

1 **Measurement report: Assessing the ammonia characteristics over a**
2 **high-altitude mountain site in Shanxi province, China: a comparison**
3 **with the observations in the North China Plain**

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15 **Abstract:**

16 Ammonia (NH₃) acts as the dominant alkaline gas and plays a crucial role in
17 atmospheric chemistry, thereby influencing air quality and ecological systems.
18 Previous NH₃ measurement studies have primarily focused on near-ground
19 environments or relied on passive sampling methods; however, continuous,
20 high-resolution NH₃ observations at high-altitude sites remain scarce. This study
21 investigated NH₃ characteristics at a high-altitude mountain site (Mountain Wutai,
22 WTM) in northern China, using high-resolution and real-time measurement data
23 spanning a full annual cycle. It also compared a regional background site
24 (Shangdianzi, SDZ) with an urban site (Beijing Meteorological Service, BMS) to
25 better understand the regional features of NH₃ in northern China. A multi-method
26 approach was employed, integrating in situ NH₃ measurements, meteorological data
27 analyses, Convergent Cross Mapping (CCM), Potential Source Contribution Function
28 (PSCF), and WRF-Chem modeling, to identify NH₃ source regions and clarify
29 underlying transport mechanisms. The results indicated that NH₃ emissions from the
30 North China Plain (NCP) can reach WTM and SDZ through distinct circulation
31 patterns: mountain-plain circulations for WTM, and primary mountain-valley
32 circulations for SDZ. Notably, despite significant differences in altitude, geography,

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33 and pollutant transport mechanisms between WTM and SDZ, regional agricultural
34 emissions in the NCP were the dominant factor driving the similarity in NH₃ levels at
35 the two sites. This study enhances the understanding of how surface emissions
36 influence NH₃ concentrations at high-altitude mountain site and highlights the critical
37 role of NCP emissions in influencing regional NH₃ levels, thereby providing insights
38 for formulating strategies to mitigate regional NH₃ pollution.

39 **Keywords:** ammonia, high-altitude mountain site, background station, Convergence
40 Cross Mapping (CCM), transport mechanism

41

42 1. Introduction

43 Ammonia (NH₃) mainly comes from fertilizers and animals, and other sources
44 include industry, fossil fuels, crops, soils, oceans, and biomass burning (Warner et al.,
45 2017; Warner et al., 2015). As the most important gas-phase alkaline species, NH₃
46 contributes considerably to the formation and development of fine particles (PM_{2.5}),
47 which have implications for human health, degrade regional air quality, and influence
48 the global radiation budgets. However, NH₃ emission control would mitigate nitrogen
49 deposition and haze pollution but worsen acid rain (Liu et al., 2019). The atmospheric
50 lifetime of NH₃ ranges from hours to days, depending on factors like deposition
51 processes and the presence of other reactive species (Baek et al., 2004); the global
52 average atmospheric lifetime is about 11 h (Xu et al., 2012).

53 Due to its short lifetime, NH₃ is highly concentrated in the planetary boundary
54 layer and near emission sources. Therefore, most of the current NH₃ measurements
55 were implemented at near-surface sites (Pu et al., 2023; Kuang et al., 2020; Zhang et
56 al., 2023; Elser et al., 2018). However, aircraft measurements revealed there were
57 NH₃ pollution layers, where the concentrations were comparable to that of the surface,
58 within the lower free troposphere (FT) over the North China Plain (NCP) (Pu et al.,
59 2020a). Aircraft-borne campaign measurements over the US obtained concentration
60 profiles in the FT reaching altitudes of about 6 km (Nowak et al., 2007; Nowak et al.,
61 2010; Nowak et al., 2012; Leen et al., 2013; Schiferl et al., 2016). Although aircraft
62 could capture the vertical distribution of NH₃ in FT, only for the limited durations of

63 measurement campaigns. Satellite NH₃ observations complement current ground and
64 airborne measurements by providing unique insights on NH₃ distributions from
65 regional to global scales, such as the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES)
66 instrument on the NASA Aura satellite (Shephard et al., 2011), the Infrared
67 Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) instrument on the MetOp-A and
68 MetOp-B satellites (Van Damme et al., 2014), and the Cross-track Infrared Sounder
69 (CrIS) instrument on the NASA satellite (Dammers et al., 2019). However, the
70 vertical sensitivity of these satellite retrievals is mainly limited to the lower
71 troposphere up to approximately 3 km, and no altitude resolution is achieved
72 (Höpfner et al., 2016). These findings underscore the significance of studying
73 ammonia at high-altitude sites, where its impact on large-scale pollution may be even
74 more pronounced.

75 High-altitude mountain sites have long been recognized as suitable places for
76 characterizing the chemical composition of the lower troposphere. These sites allow
77 for measurements that are representative of continental to hemispheric scales by
78 focusing on air masses that have travelled far from emission sources and had
79 sufficient time to mix. Although NH₃ concentration observations have been conducted
80 at mountain sites in previous studies, the relevant data remain relatively limited.
81 Among these, continuous observation data with high-resolution is particularly scarce.
82 Such continuous measurements offer an opportunity to establish connections between
83 NH₃ concentrations and the dynamic changes in source emissions as well as transport
84 patterns.

85 To improve our understanding of the characteristics and influencing factors of
86 NH₃ in the lower FT, a one-year measurement was conducted at a high-altitude
87 mountain site (Mountain Wutai, WTM) in northern China. Because WTM is located
88 to the west of the NCP, one of the NH₃ high-emission regions in the world (Van
89 Damme et al., 2018), it provides an opportunity to compare its patterns with those of
90 other sites within the NCP. Overall, the primary goals of this work were to
91 characterize NH₃ levels at WTM and other sites in NCP and to further interpret the

92 similarities or different transport patterns between these sites.

