1 Characteristics of aerosol pollution during heavy haze events

2 in Suzhou, China

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Abstract

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17 A comprehensive measurement was carried out to analyze the heavy haze events in Suzhou in January 2013 when eExtremely severe haze weather eventspollution 18 occurred in many cities in China, especially in the Eeast part of the country, in 19 January 2013. Comprehensive measurements including Hhourly concentrations of 20 PM_{2.57} and its major chemical components (including water-soluble inorganic 21 ions, OC, and EC), and related gas-phase precursors were obtained conducted via 22 on-line monitoring system in Suzhou, a medium size city of Jiangsu province, just 23 east of Shanghai. Based on these data, detailed aerosol composition, light extinction 24 25 and gas-phase precursors were analyzed to understand the characteristics of the haze events, moreover, the formation mechanism of nitrate and sulfate in PM2.5 and the 26 regional sources deduced from trajectory and PSCF were discussed to explore the 27 origin of the heavy aerosol pollution. The results showed that frequent haze events 28 were occurred on Jan. 2013 and the concentrations of PM_{2.5} frequently often exceeded 29 150 µg m⁻³ on hazy daysduring the haze occurrence, with thea maximum 30 reachingeoncentration of 324 µg m⁻³ on Jan. 14, 2013. Unfavorable weather 31 conditions (high RH, and low rainfall, wind speed and atmospheric pressure) were 32 33 conducive for the haze formation. High concentrations of secondary aerosol species (including SO₄²⁻, NO₃-, NH₄+, and SOC) and gaseous precursors were observed during 34 the first two haze events, while elevated primary carbonaceous species emissions 35 were found during the third haze period, pointing to different haze formation 36 37 mechanisms. Additionally, OM, (NH₄)₂SO₄, NH₄NO₃ were demonstrated found to be the major contributors to the visibility impairment but the share differed from haze 38 events. This study also found that the hHigh concentrations of sulfate and nitrate 39 might be explained by the homogeneous gas-phase reactions under low RH conditions 40 and by heterogeneous processes under relatively high RH conditions. heterogeneous 41 reactions in the aqueous surface layer of pre-existing particles or in cloud processes 42 while nitrate might be mainly formed through homogeneous gas phase reactions. The 43 44 results of Analysis of air mass trajectory clustering and potential source contribution functionthe PSCF method manifested that aerosol pollutions in the studied areas were 45

mainly <u>caused</u> by local activities and surrounding sources transported from nearby cities.

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1. Introduction

High occurrence of hHaze events (is defined as visibility lower than 10 km whenunder the conditions of relative humidity < 80%.) Rapidly increased air pollution in China in the past several decades have resulted in frequent occurrences of haze events, which have caused is of great concern to the scientific community as well asboth scientists and the public (Zhang et al., 2012). in China in recent years because of itsHaze events have great adverse effects on the people'shuman health, traffic, climate, and other important aspects (Zhang et al., 2015; Charlson et al., 1987; Ramanathan and Vogelmann, 1997; Tegen et al., 2000; Yu et al., 2002; Tie et al., 2009a; Tie et al., 2009b). Fine particles (PM2.5, aerosols with an aerodynamic diameter of 2.5 microns or less) are has a largely responsible for haze formation due to their ability in impact on visibility by light extinction including scattering and absorbing solar and infrared radiation_and is mainly responsible for the formation of haze(Yu et al., 2014). The Light extinction of PM_{2.5} is highly associated with itsthe chemical compositions (Tao et al., 2014). Water-soluble inorganic ions and carbonaceous species often account for major fractions of PM2.5 and are important contributors to visibility impairment (Tan et al., 2009; Pathak et al., 2009), and thus have been. Therefore, these species were emphatically investigated extensively in researches related to haze occurrence (Yang et al., 2005; Jansen et al., 2014; Pathak et al., 2009). However, mMost of these existing studies were based on artificial filter sampling and off-line analysis and hadwhich has its limitations of in providing detailed insight into the roles of the major chemicalthese species played during shorter haze periods.

High contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols (SIA, including sulfate, nitrate and ammonium), the predominant water-soluble ionic species in PM_{2.5}, to visibility reduction have been observed in many cities in China (Huang et al., 2014).

Gas-phase or liquid-phase reactions of sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides areis the primary mechanisms formingsource of aerosol sulfate and nitrate. For the formation of sulfate, homogeneous gas phase reaction of SO2 with OH radical, and heterogeneous reactions in the aqueous surface layer of pre-existing particles, and in-cloud processes are the primary mechanisms (Wang et al., 2006). The rates of gas-phase and liquid-phase reactions of SO₂ were elose-similar in summer while the heterogeneous processes were responsible for the oxidation in winter (Hewitt, 2001). Nitric acid can be formed from homogeneous gas-phase reactions of NO₂ with OH or O₃ and from heterogeneous hydrolysis of N₂O₅, which occurred predominantly during daytime and nighttime, respectively (Khoder, 2002). Both sulfuric acid and nitric acid will-react with alkaline substance in the atmosphere, mostly ammonia under ambient conditions to produce salts (Hewitt, 2001). The neutralization of sulfuric acid by ammonia has been found to be preferred over the formation of ammonium nitrate (Warneck, 1999). Thus, the formation of ammonium nitrate in fine particles is usually under significantly neutralized or ammonium-rich sulfate conditions (Pathak et al., 2009). There are various factors influenceing the formation of aerosol sulfate and nitrate, such as the levels of gaseous precursors (SO₂, NH₃, NO_X) and oxidants, the characteristics of pre-existing aerosols, and meteorological conditions. These factors may vary by location, this may resulting in different formation mechanism in different areas. For instance, different formation pathways had been reported for nitrate in ammonia-rich and ammonia-deficient areas (Pathak et al., 2009).

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Due to the rapid economic and industrial developments and urbanization in past few decades, the visibility reduction become increasingly serious in China, especially in the East (Zhang et al., 2012). In January 2013, extremely severe, persistent and widespread haze weather occurred in 10 provinces, regions and cities in central and eastern China. These serious pollution events not only hadve great adverse effects on human health, as seen incaused a sharp increase in respiratory diseases, but also caused immeasurable economic loss (Huang et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2013). High secondary inorganic and organic aerosol contributions to particulate pollution during

these haze events were reported in <u>a</u> recent study based on the measurements at urban sites in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and Xi'an, which located in the northern, eastern, southern and western regions of China, respectively (Huang et al., 2014). This result indicated that iIn addition to <u>investigating investigate the</u> primary particulate emissions, it's also important to explore the formation mechanisms and effect factors of these secondary species and related affecting factors also need to be understood in order to controlling PM_{2.5} levels in China.

The Yangtze River Delta (YRD), together with the Pearl River Delta, Beijing-Tianjin-Tangshan, and the Sichuan Basin are of most interesting as they are the four regions with heaviest haze influenceregions in China. The characteristics and formation mechanisms of haze in the YRD are different from other haze regions, such as Beijing and the Pearl River Delta (Fu et al., 2008). Suzhou is located in the heartland of YRD region and is an important city in the YRD. Suzhoult suffered from the extremely serious aerosol pollution in Jan. 2013. With the tremendous economic growth over the past 30 years, Suzhou has experienceds high levels of air pollution as reflected in the frequency of haze occurrence. The annually haze days in Suzhou increased from only two days to more than 150 days from 1956 to 2011, i.e. over 40% of days awere hazy in 2011. The lower visibility, particularly the haze, has become a major concern of the city. he wever, only a few studies researches have focused onbeen carried out to study the haze events in Suzhou and. Little is known about the chemical characteristics and sources of fine particles in this citySuzhou. To fill these knowledge gaps Therefore, an intensified monitoring campaign was launched from December 2012 to January 2013 to collectget insight into the haze occurrence in urban Suzhou. On the basis of high temporal resolution chemical and measurements combined with meteorological data. The objectives of this study are to (1) identify the dominant species in PM_{2.5} and responsible for the visibility reduction; (2) explore the formation mechanism of the aerosol pollution; (3) study the impact of local, <u>nearby</u> and <u>remotetransport</u> sources on the formation of haze in urban Suzhou.

