



1 **Quantitative insights into regime-dependent aerosol pH variability in an ammonia-rich**  
2 **urban atmosphere from explainable machine learning**

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18 **Abstract**

19 Aerosol acidity (pH) plays a crucial role in atmospheric chemistry. Meteorological conditions  
20 and chemical properties jointly contribute to pH variation, yet their behavior differs across  
21 environmental regimes and remain incompletely understood. Here, we integrate machine  
22 learning with interpretable model analyses, field observations, and thermodynamic modeling  
23 to quantitatively assess the relative contributions and associations of key factors to aerosol pH  
24 variability in an ammonia-rich urban atmosphere. Temperature exhibits a strong negative  
25 contribution to pH variation, with an average decrease of ~0.6 units per 10 °C increase. Excess  
26 ammonia, nitrate-to-sulfate mass ratio (N/S), and PM<sub>1</sub> mass loading are positively associated  
27 with pH, showing stronger sensitivities at lower values and diminishing responses at higher  
28 levels. In contrast, the contribution of relative humidity (RH) depends strongly on its



29 interactions with temperature, aerosol composition, and mass loading, resulting in pronounced  
30 regime-dependent reversals. Higher RH is associated with enhanced aerosol acidity under low-  
31 temperature ( $< 15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ), nitrate-dominant ( $\text{N/S} > 1.25$ ), or high-mass ( $\text{PM}_1 > 50\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )  
32 conditions, whereas the opposite tendency occurs under warmer, sulfate-dominant, or low-mass  
33 regimes. This study provides new quantitative insights into the coupled meteorological and  
34 chemical modulation of pH and highlights the importance of multifactor interactions in  
35 understanding aerosol acidity variability in real-world atmospheres.

## 36 **1. Introduction**

37 Aerosol acidity (pH) critically modulates atmospheric multiphase processes, influencing gas-  
38 particle partitioning (Guo et al., 2016; Guo et al., 2017), secondary aerosol formation (Shi et  
39 al., 2019; Yang et al., 2022), pollutant transformation (Cao et al., 2020; Fu et al., 2022), and  
40 metal solubility (Tao and Murphy, 2019; Giorio et al., 2022), with important implications for  
41 air quality, climate, and human health (Mo et al., 2017; Myriokefalitakis et al., 2018; Su et al.,  
42 2020; Tilgner et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2023; Xie et al., 2023). Due to challenges in direct  
43 measurements, aerosol pH is commonly derived from thermodynamic equilibrium models such  
44 as ISORROPIA II and E-AIM, which estimate pH from observed chemical compositions and  
45 meteorological parameters (Clegg et al., 2001; Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007; Hennigan et al.,  
46 2015). Using such model-derived calculations, previous studies have reported globally variable  
47 aerosol acidity (Guo et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2017; Sharma et al., 2022). In China, aerosols  
48 generally exhibit higher pH relative to the United States and Europe, owing to its rich ammonia  
49 emission, and show distinct north-south gradients influenced by regional emissions and  
50 meteorology (Ding et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021).

51 Driving factors of aerosol pH in China's ammonia-rich environment have been explored in  
52 recent years using sensitivity analyses, yet a comprehensive understanding remains incomplete.  
53 For instance, Ding et al. (2019) identified sulfate, total ammonia, and temperature as common  
54 drivers of pH variations, with nitrate exerting less influence. In contrast, Xie et al. (2020)  
55 suggested that increases in the nitrate fraction, rather than ammonia, can elevate pH. Proposing  
56 a multiphase buffer theory, Zheng et al. (2020) showed that aerosol water content and particle  
57 mass may outweigh chemical composition in controlling pH in ammonia-rich regions. Long-



58 term observations, however, pointed to meteorology (temperature and relative humidity) as the  
59 dominant factors for seasonal and diurnal pH variability (Zhou et al., 2022; Duan et al., 2025).  
60 These discrepancies indicate that the coupled contributions of chemical and meteorological  
61 factors to aerosol pH variation are complex and strongly regime-dependent, warranting further  
62 comprehensive investigation. Importantly, decomposition of pH variation has primarily focused  
63 on the linear additive contributions of individual factors, relying on thermodynamic sensitivity  
64 tests and simple quantitative frameworks (Tao and Murphy, 2021; Wang et al., 2022; Zhou et  
65 al., 2022), while providing limited insight into potential nonlinear interactions among chemical  
66 and meteorological parameters that may jointly shape pH dynamics. Addressing this gap is  
67 therefore essential for achieving a more mechanistic understanding of aerosol acidity under  
68 different atmospheric environments.

