temporal variations of a. NH₃, b. NH₄⁺, and c. TNH_x at the urban and rural

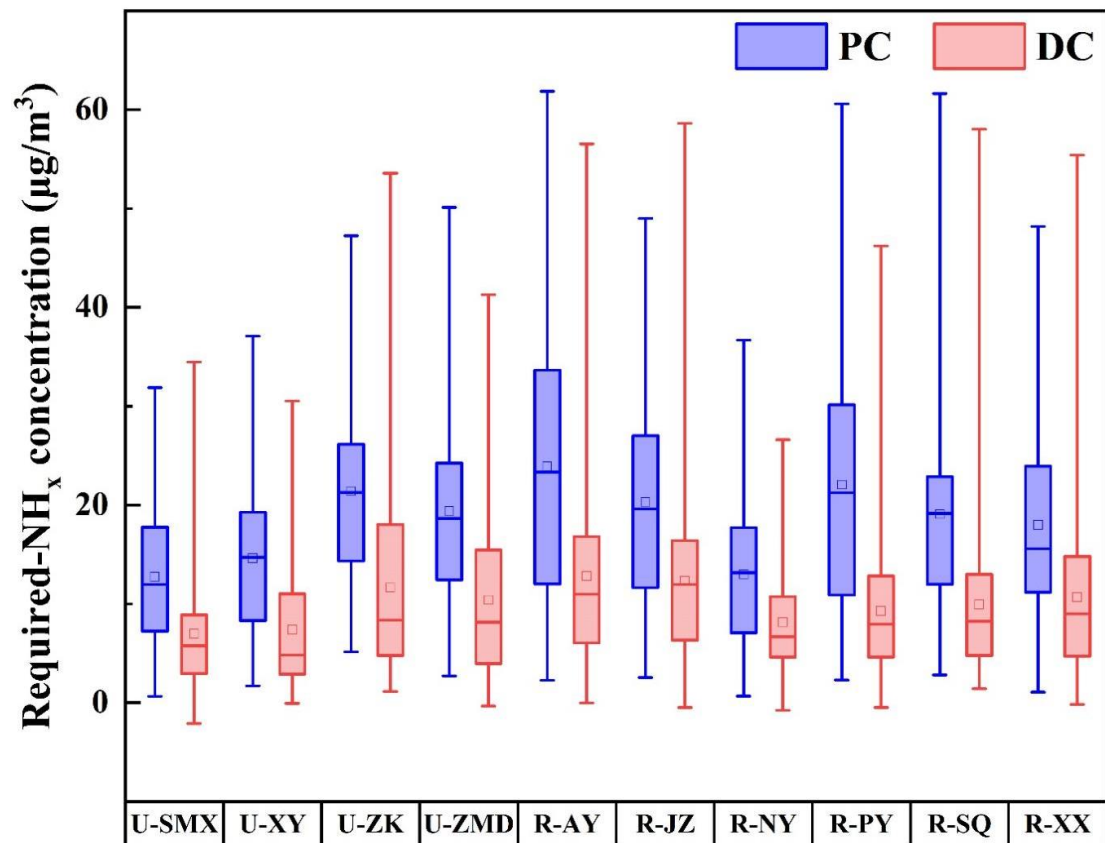
708 sites before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak, respectively. The shaded

709 areas of the curve represent the maximum and minimum values.



710

711 Figure 2. Daily variation of NH_3 concentrations at ten sites before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. The green dots represent the
 712 location of ten sites and their size represents the concentration of NH_3 ; In each box, the top, middle, and bottom lines represent the 75, 50, and 25
 713 percentiles of statistical data, respectively; the upper and lower whiskers represent the 90 and 10 percentiles of statistical data, respectively.