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2. Methodology

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2.1 Field observations

135 The sampling station was set up at the roof of onethe building in Suzhou Institute of Environmental Sciences (31°20'N, 120°36'E) (Fig. 1), about 300 m west to Nanyuan 136 South Road and 360 m north to S Ring Road Elevated Bridge. There is no industrial 137 138 source nearby and theis site is representative of an urban residential and commercial environment area. Suzhou is located in the center of Yangtze River Delta (YRD) and 139 about 80 km east ofto Shanghai and 200 km west ofto Nanjing. 140 141 On-line hourly PM_{2.5} mass concentrations, ionic species and OC/EC were measured by tapered element oscillating microbalance (TOEM), URG 9000 Ion 142 Chromatography, Sunset semi-continuous OC/EC analyzer, respectively. On-line 143 144 hourly PM_{2.5} mass concentrations were measured using tapered element oscillating microbalance (TEOM1405, Thermo Scientific Corp., MA, US) with the heating 145 temperature of 50 °C. Some of the volatile particulate matter might be lost at 50 °C, 146 but comparisons with collocated filters showed that the loss was less than 10%-20% 147 148 of the gravimetric mass (Chow et al., 2008). Hourly real-time concentrations of five cations (Na⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, Ca²⁺, and Mg²⁺) 149 and four anions (F⁻, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, and SO₄²⁻) in PM_{2.5} were determined by URG Series 150 9000 Ambient Ion Monitor (AIM, URG Corporation, Chapel Hill, NC). The system 151 consists of a particle collection unit and two ion chromatograph analyzers for cation 152 and anion analyses. PM2.5 was separated by a sharp-cut cyclone inlet operating at a 153 154 flow rate of 3 L/min. The air was drawn through a liquid diffusion parallel-plate denuder to remove the interfering acidic and basic gases. A Steam-Jet Aerosol 155 Collector was placed downstream of the denuder for collection and extraction of 156 157 particles. The water extract was subsequently injected into the two ICs once an hour. 158 The estimated uncertainties of the AIM measurements were approximately less than 15% (Trebs et al., 2004; Pathak et al., 2011). Some measures were taken out to reduce 159

error, for instance, standards solutions were periodically injected to check the

consistency of sensitivity of the detectors and air flow rate is frequently checked using a calibrated flow meter.

A semi-continuous OC/EC analyzer (Sunset Laboratory, Forest Grove, Oregon, USA) was applied to determine the carbonaceous species in PM_{2.5}. This instrument used the thermal-optical transmittance method based on NIOSH Method 5040. Organic compounds were vaporized in pure helium and then oxidized to CO₂ in a manganese dioxide oxidizing oven. CO₂ was then quantified by non-dispersive infrared detector. EC was then desorbed in an oxygen blend carrier gas and then oxidized and quantified using the same method as for OC. The split point between the pyrolized carbon formed from the organic carbon during the heating and EC that was originally in the sample was determined by measuring the transmission of a laser beam through the filter. Known volume of methane was injected, oxidized and quantified as an internal standard. Good correlations were found between the data measured by this instrument and filter-based laboratory analyses (Bae et al., 2004).

Visibility was monitored <u>using</u> the Belfort Model 6000 Visibility Sensor (Belfort Instrument Corp., MD, US). Trace O₃, SO₂, NO-NO₂-NO_x and CO gases were obtained with a resolution of 1 h by applying online analyzers (Thermo Instruments, TEI 49i, 43i, 42i and 48i, respectively) (Wang, 2016 #343). Meteorological parameters were collected using Met Station One (Met One Corp., OR, US).

2.2 Data analysis methods

2.2.1 Reconstruction of the light extinction coefficient

The light extinction (b_{ext}) which is the sum of light scattering by particle ($b_{s,p}$), absorption by particle ($b_{a,p}$), scattering by gas ($b_{s,g}$), and absorption by gas ($b_{a,g}$), is reconstructed according to the revised IMPROVE algorithm as following (Pitchford et al., 2007):

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$$b_{\text{ext}} = b_{\text{s,p}} + b_{\text{a,p}} + b_{\text{a,g}} + b_{\text{s,g}}$$

 $\approx 2.2 \times f_{S}(RH) \times [Small (NH_4)_2SO_4] + 4.8 \times f_{L}(RH) \times [Large (NH_4)_2SO_4]$

+ 2.4 × $f_S(RH)$ × [Small NH₄NO₃] + 5.1 × $f_L(RH)$ × [Large NH₄NO₃]

 $+2.8 \times [Small OM] + 6.1 \times [Large OM]$

191 + 1 × [Fine Soil] + 1.7 × $f_{SS}(RH)$ × [Sea Salt]

 $+0.6 \times [Coarse Mass] + 10 \times [EC Mass]$

+
$$0.33 \times [NO_2 \text{ (ppb)}]$$
 + Rayleigh Scattering (1)

where *f*s(RH) and *f*L(RH) are the water growth factors for small- and large-sized distribution of sulfate and nitrate, respectively, and *f*ss(RH) is the water growth factor for sea salt. Water growth factors are adopted according to PitchfordIsakov et al. (Pitchford et al., 2007)(Isakov et al., 2007). The constant numbers in the above equation are extinction efficiencies for each chemical species under dry condition. (NH₄)₂SO₄ mass is estimated as 1.38 times of by the SO₄²- mass multiplied by a factor of 1.38, and the NH₄NO₃ mass is estimated by the 1.29 times of NO₃- mass multiplied by a factor of 1.29 based on the assuming ption that SO₄²- and NO₃- are fully neutralized by NH₄+ in the forms of (NH₄)₂SO₄ and NH₄NO₃, respectively, according to the revised IMPROVE method. Organic matter (OM) is estimated as 1.8 times of derived from multiplying OC concentrations by a factor of 1.8 to account for unmeasured fractionsatoms.

The concentrations of sulfate, nitrate, and OM are divided into small- and large-sized fractions in this algorithm. The size modes are described by log-normal mass size distributions with geometric mean diameter and geometric standard deviations. Concentrations of sulfate, nitrate, and OM in the large- and small-mode are estimated by using the following equations (taking sulfate as an example):

211 [Large (NH₄)₂SO₄] = [Total (NH₄)₂SO₄]²/20, for [Total (NH₄)₂SO₄]
$$< 20 \mu g m^{-3}$$
 (2)

212 [Large (NH₄)₂SO₄] = [Total (NH₄)₂SO₄], for [Total (NH₄)₂SO₄] > 20
$$\mu$$
g m⁻³ (3)

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$$[Small (NH_4)_2SO_4] = [Total (NH_4)_2SO_4] - [Large (NH_4)_2SO_4]$$
 (4)

2.2.2 Air mass back trajectory

To study the impact of local and regional sources on the aerosol pollution in Suzhou, the 48_h back trajectories starting at 100 m from the sampling site were calculated by using the NOAA HYSPLIT model (http://ready.arl.noaa.gov/HYSPLIT_traj.php). The back trajectories were calculated four times per day at starting times of 04:00, 10:00, 16:00, and 22:00 UTC, i.e. 12:00, 18:00, 00:00, and 06:00 local times, respectively. The trajectory cluster analysis was based on the GIS-based software TrajStat (Wang et al., 2009).

2.2.3 Potential source contribution function

The potential source contribution function (PSCF) method is based on the results of HYSPLIT model and can be used to identify the regional sources. The zone of concern is divided into $i \times j$ small equal grid cells. The PSCF value for the ijth grid cell is calculated as: PSCF $ij = m_{ij}/n_{ij}$, where n_{ij} is designated as the number of trajectory segment endpoints that fall in the ijth cell and m_{ij} is defined as the number of trajectory endpoints with pollutants concentrations higher than an set criterion (Ashbaugh et al., 1985; Wang et al., 2009). In present study, the average concentrations were treated as the criterion (Hsu et al., 2003). The PSCF values were multiplied by a weighting function W_{ij} to reduce the effect of small values of n_{ij} and to better reflect the uncertainty in the values for the cells with small n_{ij} values. The weighting function W_{ij} is defined as follows (Polissar et al., 1999):

$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1.00, & 80 < n_{ij} \\ 0.70, & 20 < n_{ij} \le 80 \\ 0.42, & 10 < n_{ij} \le 20 \\ 0.05, & n_{ij} \le 10 \end{cases}$$

The PSCF value can be interpreted as the conditional probability that the air masses with pollutants concentration greater than the set criterion pass through the *ij*th

cell during transport to the receptor site (Wang et al., 2009). That is, cells with high PSCF values are indicative of regions havinge high potential contributions to the pollution at the receptor site.