93

94 **2. Experimental and Methods**

95 **2.1. Experimental site and Instrument**

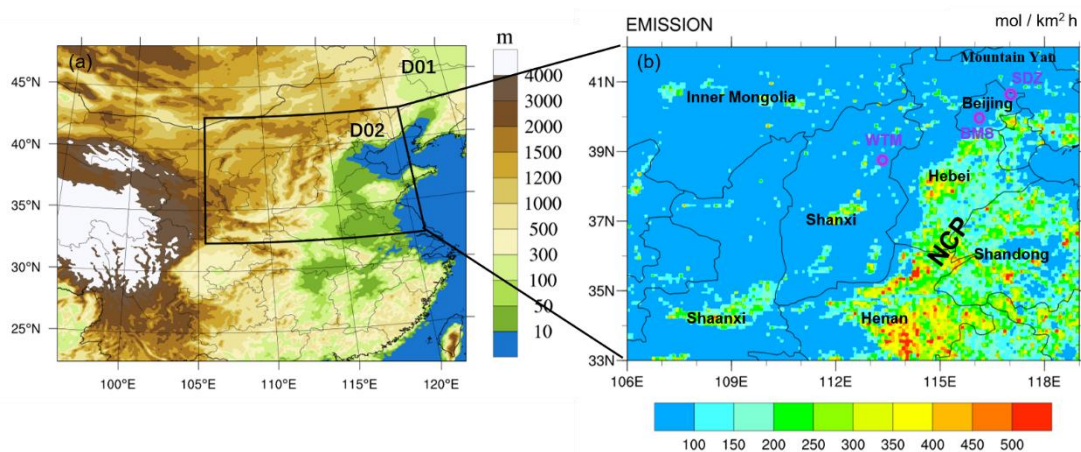
96 From June 2020 to May 2021, continuous in situ measurements were carried out
97 at a mountain site in Shanxi province, a background site and an urban site in Beijing.
98 The mountain site, Mountain Wutai (WTM; 38.95 °N, 113.52 °E; 2208 m a.s.l.) is
99 located in the northeast Shanxi province (Fig.1), which is connected to the continental
100 plateau extending to the west. Due to its high altitude and remote location, there are
101 no major pollution sources, making it an appropriate site for characterizing lower FT
102 NH₃. The fluctuations in the hourly and daily average for temperature (T), relative
103 humidity (RH), wind direction (WD), wind speed (WS), and precipitation, are
104 depicted in Fig.S1. The annual average T, RH, and total precipitation are 2.5 °C,
105 62.6 %, and 892.7 mm, respectively. Prevailing winds are generally westerly, with an
106 average speed of 5.8 m/s.

107 The background site, Shangdianzi (SDZ; 40.65°N, 117.11°E; 293.9 m a.s.l.), lies
108 in the transitional region between the NCP and the Mountain Yan area (Fig. 1). It acts
109 as both a regional background station in China and a regional site under the Global
110 Atmosphere Watch program. The mountainous areas around the SDZ station only
111 contain small villages, where populations are sparse and anthropogenic emission
112 sources are negligible. Therefore, the station's atmospheric pollution levels can
113 represent the background concentration of air pollutants in North China. Nevertheless,
114 orchards surrounding SDZ may have ammonium dibasic phosphate and urea applied
115 as soil fertilizers during spring.

116 The urban site is situated at the Beijing Meteorological Service (BMS; 39.93°N,
117 116.27°E; 90 m a.s.l.) (Fig. 1), which lies in the northwestern sector of the Beijing
118 urban area, surrounded by various land use types (commercial areas, park, residential
119 areas, and traffic areas).

120 Real-time NH₃ concentrations at the above-mentioned stations were measured

121 using three analyzers (907, Los Gatos Research Inc., US). To ensure data accuracy
 122 and reliability, rigorous quality assurance (QA) and quality control (QC) procedures,
 123 including daily zero and span checks, monthly multi-point calibrations using certified
 124 NH₃ standard gas, were implemented throughout the campaign. Other than NH₃
 125 observations, methane (CH₄) was also measured at SDZ by a Picarro G2401
 126 CO₂/CO/CH₄ cavity-ringdown spectrometer during summer 2020 and spring 2021.
 127 Meteorological data of the surface in this study were achieved from the China
 128 Meteorological Data Service Center (<http://data.cma.cn/en>). The planetary boundary
 129 layer height (BLH) and U, V, and W winds are achieved from the ERA5
 130 (<https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/datasets>), a fifth-generation European Centre for
 131 Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) reanalysis data with a spatial resolution
 132 of 0.25°×0.25°.



133
 134 Fig. 1. Simulation domains and topographic distribution (a); spatial distribution of NH₃ emission
 135 intensity and locations of the measurement sites (indicated by purple open circles) (b).

136 2.2. Convergence cross mapping (CCM) method

137 Given the complex interactions in atmospheric environments and the strong
 138 nonlinearity of atmospheric systems, simple correlation analyses (e.g., Pearson
 139 correlation, which is only applicable to linear systems) cannot effectively quantify the
 140 causal effects of individual meteorological factors on NH₃ concentrations. To address
 141 this limitation, Sugihara et al. (2012) developed Convergent Cross Mapping (CCM)
 142 —a robust causal analysis approach—designed to extract the coupling relationships
 143 between individual variables in complex systems. This method serves as a suitable

144 alternative for identifying nonlinear associations within the same system and
145 evaluating weak-to-moderate coupling effects, while also enabling the determination
146 of interaction directionality. Therefore, it has been widely adopted in related studies.

147 In CCM, the predictive skill of variable A for variable B is calculated and
148 denoted as ρ (ranging from 0 to 1). This metric provides a quantitative basis for
149 comparing the influence magnitudes of different variables on a target variable.
150 Detailed descriptions of the CCM algorithm have been published in previous
151 literature (Chen et al., 2022; Ziyue et al., 2018; Rawat et al., 2024). The CCM
152 analysis in this study was conducted using R software (version 4.3.1), with the
153 support of the rEDM package (Sugihara et al., 2012) and the multispatialCCM
154 package (Clark et al., 2015).

155 **2.3. Potential source contribution function (PSCF)**

156 To identify the locations of sources influencing different pollutant concentrations,
157 PSCF analysis was applied, with its calculation relying on measured concentrations
158 and associated trajectory data. A high PSCF value denotes that the corresponding
159 region transports substantial amounts of the target atmospheric pollutant to the
160 receptor site. In contrast, a low PSCF value may reflect either minimal emissions
161 from the region or the absence of pollutant transport pathways from that region to the
162 receptor site.

163 From June 2020 to May 2021, 48-hour backward trajectories were calculated 24
164 times per day (00:00 to 23:00 UTC, with initiation at 10 m above ground surface)
165 using the HYSPLIT model developed by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric
166 Administration Air Resource Lab (NOAA;
167 <http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/hysplit4.html>). Meteorological input data were derived
168 from the FNL global analysis data—generated by the National Center for
169 Environmental Prediction (NCEP) model and processed by the Global Data
170 Assimilation System (GDAS) with a spatial resolution of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$
171 (<http://www.rl.noaa.gov/ss/transport/archives.hrml>). Detailed methodologies for the
172 PSCF approach and weighted potential source contribution function (WPSCF)

173 analysis have been reported in previous studies (Wang, 2014; Pu et al., 2019). The
174 70th percentile of NH₃ concentrations over the entire observation period was used as
175 the criterion value.

