



1 **Response of winter fine particulate matter concentrations to**
2 **emission and meteorology changes in North China**

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1 **Abstract**

2 The winter haze is a growing problem in North China, but the causes have not been well
3 understood. The chemistry version of the Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF-
4 Chem) was applied in North China to examine how the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations change in response
5 to changes in emissions (sulfur dioxide (SO_2), black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC),
6 ammonia (NH_3), and nitrogen oxides (NO_x)), as well as meteorology (temperature, relative
7 humidity (RH), and wind speeds) changes in winter. From 1960 to 2010, the dramatic changes in
8 emissions lead to +260% increases in sulfate, +320% increases in nitrate, +300% increases in
9 ammonium, +160% increases in BC and 50% increases in OC. The responses of $PM_{2.5}$ to
10 individual emission specie indicate that the simultaneous increases in SO_2 , NH_3 and NO_x
11 emissions dominated the increases in $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. $PM_{2.5}$ is more sensitive to changes in
12 SO_2 and NH_3 as compared to changes in NO_x emissions. In addition, OC also accounts for a large
13 fraction in $PM_{2.5}$ changes. These results provide some implications for haze pollution control.
14 The responses of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations to temperature increases are dominated by changes in
15 wind fields and mixing heights. $PM_{2.5}$ is not sensitive to temperature increases and RH decreases,
16 compared to changes in wind speed and aerosol feedbacks. From 1960 to 2010, aerosol
17 feedbacks have been significantly enhanced, due to higher aerosol loadings. The discussions in
18 this study indicate that dramatic changes in emissions are the main cause of increasing haze
19 events in North China, and long-term trends in atmospheric circulations maybe another
20 important cause since $PM_{2.5}$ is shown to be sensitive to wind speed and aerosol feedbacks. More
21 studies are necessary to get a better understanding of the aerosol-circulation interactions.

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1 Introduction

2 $PM_{2.5}$ (particulate matter with diameter equal to or less than $2.5\mu m$) is a main air pollution
3 concern due to its adverse effects on public health (Gao et al., 2015; Pope et al., 2009). Pope et
4 al. (2009) estimated that a decrease of $10\mu g PM_{2.5}$ is related to about 0.6 year mean life
5 expectancy increase. $PM_{2.5}$ is also associated with visibility reduction and regional climate
6 (Cheung et al., 2005). Many cities in North China are experiencing severe haze pollution with
7 exceedingly high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. In January 2010, a regional haze occurred in North China
8 and maximum hourly $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in Tianjin was over $400\mu g/m^3$ (Zhao et al., 2013). In
9 January 2013, another unprecedented haze event happened, and the daily $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in
10 some areas of Beijing and Shijiazhuang reached over $500\mu g/m^3$ (L. T. Wang et al., 2014), and
11 instantaneous $PM_{2.5}$ concentration at some urban measurement sites were over $1000\mu g/m^3$
12 (Zheng et al., 2015).

13 It is well known that particulate matter levels are strongly influenced by emissions and
14 meteorological conditions (Steiner et al., 2006). The PM in the atmosphere can be directly
15 emitted from sources like wildfires, combustion, wind-blown dust, and sea-salt, or formed from
16 emitted gases through secondary aerosol formation mechanisms. Meteorology affects PM levels
17 via changing emissions, chemical reactions, transport and deposition processes (Mu and Liao,
18 2014). For example, increasing wildfire emission in North America is mainly caused by warmer
19 temperatures and precipitation changes (Dawson et al., 2014), and increased temperature leads to
20 higher biogenic emissions, which are important precursors of secondary organic aerosols
21 (Dawson et al., 2014; Heald et al., 2008; Jacob and Winner, 2009). Increasing temperature also
22 increases sulfate concentration due to higher SO_2 oxidation rates (Aw and Kleeman, 2003;
23 Dawson et al., 2007) and semi-volatile aerosols may decrease due to evaporation under higher



1 temperature (Sheehan and Bowman, 2001; Dawson et al., 2007; Tsigaridis and Kanakidou,
2 2007). Higher relative humidity (RH) favors the formation of nitrate and increasing precipitation
3 decreases all PM species via wet scavenging (Dawson et al., 2007; Tai et al., 2010). Furthermore,
4 increasing clouds promote in-cloud sulfate production (Tai et al., 2010) and changes in wind
5 speed and mixing height determines the dilution of primary and secondary PM (Jimenez-
6 Guerrero et al., 2012; Megaritis et al., 2014; Pay et al., 2012).

7 With rapid economic and industrial developments, emissions in China have grown during the
8 past years. It is estimated that NO_x emissions in China increased by 70% from 1995 to 2004
9 (Zhang et al., 2007), Black Carbon (BC) by ~50% from 2000 to 2010 (Lu et al., 2011), Organic
10 Carbon (OC) by ~30% from 2000 to 2010 (Lu et al., 2011), and SO₂ by ~60% from 2000 to 2006
11 (Lu et al., 2011). Apart from emission changes, it was observed that the winter is warming up in
12 China, especially in the northern part (Guo et al., 2013; Hu et al., 2003; Ren et al., 2012). In
13 addition, wind speed in North China has lowered (Shi et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2004) and RH
14 has decreased in China (Song et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2004).

15 Many studies have investigated the impacts of emission changes on aerosol formation
16 (Aksoyoglu et al., 2011; Andreani-Aksoyoglu et al., 2008; Megaritis et al., 2013; Tsimpidi et al.,
17 2012a; Tsimpidi et al., 2012b) and the effects of climate/meteorology changes on PM_{2.5}
18 concentrations (Dawson et al., 2007; Megaritis et al., 2013; Megaritis et al., 2014; Tagaris et al.,
19 2007; Tai et al., 2012a; Tai et al., 2012b) in Europe and in the United States. The haze pollution
20 is growing in China, especially in North China, but the causes of the growth are not well
21 understood. For haze pollution in China, it has been reported that aerosol feedbacks that change
22 radiation and temperature can worsen pollution (Gao et al., 2016; Pet ä äet al., 2016; Xing et al.,
23 2015c; Zhang et al., 2015). In addition, the connections between haze and meteorological



1 conditions have been established in many former studies (Fu et al., 2014; Jia et al., 2015; Leng et
2 al., 2015; C. Li et al., 2015; Wang and Chen, 2016; Yang et al., 2016; X. Y. Zhang et al., 2015;
3 Zhang et al., 2016). However, the roles of the large emission changes during the last 4 to 5
4 decades and the observed meteorology changes in North China are not known.

5 The main objective of this study is to investigate the responses of $PM_{2.5}$ and its major species to
6 changes in emissions, including SO_2 , BC, OC, NO_x and NH_3 , and to temperature, RH and wind
7 speed changes in the North China region. Winter haze in North China has a large contribution
8 from secondary inorganic aerosols and secondary inorganic aerosols are influenced by emissions,
9 temperature and RH. The models used in previous studies referenced above are all offline
10 models, which are not capable of considering the feedbacks of changing meteorology on other
11 meteorological variables, and the impacts of aerosols on meteorology. However, as pointed by
12 Gao et al. (2016) and J. Wang et al. (2014) aerosol feedbacks should not be neglected when
13 modeling aerosol in China. In this study, we consider aerosol feedbacks using the fully online
14 coupled WRF-Chem model.

15 This paper is organized as follows. First, the WRF-Chem model, model settings and domain
16 settings are briefly described and then in the next section, emission changes from 1960 to 2010
17 and accordingly $PM_{2.5}$ changes are discussed. After that, the responses of $PM_{2.5}$ to changes in
18 each emission species are analyzed. At last, the impacts of temperature, RH and wind speed
19 changes on $PM_{2.5}$ are analyzed and discussed.