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3. Results and discussion

3.1 General characteristics of haze events

As illustrated in Fig. 2, the visibility varied from a few hundred meters to more than 246 50 km with a minimum value of only 322 m on Jan. 15, 2013, which was 247 248 accompanied by high RH (82%). During the 2-month observation period, there were a totally of ten periods when visibility was below 10 km. Excludingept for the five 249 periods which were accompanied by precipitation, the other five periods were 250 identified as haze events were identified and all of these events occurred in January 251 2013. During the haze occurrence, the hourly concentrations of PM_{2.5} often exceeded 252 150 µg m⁻³, with a maximum concentration of 324 µg m⁻³ observed on Jan. 14, 2013. 253 These concentrations were generally higher than those in normal periods. The daily 254 concentrations of PM_{2.5} on haze days varied from 148 to 196 µg m⁻³, which were 1.97 255 to 2.61 times the Grade II criteria of the national ambient air quality standard (75 µg 256 m⁻³). These values were as comparable to that observed the PM_{2.5} concentrations in 257 Nanjing where the with average PM_{2.5} value of was 175.6 µg m⁻³-, but slightly little 258 higher than those in some other cities in YRD where with the mean values were 259 generally lower than 147.3 µg m⁻³ when haze occurred in Jan. 2013 (Wang et al., 260 261 2014a; Wang et al., 2014d). The aerosol pollution happened in northeast China such 262 as <u>in</u> Beijing, Tianjin, and Shijiazhuang were much severer, for instance, the daily and hourly concentrations of PM_{2.5} were up to 368 µg m⁻³ and 462 µg m⁻³ in Tianjin in 263 264 January 9 to 13, 2013, and; the hourly maximum hourly values of approximately 1000 μg m⁻³ wasere recorded in Beijing and Shijiazhuang in Jan. 2013 (Ji et al., 2014; Han 265 et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2015). 266

The duration of haze events comprised a Approximately 40% of the time in whole

January 2013 met haze weather criteria, whereas no haze appeared in December 2012. Less Low amount of rainfall in the January might be one of the factors causinges the long duration of haze. The rRelative humidity (RH) was reported to be an important contributor to the visibility reduction. In the present study, the RH increased with the reduction of visibility decreased with increasing RH, e.g. when RH increased from 42% to 78%, the visibility decreased from 42 km at 2:00 p.m. on 17 January to 4 km at 7:00 a.m. on 19 January. Statistically, the RH was relatively higher during haze occurrence than clear periods. Low wind speed, smaller than 5 m s⁻¹, wasere frequently observed during this winter. Furthermore, the wind speeds wasere mostly less than 1 m s⁻¹ during the haze events, lower than those in Beijing (Yang et al., 2015). Besides, atmospheric pressure was also found to be relatively low during the haze occurrences. The stagnant air, due to low wind speed and pressure, was unfavorable for the aerosol horizontal transport or vertical diffusion of aerosols, and therefore resulted inleading to the increase of aerosol accumulation concentration. Therefore, unfavorable weather conditions (high RH, and low rainfall, wind speed and atmospheric pressure) were among the causes might provide external caused beneficially for the formingation of haze in January 2013 in Suzhou as well as in many other cities (Wang et al., 2014b; Wang et al., 2014c; Wang et al., 2014d; Han et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015).

In order to get more insights of the haze formation in this region, three haze events, which occurred on Jan. 19, from Jan. 21 to 26, and on Jan. 30, respectively, were further discussed below. Generally, the meteorological parameters and aerosol pollution level were comparable during these three haze occurrences, except for the relatively lower RH and higher temperature in the third haze events.—

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3.2 PM_{2.5} chemical composition and light extinction

3.2.1 PM_{2.5} chemical composition

The temporal variations of the concentrations of water-soluble inorganic ions (WSIIs) weare illustrated in Fig. 3. The mean concentration of WSIIs (including four anions and five cations) was $48.8 \pm 24.6 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$, accounting for 40% of PM_{2.5} mass concentration, slightlylittle lower than that in Beijing which was $69.4 \pm 55.8 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ and accounted for 43% of PM_{2.5} (Tao et al., 2015). SO₄²⁻ was the most abundant species in WSIIs, with averaged value of $21.1 \pm 13.5 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$, followed by NH₄⁺ (13.9 $\pm 5.69 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) and NO₃⁻ (10.7 $\pm 6.75 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$), accounting for 43%, 29% and 21% of WSIIs, respectively. These secondary inorganic components in totally constitute 93% of total WSIIs₂ close to the result in Beijing (Gao et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2015). The rest of ions, Na⁺ (1.36 $\pm 0.43 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$), K⁺ (0.85 $\pm 0.45 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$), Cl⁻ (0.54 $\pm 1.28 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$), Ca²⁺ (0.34 $\pm 0.27 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$), F⁻ (0.06 $\pm 0.72 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$), Mg²⁺ (0.05 $\pm 0.07 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$), each had minor contribution (< 3%) to WSIIs.

NO₃⁻ and SO₄²- are mainly formed from the transformation of their respective gaseous precursors of NO_x and SO₂ (Wang et al., 2005). The emission ratio of NO_x to SO₂ was 17.2–52.6 for motor vehicles and 0.527–0.804 for stationary sources in the Yangtze River Delta, which means that the emissions of SO₂ from motor vehicles were much less than NO_x, but the emissions of SO₂ from stationary sources such as power plants, industrial boilers and furnaces were relatively higher than NO_x (Fu et al., 2008). Thus, the mass ratio of NO₃⁻/SO₄²⁻ could be used as an indicator of the relative importance of mobile and stationary sources of sulfur and nitrogen in the atmosphere (Arimoto et al., 1996). In the present study, the averaged ratios of NO₃⁻/SO₄²⁻ and NO_x/SO₂ were 0.59 and 5.68, respectively, indicating that emissions from vehicles and stationary sources were both important in Suzhou. The ratios of NO₃⁻/SO₄²⁻ in this study wasere lower than that the ratio in Beijing, but higher than those reported in Shanghai (0.43), Qingdao (0.35), Taiwan (0.20), and Guiyang (0.13) (Wang et al., 2006; Yao et al., 2002; Hu et al., 2002a; Fang et al., 2002; Xiao and Liu, 2004).

The NO₃-/SO₄²⁻ ratio was relatively higher for 20% worst visibility hours (0.58) than 20% best visibility hours (0.54), which were 0.58 and 0.54, respectively,

suggesting that vehicle emission might play an important role in haze pollution. This was in agreement with the result in Guangzhou, where the NO₃-/SO₄²- ratio was 1.02 under stagnation and 0.55 in normal days, but contrary to that in Beijing, where the ratio in haze days (0.6489) was lower than in normal days (0.9683) (Tan et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2006). In present study, NO_X concentration greatly exceeded that of SO₂ during haze period, coincided with the result in Guangzhou, but disagreed with that in Beijing (Tan et al., 2009). Previous studies have indicated that high NOx emission may reduce the formation of OH and H₂O₂, and further decrease the possibility of SO₄²- formation (Tan et al., 2009). Thus, the elevation of NO₃- concentration under worse visibility conditions was greater than that of SO₄²⁻ in both Suzhou and Guangzhou. Besides of lower NO₃⁻/SO₄²-ratio, Wang et al. also found lower NO₂/SO₂ ratio and lower ratio of (NO₃-/SO₄²) to (NO₂/SO₂) in haze days than that in clear days in Beijing, and summarized that the formation rate of nitrate might not be the controlling factor for the nitrate concentrations in PM2.5 (Wang et al., 2006). The low NO₃-/SO₄²- ratios found in haze days in Beijing was considered to be related to the thermodynamic characteristic of NH4NO3 (Wang et al., 2006). The ratios of NOx/SO2 in present study were 6.89 for 20% worst visibility period higher than 4.30 for 20% best visibility period. The ratios of (NO₃-/SO₄²-) to (NO_x/SO₂) were also lower for worse visibility period in present study, in accordance with that in Beijing, suggesting showing that the nitrate concentrations may be also greatly affected by the re-volatilization of NH₄NO₃ (Tan et al., 2009) as those in Beijing.

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The carbonaceous species, constituting 22% of PM_{2.5}, were dominated by organic carbons, which wasere $22.8 \pm 10.6 \,\mu g$ m⁻³ and 3 to 29 times of that of elemental carbon ($2.79 \pm 2.58 \,\mu g$ m⁻³), similar to those in Beijing (Tao et al., 2015). The relatively high ratios of OC/EC (10.6 ± 4.29), which were higher than the ratios in Beijing (7.1 ± 0.5) and Jinan (7.15 ± 1.78), demonstrated the existence of secondary organic carbon (SOC) (Ji et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2014). The concentrations of SOC were estimated by applying the EC tracer method, which has been widely used to estimate the secondary organic aerosol contribution to PM_{2.5}

concentrations (Castro et al., 1999; Yang et al., 2005). The minimum ratio of OC/EC was 3.09 in the present study. So tThe estimated concentrations of SOC wasere 14.2 ± 5.69 µg m⁻³, contributing 65% on average to OC. The ratios of SOC/OC wasere higher than 0.5 during almost the whole sampling periodtime except onfor the periods around Jan. 30, when the third haze event occurred. This ratio was higher than most of the results found in other areas such as in Beijing and Guangzhou (Yang et al., 2005; Tan et al., 2009).