69 Machine learning (ML) methods, combined with interpretable techniques such as Shapley  
70 Additive Explanations (SHAP), have emerged as powerful tools for capturing nonlinear  
71 relationships and high-dimensional dependencies in atmospheric studies (Grange et al., 2018;  
72 Hou et al., 2022; Song et al., 2022). SHAP provides a unified framework for quantifying the  
73 marginal contributions of individual predictors and their nonlinear interactions (Lundberg et al.,  
74 2020), making it particularly suitable for assessing how chemical composition and  
75 meteorological conditions jointly relate to atmospheric processes (Hou et al., 2022; Dai et al.,  
76 2023; Peng et al., 2023). In this study, we integrate thermodynamic model calculations with a  
77 SHAP-based ML framework to provide quantitative insights into the relative contributions of  
78 key factors to aerosol pH variability in an ammonia-rich atmosphere. Based on a full year of  
79 continuous observations from a northern Chinese city, this approach characterizes how  
80 chemical composition and meteorological conditions are jointly associated with aerosol acidity,  
81 quantifies their statistical interactions across diverse environmental regimes, and advances  
82 understanding of the processes underlying aerosol pH.

## 83 **2. Materials and methods**

### 84 **2.1 Field observations**

85 Continuous measurements were conducted from 21 December 2014 to 31 December 2015 at  
86 an urban site located on the rooftop of the National Center for Nanoscience in Beijing (39.99°N,



87 116.32°E). Non-refractory PM<sub>1</sub> species, including organics (OA), sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>), nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>),  
88 ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), and chloride (Cl<sup>-</sup>), were quantified using an Aerodyne quadrupole aerosol  
89 chemical speciation monitor (Q-ACSM) (Ng et al., 2011). Gaseous ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) was  
90 measured with a Picarro G2103 analyzer (Maasikmets et al., 2015). Meteorological parameters,  
91 including temperature and relative humidity (RH), were simultaneously recorded using an  
92 automatic weather station (MAWS201, Vaisala, Finland) (Wang et al., 2017). Details on  
93 sampling and instrumentation are provided in Text S1.

## 94 2.2 Aerosol pH calculation

95 Aerosol pH was estimated using the ISORROPIA II thermodynamic model (Fountoukis and  
96 Nenes, 2007). The input dataset included the measured concentrations of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, and  
97 total ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>+NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), together with meteorological parameters (RH and temperature).  
98 The model outputs, including hydronium ion concentration (H<sub>air</sub><sup>+</sup>) and aerosol liquid water  
99 content (ALWC), were subsequently adopted to calculate PM<sub>1</sub> pH according to Eq (1) (Guo et  
100 al., 2015):

$$101 \text{ pH} = -\text{Log}_{10} \gamma_{\text{H}^+} \text{H}_{\text{aq}}^+ = -\text{Log}_{10} \frac{1000 \gamma_{\text{H}^+} \text{H}_{\text{air}}^+}{\text{ALWC}_i + \text{ALWC}_o} \cong -\text{Log}_{10} \frac{1000 \gamma_{\text{H}^+} \text{H}_{\text{air}}^+}{\text{ALWC}_i} \quad (1)$$

102 where  $\gamma_{\text{H}^+}$  is the activity coefficient of hydronium ion (assumed to be unity),  $\text{H}_{\text{aq}}^+$  (mol L<sup>-1</sup>)  
103 is the concentration of hydronium ion in particle liquid water,  $\text{H}_{\text{air}}^+$  (μg m<sup>-3</sup>) is the mass  
104 concentration of hydronium ion in air, and ALWC<sub>i</sub> and ALWC<sub>o</sub> (μg m<sup>-3</sup>) is the water  
105 concentration of bulk particle related to inorganic and organic species, respectively. Since the  
106 pH predictions were insensitive to ALWC<sub>o</sub> according to previous studies (Battaglia Jr et al.,  
107 2019; Guo et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2019), we only consider the portion of ALWC<sub>i</sub> in pH  
108 calculation.

109 Previous studies have shown that pH predictions from thermodynamic models can exhibit  
110 substantial biases when operated in the “reverse” mode (Hennigan et al., 2015; Song et al.,  
111 2018). Meanwhile, H<sup>+</sup> is inherently unstable under efflorescent particle conditions (Hennigan  
112 et al., 2015). To minimize these uncertainties, we ran ISORROPIA II in “forward” mode and  
113 “metastable” state, assuming fully deliquesced aerosols without solid formation. Furthermore,  
114 only data with RH > 30% were included to avoid unrealistic pH values arising from



115 misestimated ALWC at low RH, as noted in previous studies (Liu et al., 2017; Ding et al., 2019;  
116 Xie et al., 2020).