176 **2.4. WRF-Chem**

177 The WRF-Chem model (version 4.2.1) was employed to simulate NH₃
178 concentrations and meteorological conditions in this study. A detailed description of
179 WRF-Chem is provided by Grell et al. (2005). The model uses the CBM-Z gas phase
180 chemical mechanism (Zaveri and Peters, 1999) to represent the transformation
181 reactions of NH₃ in the atmosphere.

182 In this study, two nested domains with horizontal resolutions of 9 km and 3 km
183 were established within the WRF-Chem model, centered at 116°E, 39°N (Fig. 1). The
184 inner domain (D02, shown in Fig. 1a) covers the primary agricultural region of the
185 North China Plain, which includes three major crop-producing provinces: Henan,
186 Hebei, and Shandong. In the vertical direction, the model was configured with 30
187 sigma-pressure layers extending from the surface up to 50 hPa, 12 of which are
188 located within the atmospheric boundary layer. Meteorological initial and boundary
189 conditions were derived from the NCEP Final Operational Global Analysis (FNL)
190 dataset, which has a spatial resolution of 1.0° × 1.0° and a temporal resolution of 6
191 hours. Anthropogenic emissions were based on the inventory developed by Zhang et
192 al. (2009), which was subsequently updated to a resolution of 0.1° × 0.1° for the year
193 2019 (MEIC-2019, Zhang, personal communication). Biomass burning emissions
194 were obtained from the Fire Inventory from NCAR (FINNv1.5, Wiedinmyer et al.,
195 2011). Chemical initial and boundary conditions were initialized using model-default
196 idealized profiles. The simulation was conducted from May 1 to 12, 2021, with the
197 first 11 days considered as model spin-up and results from May 12, 2021, used for
198 subsequent analysis.

199

200 **3. Results and Discussion**

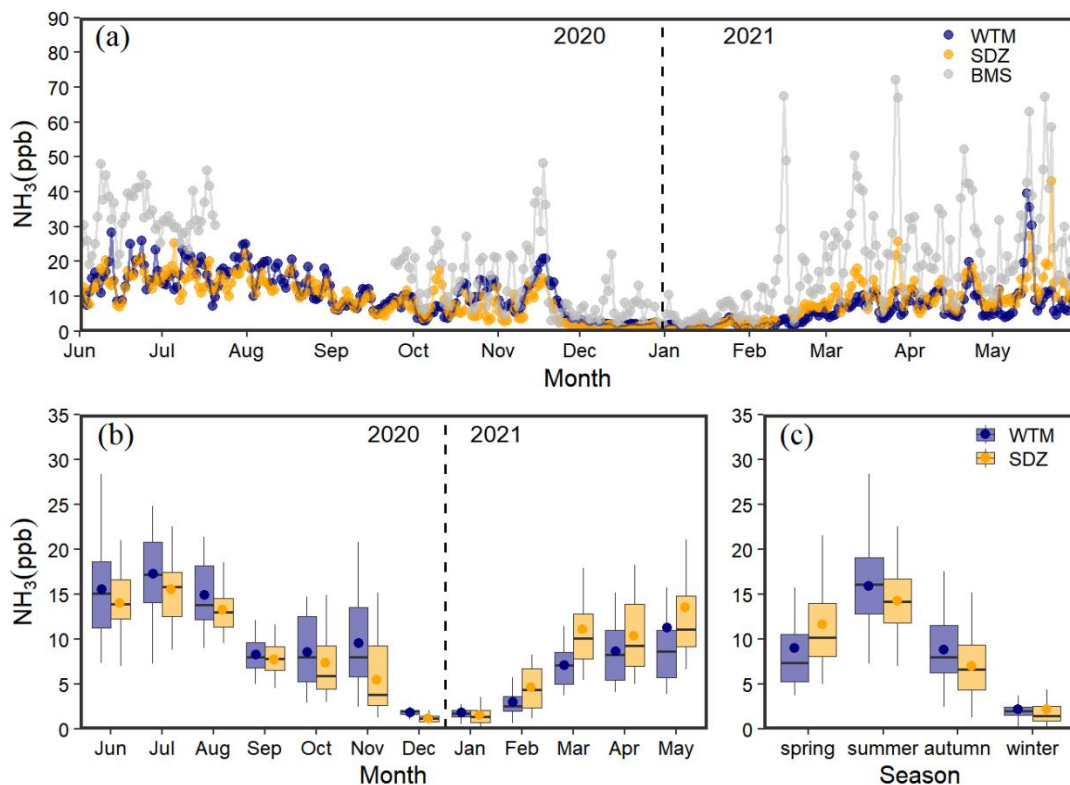
201 **3.1. Overall features of NH₃ concentration**

202 The continuous variability of NH₃ concentrations at WTM during 2020 and 2021
203 is shown in Fig. 2. The hourly NH₃ concentration ranged from 1 to 52.7 ppb, with a
204 year-round average of 9.0 ± 6.7 ppb. The NH₃ concentrations in this study exhibited a
205 seasonal variation (Table S1), with means of 8.9 ± 6.3 , 15.9 ± 5.4 , 8.8 ± 4.2 , and $2.1 \pm$
206 1.2 ppb in spring, summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. Compared with other
207 high-altitude sites (Table S2), the average concentration of NH₃ at WTM is obviously
208 higher than most of the sites, particularly at Rocky Mountain National Park, Beaver
209 Meadows, Timber Creek, and Gore Pass in the USA and the Happo site in Japan. In
210 contrast, NH₃ levels at WTM were substantially lower than those recorded at rural and
211 agricultural sites, such as Wuwei in China and Greeley and Kersey in the United
212 States, highlighting the influence of anthropogenic emissions. Notably, within the
213 same type of observation site, forest or grassland, the NH₃ concentrations measured at
214 WTM are elevated. These discrepancies imply that local sources, atmospheric
215 transport processes, or topographical factors may contribute to enhanced ammonia
216 accumulation at this site compared to similar ecological settings.

217 Situated in a remote, high-altitude area to the west of the NCP, this unique
218 location enables comparative studies between WTM and other sites located in the
219 NCP. As can be seen from Figure 2(a), the NH₃ concentration and its variation pattern
220 at the WTM site exhibit a high degree of similarity to those at the SDZ site, while
221 showing significant differences from the BMS site, where the NH₃ concentration
222 levels are notably higher. To further quantify the similarity of NH₃ variation tendency
223 among the sites, this study employed a variety of analytical methods, including
224 Dynamic Time Warping (DTW), Euclidean distance, Pearson correlation coefficient
225 (r), Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD), and Mean Absolute Bias (MAB) (Table
226 S3). The DTW was processed in R version 4.3.1, along with the dtw R package
227 (Giorgino, 2009). It is noteworthy that despite the greater spatial straight-line distance
228 (350 km) between the SDZ and WTM sites compared to the BMS and WTM distance,
229 as well as an altitude difference of 1.9 km, the values of DTW, Euclidean distance,
230 RMSD, and MAB between WTM and SDZ are all lower than those between WTM

231 and BMS. Meanwhile, the r between WTM and SDZ is significantly higher than that
 232 between WTM and other sites. These comprehensive quantitative analysis results
 233 fully demonstrate a high degree of consistency in the variation trends and numerical
 234 distributions of the NH_3 concentration time series at the WTM and SDZ sites.

