



Seasonal characteristics, formation mechanisms and geographical origins of

PM_{2.5} in two megacities in Sichuan Basin, China

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- 1 Abstract. To investigate the characteristics of PM_{2.5} and its major chemical components, formation
- 2 mechanisms, and geographical origins in the two biggest cities, Chengdu (CD) and Chongqing (CQ) in
- 3 Sichuan Basin, the most densely populated basin in China, daily PM_{2.5} samples were collected
- 4 simultaneously at one urban site in each city from October 2014 to July 2015. Annual mean
- 5 concentrations of PM_{2.5} were 67.0 ± 43.4 and $70.9 \pm 41.4 \,\mu g \, m^{-3}$ at CD and CQ, respectively. Secondary
- 6 inorganic aerosols (SNA) and organic matter (OM) accounted for 41.1% and 26.1%, respectively, of
- 7 PM_{2.5} mass at CD, and 37.4% and 29.6% at CQ. Seasonal variations of PM_{2.5} and its major chemical
- 8 components were significant, usually with the highest values in winter and the lowest in summer. SNA
- 9 and OM were 1.7-3.4 times higher on polluted days than on clean days at both sites, whereas their
- 10 percentage contributions to PM_{2.5} varied differently among the components and between the two sites.
- 11 Gas-phase oxidation probably played an important role on the formation of secondary aerosols when
- 12 $PM_{2.5}$ mass varied in the range of 75-150 µg m⁻³, while heterogeneous transformation was likely the
- 13 major mechanism on the heavy polluted days. Geographical regions causing high PM_{2.5} were identified
- to mainly distribute within the basin at both sites based on potential source contribution function (PSCF)
- 15 analysis.



16 **1 Introduction**

- Fine particles (PM_{2.5}, particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter smaller than 2.5 μm) have
- adverse effects on human health (Anderson et al., 2012; Lepeule et al., 2012; Taus et al., 2008),
- deteriorate air quality (Zhang et al., 2008; Paraskevopoulou et al., 2015), reduce atmospheric visibility
- 20 (Fu et al., 2016; Cao et al., 2012; Baumer et al., 2008), impact climate (Ramanathan and Feng, 2009;
- Hitzenberger et al., 1999; Mahowald, 2011), and affect ecosystem (Larssen et al., 2006). In the past two
- decades, China has experienced serious PM_{2.5} pollution due to the rapidily incresing energy
- consumption through econmic development, industrialization and urbanization (Tie and Cao, 2009).
- 24 The National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for PM_{2.5} was promulgated by the Chinese
- 25 government in 2012, and strict strategies have been implemented nationwide, e.g. controling SO₂
- 26 emissions by installing desulphurization system in coal-fired power plants and conversion of fuel to
- 27 natural gas (Lu et al., 2011), mitigating NO_x emissions through traffic restrictions, and reducing
- 28 biomass burning through straw shredding. Despite these efforts, there are still many cities that have not
- 29 met the current NAAQS. According to the '2013-2015 Reports on the State of Environment of China',
- annual mean concentration of PM_{2.5} in all the74 major cities over China was 72, 64, and 50 μ g m⁻³ in
- 2013, 2014 and 2015, respectively, and only 4.1%, 12.2% and 22.5% of the monitored cities met the
- 32 NAAQS (35 μ g m⁻³).
- Previous studies showed that Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei area (BTH), Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Pearl 33 34 River Delta (PRD), and Sichuan Basin were the four main regions in China with severe aerosol pollution. While many studies have been conducted in BTH, PRD and YRD regions to understand the 35 general characteristics of PM2.5 and its chemical components, formation mechanism, and sources (Ji et 36 al., 2016; Li et al., 2015; Quan et al., 2015; Tan et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013; Zhao 37 et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2013a; Cheng et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2015a; Yang et al., 2011a), only a few 38 studies have focused on Sichuan Basin (Tao et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2011b). 39 Covering an area of 260,000 km² with a population of around 100 million in southwest China, the 40 Sichuan Basin is a subtropical expanse of low hills and plains and the most populated basin in China. It 41 42 is completely encircled by high mountains, and characterized by persistently high relative humidity, and 43 extremely low wind speeds all the year-round (Mengting et al., 2016; Chen and Xie, 2013). It is 44 supposed that the characteristics of PM_{2.5} in Sichuan Basin should be very different from those in
- supposed that the characteristics of $1 \text{ M}_{2.5}$ in Stendari Dashi should be very different from those in
- 45 eastern coastal China (i.e. PRD and YRD) and North China Plain (i.e. BTH) due to its special