117 The accuracy of the thermodynamic simulation and the resulting pH prediction was evaluated  
118 by comparing the predicted and observed  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_4^+$  partitioning (Guo et al., 2016). As shown  
119 in Fig. S1, the modeled values agree well with the measurements ( $R^2 = 0.82\text{-}0.96$ , slope = 0.80-  
120 1.07), indicating that the performance of the ISORROPIA II model is satisfactory for this study.

### 121 **2.3 Explainable machine learning model and interpretation**

122 An explainable machine-learning model based on the extreme gradient boosting (XGBoost)  
123 algorithm was developed (Gui et al., 2020; Peng et al., 2023; Cai et al., 2025). The input features  
124 included chemical indicators such as excess ammonia (Excess  $\text{NH}_x$ , calculated as described in  
125 Text S2), nitrate-to-sulfate mass ratio (N/S ratio), and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass loading, together with  
126 meteorological parameters (temperature and RH). Aerosol pH calculated using ISORROPIA II  
127 served as the target variable. These features were selected because they collectively capture key  
128 meteorological and chemical characteristics potentially influencing aerosol pH, according to  
129 previous studies (Liu et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2020; Zhou et al., 2022). The dataset was  
130 randomly divided into training (70%) and testing (30%) subsets. A 10-fold cross-validation  
131 procedure, repeated five times, was applied to ensure robust generalization and reduce  
132 overfitting (Qin et al., 2022; Peng et al., 2023). Model performance was evaluated using the  
133 root mean square error (RMSE, 0.12), mean absolute error (MAE, 0.08), and coefficient of  
134 determination ( $R^2 = 0.98$ ; Fig. S2).

135 The Shapley additive explanations (SHAP) algorithm (Lundberg et al., 2020) was employed to  
136 interpret model outputs and quantify the relative importance of each predictor (the XGBoost-  
137 SHAP framework). SHAP assigns each input variable a contribution to the model output,  
138 capturing potential nonlinear effects. For each sample, the predicted value can be expressed as:

$$139 \quad f(x_i) = \phi_0(f, x) + \sum_{i=1}^M \phi_j(f, x_i) \quad (2)$$

140 where  $f(x_i)$  is the predicted value for sample ( $x_i$ ) with  $M$  features,  $\phi_0(f, x)$  is the base value  
141 (expected output), and  $\phi_j(f, x_i)$  is the SHAP value of feature  $j$  (Lundberg et al., 2020). In addition



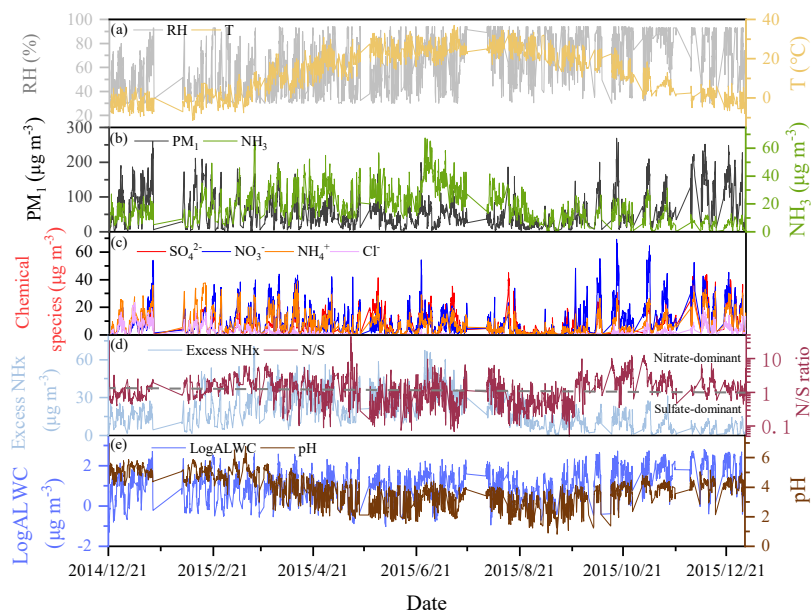
142 to quantifying the marginal contribution of individual features, the SHAP framework was  
143 extended to compute pairwise interaction values using the Shapley interaction index from  
144 cooperative game theory (Lundberg et al., 2020). This approach decomposes each prediction  
145 into nonlinear main effects and interaction effects, providing more informative local  
146 explanations for individual predictions (Hou et al., 2022; Qi et al., 2025). By isolating these  
147 terms at the sample level, SHAP interaction analysis characterizes how combinations of  
148 predictors jointly influence model outputs, patterns that may not be captured by marginal SHAP  
149 values alone.