235 Since WTM is in a remote area, emission sources in its vicinity are relatively
 236 scarce. In contrast, the BMS site is located in an urban area, with obvious emission
 237 sources such as vehicle exhaust emissions (Pu et al., 2023) and residential emissions.
 238 These complex local emission sources significantly influence the NH_3 concentration
 239 level and its variation pattern at this site, leading to distinct differences from the
 240 WTM. Interestingly, despite considerable altitude and spatial separation between
 241 WTM and SDZ, they exhibited similar NH_3 variation characteristics and close
 242 concentration. The subsequent sections will conduct analyses from meteorological
 243 effects, potential source regions, and transport patterns to illustrate the primary factors
 244 driving this similarity.



245
 246 Fig. 2. Daily (a), monthly (b) and seasonal (c) variation of NH_3 concentration from Jun 1, 2020 to
 247 May 31, 2021. The solid dots represent the mean values, the horizontal lines in the box denote the
 248 median, the limits of the boxes correspond to the 25th and 75th percentiles, and the whiskers of the

249 boxes are the 10th and 90th percentiles (b, c).

250 **3.2. Effects of meteorological factors**

251 Local meteorological conditions exert a significant impact on the NH₃ levels
252 (Zhang et al., 2018). Given the complex interactions within atmospheric environments,
253 it remains challenging to quantify how individual meteorological factors affect local
254 NH₃ concentrations. In order to solve this problem, CCM was employed to examine
255 the coupling relationships between these factors and NH₃. The CCM analysis based
256 on hourly data is shown in Table 1, and the influence of local meteorological factors
257 — including WS, WD, T, RH, pressure (P), and BLH — on NH₃ in different seasons is
258 determined. The convergent cross maps were used to explain the quantitative coupling
259 between NH₃ concentration and each individual meteorological factor (Fig. S2). The ρ
260 -value from CCM methods is designed to understand the coupling between two
261 variables by excluding influences from other factors. Nevertheless, it lacks the ability
262 to directly identify the positive or negative nature of the causality between the two
263 variables.

264 CCM analysis reveals that RH and T are found to show strong influence on
265 WTM NH₃ during summer, while RH and T are also found to have strong effect on
266 SDZ NH₃ during spring. However, high NH₃ levels are generally associated with high
267 temperature and humidity (Lan et al., 2021). P shows a strong impact on NH₃
268 concentrations of WTM and SDZ NH₃ in autumn and spring, respectively. That could
269 be attributed to P mainly affecting the transport and accumulation of pollutants by
270 indirectly influencing other meteorological factors (e.g., wind and humidity) (Chen et
271 al., 2020). Although various meteorological parameters affect NH₃ concentrations
272 differently across seasons at different sites, WS, WD, and BLH significantly impact
273 NH₃ concentrations at both WTM and SDZ year-round (Table 1). This indicates that
274 wind-driven processes (e.g., atmospheric transport or dispersion) along with the
275 boundary layer variation play crucial roles in governing NH₃ levels at these sites
276 throughout the year.

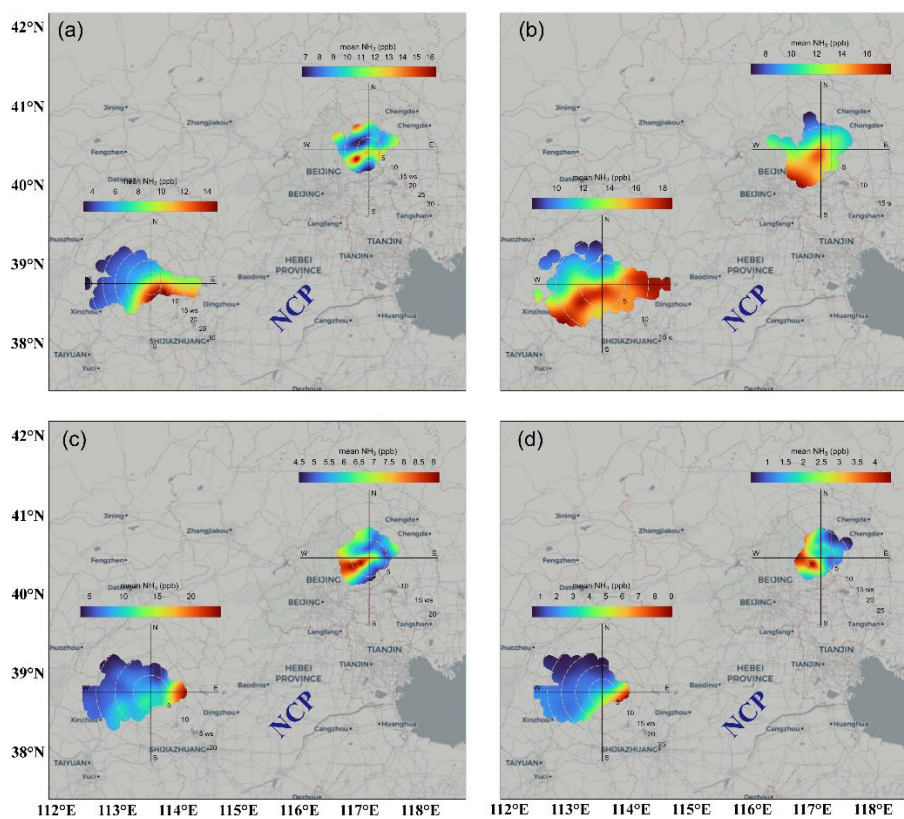
277 A bivariate polar plot is presented in Fig. 3 to analyze the function of WS and

278 WD in each season. Despite the prevailing wind being westerly (Fig. S1), the higher
 279 NH₃ concentrations at WTM were observed in the southeast and southwest sectors in
 280 spring and summer, while elevated levels mainly occurred in the easterly direction
 281 during autumn and winter. In spring and summer, the higher concentrations were
 282 accompanied by a wide range of WS between 0 and 15 m/s, suggesting that local
 283 emissions and air masses transported from intense NH₃ emission regions (Fig.1b)
 284 were important factors affecting NH₃ concentrations at WTM during warm seasons.
 285 However, in autumn and winter, higher NH₃ concentrations were detected with a WS
 286 of 5 – 10 m/s, indicating that WTM was mainly under the influence of long-distance
 287 transport during cold seasons. Unlike WTM, higher SDZ NH₃ concentrations were
 288 mainly concentrated in the southwest direction. Based on NH₃ concentration
 289 variations and WS in each season at SDZ, the site was affected by both local
 290 emissions and air mass transport. Nevertheless, the impact of transport on NH₃ was
 291 more significant, as elevated concentrations corresponded to WS exceeding 2 m/s.
 292 Notably, the NCP is located to the southeast of WTM and to the southwest of SDZ –
 293 directions that directly correspond to the WD associated with higher levels at both
 294 sites. This spatial alignment strongly suggests that the NCP might act as a potential
 295 emission area for both WTM and SDZ.

