



## **A review of current knowledge concerning PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical composition, aerosol optical properties, and their relationships across China**

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1 **Abstract**

2 To obtain a thorough knowledge of PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical composition and its impact  
3 on aerosol optical properties across China, existing field studies conducted after the  
4 year of 2000 are reviewed and summarized in terms of geographical, inter-annual,  
5 and seasonal distributions. Annual PM<sub>2.5</sub> was up to six times of the national air  
6 quality standard in some megacities in northern China. Annual PM<sub>2.5</sub> was higher in  
7 northern than southern cities, and higher in inland than coastal cities. In a few cities  
8 with data longer than a decade, PM<sub>2.5</sub> showed a slight decrease only in the second  
9 half of the past decade, while carbonaceous aerosols decreased, sulfate (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) and  
10 ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) remained at high levels, and nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) increased. The highest  
11 seasonal averages of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its major chemical components were mostly  
12 observed in the cold seasons. Annual average contributions of secondary inorganic  
13 aerosols to PM<sub>2.5</sub> ranged from 25% to 48%, and those of carbonaceous aerosols  
14 ranged from 23% to 47%, both with higher values in southern regions due to the  
15 frequent dust events in northern China.

16 The geographical pattern of scattering coefficient ( $b_{sp}$ ) was similar to that of  
17 PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and that of aerosol absorption coefficient ( $b_{ap}$ ) was determined by elemental  
18 carbon (EC) mass concentration and its coating.  $b_{sp}$  in ambient condition of  
19 RH=80% can be amplified about 1.8 times of that under dry condition. Secondary  
20 inorganic aerosols accounted for about 60% of aerosol extinction coefficient ( $b_{ext}$ )  
21 under ambient conditions in megacities with RH higher than 70%. The mass  
22 scattering efficiency (MSE) of PM<sub>2.5</sub> ranged from 3.0 to 5.0 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> for aerosols



23 produced from anthropogenic emissions and from 0.7 to 1.0 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> for natural dust  
24 aerosols. The mass absorption efficiency (MAE) of EC ranged from 6.5 to 12.4 m<sup>2</sup>  
25 g<sup>-1</sup> in urban environments, but the MAE of water-soluble organic carbon (WSOC)  
26 was only 0.05 to 0.11 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>. Historical emission control policies in China and their  
27 effectiveness were discussed based on available chemically resolved PM<sub>2.5</sub> data,  
28 which provides the much-needed knowledge for guiding future studies and emission  
29 policy making.



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## 47 **1. Introduction**

48 Knowledge of spatiotemporal variations of chemical and optical properties of  
49 atmospheric aerosols is needed in addressing regional and global air quality and  
50 climate issues (Fuzzi et al., 2015; Ginoux et al., 2012; Li et al., 2016c; Liao et al.,  
51 2015; Monks et al., 2009; Qian et al., 2015). Aerosol concentrations across China  
52 have been at extremely high levels in the recent two decades, largely caused by  
53 rapidly increased energy consumption (Chan and Yao, 2008; Fang et al., 2009; Guan  
54 et al., 2014; Wang and Hao, 2012; Zhang et al., 2013b). The frequency of haze  
55 weather occurrence has also been increased significantly due to light extinction of  
56 atmospheric aerosols, especially  $PM_{2.5}$  (Li and Zhang, 2014; Pui et al., 2014; Watson,  
57 2002). The Ministry of Environmental Protection of China thus promulgated the  
58 National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) to include  $PM_{2.5}$  daily and annual  
59 standards starting in early 2012. As a result, real-time  $PM_{2.5}$  data in 74 Chinese cities  
60 have been recorded since 2013.

61 Light extinction, the sum of light scattering and absorption, is controlled by not  
62 only  $PM_{2.5}$  level, but also its chemical composition, size-distribution and  
63 hygroscopic potential of its major components, and meteorological conditions (Hand  
64 and Malm, 2007a; Malm et al., 2003; Pitchford et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2014a).  
65 High humidity combined with large fractions of hygroscopic chemical components  
66 (e.g. sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, and some organic matters) can enhance light  
67 extinction and haze intensity (Liu et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2013b; Zhang et al., 2015b;  
68 Zieger et al., 2013). A large number of studies has been conducted in China in recent



69 years investigating  $PM_{2.5}$  composition, aerosol optical properties, aerosol  
70 hygroscopic properties, and haze formation mechanisms (Guo et al., 2014; Jing et al.,  
71 2015; Liang et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Pan et al., 2009; Tao et al.,  
72 2014b; Wang et al., 2015b; Yan et al., 2008; Yan et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2011b;  
73 Zheng et al., 2016). However, few studies looking at the geographical pattern of  
74  $PM_{2.5}$  composition across China and its impact on aerosol optical properties (Li et al.,  
75 2017). The present study aims to gain such knowledge through a thorough review of  
76 available studies.

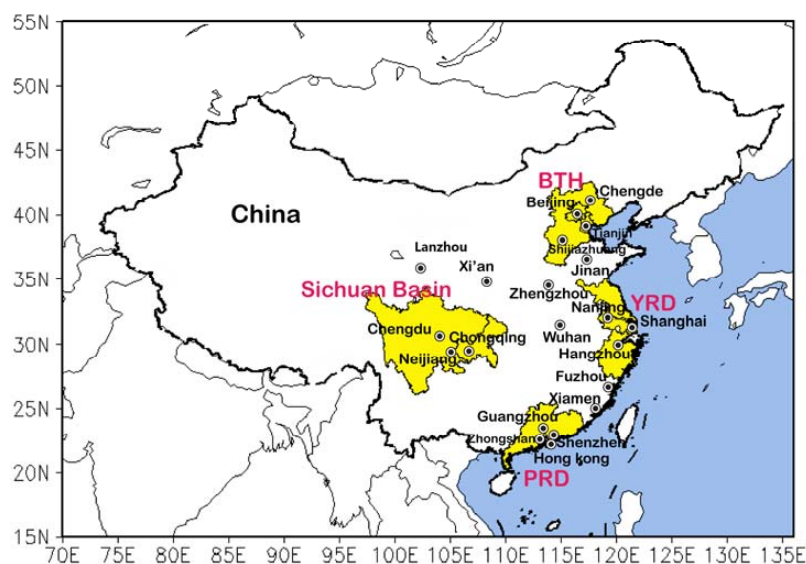
77 Considering the large number of available publications, only ground  
78 measurement data of chemical composition of  $PM_{2.5}$ , aerosol scattering and  
79 absorption coefficients, and aerosol hygroscopic properties published after the year  
80 of 2000 in scientific papers of Science Citation Index (SCI) journals are reviewed  
81 and summarized in this study. A total of about 130 articles met the above criteria  
82 including 80 articles on  $PM_{2.5}$  chemical composition, 40 articles on aerosol optical  
83 properties, and 10 articles on aerosol hygroscopic properties. Many of these articles  
84 focused on the several biggest cities such as Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and  
85 Hong Kong, while other studies focused on cities including Tianjin, Jinan, Nanjing,  
86 Hangzhou, Fuzhou, Xiamen, Shenzhen, Chengdu, Chongqing, Xi'an, Lanzhou,  
87 Zhengzhou, Wuhan and several background sites (Fig. 2). Geographical and  
88 temporal patterns of  $PM_{2.5}$  and its major chemical components including ( $SO_4^{2-}$ ),  
89 nitrate ( $NO_3^-$ ), ammonium ( $NH_4^+$ ), organic carbon (OC), and elemental carbon (EC),  
90 and aerosol optical properties are generated. Relationships between aerosol optical



91 properties and  $PM_{2.5}$  chemical composition are explored. Recommendations are also  
92 provided for alleviating  $PM_{2.5}$  level and reducing haze occurrence frequency.

## 93 **2. Spatiotemporal patterns of $PM_{2.5}$ and its major chemical** 94 **components**

95 In this section, available measurements of chemically resolved  $PM_{2.5}$  are  
96 reviewed and summarized in terms of geographical distributions, inert-annual  
97 variations, and seasonal patterns. Measurements are grouped based on geographical  
98 regions, such as the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) in North China Plain, the Yangtze  
99 River Delta (YRD), the Pearl River Delta (PRD), the Sichuan Basin, and other regions  
100 (Fig. 1). Five dominant chemical components of  $PM_{2.5}$  ( $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^-$ ,  $NH_4^+$ , OC, and  
101 EC) are discussed in detail. Data reviewed in this section are all listed in Table S1 of  
102 the supplement document.



103

104 Fig. 1. Geographical regions and location of cities with measurements.



## 105 **2.1 PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass**

106 Filter-based measurements of PM<sub>2.5</sub> were mainly carried out in urban cities of  
107 BTH (Beijing, Tianjin, Shijiazhuang, and Chengde), YRD (Shanghai, Nanjing, and  
108 Hangzhou), PRD (Guangzhou, Hong Kong, Zhongshan, and Shenzhen), Sichuan  
109 basin (Chongqing, Chengdu and Neijiang), and other cities (e.g., Jinan, Xi'an,  
110 Lanzhou, Zhengzhou, Wuhan, Fuzhou and Xiamen). Geographical characteristics of  
111 annual PM<sub>2.5</sub> are first discussed followed by internal annual variations and seasonal  
112 patterns.

### 113 **2.1.1 Geographical distributions**

114 Annual mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentrations in major cities in different regions are  
115 plotted in Fig. 2a. Regional annual mean and standard deviation (SD) values were  
116 calculated using annual mean data of all the cities where data are available. Regional  
117 annual mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> was 115±30, 92±29, 50±16, and 100±35 µg m<sup>-3</sup> in BTH (Chen et  
118 al., 2014b; Duan et al., 2006; He et al., 2001; He et al., 2012; Song et al., 2006; Wang  
119 et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2011a; Yang et al., 2011b; Zhang et al., 2013a; Zhao et al.,  
120 2013c; Zhou et al., 2015a), YRD (Feng et al., 2009; Li et al., 2015a; Li et al., 2016a;  
121 Liu et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2016a; Ye et al., 2003; Zhao et al.,  
122 2015b), PRD (Hagler et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2013; Louie et al., 2005a; Tao et al.,  
123 2014c; Tao et al., 2017), and Sichuan basin (Chen et al., 2014c; Tao et al., 2013a; Tao  
124 et al., 2014a; Wang et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2011b), respectively, which was 3 to 6  
125 times, 2 to 3 times, 1 to 2 times, and 3 to 6 times of NAAQS, respectively.

126 Within each region, the highest annual average PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration was



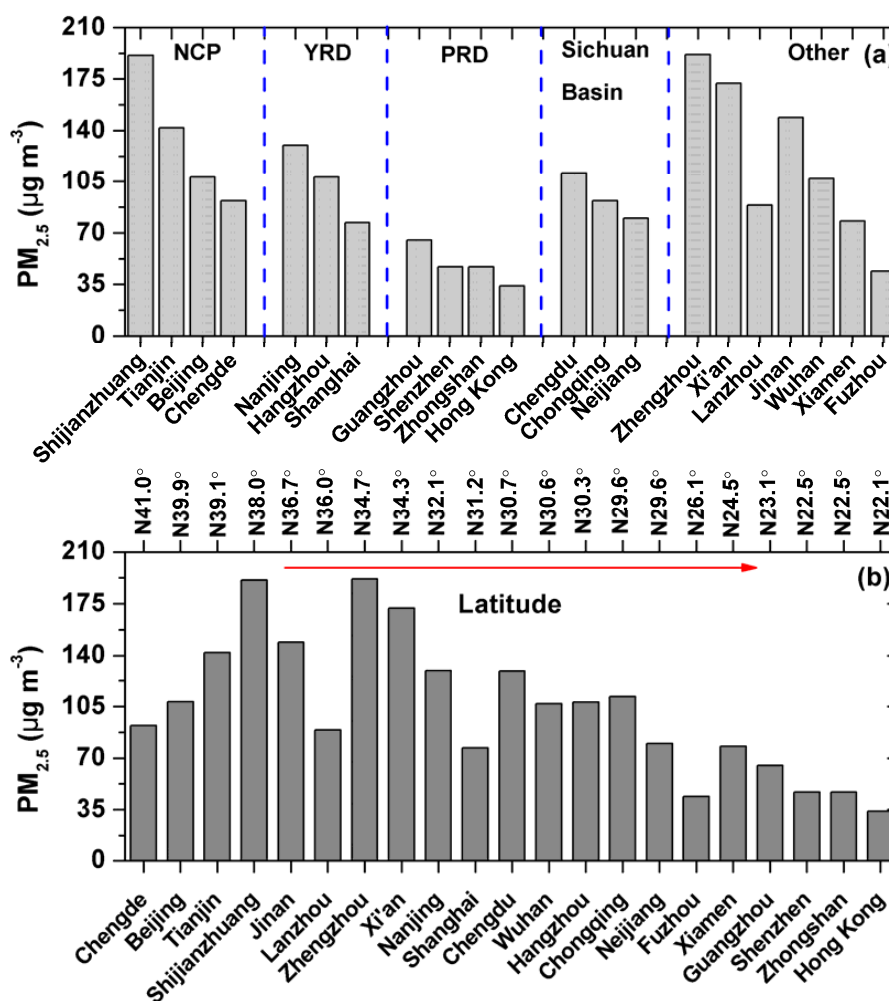


127 observed in Shijiazhuang ( $191 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), Nanjing ( $130 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), Guangzhou ( $65 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )  
128 and Chengdu ( $111 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) in BTH, YRD, PRD and Sichuan basin, respectively.  
129 Outside the above-mentioned four regions, annual  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  at individual cities was  
130  $192 \pm 17 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Geng et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2015a),  $172 \pm 15 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Shen et al.,  
131 2009; Wang et al., 2015c; Zhang et al., 2011b),  $89 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Wang et al., 2016b),  $149 \mu\text{g}$   
132  $\text{m}^{-3}$  (Yang et al., 2012),  $107 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Zhang et al., 2015a),  $78 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Zhang et al.,  
133 2011a; Zhang et al., 2012a) and  $44 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (Xu et al., 2012c) in Zhengzhou, Xi'an,  
134 Lanzhou, Jinan, Wuhan, Xiamen and Fuzhou, respectively. These  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  levels were  
135 comparable to some of the cities within the four regions, e.g., Zhengzhou, Xi'an and  
136 Jinan to Shijiazhuang, Wuhan to Nanjing and Chengdu, and Fuzhou and Xiamen of  
137 Fujian province to Guangzhou. Cities in Fig. 2a are rearranged in Fig. 2b based on  
138 their latitude from north to south. Except for a few cities, such as Chengde and  
139 Beijing, there was a decreasing trend in annual  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass concentration with  
140 decreasing latitude. Moreover, annual  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass concentrations in western or inland  
141 cities were higher than those in eastern or coastal cities at the same latitudes. The  
142 geographical patterns of the filter based  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  measurements agreed well with the  
143 online monitoring of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in 31 provincial capital cities in China (Wang et al.,  
144 2014b).

145 Filter-based measurements of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  at rural sites in China were limited, and were  
146 mainly conducted at Shangdianzi of Beijing, Conghua and Tianhu of Guangzhou, and  
147 Hok Tsui of Hong Kong (Hagler et al., 2006; Lai et al., 2016; Louie et al., 2005a;  
148 Zhao et al., 2013c). Rural  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  was around half of that in the cities of the same



149 region. A similar geographical patten was seen in rural PM<sub>2.5</sub> as in the urban, e.g.,  
 150 annual PM<sub>2.5</sub> at the rural site of BTH (Shangdianzi) was 72 μg m<sup>-3</sup>, which was 2 times  
 151 of that (35 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) at the rural sites of PRD.



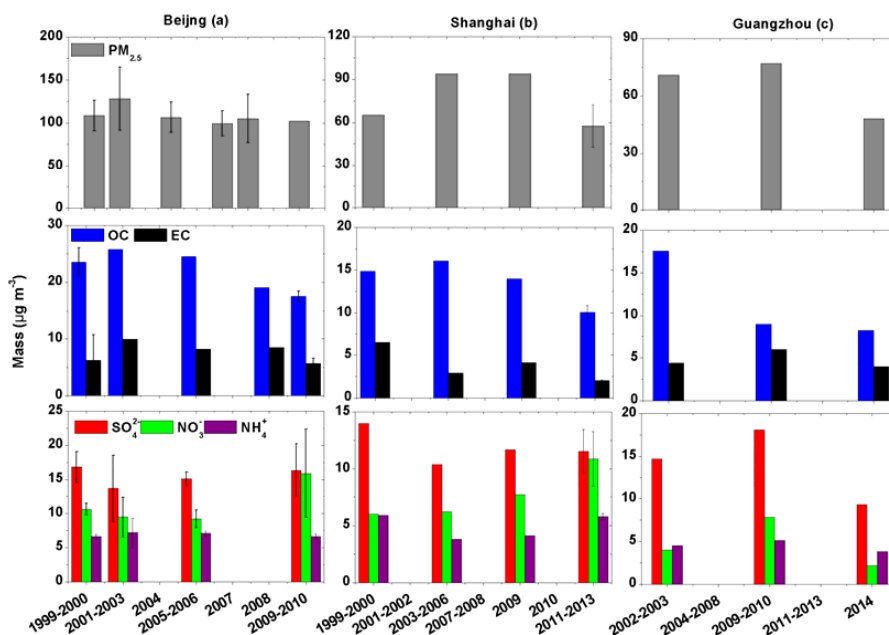
152  
 153 Fig. 2. Annual PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration in various Chinese cities having  
 154 filter-based measurements: (a) categorized into regions, and (b) lined with latitude.

### 155 2.1.2 Inter-annual variations

156 Data collected in most cities were within a three-year time window, except in



157 Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou where  $PM_{2.5}$  data spanned for more than a decade  
158 (1999-2014) (Fig. 3). Inter-annual variations in  $PM_{2.5}$  in Beijing were small, ranging  
159 from 100 to  $128 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , similar to the trend of online data, which ranged from 65 to  
160  $83 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during 2004-2012 (Liu et al., 2014b). The lower concentrations of the  
161 online than filter  $PM_{2.5}$  data should be caused by volatilization loss of nitrate and  
162 organic matters from the tapered element oscillating microbalances (TEOM)  
163 working at the  $50^\circ\text{C}$  during the online sampling. These results suggested that there  
164 was no evidence that  $PM_{2.5}$  pollution has been significantly improved in Beijing  
165 during the 15 year study period despite the many control measures that have been  
166 excised. The impact of local effort of pollution control in Beijing has likely been  
167 offset by regional pollutant transport (Li et al., 2015b). In Shanghai,  $PM_{2.5}$  in  
168 2003-2006 ( $94 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) (Feng et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2006) and 2009 ( $94 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )  
169 (Zhao et al., 2015b) was nearly 50% higher than earlier years (e.g.,  $65 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in  
170 1999-2000) (Ye et al., 2003), but has then been decreased substantially and reached a  
171 level of  $58 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2011-2013 (Wang et al., 2016a; Zhao et al., 2015b). In  
172 Guangzhou,  $PM_{2.5}$  in 2002-2003 ( $71 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) (Hagler et al., 2006) and in 2009-2010  
173 ( $77 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) (Tao et al., 2014c) kept the stable levels and then decreased to  $48 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$   
174 in 2014 (Tao et al., 2017).



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Fig. 3. Inter-annual variations in  $PM_{2.5}$  and dominant chemical components in

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Beijing (a), Shanghai (b) and Guangzhou(c).

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### 2.1.3 Season patterns

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In BTH, the highest seasonal average  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations were observed in winter and the lowest in summer in all the cities with seasonal variations up to the factors of 1.7, 1.4, 1.6 and 1.8 in Beijing (Cao et al., 2012b; Chan et al., 2005; Dan et al., 2004; Duan et al., 2006; He et al., 2001; Huang et al., 2014b; Ji et al., 2014; Jung et al., 2009b; Lin et al., 2016; Okuda et al., 2011; Pathak et al., 2011; Song et al., 2006; Song et al., 2007; Sun et al., 2004; Sun et al., 2006; Tan et al., 2016; Tao et al., 2016a; Tao et al., 2015a; Tian et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2005a; Yang et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2013c), Tianjin (Cao et al., 2012b; Gu et al., 2010; Gu et al., 2011; Li et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2013c), Shijiazhuang (Zhao et al., 2013c),



188 and Chengde (Zhao et al., 2013c), respectively. It is noted that major pollutant  
189 sources in BTH were located south of Hebei province and the prevailing winds in  
190 BTH were from the north in winter and from the south in summer (Li et al., 2016b;  
191 Lu et al., 2010; Lu et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2011). The location and  
192 distribution of major industrial sources, intensity of local minor sources such as  
193 winter heating, and prevailing wind directions together caused the slightly different  
194 magnitudes of seasonal variations among the four cities discussed above.

195 In YRD, the highest seasonal average  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations were also observed in  
196 winter and the lowest in summer with seasonal variations up to the factors of 2.3, 1.9  
197 and 2.0 in Nanjing (Li et al., 2015a; Li et al., 2016a; Shen et al., 2014; Yang et al.,  
198 2005b), Shanghai (Cao et al., 2012b; Cao et al., 2013; Feng et al., 2009; Feng et al.,  
199 2012; Huang et al., 2014b; Pathak et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2016a;  
200 Ye et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2015b), and Hangzhou (Cao et al., 2012b; Liu et al., 2015),  
201 respectively. In PRD, most urban site  $PM_{2.5}$  studies were also accompanied with rural  
202 site studies (Andreae et al., 2008; Cao et al., 2003; Cao et al., 2012b; Cui et al., 2015;  
203 Duan et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2014b; Jahn et  
204 al., 2013; Lai et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2014a; Louie et al., 2005a; Pathak et al., 2011;  
205 Tan et al., 2009; Tan et al., 2014; Tao et al., 2009; Tao et al., 2014c; Tao et al., 2015b;  
206 Tao et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2011b). Although the highest seasonal average  $PM_{2.5}$  was  
207 also observed in winter, the lowest season was not consistent between the sites, e.g.,  
208 in summer in Guangzhou and in spring in Hong Kong. This was likely caused by  
209 warm/hot temperatures in this region and frequent precipitation in warm seasons, and



210 thus small differences between spring and summer, e.g.,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  concentration of  $32 \mu\text{g}$   
211  $\text{m}^{-3}$  in summer (Cao et al., 2003; Cao et al., 2012b; Duan et al., 2007; Ho et al., 2006;  
212 Lai et al., 2007; Louie et al., 2005a) and  $29 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in spring (Louie et al., 2005a) in  
213 Hong Kong. Seasonal variations were up to a factor of 1.9 at both cities.  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  at rural  
214 sites in PRD was generally doubled during dry seasons (autumn and winter) compared  
215 to wet seasons (spring and summer) due to frequent precipitation scavenging of  
216 aerosols in wet seasons (Cheung et al., 2005; Dai et al., 2013; Fu et al., 2014; Griffith  
217 et al., 2015; Hu et al., 2008; Lai et al., 2016).

218 Similar season patterns as above were also observed in cities of other regions in  
219 China, such as Chengdu (Tao et al., 2013a; Tao et al., 2014a), Zhengzhou (Geng et al.,  
220 2013), Jinan (Yang et al., 2012) and Fuzhou (Xu et al., 2012b), with seasonal  
221 variations between the factors of 1.8 to 2.5. In conclusion, the highest seasonal  
222 average  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  was observed in winter in all the urban sites in China likely due to  
223 more emissions from winter heating and/or poor pollutant diffusion conditions.

## 224 **2.2 Major chemical components of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$**

225 It is well known that OC, EC,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  were the dominant chemical  
226 components in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . Thus, only studies having synchronous measurements of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
227 and the above-mentioned five major components were discussed below. Note that for  
228 most cities only short-term measurements were available, however, for Beijing,  
229 Shanghai and Guangzhou, existing studies span a period of 15 years (2000-2014).

### 230 **2.2.1 The Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region**

#### 231 **2.2.1.1 Inter-annul variations in Beijing**



232 Chemically-resolved PM<sub>2.5</sub> data in BTH covering multiple-years are only  
233 available in Beijing and the inert-annual variations are discussed for this city below  
234 (Duan et al., 2006; He et al., 2001; Song et al., 2006; Yang et al., 2011b; Zhang et al.,  
235 2013a; Zhao et al., 2013c). Inter-annual variations of OC and EC were generally  
236 small, e.g., a factor of 1.5 for OC and 1.8 for EC (Fig. 3a). OC decreased from  
237 23.6-25.8  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in earlier years (1999-2006) to below 17.6  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  after 2008. EC  
238 increased from 6.3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 1999-2000 to 9.9  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2001-2002, and then  
239 gradually decreased to 5.7  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2009-2010. Despite using different analysis  
240 methods (e.g. CHN elemental analyzer, thermal-optical carbon analyzer) and  
241 protocols (e.g. TOT and TOR) for obtaining carbon fraction, total carbon (TC, the  
242 sum of OC and EC) showed slightly decrease. OC is produced from both primary  
243 emissions and secondary formation and EC (also known as black carbon or BC) is  
244 mainly from primary emissions. The anthropogenic emission for OC and BC in the  
245 whole China showed an increasing trend in 1996-2010 (Lu et al., 2011), while BC  
246 emissions showed a slightly decreasing trend in Beijing and Tianjin in 2005-2009  
247 (Qin and Xie, 2012). Meanwhile, BC emissions sharply increased in Hebei province  
248 in 2005-2009. The amount of BC emissions in Hebei province was much higher than  
249 the sum of those in Beijing and Tianjin (Qin and Xie, 2012). Thus, the decrease of  
250 EC concentration in Beijing was likely dominated by local emission reduction  
251 instead of regional transport from Hebei province.

252 Annual SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration increased slightly during 1999-2010 and ranged from  
253 10.2  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to 16.4  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in Beijing. SO<sub>2</sub> emission in China increased by about



254 60% during 2000-2006 and then decreased about 9% during 2006-2010 due to the  
255 compulsory flue-gas desulfurization equipment applied in power plants (Lu et al.,  
256 2011). However, the sum of SO<sub>2</sub> emission in BTH (including Beijing, Tianjin, and  
257 Hebei province) increased sharply from 2097 Gg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2000 to 2916 Gg year<sup>-1</sup> in  
258 2004, and further slightly increased to 2998 Gg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2007 before sharply  
259 decreased to 1821 Gg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 (Lu et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2013a). A  
260 continued increase in SO<sub>2</sub> emission was found in Hebei province, which accounted  
261 for more than 50% of the total SO<sub>2</sub> emission in BTH. In contrast, SO<sub>2</sub> emission in  
262 Beijing continued decreasing. Surface annual SO<sub>2</sub> concentration in Beijing gradually  
263 decreased from 56 μg m<sup>-3</sup> to 35 μg m<sup>-3</sup> during 2006-2009 (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>).  
264 Thus, the persistent high concentrations of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in Beijing was largely due to  
265 regional transport from Hebei province, noting that the lifetime of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> is longer  
266 than that of SO<sub>2</sub>.

267 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations were relatively steady (7.4-10.9 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) during 1999-2006,  
268 but sharply increased to 15.9 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2009-2010 in Beijing. Both NO<sub>x</sub> (NO<sub>2</sub>+NO)  
269 emissions and satellite NO<sub>2</sub> vertical column densities synchronously increased  
270 during 2000-2010 in China (Zhang et al., 2012b; Zhao et al., 2013b). Different from  
271 those of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions, NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in all the cities and provinces in BTH  
272 showed increasing trends in 2005-2010. NO<sub>x</sub> emission in Beijing slightly increased  
273 from 410 Gg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2005 to 480 Gg year<sup>-1</sup> in 2010 (Zhao et al., 2013b). However,  
274 annual average surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in Beijing showed a decreasing trend and  
275 fluctuated in the range of 49 - 66 μg m<sup>-3</sup> during 2006-2009 (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>).





276 There were some inconsistencies between the trends of surface  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration  
277 and column  $\text{NO}_2$  or  $\text{NO}_x$  emission, likely due to the impact of photochemical  
278 reaction on surface  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration in urban areas. To some extent, the increasing  
279 trend of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in Beijing was likely related to the increases in  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions in both  
280 Beijing and the surrounding cities or provinces.

281  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations were also relatively steady in Beijing during 1999-2006,  
282 ranging from 5.7 to 7.3  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ .  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions changed little (13400-13600 Gg  
283 year<sup>-1</sup>) before 2005 in China, and increased slightly in BTH region during 2003-2010  
284 (Zhou et al., 2015b). The small increase of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in 2009-2010 in Beijing was  
285 consistent with the  $\text{NH}_3$  emission trend in this region (Zhang et al., 2013a; Zhao et  
286 al., 2013c). Moreover, the increase of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in Beijing was also an important factor  
287 for the increase of  $\text{NH}_4^+$ .

288 In summary, an decreasing trend was identified in TC and increasing ones for  
289  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in Beijing. The inter-annual variations in EC agreed with the  
290 its local emission trend in Beijing, but those in  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  agreed more  
291 with the regional scale emission trends of their respective gaseous precursors in BTH  
292 rather than the local emission trends in Beijing. Nonlinear responses of concentration  
293 changes of these aerosol components to their respective emission trends were found,  
294 demonstrating the other important factors affecting aerosol formation, such as  
295 meteorological-dependent chemical reaction mechanisms.

#### 296 **2.2.1.2 Relative contributions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$**

297 To investigate the relative contributions of dominant chemical components to



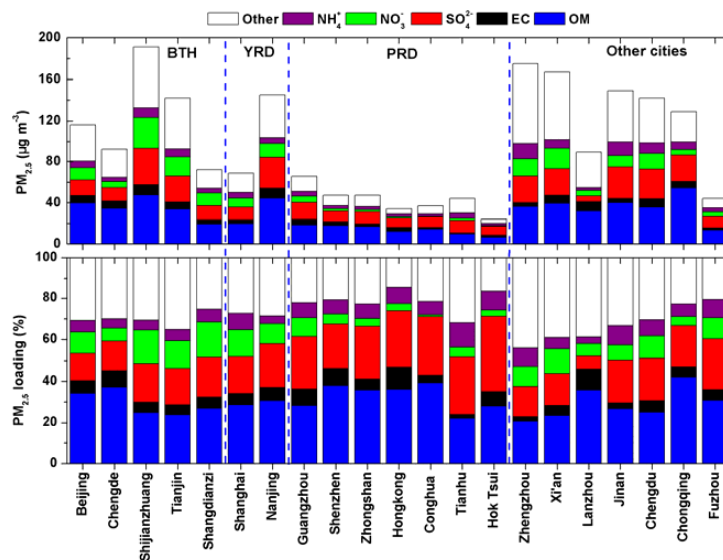
298  $PM_{2.5}$  mass, the measured  $PM_{2.5}$  mass was reconstructed based on  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^-$ ,  $NH_4^+$ ,  
299 OM (organic matter), and EC. The converting factor between OC and OM was 1.8  
300 considering the prevailing biomass burning in BTH (Cheng et al., 2013a; Du et al.,  
301 2014a).

302 Data collected in 2009-2010 were first discussed since multiple cities in BTH  
303 have data during this period (Fig. 4) (Zhang et al., 2013a; Zhao et al., 2013c).  
304 Secondary inorganic aerosols (the sum of sulfate, nitrate and ammonium) contributed  
305 36-39% of  $PM_{2.5}$  annually in the majority of the cities having measurements, but  
306 only 25% in Chengde, a tourist city located in the northeast part of BTH and 200  
307 kilometer away from Beijing. Generally, the percentage contribution of secondary  
308 inorganic aerosols to  $PM_{2.5}$  decreased with decreasing  $PM_{2.5}$  level, e.g., from  
309 Shijiazhuang to Tianjin, Beijing, and then Chengde, a phenomenon that is consistent  
310 with what was found within the same city but for different pollution levels in a  
311 winter season (Tao et al., 2015a). Carbonaceous aerosols contributed 29-32% to  
312  $PM_{2.5}$  in most cities, but as high as 45% in Chengde, and had an opposite trend to  
313 secondary inorganic aerosols in terms of city-to-city variations. At the rural site  
314 Shangdianzi near Beijing, secondary inorganic aerosols and carbonaceous aerosols  
315 accounted for 42% and 32%, respectively, of  $PM_{2.5}$  mass, which were not  
316 significantly different from those in cities located south of Yanshan Mountain. The  
317 sum of secondary inorganic aerosols and carbonaceous aerosols accounted for  
318 65%-70% of  $PM_{2.5}$  mass in cities of BTH.

319 In Beijing where data are available for more than a decade, secondary inorganic



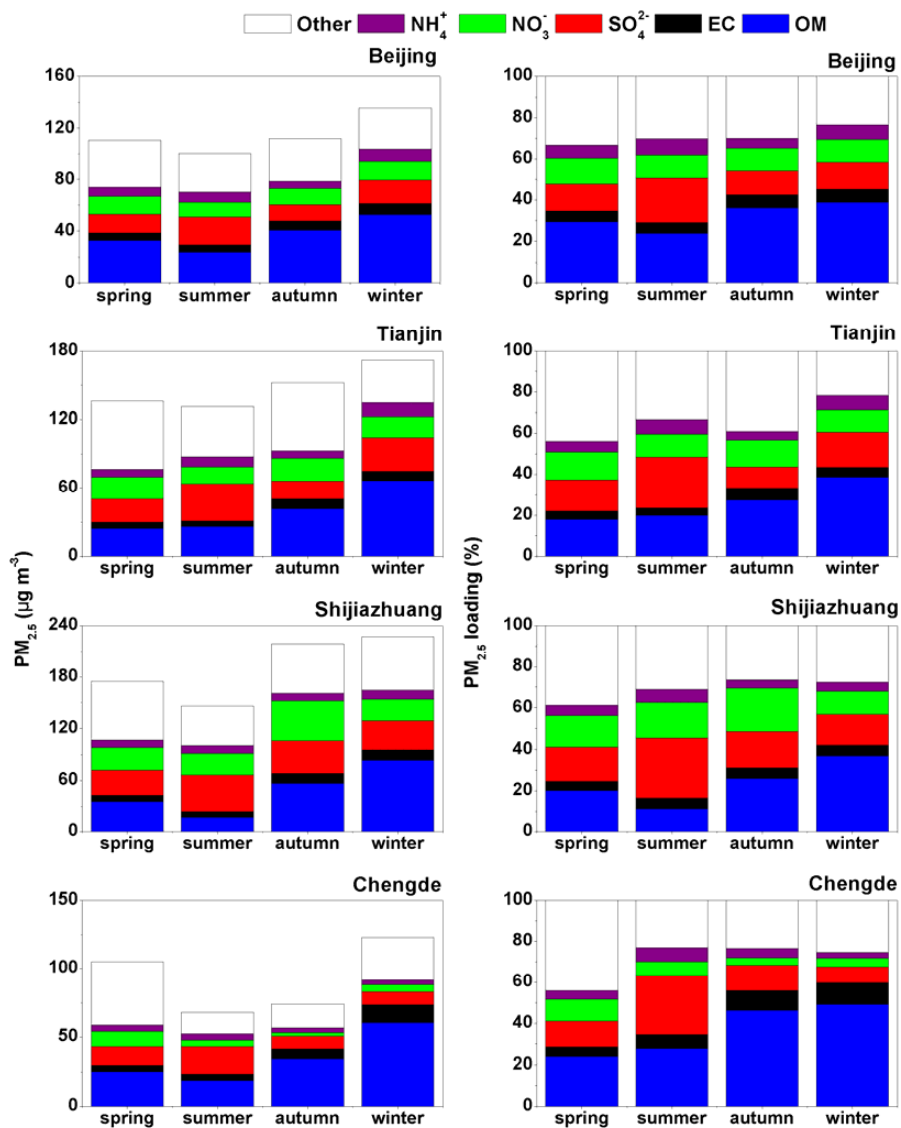
320 aerosols accounted for 28% of  $PM_{2.5}$  on average and ranged from 23% to 31% from  
 321 year to year. Carbonaceous aerosols accounted for 43% of  $PM_{2.5}$  and ranged from  
 322 29% to 55%. Seasonal average contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols were  
 323 generally higher in warm seasons than in cold seasons in most cities, and an opposite  
 324 trend was found for carbonaceous aerosols (Fig.5). For example, secondary inorganic  
 325 aerosols contributed 32%, 41%, 28% and 32% in spring, summer, autumn and winter,  
 326 respectively, to  $PM_{2.5}$  in Beijing, while carbonaceous aerosols contributed 35%, 30%,  
 327 44% and 45% (Cao et al., 2012b; Duan et al., 2006; He et al., 2001; Huang et al.,  
 328 2014b; Pathak et al., 2011; Song et al., 2007; Song et al., 2006; Sun et al., 2004; Tao  
 329 et al., 2015a; Tian et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013a; Zhao et al., 2013c). Higher  
 330 carbonaceous aerosols in winter should be related to heating activities and biomass  
 331 burning in this region (Cheng et al., 2013a; Duan et al., 2004; Tao et al., 2016b;  
 332 Wang et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2016).



333

334

Fig. 4. Annual  $PM_{2.5}$  and dominant chemical components in China.



335

336

Fig. 5. Seasonal PM<sub>2.5</sub> and dominant chemical components in BTH.

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## 341 **2.2.2 The Yangtze River Delta region**

### 342 **2.2.2.1 Inter-annual variations in Shanghai**

343 Chemically-resolved  $PM_{2.5}$  data in YRD covering multiple-years are only  
344 available in Shanghai (Wang et al., 2016a; Ye et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2015b).  
345 Inter-annual variations of OC in this city were within a factor of 1.6 for OC and a  
346 factor of 3.3 for EC (Fig. 3b). OC concentrations were relatively steady (14.0-14.9  
347  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) during 1999-2009, but sharply decreased to 10.1  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2011-2013. EC  
348 varied in the range of 4.1 to 6.5  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during 1999-2009, and also sharply decreased  
349 to 2.1  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2011-2013. Noticeable reduction of OC and EC occurred after 2010  
350 Shanghai World Expo, which resulted in evident decrease of TC after 2010. BC  
351 emission slightly decreased in Shanghai in 2005-2009, but increased in the adjacent  
352 Zhejiang and Jiangsu provinces (Qin and Xie, 2012). Especially, BC emission in  
353 Jiangsu province was much higher than the sum of those in Shanghai and Zhejiang.  
354 Thus, the decreased EC concentration in Shanghai was mostly resulted from local  
355 emission reduction.

356 Annual  $SO_4^{2-}$  concentration decreased from 14.0  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 1999-2000 to the  
357 range of 10.2  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to 12.9  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during 2009-2013. The trend of  $SO_2$  emission in  
358 YRD generally agreed with that in the whole China, which showed an increasing  
359 trend during 2000-2006 and a decrease one during 2006-2010 (Lu et al., 2011). The  
360 annual variations in  $SO_2$  emission in YRD (including Shanghai, Jiangsu, and  
361 Zhejiang) were relative small, ranging from 3171  $\text{Gg year}^{-1}$  in 2000, 3506  $\text{Gg year}^{-1}$   
362 in 2004, 3376  $\text{Gg year}^{-1}$  in 2007, and to 3397  $\text{Gg year}^{-1}$  in 2010 (Lu et al., 2010;



363 Zhao et al., 2013a). Annual average SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in Shanghai were in the  
364 range of 45-61 μg m<sup>-3</sup> during 2000-2005 and decreased by around 50% to 24-29 μg  
365 m<sup>-3</sup> during 2010-2013 (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>). Note that SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in  
366 Shanghai only accounted for less than 20% of the total SO<sub>2</sub> emissions in YRD and  
367 with small annual variations. The high concentrations of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> observed in Shanghai  
368 were also closely related to regional transport from north China (e.g. BTH and  
369 Shandong province) (Li et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2016a).

370 Annual NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations in Shanghai were relatively steady (6.0-7.7 μg m<sup>-3</sup>)  
371 during 1999-2009, but sharply increased to 10.9 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2011-2013. NO<sub>x</sub>  
372 emissions in YRD also showed an increasing trend during these years, consistent  
373 with satellite retrieved vertical column NO<sub>2</sub> density during 2000-2010 (Zhang et al.,  
374 2012b; Zhao et al., 2013b). In contrast, surface-level annual NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in  
375 Shanghai sharply decreased from 90 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2000 to a range of 48-61 μg m<sup>-3</sup>  
376 during 2003-2013 (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>). The inconsistency in the trends between  
377 emissions and gaseous and particulate matters surface air concentrations was similar  
378 to that found in Beijing. Photochemistry and regional transport of related pollutants  
379 should be the major causes of this phenomenon.

380 Annual NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations decreased from 5.9 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 1999-2000 to the  
381 levels of 4.1 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2009 and then recovered to 5.8 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2011-2013. NH<sub>3</sub>  
382 emission increased in 2000-2005 in east China (including BTH, YRD and PRD) and  
383 possibly also increased in 2006-2010 due to the lack of control measures for NH<sub>3</sub> in  
384 China (Wang et al., 2011). The recently increased NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations in Shanghai



385 were likely due to the concurrent increases of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions and  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
386 concentrations.

387 In summary, a decreasing trend was identified in TC, increasing ones for  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
388 and  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , and a stable one for  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  in Shanghai. The inter-annual variations in EC  
389 agreed with the its local emission trend in Shanghai rather than the regional transport.  
390 In contrast, inter-annual variations in  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  agreed more with the  
391 regional scale emission trends of their respective gaseous precursors in YRD. Similar  
392 to what was found for Beijing, nonlinear responses of concentration changes of these  
393 aerosol components to their respective emission trends were also found in Shanghai.

#### 394 **2.2.2.2 Relative contributions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$**

395 The chemical compositions in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  between the cities in YRD were compared  
396 between Shanghai and Nanjing due to the lack of continuous annual data in  
397 Hangzhou. A converting factor of 1.6 between OC and OM was chosen for YRD,  
398 slight smaller than that (1.8) chosen for BTH considering the less impact of biomass  
399 burning to  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in this region (Feng et al., 2006; Li et al., 2016a). Secondary  
400 inorganic aerosols contributed 25-54% of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  annually in Shanghai and Nanjing,  
401 while carbonaceous aerosols contributed 28-47% (Li et al., 2016a; Wang et al.,  
402 2016a; Ye et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2015b). The sum of secondary inorganic aerosols  
403 (sulfate, nitrate and ammonium) and carbonaceous aerosols (OM and EC) accounted  
404 for 76% and 66% of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass in Shanghai and Nanjing, respectively, which was  
405 comparable with those (65%-70%) in BTH.

406 Seasonal variations of secondary inorganic aerosols contributions to  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  were



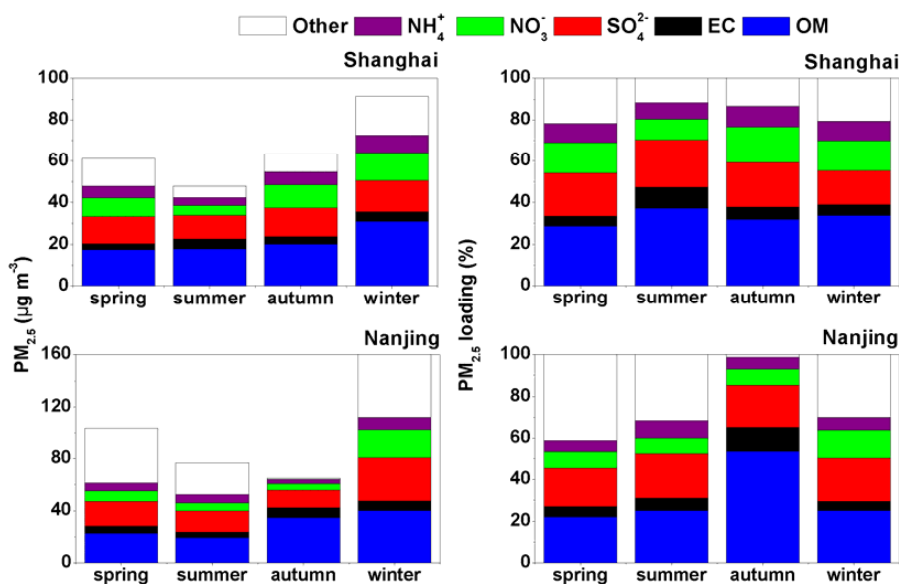
407 small in both cities, e.g., 41-49% in Shanghai and 32-40% in Nanjing. Larger  
408 seasonal variations were found for carbonaceous aerosols than secondary inorganic  
409 aerosols, e.g., 47% in summer and 33%-39% in the other seasons in Shanghai, and  
410 ranged from 27% (spring) to 65% (autumn) in Nanjing (Cao et al., 2012b; Huang et  
411 al., 2014a; Huang et al., 2014b; Li et al., 2016a; Pathak et al., 2011; Shen et al., 2014;  
412 Wang et al., 2016a; Yang et al., 2005b; Ye et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2015a).

413 In Hangzhou, seasonal contributions can only be estimated for summer and  
414 winter 2003 (Cao et al., 2012b). Seasonal contribution of secondary inorganic  
415 aerosols in winter was 44%, which was evidently higher than that in summer (34%),  
416 while carbonaceous aerosols contributed 33-35%. At the rural sites (Ningbo and  
417 Lin'an) in Zhejiang province, seasonal contributions of carbonaceous aerosols varied  
418 within a small range (28%-34%) in four seasons in 2008-2009, which were  
419 comparable with those in Hangzhou (Feng et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2013a).

420 In summary, the different seasonal average contributions of secondary inorganic  
421 aerosols and carbonaceous aerosols in Shanghai and Nanjing were likely due to the  
422 different local sources in YRD. The seasonal patterns of these chemical components  
423 in Shanghai were resulted from both local emissions and regional transport, but in  
424 Nanjing mainly determined by local emissions because Nanjing is an inland city  
425 surrounded by many industrial enterprises including power plants, petrochemical  
426 plants, and steel plants.

427





428

429

Fig. 6. Seasonal  $PM_{2.5}$  and dominant chemical components in YRD.

### 430 2.2.3 The Pearl River Delta region

#### 431 2.2.3.1 Inter-annual variations in Guangzhou

432 Inter-annual variations for dominant chemical components were only discussed  
433 for Guangzhou in PRD since data for this city were available during 2002-2003,  
434 2009-2010 and 2014 (Hagler et al., 2006; Tao et al., 2014c; Tao et al., 2017). Data  
435 for Shenzhen were only available during 2002-2003 and 2009 (Hagler et al., 2006;  
436 Huang et al., 2013) and for Hong Kong during 2000-2001 and 2002-2003. Annual  
437 OC concentration decreased significantly from  $17.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2002-2003 to  $9.0 \mu\text{g}$   
438  $\text{m}^{-3}$  in 2009-2010, and then to  $8.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2014 in Guangzhou, while EC slightly  
439 increased from  $4.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to  $6.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and then decreased to  $4.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during the  
440 same periods. Similar to Guangzhou, annual OC concentration decreased



441 significantly from  $11.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2002-2003 to  $8.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2009-2010 in Shenzhen,  
442 while EC slightly increased from  $2.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to  $2.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . Apparently, the trends of  
443 EC in Guangzhou and Shenzhen was inconsistent with the BC emission trend in  
444 Guangdong province during 2005-2009, which showed slightly decrease (Qin and  
445 Xie, 2012). As a result, TC concentrations gradually decreased from  $22.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to  
446  $15.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in Guangzhou and from  $15.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  to  $13.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in Shenzhen before  
447 2010, similar to what was found in Beijing and Shanghai. The same phenomenon  
448 was also observed at a suburban site of Guangzhou (Hagler et al., 2006; Lai et al.,  
449 2016).

450 Contrast to the TC trend, annual  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations in  
451 Guangzhou increased from 14.7, 4.0 and  $4.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2002-2003 to 18.1, 7.8 and  
452  $5.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2009-2010 and evidently decreased to 9.3, 2.2 and  $3.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2014,  
453 respectively. The similar increases were also found in Shenzhen, e.g., from 10.0, 2.3  
454 and  $3.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2002-2003 to 11.7, 2.7 and  $3.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2009, respectively  
455 (Hagler et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2013), and in the suburban of Guangzhou, e.g.,  
456 from 10.4, 0.3 and  $2.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2002-2003 to 12.2, 2.0 and  $5.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2012-2013,  
457 respectively (Hagler et al., 2006; Lai et al., 2016).  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions in Guangdong  
458 province gradually increased in the previous decade, e.g., 964, 1150, 1177 and 1258  
459  $\text{Gg year}^{-1}$  in 2000, 2004, 2007 and 2010, respectively (Lu et al., 2010; Zhao et al.,  
460 2013a). However,  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions in PRD decreased more than 40% in 2009  
461 compared with that in 2005, due to flue gas desulfurization facilities in power plants  
462 and large industrial boilers installed in this region (Lu et al., 2013). Annual average



463 SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in Guangzhou gradually increased from 45 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2000 to 77  
464 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2004, and then decreased to 17 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2014 (<http://www.gzepb.gov.cn/>).  
465 Thus, the increased SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> concentration before 2010 in Guangzhou was largely due  
466 to the regional transport of pollutants from outside of PRD. The decreased SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>  
467 concentration in 2014 in Guangzhou was likely due to flue gas desulfurization  
468 facilities in power plants and large industrial boilers extended to the whole  
469 Guangdong province (<http://www.gdep.gov.cn/>).

470 Meanwhile, NO<sub>x</sub> emissions increased in Guangdong province as well as in the  
471 whole PRD, similar to the trends in BTH and YRD (Lu et al., 2013; Zhang et al.,  
472 2012b; Zhao et al., 2013b). However, annual average surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in  
473 Guangzhou fluctuated in the range of 61 - 73 μg m<sup>-3</sup> during 2000-2007 and 48 - 56  
474 μg m<sup>-3</sup> during 2008-2014 (<http://www.gzepb.gov.cn/>). An opposite trend was also  
475 found between NO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emission with the former persistently decreased while  
476 the latter increased in Guangzhou, although NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentration was also increased.  
477 Thus, emission as well as chemical processes both affect these ions concentrations in  
478 air. Annual NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations slightly increased about 10% before 2010 in  
479 Guangzhou and Shenzhen although NH<sub>3</sub> emissions changed little during 2002-2006  
480 in PRD (Zheng et al., 2012). Thus, the increased NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations in Guangzhou  
481 and Shenzhen during 2002-2010 were largely due to the increased SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>,  
482 which enhanced the conversion of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> from NH<sub>3</sub>.

483 In summary, a decreasing trend was identified in TC and increasing ones for  
484 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in Guangzhou and Shenzhen before 2010, while all chemical



485 components decreased after 2010 in Guangzhou. The inter-annual variations in EC  
486 was inconsistent with BC emission trend in Guangdong province. In contrast,  
487 inter-annual variations in  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  agreed with the regional scale  
488 emission trends of their respective gaseous precursors in Guangdong province rather  
489 than PRD. Similar to what was found for Beijing and Shanghai, nonlinear responses  
490 of concentration changes of these aerosol components to their respective emission  
491 trends were also found in Guangzhou and Shenzhen.

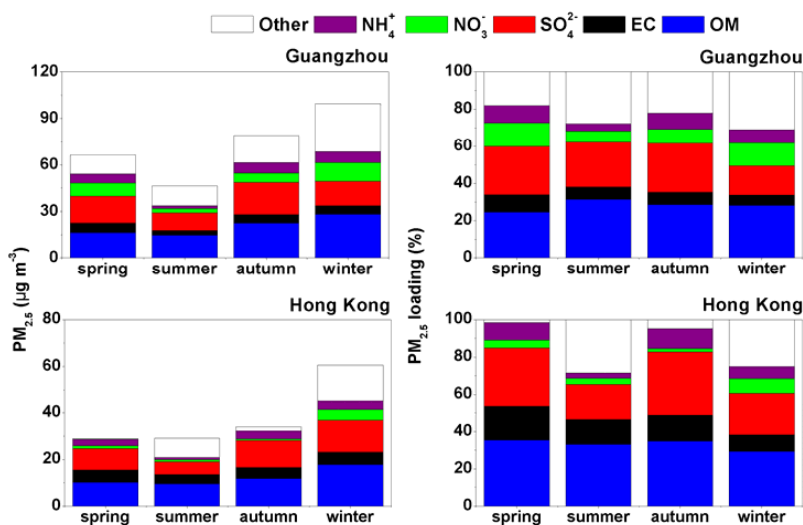
#### 492 **2.2.3.2 Relative contributions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$**

493 Data collected in 2002-2003 were discussed since multiple cities (e.g.  
494 Guangzhou, Conghua, Zhongshan, Shenzhen and Hong Kong) in PRD have data  
495 during this period (Fig. 4) (Hagler et al., 2006). The converting factor between OC  
496 and OM was chosen to be the same as in YRD (1.6). Secondary inorganic aerosols  
497 contributed 33-38%, depending on location, of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  annually, while carbonaceous  
498 aerosols contributed 37-46%. It is noted that  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  in Guangzhou was much higher  
499 than those in the other coastal cities (including Zhongshan, Shenzhen and Hong  
500 Kong), but the contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols and carbonaceous  
501 aerosols were not significantly different between these cities. At rural sites (Tianhu  
502 and Conghua near Guangzhou and Hok Tsui near Hong Kong), secondary inorganic  
503 aerosols and carbonaceous aerosols accounted for 35-48% and 24-43%, respectively,  
504 of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass, which were similar to those obtained in the cities in PRD (Hagler et  
505 al., 2006; Lai et al., 2016; Louie et al., 2005b). Thus, the sum of secondary inorganic  
506 aerosols and carbonaceous aerosols accounted for 68%-83% of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass in the



507 PRD region, similar to what was found in Shanghai (YRD).

508 Although many studies have been conducted in PRD, most studies were short  
509 period studies. Studies covering the full four seasons were mainly carried out in  
510 Guangzhou and Hong Kong (Fig.7) (Andreae et al., 2008; Cao et al., 2003; Cao et al.,  
511 2012b; Cui et al., 2015; Ho et al., 2006; Huang et al., 2014b; Jung et al., 2009a; Lai  
512 et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2014a; Louie et al., 2005a; Tan et al., 2009; Tao et al., 2014c;  
513 Tao et al., 2015b; Tao et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2011b). Seasonal average  
514 contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols were generally higher in spring and  
515 autumn than in summer and winter in both Guangzhou and Hong Kong. If averaging  
516 all the years data together, secondary inorganic aerosols contributed 43%, 31%, 38%  
517 and 33% in spring, summer, autumn and winter, respectively, to PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Guangzhou  
518 and 45%, 25%, 46% and 37%, respectively, in Hong Kong. However, different  
519 seasonal patterns were found between Guangzhou and Hong Kong for carbonaceous  
520 aerosols. Carbonaceous aerosols contributed 34%, 37%, 35% and 34% in spring,  
521 summer, autumn and winter, respectively, to PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Guangzhou and 54%, 47%,  
522 49% and 38%, respectively, in Hong Kong. Seasonal variations of OC/EC ratios  
523 ranged from 1.6 to 3.4 in Guangzhou and ranged from 1.2 to 2.1 in Hong Kong,  
524 suggesting coal and vehicle exhaust as dominant sources in Guangzhou while  
525 vehicle exhaust as dominant source in Hong Kong (He et al., 2008; Watson et al.,  
526 2001).



527

528

Fig. 7. Seasonal  $PM_{2.5}$  and dominant chemical components in PRD.

#### 529 2.2.4 Other cities

530 Besides the cities in BTH, YRD and PRD, synchronous measurements of  $PM_{2.5}$   
531 and the dominant chemical components have also been conducted in several cities of  
532 the other regions in China, mostly the capital city of a province (e.g. Zhengzhou of  
533 Henan province, Xi'an of Shaanxi province, Lanzhou of Gansu province, Jinan of  
534 Shandong province, Chengdu of Sichuan province, Chongqing of Chongqing  
535 municipality, and Fuzhou of Fujian province) (Fig.4) (Geng et al., 2013; Tao et al.,  
536 2013a; Tao et al., 2014b; Wang et al., 2015c; Wang et al., 2016b; Wang et al., 2017;  
537 Xu et al., 2012b; Yang et al., 2011b; Yang et al., 2012). A converting factor of 1.6  
538 between OC and OM was chosen for Fuzhou and 1.8 for other cities based on their  
539 geographical locations.

540 Annual average contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols and carbonaceous



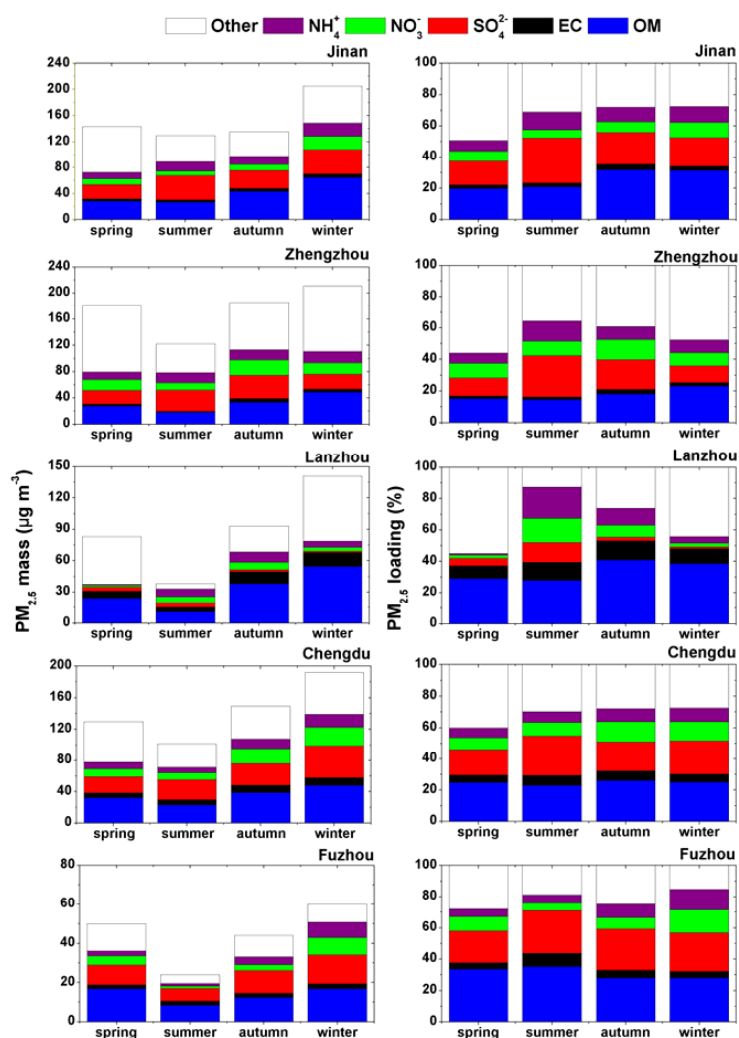
541 aerosols to  $PM_{2.5}$  were 43% and 36%, respectively, in the coastal city Fuzhou,  
542 similar to what was found in Shanghai. Annual contributions of secondary inorganic  
543 aerosols ranged from 30% to 39% in inland cities (Zhengzhou, Xi'an, Jinan,  
544 Chengdu, Chongqing) except Lanzhou (12%), which were comparable with those  
545 observed in PRD (33-38%). In contrast, large differences were found in the annual  
546 contributions of carbonaceous aerosols, ranging from 23% in Zhengzhou to 51% in  
547 Lanzhou. The sum of secondary inorganic aerosols and carbonaceous aerosols  
548 accounted for 56%-79% of  $PM_{2.5}$  mass in these cities.

549 Seasonal average contributions are only shown for Chengdu, Zhengzhou, Jinan  
550 Lanzhou, and Fuzhou due to the incomplete data in Xi'an and Chongqing (Fig. 8).  
551 Seasonal contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols were evidently higher in  
552 summer than in other seasons in Zhengzhou, Jinan and Lanzhou (typical northern  
553 cities), similar to what was seen in BTH. Interestingly, in a southwest city Chengdu,  
554 seasonal contribution of secondary inorganic aerosols was only 30% in spring  
555 compared to the much higher values in the other seasons (40-42%). Moreover, in a  
556 southern coastal city Fuzhou, the highest seasonal average contribution of secondary  
557 inorganic aerosols was observed in winter (53%), much higher than in other seasons  
558 (34-42%).

559 Seasonal average contributions of carbonaceous aerosols were evidently higher  
560 in cold seasons than in warm seasons in the three northern cities (Zhengzhou and  
561 Jinan and Lanzhou) due to heating activities and biomass burning, similar to what  
562 was observed in BTH. In contrast, higher seasonal contributions were found in warm



563 season than in cold seasons in the southern coastal city (Fuzhou), and flat seasonal  
564 variations (29%-32%) in the southwest inland city (Chengdu). The sum contributions  
565 of secondary inorganic aerosols and carbonaceous aerosols were evidently lower in  
566 spring than in other seasons in most of the northern cities (e.g. Jinan, Lanzhou,  
567 Zhengzhou, and BTH), likely due to the frequent spring dust storm events in  
568 northern China.



569

570 Fig. 8. Seasonal  $PM_{2.5}$  and dominant chemical components in other cities.





## 571 2.2.5 Summary of PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical properties

572 Carbonaceous aerosols showed decreasing trends over the last ten years  
573 (2000-2010) in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou, consistent with BC emission  
574 trends in these cities and surrounding areas. SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> remained at high levels  
575 with no significant trends in Beijing and Shanghai, but with an increasing trend in  
576 Guangzhou. NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> showed increase trends in all of the above-mentioned megacities.  
577 Annual mass concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, secondary inorganic aerosols, and  
578 carbonaceous aerosols showed similar spatial gradients decreasing from high to low  
579 latitude regions.

580 Annual average contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols to PM<sub>2.5</sub> ranged  
581 from 25% to 48% with higher values in southern regions, and those of carbonaceous  
582 aerosols ranged from 23% to 47%, also with higher values in southern regions. The  
583 percentage contributions of the sum of secondary inorganic aerosols and  
584 carbonaceous aerosols were higher in southern cities than in northern cities due to  
585 the frequent dust events in the north.

586 The highest seasonal average contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols to  
587 PM<sub>2.5</sub> were observed in summer in most of the northern cities, but can be in different  
588 seasons in southern cities. In contrast, the highest seasonal contributions of  
589 carbonaceous aerosols were observed in cold seasons in most of the northern cities,  
590 and in warm seasons in most of the southern cities. The different seasonal patterns  
591 were largely caused by heating and biomass burning in cold seasons in north China.



### 592 **3. Aerosol optical properties**

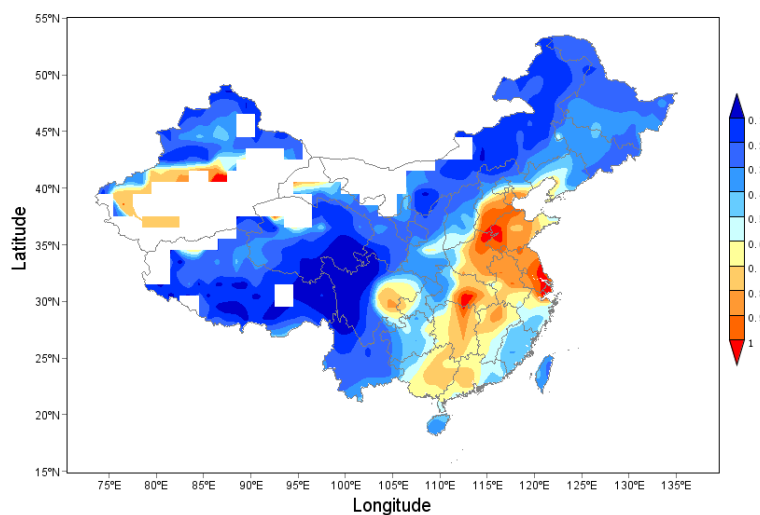
593 There were fewer measurements of aerosol optical properties than chemically  
594 resolved PM<sub>2.5</sub> data in China. Data reviewed in this section are all listed in Table S2  
595 of the supplement document. Measurements were available at urban sites including  
596 Beijing in BTH (Bergin et al., 2001; Garland et al., 2009; Han et al., 2014; He et al.,  
597 2009; Jing et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2009; Tian et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2015a; Wu et al.,  
598 2016; Zhao et al., 2011), Shanghai (Cheng et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2014; Han et al.,  
599 2015; Huang et al., 2014a; Li et al., 2013a; Xu et al., 2012a; Zha et al., 2014),  
600 Nanjing (Kang et al., 2013), and Shouxian (Anhui province) in YRD (Fan et al.,  
601 2010), Guangzhou, Shenzhen and Hong Kong in PRD (Andreae et al., 2008; Cheng  
602 et al., 2006a; Cheng et al., 2006b; Cheng et al., 2008a; Gao et al., 2015; Garland et  
603 al., 2008; Jung et al., 2009a; Lan et al., 2013; Man and Shih, 2001; Tao et al., 2014c;  
604 Verma et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2013), Chengdu in southwest China  
605 (Tao et al., 2014b; Wang et al., 2017), and Xi'an in northwest China (Cao et al.,  
606 2012a; Zhu et al., 2015), rural sites including rural Beijing (Shangdianzi) and rural  
607 Tianjin (Wuqing) in BTH (Ma et al., 2011; Yan et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2011), and  
608 remote sites in north and northwest China (Li et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2004; Yan,  
609 2007). Sites with one year or longer data included Beijing, rural Beijing, Shanghai,  
610 Guangzhou, Chengdu, Xi'an and Shouxian.

611 Aerosol optical depth (AOD), representing the integrated light extinction  
612 coefficient in a vertical column, can be achieved from MODerate-resolution Imaging  
613 Spectroradiometer (MODIS) data. Spatial distributions of annual average AOD in



614 2014 are shown in Fig. 9. Compared with spatial distributions of  $PM_{2.5}$  shown in Fig.  
615 2, similar general patterns were found between these two variables likely due to the  
616 dominant role  $PM_{2.5}$  played on light extinction. Differences in fine structures of their  
617 patterns were due to surface  $PM_{2.5}$  versus column AOD comparison and spatial  
618 variations in  $PM_{2.5}$  chemical composition.

619 In this section, geographical patterns of the aerosol optical properties including  
620  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  measured on ground base in major Chinese cities are first discussed  
621 (section 3.1). Temporal patterns of  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  on annual and seasonal scales are then  
622 discussed for major regions (section 3.2). Fewer studies were available for  $b_{ap}$  than  $b_{sp}$ ,  
623 however, the measured BC concentrations (at 880 nm wavelength) can be converted  
624 to  $b_{ap}$  (at 532 nm wavelength) by a factor of  $8.28 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ .



625  
626 Fig. 9. Spatial distribution of annual average AOD across China in 2014.

### 627 3.1 Geographical patterns

628 Annual average  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  from ground measurements in major cities in China

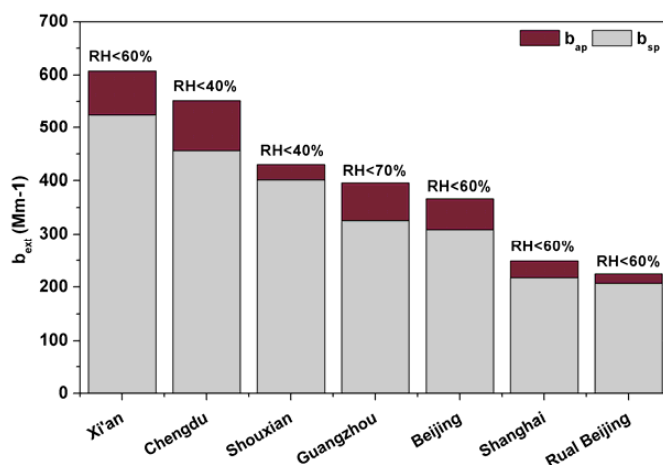


629 are plotted in Fig. 10. Most  $b_{sp}$  measurements were conducted using the  
630 nephelometer under  $RH < 60\%$ . The highest annual  $b_{sp}$  was in Xi'an ( $525 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ,  
631  $RH < 60\%$ ) (Cao et al., 2012a), followed by Chengdu ( $456 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ,  $RH < 40\%$ ; 421  
632  $\text{Mm}^{-1}$ , ambient RH) (Tao et al., 2014b; Wang et al., 2017), Guangzhou ( $326 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ,  
633  $RH < 70\%$ ) (Tao et al., 2014c), Beijing ( $309 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ,  $RH < 60\%$ ) (He et al., 2009; Jing et  
634 al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2011), and Shanghai ( $217 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ,  $RH < 60\%$ ) (Cheng et al.,  
635 2015). Such a spatial pattern was mostly due to the spatial pattern of annual  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
636 mass, i.e. Xi'an ( $177 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) > Chengdu ( $111 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) > Beijing ( $108 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) >  
637 Shanghai ( $77 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) > Guangzhou ( $65 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), and partly due to humidity  
638 condition, e.g., Beijing versus Guangzhou. Noticeably,  $b_{sp}$  in Shouxian County was  
639 higher than those in several megacities (e.g. Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou),  
640 suggesting hazy weather also frequently occurred even in small cities in China (Fan  
641 et al., 2010).  $b_{sp}$  in rural Beijing was  $179 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  (Yan et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2011),  
642 which was much lower than that in urban Beijing, but was close to the level in  
643 Shanghai.

644 Annual average  $b_{ap}$  ranged from 37 to  $96 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  with higher values observed in  
645 Chengdu and Xi'an (likely due to popular biomass burning besides large amount of  
646 coal burning) (Cao et al., 2012a; Tao et al., 2014a; Tao et al., 2014b; Wang et al.,  
647 2017; Zhang et al., 2014b), and lower values in Shouxian and rural Beijing (Fan et  
648 al., 2010; Yan et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2011).  $b_{ap}$  in Guangzhou was higher than that  
649 in Beijing and Shanghai despite their similar  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  EC levels, likely due to the  
650 different coating of EC in Guangzhou than in other cities. For example, the mass



651 absorption of EC in Guangzhou was  $8.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (at 532 nm) in autumn 2004 (Andreae  
652 et al., 2008), which was higher than that ( $4.2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  at 870 nm, equivalent to  $7.2 \text{ m}^2$   
653  $\text{g}^{-1}$  at 532 nm) in winter 2013 in Beijing (Wu et al., 2016).



654

655

Fig. 10. Annual  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  in China.

## 656 3.2 Temporal patterns

### 657 3.2.1 The Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region

658  $b_{sp}$  measurements in BTH longer than one year were only available in Beijing,  
659 including the years of 2005, 2006, 2008-2009 and 2009-2010 (He et al., 2009; Jing et  
660 al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2011). Annual  $b_{sp}$  in Beijing increased by 36% from  $264 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$   
661 in 2005 to  $360 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  in 2009-2010, when  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  increased by 20% from 107 to 129  
662  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  during the same period. However, annual  $b_{ap}$  in 2009-2010 was  $64 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ,  
663 which was slightly higher than  $56 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  in 2005-2006, although the annual EC in  
664 2009-2010 was evident lower than that in 2005-2006. Meanwhile, annual secondary  
665 inorganic aerosols in 2009-2010 were evident lower than that in 2005-2006. The



666 coating by secondary inorganic aerosols likely enhanced the absorption of EC (Bond  
667 et al., 2006; Cheng et al., 2009; Yu et al., 2010).

668  $b_{sp}$  measurements in rural Beijing included the years of 2003-2005 and  
669 2008-2009, while  $b_{ap}$  only included the years of 2003-2005. Generally, annual  $b_{sp}$   
670 and  $b_{ap}$  in rural Beijing changed little, which ranged from 175 to 182  $Mm^{-1}$  and from  
671 18 to 18  $Mm^{-1}$ , respectively (Yan et al., 2008; Zhao et al., 2011). In conclusion,  $b_{sp}$   
672 and  $b_{ap}$  showed slightly increasing tendencies in urban and rural Beijing in recent  
673 years.

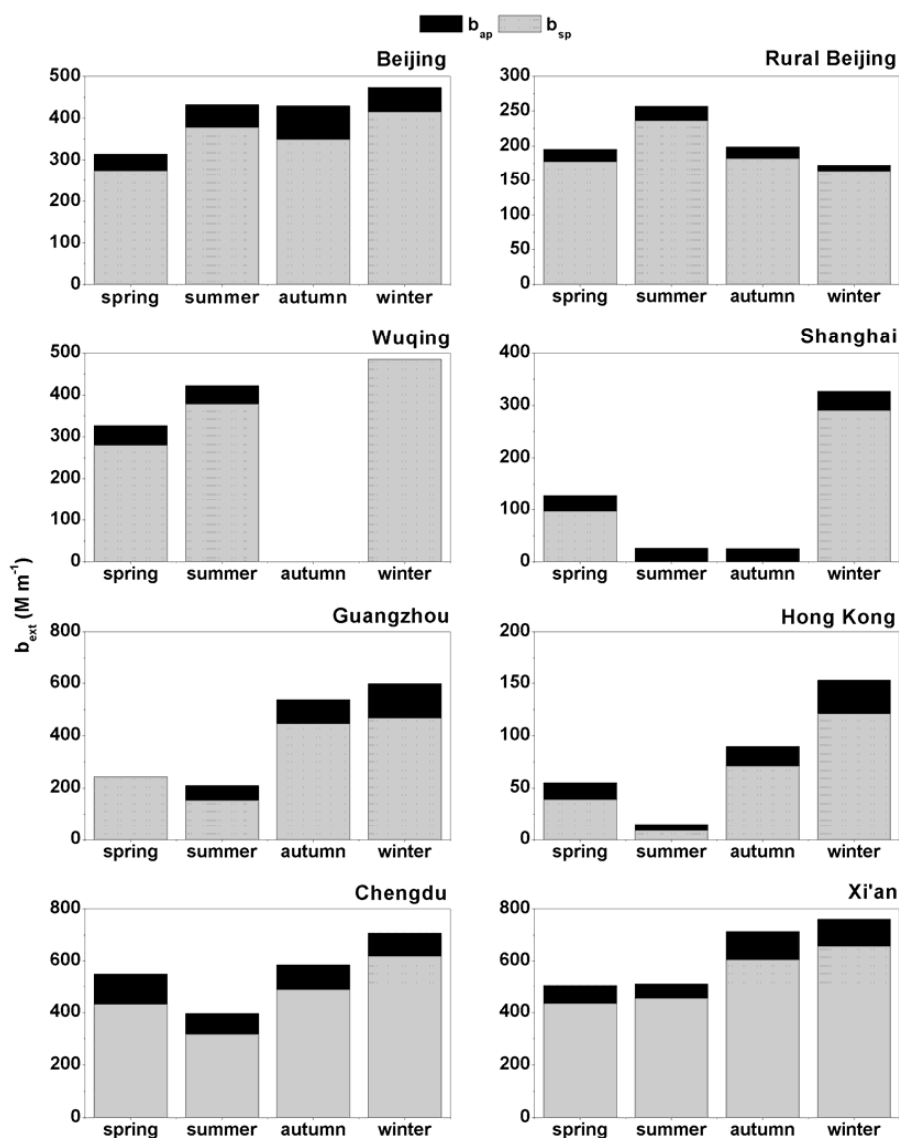
674 Seasonal variations of  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  at urban and rural sites in Beijing are plotted in  
675 Fig. 13. The highest seasonal average  $b_{sp}$  in Beijing was observed in winter and the  
676 lowest in spring with seasonal variations up to a factor of 1.7 (Bergin et al., 2001;  
677 Garland et al., 2009; Han et al., 2014; He et al., 2009; Jing et al., 2015; Li et al.,  
678 2013b; Liu et al., 2009; Tao et al., 2015a; Tian et al., 2015; Zhao et al., 2011). A  
679 different seasonal pattern was seen at the rural site located north of Beijing, which  
680 showed 10-26% higher values in summer than in the other seasons (Yan et al., 2008;  
681 Zhao et al., 2011). The highest seasonal  $b_{sp}$  in winter in Beijing was consistent with  
682 the highest seasonal  $PM_{2.5}$  mass. However, in rural Beijing the highest  $PM_{2.5}$  mass  
683 was observed in spring due to the frequent dust storm events, and the second highest  
684 seasonal average  $PM_{2.5}$  mass in summer which corresponded to the highest seasonal  
685  $b_{sp}$ . This is because scattering efficiency of dust aerosols was lower than that of  
686 anthropogenic aerosols (Zhao et al., 2011).

687 The highest seasonal  $b_{ap}$  in Beijing appeared in autumn and the lowest in spring



688 with seasonal variations up to a factor of 2.0 (Bergin et al., 2001; Garland et al., 2009;  
689 He et al., 2009; Jing et al., 2015; Li et al., 2013c; Liu et al., 2009; Tian et al., 2015;  
690 Wu et al., 2016). Seasonal variations of  $b_{ap}$  were different from those of  $b_{sp}$  due to  
691 their dependence on different chemical compounds, i.e.  $b_{sp}$  mainly on PM mass  
692 while  $b_{ap}$  mainly on EC mass in PM and its coating. In rural Beijing  $b_{ap}$  was lower by  
693 19%~57% in summer than in other seasons, and with similar seasonal variations to  
694  $b_{sp}$ , suggesting aerosols in rural Beijing mainly came from regional transport (Yan et  
695 al., 2008).

696 At the rural site in Tianjin (Wuqing) located between Beijing and Tianjin, only  
697 spring and summer 2009 and winter 2010 data were available, which gave a seasonal  
698 average of  $280 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  in spring,  $379 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  in summer, and  $485 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  in winter for  $b_{sp}$ ,  
699 and  $47 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  in spring and  $43 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$  in summer for  $b_{ap}$  (Fig. 13) (Chen et al., 2014a;  
700 Ma et al., 2011). These seasonal values in Wuqing were higher than those observed  
701 at the rural sites near Beijing, likely because Wuqing is close to and downwind of  
702 Tianjin and Hebei province where located major pollutant sources.



703

704

Fig. 11. Seasonal  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  in cities with measurements.

705

### 3.2.2 The Yangtze River Delta and Pearl River Delta region

706

No multi-year  $b_{sp}$  measurement data were available for exploring inter-annual

707

variations, although multi-year measurements of BC or  $b_{ap}$  were made in Shanghai





708 (YRD) and Guangzhou (PRD). Annual  $b_{ap}$  in 2011-2012 ( $19 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ) was evidently  
709 lower than that in 2010 ( $31 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ) in Shanghai (Feng et al., 2014; Zha et al., 2014),  
710 consistent with the trend of EC, e.g. annual concentration of EC in 2012 ( $2.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ )  
711 was only half of that in 2009 ( $4.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) (Wang et al., 2016a; Zhao et al., 2015b). In  
712 Guangzhou, annual  $b_{ap}$  in 2007 ( $51 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ) was also evidently lower than that in 2004  
713 ( $90 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ) (Wu et al., 2009), while EC in 2006-2007 ( $4.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) was similar or  
714 slightly lower than that in 2002-2003 ( $4.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) (Hagler et al., 2006; Huang et al.,  
715 2012). Thus, the inter-annual variations in  $b_{ap}$  were mainly determined by EC trends  
716 in the same cities.

717  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  in winter were evidently higher than those in spring in Shanghai,  
718 consistent with the seasonal patterns of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and EC, respectively (Fig. 13) (Cao et  
719 al., 2012b; Cheng et al., 2015; Feng et al., 2014; Han et al., 2015; Huang et al.,  
720 2014a; Li et al., 2013a; Pathak et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2016a; Xu et al., 2012a; Ye  
721 et al., 2003; Zha et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2015a). Similar seasonal variations were  
722 found for  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  in the two PRD cities (Guangzhou and Hong Kong), which also  
723 agreed with the patterns of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and EC (Andreae et al., 2008; Cao et al., 2003; Cao  
724 et al., 2004; Cao et al., 2012b; Cui et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2014b;  
725 Jung et al., 2009a; Lai et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2014a; Louie et al., 2005a; Pathak et al.,  
726 2011; Tao et al., 2009; Tao et al., 2014c; Tao et al., 2015b; Tao et al., 2017; Verma et  
727 al., 2010; Wu et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2013). The highest  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  appeared in  
728 winter and the lowest in summer with seasonal variations up to a factor of 3.1 and  
729 17.1 for  $b_{sp}$ , 2.3 and 5.9 for  $b_{ap}$ , in Guangzhou and Hong Kong, respectively.



### 730 **3.2.3 Other cities**

731 In Chengdu of southwest China, the highest  $b_{sp}$  appeared in winter and the lowest  
732 in summer with seasonal variations up to a factor of 1.9, which was consistent with  
733 the seasonal pattern of  $PM_{2.5}$  (Tao et al., 2014a, b). However, the highest  $b_{ap}$   
734 appeared in spring despite the highest EC in winter (Tao et al., 2014b). One  
735 explanation could be due to the large amount of OC emitted from biomass burning in  
736 spring season, which enhanced the absorption of EC (Schnaiter et al., 2005; Tao et  
737 al., 2013b).  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  in winter were evidently higher than those in summer in Xi'an  
738 in northwest China, consistent with the seasonal patterns of  $PM_{2.5}$  and EC,  
739 respectively (Cao et al., 2009; Cao et al., 2012a; Wang et al., 2015c).

740 Seasonal measurements of  $b_{sp}$  and  $b_{ap}$  were also made at remote sites (Dunhuang,  
741 Yulin, and Zhangye of Gansu province, Dongsheng of Inner Mongolia) focusing on  
742 dust aerosols and only covered spring and winter (Li et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2004;  
743 Yan, 2007).  $b_{sp}$  in winter ranged from 303 to 304  $Mm^{-1}$ , which doubled those in  
744 spring of 126 to 183  $Mm^{-1}$ .

## 745 **4. Relationships between aerosol optical properties and $PM_{2.5}$ mass** 746 **concentrations**

### 747 **4.1 Mass scattering efficiency of $PM_{2.5}$**

748  $b_{sp}$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  mass concentration have been found to correlate well in numerous  
749 field studies (Andreae et al., 2008; Han et al., 2015; Hand and Malm, 2007b; Jung et  
750 al., 2009a; Pu et al., 2015; Tao et al., 2014b; Tao et al., 2014c; Tao et al., 2015a; Tao  
751 et al., 2016a; Tian et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2011). A parameter



752 describing their relationship is defined as mass scattering efficiency (MSE), which is  
753 the slope of the linear regression of  $b_{sp}$  against  $PM_{2.5}$  mass. MSE was found to vary  
754 with location and season due to the variations in  $PM_{2.5}$  chemical composition. Some  
755 of the variations may be due to different sampling conditions, e.g., ambient (controlled  
756  $RH < 60\%$ ) versus dry condition (controlled  $RH < 40\%$ ), online versus filter-based  
757  $PM_{2.5}$  sampling. Available MSE data are discussed here, although uncertainties from  
758 measurements will not be addressed in this study.

759 In BTH, annual average  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE was higher in Beijing ( $5.9 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) than in  
760 rural Beijing ( $4.8 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) based on online  $PM_{2.5}$  mass (Zhao et al., 2011). In urban  
761 Beijing in winter of 2013,  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE increased to  $4.9 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  during the heavy  
762 pollution episode and decreased to  $3.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  during clean days, due to the large  
763 fraction of soluble inorganic components (e.g.  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  and  $NH_4NO_3$ ) in  $PM_{2.5}$   
764 under heavy polluted condition (Tao et al., 2015a). In rural Beijing in 2005-2010,  
765 dust episodes had lower  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE ( $0.7 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) and anthropogenic pollution  
766 episodes had higher  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE ( $4.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) (Pu et al., 2015).

767 In YRD, annual average  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE ranged from  $3.8 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  in Ningbo to  $5.3 \text{ m}^2$   
768  $\text{g}^{-1}$  in Hangzhou with a regional urban average (including cities of Nanjing, Shanghai,  
769 Suzhou, Hangzhou and Ningbo) of  $4.1 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  in 2011-2012 (Cheng et al., 2013b).  
770  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE in Lin'an ( $4.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ), a rural site of YRD, was close to the regional  
771 urban average value in YRD (Xu et al., 2002).  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE in Shanghai reached  $5.6$   
772  $\text{m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  in winter of 2012 (Han et al., 2015), which was higher than that in Beijing in  
773 the same season (Tao et al., 2015a).



774 In PRD, annual average  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE in Guangzhou was  $3.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  with seasonal  
775 average ranged from  $2.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  in summer to  $4.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  in autumn in 2009-2010 (Tao  
776 et al., 2014c). These values were close to  $4.2 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (Andreae et al., 2008) and  $2.7 \text{ m}^2$   
777  $\text{g}^{-1}$  (Jung et al., 2009a) measured in the same city in autumn of 2004. However,  $PM_{2.5}$   
778 MSE in rural Guangzhou (Wanqingsha, south of Guangzhou) was  $5.3 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (Wang  
779 et al., 2012), which was evidently higher than that in Guangzhou in the same season  
780 (Tao et al., 2014c).

781 In southwest China, seasonal average  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE ranged from 3.5 to  $4.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$   
782 in Chengdu in 2011 (Tao et al., 2014b). In Northwest China,  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE was  $3.0 \text{ m}^2$   
783  $\text{g}^{-1}$  for anthropogenic pollution and  $1.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  for dust pollution at a remote site  
784 (Yulin, located at the interface of the desert and loess regions, Shanxi province),  
785 which was similar to what was observed in rural Beijing (Xu et al., 2004).

786 In summary, annual  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE mostly ranged from 3.5 to  $5.9 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  in urban  
787 areas in China with higher values in north China and lower values in south China.  
788 Seasonal average  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE mostly ranged from 2.3 to  $5.6 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  with higher  
789 values in winter and autumn and lower values in spring and summer. Generally,  
790  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE mostly ranged from 3.0 to  $5.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  for anthropogenic pollution and  
791 from 0.7 to  $1.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  for natural dust aerosols.

#### 792 **4.2 Mass absorption efficiency of EC and organic matter**

793 EC is the dominant absorption species in  $PM_{2.5}$ . Similar to  $PM_{2.5}$  MSE, the slope  
794 between  $b_{ap}$  and EC mass was defined as mass scattering efficiency (MAE) of EC.  
795 Various instruments have been used to measure  $b_{ap}$  including Aethalometer,



796 multi-angle absorption photometer (MAAP), Radiance Research Particle Soot  
797 Absorption Photometer (PSAP), and Photoacoustic Spectrometer (PAS), with the  
798 former two instruments measuring attenuation of the sample on the filter for  
799 estimating BC mass concentration, and the latter two measuring  $b_{ap}$  directly. Most  
800 studies in China used Aethalometer and MAAP. BC mass concentrations (880nm)  
801 were converted to  $b_{ap}$  (532nm) by an empirical constant of  $8.28 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ , which was  
802 obtained by the regression between BC mass and  $b_{ap}$  synchronously measured in  
803 autumn in Guangzhou, keeping in mind that application of an empirical constant  
804 obtained from one specific study to other cases may cause large uncertainties (Wu et  
805 al., 2009).

806 EC MAE was  $7.5\text{-}8.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  in winter and  $9.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  in summer in Beijing (632  
807 nm) (Cheng et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2016). The higher EC MAE in summer was likely  
808 due to more coating of EC in the higher ambient humidity (Wu et al., 2016). BC  
809 MAE was  $6.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  at 532 nm in autumn in Shenzhen of PRD (Lan et al., 2013).  
810 However, BC MAE was  $12.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  at 532 nm in winter in Xi'an (Wang et al.,  
811 2014a). Moreover, EC MAE of diesel was  $8.4 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (632 nm), which was higher  
812 than those ( $3.0\text{-}6.8 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$ ) of biomass burning sources (e.g. crop residual and wood)  
813 (Cheng et al., 2011).

814 Organic matter or brown carbon has also been found to be strong light absorption  
815 materials at the short wavelength. Available MAE values of OC include  $0.76 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$   
816 (532 nm) in autumn in 2008 in Guangzhou. Moreover, available MAE values of  
817 WSOC include  $1.79$  and  $0.71 \text{ m}^2 \text{ g}^{-1}$  (365nm) in winter and summer, respectively, in



818 Beijing (Cheng et al., 2011). The WSOC MAEs of wood, grass, corn, and diesel  
819 tractor were 0.97, 0.90, 1.05, and 1.33 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup> (365nm), respectively, which were  
820 much higher than that of gasoline motorcycle (0.20 m<sup>2</sup> g<sup>-1</sup>, 365nm) (Du et al., 2014b).  
821 Evidently, the MAEs of OC or WSOC should not be neglected for short wavelength  
822 absorption.

### 823 **4.3 Aerosol hygroscopic properties**

824  $b_{sp}$  under ambient condition can differ significantly from that under dry condition  
825 due to hygroscopic properties of soluble aerosol chemical components. A  
826 relationship between ambient and dry  $b_{sp}$  is thus developed for estimating ambient  
827  $b_{sp}$  from measured dry  $b_{sp}$ , which is often described by the hygroscopic growth curve  
828 ( $f(RH)$ ) as a function of RH:  $f(RH)=1+a\times(RH/100)^b$ . Here,  $a$  and  $b$  are empirical  
829 fitting parameters. Only a few studies conducted in Beijing, Wuqing, Lin'an and  
830 Guangzhou provided the aerosol hygroscopic curves (Table S3 of the supplement  
831 document). Three different methods have been used to obtain  $f(RH)$ . The first one  
832 measures simultaneously dry and wet  $b_{sp}$  using nephelometer and visibility meter,  
833 respectively. The second one measures wet  $b_{sp}$  by integrating nephelometer equipped  
834 with a humidifier. And the third one estimates dry and wet  $b_{sp}$  based on Mie theory  
835 with size-resolved chemical components.

836 Available  $f(RH)$  curves in China are summarized in Fig. 12. The three  $f(RH)$   
837 curves in autumn of 2007, 2011 and 2014 in urban Beijing were all measured using  
838 the first method (Fig.12 a) (Liu et al., 2013b; Liu et al., 2013c; Yang et al., 2015).  
839 The two  $f(RH)$  curves measured in 2011 and 2014 were quite close, but the one in



840 2007 was lower under  $RH < 80\%$  and higher under  $RH > 80\%$ , likely due to aerosol  
841 chemical composition changes in these years. The  $f(RH)$  curves in spring in two  
842 Tianjin rural sites (Baodi and Wuqing) were measured using the second method  
843 (Fig.12 b) (Chen et al., 2014a; Pan et al., 2009). The hygroscopic chemical  
844 components are mostly water-soluble inorganic salts (e.g.  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ ,  $NH_4NO_3$ ),  
845 while mineral dust and organic matter are mostly hydrophobic. The concentrations of  
846  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  and  $NH_4NO_3$  were higher during the polluted episode than during the  
847 clean period or dust storm episodes, which resulted in higher  $f(RH)$  values during the  
848 polluted episode in spring in Baodi.  $f(RH)$  values measured in winter in Wuqing  
849 were evidently higher than those measured in spring in Baodi under  $RH < 80\%$  likely  
850 due to more hygroscopic chemical components in winter in Wuqing.

851 The  $f(RH)$  curves in spring at a rural site Lin'an of Zhejiang province were also  
852 measured using the second method (Fig.12 c) (Zhang et al., 2015b). Similar to what  
853 was found in Baodi as discussed above,  $f(RH)$  values during the polluted episodes  
854 were also higher than those during the dust influenced episode in Lin'an, but  
855 differences between polluted and dust periods were smaller in Lin'an than in Baodi.  
856 Noticeably, the  $f(RH)$  values during the polluted episode were similar in Lin'an and  
857 Baodi, e.g.  $f(RH=80\%)$  was 1.5 and 1.6, respectively, in Lin'an and Baodi.

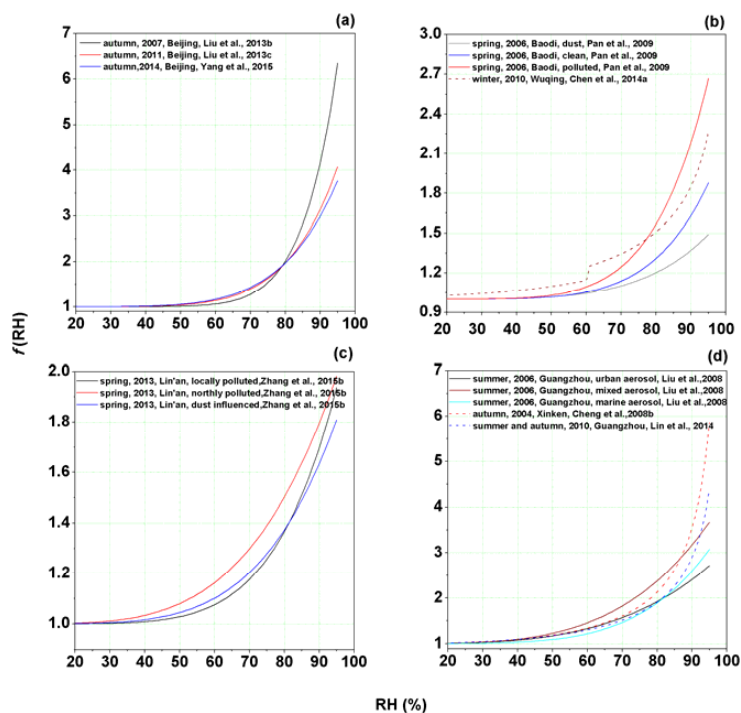
858 The  $f(RH)$  curves (solid lines) in summer in urban Guangzhou were measured by  
859 the first method, while those (dot lines) in autumn in rural Guangzhou and in  
860 summer and autumn seasons in urban Guangzhou were measured by the third  
861 method (Fig.12 d) (Cheng et al., 2008b; Lin et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2008).  $f(RH=80\%)$



862 values were 2.04 and 2.68, respectively, for urban aerosols originated from air  
863 masses in the north and marine aerosols originated from the South China Sea.  
864  $f(\text{RH}<80\%)$  curves were similar in urban and rural Guangzhou; however,  
865  $f(80\%<\text{RH}<90\%)$  values in rural Guangzhou were evidently higher than those in  
866 urban Guangzhou.

867 If averaging all available  $f(\text{RH})$  curves shown in Figure 13, the empirical fitting  
868 parameters  $a$  and  $b$  were found to be  $2.87\pm 0.03$ ,  $5.50\pm 0.06$ , respectively (Fig 13a).  
869 But if excluding dust episodes in Baodi and Lin'an (Fig 13 b), the empirical fitting  
870 parameters  $a$  and  $b$  were  $3.17\pm 0.03$ ,  $5.54\pm 0.06$ , respectively (Figure 15b). Based on  
871 the average  $f(\text{RH})$  curve,  $b_{\text{sp}}$  under ambient condition ( $\text{RH}=80\%$ ) can be amplified by  
872 about 1.8 times of that under dry conditions in China. This suggests that reducing  
873 inorganic water-soluble salts is critical in alleviating hazy weather in China.



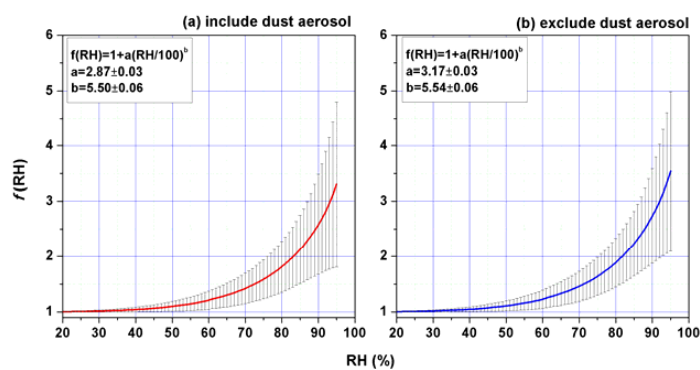


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Fig. 12. The hygroscopic growth curves in different sites in China.



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Fig. 13. Distribution of the hygroscopic growth curves in China.

#### 879 4.4 Source apportionment of haze in China

880 To investigate the contributions of PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical components to b<sub>sp</sub> by PM<sub>2.5</sub>, a  
 881 revised formula developed by the original IMPROVE is applied in this section  
 882 (Pitchford et al., 2007). The revised IMPROVE formula can be simplified as follows:



$$\begin{aligned} 883 \quad b_{\text{ext}} \approx & 2.2 \times f_S \times [\text{Small } (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4] + 4.8 \times f_L \times [\text{Large } (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4] + 2.4 \times f_S \times \\ 884 \quad & [\text{Small } \text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3] + 5.1 \times f_L \times [\text{Large } \text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3] + 2.8 \times [\text{Small OM}] + 6.1 \times [\text{Large OM}] \\ 885 \quad & + 1.0 \times [\text{Other}] + 10 \times [\text{EC}] \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

$$886 \quad [\text{Large X}] = [\text{Total X}]^2 / 20, \text{ for } [\text{Total X}] < 20 \quad (2)$$

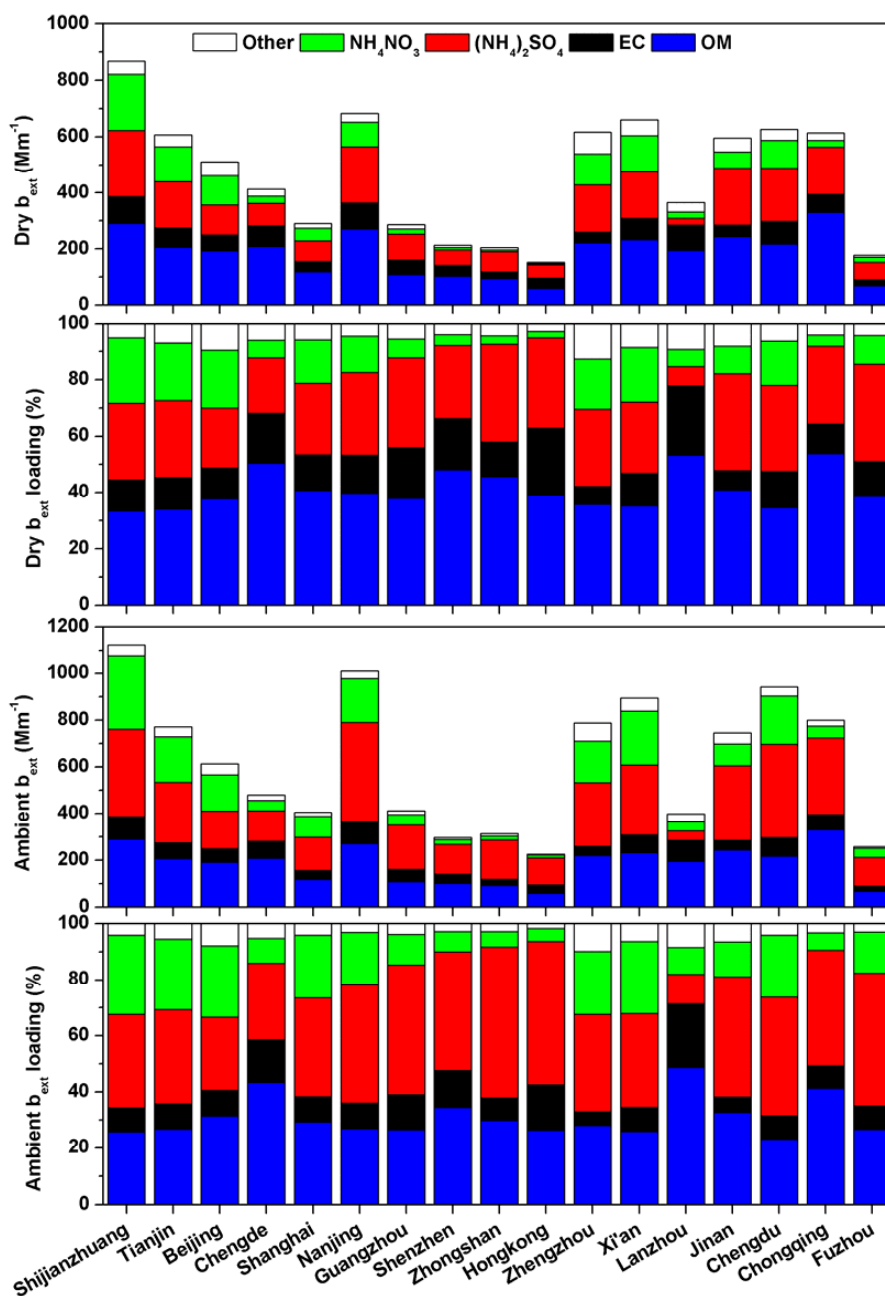
$$887 \quad [\text{Large X}] = [\text{Total X}], \text{ for } [\text{Total X}] \geq 20 \quad (3)$$

$$888 \quad [\text{Small X}] = [\text{Total X}] - [\text{Large X}] \quad (4)$$

889 Here, RH growth curves of  $f_S$  and  $f_L$  of  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  can be referred to  
890 (Pitchford et al., 2007).

891 Using the chemical composition data shown in Fig. 4 and annual average RH  
892 values in major cities in China as input (<http://data.cma.cn/>), the estimated annual  $b_{\text{ext}}$   
893 and its load percentages under dry and ambient conditions are plotted in Fig. 14. For  
894  $b_{\text{ext}}$  under dry condition, carbonaceous aerosols had similar percentage contributions  
895 to secondary inorganic aerosols in Shijiazhuang, Tianjin, Beijing, Zhengzhou, Xi'an,  
896 Jinan, Chengdu and Fuzhou, but higher by 11-65% in other cities. However, under  
897 ambient conditions the contributions of secondary inorganic aerosols were evidently  
898 higher (by 2-33%) than of carbonaceous aerosols in most cities except in Chengde,  
899 Lanzhou and Chongqing. Noticeably, the contributions of secondary inorganic  
900 aerosols for  $b_{\text{ext}}$  sharply increased by about 18-22% under ambient conditions than dry  
901 condition in humid (RH>70%) cities (e.g. Nanjing, cities in PRD, and Chengdu).

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Fig. 14. Annual  $b_{ext}$  percentage loading under dry and ambient conditions at urban sites in China.



## 906 **5. Implications for aerosol pollution controls**

907 There is no doubt that reduction of PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration will be the ultimate  
908 approach for improving visibility and alleviating hazy weather. Industrial emission  
909 induced secondary inorganic aerosols were the most dominant sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in  
910 urban areas in China (Liang et al., 2016). Aerosols produced from biomass burning  
911 and soil dust were also important sources in north China in all the seasons except  
912 summer. Secondary inorganic aerosols were formed from SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>, which were  
913 mainly emitted from coal combustion, as coal has been the major energy source in  
914 China for decades.

915 A series of regulations controlling coal combustion has been made since the first  
916 version NAAQS promulgated in 1982. The Air Pollution Prevention law of PRC was  
917 promulgated in 1987, which was the milestone in air pollution prevention history in  
918 China. It also marked the beginning of a new era for preventing air pollution based  
919 on the national law, followed by a series of regulations for controlling coal  
920 combustion. During 1990-2000, most of the control measures or technologies (e.g.,  
921 desulfurization and dedusting for coal combustion) were focused on reducing SO<sub>2</sub>  
922 emissions. The measure for gross control of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions was enforced since 1996.  
923 Despite these efforts, the amount of SO<sub>2</sub> emissions increased about 28% in 2005  
924 compared with that in 2000 (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>). The amount of SO<sub>2</sub> emission  
925 began to decrease in 2006 and gradually reduced to the emission level of 2000 in  
926 2010 (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>). Meanwhile, ambient annual SO<sub>2</sub> concentration in  
927 urban cities in China also decreased from 57 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2005 to 40 μg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2010



928 (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>). Apparently, the emission controlling efforts for reducing  
929 SO<sub>2</sub> emissions were effective after 2006.

930 The control measures for NO<sub>2</sub> only began with the control of vehicle emissions  
931 in 1995, but the inclusion of NO<sub>2</sub> in the gross control indexes did not happen until  
932 2010. New coal power plants were also required to denitrate after 2010. The  
933 emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> actually increased from 1996 to 2010, as is also seen in vertical  
934 column NO<sub>2</sub> derived from satellite data (Zhang et al., 2012b). Although annual  
935 average ambient NO<sub>2</sub> at surface level fluctuated from 30-40 μg m<sup>-3</sup> during  
936 2000-2010 in China (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>), annual average ambient NO<sub>2</sub> in  
937 megacities (e.g. Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou) slowly increased. Evidently, the  
938 control of emissions of nitrate gaseous precursors was not very effective during  
939 2000-2010.

940 Despite the above-mentioned control measures, sulfate remained at high levels  
941 and nitrate even gradually increased in megacities in China. More recently, the Clean  
942 Air Action Plan (CAAP) for improving the air quality was promulgated and  
943 implemented by the State Council of the People's Republic of China in 2013  
944 (<http://www.gov.cn/>). This plan aims to reduce PM<sub>2.5</sub> annual mass concentrations by  
945 25%, 20%, and 15% of the 2012 levels in BTH, YRD, and PRD, respectively. The  
946 key industries including power plant, iron and steel smelting industry, petroleum  
947 chemical industry, cement industry, nonferrous metals smelting industry, and  
948 chemical industry were required to execute stricter emission standards in the key  
949 regions including most megacities in China (<http://www.zhb.gov.cn/>). Accordingly,



950 annual average  $PM_{2.5}$  in China from online monitored data at 74 cities gradually  
951 decreased from  $72 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2013 to  $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2015, showing some promising  
952 results from the series of control measures.

953 One factor that needs to be considered in future pollution reduction is the  
954 non-linearity of chemistry (Cheng et al., 2016). For example, a modeling sensitivity  
955 study suggested potential increase in  $\text{NO}_3^-$  mass concentrations due to the increased  
956 atmospheric oxidizability, even under  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions decreasing conditions (Zhao et  
957 al., 2013a). Furthermore, increased atmospheric oxidizability may also enhance the  
958 conversion of VOCs to OM. In fact, the contribution of secondary organic aerosols  
959 to  $PM_{2.5}$  was also high and could increase further in typical megacities in China (He  
960 et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2014b; Sun et al., 2013). Another factor that requires more  
961 intension is the ammonia emissions from agricultural activities in rural areas and  
962 human activities in cities. Ammonia emission can enhance  $PM_{2.5}$  pollution  
963 substantially, especially in ammonia-limited (acid aerosols) areas (Wang et al., 2011),  
964 and this topic needs further investigation through both modeling simulation and field  
965 observations.

966 For cleaning the atmosphere across China, the following recommendations are  
967 provided based on the major chemical components contributing to  $PM_{2.5}$  and their  
968 impact of aerosol optical properties. Emissions produced from coal combustion, both  
969 in industrial sectors and in residential areas, need to be further reduced. While  
970 advanced technology should be adopted in the medium term in major industrial  
971 sectors consuming coal, cleaner energy sources should be considered for the



972 long-term goal (Cao et al., 2016). Providing cleaner energy to the vast rural and  
973 urban areas in north China for heating and cooking can not only reduce coal  
974 emissions but also biomass burning emissions. Improving fertilizer use efficiency in  
975 agriculture is needed in reducing nitrogen emissions especially ammonia gas (Behera  
976 et al., 2013). Educating public to reduce meat consumption in daily life, especially in  
977 the developed regions with high living standard, can reduce substantially nitrogen  
978 footprint and thus nitrogen emission (Galloway et al., 2014), besides gaining human  
979 body health benefits. Traffic emissions in megacities may also need to be constrained  
980 such as developing more efficient public transportation systems and limit personal  
981 automobiles. Planting more trees and other vegetation such as the continued  
982 expansion of the three northern region shelter forests in north China can reduce dust  
983 emissions and increase atmospheric removal of aerosols through dry deposition  
984 process (Zhang et al., 2017). Having more vegetation coverage is especially  
985 important for arid or semi-arid areas as well as for urban areas in reducing dust  
986 emissions (Baldauf, 2017), besides biological benefits.

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