topography and meteorological conditions, besides emission sources. More specifically, the terrain of 46 47 the two megacities in the basin are distinct from each other, i.e., Chongqing is a mountainous 48 municipality lying on the eastern margin of the basin while Chengdu is located in a completely flat west. Therefore, there is a great interest in comparing the chemical components of PM2.5 and characterizing 49 pollution episodes between Chengdu and Chongqing. 50 The present study aims to fill this gap by measuring chemically-resolved PM_{2.5} in Chengdu and 51 Chongqing in four seasons during 2014-2015. The main objectives are to: (1) characterize the seasonal 52 and site differences of $PM_{2.5}$ and its major chemical components at the two urban sites in Sichuan Basin; 53 (2) compare the PM_{2.5} chemical components under different PM_{2.5} levels and identify the major 54 chemical components that are responsible for PM2.5 pollution episodes; (3) explore the possible 55 formation mechanism of the secondary organic and inorganic aerosols; and (4) reveal the geographical 56 regions causing high PM_{2.5} levels through potential source contribution function (PSCF) analysis. The 57 comparison of the differences of PM2.5 in this paper provides insight regarding the extent to which fine 58 59 particulate pollution can vary in terms of in chemical composition, formation mechanisims, and geographical origins between the two megacities in a great basin. This information has implications for 60 better understanding the reasons for heavy haze pollution in this unique basin. 61

62 2 Methodology

63 2.1 Sampling sites

PM_{2.5} samples were collected at two urban sites, one in Chengdu and another in Chongqing, the two 64 largest cities in Sichuan Basin, southwest China (Wang et al., 2017). The two sampling sites are located 65 260 km apart (Fig. 1). The sampling site in Chengdu (CD) is located on the roof of a sixth floor building 66 in the Sichuan Academy of Environmental Science (104°4' E, 30°37' N) with no large surrounding 67 industries but heavy traffic. The closest main road (Renmin South road of Chengdu) is about 20 m east 68 of the samling site. The sampling site in Chongqing (CQ) is located on the rooftop of Chongqing 69 Monitoring Center (106°30' E, 29°37' N). The highway G50 is 250 m away from this sampling site. The 70 two selected sampling sites are considered to represent typical urban environment in their respective 71 cities without the influence of local point sources from industry activities. 72





73 2.2 Sample collection

74 Daily (23-h) integrated PM_{2.5} samples were collected in four months, each in a different season: autumn 75 (23 October to 18 November, 2014), winter (6 January to 2 February, 2015), spring (2 to 29 April, 2015), and summer (2 to 30 July, 2015). At both sites, PM25 samples were collected in parallel on Teflon filters 76 77 (Whatman Corp., 47 mm) and quartz filters (Whatman Corp., 47 mm) and used for different chemical 78 analyses. At the CD site, PM2.5 sampling was carried out using an versatile air pollutant sampler (Wang 79 et al., 2017). One channel was used to load PM2.5 sample on Teflon filter for mass and trace elements anlysis and the other one was equipped with quatz filter for water-soluble inorganic ions and 80 carbonaceous components analysis. The sampler was running at 15 L min⁻¹ for each channel. At the CQ 81 site, a low-volume aerosol sampler (BGI Corp., frmOmni, USA) operating at a flow rate of 5 L min⁻¹ 82 was used to collect PM_{2.5} samples on Teflon filter, and another sampler (Thermo Scientific Corp. 83 Partisol 2000i, USA) with a flow rate of 16.7 L min⁻¹ was used to collect PM_{2.5} samples on quartz filter. 84 Before sampling, all the quartz filters were preheated at 450°C for 4 h to remove the organic 85 compounds. All sampled filters were stored in clean Petri slides in the dark and at -18°C until analysis 86 to prevent the evaporation of volatile compounds. Before and after sample collection, all the Teflon 87 filters were weighted at least three times using an microbalance (Sartorius, ME 5-F, Germany) after 88 their stabilization for 48 h under controlled conditions (temperature: 20~23°C, relative humidity: 89 $45 \sim 50\%$). Differences among replicate weights were mostly less than 15 µg for each sample. 90

91 2.3 Chemical analysis

92 For the analysis of water-soluble inorganic ions, a quarter of each quartz filter was first extracted using 93 ultrapure water in an ultrasonic bath for 30 min, and then filtered through a 0.45 µm pore syringe filter. Anions (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and Cl⁻) and cations (Na⁺, NH₄⁺, K⁺, Mg²⁺ and Ca²⁺) were determined using ion 94 chromatograph (Dionex Corp., Dionex 600, USA). Anions were separated using AS11-HC column with 95 30 mM KOH as an eluent at a flow rate of 1.0 ml min⁻¹. Cations were determined using CS12A column 96 with 20 mM MSA (methanesulfonic acid) at a flow rate of 1.0 ml min⁻¹. Individual standard solutions of 97 all investigated anions and cations (1000 mg L^{-1} , o2si, USA) were diluted to construct the calibration 98 curves. The correlation coefficients of the linear regression of the standard curves were all above 0.999. 99 Field blanks were prepared and analyzed together with the samples and then subtracted from the 100 samples. The concentrations of the water-soluble inorganic ions in the field blanks were in the range of 101





102 $0.008-0.13 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$. The relative standard deviation of each ion was better than 8% for the reproducibility 103 test.

104 Organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) were measured by thermal-optical reflectance

105 (TOR) method using a DRI OC/EC analyzer (Atmoslytic Inc., USA). The methodology for OC/EC

analysis was based on TOR method as described in Chow et al. (2007). For calibration and quality

107 control, measurement with filter blank, standard sucrose solution and replicate analysis were performed.

108 Blank corrections were performed by subtracting the blank values from the sampled ones. The

109 concentration of EC in field blanks was zero while OC were below $0.7 \ \mu g \ C \ cm^{-2}$. The repeatability was

110 better than 15%.

111 The elements including Al, Si, Ca, Fe, and Ti were analyzed on Teflon filter using X-ray

112 fluorescence analyzer (Epsilon 5ED-XRF, PAN'alytical Corp., Netherlands), the QA/QC procedures of

the XRF analysis have been described in Cao et al. (2012).

114 The gaseous species were continuously measured by a set of online gas analyzers, including

115 EC9850 SO₂ analyzer, 9841 NO/NO₂/NO_x analyzer, 9830 CO analyzer, and 9810 O₃ analyzer (Ecotech

116 Corp., Australia) at the CD site, and Thermo 42i NO/NO₂/NO_x analyzer, 43i SO₂ analyzer, 48i CO

analyzer, and 49i O₃ analyzer (Thermo Scientific Corp., USA) at the CQ site. The mass concentration of

118 PM_{2.5} was automatically measured by online particulate monitor instruments (BAM1020, Met one

119 Corp., USA, at CD and 5030 SHARP, Thermo Scientific Corp, USA, at CQ). Hourly meteorological

120 parameters, including ambient temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS) and direction,

barometric pressure (P), and solar radiation (SR), were obtained from an automatic weather station at

122 each site.

123 **2.4 Data analysis**

124 The EC-tracer method has been widely used to estimate SOC (Turpin and Huntzicker, 1995; Castro et

al., 1999), which can be expressed as

126 $POC=(OC/EC)_{prim} \times EC$ (1)

 $127 \quad \text{SOC=OC-POC} \tag{2}$

128 Where POC, SOC and OC represent estimated primary OC, secondary OC and measured total OC,

129 respectively. (OC/EC)_{min} was simplified as the (OC/EC)_{prim} to estimate SOC in this study. (OC/EC)_{min}

use 2.4, 2.6, 1.6 and 2.2 in autumn, winter, spring and summer at CD, respectively, and 1.9, 2.8, 1.1

and 1.5 at CQ. The estimated SOC was only an approximation with uncertainties, e.g., from influence





132 of biomass burning (Ding et al., 2012).

The coefficient of divergence (COD) has been used to evaluate the spatial similarity of chemical compositions at different sites (Wongphatarakul et al., 1998; Qu et al., 2015), which is defined as

135
$$COD_{jk} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{p} \sum_{1}^{p} (\frac{x_{ij} - x_{ik}}{x_{ij} + x_{ik}})^2}$$
 (3)

Where x_{ij} and x_{ik} represent the average concentration for a chemical component *i* at site *j* and *k*, respectively, *p* is the number of chemical components. Generally, a COD value lower than 0.2 indicates a relatively similarity of spatial distribution.

139 2.5 Geographical origins of PM_{2.5}

140 72-h air mass back trajectories were generated based on the Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian

141 Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model using 40 km gridded meteorological data (GDAS 40 km) for

142 PM_{2.5} measurements from October 2014 to July 2015 at both sites. Four trajectories at 04:00, 10:00,

143 16:00, and 22:00 UTC every day with the starting height of 300 m above ground level were calculated

144 (Squizzato and Masiol, 2015). The trajectories coupled with daily PM_{2.5} concentrations were used for

145 PSCF analysis, with the threshold criterion in PSCF analysis being set at the upper 50% of PM_{2.5}. The

trajectory covered area was in the range of 20-45° N and 90-120° E and divided into 0.5°×0.5° grid cells.

147 **3 Results and discussion**

148 3.1 Overview of PM_{2.5} mass concentrations and major components

149 Table 1 presents seasonal and annual mean concentrations of PM_{2.5} and its major chemical components

at CD and CQ during the sampling periods. Daily $PM_{2.5}$ ranged from 11.6 to 224.7 µg m⁻³ with annual

average being $67.0 \pm 43.4 \,\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at CD site and $70.9 \pm 41.4 \,\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at CQ site. The annual average

values were about two times of the NAAQS annual limit. Secondary inorganic aerosol (SNA, the sum

- of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^{-} and NH_4^{+}) and carbonaceous species together represented more than 70% of $PM_{2.5}$ at
- both sites (Fig. 2). The annual mean concentrations of the total SNA were 27.6 and 26.5 μ g m⁻³ at CD
- and CQ, respectively, contributing 41.1% and 37.4% of PM_{2.5}. Among these, SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^{-} and NH_4^+
- were 11.2, 9.1, and 7.2 μ g m⁻³, respectively, or 16.8%, 13.6% and 10.8% of PM_{2.5} mass at CD, and 12.2,
- 157 7.7 and 6.6 μ g m⁻³ or 17.2%, 10.9% and 9.2% of PM_{2.5} mass at CQ. Organic matters (OM), estimated
- from OC by using a conversion factor of 1.6 to account for other elements present in organic





- compounds (Turpin and Lim, 2001), were the most abundant species in PM2.5, accounting for 26.1% 159 160 and 29.6% of PM_{2.5} mass at CD and CQ, respectively. In contrast, EC only comprised of around 6% at 161 both sites. The annual mean OC and EC at CQ were 20% and 25% higher than those at CD. Fine soil 162 (FS) can be estimated by summing the oxides of the elements mainly associated with soil, i.e., Al₂O₃, SiO₂, CaO, FeO, Fe₂O₃, and TiO₂ (Huang et al., 2014). The annual mean concentration of FS at CQ was 163 $6.7 \,\mu g \,\mathrm{m}^{-3}$ (or 9.5% of PM_{2.5}), which was about two times of that at CD (3.8 $\mu g \,\mathrm{m}^{-3}$ or 5.7% of PM_{2.5}). 164 The minor components such as K⁺ and Cl⁻ constituted less than 5% of PM_{2.5}. The unaccounted portion 165 of $PM_{2.5}$ reached 18.3% at CD and 15.3% at CQ, which was likely related to the uncertainties in the 166 multiplication factor used for estimation of OM and FS, other unidentified species, and measurement 167
- 168 uncertainties.

169 **3.2 Seasonal variations**

Figure 3 shows the seasonal variations of mass concentrations of PM_{2.5} and its major chemical 170 components at CD and CQ sites. Seasonal-average PM_{2.5} was the highest in winter at both sites, which 171 was 1.8-2.5 times of those in the other seasons. Besides the high emissions of SO_2 and NO_x in winter, 172 stagnant air condition with frequent calm winds and low boundary layer height was another major cause 173 174 of the highest PM_{2.5} in this season (Chen and Xie, 2013). Seasonal differences among the other three 175 seasons were generally small, e.g., less than 40%. All PM_{2.5} components but FS followed the seasonal pattern of PM2.5 with the highest concentrations in winter, but with subtle differences. The majority of 176 the components showed a summer minimum, but not SO₄²⁻. The minimum of OC at CD and FS at CQ 177 appeared in spring and autumn, respectively. Higher SO₄²⁻ concentrations in summer were likely due to 178 the enhanced photochemical reactions associated with higher temperature and stronger solar radiation in 179 summer. It is also noted that the seasonal variations in NO_3^- were much larger than those in SO_4^{2-} and 180 NH_4^+ , which can be explained by the enhanced formation of NO_3^- under high relative humidity in winter, 181 and volatility of NH₄NO₃ in summer (Pathak et al., 2009; Quan et al., 2015; Squizzato et al., 2013). In 182 183 addition, thermodynamically driven behavior of NH₄NO₃ was another factor for the lower NO₃⁻ concentrations in summer (Wang et al., 2016; Kuprov et al., 2014). High levels of Cl⁻ and K⁺ in winter 184 and of FS in spring should be caused by biomass burning or spring dust storms (Tao et al. 2013, 2014). 185 Both OC and EC showed the highest concentrations in winter at CD and CQ, whereas seasonal 186 differences of those carbonaceous components were less distinct in other seasons, e.g. the variations of 187

188 OC and EC among other three seasons were less than 30%. Seasonal average SOC was unexpectedly





the highest in winter at both sites, different from the anticipated high value in summer in consideration 189 190 of strong photochemical reaction. Condensation of semi-volatile organic aerosols in winter seemed to 191 play a larger role than photochemical reaction in summer, knowing that low temperature favors 192 condensation process (Sahu et al., 2011; Cesari et al., 2016). Although high O₃ and strong solar radiation condition in summer was conducive to strong photochemical reactions, high temperature 193 favors gas-particle partitioning in the gaseous phase and thus limited the increase of SOC (Strader et al., 194 1999). 195 The seasonal relative contributions of major chemical component to PM_{2.5} are shown in Fig. 2. The 196

seasonal average contributions of SNA to PM_{2.5} only varied within a small range from 39.5% to 43.2% 197 at CD, whereas in a relatively larger range from 31.0% in summer to 37.1-41.5% in other seasons at CQ. 198 The smaller contribution in summer at CQ was mainly due to the lower NO₃⁻ concentrations. At both 199 CD and CQ, NO_3^- and NH_4^+ showed the highest contributions in winter and the lowest one in summer, 200 whereas an opposite trend was found for SO4²⁻. The contributions of carbonaceous components (the sum 201 of OC and EC) generally followed the seasonal patterns of SNA, accounting for 26.7-38.8% of PM_{2.5} 202 mass. Among these, OM showed the lowest fractions in PM_{2.5} in spring (21.1%) at CD and highest 203 value in winter (33.6%) at CQ, while the percentages of OM in other seasons were similar at both sites, 204 205 around 27%. The seasonal variations of EC fractions were not obvious, with a slightly higher value in spring. The highest contributions from FS was more than 10%, appeared in spring at both sites. 206

207 **3.3 Site differences**

A comparison between the two sites in terms of seasonal-average concentrations of major chemical 208 components are shown in Fig. 4. Despite the 260 km distance between the two sampling sites, a 209 210 moderate similarity was observed in autumn, winter and spring on the basis of low COD values (0.15-0.18), indicating the regional-scale PM_{2.5} pollution pattern in Sichuan Basin and the similarity in 211 major emission sources for both sites. However, it is worth to note that several components differed by 212 up to a factor of 2.5 in their season-average concentrations, e.g. OC and EC in winter and spring, and 213 Cl⁻ and FS in all the four seasons. These discrepancies were partly caused by the different atmospheric 214 chemical processes and local sources between the two sites on certain days. In summer, the differences 215 for several major chemical components (FS, OC, SO4²⁻, NO3⁻, EC) between the two sites were larger 216 than in other seasons, causing the high COD value (0.33) in this season. 217

218 Good correlations between the two sites were found for daily SNA, OC, EC and K⁺ concentrations





in autumn, winter and spring (Table 2). However, for NO_3^- , a significant correlation was identified only in autumn, likely due to the strong impact of local vehicle emissions and the subsequent atmospheric processes forming NO_3^- . Similarly, a moderate correlation was observed just in winter for both Cl⁻ and FS. In summer, weak or no correlations were identified between the two sites for almost all chemical components. Therefore, there existed a fairly uniform distribution of most major components in PM_{2.5} throughout the basin in all the seasons except summer.

225 3.4 Chemical characteristics of PM_{2.5} on clean and polluted days

226 **3.4.1 Key chemical species causing polluted days**

To explore the major chemical pollutants responsible for polluted days, daily $PM_{2.5}$ data were 227 categorized into two groups, i.e. clean days and polluted days based on PM2.5 concentrations below and 228 above the NAAQS guideline value of 75 µg m⁻³, respectively. 34 and 31 polluted days were counted at 229 CD and CQ site, respectively, accounting for 30.4% and 28.6% of the entire sampling days. The number 230 of polluted days at CD was 8, 21, 4 and 1 in autumn, winter, spring and summer, accounting for 29.6%, 231 75%, 14.3% and 3.4% of the total sampling days in each season, respectively, and at CQ they were 4, 19, 232 6 and 2, accounting for 14.8%, 67.9%, 21.4% and 6.9%. Note that these numbers were only from 233 234 one-month (around 28 days) sampling in each season. Considering the similar meteorological conditions and pollution levels during autumn and spring, these two seasons were combined together 235 and was referred to as the warm season, while winter was referred to as the cold season. Because of the 236 very small number of polluted days in summer at both sites, the PM2.5 data in this season were not 237 238 discussed. $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations increased dramatically on polluted days compared to clean days (Fig. 5). For 239

example, $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were more than doubled on polluted days during the entire sampling 240 periods at both sites. The two dominant groups of components in PM2.5, SNA and OC, were 2.5-2.8 241 times higher on polluted days in both cold and warm seasons at CD. However, larger variations were 242 found at CO with SNA increased by 2.7 and 1.7 times, and OM by 3.4 and 2.1 times in the cold and 243 warm season, respectively. Thus, while the enhancement of SNA and OC on polluted days were similar 244 245 at CD, OC increased much more at CQ, indicating some different contributing factors to the high PM_{2.5} pollution at the two sites. Pollutants accumulation under stagnant meteorological conditions might be a 246 247 main factor at CD based on the similar magnitudes of the enhancements of PM2.5 and its dominant





components, while additional processes should have increased OC more than other components at CQ. 248 249 In the cold season, the percentage contributions of SNA to PM_{2.5} were similar on clean and polluted 250 days, 38-41% at both sites (Fig. S1). However, the percentage contribution of OM to PM_{2.5} decreased 251 from 30.1% on clean days to 27.5% on polluted days at CD, and increased from 26.9% to 34.9% at CQ. A different pattern was seen in the warm season, with no significant variations of OM fractions in PM_{2.5} 252 between the clean and polluted days at either site, but an increased SNA contribution by around 7% at 253 CD and decreased contribution by 14% at CQ. The percentage contributions of SNA and OM to PM_{2.5} 254 discussed above were different from those found in eastern coastal China and North China Plain, where 255 considerable increases were found for SNA and decreases for OM on polluted days than clean days 256 (Tan et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2015; Quan et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2015a; Zhang et al., 2016; Cheng et 257 al., 2015). This emphasized again the unique characteristics of $PM_{2.5}$ pollution in Sichuan Basin due to 258 its particular topography and meteorological conditions. 259 Concentrations of the individual SNA species (SO42-, NO3- and NH4+) increased by a factor of 260

- 1.2-3.3 on polluted days compared to clean days in all the cases (Fig. 5). But the percentage
- contributions differed among the species as NO_3^- increased and SO_4^{2-} decreased on polluted days. The
- 263 concentration of FS increased slightly at CD (less than $3 \mu g m^{-3}$) but significantly (from 5.4 on clean
- days to 14.7 μ g m⁻³ on polluted days) at CQ in warm season. The percentage contribution of FS to PM_{2.5}
- reached 15.3% on polluted days at CQ in warm season.

266 3.4.2 Transformation mechanisms of secondary aerosols

- 267 Meteorological conditions, atmospheric chemical processes and long-range transport are all responsible
- for PM_{2.5} accumulation on polluted days (Zheng et al., 2015b). CO and EC are directly emitted from
- combustion processes and are not very reactive, thus their concentrations in the air are strongly
- 270 controlled by meteorological parameters within a relatively short period. Both CO and EC
- concentrations increased on polluted days (Fig. 5 and Fig. S2), suggesting the important role the
- meteorological condition played on $PM_{2.5}$ accumulation. As expected, very weak winds (less than 0.7 m
- s^{-1}) were observed on polluted days, which hindered the pollutants horizontal transport. CO can be
- considered as a reference pollutant species whose temporal variations were mainly from the impact of
- 275 meteorological conditions. The impact of other factors on other pollutants can thus be explored by
- scaling the concentrations of other pollutants to that of CO. For example, PM_{2.5} was enhanced by a
- factor of 2.0-2.7 on polluted days than clean days in the two seasons and at the two sites, but the





CO-scaled PM_{2.5} only showed an enhancement of a factor of 1.5-1.8 (Fig. 6), and the latter values were
likely from the enhanced secondary aerosol formation.

- As shown in Fig. 6, the CO-scaled SNA was 60-90% higher on polluted days with individual species 40-120% higher (except in the warm season at CQ), even though their gaseous precursor (SO₂
- and NO₂, no data for NH₃) were only less than 30% higher. This suggests stronger chemical
- transformation from gaseous precursors to particle formation on polluted days. Sulfur oxidation ratio
- (SOR = $n-SO_4^{2-}/(n-SO_4^{2-}+n-SO_2)$) and nitrogen oxidation ratio (NOR = $n-NO_3^{-}/(n-NO_3^{-}+n-NO_2)$) were
- defined to evaluate the degree of secondary transformation (*n* refers to as the molar concentration). In
- the cold season, NOR increased from 0.09 on clean days to 0.16 on polluted days at CD and from 0.07
- to 0.14 at CQ. SOR increased only slightly, from 0.31 to 0.35 at CD and 0.28 to 0.35 at CQ. In the
- warm season, NOR and SOR exhibited a similar pattern as those in the cold season with the exception
- of NOR at CQ, which might be related to the high temperature in the warm season. The CO-scaled SOC
- increased by a factor of 2.6 and 1.5 on polluted days in the cold and warm season at CQ, but no
- significant change or decrease was found at CD. Moreover, increased SOC/OC only occurred at CQ in
- the cold season (Fig. 6). The different pattern in SOC (or SOC/OC) than SNA (or SOR and NOR)
- suggests that secondary organic aerosols (SOA) production is of less important than SNA production in
- 294 most occasions except in the cold season at CQ.
- 295 The formation mechanisms of secondary aerosols were further explored based on the diurnal
- variations of their gaseous precursors and the relevant meteorological parameters. Considering the
- different characteristics of PM_{2.5} pollution, the polluted days were further divided into moderate
- polluted days ($75 < PM_{2.5} \le 150 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) and heavy polluted days ($PM_{2.5} > 150 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$). Figure 7 and Fig.
- S2 describe the diurnal variations of T, RH, WS, SR, NO, CO, SO₂, NO₂ and O₃ concentrations in the
- cold season at CD and CQ. Most gaseous species except O₃ showed relatively higher concentrations on
- 301 polluted days, but exhibited different diurnal patterns under different pollution levels. For example, NO
- and CO both reached their peak values at around 10:00 am, consistent with the morning traffic rush
- hours (Fig. S2). For SO₂ and NO₂, similar diurnal variations were seen on clean and moderate polluted
- days, but a different one on heavy polluted days, with the latter having long-lasting (from 12:00 to
- 18:00 pm) high concentrations likely caused by transport as supported by stronger afternoon winds on
- these days (Fig. 7). O₃ showed a typical diurnal variation with a peak value at around 16:00 pm.
- 307 Daytime (11:00-20:00 LT) O₃ was much higher on moderate polluted days, but slightly lower on heavy





308	polluted days compared to those on clean days. Aerosols were generally considered as a constrain factor
309	to O_3 production due to their absorbing or scattering the UV radiation, which would reduce solar
310	radiation and consequently decrease the photochemical activity and O ₃ levels (Zhang et al., 2015b;
311	Zheng et al., 2015b; Tian et al., 2016). The O ₃ data on heavy polluted days seemed to support this
312	hypothesis, but not those on moderate polluted days. The diurnal variations of O_3 tracked the pattern of
313	solar radiation (Fig. S2), which might be associated with the special climate characteristics in Chengdu
314	with extremely low annual sunshine totals and mostly overcast days, especially in winter. As a result,
315	the impact of weather conditions on solar radiation might overwhelm that of aerosol pollution at CD
316	and caused unusual diurnal variations of O_3 and solar radiation. In the warm season, no heavy $PM_{2.5}$
317	pollution occurred at CD and CQ, and the diurnal patterns of gaseous precursors and meteorological
318	parameters were similar as those in the cold season (Fig. 8 and Fig. S3).
319	Besides the well-known photochemical processes forming SO42- and NO3- (Stockwell and Calvert,
320	1983; Blitz et al., 2003; Calvert and Stockwell, 1983), heterogeneous reactions might also be important
321	formation mechanisms for these SNA species (Quan et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2015a; Zhao et al.,
322	2013b). Similarly, SOA is mainly formed through photochemical oxidation of primary VOCs followed
323	by condensation of SVOC onto particles as well as through aqueous-phase reactions (Ervens et al.,
324	2011). While photochemical reactions are mostly influenced by temperature and solar radiation,
325	heterogeneous reactions are associated with high RH. Meteorological conditions and O ₃ levels
326	associated with different pollution levels suggest that gas-phase oxidation reaction was likely the major
327	formation mechanism of secondary aerosols on moderate polluted days (high O ₃ levels and SR, low RH)
328	while heterogeneous reactions likely played a more important role on heavy polluted days (low O_3
329	levels and slightly higher RH). This hypothesis needs further verification using high-resolution data.
330	3.4.3 Impact of NH ₃ amount and RH on NO ₃ ⁻ concentrations

In Sect. 3.4.2, it was found that the CO-scaled NO_3^- increased dramatically in the cold season but

decreased in the warm season on polluted days at CQ. To explain the different season patterns, major

factors affecting NO_3^- are explored, including NH_3 levels and RH. The neutralization ratio (NR) is

334 defined as

$$NR = \frac{[NH_4^+]}{2[SO_4^{2-}] + [NO_3^-]}$$
(4)

336 Where the concentrations of NH_4^+ , SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- were expressed as molar concentrations. NR in cold





season ranged from 1.0 to 1.2 at the two sites, indicating fully neutralization of SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} by NH₃. 337 338 In this case, NH₃ was not a limiting factor for NO₃⁻. NR in the warm season was 1.05 at CD, but less 339 than 1.0 (0.94-0.95) at CQ. NH₃ seemed to be a limiting factor for NO₃⁻ formation at CQ on both clean 340 and polluted days in the warm season. Although NH4⁺ increased on polluted days (by 30% based on CO-scaled concentrations), SO4²⁻ increased even more (by 60% based on scaled concentration), 341 resulting in incomplete neutralization of NO₃⁻ and little variations of its concentrations. 342 Another consideration is the thermodynamic equilibrium between particulate NH₄NO₃ and gaseous 343 HNO₃, which depends on temperature and RH. Kuprov et al. (2014) found that the equilibrium would 344 be shifted toward the particulate phase when RH was above the deliquescence relative humidity (DRH) 345 of NH4NO3, and the dissociation constant decreased to about an order of magnitude when RH was 346 above 75%. As shown in Fig. S4, on polluted days, RH was lower than DRH most of the time in the 347 warm season at CQ estimated according to Mozurkewich (1993), which explains the lower NO_3^{-1} 348 concentrations. In contrast, RH was above the DRH most of the time at CD. Thus, despite similar 349 concentrations of SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ between CD and CQ in summer, NO_3^- was 50% lower at CQ than that 350 at CD due to the lower ambient RH at CQ. 351

352 **3.5 Geographical origins causing high PM2.5 pollution**

353 PSCF analysis was applied to investigate the potential source regions contributing to high PM_{2.5} 354 pollution (Fig. 9). Basically, all the major source areas for high PM_{2.5} were distributed within the Basin. Long-range transports normally occurred in North Plain and eastern coastal regions were not observed 355 at CD and CQ site (Zhao et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013). At CD, the major source areas in the cold 356 season included the areas of the northeastern, southeastern and southern Chengdu and in some areas of 357 358 Chongqing, and in warm season included areas scattered between Chengdu and Chongqing (e.g., Neijiang) besides the area south of Chengdu. At CQ in the cold season, the northeast area of Chongqing 359 was identified as strong sources, where a number of industries were located, such as Changshou 360 361 chemical industrial ozone. In the warm season, the areas of the southern Chongqing were also found to be potential sources. Overall, PM_{2.5} pollution at CQ was characterized by significant local contribution 362 from major sources located in or nearby Chongqing. In contrast, regional transport in Sichuan Basin 363 from southeast, south and southwest of Chengdu had a major impact on PM_{2.5} pollution at CD. 364





365 4 Conclusions

Seasonal patterns, formation mechanisms, and sources origins of PM2.5 at the two megacities in Sichuan 366 Basin were explored using chemically resolved daily PM_{2.5} samples collected in four consecutive 367 seasons. On about 30% of the days, daily PM2.5 exceeded NAAQS, with SNA and OC concentrations 368 369 1.7-2.8 and 2.1-3.4 times, respectively, higher than those on clean days. The percentage contributions of 370 SNA and OM to PM_{2.5} mass only differed slightly between polluted and clean days at CD, while it increased significantly for OM at CQ in cold season. This phenomenon was different from those found 371 in the other regions of China, implying the unique roles played by local topography, meteorology, and 372 emissions sources in this region. Most chemical components of PM2.5 exhibited the highest 373 concentrations in the winter (with exception of FS) and the lowest in the summer (with exception of 374 SO_4^{2-}). The site differences in PM_{2.5} and SNA between CD and CQ were not significant in all the 375 seasons except in the summer, while higher OC and FS concentrations were observed at CQ than at CD 376 377 in most seasons. The different diurnal patterns of gaseous precursors and meteorological parameters under different PM_{2.5} level implied the more important roles of heterogeneous transformation on the 378 heavy polluted days. The ammonia-limited and high temperature conditions also played a critical role in 379 380 low NO3⁻ levels in the warm season at CQ. Major sources of PM_{2.5} were concentrated in Chengdu, Chongqing, and the areas in between, with the regional sources affecting more at CD site and the local 381 emissions at CQ site. Future studies should aim to combine high-resolution PM_{2.5} data and at suburban 382 383 and rural locations to gain a thorough understanding of PM2.5 sources and formation mechanisms.

384

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

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			CD					CO		
	-		20			-		× >		
	Autumn	Winter	Spring	Summer	Annual	Autumn	Winter	Spring	Summer	Annual
$PM_{2.5}$	62.1 ± 38.4	113.5±47.8	48.0±25.2	45.1±15.2	67.0±43.4	56.3±23.6	115.1±53.9	58.3±24.6	54.2±16.2	70.9±41.4
$\mathrm{SO4}^{2-}$	10.5 ± 6.5	16.4 ± 7.1	8.3±5.9	9.7±4.7	11.2 ± 6.8	9.9±4.7	17.5±7.4	10.4 ± 6.5	11.1 ± 5.7	12.2±6.8
NO_3^-	9.3±7.4	17.5±8.8	5.9±3.6	3.9 ± 2.2	9.1 ± 8.0	7.8±3.8	15.8 ± 9.5	5.9 ± 5.0	1.6 ± 1.3	7.7±7.6
$\mathrm{NH4}^{+}$	6.9 ± 4.8	12.7±5.4	5.1 ± 3.2	4.2 ± 1.9	7.2±5.2	5.7±2.8	11.3 ± 5.2	5.2 ± 3.0	4.0 ± 2.1	6.6 ± 4.4
CI-	1.9 ± 1.2	$3.4{\pm}1.9$	$0.6 {\pm} 0.4$	0.2 ± 0.2	1.5 ± 1.7	$0.8 {\pm} 0.4$	1.6 ± 1.2	0.5 ± 0.5	0.04 ± 0.03	$0.7{\pm}0.9$
\mathbf{K}^+	0.6 ± 0.4	1.2 ± 0.6	$0.6 {\pm} 0.5$	0.5 ± 0.2	$0.7{\pm}0.5$	0.5 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.7	0.5 ± 0.2	0.3 ± 0.1	0.6 ± 0.5
OC	$10.4{\pm}6.1$	19.7 ± 8.4	6.3±3.7	7.4±1.5	10.9 ± 7.6	9.7±4.7	24.2 ± 13.6	10.0 ± 5.1	8.5±3.4	13.1 ± 10.0
EC	3.0 ± 2.1	6.3 ± 3.0	2.7±2.3	2.5 ± 0.7	3.6±2.7	3.8 ± 1.7	5.9 ± 3.2	4.7 ±3.0	3.7 ± 1.5	4.5 ± 2.6
FS	3.2 ± 1.6	4.5 ± 2.0	4.8 ± 3.0	2.7±1.5	3.8 ± 2.2	5.0 ± 2.8	6.3 ± 3.3	9.1±7.6	6.5 ± 4.0	6.7 ± 5.0

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Table 2 Pearson's correlation analysis for daily concentrations of major components in $PM_{2.5}$ between

	SO4 ²⁻	NO ₃ -	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	Cl	K^+	OC	EC	FS
Autumn	0.78	0.72	0.75	0.10	0.76	0.87	0.79	0.08
Winter	0.63	0.49	0.60	0.51	0.77	0.83	0.80	0.64
Spring	0.76	0.39	0.59	0.09	0.68	0.78	0.74	0.29
Summer	0.49	-0.13	0.40	0.37	0.36	0.43	0.23	-0.02
Annual	0.72	0.71	0.76	0.67	0.79	0.80	0.72	0.31







Figure 1. Locations of the sampling sites at Chengdu (CD) and Chongqing (CQ).







Figure 2. Seasonal and annual contributions of individual chemical components to $PM_{2.5}$ at CD (a) and CQ (b).







Figure 3. Seasonal variations of major chemical compositions in $PM_{2.5}$. The 5th, 25th, median, 75th, and 95th percentiles are shown in the figure.







Figure 4. Seasonal mean concentrations of major components in autumn (a), winter (b), spring (c), and summer (d) at CD and CQ sites.







Figure 5. PM_{2.5} and major chemical components on clean and polluted days in the cold (left column) and warm (right column) seasons at CD (upper row) and CQ (lower row).







Figure 6. CO-scaled concentrations of various pollutants and the values of SOR, NOR, and SOC/OC in the cold (left column) and warm (right column) seasons at CD (upper row) and CQ (lower row).







Figure 7. Diurnal variations of T, RH, SO₂, NO₂, and O₃ under different pollution-level conditions in the cold season at CD (upper row) and CQ (lower row). Clean days: $PM_{2.5} \le 75 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$; moderate polluted days: $75 < PM_{2.5} \le 150 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$; heavy polluted days: $PM_{2.5} > 150 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$.







Figure 8. Same as in Figure 7 except in the warm season and only for two pollution-levels.







Figure 9. PSCF maps of PM_{2.5} in the cold (left column) and warm (right column) seasons at CD (upper row) and CQ (lower row).