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1 **2 Methodology**

2 **2.1 WRF-Chem model**

3 The WRF-Chem model is the chemistry version of the Weather Research and Forecasting model,
4 which is fully online coupled, allowing gases and aerosols simulations at the same time as
5 meteorology simulations. In this study, we used a configuration that includes direct and indirect
6 feedbacks. The gas phase mechanism used in this study is the Carbon Bond Mechanism version
7 Z (CBM-Z), which includes 67 species and 164 reactions (Zaveri and Peters, 1999; Zaveri et al.,
8 2008). The gas-particle partitioning module used is the MOSAIC module, which considers all
9 important aerosol components, such as sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, BC, and OC (Zaveri et al.,
10 2008). Eight size bins version of MOSAIC was used and the aerosol sizes ranged from 0.039 μ m
11 to 10 μ m. Wind-blown dust was modeled online using the AFWA scheme. Two nested domains
12 with 81km and 27km grid resolutions from outer to innermost were used. Inputs into the model
13 include meteorological boundary and initial conditions (BCs and ICs) from NCEP FNL 1° \times 1°
14 data and chemical boundary and initial conditions from MOZART model simulations (Emmons
15 et al., 2010). The anthropogenic emission inventory used is the MACCity (MACC/CityZEN EU
16 projects) emissions dataset, which provides monthly CO, NO_x, SO₂, VOC, BC, OC, and NH₃
17 emissions from different sectors for years between 1960 and 2020 (Granier et al., 2011). We
18 compared the MACCity emission inventory for 2010 (Granier et al., 2011) with MIX emission
19 inventory for 2010 (M. Li et al., 2015) in the China region, and the magnitudes of emissions in
20 China from these two datasets are very close. For example, the SO₂ emissions in China in 2010
21 were estimated to be 28663 Gg in the MIX emission inventory, and were 26876.3 Gg in the
22 MACCity emission inventory. Simulations for evaluating roles of emission changes were
23 conducted using emissions for year 1960 and year 2010. Biogenic emissions were estimated



1 online using the MEGAN model (Guenther et al., 2006). The simulation period was January
2 2010 and five days in previous month were modeled as spin-up to overcome the influences of
3 initial conditions.

4

5 **2.2 Sensitivity experiments**

6 We explored the sensitivities of the winter time haze event in 2010 to changes in emissions and
7 meteorology features through a series of simulations using 1960 and 2010 emission baselines.
8 Specifically, the influence of emission changes of SO₂, BC, OC, NH₃, and NO_x, and meteorology
9 (temperature, RH and wind speeds) changes on PM_{2.5} and its major species was evaluated using a
10 series of simulations. They are listed and explained in Table 1. All base simulations use
11 meteorology of January 2010. It was pointed out surface air temperature in North China
12 increased at the rate of 0.36 °C per decade (Guo et al., 2013), the linear trends coefficient of
13 relative humidity anomaly in North China is about -0.60% per decade (Wang et al., 2004), and
14 national mean wind speed decreased 16% in the recent 50 years (Wang et al., 2004). To estimate
15 the impacts of changes in temperature, RH and wind speed that happened in the past several
16 decades, we decreased temperature by 2 degrees, increased RH by 10%, and increased wind
17 speeds by 20%, to reflect conditions of early decades. The changes of PM_{2.5} and its major
18 components due to perturbations in emissions and meteorology are analyzed for the North China
19 region. The North China region is defined using domain 2 in Gao et al. (2016) and the statistics
20 of changes are calculated within domain 2 for the January 2010 month.

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1 **2.3 Model Verification**

2 The WRF-Chem model performance has been evaluated using multiple observations, including
3 surface meteorological, chemical and optical data, and satellite data in Gao et al. (2016). The
4 model was shown to capture the variations of surface temperature, RH, while wind speed was
5 slightly overestimated (Gao et al., 2016), which has been reported as a common problem of
6 current WRF-Chem model under low wind speed conditions. The Root Mean Square Error
7 (RMSE) of temperature were all less than 3.2K and RMSEs of RH varied from 6.4 to 11.1%.
8 The RMSE of wind speeds were below the proposed criteria (2m/s) (Emery et al., 2001) at the
9 Beijing, Tianjin and Baoding stations, but larger than that criteria at the Chengde station. The
10 time series of simulated surface PM_{2.5}, NO₂, and SO₂ showed good agreement with observations
11 as did simulated aerosol optical depth (AOD) (Gao et al., 2016). Mean Fractional Bias (MFB)
12 ranged from -21.8% to 0.4% and Mean Fractional Error (MFE) ranged from 26.3% to 50.7%
13 when comparing against PM_{2.5} observations (Gao et al., 2016). In addition, the comparison
14 between model results and satellite found that the vertical distribution of aerosol and horizontal
15 distribution were captured well by the model (Gao et al., 2016). Compared with observed PM_{2.5}
16 composition, sulfate and OC were underestimated and nitrate was overestimated by the model
17 (Gao et al., 2016). The underestimation of sulfate may be due to underestimation of SO₂ gas
18 phase oxidation, errors in aqueous-phase chemistry, and/or missing heterogeneous sulfate
19 formation (Gao et al., 2016).

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1 **3 Results and Discussion**

2 **3.1 PM_{2.5} sensitivity to emission changes from 1960 to 2010**

3 The emission changes of SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, BC and OC and resulting impacts on PM_{2.5} from 1960
4 to 2010 were examined based on the MACCity dataset for years 1960 and 2010. Figure 1(a-e)
5 displays SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, BC and OC emissions for 1960 and Figure 1(f-j) shows the changes
6 from 1960 to 2010. Populated regions of North China, such as urban Beijing, urban Tianjin, and
7 urban Shijiazhuang, exhibit large emissions of SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, BC and OC in 1960. However,
8 NH₃ emissions exhibit different spatial distribution patterns from SO₂, NO_x, BC and OC
9 emissions, because NH₃ is mainly associated with agriculture while SO₂, NO_x, BC and OC are
10 mainly related with industrial and residential activities. From 1960 to 2010, SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, BC
11 and OC increased over the entire North China domain and markedly increased in the Jing-Jin-Ji
12 city cluster. In general, the domain averaged surface NO_x emissions in North China increased by
13 ~590% from 1960 to 2010. The domain averaged surface NH₃ emissions in North China
14 increased by ~390% from 1960 to 2010, but the most significant increases occurred not in the
15 Jing-Jin-Ji city cluster, but in Inner Mongolia. Unlike NH₃ emissions, BC emissions increased
16 the most in urban Beijing from 1960 to 2010. This is because residential sources are the biggest
17 contributor to BC in winter (Li et al., 2016) and the population in urban Beijing sharply
18 increased with rapid urbanization. From 1960 to 2010, the mean BC emissions in North China
19 increased by ~153%. Similar to BC emissions, OC emissions increased substantially in the
20 center of Beijing, and the domain averaged increasing ratio is about 52% from 1960 to 2010. The
21 enhancements of SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, BC and OC emissions in North China are expected to result in
22 substantial increase in regional PM_{2.5} concentrations.



