



#### Spatial-temporal patterns of inorganic nitrogen air concentrations 1

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# and deposition in eastern China

- Wen Xu<sup>1,2</sup>, Lei Liu<sup>3</sup>, Miaomiao Cheng<sup>4</sup>, Yuanhong Zhao<sup>5</sup>, Lin Zhang<sup>5</sup>, Yuepeng Pan<sup>6</sup>, 3
- Xiuming Zhang<sup>7</sup>, Baojing Gu<sup>7</sup>, Yi Li<sup>8</sup>, Xiuying Zhang<sup>3</sup>, Jianlin Shen<sup>9</sup>, Li Lu<sup>10</sup>, 4
- Xiaosheng Luo<sup>11</sup>, Yu Zhao<sup>12</sup>, Zhaozhong Feng<sup>2\*</sup>, Jeffrey L. Collett, Jr.<sup>13</sup>, Fusuo 5
- Zhang<sup>1</sup>, Xuejun Liu<sup>1\*</sup> 6
- 7 <sup>1</sup>College of Resources and Environmental Sciences, Key Laboratory of Plant-Soil Interactions of
- 8 MOE, Beijing Key Laboratory of Cropland Pollution Control and Remediation, China
- 9 Agricultural University, Beijing 100193, China
- 10 <sup>2</sup>State Key Laboratory of Urban and Regional Ecology, Research Center for Eco-Environmental
- 11 Sciences, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Shuangqing Road 18, Haidian District, Beijing, 100085, 12 China
- 13 <sup>3</sup>Jiangsu Provincial Key Laboratory of Geographic Information Science and Technology,
- 14 International Institute for Earth System Science, Nanjing University, Nanjing, 210023, China
- 15 <sup>4</sup>State Key Laboratory of Environmental Criteria and Risk Assessment, Chinese Research
- 16 Academy of Environmental Sciences, Beijing 100012, China
- 17 <sup>5</sup>Laboratory for Climate and Ocean-Atmosphere Sciences, Department of Atmospheric and
- 18 Oceanic Sciences, School of Physics, Peking University, Beijing 100871, China
- <sup>6</sup>State Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Boundary Layer Physics and Atmospheric Chemistry 19
- (LAPC), Institute of Atmospheric Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Beijing, 100029, China 20
- 21 <sup>7</sup>Department of Land Management, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou 310058, People's Republic of
- 22 China
- 23 <sup>8</sup>Arizona Department of Environmental Quality, Phoenix, AZ 85007, USA
- <sup>9</sup>Institute of Subtropical Agriculture, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Changsha 4410125, China 24
- <sup>10</sup>Institute of Surface-Earth System Science, Tianjin University, Tianjin, 300072, China 25
- <sup>11</sup>Institute of Plant Nutrition, Resources and Environmental Sciences, Henan Academy of 26
- 27 Agricultural Sciences, Henan Key Laboratory of Agricultural Eco-environment, Zhengzhou,
- 28 450002, China
- 29 <sup>12</sup>State Key Laboratory of Pollution Control & Resource Reuse, School of the Environment,
- 30 Nanjing University, 163 Xianlin Ave., Nanjing, Jiangsu 210023, China
- <sup>13</sup>Department of Atmospheric Science, Colorado State University, Fort Collins, Colorado, 80523 31 32 USA
- \*Correspondence to: X. J. Liu (liu310@cau.edu.cn) and Z.Z. Feng (fzz@rcees.ac.cn) 33
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# 39 Abstract:

40	Five-year (2011-2015) measurements of gaseous NH <sub>3</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> and HNO <sub>3</sub> and particulate
41	$\mathrm{NH}_4^+$ and $\mathrm{NO}_3^-$ in air and/or precipitation were conducted at twenty-seven sites in a
42	Nationwide Nitrogen Deposition Monitoring Network (NNDMN) to better understand
43	spatial and temporal (seasonal and annual) characteristics of reactive nitrogen $\left(N_{r}\right)$
44	concentrations and deposition in eastern China. Our observations reveal annual
45	average concentrations (16.4-32.6 $\mu g$ N m $^{-3}),$ dry deposition fluxes (15.8-31.7 kg N
46	$ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$ ) and wet/bulk deposition fluxes (18.4-28.0 kg N $ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$ ) based on land use
47	were ranked as urban > rural > background sites. Annual concentrations and dry
48	deposition fluxes of each $N_{\rm r} species$ in air were comparable at urban and background
49	sites in northern and southern regions, but were significantly higher at northern rural
50	sites. These results, together with good agreement between spatial distributions of
51	$NH_3$ and $NO_2\ concentrations\ determined\ from\ ground\ measurements\ and\ satellite$
52	observations, demonstrate that atmospheric $N_{\rm r}$ pollution is heavier in the northern
53	region than in the southern region. No significant inter-annual trends were found in
54	the annual $N_{\rm r}dry$ and wet/bulk N deposition at almost all of the selected sites. A lack
55	of significant changes in annual averages between the 2013-2015 and 2011-2012
56	periods for all land use types, suggests that any effects of current emission controls
57	are not yet apparent in $N_{\rm r}$ pollution and deposition in the region. Ambient
58	concentrations of total Nr exhibited a non-significant seasonal variation at all land use
59	types, although significant seasonal variations were found for individual Nr species
60	(e.g., NH <sub>3</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> and $p$ NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> ) in most cases. In contrast, dry deposition of total N <sub>r</sub>
61	exhibited a consistent and significant seasonal variation at all land use types, with the
62	highest fluxes in summer and the lowest in winter. Based on sensitivity tests by the
63	GEOS-Chem model, we found that NH3 emissions from fertilizer use (including
64	chemical and organic fertilizers) were the largest contributor (36%) to total inorganic
65	$N_{\rm r}$ deposition over eastern China. Our results not only improve the understanding of
66	spatial-temporal variations of $N_r$ concentrations and deposition in this pollution
67	hotspot, but also provide useful information for policy-makers that mitigation of NH3
68	emissions should be a priority to tackle serious N deposition in eastern China.





#### 69 **1. Introduction**

70 In China, and globally, human activities have dramatically increased emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>=NO+NO<sub>2</sub>) and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) into the atmosphere since the 71 72 beginning of the industrial revolution (Galloway et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2013).  $NO_x$ and NH<sub>3</sub> emitted to the atmosphere are transformed to nitrogen-containing particles 73 (e.g., particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and organic nitrogen) (Ianniello et al., 2010; Zhang 74 et al., 2015), which are major chemical constituents of airborne PM<sub>2.5</sub> (particulate 75 matter with a diameter of 2.5 µm or less) and have implications for air quality and 76 climate (Fuzzi et al., 2015). As a result of elevated  $N_r$  emissions, nitrogen (N) 77 deposition through dry and wet processes has also substantially increased over China 78 (Liu et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2007, 2014; Jia et al., 2014, 2016), and excessive 79 deposition of N has resulted in detrimental impacts including decreased biological 80 diversity (Bobbink et al., 2010), nutrient imbalance (Li et al., 2016), increased soil 81 82 acidification (Yang et al., 2015), eutrophication of water bodies (Fenn et al., 2003), 83 and increased greenhouse gas emissions (Gruber and Galloway, 2008). Furthermore, Nr-associated haze pollution episodes, characterized by high concentrations of PM2.5, 84 85 occur frequently in China, as evidenced in particular in 2013 (Guo et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2014; Tian et al., 2014). 86

87 In order to control its notorious air pollution, China has reduced national emissions of  $SO_2$  and particulate matter by 14% and 30%, respectively, from 2005 to 88 2010 (MEPC, 2011). Additionally, stringent measures (e.g., using selective 89 catalytic/non-catalytic reduction systems, and implementing tighter vehicle emission 90 91 standards) were implemented during the 12th Five Year Plan (FYP) period (2011-2015), with aims to reduce 2015 annual emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> by 8% and 92 10%, respectively, relative to 2010 levels (Xia et al., 2016). However, there is as yet 93 no regulation or legislation that deals with national NH<sub>3</sub> emissions and thus emission 94 reductions of  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  to achieve desired air-quality improvement goals will be 95 compromised (Gu et al., 2014). Significant increases in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations have 96 been observed in the years 2013 and 2014 as compared to 2012, excluding the 97 influence of meteorological conditions on inter-annual variations (Liang et al., 2015). 98