150 Centered individual conditional expectation (c-ICE) plots were also employed to examine  
151 nonlinear effects and feature interactions. Individual conditional expectation (ICE) curves  
152 describe how model predictions change as a single feature varies while all other features are  
153 held fixed, thereby preserving sample-specific trajectories and capturing the heterogeneity of  
154 feature effects across observations (Wei et al., 2022). However, the interpretation of ICE curves  
155 can be hindered by substantial vertical offsets among individual curves. To address this, c-ICE  
156 curves are constructed by centering each ICE curve at a reference point, effectively removing  
157 vertical shifts and highlighting the variation in predictions attributable to the feature itself (Yang  
158 et al., 2023; Yang et al., 2024). Divergences or non-parallel patterns among c-ICE curves  
159 indicate that the effect of a given feature depends on the values of other predictors, providing  
160 visual evidence of feature interactions at the sample-specific level.

### 161 **3. Results and discussion**

#### 162 **3.1 Relative importance of key factors for overall pH variability**

163 Time series of meteorological and chemical measurements, together with ISORROPIA-derived  
164 pH and ALWC, are shown in Fig. 1. Aerosol pH ranged from 0.8 to 6.7 (average of 3.8),  
165 comparable to previous observations in North China (Ding et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2020; Wei et  
166 al., 2023), and displayed pronounced seasonal and synoptic variability. Excess NH<sub>x</sub> remained  
167 positive, indicating strongly ammonia-rich conditions (Song et al., 2018), while the N/S ratio  
168 spanned from sulfate-dominant to nitrate-dominant states. The temporal variability in chemical  
169 composition and meteorology provides a representative dataset for quantifying their relative  
170 contributions to aerosol acidity variation across diverse environmental conditions.



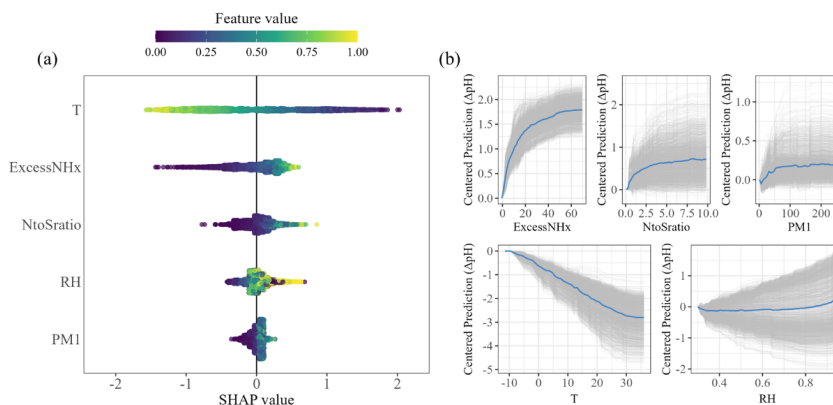
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172 **Figure 1.** Time series of meteorological and chemical measurements and derived model  
 173 variables during the sampling period. Panels show (a) temperature and relative humidity (RH),  
 174 (b) mass concentrations of PM<sub>1</sub> and gaseous NH<sub>3</sub>, (c) inorganic species including SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>,  
 175 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>, (d) Excess NH<sub>x</sub> and the nitrate-to-sulfate mass ratio (N/S ratio), and (e) aerosol  
 176 pH and aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) calculated by ISORROPIA II.

177 The mean absolute SHAP values provide a global ranking of predictors contributing to aerosol  
 178 pH variability across the observation period (Fig. S3). Temperature emerges as the most  
 179 significant factor, followed by Excess NH<sub>x</sub>, N/S ratio, RH, and PM<sub>1</sub> mass loading. The  
 180 dominant role of temperature in explaining the overall pH variability is consistent with previous  
 181 thermodynamic sensitivity analyses (Jia et al., 2020; Tao and Murphy, 2021). Examining each  
 182 predictor in detail (Fig. 2), SHAP values show a strong, monotonic negative contribution of  
 183 temperature, with low-temperature conditions corresponding to higher pH. This pattern aligns  
 184 with thermodynamic predictions, in which lower temperatures favor ammonia partitioning into  
 185 the particle phase and higher aerosol liquid water, both likely elevate pH (Ding et al., 2019; Jia  
 186 et al., 2020). Both higher Excess NH<sub>x</sub> and elevated N/S ratio correspond to positive SHAP



187 contributions, consistent with previous thermodynamic analyses suggesting more ammonia-  
 188 rich and nitrate-rich conditions generally enhance aerosol neutralization and shift pH upward  
 189 (Wang et al., 2020; Xie et al., 2020). RH, however, exhibits a more complex pattern, with  
 190 positive SHAP values occurring across both low- and high-RH conditions, reflecting the strong  
 191 condition dependence of RH contributions. Finally, as the least influential factor, PM<sub>1</sub> mass  
 192 loading also contributes positively to aerosol pH, with higher PM<sub>1</sub> concentration being  
 193 associated with larger SHAP values.



