

# **Captions:**

- **Text S1.** Detailed information of this observation site and instruments.
- 30 **Text S2.** The calibrations of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and uncertainty analysis.
- **Text S3.** The model configuration of machine learning.
- **Text S4.** The box model configuration.
- **Fig. S1** Measurement locations. (a) Location of Xiamen City in the southeast of China. (b) Location of the
- measurement site in Xiamen.
- 35 **Fig. S2** The dependences of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> sensitivity on relative humidity.
- **Fig. S3** Comparison of observed ClNO<sup>2</sup> concentrations and simulated concentrations of ClNO<sup>2</sup> by the
- XGBoost model.
- 38 **Fig. S4** RO<sub>x</sub> (OH + HO<sub>2</sub> + RO<sub>2</sub>) radicals production rates induced by ClNO<sub>2</sub> photolysis under the observation-
- 39 average conditions and the high  $CINO<sub>2</sub>$  case.
- **Fig. S5** Increased percentages of RO<sup>x</sup> (OH, HO2, RO2) radicals induced by ClNO<sup>2</sup> photolysis under the
- observation-average and case conditions.
- **Table S1.** Measurement techniques, time resolutions, and detection limit of observation instruments at our study site.
- **Table S2.** The observation data used in the box model under the observation-average conditions and the high
- 45 ClNO<sub>2</sub> case (Unit: ppb).
- **Table S3.** Summary of ClNO<sup>2</sup> peak concentrations at different types of sites in China and other countries (Unit: ppb).
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**Text S1.** Detailed information of this observation site and instruments.

 The observation site is on the top of the teaching building (over 70 meters) of Institute of Urban Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences in Xiamen, surrounded by school and residential buildings, Xinglin Bay, and several major transportation roads (Fig.S1). The observation site, called as the Atmospheric Observation Supersite, is equipped with complete measurement instruments to observe trace gases, aerosol compositions, and meteorological parameters. The continuous gas analyzers (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA) 59 were employed to measure O<sub>3</sub> (TEI 49*i*), CO (TEI 48*i*), SO<sub>2</sub> (TEI 43*i*), and NO<sub>x</sub> (TEI 42*i*). VOC species were detected by a gas chromatography system equipped with a mass spectrometer and flame ionization detector 61 (GC-MS/FID, TH-300B, Wuhan, China). PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentrations and its inorganic compositions (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>,  $SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>$ , NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>) were monitored using the tapered element oscillating microbalance (TEOM1405, Thermo Scientific Corp., MA, USA) and the Monitor for AeRosols and Gases in ambient Air (MARGA; ADI 2080, Applikon Analytical B.V., the Netherlands), respectively. The particle surface area concentrations (*S*a) were obtained from the ambient particle number size distribution detecting by the Scanning Mobility Particle Sizer (SMPS, TSI Inc.) and Aerodynamic Particle Size Spectrometer (APS). Meteorological factors, including air temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), atmospheric pressure (P), ultraviolet radiation (UV), wind speed (WS), and wind direction (WD) were measured by the weather station with a sonic anemometer (150WX, Airmar, USA). The data of boundary layer height (BLH) was gotten from the European Centre for Medium-70 Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) ERA5 hourly reanalysis dataset. Photolysis frequency (including  $J(O<sup>1</sup>D)$ , *J*(NO2), *J*(HCHO), *J*(HONO), *J*(NO3), and *J*(H2O2)) were detected by a photolysis spectrometer (PFS-100, Focused Photonics Inc., Hangzhou, China). The HCHO analyzer (FMS-100, Focused Photonics Inc., Hangzhou, China) was used to observe the concentrations of HCHO.