Overall, according to the percentage of each species in PM_{2.5}-mass, the mMajor components in PM_{2.5} were found to be SO₄²⁻ (17%), SOC (14%), NH₄⁺ (12%), NO₅⁻ (8%), and POC (6%) with total percentage of 57%. It is noted that tThe topfirst four components were mainly from secondary sources. In addition, the concentrations of PM_{2.5} wasere significantly correlated with these secondary species, revealing that gas to particle conversion during winter in this region was severe in winter and had great impact on aerosol pollution in this region. It's worth noting that the aerosol composition in the third haze event was distinct from the other two (Fig. 3) as seen from the higher proportion of carbon species from primary emissions (POC and EC) and lower fraction of secondary formation components (SIA and SOC), indicating different haze formation mechanism in the third haze event.

3.2.2 Variations of aerosol particles and precursors

Fig. 4 diagrammed the diurnal variation of meteorological parameters, various aerosol components and, the precursors and some other important gaseous species under three different visibility conditions (i.e., (1) all data, (2) visibility ≤ 10 km, (3) visibility > 10 km). The daily variation of gas phase compounds were different between species and were mainly controlled by the direct surface emissions (such as NOx, SO₂, and CO) or photochemical process (O₃). There were a distinct AM morning peak and a less distinct afternoonPM peak, consistent with morning and afternoonPM rush hours for NOx-and CO. This might related to the heavy traffic emission in the rush hours

and the strong elevation of the Planetary Boundary Layer heights at noon. In contrast, there was only one mid day peak for SO₂. This diurnal profiles were similar to those observed in Guangzhou (Hu et al., 2002b) and Maryland (Antony Chen et al., 2001). In the latter study, the dominant source of SO₂ was considered to be the long range transport from the industrialized Midwest and with the deep boundary layer around noon, SO₂ aloft mixed more effectively down to the surface and thus caused the mid-day peak of SO₂. The reasons for the diurnal variation of SO₂ observed in present study need further investigation. Similar to the diurnal distribution of SO₂, O₂-also showed one distinct peak around noon due to the strong photochemistry at that time (Quan et al., 2014).

For the aerosol components, EC which was also produced by the surface emissions showed similar profile to NO_x and CO. Furthermore, EC had significantly positive correlation with NO_x and CO, demonstrating that they had common sources, mainly from vehicular exhaust. However, tThe diurnal profiles of the secondary species were similar to their precursors but obviously affected by O₃ concentrations other factors such as solar radiation, which could promote the oxidation of the precursors, as these species were mainly produced by chemical processes. For instance, there was a 2-hour delay for sulfate to reach its peak compared to SO₂ due to the transformation. This pattern was also observed in Guangzhou (Hu et al., 2002b). NO₃-and SOC exhibited similar diurnal variation as their precursors had common sources and they both formed from secondary photochemical oxidation. The daily profiles of NO₃-, NH₄+ and SOC showed lower concentrations around 15:00 (local time) probably due to the high boundary layer and/or low concentration of precursors. Besides, for NO₃- and NH₄+, high temperature, which enhanced the evaporative loss, and low relative humidity may also responsible for the low level.

Fig. 4 also suggested that both gas phase compounds and aerosol components all showed similar pattern of diurnal variation but had different magnitudes of concentrations for different visibility levels. These components except for O₃ all showed relatively higher concentrations under low visibility especially for the

secondary inorganic species, indicating the important impact of the formation of secondary components on the visibility reduction. The relatively low levels of O₃ under low visible conditions might because of the decreased photochemical production and the chemical conversions of SO₂ and NO_x to sulfate and nitrate. It is worth noting that relatively high humidity which favored for the formation of sulfate and nitrate was observed under low visibility conditions. In addition, it seemed that low visibility was associated with southwest wind. This might related to the topography. There are mountains located on the southwest which is not conducive to the diffusion of pollutants.

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3.2.23 Light extinction coefficient

- In order to appoint determine the contribution of PM_{2.5} constituents to the visibility
- degradation, light extinction (b_{ext}) was reconstructed based on the revised IMPROVE
- algorithm. In the present study, the impact of fine soil and coarse mass were not
- 424 included because of the lack of metal elements and coarse matter concentrations. Thus,
- 425 the revised IMPROVE algorithm was modified as following:
- 426 $b_{\text{ext}} = b_{s,p} + b_{a,p} + b_{a,g} + b_{s,g}$
- 427 $\approx 2.2 \times f_s(RH) \times [Small (NH_4)_2SO_4] + 4.8 \times f_L(RH) \times [Large (NH_4)_2SO_4]$
- 428 $+2.4 \times f_s(RH) \times [Small NH_4NO_2] +5.1 \times f_c(RH) \times [Large NH_4NO_2]$
- 429 +2.8 × [Small OM] + 6.1 × [Large OM]
- 430 +1.7 × f_{ss}(RH) × [Sea Salt] +10 × [EC Mass] + 0.33 × [NO₂ (ppb)] + Rayleigh Scattering
- The estimated b_{ext} in present study wasere $664 \pm 288 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$, and was significantly
- correlated with PM_{2.5} concentrations (r = 0.94, p < 0.001), demonstrating the strong
- 433 influence of fine aerosols on visibility degradation.
- The reconstructed light extinction coefficient was compared with that derived
- from visibility and that calculated using a regression model developed by Chen.
- Extinction coefficient is inversely correlated with visibility according to the

Koschmieder equation (Vis = K/b_{ext}) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2012). By using a K value of 3.912, tA comparison of the light extinction coefficients derived from different methods. he calculated b_{ext} Visibility is inversely correlated with the extinction coefficient according to the Koschmieder equation (Vis = K/b_{ext}). By using a K value of 3.912, we further calculated the visibility based on the reconstructed b_{ext} . The estimated visibilities wasere 7.47371 ± 4.12234 Mm⁻¹ km, ranged from 2.57 km to 23.41 km., Although this was much lower than the measured visibility, which were 15.0 ± 8.50 km, coefficients obtained from IMPROVE algorithm. Nevertheless, the estimated and measured visibilitythey had similar temporary trend and were significantly correlated with each other (r = 0.71, p < 0.001). Another method applied here to estimate best was a 2-factor parameterization regression model based on RH and aerosol volume concentration (Chen et al., 2012). The volume concentration can be acquired from the mass concentration divided by an average particle density of 1.7 g cm⁻¹ (Wehner et al., 2008). A comparison of b_{ext} reconstructed by IMPROVE algorithm and the regression model is presented in Fig. 4. Generally, a strong correlation was evident with a correlation coefficient higher than 0.97 ($R^2 = 0.952$), confirming that the reconstructed b_{ext} from the IMPROVE algorithm was reliable. The majority of b_{ext} was clustered near the 1:1 line for $b_{\text{ext}} < 500 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$, with the corresponding RHs mainly below 75%. However, for $b_{\rm ext} > 500 \, {\rm Mm}^{-1}$, the dispersion of bext gradually increased, and most of the corresponding RH was higher than 75%. There are two possibilities causing these deviations. The first one is the ignorance of the impact of particle size distribution on light extinction in the 2-factor parameterization model applied here, as the variation of aerosol mass or volume fractions of different size particles can influence $b_{\rm ext}$ value especially under high RH (Chen et al., 2012). The second one is from the uncertainties of in situ measurements since RH sensor may have large errors under high RH condition. The regression model result was directly controlled by the RH value, and the hygroscopic growth factor in the IMPROVE algorithm depends on RH.

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The light extinction waswere mostly influenced by aerosol light scattering as the estimated $b_{s,p}$ wasere $609 \pm 277 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$, accounting for 91% of the b_{ext} (at least 75%), while $b_{\rm a,p}$ and the extinction coefficient by gaseous were only $27.9 \pm 25.8~{\rm Mm}^{-1}$ and $26.6 \pm 4.87 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$, respectively. The largest contributor to b_{ext} from the of reconstructed chemical species in fine particles to best was organic matter (OM), accounting for 40%, followed by (NH₄)₂SO₄, 34%, NH₄NO₃, 16%, and EC, with their shares of 34%, 16% and 4%, respectively. Fractions of these However, the percentage contributors varied greatly during over the study period, e.g. the contributions of NH₄NO₃ ranged from only 3% to up to 40%. Generally, the contributions of (NH₄)₂SO₄ and NH₄NO₃ were higher under low visibility period, increased from 30% and 11%, respectively, during theunder 20% best visibility periods to 39% and 19%-, respectively, during theunder 20% worst visibility period, increased 1.3 and 1.7 times, respectively. While Correspondingly, the contributions of OM and EC were-reduced from 46% and 5%, respectively, under 20% best visibility period to 35% and 4%, respectively, during the same periods under 20% worst visibility period. These results indicated the important role of sulfate and nitrate played on haze formation.