1 Figure 2 shows the simulated monthly mean concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ and its major components
2 (sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, BC and OC) based on emissions for year 1960. As listed in Table 2,
3 the domain averaged concentrations of sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, BC, OC, and $PM_{2.5}$ are 1.9,
4 0.8, 0.8, 1.5, 4.6, and $19.2\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. For year 1960, $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are mainly
5 dominated by sulfate, OC and natural dust. Figure 3 displays the changes of sulfate, nitrate,
6 ammonium, BC, OC, and $PM_{2.5}$ due to changes in SO_2 , NO_x , BC and OC emissions from 1960 to
7 2010. The predicted monthly mean concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ components and $PM_{2.5}$ increase
8 everywhere over the entire domain due to emission changes resulting from the rapid urbanization
9 and industrialization from 1960 to 2010 (Figure 3(a-f)). As listed in Table 2, the predicted
10 monthly domain mean sulfate increases the largest ($5.0\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), followed by nitrate ($2.6\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
11 and OC ($2.5\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

12 From 1960 to 2010, the predicted BC increased by ~157% and OC increased by ~54% due to
13 153% increase in BC emissions and 52% increase in OC emissions. The nearly linear response of
14 both BC and OC aerosols to their emissions is due to the omission of a secondary organic aerosol
15 formation in the chosen CBMZ/MOSAIC mechanism. Thus, both of them were treated as
16 primary aerosols in these simulations. Our previous analyses indicate that SOA contribution in
17 this time period was small (Gao et al., 2016). The domain mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations increased
18 by $14.7\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and the domain maximum increase is about $45\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Figure 3(f) and Table 2).

19 To explore how emission changes can affect haze days, we calculated the number of haze days in
20 urban Beijing for the CTL and EMI_2010 cases, using daily mean thresholds of 35 and $75\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
21 (China National Ambient Air Quality Grade I and Grade II Standard, L. T. Wang et al., 2014). In
22 urban Beijing, there are 4 days when daily mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are above $35\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and 0
23 days with daily mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations above $75\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for the CTL case. For the EMI_2010



1 case, these two numbers increase to 15 and 8, indicating that the large increases in emissions
2 over the past several decades have significantly affected haze occurrences in Beijing.

3

4 **3.2 Sensitivity to changes in individual emission species**

5 The results discussed above show that in the winter period, the concentrations of secondary
6 inorganic aerosols (sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium) has increased dramatically. Thus it is
7 important to explore how sensitive secondary inorganic aerosol is to perturbations in precursor
8 emissions. Three sensitivity simulations (change SO₂, NH₃ and NH₃ emissions separately) were
9 conducted to examine how changes in emissions of each species affect aerosol concentrations.
10 The predicted changes of PM_{2.5} and major PM_{2.5} components at the ground-level are shown in
11 Figure 4 and monthly domain mean aerosol changes are summarized in Table 3.

12

13 3.2.1 Changes in SO₂ emissions

14 Due to changes in SO₂ emissions from 1960 to 2010, domain averaged sulfate increased by
15 3.4 μg/m³ (178.3%), nitrate decreased by -0.3 μg/m³ (-32.3%), and ammonium increased by
16 0.2 μg/m³ (29.4%). NH₃ reacts with sulfuric acid particles preferentially to its equilibrium with
17 gaseous nitric acid; hence neutralization of sulfuric acid is a necessary precondition to significant
18 particle ammonium nitrate formation (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). Free NH₃ reacts with
19 enhanced H₂SO₄ due to increasing SO₂. As a result, ammonium increases and less HNO₃ gas is
20 transferred to the aerosol phase, which is consistent with the responses to increasing SO₂
21 emissions in Kharol et al. (2013).



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3 3.2.2 Changes in NH₃ emissions

4 As shown in Figure 4 and Table 3, changes in NH₃ emissions from 1960 to 2010 result in
5 significant increases in nitrate (1.5µg/m³, +76.0%) and ammonium (0.6µg/m³, +84.0%). The
6 domain mean changes of sulfate due to increase in NH₃ is close to zero (about 0.1µg/m³),
7 because sulfate formation is only indirectly associated with NH₃ availability (Tsimpidi et al.,
8 2007). The significant changes in nitrate and ammonium occurred in south Hebei, Shandong, and
9 Henan province, where anthropogenic NO_x emissions are very high (Figure 1). Although NH₃
10 emissions substantially increased in Inner Mongolia (Figure 1), responses of nitrate and
11 ammonium are not significant there. The substantial increases of nitrate after NH₃ emission
12 increase indicate that NH₃ limits the NH₃NO₃ formation in the North China region in this period.

13

14 3.2.3 Changes in NO_x emissions

15 After changing NO_x emissions from 1960 to 2010 levels, domain mean surface PM_{2.5} decreases
16 by about 0.2µg/m³, but the changes of individual PM_{2.5} inorganic components vary. The increase
17 of NO_x emissions cause 0.7µg/m³ (-39.1%) decrease in monthly domain mean sulfate and the
18 domain peak sulfate reduction is about 2.9µg/m³. The OH radical is critical in the sulfate
19 formation in the regions where SO₂ concentrations are high and there is a competition between
20 NO_x and VOCs to react with OH (Tsimpidi et al. 2012b). When the VOCs/NO_x concentration
21 ratio is close to 5.5:1, the OH reacts with NO_x and VOCs at an equal rate (Seinfeld and Pandis,
22 2006). When the concentration ratio is lower than 5.5:1, the OH primarily reacts with NO_x, and



1 the region with this concentration ratio is called VOC-limited region. In VOC-limited regions, an
2 increase of NO_x will cause a decrease of OH and ozone concentration. When the VOCs/ NO_x
3 concentration ratio is higher than 5.5:1, the OH will preferentially react with VOCs, and the
4 region with this high ratio is called NO_x -limited region. In the NO_x -limited region, an increase of
5 NO_x will increase OH and ozone concentrations. In the simulated winter month, biogenic
6 emissions are low and NO_x emissions in North China are very high, leading to lower VOCs to
7 NO_x ratios, and it can be considered as VOC-limited region. Fu et al. (2012) pointed out that
8 north East Asia is VOC-limited in January and urban areas of Beijing are VOC-limited in both
9 January and July. As a result, the large increases in NO_x emissions from 1960 to 2010 result in a
10 47.9% decrease in daytime surface ozone concentration and 55.6% decrease in daytime surface
11 OH concentration, which are shown in Figure 5. Over the entire domain, ozone and OH decrease
12 due to NO_x emission increases (Figure 5). Consequently, sulfate aerosol decrease over the entire
13 domain, as shown in Figure 4(i). Decreases in sulfate might also be related to changes in
14 thermodynamics of the ammonium-sulfate-nitrate system. Although OH decreases, nitrate still
15 rises ($0.6\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, +76.0%) due to the increase in NO_x emissions. The domain mean ammonium
16 decreases by about 5.1% ($-0.04\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). The net effects of NO_x emission increases bring about
17 $0.2\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ decrease in monthly domain mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration and the domain peak decrease is
18 about $1.1\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (Table 3).

19

20 3.2.4 Coupled changes in SO_2 , NH_3 and NO_x emissions

21 As shown above, increasing SO_2 emissions significantly increases $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in the
22 North China region, increasing NH_3 emissions also increases $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations but to a lesser
23 extent, and increasing NO_x emissions slightly decreases $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations. The effects of



1 coupled changes in SO₂, NH₃ and NO_x emissions are not a simple addition of the effect of changing
2 them separately. As listed in Table 3, the monthly domain mean sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, and
3 PM_{2.5} increases more than the effects of changing emissions separately. Domain mean sulfate
4 increases by 5.0 μg/m³ (+264.0%), nitrate increases by 2.6 μg/m³ (+322.5%), ammonium
5 increases by 2.3 μg/m³ (295.2%) and PM_{2.5} increases by 9.9 μg/m³ due to coupled changes in SO₂,
6 NH₃ and NO_x emissions from 1960 to 2010. The simultaneous increases in SO₂, NH₃ and NO_x
7 emissions promote dramatic increases of secondary inorganic aerosols in North China.