296 Table 1 Seasonal correlations and causal relationships between individual meteorological
 297 parameters and NH₃ concentration.

Site	Spring	Summer	Autumn	Winter
WTM	WS (0.42, 0.00**)	WS (0.15, 0.00**)	WS (0.46, 0.00**)	WS (0.46, 0.00**)
	WD (0.38, 0.01**)	WD (0.14, 0.00**)	WD (0.33, 0.00**)	WD (0.39, 0.00**)
	BLH (0.33, 0.00**)	T (0.22, 0.00**)	P (0.35, 0.00**)	RH (0.33, 0.00**)
		RH (0.63, 0.03*)	BLH (0.25, 0.01*)	BLH (0.20, 0.01*)
		BLH (0.23, 0.04*)		
SDZ	WS (0.31, 0.00**)	WS (0.24, 0.00**)	WS (0.36, 0.00**)	WS (0.16, 0.00**)
	WD (0.12, 0.00**)	WD (0.13, 0.02*)	WD (0.35, 0.00**)	WD (0.26, 0.00**)
	T (0.26, 0.01*)	T (0.24, 0.00**)	BLH (0.1, 0.01*)	RH (0.34, 0.00**)
	RH (0.62, 0.02*)	BLH (0.19, 0.02*)		BLH (0.21, 0.00**)
	P (0.28, 0.03*)			
	BLH (0.19, 0.00**)			

298 The causality of different meteorological factors on NH₃ is presented predictive skill (ρ) from the
 299 CCM method with p -values (p). * and ** denote the p less than 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.



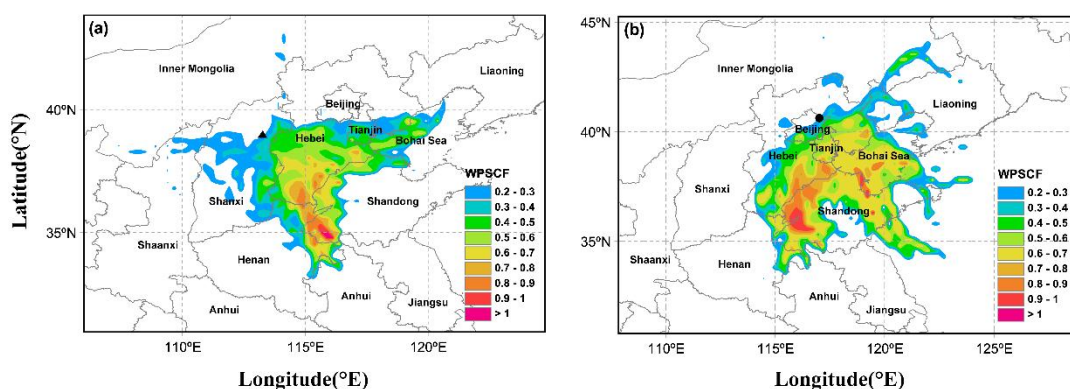
300

301 Fig. 3. Bivariate polar plots of NH₃ concentrations at WTM and SDZ in four seasons (a: spring, b:
 302 summer, c: autumn, and d: winter).

303 3.3. Potential sources identified

304 To confirm whether NCP was a potential emission area for WTM and SDZ,
 305 PSCF analysis was performed. The PSCF map distributions of WTM and SDZ during
 306 the study period and each season are examined (Fig. 4 and Fig. S3). Grid cells
 307 characterized by high PSCF values (i.e., > 0.7) were identified as regions with a high
 308 likelihood of being NH₃ source areas for the receptor sites. Fig. 3 indicates that the
 309 potential sources for WTM and SDZ were primarily in the broader NCP, particularly
 310 in southern Hebei, western Shandong, and eastern Henan. Importantly, these locations
 311 corresponded with the NH₃ emission distribution in the NCP, as shown in Fig. 1b.
 312 This region is characterized by elevated anthropogenic emissions of NH₃, largely
 313 from agricultural activities (Li et al., 2021). In addition to NCP, SDZ was also
 314 affected by emissions from the Bohai Sea. This might be attributed to the ocean-going
 315 vessels that installed the marine selective catalytic reduction technology (SCR)
 316 system to reduce NO_x emissions. As catalyst activity decreases over time, NH₃ slip

317 increases (Zhang et al., 2021). In spring and summer, the potential source ranges of
 318 both sites were more scattered in NCP; however, during autumn and winter, these
 319 ranges were more concentrated in the south or east of Hebei (Fig. S3). Under the
 320 impact of southerly wind, emissions originating from NCP can be transported to
 321 WTM and SDZ.