The percentages contribution to light extinction from individual of the aerosol components contribute to the light extinction were also varied withexperienced different variations in their fractions during different haze events and visibility conditions. We compared the percentage contributions of individual these components during the best and worstunder 20% best visibility hours in each of the three haze events are compared and shown in Fig. 5 conditions to those under 20% worst visibility conditions to investigate the controlling factor for the haze formation (Fig. 5). During the first haze event (on Jan. 19), the contributions of NH4NO3 wasinereased from only 8% under 20% best visibility toand 24% during the under 20% best and worst visibility hours, respectively, while the corresponding numbers are percentage of OM decreased from 48% and to 37% for OM. For There were no significant differences between the two visibility categories for the contributions of (NH4)2SO4 or and EC, there was no significant change. During For the second haze

event (from Jan. 21 to 26), the fractions were 1.8, 1.5 and 1.3 times higher for NH₄NO₃, (NH₄)₂SO₄ and EC respectively but 1.2 times lower for OM under worse 20% worst visibility condition than those under 20% best visibility condition during this time. Overall, (NH₄)₂SO₄ made great contribution to the light extinction and NH₄NO₃ had largest difference between 20% best and worst visibility conditions during these two haze events. Therefore, secondary inorganic aerosols especially NH₄NO₃ was likely the key component for the impaired visibility for these two haze events. The elevated proportion of (NH₄)₂SO₄ and NH₄NO₃ during the heavy polluted period was also observed in Beijing (Tao et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2015). A different trend of comparison between the best and worst visibility periods was found in the third haze event (on Jan. 30) than in the first two. In the third event, the percentage contributions of Contrarily, during the third haze (on Jan. 30) increasing proportions of OM and EC increased during the worst visibility period compared to the best visibility period (from 40% to 49% and 6.8% to 11%, respectively), while that of accompanied with decreasing percentage of (NH₄)₂SO₄ decreased (from 28% to 19%). were found under worse visibility period, indicating that the eCarbonaceous components might be relatively played a more important role for the-visibility reduction in the third event. Therefore, there seems to be different formation mechanisms for haze eventsformation in Suzhou.

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3.3 Conversion from gas to particle phase

3.3.1 Variations of aerosol particles and precursors

Fig. 64 diagrammed the diurnal variations of meteorological parameters, various aerosol components, thegaseous precursors, and some other important gaseous species under three different visibility conditions: (i.e., (1) all data, (2) visibility \leq 10 km, and (3) visibility \geq 10 km). The daily variations of gas-phase compounds were different between species and were mainly controlled by the direct surface emissions (such as NOx, SO₂, and CO) or photochemical process (O₃). There were a distinct morning

peak and a less distinct afternoon peak, consistent with morning and afternoon rush hours for NOx and CO. This might be related to the heavy traffic emissions in the rush hours and the strong elevation of the Planetary Boundary Layer heights at noon. In contrast, there was only one mid-day peak for SO₂. This diurnal profiles were similar to those observed in Guangzhou (Hu et al., 2002b) and Maryland (Antony Chen et al., 2001). In the latter study, the dominant source of SO₂ was considered to be the long range transport from the industrialized Midwest and with the deep boundary layer around noon; SO₂ aloft mixed more effectively down to the surface and thus caused the mid-day peak of SO₂. The reasons for the diurnal variation of SO₂ observed in the present study need further investigation. Similar to the diurnal distribution of SO₂, O₃ also showed one distinct peak around noon due to the strong photochemistry at that time (Quan et al., 2014).

For the aerosol components, EC which was also produced by the surface emissions showed a profile similar—profile to NOx and CO. Furthermore, EC had significantly positive correlation with NO_x and CO, demonstrating that they had common sources, mainly from vehicular exhaust. The diurnal profiles of the secondary species were similar to their precursors but obviously affected by other factors such as solar radiation, which could promote the oxidation of the precursors. For instance, there was a 2-hour delay for sulfate to reach its peak compared to SO₂ due to the transformation processes. This pattern was also observed in Guangzhou (Hu et al., 2002b). NO₃- and SOC exhibited similar diurnal variation as their precursors had common sources and they both formed from secondary photochemical oxidation. The daily profiles of NO₃-, NH₄+ and SOC showed lower concentrations around 15:00 (local time) probably due to the high boundary layer and/or low concentration of precursors. Besides, for NO₃- and NH₄+, high temperature, which enhanced the evaporative loss, and low relative humidity may also be responsible for the low levels.

Fig. 64 also suggested that both gas-phase compounds and aerosol components all showed similar patterns of diurnal variations but had different magnitudes of

concentrations for different visibility levels. These components except for O₃ all showed relatively higher concentrations under low visibility especially for the secondary inorganic species, indicating the important impact of the formation of secondary components on the visibility reduction. The relatively low levels of O₃ under low visible conditions might be due tobecause of the decreased photochemical production and the chemical conversions of SO₂ and NO_x to sulfate and nitrate. It is worth noting that the relatively high humidity which favored—for the formation of sulfate and nitrate was observed under low visibility conditions. In addition, it seemed that low visibility was associated with southwest wind. This might related to the topography. There are mountains located on the southwest which is not conducive to the diffusion of pollutants.

In consideration of the distinct aerosol composition during the third haze, the comparison of gaseous pollutants between the third and the first two haze episodes were made. The concentrations of SO₂ and O₃ were comparable for these three haze event. Contrarily, much higher levels of NO, CO and NO₂ were evident during the third haze, in accordance with the high concentrations of POC and EC. These species (NO, CO, NO₂, POC and EC) were—had good correlations with each other. Furthermore, they had similar diurnal variations and exhibited extremely high levels in the morning rush hours ion January 30 when the third haze occurred. These results implied that there were common sources for these species, mainly from vehicle exhaust emission. —

3.3.2 Formation mechanisms of sulfate and nitrate

As discussed earlier, the chemical formation of sulfate and nitrate from SO₂ and NO₂ respectively, should play important roles for visibility reduction, especially for the first two haze events. The sulfur oxidation ratio, defined as SOR = n-SO₄²⁻/(n-SO₄²⁻ + n-SO₂) and the nitrogen oxidation ratio, defined as NOR = n-NO₃⁻/(n-NO₃⁻ + n-NO₂) were used as indicators of the secondary transformation processes. The daily

variations of NOR showed similar patterns as those of NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻. Likewise, SOR had similar diurnal changes as SO₄²⁻. The values of SOR and NOR increased more than 1.3 and 2.0 times, respectively, during the first two haze periods compared to clear periods, Both SOR and NOR were higher with lower visibility (Fig. 6), implying greater oxidation of gaseous species and more elevated secondary aerosols. This was supported by the evidently higher concentrations of SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, and NO₃⁻ under worse visibility conditions in the first two haze events. Almost no elevating levels of SOR, NOR or SIA were observed in the third haze, again confirming that the SIA formation may not be the predominant factor controlling the occurrence of this haze event.

The formation of SO_4^{2-} from SO_2 was mainly ascribed to the gas-phase oxidation withby OH and H_2O_2 radical or heterogeneous oxidation (Wang et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2013). The gas-phase reaction is a strong function of temperature and heterogeneous reactions always associated with high RH (Sun et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2014; Sun et al., 2013a). However, weak correlations were found between SOR and either temperature (r = 0.174, p < 0.01) or RH (r = 0.150, p < 0.01) in the present study, indicating the complex formation mechanism of sulfate.