74 The concentrations of  $CINO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>$  were measured by an iodide-adduct Chemical Ionization- Atmospheric Pressure Interface-Long Time of Flight (Aerodyne Research Inc, USA and Tofwerk AG, Switzerland) mass spectrometer (I<sup>−</sup> -ToF-CIMS). The ambient air is drawn into the sampling chamber through a perfluoroalkoxy (PFA) pipeline, approximately 2 meters in length with an inner diameter of 1/4 inch, at a flow rate of 10 standard liters per minute (SLPM). Subsamples of approximately 2 SLPM are then introduced into the CIMS setting. Within this setup, methyl iodine gas (CH3I) emitted from the heated CH3I permeation tube (VICI) undergoes ionization as it passes through a soft X-ray ionization source (Tofwerk AG, P-type), 81 carried by an ultra-high purity nitrogen gas  $(N_2)$  flow at 99.999% purity and a rate of 2.7 SLPM. Reagent ions 82 (I<sup>-</sup> and I(H<sub>2</sub>O)<sup>-</sup>) selectively participate in the ion-molecule reaction (IMR) chamber with the target gas,

83 producing iodide clusters in the IMR chamber. These clusters are then quantified using the I-ToF-CIMS 84 instrument. The background signals of the CIMS instrument were determined by introducing dry  $N_2$  into the 85 inlet for a duration of 20 minutes. To prevent the buildup of particulate matter on the inlet tubing, we replaced 86 the tubing weekly and flushed it with deionized water, followed by a 20-minute stream of  $N_2$  for drying. 87 Additionally, to reduce interference from the sampling inlet, we utilized a pump with a flow rate of 10 SLPM 88 to draw the ambient sample.

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## 90 **Text S2. The calibrations of ClNO<sup>2</sup> and N2O<sup>5</sup> and uncertainty analysis.**

91 In our study, the calibrations of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were based on previous established methods (Thaler et 92 al., 2011; Wang et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2022). A nitrogen (N<sub>2</sub>) flow at a rate of 50 mL·min<sup>-1</sup>, containing 6 93 ppm of Cl<sub>2</sub>, was directed over a slurry composed of sodium nitrite (NaNO<sub>2</sub>) and sodium chloride (NaCl). This 94 slurry facilitated the production of ClNO<sub>2</sub>, with NaCl added to minimize NO<sub>2</sub> formation as a secondary 95 product. Subsequently, the resulting mixture containing ClNO<sub>2</sub> was conditioned to a specified RH and then 96 sampled using the CIMS instrument. To quantify the concentrations of  $CINO_2$ , the mixed flow was directly 97 fed into a cavity attenuated phase shift spectroscopy (CAPS) instrument to measure the baseline levels of NO<sub>2</sub>, 98 subsequently, it was passed through a thermal dissociation tube heated to 380 °C, causing ClNO<sub>2</sub> to decompose 99 into NO2, determined by the CAPS instrument. The differences in measured NO<sup>2</sup> concentrations between with 100 and without thermal dissociation corresponded to the concentrations of ClNO<sub>2</sub>. For the calibration of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, 101 O<sub>3</sub> was generated by passing approximately 30 sccm of ultrapure zero air through a mercury lamp (UVP). O<sub>3</sub> 102 then reacted with a 30 sccm flow rate of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  to produce  $NO<sub>3</sub>$ , which subsequently reacted with  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  to yield 103 a flow of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. This N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-enriched flow was utilized to calibrate the CIMS measurements of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>. By 104 adjusting the RH, a mixed flow containing stable  $N_2O_5$  was introduced into the CIMS instrument, allowing 105 for the acquisition of a normalized humidity-dependent curve for  $N_2O_5$ . Although the absolute concentrations 106 of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> source were not directly quantified due to the absence of an N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-specific detector, the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>-107 enriched flow was passed through a supersaturated NaCl solution assuming 100% conversion efficiency from  $108$  N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> to ClNO<sub>2</sub>. The dependences of CNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> sensitivity on RH are shown in Fig. S2, indicating that 109 the sensitivities of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> depended on the variations of RH values. The sensitivities of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and 110 N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> were  $0.055 \pm 0.018$  and  $0.11 \pm 0.063$  ncps·ppb<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. The detection limit (3*σ*) of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and 111  $N_2O_5$  was 1.3 and 0.61 ppt, respectively.

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#### **Text S3. The model configuration of machine learning.**

 The gradient boosted tree implemented from XGBoost was chosen as machine learning methods. It has been optimized to run in distributed computing environment and can handle a large amount of input data. Compared to neural networks, the results of gradient boosting tree models are more interpretable, enabling them to link the results with the recognizable chemical features. The XGBoost algorithm is a tree-based machine learning model known for its excellent performance in speed and accuracy. It can aggregate weak learners into a strong model, enhancing single generalization ability and robustness, thereby improving prediction accuracy.