8

9 3.2.5 Changes in BC and OC emissions

10 Since BC and OC are treated as primary aerosols in the chosen CBMZ/MOSAIC mechanism,
11 changes in their emissions do not show any impact on other aerosol components. As listed in
12 Table 3, monthly domain mean PM_{2.5} increases by 2.3 μg/m³ and 2.5 μg/m³ due to changes in their
13 emissions from 1960 to 2010, respectively.

14

15 3.3 Effects of temperature increases

16 The model used in this study is a fully online-coupled model, which simulates meteorological
17 variables and chemical variables together. Therefore, it is not possible to increase temperature
18 uniformly, as was done in previous studies using offline models (Dawson et al., 2007; Megartis
19 et al., 2013; Megartis et al., 2014). To examine the sensitivity of PM_{2.5} to temperature change
20 (reflecting the winter warming trends), we decrease temperature by 2 °C in the initial and
21 boundary conditions to reflect conditions more like 1960. As a result, the monthly domain mean
22 surface temperature increases 2.0 °C (CTL-CTL_T2), but in a non-uniform manner. The spatial



1 distributions of monthly mean surface temperature and temperature changes are shown in Figure
2 6(a). The monthly mean surface temperature increases more along top left domain boundaries
3 and less over the Bohai sea. The influence of increasing temperature on biogenic emissions is
4 included using temperature-sensitive biogenic emission model MEGAN (Guenther et al., 2006).

5 Due to the perturbation in temperature as mentioned above, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium and
6 $PM_{2.5}$ are predicted to increase in most areas of the domain (Figure 7). Predicted monthly mean
7 sulfate increases by $0.06\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (+3.1%), nitrate increases by $0.03\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (+4.2%), and ammonium
8 increases by $0.02\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (+2.8%). The increases of sulfate, nitrate and ammonium are mostly
9 attributed to the increasing OH radicals, as shown in Figure 6(b). After the temperature
10 perturbation, daytime OH increases by about 3.6% on domain average. It was found that higher
11 temperature increased volatilization of ammonium nitrate and partitioned it to the gas phase
12 (Megaritis et al., 2014), but it is not significant here due to the low temperature in winter. In
13 addition, the increase of sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium could be partially due to accelerated gas-
14 phase reaction rate at higher temperature (Dawson et al., 2007; Megaritis et al., 2014).

15 As shown in Figure 7 (d-e), the concentrations of primary aerosols (BC and OC) also increase
16 after the temperature perturbations. This is due to changes in other physical parameter, such as
17 wind direction, wind speed, and PBLHs, which are key factors in the diffusion of air pollutants.
18 Figure 6(c) shows that monthly PBLHs in most North China areas decrease after the temperature
19 perturbation, and PBLHs over the Bohai sea decrease the most, with monthly mean decrease
20 over 50 meters. The monthly domain average daytime PBLHs decrease about 2.3% due to
21 increasing temperature. Surface horizontal winds also change (Figure 6(d)), which directly affect
22 the distributions and magnitudes of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in North China along with PBLH
23 changes.



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2 The responses of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations to temperature perturbation are different from the
3 responses of sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, BC and OC (Figure 7), with decreases in northwestern
4 regions and increases in most areas of the North China Plain. This is because natural dust is
5 dominant in northwestern regions (as shown in Figure 2(f)), and the concentrations of natural
6 dust decrease under lower horizontal wind speeds (Figure 6(d)). The monthly $PM_{2.5}$
7 concentration decreases by $0.01\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ on domain average due to temperature perturbation.
8 Because of temperature increase, the numbers of haze days (defined using the daily mean
9 threshold 35 and $75\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in urban Beijing do not change.

10 The discussions shown above are based on emission levels in 1960. The responses to
11 temperature perturbations were also investigated based on emission levels in 2010, and the
12 results are shown in Figure S1, S2 and Table 3. The spatial distributions of the changes are
13 similar to the results shown above, but with larger magnitudes. The domain mean PBL heights
14 decreases slightly more (-8.6 compared to -8.3 meters). The domain mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations
15 and $PM_{2.5}$ components exhibit larger increases in North China, although daytime OH
16 concentrations increases less (2.6×10^{-9} compared to 3.3×10^{-9} ppmv), suggesting that the
17 responses of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are mostly due to changes in PBL heights and wind fields.

18

19 **3.4 Effects of RH decreases**

20 The RH was enhanced by 10% in model initial and boundary conditions to represent RH for the
21 previous decades. As a result, the simulated monthly mean RH decreases by 9.3% on domain
22 average. Due to RH perturbation, domain mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentration decreases by $0.7\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. As
23 shown Figure 8(a), $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations decrease in the Jing-Jin-Ji region but increase in



1 southern areas of the domain. The ammonium nitrate formation equilibrium depends on RH (Tai
2 et al., 2010), so HNO_3 may be shifted to the gas phase under lower RH. In addition, the changes
3 in RH can also affect the wet deposition rate. The increases in southern areas of the domain are
4 mainly due to suppressed in-cloud scavenging, as the decreases in RH inhibit the formation of
5 clouds. As shown in Figure 8(b), liquid water path (LWP) decreases by 75.0%. As a result, the
6 in-cloud scavenging loss rate decreases. The changes of predicted aerosol optical depth at 600nm
7 are shown in Figure 8(c). In most regions, visibility decreases due to lower RH. Because of RH
8 decreases, the numbers of haze days (defined using the daily mean threshold 35 and $75\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) in
9 urban Beijing do not change. The responses to RH perturbations were also investigated based on
10 emission levels in 2010, and the results are shown in Figure S3 and Table 3. The responses are
11 also similar to changes based on emission levels in 1960, but with larger magnitudes.

12

13 3.5 Effects of wind speed decreases

14 Simulations were also carried out when wind speeds were increased to estimate the wind speeds
15 for the previous decades. The predicted domain averaged monthly mean wind speed decreases by
16 about 0.7 m/s. As shown in Figure 9(a), the monthly mean near surface horizontal winds are
17 pronounced in mountainous areas (northwest areas of the domain) and relatively smaller in other
18 areas. Figure 9(b) shows the changes of wind speeds (CTL-WS20) due to model perturbations.
19 The predicted monthly mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations decrease by $2.3\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ on domain average, but
20 the responses of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ vary within the domain. As shown in Figure 9(c), $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations
21 decrease in the northwestern areas because of lower production of natural dust under lower
22 horizontal wind speeds. However, in most areas of the North China Plain, $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations
23 increase under lower wind speeds (Figure 9(c)). The domain peak increase is about $2.4\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,



1 which is based on low predicted $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations using emissions for year 1960. If the
2 concentration in base case is higher, the responses will be enhanced. As shown in Figure 9(d),
3 the domain maximum increases in $PM_{2.5}$ increases from 2.4 to $9.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Because of wind speed
4 decreases, number of haze days that daily mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are above $35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$
5 increases by 1.