Many studies suggested that sulfate from aqueous SO₂ oxidation catalyzed by transition metals was more significant during winter haze rather than gas-phase oxidation (Li et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2013b; Zhao et al., 2013). Our measurement also found that the heterogeneous oxidation was an important sulfate formation pathway in this study area. As shown in Fig. 7, high concentrations of NO₂ accompanied with ultralow level of O₃ less than 10 ppb and low amount of solar radiation were observed during most of the time in the haze period, such as from 12 PM to 10 AM on 19 January and from 21 to 34 January. These results revealed the rather weak photochemical activities during these time windows. The high levels of NO₂ and weak photochemical activities could result in insufficient production of oxidants (OH and H₂O₂ radicals) for gas-phase oxidation (Hua et al., 2008). Thus, other oxidation reactions other than gas-phase oxidation likely explained the formation of abundant

secondary sulfates during the haze episode. The high RH (> 70%) during these haze period was a beneficial factor for aqueous-phase oxidation of SO₂ to sulfate. Besides, the calculation results using the Extended AIM Aerosol Thermodynamic Model (E-AIM, Model II) (Clegg et al., 1998) (http://www.aim.env.uea.ac.uk/aim/aim.php) showed a significant increase of the liquid water content when RH > 70%. These results highlight the importance of aqueous-phase reaction to the secondary transformation of SO₂.

The concentrations of O₃ were not extremely low during the whole haze period, such as during daytime on January 23 and 25; the O₃ levels were as usual and had obvious diurnal variations with one distinct peak around noon. RH was lower than 70% and sulfate was primarily in the solid phase at these times, indicating that gas-phase oxidation was probably the dominant pathway for sulfate formation. Aqueous-phase oxidation likely became predominant at night. This could explain the high SOR in the afternoon and the sustained high level at night.

The daily variation of NOR showed similar pattern as NH₄⁺ and NO₃⁻, likewise, SOR had similar diurnal change as SO₄², indicating the influence from NOx or SO₂ and O₃. Additionally, it is interesting to notice that under low visibility conditions during nighttime when O₃ concentrations were extremely low, there was still a rapid chemical conversion from gaseous to particle phase especially for sulfate particles. This conversion might mainly be produced through the processes other than the photochemical activities such as heterogeneous reactions in the aqueous surface layer of pre-existing particles or in cloud processes. The higher humidity during that time and the significant positive correlations between SOR and humidity through the whole study period again seem to validate that the heterogeneous process likely dominate the sulfate formation. This was consistent with the finding by Hewitt that liquid phase chemical conversion process was responsible for the formation of sulfate particles in winter (Hewitt, 2001).

Compared to the formation of sulfate, the contributions of various conversion pathways to nitrate formation were less known (Pathak et al., 2009). In this section,

we examined in detail the possible causes of nitrate in PM_{2.5}. Nitrate formation is mainly through gas-phase oxidation of NO₂ by OH during daylight and the heterogeneous reactions of nitrate radical during nighttime (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2012). Figure Fig. 7-8 showed the nitrate-to-sulfate molar ratio ([NO₃-]/[SO₄²-]) as a function of the ammonium-to-sulfate molar ratio ([NH₄⁺]/[SO₄²⁻]), which can provide an insight into the formation pathway of the secondary species (Jansen et al., 2014; Pathak et al., 2009; He et al., 2012).

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The relative abundance of nitrate linearly increased with the increasing ammonium-to-sulfate molar ratio. Fitting a linear regression line resulted in an intercept of [NH₄⁺]/[SO₄²⁻]-axis of 1.51, indicating that nitrate formation via homogeneous reaction of HNO₃ with NH₃ became significant at [NH₄⁺]/[SO₄²⁻] > 1.51 (Pathak et al., 2009; Jansen et al., 2014; He et al., 2012) (Pathak et al., 2004; Pathak and Chan, 2005). Pathak et al. (2009) also reported an intercept value of 1.5 for a variety of several cities worldwide while Jansen et al. (2014) found a little slightly smaller intercept value of 1.38 for Hangzhou. The ammonium concentration in excess of the amount at which nitrate formation became evident was defined as excess ammonium ($[NH_4^+]_{exc} = ([NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}]-1.51)\times[SO_4^{2-}]$). The concentrations of excess ammonium were always higher than 0 and linearly correlated with nitrate concentration, as shown in Fig. ure 8. This indicated that the formation of nitrate was strongly associated with ammonium formation. In other words, when the excess ammonium was > 0, the gas-phase homogeneous reaction between the ambient ammonia and nitric acid was responsible for forming nitrate (Pathak et al., 2009; Jansen et al., 2014). The slope of 0.37 for the regression and the scattering of the data indicated that the excess ammonium was bound to species other than nitrate, such as chloride, bisulfate, etc. The significance of gas-phase homogeneous reaction to nitrate formation has been reported for many cities (Jansen et al., 2014; Pathak et al., 2009). However, as mentioned above, in some cases during haze period, the conditions (ultralow ozone concentrations, low solar radiation and high NO₂) were not favorable for the gas-phase oxidation. Relatively high RH were often observed in those cases,

which may have favored the gas to particle partitioning of nitrate acid and ammonia (Sun et al., 2011). Furthermore, the E-AIM calculation results manifested that the nitrate partly or completely existed in the aqueous phase during those conditions. Therefore, we assumed that heterogeneous chemistry, such as heterogeneous hydrolysis of N_2O_5 ($N_2O_5 + H_2O$ (aq) $\rightarrow 2HNO_3$) or equilibrium partitioning (HNO₃ (g) + NH₃ (g) \leftrightarrow NH₄⁺ (aq) + NO₃⁻ (aq)) also contributed to the formation of nitrate under high RH conditions. This was supported by the fact that in Fig. 8 more plots were deviated from the regression line when RH were relatively high. The importance of Besides, a model study also verified that aqueous phase oxidation of NOx was of minor importance for nitrate production in the atmosphere (Pandis and Seinfeld, 1989). But contrarily, heterogeneous reactions for nitrate formation were considered to be significantly important in the production of both sulfate and nitratealso reported in other studies (Sun et al., 2011; Zheng et al., 2015) (Sun et al., 2011).

3.4 Regional sources deduced from trajectory and PSCF analyses

The regional sources and transport of air pollutants exert a profound impact on local air quality in YRD region as it is located in the typical monsoon region (Ding et al., 2013). Therefore, trajectory clustering method was employed to examine the pathway of air masses and to look into the chemical compositions and light extinction coefficients among the air masses with different origination. The calculated 48—h back trajectories were clustered into six clusters (Fig. 9 and Table 1), i.e. six air mass transport pathways. As can be seen, Table 1 summarized the percentage of trajectories for each trajectory cluster and the corresponding mean concentrations of PM2.s and major aerosol species, air masses reaching at Suzhou mainly came from local areas, the nearby provinces (cluster 2, accounting 31.7%), and the northwestern areas (cluster 1 and 3, both accounted for 20.6%).

High aerosol concentrations were associated with these trajectories. This was reasonable considering that these air masses passed over some highly industrialized

cities, such as Hefei, Nanjing, and Hangzhou (Fig. 1). —The trajectory clusters were dominated by cluster 2, accounting for 31.7%, followed by cluster 1 and 3, both accounted for 20.6%, and the rest clusters, cluster 4, 5 and 6 accounted for 12.7%, 6.3% and 7.9%, respectively. Obviously, air masses mainly originated from the north and southwest (cluster 1 to 4).

The mean concentrations of PM_{2.5} and main aerosol species varied with certain types of air masses. The highest mean concentration of PM_{2.5} (167 μg m³) was associated with C3 cluster with the air masses originating from northwest and passed over Anhui and Jiangsu provinces. The air from the C1, C2 and C4 areas were also related to relatively high PM_{2.5} concentrations, which were 129 μg m³, 117 μg m³ and 103 μg m³ respectively. These air masses all passed over some highly industrialized cities, such as Qingdao, Nanjing, and Hangzhou (Fig. 1). Relatively low concentrations levels of PM_{2.5} were associated with related to clusters C5 (84 μg m³) and C6 (87 μg m³). The trajectories of C5 and C6 mostly originated from southeast and northeast respectively. Based on the pathways and origins, these air masses were expected to bring in relatively clean air from the East China Sea and the Yellow Sea and consequently reduced the aerosol pollution in Suzhou.

Aerosols had high fractions of secondary inorganic ions (39%-42%) and relatively low contributions of OC (15%-16%) when the air masses fell in the C1, C3 and C4, while had relatively high percentage of OC (36%) when the air masses fell into the C5. These differences of aerosol concentrations and composition in different clusters may result in distinct light extinction coefficients and species contributions to visibility reduction when air masses originated from different directions (Fig. 9). Similar to PM_{2.5}, the reconstructed $b_{\rm ext}$ was the highest when air masses originated from the Northwest area (C3) and was relatively low when air masses fell into C5 and C6 areas. However, the lowest value of $b_{\rm ext}$ was in the C6 instead of C5 for the lowest PM_{2.5} level, because of the higher contribution of OM in the C5. For the major components in PM_{2.5}, the highest averaged concentrations were associated with C3 cluster for sulfate, nitrate and ammonium but with C5 cluster for both OC and EC.