122 In this study, ClNO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are as dependent variable, and trace gases  $(SO_2, CO, NO_2, NO, O_3, CO_4)$ 123 and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>), PM<sub>2.5</sub>, inorganic compositions (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>), and meteorological parameters (T, RH, UV, WS, WD, and BLH) are as the argument. In the XGBoost model, 70% of the observed data are used as the training set, and the rest 30% data are used as the testing set. Five cross-validation is employed to adjust hyperparameters to stabilize the predictive ability of the model. The adjusted hyperparameters include 127 maximum depth, learning rate, gamma, minimum child weight, and estimate.  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , mean square error (MSE), and root mean square error (RMSE) are used to assess the model performance. The Shapely additive explanations (SHAP) model is an interpreter package designed to investigate the contributions of each feature to the model predictions. Its approach involves an additive explanatory model which treats all features as contributors, a concept inspired by cooperative game theory. For each predicted sample, the SHAP model provides a Shapley value, which is the sum of the values assigned to each feature.

### **Text S4. The box model configuration and output.**

 The observation-based model (OBM) coupled with the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) version 136 3.3.1 was utilized to assess the impacts of ClNO<sub>2</sub> on photochemically atmospheric oxidation. As delineated in earlier studies (Xue et al., 2015; Tham et al., 2016; Xia et al., 2021; Peng et al., 2021; Peng et al., 2022), established chlorine chemistry mechanisms have been integrated. The impacts of dilution mixing were included for all species by introducing a dilution factor, defined as a function of the variation of the planetary 140 boundary layer (PBL) height. In our study, ClNO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>, VOCs, HCHO, HONO, CO, O<sub>3</sub>, NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, along with meteorological factors as observation constrained were input into the box model at an hourly resolution. We performed the OBM for 5 days to initialize the unconstrained compounds and radicals before 143 starting the simulation. We focused on elucidating the influence of ClNO<sub>2</sub> photolysis on the formation of  $RO_x$ 144 radicals and O<sub>3</sub>, the AOC. Generally, the reactions of  $HO_2 + NO$  and  $RO_2 + NO$  are the major O<sub>3</sub> production 145 pathways (Eq.1), and the O<sub>3</sub> loss pathways (Eq.2) include  $NO_2 + OH/RO_2$ , O<sub>3</sub> photolysis,  $O_3 + OH/HO_2$ 146 radicals,  $O_3/NO_3$ + VOCs. The  $O_3$  production rate minus the  $O_3$  loss rate was used to calculate the net  $O_3$ 147 production rate (Eq.3).

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P(O_3) = k_1[HO_2][NO] + \sum (k_2[RO_2][NO])
$$
 (1)

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149 \qquad L(O_3) = k_3 [O_1 D][H_2 O] + k_4 [O_3][OH] + k_5 [O_3][HO_2] + k_6 [NO_2][OH] + \sum (k_7 [O_3][VOCs]) +
$$

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$$
2\sum (k_8[NO_3][VOCs])
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 (2)  
151  $P_{net}(O_3) = P(O_3) - L(O_3)$  (3)

152 Where, *k<sup>i</sup>* stands for the rate constant.

153 The AOC is calculated by the sum of the rates of CH<sub>4</sub>, CO, and VOCs oxidized by atmospheric oxidants 154 (O3, OH, Cl, and NO<sup>3</sup> radicals) (Xue et al., 2015; Yi et al., 2023), used by Eq. (4).

$$
AOC = \sum_{i} k_{Y_i} [Y_i][X] \tag{4}
$$

156 Where,  $[Y_i]$  is the concentrations of reduced species (VOCs, CO, and CH<sub>4</sub>),  $[X]$  is the concentrations of

157 oxidants (O<sub>3</sub>, OH, Cl, and NO<sub>3</sub> radicals), and  $k_{Yi}$  represents the reaction rate constant of  $Y_i$  and X.