6

7 **3.6 Effects of changes in aerosol feedbacks**

8 As mentioned in Gao et al. (2016), high concentrations of aerosol enhance stability of boundary
9 layer and increase $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. Due to dramatic changes in emissions from 1960 to
10 2010, the strength of aerosol feedbacks may also have changed. To quantify these changes, we
11 simulated four cases (i.e., CTL, CTL_NF, EMI2010, and EMI2010_NF). CTL-CTL_NF and
12 EMI2010-EMI2010_NF are used to represent the contributions of aerosol radiative effects in
13 1960 and 2010. The changes in monthly mean daytime PBL heights and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are
14 shown in Figure 10. In 1960, the domain averaged PBL height decreases by 6.7 meters due to
15 aerosol radiative effects, and the domain maximum decrease is 25.4 meters. Correspondingly, the
16 domain averaged $PM_{2.5}$ increases by $0.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and the domain maximum increase is $0.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. In
17 2010, the domain averaged PBL height decreases by 13.8 meters and the domain maximum
18 decrease is 55.2 meters (more than two times compared to 1960). Correspondingly, the domain
19 averaged $PM_{2.5}$ increases by $0.7 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and the domain maximum increase is $5.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. The
20 enhanced strength of aerosol feedbacks is another important cause of degraded aerosol pollution.
21 Thus, controlling emissions will have a co-benefit of reducing strength of aerosol feedbacks.

22



1 **3.6 Implications for the effects of emission and meteorology changes on PM_{2.5}**

2 **concentrations**

3 The simulated responses of PM_{2.5} concentrations to emission changes and meteorology changes
4 presented here, along with the previous presented effects of aerosol feedbacks (Gao et al. 2016),
5 provide important implications for the causes of the dramatic increases in winter PM_{2.5}
6 concentrations.

7 We calculated domain maximum changes in PM_{2.5} concentration averaged over four stagnant
8 days (January 16-19) owing to emission changes from 1960-2010 (EMI2010-CTL), temperature
9 increases (CTL-CTL_T2), RH decreases (CTL-CTL_RH10), wind speed decreases (CTL-
10 CTL_RH20), and aerosol feedbacks (CTL-CTL_NF). The values are 137.7, 2.0, 2.6, 7.5 and
11 4.0 μg/m³, respectively. When the perturbations are based on emission levels in 2010, domain
12 maximum changes in PM_{2.5} concentration due to temperature increases (EMI2010-
13 EMI2010_T2), RH decreases (EMI2010-EMI2010_RH10), wind speed decreases (EMI2010-
14 EMI2010_WS20), and aerosol feedbacks (EMI2010-EMI2010_NF) are 4.8, 4.7, 26.4 and
15 25.5 μg/m³. The effects of emission changes on haze formation are dominant and the effects of
16 aerosol feedbacks are comparable to the effects of wind speed decreases.

17 The comprehensive comparisons of these factors are also summarized in Table 3. Based on the
18 monthly domain mean responses of PM_{2.5} concentrations to these factors, dramatic emission
19 changes due to urbanization and industrialization are the main causes of degraded air quality and
20 frequent haze occurrences in in North China. PM_{2.5} is more sensitive to changes in SO₂, NH₃,
21 NO_x emissions than BC and OC (about 106.3% higher). In addition, PM_{2.5} is more sensitive to
22 changes in SO₂ and NH₃ emissions, as compared to changes in NO_x emissions. Thus, they should
23 be preferentially controlled in order to reduce PM_{2.5} levels. To control SO₂ emissions, the usage



1 of natural gas or other clean energy should be promoted to reduce the usage of coal. NH_3
2 emissions in China are mainly from agriculture sources (about 90%), including livestock,
3 fertilizer, and agricultural soil (Huang et al., 2012). Lelieveld et al. (2015) found that agricultural
4 emissions make the largest relative role in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration in eastern USA, Europe, Russia
5 and East Asia. To control NH_3 emissions from agriculture sources, some animal feeding and
6 animal housing strategies should be taken. In addition, controlling emissions will also have a co-
7 benefit of reducing strength of aerosol feedbacks.

8 According to the ECLIPSE_GAINS_4a emission dataset, SO_2 emissions in China will decrease
9 by -26%, NO_x emissions in China will increase by 19%, and NH_3 emissions in China will
10 increase by 14% from 2010 to 2030. We predicted that these changes will lead to large decreases
11 in winter sulfate ($-2.3\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ on domain average). Nitrate will increase by $1.5\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and
12 ammonium will slightly decrease ($-0.05\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) on domain average. The net change of domain
13 averaged $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration is not significant ($-0.8\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), so more efforts are needed to control
14 these important gaseous precursors.

15 From the information listed in Table 3, the responses of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations to temperature and
16 RH perturbations are not as sensitive as to wind speed perturbations. From Sect. 3.3, we also
17 found that the effects of temperature perturbation on $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration are dominant by
18 changes in PBLH and wind fields. Previous studies have pointed out the occurrences of haze
19 events are highly associated with atmospheric circulation anomalies (Chen and Wang, 2015;
20 Zhang et al., 2016). Thus, changes in atmospheric circulations may be another important cause of
21 growing haze pollution, in addition to emission changes. Furthermore, aerosol can also change
22 atmospheric circulation, especially in severely polluted East Asia. Thus, controlling emission
23 may have co-benefits of mitigate aerosol effects on atmospheric circulation.



1 The effects of changing atmospheric circulations on winter haze pollution in China is beyond the
2 scope of this paper, but should be investigated in future studies.

3

4 **4 Conclusions**

5 A fully online coupled meteorological and chemical transport model, WRF-Chem was used to
6 study responses of winter PM_{2.5} concentrations to changes in emissions of SO₂, BC, OC, NH₃,
7 and NO_x and to meteorology (temperature, RH, and wind speeds) changes in the North China
8 region, where people are suffering from severe winter haze pollution.

9 The detailed historical emissions dataset MACCity for year 1960 and 2010 were used to evaluate
10 the impacts of changes in emissions of SO₂, BC, and OC. From 1960 to 2010, the dramatic
11 changes in emissions lead to +264.0% increases in sulfate, +322.5% increases in nitrate,
12 +295.2% increases in ammonium, +157.0% increases in BC and 54% increases in OC. The
13 domain mean PM_{2.5} concentrations increase by 14.7μg/m³ and the domain maximum increase is
14 about 45μg/m³. The responses of PM_{2.5} to individual emission species indicate that the
15 simultaneous increases in SO₂, NH₃ and NO_x emissions dominated the increases in PM_{2.5}
16 concentrations. PM_{2.5} is more sensitive to SO₂ and NH₃ emission changes. The increases in NO_x
17 emissions may decrease surface ozone concentration and surface OH radical concentrations,
18 because the North China region is VOC-limited in the winter. In addition, OC accounts for a
19 large fraction in PM_{2.5} changes.

20 The sensitivities of PM_{2.5} to emission changes of its precursors provide some implications for
21 haze pollution control. SO₂, NH₃ and OC should be preferentially controlled. In China, the
22 residential sector, particularly biofuel usage is the primary sources of OC (Lu et al., 2011). The



1 usage of natural gas or other clean energy should be promoted to reduce the usage of coal and
2 biofuel to reduce SO₂ and OC. To control NH₃ emissions from agriculture sources, some animal
3 feeding and animal housing strategies should be taken.

4 The effects of changes in winter time meteorology conditions were also studied. Emission
5 changes from 1960 to 2010 substantially increase numbers of haze days, but meteorology
6 perturbations do not show any significant impacts. The perturbations in temperature and RH do
7 change PM_{2.5} concentrations, but the strength is not as significant as the effects of wind speed
8 and emission changes. The effects of temperature perturbation are dominated by the changes in
9 surface wind fields and PBLHs. The effect of aerosol feedbacks is comparable to the effect of
10 decreasing wind speeds and the strength of aerosol feedbacks significantly increased from 1960
11 to 2010.

12 The above discussions indicate that aerosol concentrations are mainly controlled by atmospheric
13 circulations, except emission changes. Thus, long-term trends in atmospheric circulations maybe
14 another important cause of winter haze events in North China. More studies are necessary to get
15 a better understanding of the aerosol-circulation interactions.