99 Other studies with more conclusive evidence have likewise suggested that NH<sub>3</sub> plays a vital role in sulfate formation and exacerbates severe haze pollution development in 100 urban regions of China (Wang et al., 2016), even acting as the key limiting factor for 101 102 the formation of secondary inorganic aerosol (Wu et al., 2016). In addition, due to higher local and regional concentrations of  $NH_3$  in the atmosphere, nitrate-driven haze 103 pollution occurred during summertime in urban environment in the North China Plain 104 (Li et al., 2018). The absolute and relative concentrations of particulate nitrate in 105 urban Beijing increased with haze development (Pan et al., 2016). Also, nitrate 106 contributed to a large fraction of the elevated PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations at a rural site in the 107 North China Plain and high NH<sub>3</sub> in the early morning accelerated the formation of 108 fine nitrates (Wen et al., 2015). 109

110 High rates of N deposition have also been observed during 2011-2014 across China (Xu et al., 2015). However, to date no study, based on long-term ground-based 111 112 observations, has provided any information on the effectiveness of  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$ 113 emission controls on N deposition in China. Non-linearities have been identified between reductions in emission and deposition in Europe over the last 3 decades 114 115 (Aguillaume et al., 2016; Fowler et al., 2007). Due to the tightly coupled yet complex relationship between emissions, concentrations and deposition, long-term monitoring 116 networks can provide a test of the effectiveness of emission controls (Erisman et al., 117 2003). Currently two national N deposition networks are operational in China, i.e. the 118 Nationwide Nitrogen Deposition Monitoring Network (NNDMN, Liu et al., 2011; Xu 119 et al., 2015) and the Chinese Ecosystem Research Network (CERS, Zhu et al., 2015). 120 121 The NNDMN containing 43 in situ monitoring sites has been operational since 2010 to measure wet N deposition and ambient concentrations of five major  $N_r$  species (i.e., 122 gaseous NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub>, and particulate  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$ ), the latter for 123 subsequence estimation of dry deposition. The CERS was established in 1988 and 124 mainly focused on wet N deposition at 41 field stations. In addition to ground-based 125 measurements, satellite observations enable retrieval of atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> 126 with high temporal and spatial resolutions (Dammer et al., 2016; Russell et al., 2012), 127 providing a means to reveal spatial distributions and long-term trends of ambient NH<sub>3</sub> 128





and NO<sub>2</sub> levels at regional to global scales, and also to evaluate the effectiveness of
emission controls (Krotkov et al., 2016). However, to effectively use the vast satellite
data sets for environmental monitoring, it is critical to validate these remote sensing
observations using *in situ* surface observations (Pinder et al., 2011; Van Damme et al.,
2015).

Eastern China is a developed region with the largest densities of population, 134 economic activity and resource consumption in the country (He et al., 2015). Recent 135 satellite observations indicate that tropospheric NH3 and NO2 levels in eastern China 136 were both much greater than other regions of the world from 2005-2015 (Demmer et 137 al., 2016; Krotkov et al., 2016). Accordingly, this region received the highest levels of 138 dry N deposition in the world (Vet et al., 2014), and was regarded as a primary export 139 140 region of N deposition for neighboring countries (Ge et al., 2014). Based on meta-analysis of published observations, some studies have provided information on 141 142 the magnitudes, spatial distributions, and decadal variations of wet/bulk N deposition 143 in China (Liu et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2014), but the analyzed data were limited to time periods between 1980 and 2010. Although a recent study (Jia et al., 2016) has 144 145 reported a clear increasing trend of dry N deposition in eastern China between 2005 and 2014, considerable uncertainty may exist due to estimates of gaseous  $HNO_3$  and 146 particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (*p*NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and *p*NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) concentrations using NO<sub>2</sub> satellite data, 147 which is in part manifested by Liu et al. (2017a). Furthermore, seasonal patterns of Nr 148 concentrations and deposition have not yet been systematically investigated at a large 149 spatial scale in this region, although spatial patterns of dry Nr deposition for 150 151 representative months of four seasons (i.e., January for winter, April for spring, July for summer, October for autumn) in 2010 have been mapped with the RAMS-CMAQ 152 model (Han et al., 2017). Thus, the spatial and temporal (annual and seasonal) 153 variations of Nr concentrations, and dry and wet deposition in eastern China require 154 further exploration using ground-based measurements, especially for time periods 155 after 2010. 156

The present study aims to examine spatial-temporal (annual and seasonal) characteristics of  $N_r$  concentrations in air (NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>,  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$ ) and





precipitation ( $NH_4^+$ -N and  $NO_3^-$ -N) and their corresponding dry and wet/bulk N deposition, through a 5-year (2011-2015) monitoring period at 27 NNDMN *in situ* sites in eastern China. In addition, we compare spatial-temporal variability of measured  $NH_3$  and  $NO_2$  concentrations with variations of the corresponding satellite retrieval columns, as well as inter-annual trends in  $N_r$  deposition and emissions. Finally, emission sources contributing to total N deposition over eastern China are examined.

#### 166 2. Materials and methods

#### 167 2.1 Study area and site descriptions

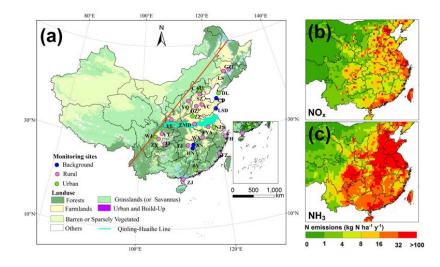
The present study was conducted in eastern China, which is distinguished by the 168 "Hu Line" (She, 1998). This region has spatial heterogeneity in levels of economic 169 development, resulting in significant spatial differences in NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions 170 (Fig. 1b and c). Thus, to better analyze spatial and temporal variabilities in measured 171 172  $N_r$  concentrations and deposition, we divided eastern China into northern and southern 173 regions using the Qinling Mountains-Huaihe River line (Fig. 1a), of which the division basin was based on the differences in natural conditions, agricultural 174 175 production, geographical features and living customs. As for specific differentiations, for example, the northern region adopted a centralized domestic heating policy for 176 late autumn and winter seasons but the south has not; annual average precipitation 177 amounts were generally greater than 800 mm in the south but were less than 800 mm 178 in the north. In addition, the north is characterized by calcareous soil, which could 179 result in higher soil NH<sub>3</sub> volatilization (Huang et al., 2015), vs. the acidic red soil in 180 181 the south.

The NNDMN was operated in line with international standards by China 182 Agricultural University (CAU); 35 NNDMN sites were located in eastern China (Xu 183 et al., 2015). For our analysis, we considered twenty-seven sites in total, with most 184 having continuous data covering 5 years: 13 sites were located north of the Qinling 185 Mountains-Huaihe River line (China Agricultural University-CAU, Zhengzhou-ZZ, 186 Shuangzhuang-SZ, Quzhou-QZ, Yangqu-YQ, Dalian-DL, Zhumadian-ZMD, 187 Yanglin-YL, Yucheng-YC, Gongzhulin-GZL, Lishu-LS, Lingshandao-LSD, 188





- 189 Changdao-CD), and 14 sites were located south of the line (Nanjing-NJ, Baiyun-BY,
- 190 Wenjiang-WJ, Wuxue-WX, Taojing-TJ, Fengyang-FY, Zhanjiang-ZJ, Fuzhou-FZ,
- 191 Fenghua-FH, Ziyang-ZY, Yangting-YT, Jiangjin-JJ, Huinong-HN, Xishan-XS).



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**Figure 1**. Spatial distributions of the 27 monitoring sites (a), NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (b) and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions (c) in Eastern China (NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emission data were for the year 2010 and obtained from Liu et al. (2017b)).

All the sites are located as far away as possible and practical from local direct 196 emission sources to increase regional representativeness. They can be divided into 197 198 three categories according to their geopolitical location and their proximity to the 199 main emission sources: urban sites (abbreviated as U), rural sites (cropland areas, R), and background sites (coastal and forest areas, B). Information on the monitoring sites, 200 such as land use types, coordinates, and measurement periods are listed in Table S1 of 201 the Supplement. Detailed descriptions of all the sites including the surrounding 202 environment and nearby emission sources can be found in Xu et al. (2015). 203

#### 204 **2.2 Field sampling and chemical analysis**

205 Continuous measurements were performed during the period from January 2011 206 to December 2015 at the 27 study sites, except for eleven sites (ZZ, ZMD, YC, LSD, 207 NJ, WX, FYA, ZJ, YT, JJ, and HN), where field sampling was carried out after the 208 year 2010 and/or interrupted during the period due to instrument failure (details in





209 Table S1, Supplement). Ambient  $N_r$  concentrations of gaseous  $NH_3$  and  $HNO_3$ , and  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$  (for which the empirically determined effective size cut-off for 210 aerosol sampling is of the order of 4.5 µm) were measured using an active DELTA 211 212 (DEnuder for Long-Term Atmospheric sampling; Tang et al., 2009) system; gaseous NO<sub>2</sub> was sampled in three replicates with passive diffusion tubes (Gradko 213 International Limited, UK). The air intakes of the DELTA system and the NO<sub>2</sub> tubes 214 were mounted 2 m above the ground at most sites and protected from precipitation 215 and direct sunlight with a rigid plastic box and a PVC shelter, respectively. All 216 217 measurements of  $N_r$  concentration were based on monthly sampling (one sample per month for each Nr species). Detailed information on measuring methods and 218 collection are given in Sect. S1 of the Supplement. 219

220 To collect precipitation (here termed as wet/bulk deposition, which contains wet and some dry deposition due to the use of an open sampler) samples, a standard 221 222 precipitation gauge (SDM6, Tianjin Weather Equipment Inc., China) was 223 continuously exposed beside the DELTA system (ca. 2 m). Immediately after each precipitation event (08:00-08:00 next day, Greenwich Mean Time +8), samples 224 225 (including rain and melted snow) were collected and stored in clean polyethylene bottles (50 mL) at -18 °C until sent to the CAU laboratory for analysis. Each collector 226 227 was rinsed three times with high-purity water after each collection and once every week to limit contamination from accumulated dust. 228

In the analytical laboratory, acid-coated denuders and aerosol filters were 229 extracted with 6 and 10 mL of high-purity water (18.2 MΩ), respectively, and 230 231 analyzed for  $NH_4^+$ -N with an AA3 continuous-flow analyzer (CFA) (BranC Luebbe GmbH, Norderstedt, Germany). Carbonate-coated denuders and filters were both 232 extracted with 10 mL 0.05% H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> solution followed by analysis of NO<sub>3</sub>-N using the 233 same CFA. NO<sub>2</sub> samples, extracted with a solution containing sulfanilamide, H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, 234 and N-1-naphthylethylene-diamine, were determined using a colorimetric method by 235 absorption at a wavelength of 542 nm (Xu et al., 2016). Precipitation samples were 236 filtered through a syringe filter (0.45 mm, Tengda Inc., Tianjin, China) and analyzed 237 for  $NH_4^+$ -N and  $NO_3^-$ -N using the CFA as mentioned above. Quality assurance and 238





quality control procedures adopted in the analytical laboratory are described by Xu et
al. (2017). Further details of precipitation measurement, samples handling, and
chemical analysis are reported in Xu et al. (2015).

#### 242 **2.3 Deposition estimate**

Wet/bulk deposition of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N were calculated per month and year 243 by multiplying the precipitation amount by their respective volume-weighted mean 244 (VWM) concentrations. The dry deposition flux of gaseous and particulate Nr species 245 was calculated as the product of measured concentrations by modeled deposition 246 velocities ( $V_d$ ). The dry deposition velocities of five N<sub>r</sub> species were calculated by the 247 GEOS (Goddard Earth Observing System)-Chem chemical transport model (CTM) 248 (Bey et al., 2001; http://geos-chem.org), and have been reported in a companion paper 249 250 (Xu et al., 2015). In brief, the model calculation of dry deposition of  $N_r$  species follows a standard big-leaf resistance-in-series model as described by Wesely (1989) 251 252 for gases and Zhang et al. (2001) for aerosol. We used archived hourly  $V_{\rm d}$  from 253 January 2011 to May 2013 and filled the gap for the period (from June 2013 to December 2015) when GEOS meteorological data are unavailable using the mean 254 255 values calculated from all the available simulations. The monthly  $V_d$  at each site was averaged from the hourly dataset. 256

# 257 2.4 Satellite retrievals of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>

258 Comparisons between satellite observations and ground-based measurements were evaluated at the twenty-seven sites in order to accurately examine the 259 spatial-temporal pattern of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. For NH<sub>3</sub>, we used the 260 261 products retrieved from the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI) instrument (aboard the MetOp-A platform), which crosses the equator at a mean local 262 solar time of 9:30 a.m. and 9:30 p.m. The IASI-NH<sub>3</sub> product is based on the 263 calculation of a spectral hyperspectral range index and subsequent conversion to NH<sub>3</sub> 264 total columns via a neural network. The details of the IASI-NH<sub>3</sub> retrieval method are 265 described in Whitburn et al. (2016). We only considered the observations from the 266 morning overpass as they are generally more sensitive to NH3 because of higher 267 thermal contrast at this time of day (Van Damme et al., 2015; Dammers et al., 2016). 268





269 The daily IASI-NH<sub>3</sub> data (provided by the Atmospheric Spectroscopy Group at Université Libre De Bruxelles, data available at http://iasi.aeris-data.fr/NH<sub>3</sub>/) from 1 270 January 2011 to 31 December 2015 was used in the present study. We did not use the 271 272 IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub> after 30 September 2014 for the temporal analysis because an update of the input meteorological data had caused a substantial increase in the retrieved 273 atmospheric NH<sub>3</sub> columns. Only observations with a cloud coverage lower than 25%, 274 and relative error lower than 100% or absolute error smaller than  $5 \times 10^{15}$  molecules 275  $cm^{-2}$  were processed. The methodology is provided in detail in Liu et al. (2017b). In 276 brief, all observations were gridded to a  $0.5^{\circ}$  latitude  $\times 0.5^{\circ}$  longitude grid, and then 277 we calculated the monthly arithmetic mean by averaging the daily values with 278 observations points within each grid cell. Similarly, we calculated the annual 279 arithmetic mean by averaging the daily values with observations points within the grid 280 281 cell over the whole year.

282 For NO<sub>2</sub> we used the products from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) 283 resided on NASA's EOS-Aura satellite, which was launched in July 2004 into a 284 sun-synchronous orbit with a local equator crossing time at approximately 1:45 p.m. 285 OMI detects the backscattered solar radiation from the Earth's atmosphere within the UV-vis spectral window between 270-500 nm, to achieve nearly global coverage daily, 286 287 with a spatial resolution ranging from 13 km × 24 km at nadir to 24 km × 128 km at the edge of the swath (Russell et al., 2012). We used tropospheric  $NO_2$  retrievals from 288 the DOMINO (Dutch Finnish Ozone Monitoring Instrument) algorithm version 2. The 289 290 retrieval algorithm is described in detail in Boersma et al. (2007). The tropospheric 291 NO<sub>2</sub> columns used in this study are monthly means from 1 January 2011 to 30 December 2015 with a spatial resolution of  $0.125^{\circ}$  latitude  $\times 0.125^{\circ}$  longitude (data 292 available at http://www.temis.nl/airpollution/no2.html). 293

#### 294 2.5 Statistical analysis

One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and two-independent-samples t tests were applied to detect significant differences in seasonal mean concentrations and deposition fluxes of measured N<sub>r</sub> species as well as their annual mean deposition fluxes for three land use types (rural, urban and background). As there was large





299 site-to-site variability in annual  $N_r$  concentrations and deposition fluxes at monitoring sites within the same land use types, averaging data into annual values for land use 300 types is unlikely to be truly representative of actual trends. Thus, annual trends of the 301 302 variables were evaluated at a single site scale rather than by land use type. Trend analysis was conducted using Theil regression (Theil, 1992) and the Mann-Kendall 303 test (Gilbert, 1987; Marchetto et al., 2013). We defined an increasing (decreasing) 304 trend as a positive (negative) slope of the Theil regression, while a statistical 305 significance level (p<0.01) of a trend was evaluated by the non-parametric 306 Mann-Kendall test (p value). Non-parametric methods usually have the advantage of 307 being insensitive to outliers, and allow missing data and non-normal distribution of 308 data (Gilbert, 1987; Salmi et al., 2002), appropriate for the analyzed data set. The 309 Mann-Kendall method is appropriate for detection of monotonic trends in data series 310 that have no seasonal variation or autocorrelation. Atmospheric concentrations and 311 312 deposition fluxes of  $N_r$  species, however, generally have distinct seasonal variability 313 (Pan et al., 2012) and the Mann-Kendall test is thus applied to annual values.

Satellite observations during 2005-2015 indicate that tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> levels 314 315 peaked in 2011 over China (Krotkov et al., 2016; Duncan et al., 2016) and  $NO_x$ emissions peaked in 2011/2012 (Miyazaki et al., 2017; van der A et al., 2017; Souri et 316 al., 2017). To assess the impact of emission control measures on measured Nr 317 concentrations and deposition fluxes at different land use types, we compared 318 arithmetic mean values averaged from the last 3-year period (2013-2015) with those 319 320 averaged from the first 2-year period (2011-2012) for monitoring sites with 321 continuous 5-year measurements (22 sites for dry, and 17 sites for wet/bulk). Seasonal concentrations and deposition fluxes of measured  $N_r$  species were calculated using the 322 arithmetic average of matched seasons during the sampling periods; spring refers to 323 March-May, summer covers June-August, autumn refers to September-November, 324 and winter covers December-February. 325

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# 329 **3. Results**

330	3.1 Spatial variability in concentrations of $N_{\rm r}$ species in air and precipitation
331	Summary statistics of monthly mean concentrations of NH <sub>3</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , HNO <sub>3</sub> , $pNH_4^+$ ,
332	and $pNO_3^-$ at the twenty-seven monitoring sites during 2011-2015 are listed in Table
333	S2 of the Supplement. Monthly mean concentrations of NH <sub>3</sub> , NO <sub>2</sub> , HNO <sub>3</sub> , $p$ NH <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup> , and
334	pNO3 <sup>-</sup> ranged from 0.16 (TJ)-39.57 (WJ), 0.55 (LS)-29.06 (WJ), 0.04 (YQ)-4.93
335	(CAU), 0.11 (ZY)-57.20 (QZ), and 0.01 (DL)-32.06 (ZZ) $\mu g$ N m $^{-3}$ , respectively. On
336	the basis of geographical location and classification of each site, the annual mean
337	concentrations of each $N_{\rm r}$ species were calculated for three land use types in eastern
338	China and its northern and southern regions (Table 1).

# 339 Table 1. Annual average (standard error) concentrations of various N<sub>r</sub> compounds in

340 air and precipitation at different land use types in eastern China and its northern and

Region <sup>a</sup> LUY <sup>b</sup>		Ambie μg N r	ent conc n <sup>-3</sup>	Rainwater conc. mg N L <sup>-1</sup>						
		NH <sub>3</sub>	$NO_2$	HNO <sub>3</sub>	$p\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	pNO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	Total N <sub>r</sub>	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	TIN
EC	Urban	8.5	10.2	1.6	8.2	4.0	32.6	1.6	1.9	3.5
	(n=6)	(1.4)	(1.0)	(0.2)	(1.8)	(0.8)	(4.1)	(0.3)	(0.2)	(0.5)
	Rural	7.2	6.0	1.2	6.7	2.8	23.9	1.7	1.4	3.1
	(n=17)	(0.9)	(0.5)	(0.1)	(1.1)	(0.3)	(2.7)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.4)
	BKD <sup>c</sup>	3.9	5.2	0.9	4.5	1.9	16.4	1.4	1.2	2.6
	(n=4)	(0.6)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.4)	(0.3)	(1.4)	(0.3)	(0.4)	(0.6)
NREC	Urban	8.1	11.7	1.6	8.6	5.1	35.1	2.2	2.4	4.6
	(n=3)	(2.4)	(1.6)	(0.3)	(2.3)	(1.4)	(7.7)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(0.4)
	Rural	9.9	7.4	1.4	9.2	3.7	31.6	2.4	2.0	4.4
	(n=8)	(1.2)**	$(0.7)^{*}$	$(0.1)^{*}$	$(1.9)^{*}$	$(0.5)^{*}$	(3.8)**	(0.3)**	(0.2)**	(0.4)**
	BKD	4.7	5.7	1.0	5.1	2.4	18.8	1.8	1.5	3.3
	(n=2)	(0.6)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.1)
SREC	Urban	8.9	8.7	1.6	7.9	2.9	30.1	1.1	1.5	2.6
	(n=3)	(1.8)	(0.6)	(0.1)	(3.1)	(0.2)	(4.5)	(0.3)	(0.3)	(0.6)
	Rural	4.9	4.6	1.0	4.5	1.9	17.0	1.1	0.9	2.0
	(n=9)	(0.6)	(0.6)	(0.1)	(0.6)	(0.2)	(1.7)	(0.2)	(0.1)	(0.3)
	BKD	3.1	4.7	0.8	4.0	1.4	14.0	1.0	0.6	1.6
	(n=2)	(0.7)	(0.4)	(0.1)	(0.2)	(0.2)	(0.6)	(0.0)	(0.0)	(0.0)

southern regions for the 5-year period 2011-2015.

<sup>a</sup>EC: eastern China; NREC: northern region of eastern China; SREC: southern region





of eastern China. <sup>b</sup>LSY: land use type; n denotes number of monitoring sites. <sup>c</sup> BKD:
Background. \*Significant at the 0.05 probability level. \*\*Significant at the 0.01
probability level.

In eastern China, annual mean concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, pNH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> at the urban sites (1.6 ± 0.2 to 10.2 ± 1.0 µg N m<sup>-3</sup>) were 18-44% and 78-120% higher than their corresponding concentrations at the rural (1.2 ± 1.0 to 7.2 ± 0.9 µg N m<sup>-3</sup>) and background (0.9 ± 0.1 to 5.2 ± 0.3 µg N m<sup>-3</sup>) sites, respectively. Analogous patterns also occurred for all measured N<sub>r</sub> in each region, except for NH<sub>3</sub> and pNH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in the northern region, for which the mean concentrations were 18% and 7% lower at the urban sites than at the rural sites, respectively.

Comparing northern vs. southern regions (Table 1), at urban sites the annual 353 mean concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and  $pNH_4^+$  showed smaller non-significant 354 differences (-1~9%), whereas NO<sub>2</sub> and  $pNO_3^{-1}$  showed larger non-significant increases 355 356 (34 and 76%, respectively) in the north. By contrast, the mean concentrations of all 357 measured N<sub>r</sub> species were significantly (p < 0.05) higher (by 40-104%) at rural sites in 358 northern region. Similarly, individual concentrations at background sites were 21-71% 359 higher in the northern than southern region. The annual concentrations of total  $N_r$  (i.e., the sum of five  $N_r$  species) decreased in the order urban > rural > background in 360 eastern China as a whole and in the north and south regions; further, the annual total 361  $N_r$  concentrations at urban and background sites were 17 and 34% higher (p>0.05) in 362 the north than in the south, respectively, whereas those at northern rural sites (31.6  $\pm$ 363 3.8  $\mu$ g N m<sup>-3</sup>) were significantly (p<0.05) higher than the mean at southern rural sites 364  $(17.0 \pm 1.7 \ \mu g \ N \ m^{-3}).$ 365

The monthly VWM concentrations of  $NH_4^+$ -N,  $NO_3^-$ -N, and TIN (the sum of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) were in the ranges 0.01 (BY)-26.77 (YC), 0.06 (XS)-28.92 (WJ), and 0.09 (XS)-50.29 (YC) mg N L<sup>-1</sup>, respectively (Table S3, Supplement). In eastern China and in each region, the annual VWM concentrations of  $NO_3^-$ -N and TIN showed a declining trend of urban > rural > background, whereas those of  $NH_4^+$ -N followed the order rural ≥ urban > background (Table 1). Comparing northern and southern regions, the annual concentrations of  $NH_4^+$ -N,  $NO_3^-$ -N, and TIN were





comparable at urban and background sites, and were significantly (p < 0.05) higher at

374 northern rural sites.

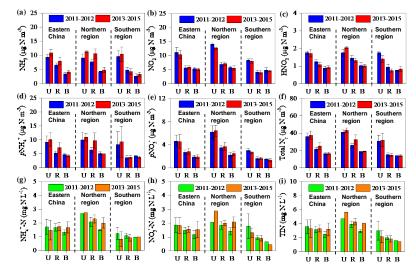
# 375 3.2 Annual variability in concentrations of N<sub>r</sub> species in air and precipitation

During the 2011-2015 period the annual mean concentrations of measured  $N_r$ species in air exhibited no significant trends at the twenty-two selected sites except for NH<sub>3</sub> at four sites (ZZ, DL, ZMD, YL), HNO<sub>3</sub> at three sites (DL, LSD, BY), *p*NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> at one site (XS), and total N<sub>r</sub> at three sites (ZMD, YL, WJ) (Fig. S1a-f, Supplement). Similarly, no significant trends were found for the annual VWM concentrations of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, and TIN in precipitation at the seventeen selected sites, with the exception of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N at one site (SZ) (Fig. S2a-c, Supplement).

Fig. 2 compares annual average concentrations of all measured Nr species 383 between the periods 2013-2015 and 2011-2012 for three land use types. In eastern 384 China the mean concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub> and *p*NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> showed non-significant increases 385 386 (10-38%) at all land use types except  $pNH_4^+$  at background sites, which showed a 387 small reduction (8%) (Fig. 2a, d). By contrast, the mean concentrations of remaining Nr species at three land use types showed smaller and non-significant changes: -8-3% 388 389 for NO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. 2b), -13-5% for HNO<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 2c), and -1-5% for pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Fig. 2e). The relative changes in the annual total  $N_r$  concentration were also not significant, with the 390 391 largest increase at rural sites (16%) and smaller increases at urban (4%) and 392 background (1%) sites (Fig. 2f). Separated by regions, annual mean concentrations of five  $N_r$  species at three land use types mostly showed increases (4-57%) in the north, 393 and reductions (0.3-21%) in the south (Fig. 2a-f). The relative changes in individual 394 395 concentrations at northern rural sites (9% reduction for HNO<sub>3</sub>, and 9-52% increases for the other species) and southern rural sites (4% increase for  $pNH_4^+$ , and 0.3-21% 396 reductions for other species) were not significant. The annual total Nr concentrations 397 showed small relative changes (from -1% to 5%) across all land use types in the two 398 regions, except at northern rural sites, which exhibited a larger but non-significant 399 400 increase (25%) (Fig. 2f). Due to significant interannual variability, longer records are needed to better assess the significance of any concentration changes. 401







402

403Figure 2. Comparison of annual mean concentrations of (a)  $NH_3$ ; (b)  $NO_2$ ; (c)  $HNO_3$ ;404(d)  $pNH_4^+$ ; (e)  $pNO_3^-$ ; and (f) total  $N_r$ : sum of all measured  $N_r$  in air and405volume-weighted concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  (g);  $NO_3^-$  (h) and total inorganic N (TIN):406sum of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  (i) in precipitation between the 2011-2012 period and the4072013-2015 period for different land use types in eastern China and its northern and408southern regions. The number of sites for each land use type in each region can be409found in Table S1 in the Supplement. The error bars are the standard errors of means.410

In eastern China, the annual VWM concentrations of  $NH_4^+$ -N,  $NO_3^-$ -N and TIN showed the largest increase of 26-31% at background sites, a smaller increase of 4-5% at rural sites, and a decrease of 2-14% at urban sites; however, those changes were not significant (Fig. 2g-i). Regionally, their respective concentrations showed increases (3-45%) in the north and reductions (5-33%) in the south, except for a small increase (4%) in  $NH_4^+$ -N at background sites.

# 417 3.3 Seasonal variability in concentrations of Nr species in air and precipitation

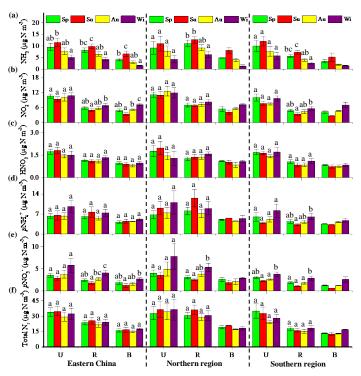
Fig. 3 shows seasonal patterns of  $NH_3$ ,  $NO_2$ ,  $HNO_3$ ,  $pNH_4^+$ ,  $pNO_3^-$  and total  $N_r$ concentrations for three land use types in eastern China and its northern and southern regions, averaged from corresponding measurements at the twenty-seven study sites (details for each site are given in Tables S4-S9 of the Supplement). Average  $NH_3$ 





422 concentrations at all land use types decreased in the order summer > spring > autumn >423 winter, and significant seasonal differences generally occurred between summer and 424 winter (Fig. 3a). Conversely, the average NO<sub>2</sub> concentration generally showed the 425 highest value in winter and the lowest in summer; differences between seasonal 426 concentrations were sometimes significant at rural sites in the south and background 427 sites, but not at urban sites (Fig. 3b). The seasonal changes in the HNO<sub>3</sub> concentration 428 were generally small and not significant for all land use types (Fig. 3c).

The average  $pNH_4^+$  concentration exhibited a non-significant seasonal variation 429 across all land use types, except for southern rural sites which showed significantly 430 higher values in winter than in summer (Fig. 3d). The highest pNH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations 431 432 mostly occurred in winter. The average  $pNO_3^-$  concentrations at all land use types followed the order winter > spring, ~ autumn > summer; the seasonal changes are 433 sometimes significant, except for urban sites in eastern China and its northern region 434 435 (Fig. 3e). The average concentration of total  $N_r$  usually showed small and 436 non-significant seasonal differences for all land use types (Fig. 3f).

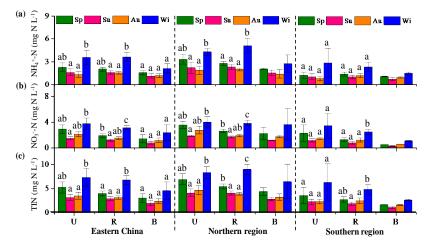






438	<b>Figure 3</b> . Seasonal mean concentrations of (a) $NH_3$ ; (b) $NO_2$ ; (c) $HNO_3$ ; (d) $pNH_4^+$ ;
439	(e) $pNO_3^-$ ; and (f) total N <sub>r</sub> : sum of all measured N <sub>r</sub> in air at different land use types in
440	eastern China and its northern and southern regions. Sp, Su, Au, and Wi represent
441	spring, summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. The number of sites for each land
442	use type in each region can be found in Table S1 in the Supplement. The error bars are
443	the standard errors of means, and different letters on the bars denote significant
444	differences between the sites ( $p < 0.05$ ).
445	
446	In eastern China and its two regions, the seasonal VWM concentrations of
447	$\mathrm{NH_4^+}$ -N, $\mathrm{NO_3^-}$ -N and TIN in precipitation at three land use types (averaged from the

447 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>-N, NO<sub>3</sub> -N and TIN in precipitation at three land use types (averaged from the 448 twenty-seven sites, details in Tables S10-S12 of the Supplement) showed a similar 449 seasonal pattern, with the highest values in winter and the lowest in summer or 450 autumn (Fig. 4a-c). Significant seasonal differences usually occurred between winter 451 and the other three seasons at all land use types, except background sites and southern 452 urban sites.



453

**Figure 4**. Seasonal mean concentrations of  $NH_4^+$  (**a**);  $NO_3^-$  (**b**) and total inorganic N (TIN): sum of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  (**c**) in precipitation at different land use types in eastern China and its northern and southern regions. Sp, Su, Au, and Wi represent spring, summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. The number of sites for each land use type in each region can be found in Table S1 in the Supplement. The





459 error bars are the standard errors of means, and different letters on the bars denote

460 significant differences between the sites (p < 0.05).

# 461 3.4 Spatial variability in dry and wet/bulk N deposition of N<sub>r</sub> species

Dry deposition fluxes of NH<sub>3</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>,  $pNH_4^+$ , and  $pNO_3^-$  ranked in the 462 order urban > rural > background in eastern China and in both southern and northern 463 regions (except for *p*NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in the north) (Table 2). Comparing northern and southern 464 regions, at urban sites the mean dry  $pNH_4^+$  deposition was slightly higher (2%) in the 465 north, whereas larger enhancements (24-69%) in the mean fluxes were found in the 466 north for the remaining  $N_r$  species. By contrast, individual fluxes were significantly 467 higher (by 64-138%) at northern rural sites, except for HNO<sub>3</sub> which showed a large 468 non-significant increase (58%). At northern background sites, the mean dry deposition 469 fluxes of  $NH_3$  and  $NO_2$  were much higher (159%) and lower (68%), respectively; 470 however, only small differences in the means were found for HNO3 (6% lower in the 471 472 north),  $pNH_4^+$  (5% lower), and  $pNO_3^-$  (14% higher). The spatial pattern of total N dry deposition flux (the sum of the fluxes of the five Nr species) by land use types ranked 473 in the same order as individual Nr species in eastern China. Compared with the 474 475 southern region, mean total N fluxes in the north region were significantly higher (by 85%) at rural sites, but showed non-significant increases at urban and background 476 sites (33 and 38%, respectively). 477

The wet/bulk deposition fluxes of  $NH_4^+$ -N,  $NO_3^-$ -N, and TIN ranked in the order urban > rural > background in eastern China and in each region (except for  $NH_4^+$ -N in the south) (Table 2). In addition, their respective fluxes were generally comparable in northern and southern regions.

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489	Fable 2.	Annual	average	(standard	error)	dry	and	wet/bulk	deposition	fluxes	(kg	Ν
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490  $ha^{-1} yr^{-1}$ ) of various N<sub>r</sub> compounds at different land use types in eastern China and its

491 northern and southern regions for the 5-year period 2011-2015.

		Dry deposition							Wet/bulk deposition		
Region	<sup>a</sup> LUY <sup>b</sup>	NH <sub>3</sub>	NO <sub>2</sub>	HNO <sub>3</sub>	$pNH_4^+$	pNO <sub>3</sub>	Total N <sub>r</sub>	NH4 <sup>+</sup>	NO <sub>3</sub>	TIN	
EC	Urban	12.6	4.4	7.7	4.8	2.1	31.7	12.6	15.4	28.0	
	(n=6)	(1.4)	(1.2)	(1.6)	(1.4)	(0.5)	(4.6)	(1.9)	(0.7)	(2.2)	
	Rural	9.1	2.9	4.6	4.0	1.5	22.1	11.9	10.2	22.1	
	(n=17)	(0.9)	(0.3)	(0.6)	(0.7)	(0.2)	(2.3)	(1.0)	(0.5)	(1.4)	
	BKD <sup>c</sup>	7.9	1.8	3.5	1.9	0.8	15.8	10.7	7.7	18.4	
	(n=4)	(2.1)	(0.6)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(1.5)	(1.8)	(0.3)	(1.8)	
NREC	Urban	13.9	5.2	9.4	4.9	2.7	36.2	13.9	14.1	28.0	
	(n=3)	(1.9)	(2.5)	(3.0)	(1.9)	(1.0)	(8.2)	(3.5)	(1.0)	(4.4)	
	Rural	12.1**	3.6*	5.7	$5.7^{*}$	$2.1^{**}$	29.3**	12.3	10.3	22.6	
	(n=8)	(1.3)	(0.4)	(1.0)	(1.2)	(0.3)	(3.2)	(1.3)	(0.7)	(1.8)	
	BKD	11.4	0.9	3.4	1.9	0.8	18.4	7.8	7.6	15.4	
	(n=2)	(0.6)	(0.7)	(0.3)	(0.7)	(0.2)	(0.7)	(1.4)	(0.8)	(0.6)	
SREC	Urban	11.2	3.6	5.9	4.8	1.6	27.2	11.4	16.6	28.0	
	(n=3)	(2.0)	(0.3)	(0.6)	(2.6)	(0.2)	(4.0)	(2.0)	(0.4)	(2.1)	
	Rural	6.5	2.2	3.6	2.4	1.0	15.8	11.6	10.2	21.8	
	(n=9)	(0.5)	(0.4)	(0.6)	(0.4)	(0.2)	(1.4)	(1.5)	(0.9)	(2.2)	
	BKD	4.4	2.7	3.6	2.0	0.7	13.3	13.6	7.9	21.5	
	(n=2)	(1.0)	(0.2)	(0.3)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.7)	(0.1)	(0.1)	(0.1)	

<sup>a</sup> EC: eastern China; NREC: northern region of eastern China; SREC: southern region of eastern China. <sup>b</sup> LSY: land use type; n denotes number of monitoring sites. <sup>c</sup> BKD:
Background. \*Significant at the 0.05 probability level. \*\*Significant at the 0.01
probability level.

# 496 **3.5 Annual variability in dry and wet/bulk N deposition**

The annual trends of dry deposition fluxes of individual  $N_r$  species at the twenty-two selected sites are consistent with trends in their respective ambient concentrations, except for HNO<sub>3</sub> at three sites (SZ, LSD, and ZY) (Figs. S3a-e and S1a-e, Supplement). A consistent picture is also seen for the total dry N deposition fluxes at all but two sites (DL and WJ) (Figs. S3f and S1f, Supplement). Similarly, the annual trends of wet/bulk deposition fluxes of  $NH_4^+$ -N,  $NO_3^-$ -N and TIN at seventeen selected sites are similar to their respective concentrations in precipitation (Fig. S4a-c,





504 Supplement).

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In eastern China the annual average dry deposition fluxes of NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, 505  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$  showed non-significant increases (2-39%) or reductions (1-19%) 506 between the periods 2011-2012 and 2013-2015 at the three land use types (Fig. 5a-e), 507 similar in sign and magnitude to their respective concentrations described earlier. The 508 annual average total N dry deposition fluxes showed small and non-significant 509 increases across the study periods: 2% at urban sites, 9% at rural sites, and 7% at 510 background sites (Fig. 5f). The sign and magnitude of period-to-period changes in dry 511 deposition and ambient concentrations of all measured  $N_r$  species were generally 512 similar between the southern and northern regions. 513

Wet/bulk deposition fluxes of  $NH_4^+$ -N,  $NO_3^-$ -N, and TIN generally decreased (4-29%) between 2011-2012 and 2013-2015 periods at all land use types in eastern China; one exception was  $NO_3^-$ -N, which exhibited a small increase (3%) at urban sites (Fig. 5g-i). Similar tendencies were also observed in both northern and southern regions.

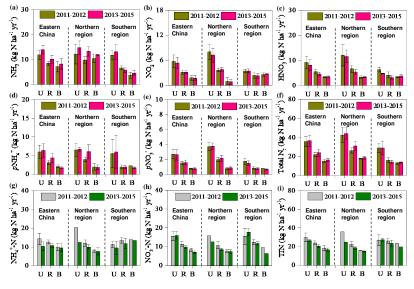


Figure 5. Comparison of dry deposition of (a)  $NH_3$ ; (b)  $NO_2$ ; (c)  $HNO_3$ ; (d)  $pNH_4^+$ ; (e)  $pNO_3^-$ ; and (f) total  $N_r$ : sum of all measured  $N_r$  in air and wet/bulk deposition of  $NH_4^+$  (g);  $NO_3^-$  (h) and total inorganic N (TIN): sum of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  (i) in

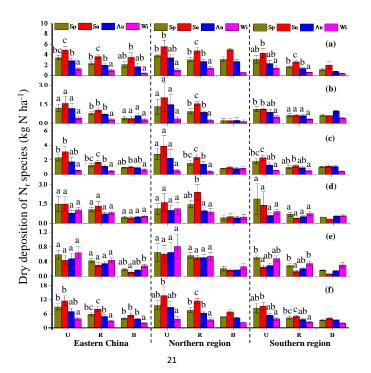




- precipitation between the 2011-2012 period and the 2013-2015 period for different
  land use types in eastern China and its northern and southern regions. The number of
  sites for each land use type in each region can be found in Table S1 in the Supplement.
  The error bars are the standard errors of means.
- 527

# 528 3.6 Seasonal variability in dry and wet/bulk deposition of Nr species

Seasonal variations of dry deposition of individual Nr species at each site are 529 shown in Tables S4-S9 in the Supplement. In eastern China and in each region, dry 530  $NH_3$  deposition fluxes at all land use types followed the order summer > spring > 531 autumn > winter, with the seasonal changes usually significantly different (Fig. 6a). 532 Similarly, dry the NO2 deposition flux was also at its minimum in winter, but its 533 maximum was found in summer at urban and rural sites and in autumn at background 534 site; seasonal differences in most cases were not significant (Fig. 6b). Seasonal 535 536 patterns of dry HNO<sub>3</sub> deposition flux at all land use types were similar to those for dry NH<sub>3</sub> deposition fluxes, and the resulting seasonal changes were sometimes significant, 537 except at northern urban sites (Fig. 6c). 538





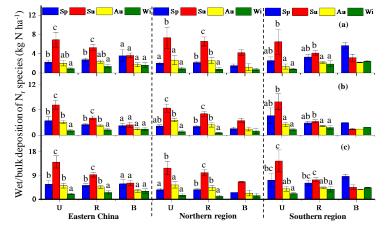


540	<b>Figure 6</b> . Seasonal mean dry deposition of (a) $NH_3$ ; (b) $NO_2$ ; (c) $HNO_3$ ; (d) $pNH_4^+$ ;
541	(e) $pNO_3^-$ ; and (f) total N <sub>r</sub> : sum of all measured N <sub>r</sub> in air at different land use types in
542	eastern China and its northern and southern regions. Sp, Su, Au, and Wi represent
543	spring, summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. The number of sites for each land
544	use type in each region can be found in Table S1 in the Supplement. The error bars are
545	the standard errors of means, and different letters on the bars denote significant
546	differences between the sites ( $p < 0.05$ ).
547	
548	Dry $pNH_4^+$ deposition fluxes peaked in spring or summer at urban and rural sites,
549	but remained at similar levels across the four seasons at background sites; however,
550	no significant seasonal variations were found at any land use types except for rural
551	sites in the north (Fig. 6d). Dry $pNO_3^-$ deposition fluxes were higher in spring and
552	winter than in summer and autumn at all land use types, and the seasonal changes
553	were sometimes significant at background sites and at southern urban and rural sites
554	(Fig. 6e). Total dry N deposition fluxes at all land use types showed similar seasonal
555	variations to dry $\mathrm{NH}_3$ deposition, with the highest values in summer and the lowest in
556	winter; significant seasonal differences generally were observed between winter and
557	the other three seasons (Fig. 6f).
558	Wet/bulk deposition fluxes of NH4 <sup>+</sup> -N, NO3 <sup>-</sup> -N, and TIN all showed significant

seasonal variation at urban and rural sites, but not at background sites, with thehighest values in summer and the lowest in winter (Fig. 7a-c).









**Figure 7**. Seasonal mean wet/bulk deposition of  $NH_4^+$  (**a**);  $NO_3^-$  (**b**) and total inorganic N (TIN): sum of  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  (**c**) in precipitation at different land use types in eastern China and its northern and southern regions. Sp, Su, Au, and Wi represent spring, summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. The number of sites for each land use type in each region can be found in Table S1 in the Supplement. The error bars are the standard errors of means, and different letters on the bars denote significant differences between the sites (p<0.05).

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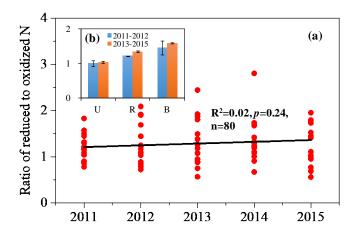
# 3.7 Spatial-temporal variability in total annual dry and wet/bulk deposition of Nr species

In eastern China total annual mean N deposition (dry plus wet/bulk) fluxes at 572 rural and background sites were comparable (on average,  $44.3 \pm 3.0$  and  $34.3 \pm 0.7$  kg 573 N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>, respectively), but significantly lower than those at urban sites (59.7  $\pm$  6.1 574 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) (Tables 1 and 2, and Fig. S5, Supplement). Similar tendencies for total 575 576 N deposition fluxes were observed in the southern region, while in the north a 577 significant difference was only found between urban and background sites (Fig. S5, 578 Supplement). From 2011 to 2015, no significant annual trend was found in the total N 579 deposition at sixteen selected sites (Fig. S6a, Supplement). The total annual mean N deposition fluxes at three land use types showed small and non-significant reductions 580 (1-5%) between 2011-12 and 2013-15 (Fig. S6b, Supplement). Regionally, the total 581





fluxes at each land use type were of similar magnitude in the two periods. Also, the NH<sub>x</sub> (wet/bulk NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N deposition plus dry deposition of NH<sub>3</sub> and particulate NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>)/NO<sub>y</sub> (wet/bulk NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N deposition plus dry deposition of NO<sub>2</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub> and particulate NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) ratio showed a non-significant annual trend across all sites (**Fig. 8a**). At all land use types, the averaged ratios were slightly higher in the 2013-2015 period than in the 2011-2012 period (Fig. 8b).



588

**Figure 8**. Annual trend of the ratio of  $NH_x$  (wet/bulk  $NH_4^+$ -N deposition plus dry deposition of  $NH_3$  and particulate  $NH_4^+$ ) to  $NO_y$  (wet/bulk  $NO_3^-$ -N deposition plus dry deposition of  $NO_2$ ,  $HNO_3$  and particulate  $NO_3^-$ ) across sixteen selected sites (**a**), with a comparison between the 2011-2012 period and the 2013-2015 period for different land use types in eastern China (**b**). The number of sites with the same land use type can be found in Fig. S6 in the Supplement.

595

596 4. Discussion

#### 597 4.1 Comparisons of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> measurements with satellite data

Eastern China, as a highly industrialized and polluted region and has been proven to be a hot spot of  $N_r$  (NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>) emission and deposition globally (Vet et al., 2014; Kanakidou et al., 2016). The results presented above showed that, in eastern China, annual mean concentrations of measured  $N_r$  species in air and precipitation were generally higher in the north than in the south (Table 1). This is likely due to



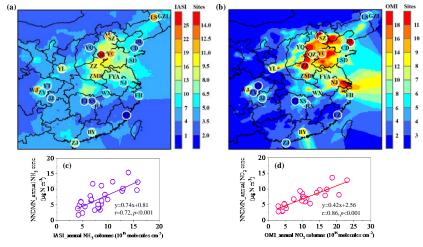


603 higher consumption of energy and application of N-fertilizers, along with lower precipitation amounts in the north, previously identified as key factors affecting 604 spatial patterns of N deposition in China (Jia et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2015). Because 605 only 27 sites covering a range of land use types were included in the present study, 606 additional information would be valuable in determining whether the observed spatial 607 patterns adequately represent conditions in eastern China. To address this issue, we 608 use measured NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations to evaluate remote sensing techniques for 609 retrieving  $NH_3$  and  $NO_2$  concentrations. If accurate, those remote sensing techniques 610 are well suited to ascertain regional species distributions.  $NH_3$  and  $NO_1$  are primary 611 emissions with important anthropogenic emissions (Fowler et al., 2013). NO, the 612 613 main component of emitted  $NO_x$ , is oxidized in the atmosphere to  $NO_2$ .  $NO_2$  is further oxidized via daytime or nighttime chemistry to HNO<sub>3</sub> (Khoder, 2002). NH<sub>3</sub> and 614 HNO<sub>3</sub> can react to form fine particle ammonium nitrate (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). 615 616 Thus, spatial patterns of  $NH_3$  and  $NO_2$  observed from space can be useful indicators 617 of reduced and oxidized Nr pollution over eastern China.

618 From satellite observations (Fig. 9a, b), it can be seen that both IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub> and 619 OMI\_NO<sub>2</sub> columns show clearly higher values over the northern region of eastern 620 China. Overall, satellite observations and surface measurements for NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> (plotted on the maps of Fig. 9a, b) show a similar spatial pattern. Significant positive 621 correlations were found between IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub> column observations and NNDMN\_NH<sub>3</sub> 622 measurements (r=0.72, p<0.001) (Fig. 9c) and between OMI\_NO2 observations and 623 NNDMN\_NO<sub>2</sub> measurements (r=0.86, p<0.001) (Fig. 9d) at the 27 surface 624 625 measurement locations, suggesting that satellite measurements of  $NH_3$  and  $NO_2$  can be used to capture regional differences in NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> pollution. Looking beyond 626 the surface measurement location, the satellite observations further confirm the 627 existence of greater Nr pollution in the northern region of eastern China than in the 628 629 southern region.







630

Figure 9. Spatial variation of atmospheric N<sub>r</sub> in eastern China: (a)
 NNDMN\_NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations vs. IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub> columns; (b) NNDMN\_NO<sub>2</sub>
 concentrations vs. OMI\_NO<sub>2</sub> columns; (c) relationship of NNDMN\_NH<sub>3</sub>
 concentrations vs. IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub> columns; (d) relationship of NNDMN\_NO<sub>2</sub>
 concentrations vs. OMI\_NO<sub>2</sub> columns.

636 To further explore temporal concentration variability, monthly mean satellite 637 NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> columns are compared with monthly mean ground concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> (Figs. S7 and S8, Supplement). The linear correlation between satellite 638 639 columns and surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations is significant (p < 0.05) at the ten sites 640 (r=0.32-0.87) in the northern region and at four sites (r=0.46-0.84) in the southern region (Fig. S7, Supplement), while the linear correlation between satellite columns 641 and surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations is significant at the ten sites (r=0.28-0.68) in the 642 643 northern region and nine sites (r=0.36-0.66) in the southern region (Fig. S8, 644 Supplement). These results indicate that the OMI\_NO<sub>2</sub> retrieval can well capture the temporal variations of surface NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over eastern China, whereas the 645 IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub> retrievals better capture temporal variability in surface concentrations for 646 the northern region. The weak correlations observed between IASI NH<sub>3</sub> observations 647 and surface measurements at ten of the fourteen sites in the southern region (Fig. S7, 648 Supplement) suggest that the IASI\_NH3 observations need to be improved for 649 investigating temporal variability in NH3 concentration, despite that the satellite 650





651 observation is at a specific time of day while the surface concentrations integrate across the diurnal cycle of emissions and mixing layer evolution. It should be noted 652 that a direct comparison between surface concentration and satellite column 653 654 measurements is inevitably affected by many factors, such as changes in boundary layer height, vertical profiles of species, and interferences from cloud and aerosol 655 (Van Damme et al., 2015). Nevertheless, the ratio of satellite column to surface 656 concentration measurements is meaningful as it can provide insight into sensitivity of 657 a satellite retrieval to variation in the concentration of a gas in the surface layer (Meng 658 et al., 2008). To make a more accurate comparison, the vertical profile is 659 recommended to convert the columns to the ground concentrations in future work. 660