Accordingly, the composition profiles of these major species were different between clusters. C1, C2, C3 and C4 trajectory clusters had similar composition with relatively higher fractions of secondary inorganic ions (secondary inorganic ions > 35%, OC < 19%) compared to C5 and C6 clusters which both had relatively high contribution of OC (secondary inorganic ions < 30%, OC > 23%).

These differences of PM_{2.5} concentrations and compositions in different clusters may result in distinct light extinction coefficients and species contributions to visibility reduction when air mass originated from different directions (Fig. 9). Similar to PM_{2.5}, b_{ext} values were higher when the air masses originated from the Northwest area (C3), , whereas b_{ext} were relatively low when air masses fell into C5 and C6 areas. AS and OM were the dominanted species determining the light extinction for all clusters. However, differently, AS was the predominant contributor to light extinction for trajectories from north and northwest (C1, C3, C4), while in other cases the light extinction was primarily affected by OM. AN was the third highest contributor in all trajectory clusters with the largest contribution when air masses originated from northwest.

The origins of air masses in different haze events were further analyzed to interpret the relative contributions of chemical species to visibility reduction that differed betweenin haze events. Most air masses fell into C1 and C3 (air masses from north and northwest, respectively) in the first two haze occurrence while all air mass trajectories were in C2 (air masses from southlocal and nearby areas) for the third haze event. The contribution of OM to the total light extinction was higher in the third haze event than in the first two as discussed early, consistent with the results for cluster analysis that the light extinction was primarily impacted by AS for C1 and C3 but by OM for C2. These results manifested that the third haze event was mainly contributed by the primary emission of carbon species from the local and/or surrounding areas.

the air mass originated from southwest and passed over Zhejiang province might play a key role in the high contribution of OM in the third haze event.

It should be noted that air mass back trajectory analysis only suggests the originations and pathways of air masses but does not directly reveal the exact sources. Based on the results of trajectory analysis, the PSCF method was applied to explore the likely regional sources of major components in PM2.5, including sulfate, nitrate, OC, and EC, as illustrated in Fig. 10. Generally, PM2.5 and the five aerosol species in Suzhou were mainly affected by local sources and nearby cities. Specifically, the higher value for PM2.5 and the aerosol components were all localized in northwest to the south, covering surrounding cities in Jiangsu and near the border of Anhui and Zhejiang provinces. Additionally, these species were all affected by pollutions from Anhui province. Sulfate, nitrate and ammonium had similar spatial distributions, and relatively more affected by the north and northwest cities in Shandong, Jiangsu and Anhui provinces while pollutions from south cities in Zhejiang province had more impact on OC and EC in studied area than sulfate, nitrate and ammonium.

4. Conclusions

Heavy aerosol pollution occurred in Suzhou in January 2013 with daily PM_{2.5} concentrations on haze days 1.97 to 2.61 times higher than Grade II criteria of the national ambient air quality standard (75 µg m⁻³) and maximum value of 324 µg m⁻³ on Jan. 14, 2013. Unfavorable weather conditions (high RH, low rainfall, wind speed and atmospheric pressure) especially high RH together with increased air pollutants produced from local and nearly sources were responsible might provide beneficial conditions for these haze formation.

During the first two haze periods, WSII and carbonaceous species both increased during the haze events and the major_aerosol components were SO₄²⁻, NO₃-, NH₄+, and SOC, which were mainly from secondary sources. Furthermore, SOR and NOR both increased under worst visibility conditions, revealing efficients evere gas to particle conversion—during winter in this region. Additionally, The conversion mechanisms were further analyzed for sulfate and nitrate. Rapid chemical conversion from gas to particle phase for sulfate particles under extremely low O₃-concentrations

and significant correlations between SOR and humidity demonstrated that heterogeneous process might dominate the sulfate formation. However, the result of ([NO₃-]/[SO₄²⁻]) as a function of ([NH₄[±]]/[SO₄²⁻]) showed that the formation of ammonium nitrate via the homogeneous gas-phase reaction was favored.

The reconstructed light extinction coefficients based on the revised IMPROVE algorithm were 664 ± 288 Mm⁺, and mainly contributed by OM (40%), (NH₄)₂SO₄ (34%), NH₄NO₃ (16%), and EC (4%). The contributions of these species experienced different variations in their fractions under different visibility conditions. Generally, the contributions share of (NH₄)₂SO₄ and NH₄NO₃ to the reconstructed *b*_{ext} based on IMPROVE were higher under low visibility conditions while those the percentages of OM and EC were higher-increased under high visibility conditions, indicating that secondary inorganic aerosols especially NH₄NO₃ seemed to be very important for the impaired visibility. Gas-phase homogeneous reaction might dominate the formation of sulfate and nitrate under low RH conditions while heterogeneous process might be responsible when RH were relatively high.

But dDistinctively, high proportion of carbon species from primary emission and lower fraction of secondary formation components were observed in the third haze. The SOR and NOR during the third haze episode were comparable to clean days. Moreover, increasing proportions of OM and EC accompanied with decreasing percentage of (NH₄)₂SO₄ were found under worst visibility conditions when the third haze occurred. These results, suggested suggesting that the carbon components from the primary emission might be relatively important for the visibility reduction for this haze event.

These differences in different haze events might be greatly affected by the pathways of air masses according to trajectory clustering analysis.

The result of tTrajectory clustering analysis showed that the air quality in Suzhou was mostly affected by air masses originating from North and Southwestern areas which were associated with high aerosol concentrations. Distinct aerosol composition profiles, light extinction coefficients and species contributions to visibility reduction

were observed when air masses originated from different directions, e.g. AS was the predominant contributor to light extinction for trajectories from north and northwest, while in other cases the light extinction was primarily affected by OM.

The likely sources of aerosol and the major species based on the PSCF method were mainly from local anthropogenic activities and source emissions transported from nearby cities. The northwestern to southern regions may be important sources of aerosols and the major components. The northern and northwestern areas were predominant source regions for sulfate, nitrate and ammonium aerosols, whereas the southern area could be the common source region for carbonaceous species. This information has the implications for the importance of collaborative air pollution control strategy in the Yangtze River Delta Region.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China projects (41403089, 41375123), the "Strategic Priority Research Program" of the Chinese Academy of Sciences (KJZD-EW-TZ-G06-04), and the State Environmental Protection Key Laboratory of Sources and Control of Air Pollution Complex (SCAPC201310).

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Table 1. The percentages of <u>air masses from</u> each trajectory cluster and <u>associated the mean b_{ext} (Mm⁻¹) and mean concentrations (µg m⁻³) of PM_{2.5} and <u>its major chemical components</u>, and <u>mean b_{ext} (Mm⁻¹)selected aerosol species in the identified trajectory clusters</u>.</u>

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Percent (%)	20.6	31.7	20.6	12.7	6.3	7.9
PM _{2.5}	129	117	167	103	84.0	87.4
OC	21.1	22.8	25.3	16.4	30.5	20.3
EC	2.05	3.87	2.21	1.45	3.90	1.86
Sulfate	22.9	18.2	32.4	23.1	8.85	8.39
Nitrate	11.5	10.0	16.9	7.84	3.26	7.91
Ammonium	15.2	12.3	18.9	12.4	7.93	9.88
$b_{ m ext}$	675	597	921	556	548	463



Figure 1. The sampling site in Suzhou. The locations of some major cities with a population of more than 1 million (such as Qingdao, Nanjing and Hangzhou) are marked with a square symbol. The topographical map was derived from Microsoft® Encarta® 2009 © 1993 - 2008.

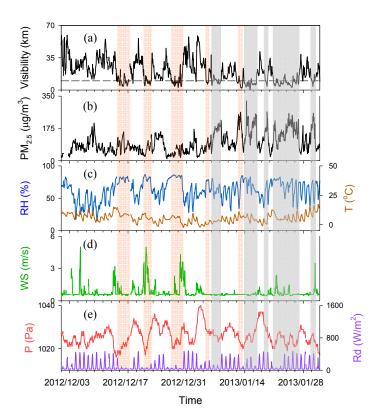


Figure 2. Time series of (a) visibility; (b) PM_{2.5} concentration; (c) relative humidity (RH) and temperature (T); (d) wind speed (WS) and pressure (P); and (e) solar radiation (Rd). The shaded areas in orange represent periods when visibility were

lower than 10 km and accompanied by precipitation. The shaded areas in grey represent haze periods.