16

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3

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Table 1. Simulation cases and descriptions

Cases	Descriptions
CTL	Base case, anthropogenic emissions are from MACCity dataset for year 1960
EMI2010	Anthropogenic emissions are from MACCity dataset for year 2010
SO ₂ -2010	Same as CTL case except SO ₂ emissions are for year 2010
NH ₃ -2010	Same as CTL case except NH ₃ emissions are for year 2010
NO _x -2010	Same as CTL case except NO _x emissions are for year 2010
CTL_T2	Same as CTL case except temperature BCs and ICs are decreased by 2K
CTL_RH10	Same as CTL case except RH BCs and ICs are increased by 10%
CTL_WS20	Same as CTL case except wind speed BCs and ICs are increased by 20%
CTL_NF	Same as CTL case except aerosol-radiation interactions are excluded
EMI2010_T2	Same as EMI2010 case except temperature BCs and ICs are decreased by 2K
EMI2010_T2	Same as EMI2010 case except RH BCs and ICs are increased by 10%
EMI2010_WS20	Same as EMI2010 case except wind speed BCs and ICs are increased by 20%
EMI2010_NF	Same as EMI2010 case except aerosol-radiation interactions are excluded

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1 Table 2. Monthly domain mean concentrations of PM_{2.5} and its major components for year 1960, and
 2 domain maximum and mean concentrations for changes from 1960 to 2010 due to emission changes

3 (µg/m³)

Years		SO ₄ ²⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	BC	OC	PM _{2.5}
1960	Domain mean	1.9	0.8	0.8	1.5	4.6	19.2
1960-2010	Domain maximum	18.9	7.8	6.8	9.9	11.1	45.0
	Domain mean	5.0 (264.0%)	2.6 (322.5%)	2.3 (295.2%)	2.3 (156.6%)	2.5 (54.0%)	14.7 (76.4%)

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1 Table 3. Monthly domain mean changes of sulfate, nitrate, ammonium and PM_{2.5} concentrations (μg/m³)
 2 due to emission and meteorology perturbations, and aerosol feedbacks (the two values of PM_{2.5} changes
 3 are for meteorology perturbations and aerosol feedbacks based on 1960 and 2010 emission levels,
 4 respectively)

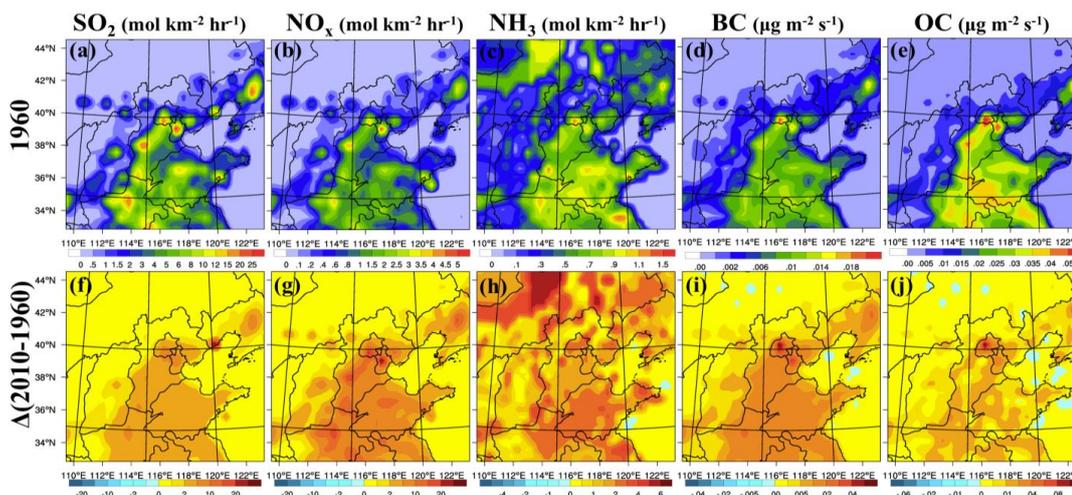
	SO ₄ ²⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	PM _{2.5}
Changes in SO ₂ emissions	3.4(178.3%)	-0.3 (-32.3%)	0.2 (29.4%)	3.4
Changes in NH ₃ emissions	0.1 (5.3%)	1.5 (189.6%)	0.6 (84.0%)	2.3
Changes in NO _x emissions	-0.7 (-39.1%)	0.6 (76.0%)	-0.04 (-5.1%)	-0.2
Changes in SO ₂ , NH ₃ , NO _x emissions	5.0 (264.0%)	2.6 (322.5%)	2.3 (295.2%)	9.9
Changes in BC emissions	-	-	-	2.3
Changes in OC emissions	-	-	-	2.5
Temperature perturbations	-	-	-	-0.01/0.3
RH perturbations	-	-	-	-0.7/-1.1
Wind speed perturbations	-	-	-	-2.3/-0.5
Aerosol feedbacks				0.1/0.7

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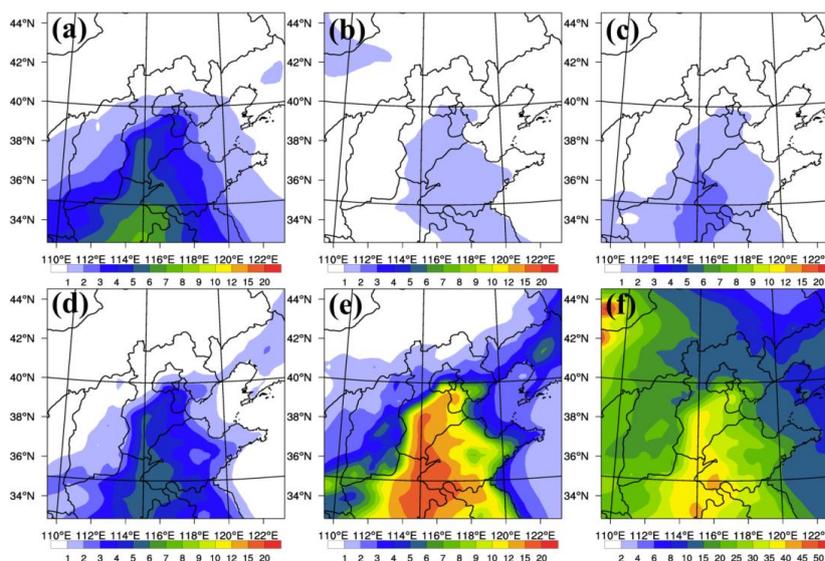
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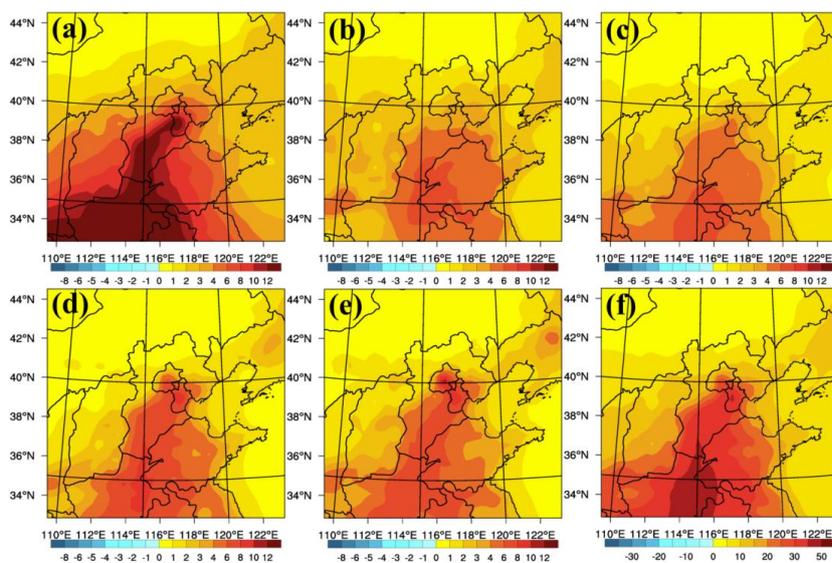
2 Figure 1. Surface SO_2 , NO_x , NH_3 , BC and OC emissions for year 1960 (a-e), and the changes of them
3 from 1960 to 2010 (f-j)