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- **Fig. S1** Measurement locations. (a) Xiamen City in the southeast of China. (b) Location of the measurement

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site in Xiamen. (The topographic image is provided by © Google Earth.)



167 **Fig. S2** The dependences of ClNO<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> sensitivity on relative humidity.

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201 **Fig. S4**  $RO_x(OH + HO_2 + RO_2)$  radicals production rates induced by ClNO<sub>2</sub> photolysis under the observation-

202 average conditions and the high  $CINO<sub>2</sub>$  case.

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**Fig. S5** Increased percentages of RO<sup>x</sup> (OH, HO2, RO2) radicals induced by ClNO<sup>2</sup> photolysis under the

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<sup>206</sup> observation-average conditions and the high  $CINO_2$  case.

217 **Table S1.** Measurement techniques, time resolutions, and detection limit of observation instruments at our

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234 ClNO<sup>2</sup> case (Unit: ppb).

Parameters	Average	Case	Parameters	Average	Case
T(K)	296.77	295.63	M2HEX	0.04	0.04
$RH$ $(\% )$	65.98	88.48	M3HEX	0.06	0.08
SO <sub>2</sub>	1.93	2.34	<b>NC7H16</b>	0.06	0.06
NO <sub>2</sub>	12.94	26.38	<b>TOLUENE</b>	1.12	1.73
NO	3.19	5.85	NC8H18	0.02	0.02
CO	461.59	769.56	<b>PXYL</b>	0.40	0.73
O <sub>3</sub>	31.07	11.43	<b>EBENZ</b>	0.19	0.42
C2H4	0.89	1.41	NC9H20	0.01	0.02
C2H2	0.78	1.53	<b>STYRENE</b>	0.04	0.09
C2H6	2.01	2.64	<b>OXYL</b>	0.11	0.20
C3H6	0.24	0.23	<b>TM124B</b>	0.02	0.03
C3H8	1.90	3.28	<b>TM123B</b>	0.01	0.01
IC4H10	0.74	1.30	<b>NC11H24</b>	0.01	0.01
<b>BUT1ENE</b>	0.05	0.06	<b>NC12H26</b>	0.02	0.03
NC4H10	1.07	1.97	<b>HCHO</b>	2.50	3.92
<b>CBUT2ENE</b>	0.02	0.03	<b>ACR</b>	0.06	0.06
TBUT2ENE	0.02	0.03	CH3COCH3	1.98	2.26
IC5H12	0.61	1.46	<b>MEK</b>	0.47	0.52
<b>NC5H12</b>	0.27	0.50	CH3CL	0.39	0.33
C5H8	0.02	0.02	C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	0.01	0.02
M22C4	0.02	0.02	<b>IPROPOL</b>	0.17	0.11
M23C4	0.05	0.06	<b>MTBE</b>	0.10	0.19
M2PE	0.05	0.08	<b>ETHACET</b>	1.26	2.14
M3PE	0.08	0.13	$JNO2(s-1)$	0.002106	0.000981
<b>HEX1ENE</b>	0.00	0.00	CINO <sub>2</sub>	0.17	0.96
NC6H14	0.09	0.15	$N_2O_5$	0.02	0.01
<b>BENZENE</b>	0.18	0.32	Cl <sub>2</sub>	0.01	0.05
<b>CHEX</b>	$0.02\,$	0.02	<b>HONO</b>	0.48	0.77

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240 Table S3. Summary of ClNO<sub>2</sub> peak concentrations at different types of sites in China and other countries (Unit:

241 ppb).



242 The references as follows:1 (Tham et al., 2016), 2 (Ma et al., 2023), 3 (Wang et al., 2017a), 4 (Wang et al.,

243 2017b), 5 (Li et al., 2023), 6 (Xia et al., 2020), 7 (Yun et al., 2018), 8 (Niu et al., 2022), 9 (Wang et al., 2016),

244 10 (Jeong et al., 2019), 11 (Phillips et al., 2012), 12 (Bannan et al., 2015), 13 (Thornton et al., 2010), 14

245 (Osthoff et al., 2008), 15 (Riedel et al., 2012), 16 (Mielke et al., 2011).

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