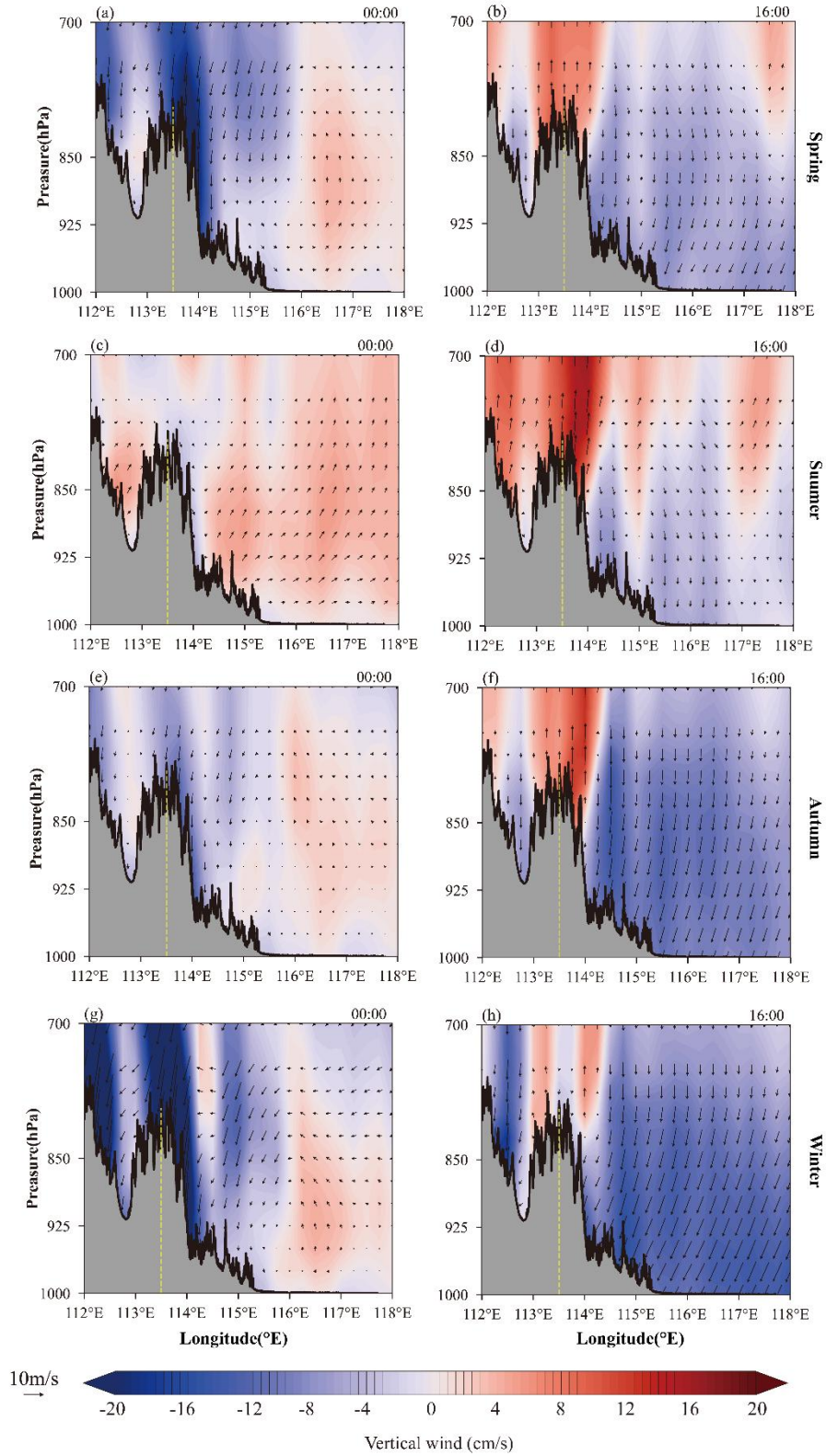
322
 323 Fig. 4. Weighted potential sources contribution analysis (PSCF) of NH₃ at WTM (a) and SDZ (b)
 324 (triangle and circle denote WTM and SDZ, respectively).

325

326 3.4. Transport patterns of NH₃

327 3.4.1. Diurnal variation of the atmospheric circulation

328 Atmospheric circulation determines the migration and transport patterns of
 329 pollutants, so to study its impact on the distribution of NH₃ concentration, the
 330 east-west cross-sections of seasonal mean wind vectors and vertical velocity were first
 331 analyzed. As shown in Fig. 5, during the daytime, low-level winds close to mountain
 332 slopes warm early, resulting in upward movement from the plain toward the
 333 mountains. At night, this pattern switches to downslope motions due to the pressure
 334 difference between mountains and plains. Therefore, although WTM is at a high
 335 altitude, local sources from NCP can still have an influence, depending largely on the
 336 vertical transport and associated convective mixing. Owing to ground surface heating,
 337 the magnitude of vertical velocity varies seasonally, peaking in summer (~16 cm/s)
 338 and reaching its lowest in winter (~ -20 cm/s). This mountain-plain circulation
 339 directly affects the day and night difference in NH₃ concentrations at WTM
 340 throughout the year, following those variations.



341

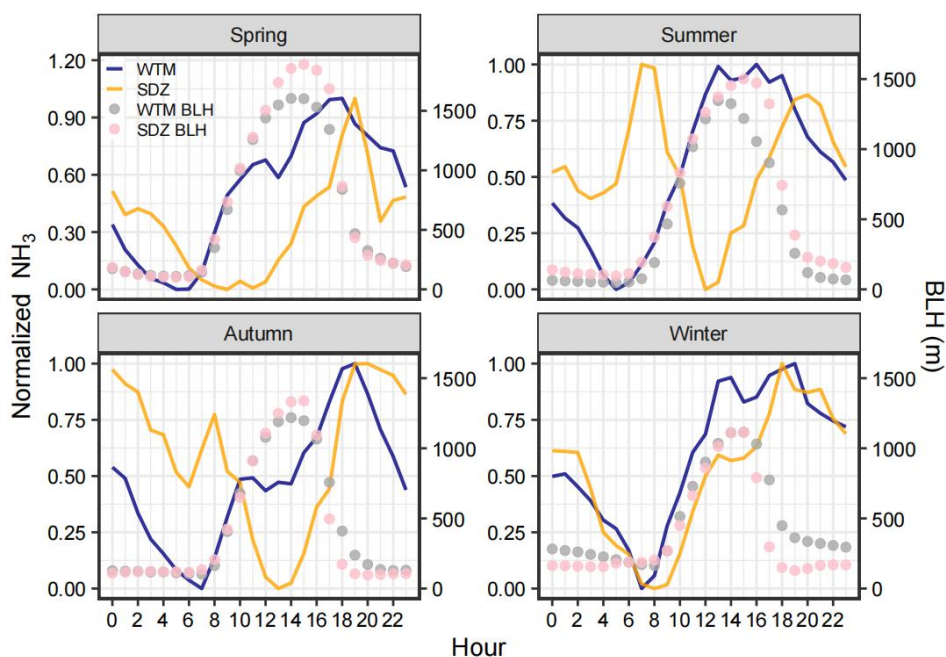
342 Fig. 5. Meridional cross-section of vertical velocity (contour region) with superimposed wind
 343 vectors. The yellow dotted lines represent the location of WTM. The four rows are the different
 344 seasons, including spring (a-b), summer (c-d), autumn (e-f), and winter (g-h).

345

3.4.2. Relationship between the diurnal variations of NH₃ and BLH

As mentioned in section 3.3, NCP, especially in the south of Hebei, the west of Shandong, and the east of Henan provinces, represents the shared common source area influencing WTM and SDZ. To figure out how the emissions emitted from this region affected two sites, diurnal variation of NH₃ and boundary layer height were analyzed (Fig. 6). In order to better illustrate the diurnal variation of NH₃ at these two sites more clearly, the normalized concentrations were applied. As shown in Fig. 6, NH₃ concentrations at SDZ didn't rise as the BLH elevated, except in winter. This might be due to the good dispersion and dilution conditions as the BLH increases that reduces the NH₃ levels. Since SDZ lies in the transitional zone between the NCP and the Mountain Yan area, it is primarily influenced by mountain-valley circulation (Lin et al., 2008). In the afternoon, under the impact of valley wind, lots of the pollutants from NCP were transported to SDZ by the southerly wind, leading to a peak concentration of NH₃ around 18:00 in seasons. However, apart from the late afternoon peak, morning spikes of NH₃ can also be found during summer and autumn. Based on previous studies, the morning NH₃ enhancement can be linked to dew evaporation since dew is a nighttime reservoir and morning source for NH₃ (Wentworth et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2020).

However, different from the diurnal behavior of SDZ, NH₃ levels at WTM began to rise steadily around 8:00. During spring and autumn, peaks occurred around 18:00, while in winter and summer, peak durations were longer (12:00 – 18:00), followed by a rapid decline. It is particularly noteworthy that the diurnal variation of NH₃ concentration at WTM shows good consistency with the diurnal variation of BLH compared to SDZ, showing an increase in concentration as BLH rises and a decrease as BLH falls. This consistency might suggest that the mountain wind system transports the pollutants to the mountaintop during the day via upslope winds, along with the development of BLH through convective mixing. Conversely, nighttime downslope winds lead to the dispersion of these pollutants.



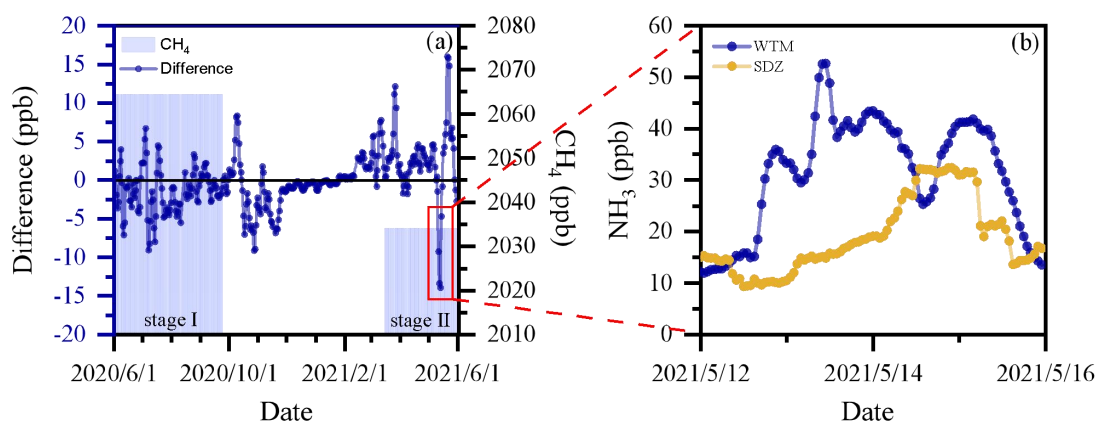
374
 375 Fig. 6. Diurnal variation of normalized NH_3 concentration and BLH at WTM (blue line and grey
 376 dots) and SDZ (orange line and pink dots), respectively.

377 However, despite the fact that the distance between WTM and SDZ is more than
 378 350 km and they are controlled by different transport patterns (i.e., mountain-plain
 379 and mountain-valley circulations in WTM and SDZ, respectively), their NH_3 levels
 380 still exhibit a high similarity. To find out the underlying factor driving this
 381 convergence, CH_4 data at SDZ was used to explain.

382 Fig. 7a presents the variations in the NH_3 concentration difference between SDZ
 383 and WTM, along with the average CH_4 concentration across different periods. During
 384 Stage I (summer to early autumn), the fluctuation of the NH_3 concentration difference
 385 is relatively small, ranging approximately from -5 to 5 ppb. In contrast, during Stage
 386 II (spring), the fluctuation amplitude of the difference increases significantly, and the
 387 values are mostly positive except for the period from May 12 to May 15, 2021 (Fig.
 388 7b), indicating that the NH_3 concentration at SDZ is higher than that at WTM during
 389 this period. Corresponding to these patterns, the CH_4 concentration at SDZ is higher
 390 in stage I and lower in stage II.

391 As CH_4 is a key indicator of agricultural emissions, and the CH_4 concentration at
 392 SDZ can represent the background level of agricultural emissions in North China, the
 393 relationship between the NH_3 concentration difference and CH_4 levels in stages I and

394 II can be interpreted as follows: during stage I, when regional agricultural emissions
 395 are strong, the NH_3 concentrations at WTM and SDZ are more closely aligned,
 396 reflecting the dominant role of agricultural sources in homogenizing the
 397 concentrations at the two sites. Conversely, during stage II, when regional agricultural
 398 emissions are weak, the NH_3 concentration at SDZ is significantly affected by
 399 emissions from urban Beijing due to the transport of southerly winds. This leads to a
 400 larger concentration difference between the two sites, while the lower CH_4
 401 concentration at SDZ further confirms the reduced influence of agricultural sources
 402 during this period.



403
 404 Fig. 7. Time series of average CH_4 concentration at SDZ and daily concentration difference
 405 between SDZ and WTM (a) and hourly concentration at each site (b).

406 3.4.3. A typical case simulation

407 To find out why NH_3 at WTM exhibited a higher level than that at SDZ in stage
 408 II, a typical case of May 12, 2021, was simulated to more clearly illustrate how NH_3
 409 concentration varies with the evolution of the wind field and BLH at WTM. Fig. S4a
 410 and b show the simulated and observed hourly mean NH_3 concentration, WD, and WS
 411 at the WTM and SDZ on 12 May, 2021. Although the model has evident deviations in
 412 simulating the concentration values, it accurately captures the diurnal variations in
 413 NH_3 levels and surface wind fields at both stations. Consequently, the simulation
 414 results are deemed reliable for further analysis of transport characteristics.

415 As shown in Fig. S4, on May 12, 2021, the prevailing wind direction in the
 416 NCP region was southeast, with a strong east wind system traversing the mountainous

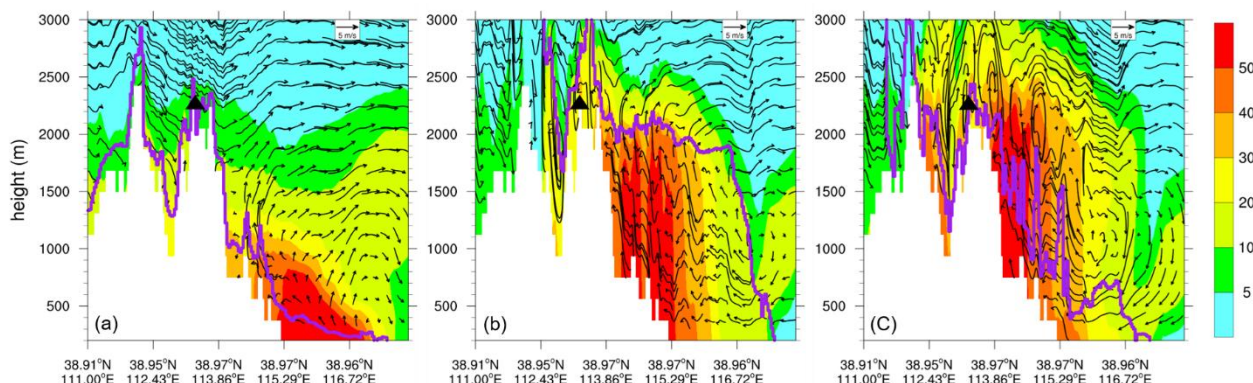
417 areas west of the NCP. NH_3 concentration exhibited a transport pattern from the
418 eastern plain to the western mountains, significantly impacting the WTM. During this
419 period, the air mass affecting the SDZ station mainly originated from the Bohai Sea
420 area, with no significant pollutant transport from the NCP, thus maintaining
421 consistently low NH_3 levels (Fig. S4b).

422 In addition to the transport effect of the southeasterly wind in the horizontal
423 direction, the lifting of the boundary layer height also plays a crucial role in the
424 increase in NH_3 concentration at the WTM station. To more finely illustrate the
425 process of NH_3 concentration varying with the evolution of wind fields and boundary
426 layer height, an east-to-west cross section (shown in Fig. S4b) has been selected for
427 detailed analysis. As shown in Fig. 8, although similarly affected by the easterly wind,
428 the NH_3 emitted from the plain area on the morning of May 12 was trapped in the
429 plain area due to the lower BLH, resulting in low concentrations at the WTM (Fig. 8a).
430 In the afternoon, air masses with higher NH_3 levels from the eastern plain region rise
431 upward with the increase of BLH and are simultaneously pushed up along the slope
432 by the prevailing easterly winds within the boundary layer, gradually affecting the
433 WTM area (Fig. 8b). At the same time, both observations and simulations at WTM
434 showed a rapid increase in ground-level NH_3 concentrations (Fig. S4a). After nightfall,
435 this high concentration situation persisted at WTM in the absence of strong weather
436 systems (Fig. 8c). Our simulation result validates the aforementioned analysis that
437 anthropogenic emissions from NCP, influenced by the regional transport and
438 boundary layer lifting, would lead to an increase in NH_3 levels in the relatively distant
439 mountain areas with high altitude.

440 It is noteworthy that the modeling study of the typical case on 12 May 2021 was
441 designed to corroborate the analysis based on observational data and to qualitatively
442 elucidate the horizontal and vertical transport pathways of NH_3 , as well as their
443 relationship with boundary layer dynamics. However, the simulation results have
444 limitations in accurately capturing NH_3 concentrations within a regional area and in
445 the quantitative assessment of transport impacts. These aspects will be the focus of

446 further investigation in future work.

447



454

455 Fig. 8. West–east vertical distributions of NH₃ mixing ratios (ppb) and vertical wind velocity (cm
456 s⁻¹) at (a) 08:00 LST, (b) 16:00 LST, and (c) 19:00 LST on 12 May 2021. Note that vertical
457 velocities are scaled by a factor of 100 in the wind vectors. The cross-section location is indicated
458 by the solid black line in Fig. S4b. Wind vectors are overlaid on the NH₃ distributions. The thick
459 purple curves denote the top of the atmospheric boundary layer. The approximate location of the
460 WTM site is marked with a black triangle.

461

462 4. Conclusion

463 Continuous high-resolution and real-time NH₃ observations made from Jun 1,
464 2020 to May 31, 2021 were simultaneously conducted at WTM, SDZ, and BMS. The
465 average concentration of NH₃ at WTM was 9.0 ± 6.7 ppb during the study period.
466 Compared to the same type of observation site in previous studies (e.g., forest or
467 grassland mountain sites), the NH₃ concentration measured at WTM was much higher
468 than those reported by Pan et al. (2018), Ban et al. (2016), and Benedict et al. (2013).
469 On the other hand, although WTM is located in a remote area, its NH₃ levels were
470 very close to those at the background station (SDZ) in the northern edge of NCP,
471 while being much lower than those at the megacity station (BMS) in NCP. To identify
472 the primary factors driving the similarity in NH₃ levels between WTM and SDZ,
473 meteorological effects, potential source regions, and transport patterns were analyzed.

474 CCM analysis between NH₃ and meteorological variables revealed that WD, WS,
475 and BLH significantly regulate NH₃ levels at both WTM and SDZ across all seasons.
476 The relationships of wind and NH₃ concentration as well as PSCF results suggested
477 that these sites were influenced by a shared common source area in the NCP,

478 especially in the south of Hebei, the west of Shandong, and the east of Henan
479 provinces.

480 The influence of pollutants emitted from NCP on WTM and SDZ was different.
481 NH₃ concentrations at SDZ were primarily controlled by the mountain-valley
482 circulation, which could transport the NH₃ from NCP to it by valley wind. For WTM,
483 under the effect of mountain-plain circulation and the diurnal variation of BLH, the
484 pollutant from NCP was carried up to the top of the mountain by the vertical transport
485 and convective mixing. This transport pattern was further confirmed by WRF-Chem
486 simulation.

487 Furthermore, the correlation between CH₄ concentrations and the NH₃ level
488 difference between SDZ and WTM indicated that regional agricultural emissions in
489 NCP were the dominant factor contributing to the NH₃ similarity between these two
490 sites – even though the two sites differed significantly in altitude and geography.

491 Our study provides a full annual cycle of measurements at a location that is
492 underrepresented in the global ammonia monitoring network, and highlights that
493 emissions from the NCP can influence NH₃ concentrations at both high-altitude and
494 background areas in northern China by different transport mechanisms. These results
495 could help policymakers develop effective strategies for mitigating regional air
496 pollution. However, our results cannot distinguish specific NH₃ sources and their
497 quantitative contributions. Therefore, additional $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ isotope measurements are
498 needed in future studies.

499

500 **Data availability.**

501 The data are available at <https://zenodo.org/records/17089450> (Pu et al., 2025)

502

503 **Competing interests.**

504 The authors declare that none of the authors has any competing interests.

505

506 **Author contributions.**

507 WP analyzed the data and prepared the manuscript. JX revised the manuscript.

508 LZ and JD conducted the measurements. ZM supervised the project. All co-authors
509 discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

510

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