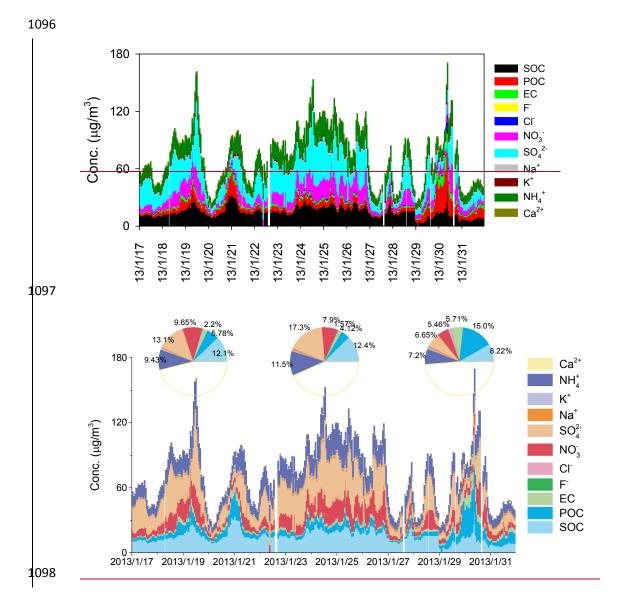


Figure 3. Temporal distribution of water soluble inorganic ions and carbonaceous species. The aerosol composition in the three haze events was also illustrated in the pie chart.

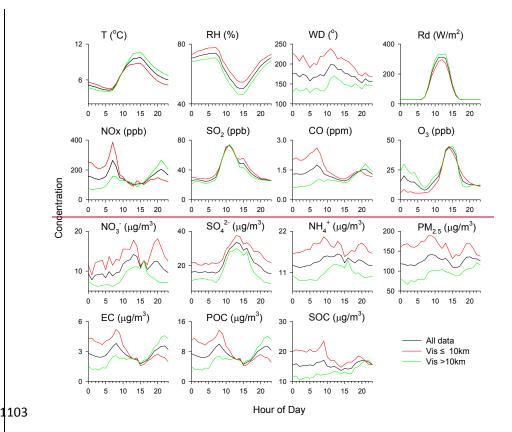
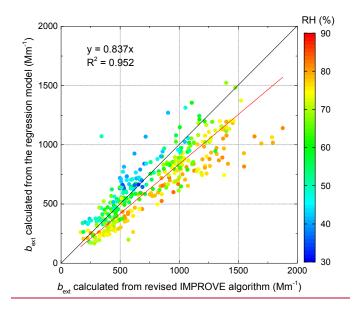


Figure 4. Diurnal profiles of meteorological variables, aerosol precursors (NOx, SO₂,), CO, O₃), PM_{2.5}, and major aerosol compounds (NO₃⁻, SO₄², NH₄⁺, EC, POC, SOC) under different visibility conditions.



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Figure 4. Comparison of the calculated b_{ext} between those obtained from the regression equation and those from the IMPROVE algorithm.

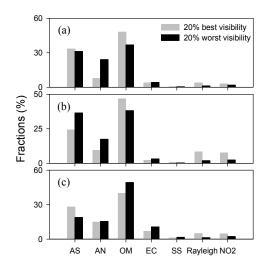


Figure 5. Relative contributions of various chemical components in PM_{2.5} (ammonium sulfate (AS), ammonium nitrate (AN), OM, and EC) to the total light extinction under 20% best and 20% worst visibility conditions during the first (a), second (b), and third (c) haze events.

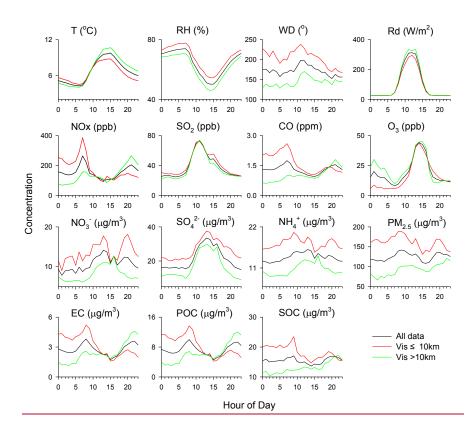
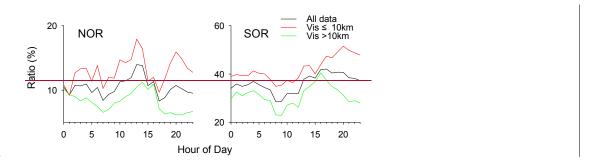


Figure 6. Diurnal profiles of meteorological variables, aerosol precursors (NOx, SO₂),

CO, O₃, PM_{2.5}, and major aerosol compounds (NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, EC, POC, SOC) under different visibility conditions.



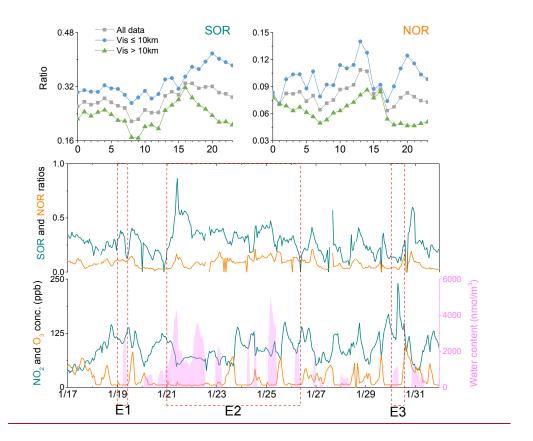


Figure $\underline{76}$. Temporary distributions of SOR, NOR, NO₂, O₃ and aerosol water content.

Diurnal profiles of NOR and SOR <u>ratios</u> under different visibility conditions.

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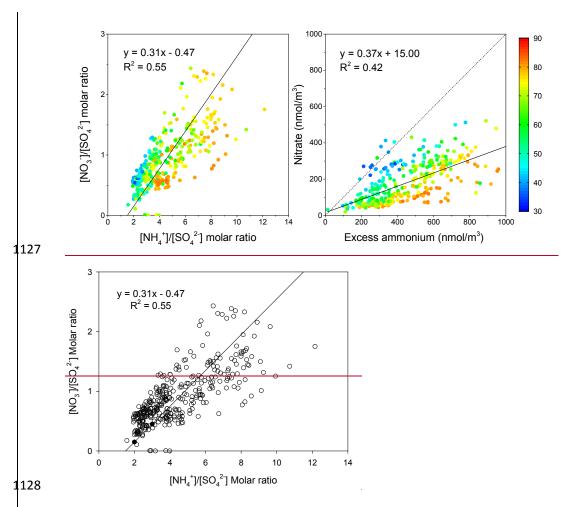


Figure 78. Nitrate to sulfate molar ratio as a function of ammonium to sulfate molar ratio-(left) and relationship

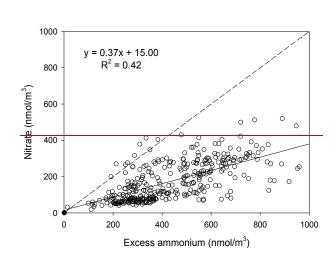


Figure 8. Relationship between molar concentrations of nitrate and excess ammonium (right).

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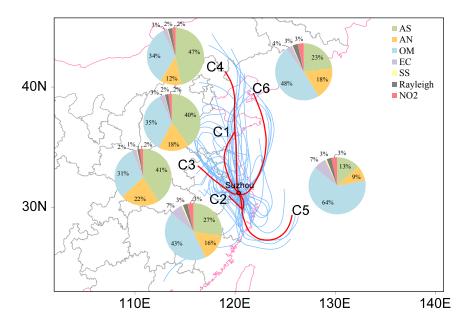


Figure 9. Backward air mass trajectories and six mean trajectories after the cluster analysis at the sampling site during Jan. 17 to 31. Relative contributions of various chemical components to the total light extinction in different clusters are illustrated.

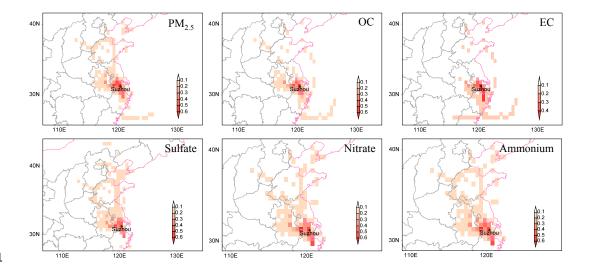


Figure 10. The PSCF maps for PM_{2.5}, OC, EC, sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium.