



1 **Evaluating the Recent “2+26” Regional Strategy for Air Quality**
2 **Improvement During Two Orange Air Pollution Alerts in Beijing:**
3 **variations of PM_{2.5} concentrations, source apportionment, and the**
4 **relative contribution of local emission and regional transport**

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26 **Abstract**

27 To comprehensively evaluate the effects of the recent “2+26” regional strategy for air quality
28 improvement, we compared the variations in PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing during four pollution
29 episodes with different emission-reduction strategies. The “2+26” strategy implemented in March
30 2018 led to a mean PM_{2.5} concentrations of 16.43% lower than that during the pollution episode in
31 March 2013, when no specific emission-reduction measures were in place. The same “2+26”
32 strategy implemented in November 2017 led to a mean PM_{2.5} concentrations of 32.70% lower than
33 that during the pollution episode in November 2016, when local emission-reduction measures
34 were implemented. The results suggested that the effects of the “2+26” regional
35 emission-reduction measures on PM_{2.5} reductions were influenced by a diversity of factors and
36 could differ significantly during specific pollution episodes. Furthermore, we found the



37 proportions of sulfate ions decreased significantly and nitrate ions were the dominant PM_{2.5}
38 components during the two “2+26” orange alert periods. Meanwhile, the relative contributions of
39 coal combustion to PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing during the pollution episodes in March 2013,
40 November 2016, November 2017 and March 2018 was 40%, 34%, 28% and 11% respectively,
41 indicating that the recent “Coal to Gas” project and the contingent “2+26” strategy led to a
42 dramatic decrease in coal combustion in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region. On the other hand, the
43 relative contribution of vehicle exhaust during the “2+26” orange alert periods in November 2017
44 and March 2018 reached 40% and 54% respectively. The relative contribution of local emission to
45 PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing also varied significantly and ranged from 49.46% to 89.35%
46 during the four pollution episodes. These results suggested that the “2+26” regional
47 emission-reduction strategy should be implemented with red air pollution alerts during heavy
48 pollution episodes to intendedly reduce the dominant contribution of vehicle exhausts to PM_{2.5}
49 concentrations in Beijing, while specific emission-reduction measures should be implemented
50 accordingly for different cities within the “2+26” framework.

51 **Keywords:** Air pollution alert; Regional integration; Emission reduction;
52 WRF-CAMx; Beijing; “2+26”.

53 1 Introduction

54 In January 2013, a severe haze episode with the highest concentration of hourly fine particulate
55 matter with a diameter of less than 2.5 micrometers (PM_{2.5}) occurred in Beijing (886 μg/ m³),
56 which attracted worldwide attention. Since 2013, Beijing, located in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei
57 region, has been a heavily polluted area in China that suffers from continuous haze episodes
58 associated with high concentrations of PM_{2.5}, especially in winter. Given the significant negative
59 influence of PM_{2.5} on public health (Garrett and Casimiro, 2011; Guaita et al., 2011; Pasca et al.,
60 2014; Li et al., 2015), the air quality management authority in Beijing has put growing emphasis
61 on long-term environmental protection policies, including shutting down polluting factories and
62 limiting vehicle use through license plate rules. However, total emissions of airborne pollutants
63 remain at very high levels in Beijing, leading to frequent heavy pollution episodes (Guo et al.,
64 2012). To mitigate this problem, contingent emission-reduction measures, in addition to regular
65 environmental policies, are necessary in Beijing in order to improve local air quality during air
66 pollution episodes.

67 In 2013, the Beijing Municipal Government published the “Heavy Air Pollution Contingency
68 Plan” and revised this plan in 2015 to better manage air quality during pollution episodes.
69 According to the predicted concentrations of different airborne pollutants and the duration of
70 pollution episodes, there are four levels of air pollution alerts for Beijing, which are blue, yellow,
71 orange, and red alerts. Specific emission-reduction measures are implemented when each type of
72 air pollution alerts is in effect. The red alert is the most stringent level of air pollution alerts and
73 predicts severe air pollution episodes (Air Quality Index [AQI] >300) that will last for more than
74 three days. Emission-reduction measures during red alerts mainly include the implementation of
75 the odd-even license plate policy (only about half of all of the cars in Beijing is allowed to run



76 within the fifth-ring district in each day), the suspension of all outdoor construction work and
77 temporary shutdown of listed polluting factories. The orange alert predicts heavy air pollution
78 episodes (AQI >200) that will last for more than three days. Emission-reduction measures during
79 orange alerts mainly include forbidding vehicles that cannot meet the Environmental Standard
80 Levels I and II, the suspension of specific outdoor work (e.g., painting) and temporary shutdown
81 of listed polluting factories (the list for red alerts includes more factories than that for orange
82 alerts). The blue and yellow alerts predict heavy air pollution episodes that will last for more than
83 one and two days respectively. There are very few compulsory emission-reduction measures for
84 blue and yellow alerts and most emission-reduction measures are suggestive. The characteristics
85 and effects of these emission-reduction measures during alert periods have been massively studied
86 (Zhong, J. et al., 2017; Zhang, Z. et al., 2017; Wang, X. et al., 2017; Zeng, W. et al., 2018; Shang,
87 X. et al., 2018). However, previous emission-reduction measures during orange and red alerts
88 were solely conducted in a specific city (e.g., Beijing) while regional emission-reduction measures
89 implemented simultaneously in many adjacent cities have rarely been implemented and evaluated.

90 Although the peak PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing could be reduced by 20% through strict
91 emission-reduction measures (Cheng et al., 2017), local PM_{2.5} concentrations remained at very
92 high levels during red alert periods. This is mainly attributed to the regional transport of airborne
93 pollutants from neighboring cities to Beijing (Chen et al., 2016). Therefore, regional integration
94 has become one of the major solutions for further reducing PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing during
95 heavy pollution episodes. To promote this strategy, the Ministry of Environmental Protection of
96 the People's Republic of China released the "2017 Air Pollution Prevention and Management Plan
97 for the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region and its Surrounding Areas" (MEP, 2017). This plan suggests
98 that Beijing, Tianjin, eight cities in Hebei Province, four cities in Shanxi Province, seven cities in
99 Shandong Province and seven cities in Henan Province (2+26) constitute the regional network
100 involved in the long-distance transport of airborne pollutants surrounding Beijing. Therefore,
101 during heavy pollution episodes, unified emission-reduction measures should be carried out in
102 these cities simultaneously to reduce extremely high PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing.

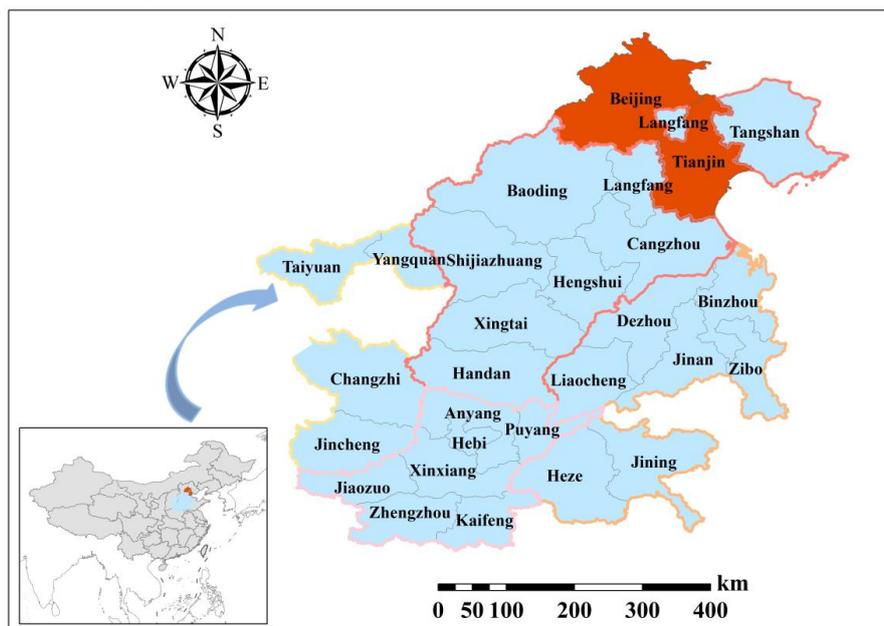
103 Since the launch of the "2+26" plan, Beijing experienced two pollution episodes in November
104 2017 and March 2018, when MEP released two orange alerts and implemented corresponding
105 emission-reduction measures in all 28 cities simultaneously. The two orange alerts were the first
106 two attempts of the "2+26" plan to reduce PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing. To better evaluate this
107 "2+26" regional strategy and for a comprehensive comparison, we also included in this study two
108 other pollution episodes in Beijing: November 2016 (with local emission-reduction measures) and
109 March 2013 (with no emission-reduction measure). We first analyzed the variations in PM_{2.5}
110 concentrations in Beijing during the four pollution episodes. Following this, we quantified the
111 component and sources of the PM_{2.5}. Based on source apportionment, we further quantified the
112 relative contributions of local emissions and regional transport to PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing
113 during these four pollution episodes. The methodology and findings of this research not only holds
114 practical significance for further improving the "2+26" regional strategy, but also shed some light
115 on the regional integration of air quality management in other parts of China.



116 2 Materials and methods

117 2.1 Study sites

118 Beijing is located at the northwestern edge of the North China Plain. It is surrounded by
119 mountains on three sides, resulting in a geographical condition unfavorable for the dispersion of
120 airborne pollutants. Therefore, air pollution episodes have been frequently witnessed in Beijing
121 since 2013, especially in winter. Based on large-scale field-experiments and model simulation,
122 MEP (2017) pointed out that 28 cities formed a regional transport network of airborne pollutants,
123 which influenced local PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing significantly. These 28 cities include two
124 municipalities directly under the central government, Beijing and Tianjin and another 26
125 neighboring cities surrounding Beijing, which are Shijiazhuang, Tangshan, Langfang, Baoding,
126 Cangzhou, Hengshui, Xingtai and Handan in Hebei Province, Taiyuan, Yangquan, Changzhi and
127 Jincheng in Shanxi Province, Jinan, Zibo, Jining, Dezhou, Liaocheng, Binzhou and Heze in
128 Shandong Province, Zhengzhou, Kaifeng, Anyang, Hebi, Xinxiang, Jiaozuo and Puyang in Henan
129 Province. The locations of these cities are shown in Fig 1. These 26 cities, especially those cities
130 located in the Hebei provinces, are mainly industrial cities that consume a large amount of coals
131 and produce massive amounts of airborne pollutants. To comprehensively understand the effects
132 of the “2+26” regional strategy for air quality improvement in Beijing, all these 28 cities were
133 selected as study sites for this research.



134
135
136

Fig 1. Geographical locations of the 28 cities within the “2+26” regional integration framework



137 2.2 Data Sources

138 2.2.1 Ground PM_{2.5} and meteorological observation data

139 The data of major airborne pollutants for this research were collected from the website PM25.in.
140 This website assembles official data of major airborne pollutants provided by the China National
141 Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC) and publishes hourly air quality information for 367
142 monitored cities in China, which include all of the 28 cities in the “2+26” framework. By using a
143 specific API (Application Programming Interface) provided by PM25.in, we collected hourly
144 pollutant data (e.g., PM_{2.5}, CO, NO₂, O₃) for these 28 cities. The hourly average concentration of
145 each pollutant for one city is calculated by averaging the hourly value measured at all available
146 observation stations within the city. For the following analysis, we employed time series air
147 quality data covering all four pollution periods: from 0 AM, November 24th to 12 PM, November
148 27th, 2016; from 0 AM, November 4th, 2017 to 12 PM, November 7th, 2017; from 0 AM, March
149 14th to 12 PM, March 17th, 2013; from 0 AM March 11th to 12 PM, March 14th, 2018.

150 In addition to large-scale meteorological data for the following simulation, we also employed
151 ground observation data to compare meteorological conditions during these four pollution
152 episodes. Meteorological data for this research were collected at the Guanxiangtai Station in
153 Beijing and were downloaded from the Department of Atmospheric Science of the University of
154 Wyoming (<http://weather.uwyo.edu/upperair/sounding.html>). Based on the comparison of the
155 meteorological data, we could ascertain whether large variations in meteorological conditions
156 existed between the four pollution episodes, as a potential influencing factor of the variations in
157 PM_{2.5} concentrations.

158 2.2.2 PM_{2.5} component Data

159 To comprehensively understand the component of PM_{2.5} during the four pollution episodes, we
160 collected PM_{2.5} sample data at the DongSi Station for further analysis. These PM_{2.5} sample data
161 were collected during the pollution episodes in March, 2013, November 2016, November 2017
162 and March 2018 respectively. We employed an URG-9000B Ambient Ion monitor (Thermo Fisher
163 Scientific), which includes two Dionex ICS-90 ion chromatography systems (DIONEX, US), to
164 detect water soluble ion Na⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, PO₄³⁻. The original temporal
165 resolution for ion detection was 15 minutes and for the comparison with other components, the
166 resolution for water-soluble ion detection was averaged to an hour. The organic carbon
167 concentration of PM_{2.5} was analyzed using the OC/EC organic carbon analyzer (sunset lab model
168 5l) and the temporal resolution for carbon detection was an hour. The in-depth analysis of PM_{2.5}
169 component provides significant reference for understanding the evolution and sources of PM_{2.5}
170 during the pollution episodes.

171 2.3 Method

172 2.3.1 Simulation Models

173 We employed the WRF-CAMx model for simulating the effects of emission reduction measures
174 on the reduction of major airborne pollutants. The WRF-CAMx includes three models: the



175 middle-scale meteorology model (WRF), the source emission model (SMOKE)
176 (<https://www.cmascenter.org/cmaq/>) and air quality model (CAMx) (<http://www.camx.com/>). The
177 WRF model provided the meteorological field for the analysis. The CAMx model has been widely
178 used for simulating the evolution of air pollution episodes (An et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2010) and
179 was employed for simulating the variations of airborne pollutants in this study (ENVIRON, 2013).
180 In this research, the central point for the CAMx was set at the coordinate (35 °N, 110 °E) and
181 bi-directional nested technology was employed, producing two layers of grids with a horizontal
182 resolution of 36 km and 12 km respectively. The first layer of the grids has a 36km resolution and
183 200*160 cells covering most areas in East Asia (including Japan, South Korea, China, North
184 Korea, and other countries). The second layer of the grids has a 12km resolution and 120*102
185 cells, based on the Lambert map projection and standard latitude lines 24 °N and 46 °N, covering the
186 North China Plain, which includes the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, Shandong and Henan
187 Provinces. The vertical layer was divided into 20 unequal layers, eight of which were of
188 less-than-1km distance to the ground for better featuring of the structure of atmospheric boundary.
189 Airborne pollutants in CAMx were simulated according to some physical and chemical
190 mechanisms, including: a) horizontal advection scheme (PPM), b) implicit Euler vertical
191 convection scheme, c) the horizontal diffusion of K theory, d) Sapr99 gas-phase chemical
192 mechanism, and e) EBI calculation method. The initial and boundary conditions for simulating
193 airborne pollutants were set using the default CAMx profiles. For better simulating the pollution
194 process with longer time series, the simulation period was set as the entire March 2013, November
195 2016, November 2017, and March 2018. For the first running of this model, a spin-up period of 5
196 days was set to simulate the initial field and the following initial field was decided by the output of
197 previous simulations. Hence, the accumulation effects of emission sources have been
198 comprehensively considered and the influence of uncertain initial conditions has been reduced
199 significantly.

200 We employed ARW-WRF3.2 to simulate the meteorological field. The setting of the center and the
201 bi-directional nest for the WRF was similar to that of the CAMx as mentioned above. There were
202 35 vertical layers for the WRF and the outer layer provided boundary conditions of the inner layer.
203 The meteorological background field and boundary information with a GFS resolution of 1 °x1 °
204 and temporal resolution of 6h were acquired from NCAR (National Center for Atmospheric
205 Research, <https://ncar.ucar.edu/>) and NCEP (National Centers for Environmental Prediction)
206 respectively. The terrain and underlying surface information was obtained from the USGS 30s
207 global DEM (<https://earthquake.usgs.gov/>). The output from the WRF model was interpolated to
208 the region and grid for the CAMx model using the Meteorology-Chemistry Interface Processor
209 (MCIP, <https://www.cmascenter.org/mcip/>). The meteorological factors used for this model include
210 temperature, air pressure, humidity, geopotential height, zonal wind, meridional wind,
211 precipitation, boundary layer heights and so forth. An estimation model for terrestrial ecosystem
212 MEGAN (<http://ab.inf.uni-tuebingen.de/software/megan/>) was employed to process the natural
213 emissions. Anthropogenic emission data were from the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for
214 China, MEIC 0.5 °x0.5 ° emission inventory (<http://www.meicmodel.org/>) and Beijing emission
215 inventory (<http://www.cee.cn/>). We input the processed natural and anthropogenic emission data
216 into the SMOKE model and acquired comprehensive emission source files.

217



218

Table 1 Sources of Emission inventory

Airborne Pollutants	Sources	Data description
PM _{2.5} , BC, OC	MEIC	Resolution: 0.5 °×0.5 °
SO ₂	Survey of Emission sources	Point sources, Polygon sources
NO _x	Survey of Emission sources	Point sources, Polygon sources
PM ₁₀	Survey of Emission sources	Point sources, Polygon sources
NH ₃	MEIC	Resolution: 1 °×1 °
Anthropogenic VOCs	MEIC	Resolution: 0.5 °×0.5 °
Natural VOCs	MEGAN	Corresponding Grid data

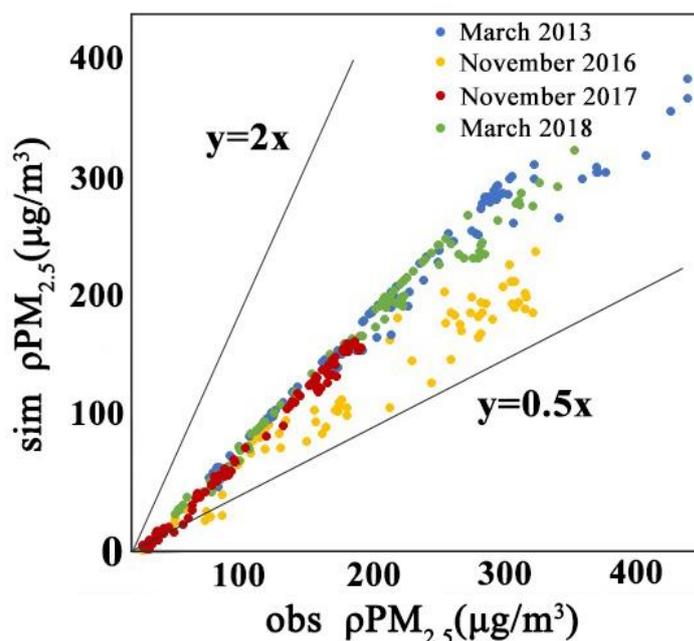
219 2.3.2 Source Apportionment

220 PSAT (Particulate Matter Source Apportionment Technology) is one major extension of the
 221 CAMx model. PSAT was developed from the related ozone source apportionment method and
 222 provided PM source apportionment for specific geographic regions and source categories (Huang,
 223 Q. et al.,2012). Furthermore, PSAT can be used to analyze the source-acceptor relationship of
 224 PM_{2.5} pollutants, and trace SO₂, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, SOA, Hg, EC, dust particles, and other
 225 primary and secondary particles. As a species tagging method, PSAT tracks the regional source
 226 and industry source of environmental receptor PM_{2.5} and its main chemical components, and then
 227 evaluates the contribution of initial conditions and boundary conditions to PM generation. By
 228 identifying and tracking the transport, diffusion, transformation and decomposition of pollutants
 229 emitted from various sources, PSAT estimates the relative contribution of different emission
 230 sources to the spatial distribution of PM concentrations based on the analysis of mass balance.
 231 PSAT-based source apportionment is conducted using reactive tracers that simulate the nonlinear
 232 transformation between primary PM and secondary PM and are highly efficient and flexible for
 233 source apportionment from the perspective of geographical source regions, emissions source
 234 categories and individual sources (Burr, M. et al.,2011). PSAT effectively avoids the concentration
 235 biases caused by Brute-force based source-closure methods that ignores non-linear chemical
 236 processes and has been widely in previous studies (Xing, J. et al.,2011; Huang, Q. et al.,2012; Wu,
 237 D. et al.,2013; Li, X. et al., 2015; Li, Y. et al., 2015). For this research, we established a regional
 238 transport matrix between pollution sources and environmental receptors. According to the
 239 provincial administrative division, the national grid is divided into 17 divisions, each of which
 240 represents a provincial unit, and all other cells outside the national boundary are classified as Class
 241 I, including the ocean and other areas. According to the scope of the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region
 242 and the “2+26” network, we further divide the study area into 13 sub-divisions, including Beijing,
 243 Tianjin, eight cities in Hebei Province, Henan Province, Shandong Province and Shanxi Province,
 244 for quantifying the influence of local emission and regional transport on the variations in PM_{2.5}
 245 concentrations in Beijing during the four pollution episodes.



246 2.4 Model verification

247 For the mean $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing, we compared the observed and model estimated
248 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations during the four pollution episodes to verify the accuracy of the WRF-CAMx
249 model (Fig 2). According to Fig 2, a general agreement was found between the simulated and
250 observed data with more than 85% of data points falling into the siege area of 1:2 and 2:1 lines.
251 WRF-CAMx slightly underestimated $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations due to the uncertainty in the emission
252 inventory, meteorological field simulation errors and insufficient chemical reaction mechanisms.
253 For the four pollution episodes, the correlation coefficient R, normalized mean bias (NMB),
254 normalized mean error (NME), mean fractional bias (MFB) and mean fractional error (MFE)
255 between observed and simulated data ranged from 0.65~0.80, -21%~-10%, 19%~32%, -31%~-8%,
256 and 12%~34% respectively, indicating a satisfactory simulation output (Boylan et al., 2006).



257

258 **Fig 2. The comparison of observed and model simulated $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing during**
259 **four pollution episodes.**

260 3 Results

261 3.1 Temporal variations in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations during the four pollution 262 episodes

263 Chen et al. (2017, 2018) suggested that wind speed and relative humidity were the major
264 meteorological factors that influenced wintertime $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing. Based on the



265 ground observation data, we found that the two meteorological factors during the pollution
 266 episode in November 2016 was fairly similar to that during the orange alert period in November
 267 2017, while the meteorological condition during the pollution episode in March 2013 was fairly
 268 similar to that during the orange alert period in March 2018 (as shown in Table 2). According to
 269 Table 2, all the four pollution episodes experienced a high-humidity and weak-wind condition.
 270 Specifically, the fairly high relative humidity for the “2+26” orange alert period in November
 271 2017 and the fairly low wind speed for the “2+26” orange alert period in March 2018 led to
 272 extremely unfavorable conditions for the dispersion of airborne pollutants.

273 **Table 2 Major meteorological conditions during the four pollution episodes.**

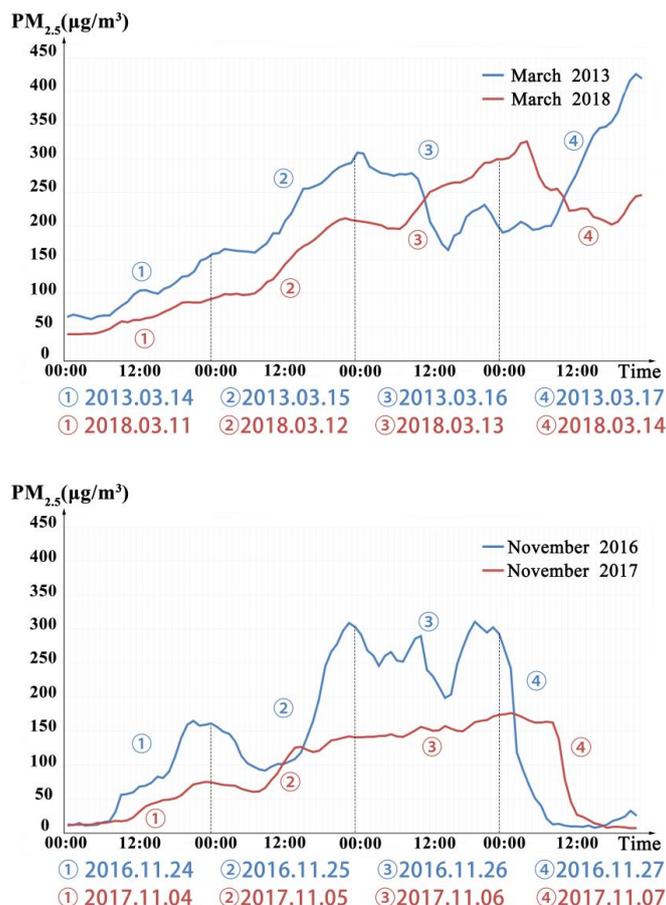
Pollution Episodes	Mean Relative Humidity(%)	Mean Wind Speed(m/s)
March, 2013 (No emission-reduction)	56.25	2.32
March, 2018 (“2+26” strategy)	57.25	1.72
November, 2016 (Local emission-reduction)	58.25	2.37
November, 2017 (“2+26” strategy)	72.25	2.09

274 When the meteorological influences on the variations of PM_{2.5} concentrations were limited, a
 275 comparison between the PM_{2.5} concentrations during these two orange alert periods and that
 276 during the two corresponding pollution episodes provides useful reference for evaluating the
 277 effects of “2+26” strategy on PM_{2.5} reductions during the pollution episodes, which are usually
 278 observed under a stagnant atmospheric condition, with high relative humidity and low wind speed.
 279 The temporal variations in PM_{2.5} concentrations during the two “2+26” orange alerts and the two
 280 corresponding pollution episodes are shown in Table 3 and Fig 3.

281 **Table 3 Characteristics of PM_{2.5} concentrations during four pollution episodes**

Pollution episode	Mean (µg/m ³)	Peak (µg/m ³)	Duration of PM _{2.5} >100 µg/m ³ (h)	Duration of PM _{2.5} >150 µg/m ³ (h)	Duration of PM _{2.5} >200 µg/m ³ (h)	Period with PM _{2.5} >300 µg/m ³ (h)
March, 2013 (No emission-reduction)	208.49	426.12	10	24	37	12
March, 2018 (“2+26” strategy)	174.24	325.91	6	10	44	5
November, 2016 (Local emission-reduction)	138.05	310.30	14	9	26	5
November, 2017 (“2+26” strategy)	92.91	176.20	24	24	0	0

282



283 **Fig 3. Variations of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during four pollution episodes with different**
 284 **emission-reduction measures in Beijing**

285 As shown in Table 3 and Figure 3, both the peak and average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the two
 286 orange alert periods were remarkably lower than those during the two corresponding pollution
 287 episodes with similar initial $PM_{2.5}$ levels and meteorological conditions. For the pollution episode
 288 in March 2013 and March 2018, $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were both around $50\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at the beginning
 289 of both periods. Similarly, for the pollution episode in November 2016 and November 2017, the
 290 initial $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were both around $15\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ at the beginning of both periods.
 291 Following the similar initial $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, it is noted that $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations increased
 292 at a much lower rate and further led to a lower peak and average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the
 293 two orange alert periods.

294 According to Table 3, the mean and peak $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the “2+26” orange alert
 295 period in March, 2018 was 16.43% and 23.52% lower than those during the pollution episode in
 296 March 2018 respectively. Meanwhile, the duration with extremely high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations was
 297 notably shorter during the orange alert period. The “2+26” strategy implemented during the



298 orange alert period in November 2017 led to even better effects on $PM_{2.5}$ reductions. The mean
299 and peak $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during this period was 32.70% and 43.22% lower than those during
300 the pollution episode in November 2016 respectively. More importantly, during the entire orange
301 alert period, $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations were constantly lower than $200 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, indicating a highly
302 efficient control of high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations.

303 **3.2 $PM_{2.5}$ component analysis during four pollution episodes**

304 The temporal variations of different $PM_{2.5}$ components during the four pollution episodes are
305 shown in Fig 4. As the figure indicates, the components of $PM_{2.5}$ in Beijing during the four
306 pollution episodes had notable variations.

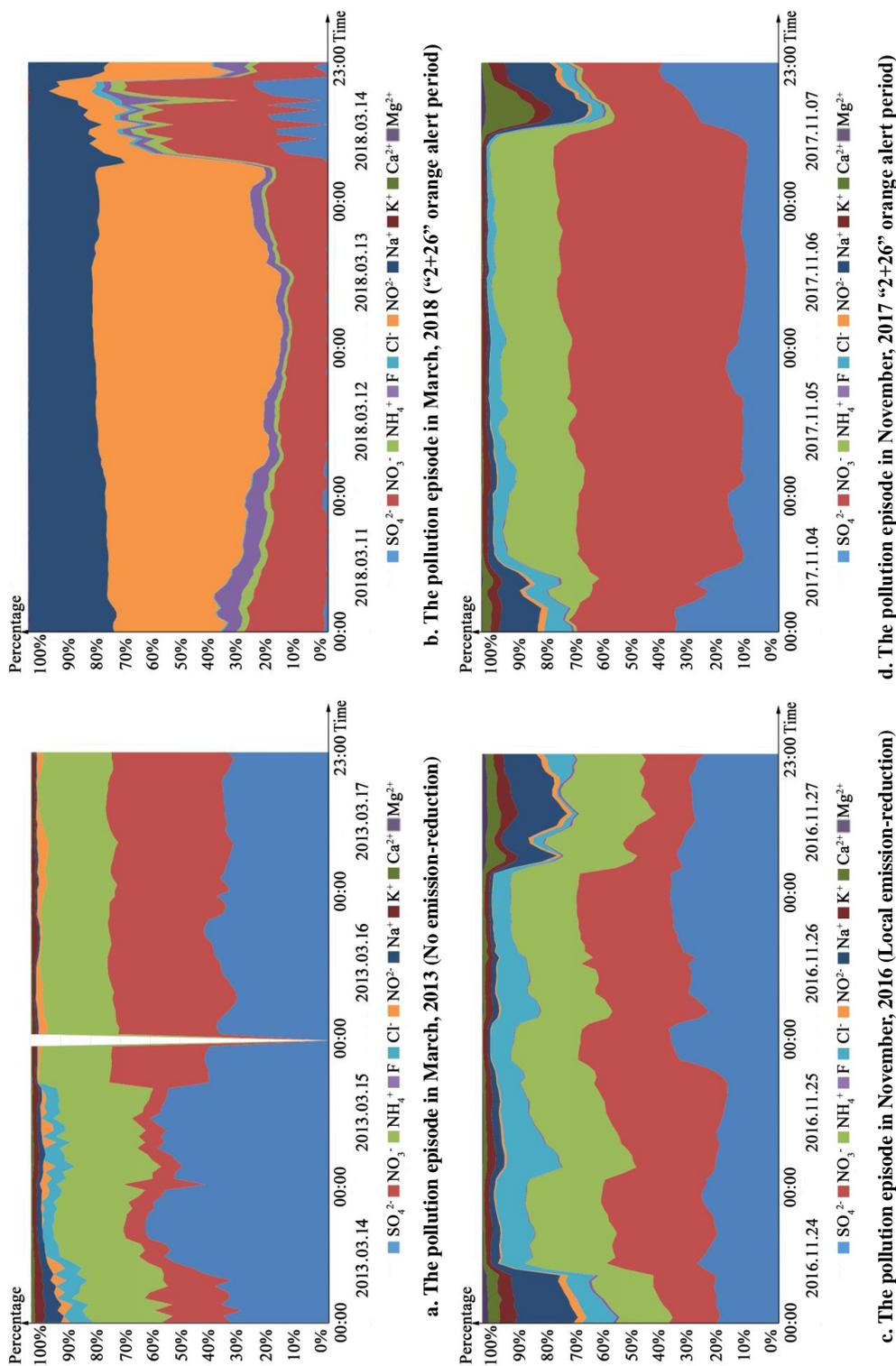


Fig. 4. The variation of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ components in Beijing during four pollution episodes

The blank area for the pollution episode in March, 2013 resulted from missing data caused by equipment error



307 For the four pollution episodes with different emission-reduction measures, the main components
 308 for $PM_{2.5}$ were all SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ . However, some major differences existed. With no or
 309 only local emission-reduction measures implemented, the dominant $PM_{2.5}$ components was SO_4^{2-}
 310 for the pollution episode in March 2013 and November 2016. During two “2+26” orange alert
 311 periods, NO_3^- became the dominant $PM_{2.5}$ components. Except for the pollution episode in March
 312 2018, the proportion of another major ion NH_4^+ was generally consistent during the four pollution
 313 episodes. The mean mass concentrations and proportions of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ during the four
 314 pollution episodes are shown in Table 4.

315 **Table 4. The mean mass concentration and percent of three major $PM_{2.5}$ components during**
 316 **four pollution episodes**

Pollution Episode	SO_4^{2-}		NO_3^-		NH_4^+	
	Concentration ($\mu g/m^3$)	Percent	Concentration ($\mu g/m^3$)	Percent	Concentration ($\mu g/m^3$)	Percentage
March, 2013						
(No emission-reduction)	45.11	39.92%	34.63	30.65%	27.14	24.02%
March, 2018						
(“2+26” strategy)	20.24	14.66%	50.17	36.34%	14.00	10.14%
November, 2016						
(Local emission-reduction)	14.96	30.10%	16.19	32.57%	11.66	23.45%
November, 2017						
(“2+26” strategy)	7.37	13.03%	33.42	59.06%	12.33	21.80%

317 Through comparison, we found a dramatic decrease of SO_4^{2-} and a notable increase of NO_3^-
 318 during two orange alert periods. The main source for SO_4^{2-} is the combustion of fossil fuels
 319 (Shimano, S. et al., 2006; Kuenen, J. et al., 2013), especially the intensive burning of sulfur coals
 320 for wintertime central-heating, manufacturing and household use. The main source for NO_3^- is
 321 vehicle exhaust (Rodríguez, S. et al., 2004; Watson, J. G. et al., 2007; Zeng, F. et al., 2010). NH_4^+ is
 322 the secondary pollutant of urban NH_3 , the main source of which is the decomposition of organic
 323 elements (Frank, D. S. et al., 1980; Watson, J. G. et al., 2007) and the combustion of fossil fuels
 324 (Frank, D. S. et al., 1980; Watson, J. G. et al., 2007; Pan et al., 2016). Through a novel approach,
 325 Pan et al (2016) quantified that more than 90% NH_3 in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region during
 326 heavy pollution episodes resulted from the combustion of fossil fuels. The large variations of
 327 $PM_{2.5}$ components during these episodes was mainly attributed to long-term environmental



328 policies and contingent emission-reduction measures. A large number of small polluting factories
329 in Beijing and its surrounding areas have been shut down, and the use of household coal,
330 especially coarse coal that produces large amounts of sulfate-related pollutants, has been restricted
331 significantly. In addition to long-term environmental protection policies, contingent
332 emission-reduction measures, including the temporal shut-down of many factories that consumes
333 a large amount of coal, were implemented during air pollution alert periods. Furthermore, the
334 recently launched “2+26” plan requires that areas surrounding Beijing, including many cities in
335 Hebei Province (e.g., Tangshan) well-known for their coal-based iron industries, should take
336 simultaneous emission-reduction actions during regional pollution episodes. These long-term and
337 contingent strategies led to a notable decrease of SO_4^{2-} through local emission-reduction measures
338 and a further decrease of SO_4^{2-} through “2+26” regional emission-reduction measures. Meanwhile,
339 the much lower proportion of NH_4^+ in March 2018 also indicated a sudden reduction in coal fuel
340 usage in Beijing and its neighboring areas in 2018, the major driver for which will be explained in
341 the following section. Conversely, during the four pollution episodes, no strict regulation was
342 placed on the control of vehicle exhaust. Hence, the notable decrease of SO_4^{2-} and generally
343 constant mass concentration of NO_3^- led to a rapidly rising proportion of NO_3^- among the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
344 components during the two orange alerts.

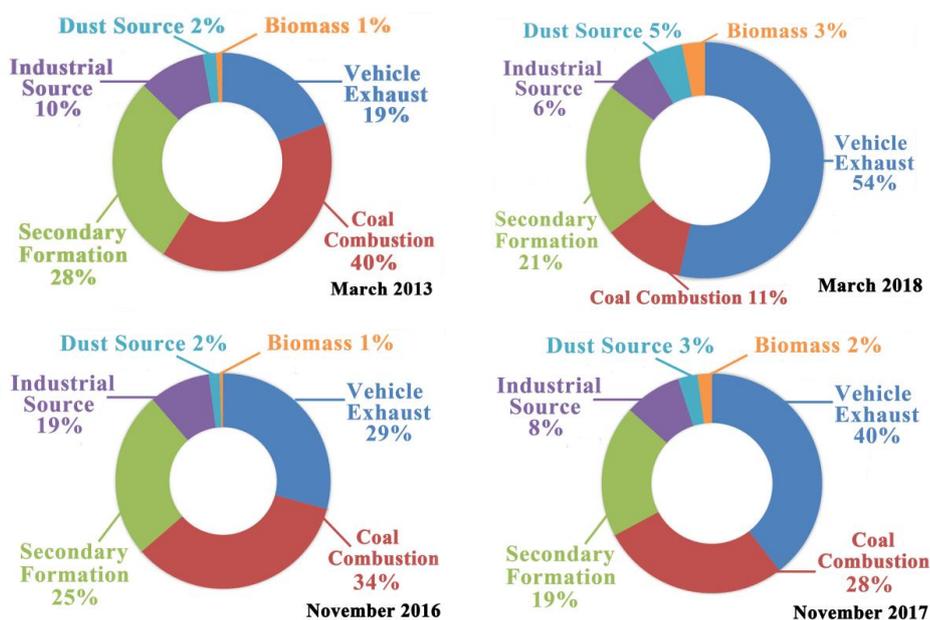
345 **3.3 Source apportionment during the four pollution episodes**

346 Based on $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ component analysis and PSAT-based source apportionment, we further quantified
347 the relative contributions of different sources to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing during the four
348 pollution episodes (Fig 5). A major difference between the pollution episode in March 2013 and in
349 March 2018 was the dramatic decrease in the relative contribution of coal combustion from 40%
350 to 11%. Meanwhile, the relative contribution of vehicle exhaust increased significantly from 19%
351 to 54%, indicating that vehicle exhaust became the dominant source for the pollution episode in
352 March 2018 with the “2+26” regional emission-reduction measures. On the other hand, the
353 difference in the relative contributions of different sources between the two pollution episodes in
354 November 2016 (with local emission-reduction measures) and November 2017 (with “2+26”
355 regional emission-reduction measures) were much smaller. The major differences lied in the
356 notable increase in the relative contribution of vehicle exhaust from 29% to 40% and the decrease
357 in the relative contribution of coal combustion from 34% to 28%.

358 As described above, the continuous decrease in the relative contribution of coal combustion from
359 the pollution episodes in 2013 to the episode in 2018 resulted from the combination of long-term



360 and contingent local and regional emission-reduction measures. Note that despite a similar “2+26”
361 strategy implemented, the relative contribution of coal combustion during the orange alert period
362 in November 2017 was much higher than that in March 2018. A major reason for this dramatic
363 change in a short period was the implementation of a large-scale environmental project. Before
364 November 2017, the starting point of central heating in Beijing, a regional project called “Coal to
365 Gas” had finished replacing coal-based central heating systems by gas-based systems for 1.9
366 million households in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region, leading to a 2 million-ton decrease in
367 coal consumption in the region. As a result, the relative contribution of coal combustion, which
368 was the dominant emission source for PM_{2.5} in Beijing during the central-heating season from
369 November to March, decreased to a fairly low level during the orange alert period in March 2018.



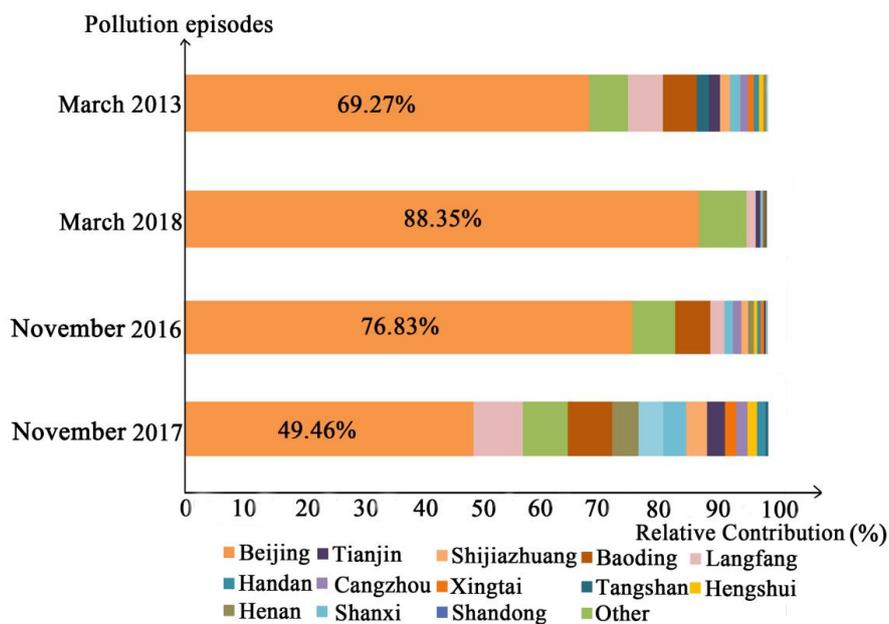
370 **Fig 5. The relative contribution of different sources to PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing**
371 **during four pollution episodes**

372 **3.4 The relative contribution of local emission and regional transport to PM_{2.5}** 373 **concentrations in Beijing during the four pollution episodes**

374 Through the simulation of the WRF-CAMx model based on local and regional emission
375 inventories, we quantified the relative contributions of local emission and regional transport of
376 airborne pollutants to the variations in PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing during four pollution
377 episodes (Fig 6). According to Fig 6, the relative contributions of local emission and regional



378 transport to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing varied notably. For the pollution episode in March
379 2013 with no emission-reduction measures, the relative contribution of local emissions was
380 69.27%, much lower than the 88.35% for the “2+26” orange alert period in March 2018. On the
381 other hand, for the pollution episode in November 2016 with local emission-reduction measures,
382 the relative contribution of local emissions was 76.83%, much higher than the 49.46% for the
383 “2+26” orange alert period in November 2017. Meanwhile, the relative contribution to $PM_{2.5}$
384 concentrations in Beijing from specific areas also differed significantly during these pollution
385 episodes. We found that different emission-reduction strategies did not lead to a clear pattern for
386 the relative contributions of local emission and regional transport. One major reason for this is that
387 the regional transport of airborne pollutants from neighboring areas to Beijing is influenced
388 significantly by meteorological conditions, the intensity of regional emission sources and the
389 regional distribution of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, which demonstrated remarkable seasonal variations
390 and synoptic-scale uncertainties. From this perspective, we attempted to explain the underlying
391 drivers for the variations in local and regional contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the
392 four pollution episodes.



393

394 **Fig 6. The relative contributions of local emission and regional transport to $PM_{2.5}$**
395 **concentrations in Beijing during the four pollution episodes**

396 For the pollution episode in March 2013, without long-term and contingent emission-reduction
397 measures, the large amount of combusted coal fuels in the neighboring areas of Beijing led to a



398 relatively large regional contribution. For the pollution episode in March 2018, with the
399 implementation of the large-scale “Coal to Gas” project and “2+26” strategy, the rapidly reduced
400 coal consumption in cities surrounding Beijing and the limited restriction on the emission of local
401 vehicles led to a fairly high local contribution. For the pollution episode in November 2016, an
402 inversed temperature layer was observed with high relative humidity, which was a favorable
403 environment for the production of secondary PM_{2.5} and a relatively large local contribution.
404 Despite the implementation of the “2+26” strategy, the abnormally high regional contribution for
405 the pollution episode in November 2017 could be attributed to the prevailing southerly winds that
406 brought in a large amount of air from neighboring cities (e.g., Shijiazhuang). Therefore, although
407 this pollution episode occurred in winter, it had more similarities to a summertime pollution
408 episode, which was characterized by prevailing southerly winds, thoroughly mixed pollutants
409 within the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region, and notable regional transport.

410 **4 Discussion**

411 Through the comparison of the components of PM_{2.5} during the pollution episode in 2013 and
412 those in 2016, 2017 and 2018, we found that the proportion of sulfate ions decreased significantly
413 while nitrite ions became the dominant component of PM_{2.5} during the pollution episodes. This
414 result is consistent with findings from some recent studies (Fromme H et al., 2008; Tan J et al.,
415 2016; Shang X et al., 2018). The dramatic decrease in the proportions of SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ ions in
416 PM_{2.5} during the pollution episode in March 2018 suggested a satisfactory effect of long-term
417 pollution control measures, especially the “Coal to Gas” project, and contingent “2+26” regional
418 emission-reduction measures on the reduction of coal combustion in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei
419 Region. As revealed by previous studies (Zhang R et al., 2013; Liu Y et al., 2018; Shang X et al.,
420 2018) and the source apportionment from this research, the use of coal fuels has been the
421 dominant source for the formation and mass concentration of PM_{2.5} in Beijing since 2013.
422 However, the remarkable decrease in coal combustion since the winter of 2017 has greatly
423 reduced the contribution of coal combustion to local PM_{2.5} concentrations, which directly
424 improved the wintertime air quality and led to the cleanest winter in Beijing since 2013. The mean
425 wintertime (the winter for Beijing here refers to the central-heating season from November 15th to
426 March 15th) PM_{2.5} concentration in Beijing for 2013, 2014, 2015, 2016 and 2017 was 88.19, 84.41,
427 89.39, 92.39 and 47.31 μg/ m³ respectively.

428 The implementation of the “2+26” strategy led to different effects on PM_{2.5} reductions during



429 specific pollution episodes. In addition to different emission-reduction strategies, the improvement
430 of air quality in Beijing is controlled by a diversity of factors. First, meteorological conditions
431 exert a strong influence on the accumulation and dispersion of local airborne pollutants in Beijing
432 and the long-distance transport of airborne pollutants from neighboring areas. Second, the
433 distribution of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in the “2+26” region determines whether the air brought into
434 Beijing from neighboring areas increases or decreases $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations there. Third, the $PM_{2.5}$
435 level during pollution episodes influences the relative contributions of local and regional
436 contributions. The mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the “2+26” orange alert period in March
437 2018 was $174.24 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. High-concentration $PM_{2.5}$ during pollution episodes led to a stagnant
438 condition with high humidity and low wind speed (Chen et al. 2017, 2018), which was an
439 unfavorable condition for the regional transport of airborne pollutants. Therefore, the relative
440 contribution of local emission to this extremely high $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations was 88.35% while the
441 relative contribution of regional transport was 11.65%. In this case, although unified
442 emission-reduction measures were implemented in its neighboring areas, the significantly
443 restricted regional transport did not fully project the effects of the “2+26” strategy to the local
444 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing. Conversely, the mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the “2+26”
445 orange alert period in November 2017 was $92.91 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, which was not high enough to
446 significantly prevent the regional transport of airborne pollutants. Therefore, the “2+26” strategy
447 led to a simultaneous reduction in $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in this region and a large amount of clean
448 air from its neighboring cities that significantly diluted the local $PM_{2.5}$ in Beijing. Consequently,
449 the relative contribution of regional transport was larger than 50% and thus the “2+26” strategy
450 achieved a much better effect on $PM_{2.5}$ reductions than that in March 2018.

451 Another dominant factor that influences the effects of the “2+26” strategy is the level of air
452 pollution alert and its corresponding emission-reduction measures. With the launch of orange air
453 pollution alerts, a series of restrictions are placed on the temporary shut down of polluting
454 factories and the emission of fossil fuels can be reduced significantly. However, during orange
455 alert periods, only the use of a small proportion of vehicles that cannot meet Environmental
456 Standards Level I and II are forbidden whilst no additional regulation is implemented on the use
457 of more than 5 million private cars in Beijing. As a result, the relative contribution of vehicle
458 exhaust increased rapidly during two of the “2+26” orange alert periods. Especially for the orange
459 alert period in March 2018, vehicle exhaust contributed to more than 50% of the high $PM_{2.5}$
460 concentrations that were higher than $174.24 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. With dramatically reduced use of coal fuels in



461 the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region due to the recent completion of the “Coal to Gas” project, the
462 control of vehicle exhaust is increasingly crucial for managing $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during
463 pollution episodes. In this light, red air pollution alerts, which have stricter regulations on the use
464 of vehicles, should be employed with the “2+26” regional emission-reduction strategy during
465 heavy pollution episodes. For instance, during the heavy pollution episode in March 2018, if a red
466 alert instead of the orange alert was issued, the implementation of odd–even license plate policy
467 would instantly cut the daily use of private cars in Beijing by fifty percent and significantly reduce
468 the contribution of vehicle exhaust to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. Given the growing contribution of
469 vehicle exhaust to $PM_{2.5}$ pollutions in Beijing, in addition to the contingent regulations during
470 pollution episodes, long-term policies, including the improvement of the public transit system, the
471 enhancement of petrol quality and promotion of electric cars, should be properly implemented for
472 further reducing vehicle-exhaust induced $PM_{2.5}$ pollutions.

473 Although the regional transport network for air pollution in Beijing has been identified, this
474 research suggested that only those cities adjacent to Beijing, such as Baoding, Shijiazhuang and
475 Lang fang, made a relatively large contribution to the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing whilst the
476 relative contributions of some other areas within the “2+26” framework were very limited.
477 Considering the substantial social and economic loss induced by the implementation of air
478 pollution alerts, city-specific, rather than region-wide unified emission-reduction strategies,
479 should be conducted for promoting air quality in Beijing during pollution episodes. Tight
480 measures can be implemented in cities that make large contributions while lenient measures can
481 be implemented in cities that make limited contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. To this end,
482 future studies should place more emphasis on quantifying the relative contributions from different
483 cities to local $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing and setting city-specific emission-reduction
484 measures for each city within the “2+26” region.

485 **5 Conclusions**

486 We compared the variations in $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing during four recent pollution
487 episodes with different emission-reduction strategies. Based on this comparison, we found that the
488 “2+26” regional emission-reduction strategy implemented in March 2018 led to a mean $PM_{2.5}$
489 concentrations of only 16.43% lower than that during the pollution episode in March 2013, when
490 no emission-reduction measure was in place. On the other hand, the same “2+26” strategy
491 implemented in November 2017 led to a mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations of 32.70% lower than that



492 during the pollution episode in November 2016 with local emission-reduction measures. The
493 result suggested that the effects of the “2+26” regional emission-reduction measures on $PM_{2.5}$
494 reductions were influenced by meteorological conditions, regional distribution of $PM_{2.5}$
495 concentrations and local $PM_{2.5}$ level, and could differ significantly during specific pollution
496 episodes. Based on our $PM_{2.5}$ component analysis, we found that the proportion of sulfate ions
497 decreased significantly and nitrate ions were the dominant $PM_{2.5}$ components during the two
498 “2+26” orange alert periods. The source apportionment revealed that the relative contribution of
499 coal combustion to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the pollution period in March 2013, November
500 2016, November 2017 and March 2018 was 40%, 34%, 28% and 11% respectively, indicating that
501 the recent completion of the large-scale “Coal to Gas” project and contingent “2+26” regional
502 emission-reduction measures led to a dramatic decrease in coal combustion in the
503 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei Region. Meanwhile, with no specific regulation on the use of private cars,
504 the relative contribution of vehicle exhaust during the “2+26” orange alert periods in November
505 2017 and March 2018, was 40% and 54% respectively. The relative contribution of local
506 emissions to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Beijing varied significantly and ranged from 49.46% to
507 89.35% during the four pollution episodes. With gradually reduced coal consumption in the
508 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region, this research suggested that the “2+26” regional emission-reduction
509 strategy should be implemented with red air pollution alerts to intendedly reduce the dominant
510 contribution of vehicle exhausts to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. Meanwhile, emission-reduction policies
511 should be designed and implemented accordingly for different cities within the “2+26” regional
512 framework. The methodology and findings from this research provided useful reference for
513 comprehensively understanding the effects of the “2+26” strategy, and for better implementation
514 of future long-term and contingent emission-reduction measures during heavy pollution episodes.

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524 **Author contribution**

525 Chen, Z., Xu, B and Yang, L. designed this research. Chen, Z wrote this manuscript. Chen, D.,

526 Zhuang, Y, Cheng, N, Gao, B. Li, R. and Zhao, B conducted data analysis. Chen, D and Zhuang, Y.

527 produced the figures. Kwan, M., Yang, L. and Chen, B helped revise this manuscript.



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