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6 Figure 2. Predicted monthly mean sulfate (a), nitrate (b), ammonium (c), BC (d), OC (e) and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (f)
7 concentrations based on emissions for year 1960



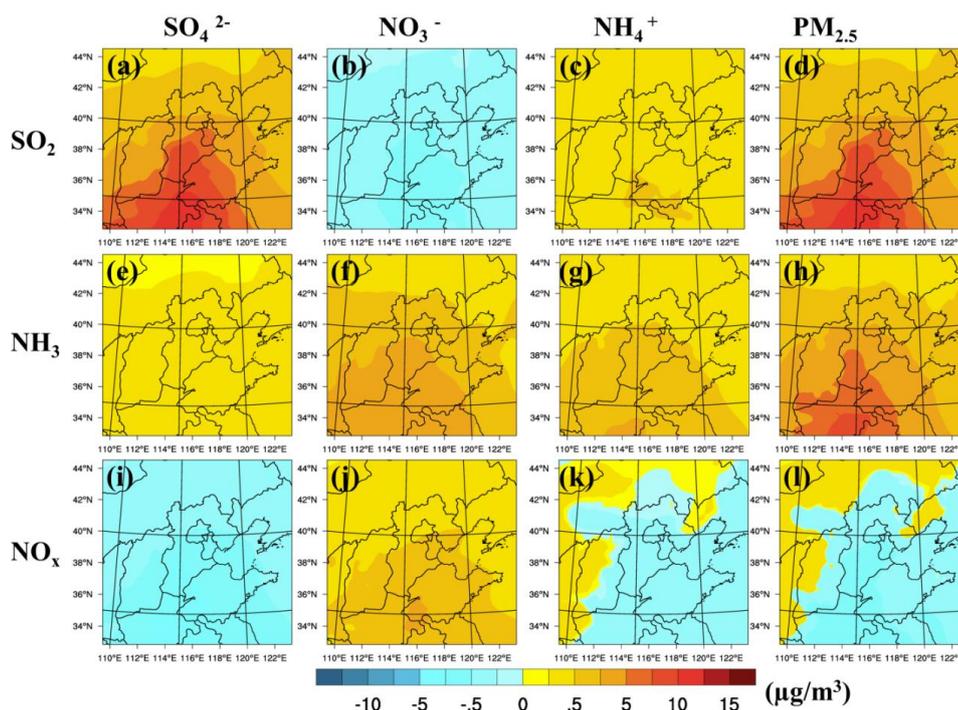
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Figure 3. Predicted monthly mean changes of sulfate (a), nitrate (b), ammonium (c), BC (d), OC (e) and $PM_{2.5}$ (f) due to emission changes from 1960 to 2010 (units: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)



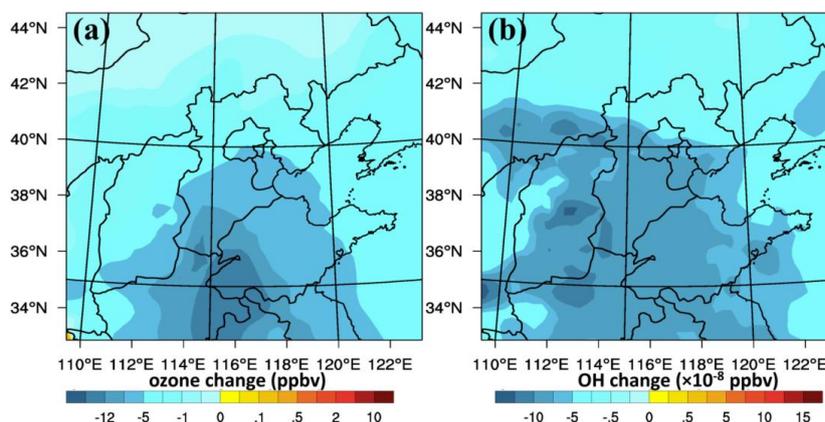
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Figure 4. Responses of $PM_{2.5}$ and major $PM_{2.5}$ inorganic species (sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium) to individual changes in SO_2 , NH_3 and NO_x emissions from 1960 to 2010

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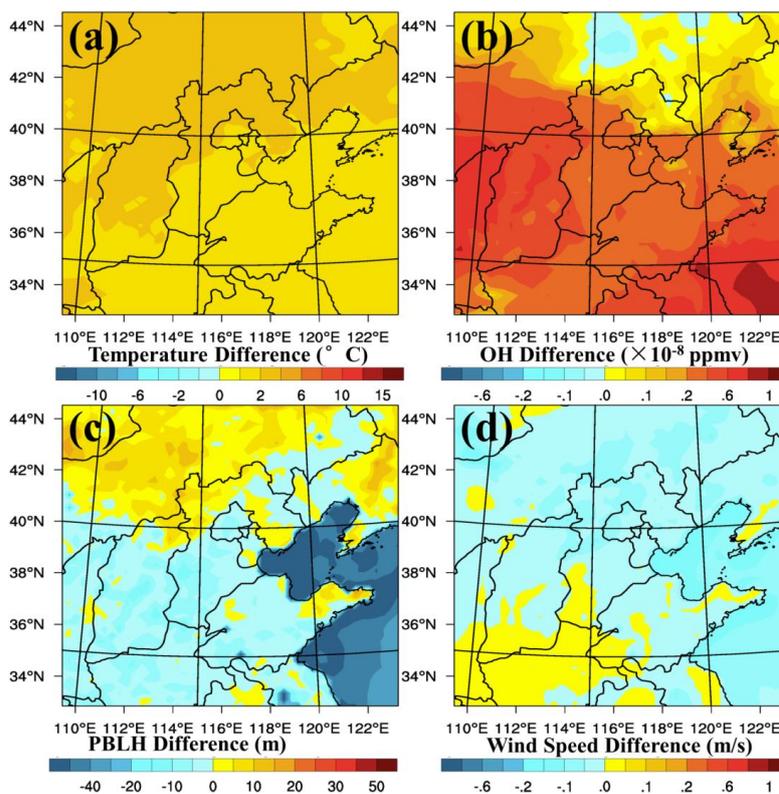
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Figure 5. Daytime ozone (a) and daytime OH (b) changes due to NO_x emission increases



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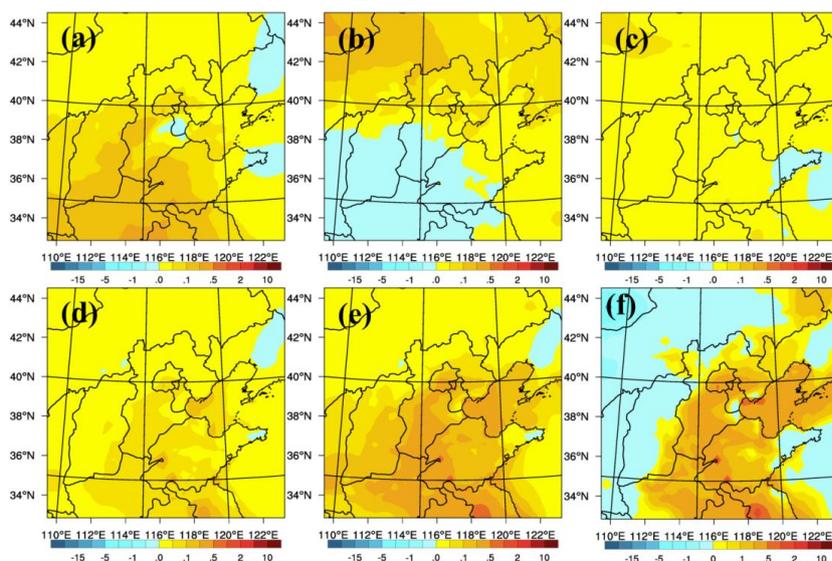


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3 Figure 6. Monthly mean temperature difference due to perturbation in initial and boundary conditions

4 (a), and daily mean OH (b), mean PBLH (c) and mean near surface wind speed changes (d) due to

5 temperature increase



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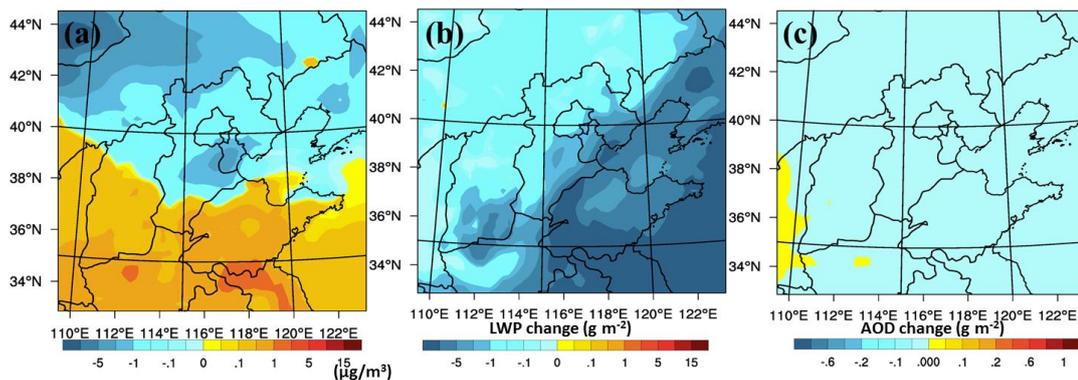
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Figure 7. Monthly mean changes of sulfate (a), nitrate (b), ammonium (c), BC (d), OC (e), and PM_{2.5}

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(f) and due to temperature increase

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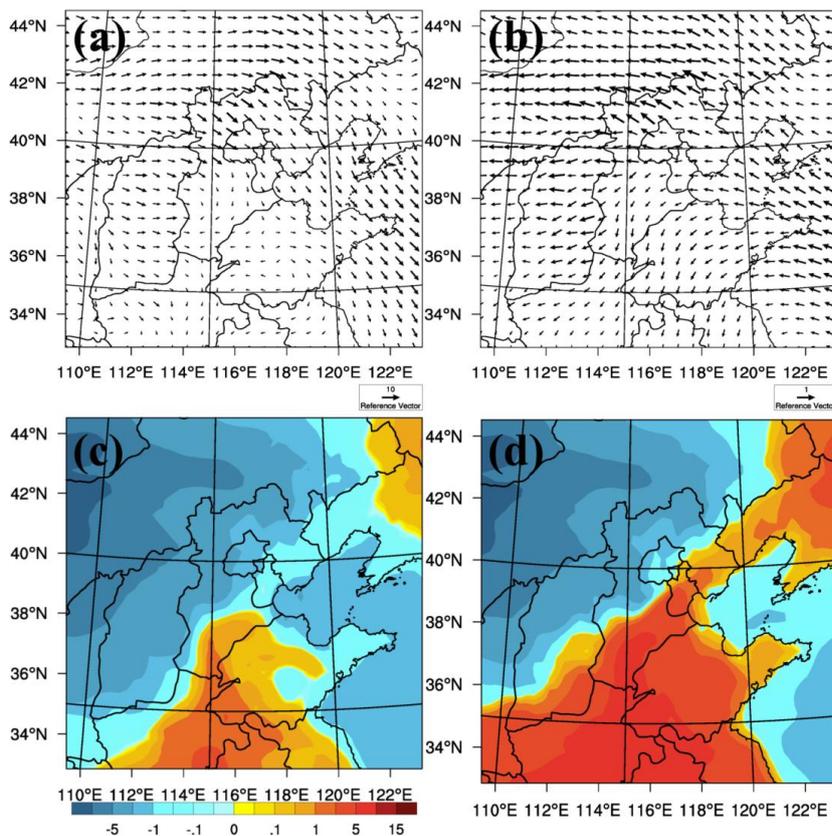


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Figure 8. Monthly mean changes of PM_{2.5} (a), LWP (b), and AOD at 600nm (c) due to RH decrease

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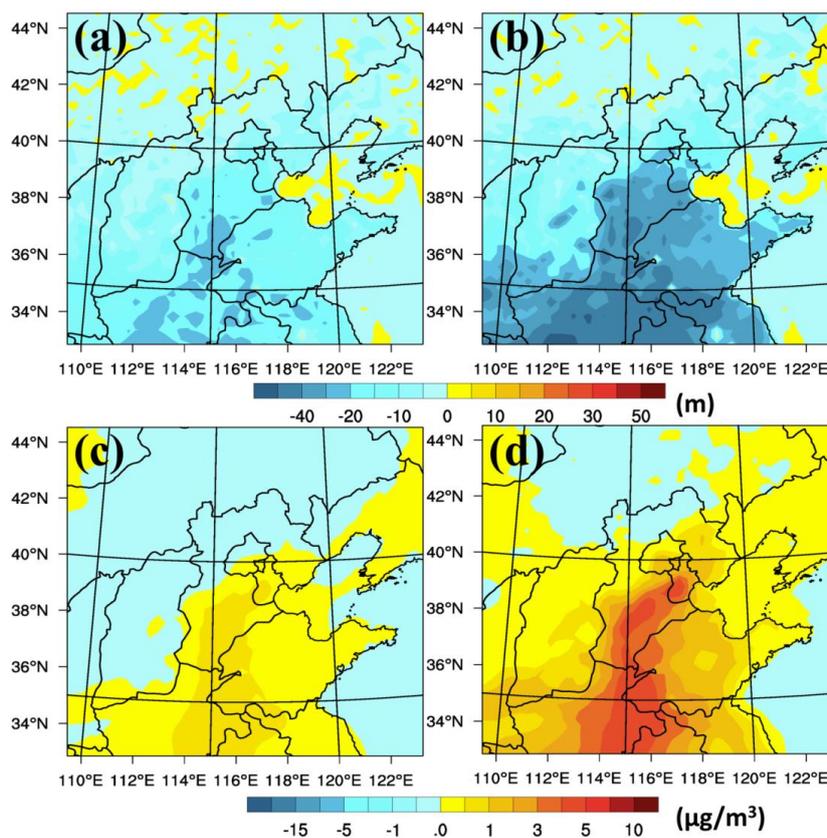
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Figure 9. Monthly mean wind fields for WS20 case (a) and changes of wind speeds (CTL-
CTL_WS20) (b), and mean changes of PM_{2.5} concentrations based on 1960 emission levels (c) and 2010
emission levels (d)



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2 Figure 10. Monthly mean changes of daytime PBL heights for year 1960 (a) and 2010 (b), and of

3 daytime PM_{2.5} concentrations for year 1960 (c) and 2010 (d) due to aerosol-radiation interactions

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