194  
 195 **Figure 2.** Global SHAP summary plot showing the relative importance and overall  
 196 contributions of individual features, including temperature (T, °C), Excess NHx ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ),  
 197 nitrate-to-sulfate mass ratio (NtoSratio), PM<sub>1</sub> mass loading ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), and RH, to aerosol pH (a),  
 198 and c-ICE curves illustrating sample-specific effects of each feature on aerosol pH (gray lines)  
 199 along with their averaged responses (blue line) (b).

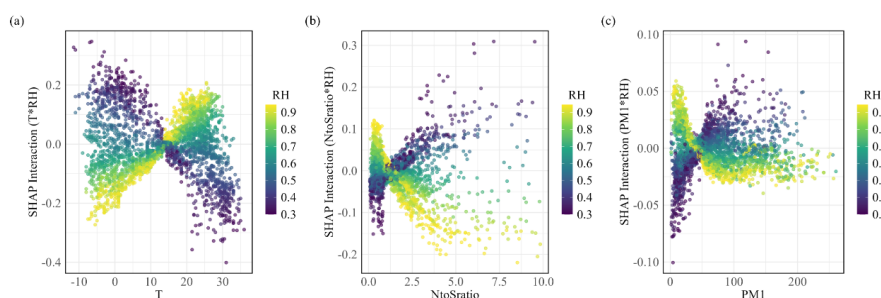
200 The c-ICE analysis further resolves variable-specific responses (Fig. 2b). For temperature,  
 201 Excess NHx, N/S ratio, and PM<sub>1</sub> mass, c-ICE curves generally align with global SHAP trends,  
 202 indicating their largely monotonic influences on predicted pH across samples. In particular, the  
 203 average decreasing trend of pH with temperature corresponds to a reduction of  $\sim 0.6$  units per  
 204  $10^\circ\text{C}$  increase, consistent with the ISORROPIA II thermodynamic sensitivity test results (Fig.  
 205 S4). For Excess NHx, increases at lower concentrations correspond to substantial rises in  
 206 predicted pH, with a  $20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  increase associated with a nearly 1.5 units rise in pH, while the  
 207 response flattens at higher concentrations, implying decreasing sensitivity (Liu et al., 2017;



208 Ding et al., 2019). RH, in contrast, exhibits markedly different behavior. The c-ICE curves  
 209 reveal pronounced sample-to-sample variability, with approximately half of the samples  
 210 showing positive pH responses to increasing RH and the remaining samples showing negative  
 211 responses. This pronounced heterogeneity indicates that the RH contributions are highly  
 212 condition-dependent, strongly modulated by interactions with other variables, which may be  
 213 overlooked by traditional sensitivity tests based on average conditions (Fig. S4) and warrants  
 214 further investigation.

### 215 3.2 Regime-dependent RH interactions with other factors

216 Pairwise interactions (Lundberg et al., 2020; Hou et al., 2022; Qi et al., 2025) between  
 217 meteorological and chemical factors were analyzed to assess their combined contributions to  
 218 pH prediction (Fig. 3 and Fig. S5). RH-related interactions are generally stronger and more  
 219 systematic than those of other variable pairs, consistent with the pronounced condition-  
 220 dependent c-ICE behavior of RH discussed above.



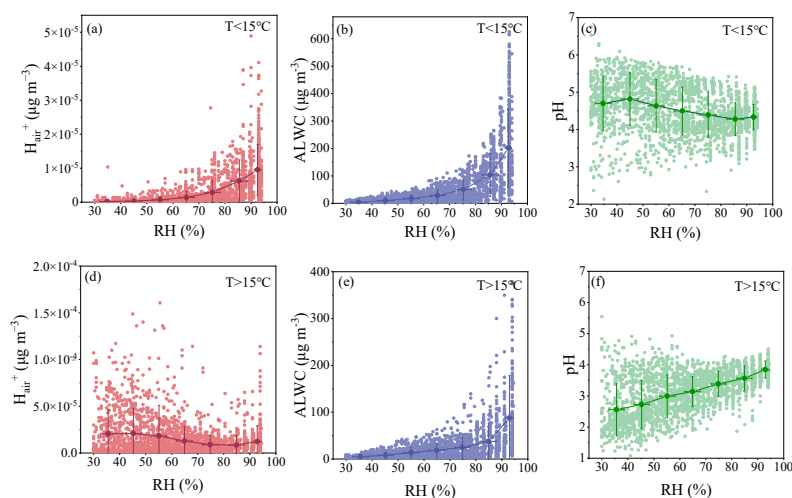
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 222 **Figure 3.** SHAP interaction plots illustrating the joint effects of RH with temperature ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) (a),  
 223 N/S mass ratio (b), and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass loading ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) (c) on aerosol pH prediction. The color scale  
 224 represents RH, and the SHAP interaction values indicate the direction and magnitude of RH  
 225 modulation on predicted pH under different regimes.

226 As two key meteorological parameters, temperature and RH exhibit strong statistical  
 227 interactions in pH prediction, with opposite patterns across different regimes (Fig. 3a). The  
 228 thresholds were identified from inflection points in the SHAP interaction plots. At temperatures  
 229 below  $15^{\circ}\text{C}$ , higher RH is associated with lower pH values in the model prediction at a given  
 230 temperature, with RH–temperature interaction SHAP values showing a maximum decrease



231 from approximately 0.30 to  $-0.25$ . In contrast, at temperatures above  $15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ , this interaction  
232 reverses, with higher RH corresponding to higher predicted pH. Specifically, higher predicted  
233 aerosol acidity occurs under both low-temperature–high-RH and high-temperature–low-RH  
234 conditions, whereas the opposite combinations correspond to lower acidity.

235 This regime-dependent behavior can be explained by the coupled influence of temperature and  
236 RH on secondary inorganics formation, gas–particle partitioning and aerosol water uptake,  
237 which together modulate the balance between  $\text{H}^+$  input and dilution (Ding et al., 2019; Tao et  
238 al., 2025). Under low-temperature conditions, thermodynamic equilibrium favors the  
239 partitioning of semi-volatile species into the particle phase (Guo et al., 2015). Elevated RH  
240 could not only increase ALWC but also facilitate heterogeneous reactions of gaseous precursors  
241 to form secondary inorganic aerosols, accompanied by  $\text{H}^+$  accumulation (Liu et al., 2017; Ding  
242 et al., 2019). As shown in Fig. 4, at temperatures below  $15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ , both  $\text{H}^+$  and ALWC increased  
243 with RH, accompanied by a decrease in pH. That means under low-temperature conditions,  
244 enhanced inorganic aerosol formation and associated  $\text{H}^+$  accumulation likely outweigh the  
245 concurrent increase in ALWC and its dilution effect, resulting in increased aerosol acidity. In  
246 contrast, at higher temperatures, enhanced volatilization shifts gas-particle partitioning towards  
247 the gas phase, likely limiting  $\text{H}^+$  accumulation in particles (Ding et al., 2019; Tao et al., 2025).  
248 Consistently, at temperatures above  $15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $\text{H}^+$  slightly decreased with increasing RH, while  
249 ALWC continued to increase and pH correspondingly increased (Fig. 4). In this regime, the  
250 dominant effect of higher RH should be the enhancement of ALWC dilution, resulting in lower  
251 aerosol acidity. Temperature therefore modulates whether RH-driven  $\text{H}^+$  accumulation or  
252 ALWC dilution prevails, producing opposite RH sensitivities across different regimes.



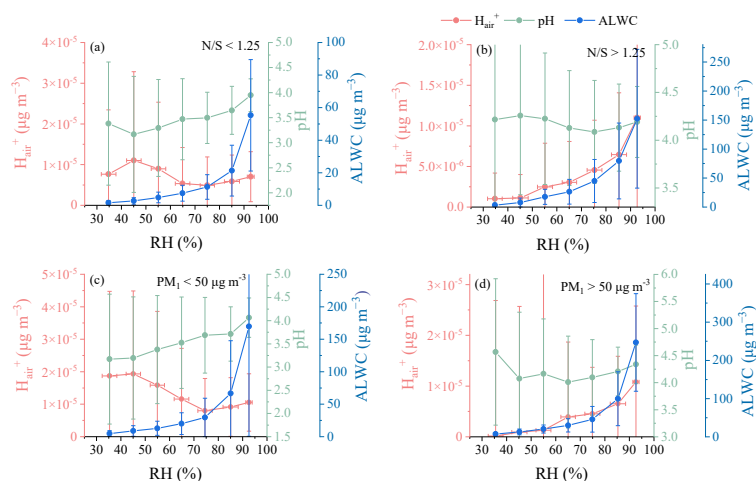
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254 **Figure 4.** Scatter plots of  $\text{H}_{\text{air}}^{+}$  ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), ALWC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), and pH versus RH, along with their  
 255 average variation trends with RH for temperature lower than  $15^{\circ}\text{C}$  (a, b, c), and higher than  $15^{\circ}\text{C}$   
 256 (d, e, f), respectively.

257 Strong statistical interactions were also observed between RH and chemical parameters,  
 258 including the N/S ratio and  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass loading, both exhibiting clear threshold-dependent  
 259 regime shifts (Fig. 3b, c). Under sulfate-dominant conditions (N/S ratio  $< \sim 1.25$ ), higher RH  
 260 tends to be associated with higher predicted pH, whereas this pattern reverses under nitrate-  
 261 dominant conditions (N/S ratio  $> \sim 1.25$ ), where higher RH is associated with lower predicted  
 262 pH. A similar regime-dependent behavior is evident for  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass loading, with RH exerting a  
 263 positive contribution to predicted pH at low  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentrations ( $< 50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) but an  
 264 increasingly negative contribution at higher loadings ( $> 50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). Consistently, under sulfate-  
 265 dominant or low-mass conditions (N/S  $< 1.25$  or  $\text{PM}_{10} < 50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ),  $\text{H}^{+}$  slightly decreased while  
 266 ALWC continued to increase with increasing RH, such that dilution by aerosol water likely  
 267 outweighed, resulting in elevated pH (Fig. 5). In contrast, under nitrate-dominant or high-mass  
 268 conditions (N/S  $> 1.25$  or  $\text{PM}_{10} > 50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), concurrent enhancements in both  $\text{H}^{+}$  and ALWC  
 269 were observed with increasing RH, accompanied by a slight decrease in pH, reflecting that  $\text{H}^{+}$   
 270 accumulation likely outweighed the concurrent dilution by ALWC.



271 These might be related to the complex multiphase chemical processes among different regimes.  
272 Under cleaner periods with low  $PM_{10}$  loading, elevated RH substantially increases ALWC while  
273 secondary inorganic aerosol formation remains relatively limited due to lower precursor  
274 concentrations. Consequently, the dilution effect likely dominates, resulting in increased pH. In  
275 contrast, under higher  $PM_{10}$  loading, abundant particles provide extensive reaction media, and  
276 enhanced water uptake at high RH could facilitate heterogeneous/aqueous-phase formation of  
277 secondary inorganic aerosols (Wang et al., 2025). The resulting  $H^+$  accumulation likely  
278 outweighs the water dilution effect and decreases pH (Fig. 5). Regarding the RH–N/S  
279 interaction,  $NH_3$  first neutralizes sulfuric acid and subsequently reacts with  $HNO_3$ , and aerosol  
280 pH generally decreases with increasing sulfate but increases with increasing nitrate (Ding et al.,  
281 2019; Xie et al., 2020). Under sulfate-dominant conditions (low N/S), increased RH enhances  
282 the aqueous uptake of  $NH_3$ , partially neutralizing existing acidity and mainly promoting the  
283 formation of  $NH_4NO_3$  (Fig. S6), which is therefore likely associated with an increase in pH. In  
284 contrast, under nitrate-dominant conditions (high N/S), the increase in sulfate mass with RH is  
285 more pronounced than that of nitrate (Fig. S6). That means under this regime, the efficient  
286 aqueous medium is likely more favorable for sulfate production (e.g., through multiphase  
287 oxidation of  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$ ) (Wang et al., 2016). This process likely introduces additional acidity  
288 to the particle phase and leads to a decrease in pH again. These results underscore the  
289 importance of multiphase chemical processes in influencing aerosol pH variation under  
290 different environmental regimes.



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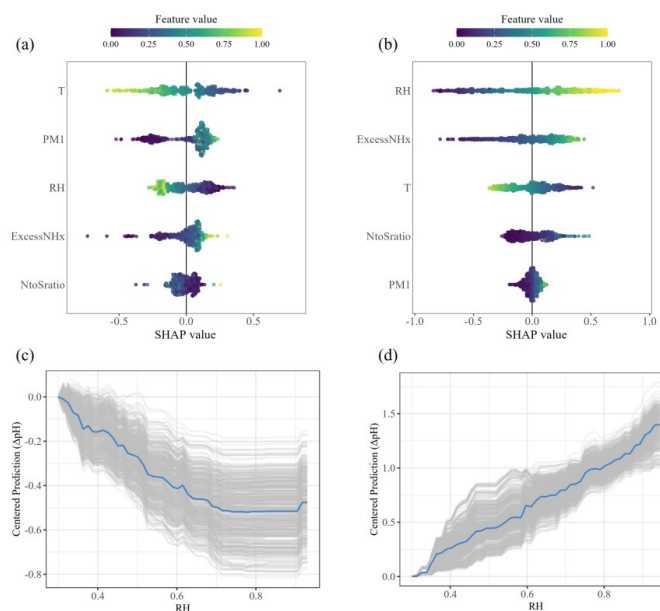
292 **Figure 5.** Variations of  $H_{\text{air}}^+$  ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), ALWC ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), and pH as a function of RH under  
 293 different environmental conditions: (a) N/S mass ratio  $< 1.25$ , (b) N/S mass ratio  $> 1.25$ ,  
 294 separated by the nitrate-to-sulfate mass ratio; (c)  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass loading  $< 50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , and (d)  $\text{PM}_{10}$   
 295 mass loading  $> 50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , separated by  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass loading levels.

### 296 3.3 Seasonal patterns of RH-associated variability in aerosol pH

297 The regime-dependent relationship between aerosol pH and RH identified by SHAP provides  
 298 a coherent framework for interpreting the seasonal patterns observed during our ammonia-rich  
 299 campaign. For example, RH generally showed negative contributions to pH in winter, whereas  
 300 in summer it exerted a positive association with pH and ranked as the largest contributor to pH  
 301 variability (Fig. 6). This seasonal reversal aligns with the RH–temperature/chemical  
 302 interactions discussed above. Low winter temperatures ( $< 10^\circ\text{C}$ ) place pH within regimes where  
 303 elevated RH is linked to higher aerosol acidity, whereas higher summer temperatures ( $12\text{--}40^\circ\text{C}$ )  
 304 shift pH into regimes where higher RH is associated with lower acidity (Fig. S7). In addition,  
 305 lower  $\text{PM}_{10}$  mass loadings in summer (with a peak frequency at  $\sim 30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) compared to winter  
 306 (with a peak frequency at  $\sim 90 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) align with the positive RH–pH relationship under low  
 307  $\text{PM}_{10}$  conditions and the negative relationship under high  $\text{PM}_{10}$  conditions discussed above (Fig.  
 308 S7). Such seasonally contrasting RH–pH associations also agree with thermodynamic  
 309 sensitivity analyses conducted by Ding et al. (2019), reinforcing the plausibility of the



310 interaction patterns identified here. Overall, these results highlight that RH-related pH  
 311 variability should be interpreted in conjunction with temperature and the prevailing chemical  
 312 buffering regime.



313  
 314 **Figure 6.** SHAP values showing the relative importance of input features for aerosol pH during  
 315 the winter (a) and summer (b) periods, illustrating their contributions to pH variability. c-ICE  
 316 curves (gray lines) and their averages (blue line) depicting the relationships between RH and  
 317 pH between winter (c) and summer (d).

318 **4. Conclusions and implications**

319 In this study, we provide a comprehensive, data-driven assessment of aerosol pH variability in  
 320 an ammonia-rich urban atmosphere by integrating machine learning, field observations, and  
 321 thermodynamic modeling. Our results indicate that aerosol pH is closely associated with both  
 322 meteorological conditions and chemical composition. Temperature shows a dominant negative  
 323 contribution, whereas excess ammonia, N/S ratio, and PM<sub>1</sub> mass loading are positively  
 324 associated with pH. The contribution of RH, however, is highly regime-dependent, with its  
 325 contribution reversing under different combinations of temperature, chemical composition, and



326 aerosol loading. By quantifying threshold boundaries, visualizing regime transitions, and  
327 resolving sample-level variability, the SHAP framework complements traditional  
328 thermodynamic analyses and provides quantitative insights into the conditions under which RH  
329 is linked to higher or lower aerosol pH.

330 The thresholds and interaction patterns identified here are based on observations at a single  
331 urban site in Beijing and may therefore reflect local meteorology and emission characteristics.  
332 Nevertheless, this approach provides a quantitative framework for understanding and predicting  
333 aerosol pH responses under evolving atmospheric environments. In China's increasingly  
334 ammonia-rich atmosphere, aerosol pH response generally falls within a flattened regime,  
335 exhibiting weak sensitivity to further increases in ammonia. Under such conditions,  
336 meteorological factors, together with particle properties such as total mass loading and the  
337 relative contributions of sulfate and nitrate, will jointly modulate aerosol acidity. Ongoing  
338 decreases in particle mass and the gradual shift from sulfate-dominated to nitrate-dominated  
339 composition in recent years are expected to substantially modify aerosol buffering properties.  
340 Additionally, distinct environment conditions not considered in this study, such as coastal  
341 regions influenced by sea salt (Wang et al., 2022; Xu et al., 2025) and dust-affected areas  
342 enriched in alkaline metals (Shi et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2020), may also exert important roles  
343 in pH variation. Extending this SHAP-based analytical framework to diverse atmospheric  
344 conditions will enable a more general characterization of pH regimes in ammonia-rich  
345 environments and improve predictive capability under a wide range of future scenarios.

346 **Data availability.** The data used in this study can be obtained from  
347 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.19585092> (Duan and Wang, 2026). It is also available from the  
348 corresponding author upon request.

349 **Author contributions.** RJH designed the study. JD and TW performed the data analysis and  
350 interpretation, with contributions from JYR, HBZ, and WX. JD, TW and RJH wrote the  
351 manuscript, and all authors contributed to scientific discussions and revision of the manuscript.

352 **Competing interests.** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.



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