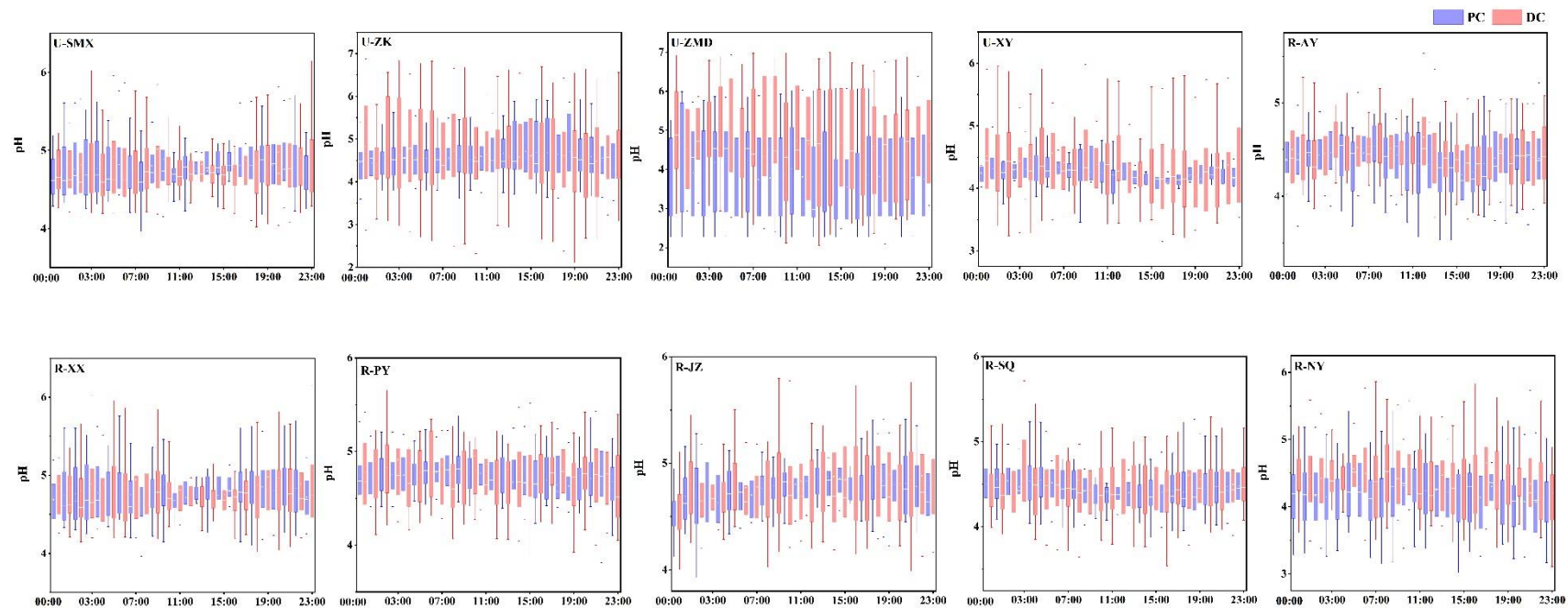
714

715 Figure 3. Box diagram of changes in Required-NH_x at ten sites before (PC) and during

716 (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. In each box, the top, middle, and bottom lines represent

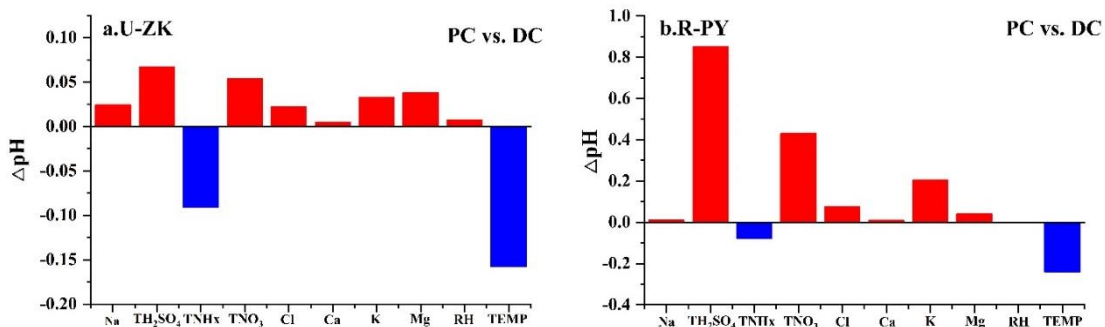
717 the 75, 50, and 25 percentiles of statistical data, respectively; the upper and lower

718 whiskers represent the 90 and 10 percentiles of statistical data, respectively.



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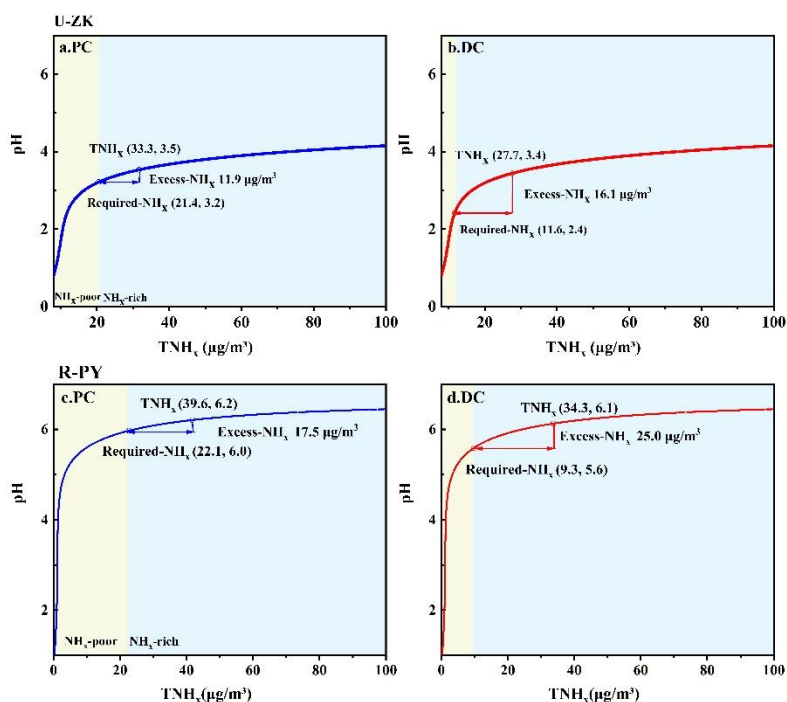
720 Figure 4. Diurnal patterns of pH at ten sites before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. In each box, the top, middle, and bottom
 721 lines represent the 75, 50, and 25 percentiles of statistical data, respectively; the upper and lower whiskers represent the 90 and 10 percentiles of
 722 statistical data, respectively.



723

724 Figure 5. Changes of pH (ΔpH) through the sensitivity tests (Figure S5 and S6) by

725 changing parameters between PC and DC at the a. U-ZK and b. R-PY sites.



726

727 Figure 6. Particle pH corresponds to increasing TNH_x at U-ZK and R-PY sites to

728 examine the effects of major indicators of NH_3 (i.e., TNH_x , Required- NH_x , and Excess-

729 NH_x) on aerosol acidity. Particle pH was calculated by using a wide range of TNH_x

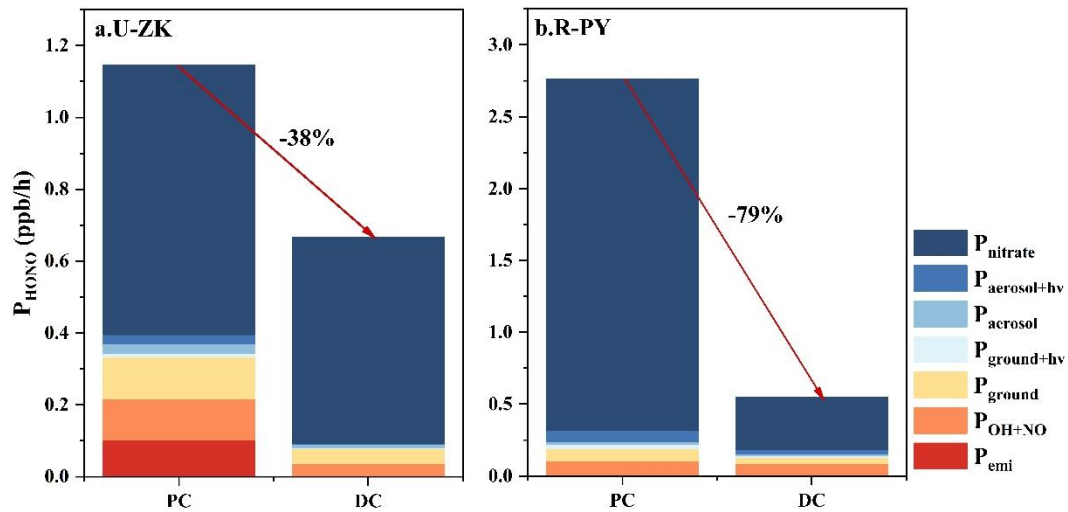
730 ($25\text{--}130\ \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and average values of other parameters in PC and DC of U-ZK and R-

731 PY sites. The concentrations of TNH_x , Required- NH_x , and Excess- NH_x with

732 corresponding pH values are marked by a hollow box, hollow circle, and arrow

733 respectively. The yellow and blue background colors correspond to the NH_x -poor and

734 NH_x -rich, respectively.

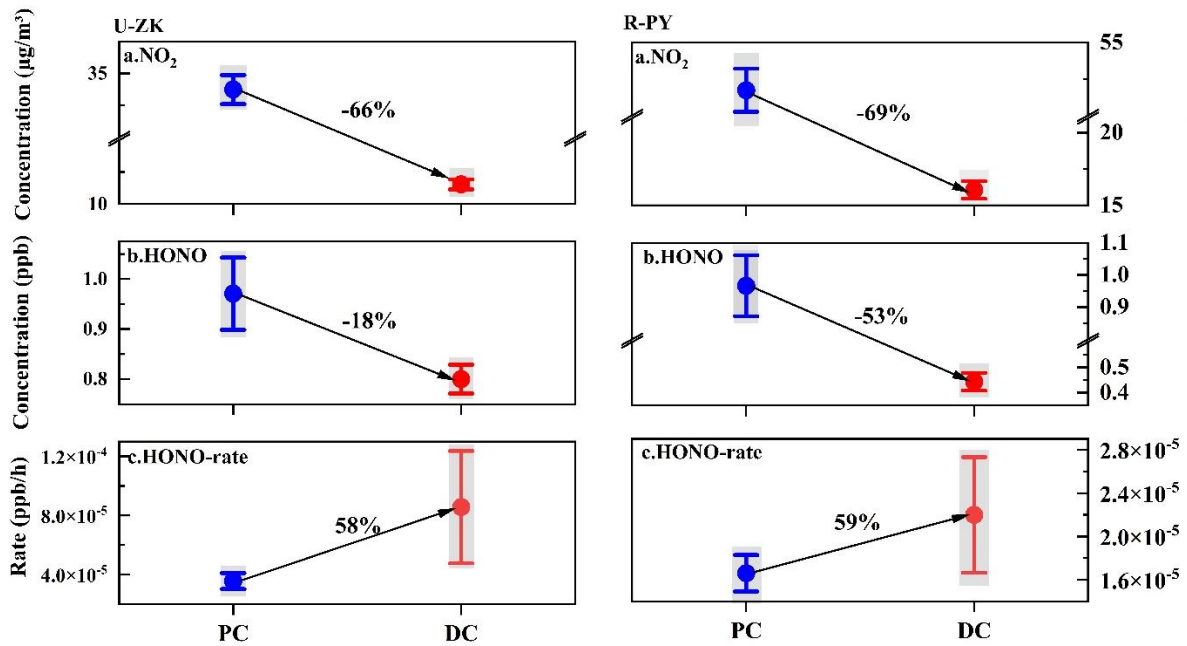


735

736 Figure 7. Comparison of HONO sources at a. U-ZK and b. R-PY sites before (PC) and

737 during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. The calculation method can be found in Text S4.

738



739

740 Figure 8. Decline ratios of a. NO₂, b. HONO concentration, and c. HONO production

741 rate at U-ZK and R-PY sites before (PC) and during (DC) the COVID-19 outbreak. The

742 center point represents the mean value, and the upper and lower whiskers represent the

743 95% confidence interval of the mean. The shadows in the figure represent the

744 uncertainties of NO₂ measurement ($\pm 10\%$), HONO measurement ($\pm 20\%$), and the

745 HONO formation rate of R₁ reaction (−78–123%), respectively.

746

747 **Table:**

748 Table 1. Changes in concentrations (mean ± standard deviation) of NH₃, NH₄⁺, and
 749 TNH_x at ten sites during entire periods (Average), before (PC), and during (DC) the
 750 COVID-19 outbreak.

Sites	Substances	Average (µg/m ³)	PC (µg/m ³)	DC (µg/m ³)
U-SMX	NH ₃	13.8 ± 10.8	12.6 ± 10.1	14.5 ± 11.1
	NH ₄ ⁺	10.9 ± 7.2	14.2 ± 7.2	8.8 ± 6.5
	TNH _x	22.9 ± 14.1	24.9 ± 14.5	21.7 ± 13.8
U-ZK	NH ₃	15.6 ± 8.3	12.7 ± 6.5	17.4 ± 8.8
	NH ₄ ⁺	13.6 ± 9.3	19.1 ± 8.4	10.3 ± 8.1
	TNH _x	28.6 ± 13.7	30.9 ± 12.8	27.1 ± 14.0
U-ZMD	NH ₃	13.1 ± 8.4	11.6 ± 8.2	14.0 ± 8.4
	NH ₄ ⁺	13.9 ± 9.8	19.6 ± 10.3	10.3 ± 7.5
	TNH _x	25.7 ± 14.6	30.3 ± 15.1	22.8 ± 13.5
U-XY	NH ₃	7.0 ± 4.3	5.7 ± 4.0	7.9 ± 4.3
	NH ₄ ⁺	11.0 ± 7.7	15.4 ± 7.6	8.3 ± 6.5
	TNH _x	17.6 ± 9.8	20.6 ± 10.1	15.7 ± 9.2
R-AY	NH ₃	19.0 ± 8.4	17.9 ± 8.3	19.7 ± 8.4
	NH ₄ ⁺	19.3 ± 12.9	26.4 ± 13.7	15.0 ± 10.3
	TNH _x	36.6 ± 18.2	41.7 ± 20.4	33.4 ± 16.0
R-XX	NH ₃	21.7 ± 10.2	18.1 ± 9.3	23.8 ± 10.1
	NH ₄ ⁺	15.9 ± 10.4	20.6 ± 11.0	13.0 ± 8.8
	TNH _x	34.9 ± 17.0	35.1 ± 18.8	34.8 ± 15.8
R-PY	NH ₃	19.8 ± 9.4	16.8 ± 8.1	21.7 ± 9.6
	NH ₄ ⁺	17.4 ± 11.8	25.3 ± 12.6	12.4 ± 8.0
	TNH _x	35.2 ± 17.8	39.4 ± 19.8	32.6 ± 15.7
R-JZ	NH ₃	25.3 ± 11.5	24.1 ± 11.5	25.9 ± 11.4
	NH ₄ ⁺	17.3 ± 11.3	22.7 ± 11.6	14.2 ± 9.9
	TNH _x	40.8 ± 20.1	42.9 ± 22.8	33.5 ± 18.2
R-SQ	NH ₃	15.0 ± 7.9	10.3 ± 5.2	17.7 ± 7.9
	NH ₄ ⁺	13.4 ± 8.5	18.9 ± 8.6	10.3 ± 6.7
	TNH _x	26.3 ± 13.2	25.5 ± 14.0	26.8 ± 12.7
R-NY	NH ₃	5.5 ± 3.1	4.3 ± 2.7	6.2 ± 3.2
	NH ₄ ⁺	10.2 ± 6.9	13.3 ± 7.2	8.4 ± 6.1
	TNH _x	14.8 ± 8.5	16.0 ± 9.5	14.1 ± 7.8

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