#### 661 4.2 Seasonal variations of Nr concentration and deposition

662 The seasonal concentrations of  $N_r$  species in air and precipitation are dependent 663 on their sources and meteorological conditions. The highest concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub> in 664 summer at all land use types (Fig. 3a) are most likely due to enhanced NH<sub>3</sub> emission 665 from natural and fertilized soils, and biological sources such as humans, sewage systems and organic waste in garbage containers (Chang et al., 2016). Zhang et al. 666 667 (2018) showed that NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China show a strong summer peak, with emissions about 50% higher in summer than spring and autumn. The lowest 668 concentrations of NH<sub>3</sub> in winter (Fig. 3a) can be ascribed to the reduced NH<sub>3</sub> 669 volatilization at low air temperature, high snow coverage, and low agricultural 670 activities (Cao et al., 2009) as well as consumption of  $NH_3$  to form  $NH_4NO_3$  (Fig. 3a, 671 d and e) and/or (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>. The lower NO<sub>2</sub> concentration in summer (Fig. 3b) might 672 673 result from greater atmospheric mixing in a deeper boundary layer and a higher rate of oxidation of  $NO_2$  to  $HNO_3$  by reaction with OH (Atkins and Lee, 1995), which is 674 more abundant in summer due to greater photochemical activity. Increased  $NO_2$ 675 emissions from greater coal combustion for domestic heating (from middle November 676 to middle March) in Northern China may also enhance  $NO_x$  emissions and subsequent 677 NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in autumn/winter (Zhao et al., 2011). 678

Nitric acid is a secondary pollutant, formed through gas phase reaction of NO<sub>2</sub>
with the OH radical, reaction of NO<sub>3</sub> with aldehydes or hydrocarbons or hydrolysis of





681  $N_2O_5$  (Khoder, 2002). Nitric acid concentrations are expected to be further influenced by air temperature, relative humidity and ambient NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations (Allen et al., 682 1989); fine particle NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> formation is favored at low temperatures and high 683 684 relative humidities. Due to a lack of information regarding primary formation pathways and influencing factors at our study sites, we cannot offer a definitive 685 explanation for small and differing seasonal patterns of HNO3 concentrations 686 observed at the three land use types (Fig. 3c). Particulate  $NH_4^+$  and  $NO_3^-$  are also 687 mainly generated via chemical reactions between NH<sub>3</sub> and inorganic acids (e.g., 688 HNO<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>). We found that concentrations of  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$  at all land use 689 types usually peaked in winter (Fig. 3e, f). Low temperature and high emissions of 690  $NO_x$  and  $SO_2$  in winter are favorable for formation of ammonium sulfate ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) 691 692 and ammonium nitrate  $(NH_4NO_3)$  aerosols (Xu et al., 2016), consistent with higher concentrations of  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$ . In addition, in winter temperature inversions in 693 694 combination with stable meteorological conditions (e.g., low wind speed) limit 695 horizontal and vertical exchange of pollutants, and further elevated atmospheric 696  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$  levels (Liu et al., 2017).

697 Ammonium-N and nitrate-N in precipitation mainly originate from corresponding reduced (e.g.,  $NH_3$ ,  $pNH_4^+$ ) and oxidized (e.g.,  $HNO_3$ ,  $NO_2$ ,  $pNO_3^-$ ) N 698 699 in air, scavenged respectively, by rain and/or snow events (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). 700 At all land use types, the seasonal variation of  $NH_4^+$ -N concentration in precipitation was opposite to that of reduced N (the sum of NH<sub>3</sub> and  $pNH_4^+$ ) concentrations (Figs. 701 702 4a and S9a in the Supplement), whereas a similar seasonal pattern was found between 703  $NO_3$ -N and oxidized N (the sum of HNO<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and  $pNO_3$ ) concentrations (Figs. 4b and S9b in the Supplement). Higher precipitation amounts in summer could account 704 for lower NH4<sup>+</sup>-N concentrations in summer (Figs. 4a and S10 in the Supplement) due 705 to a dilution effect (Xu et al., 2015). In contrast, seasonal variations of rainwater 706  $NO_3$ -N concentrations were more likely dominated by seasonal changes in oxidized 707 N concentrations rather than precipitation amount. 708

The seasonal variation of  $NH_3$  dry deposition is generally similar to that of  $NH_3$ concentration (Figs. 3a and 6a). Given comparable seasonal mean  $V_d$  for  $NH_3$  across





711 the four seasons in most cases (Fig. S11a-c, Supplement), the seasonality of  $NH_3$ deposition is mainly dominated by changes in ambient NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. Seasonal 712 deposition fluxes of NO<sub>2</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub> both differ appreciably (Fig. 6b, c), showing 713 714 similar variation to seasonality of their respective  $V_{\rm d}$  values (Fig. S11d-i, Supplement). Given weaker seasonal fluctuations of NO<sub>2</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub> concentrations, the seasonality 715 of NO<sub>2</sub> and HNO<sub>3</sub> dry deposition are primarily functions of changes in  $V_d$ . Similar 716 analyses suggest that seasonal variation of  $pNO_3^-$  dry deposition was mainly caused 717 by differences in seasonal  $pNO_3^-$  concentrations (Figs. 3e and 6e), whereas that of 718  $pNH_4^+$  dry deposition was primarily driven by seasonal changes in  $V_d$  (Figs. 6c and 719 S11j-l, Supplement). 720

#### 721 **4.3** The role of NH<sub>3</sub> in mitigation of N<sub>r</sub> air pollution

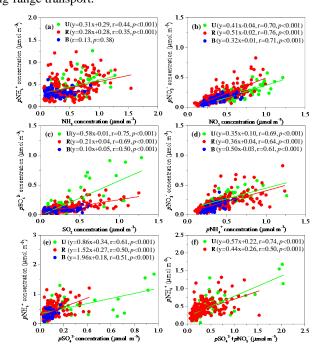
The latest pollutant emissions statistics from the Chinese Ministry of 722 723 Environmental Protection 724 (http://www.zhb.gov.cn/gkml/hbb/qt/201507/t20150722\_307020.htm) showed that total annual emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> were reduced by 12.9% and 8.6% in 2014, 725 respectively, compared with those in 2010. This suggests that the goal set for the 12<sup>th</sup> 726 727 FYP period was fulfilled ahead of time. Our field measurements demonstrate that annual mean concentrations of each  $N_r$  species and total  $N_r$  did not show significant 728 729 decreasing trends at most sites during the 2011-2015 period (Fig. S1a-f, Supplement). 730 Furthermore, annual mean total Nr concentrations showed non-significant increases (1-16%) at three land use types during the 2013-2015 period compared with 731 2011-2012 (Fig. 2f). These results together suggest that Nr pollution may be not 732 effectively mitigated in eastern China during the 12<sup>th</sup> FYP, likely due to the absence of 733 NH<sub>3</sub> regulations, despite enforcement of a "Zero Increase Action Plan" by the 734 Ministry of Agriculture for national fertilizer use (X. J. Liu et al., 2016). 735

Ammonia is the primary alkaline gas in the atmosphere. It plays an important role in formation of  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  and  $NH_4NO_3$  aerosols (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). These secondary inorganic aerosols account for 40–57 % of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in eastern China (Yang et al., 2011; Huang et al., 2014). Based on monthly mean molar concentrations, there were significant positive linear correlations between  $NH_3$ 





and  $pNH_4^+$ , NO<sub>2</sub> and  $pNO_3^-$ , SO<sub>2</sub> and  $pSO_4^{2-}$ ,  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$ , and  $pNH_4^+$  and 741 pSO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> at all land use land types except for a non-significant relationship of NH<sub>3</sub> with 742 pNH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> at background sites (Fig. 10a-e). These results suggest that the precursor gases 743 are responsible for the formation of secondary inorganic ions (i.e.,  $pNH_4^+$ ,  $pNO_3^-$ , and 744 pSO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>) locally at urban and rural sites, while secondary inorganic ions at background 745 sites likely originated from long-distance transport. The ratio of NH<sub>3</sub> to NH<sub>x</sub> (NH<sub>3</sub> 746 plus  $pNH_4^+$ ) concentrations at urban (0.53  $\pm$  0.15) and rural (0.52  $\pm$  0.16) sites 747 exceeded values at background  $(0.43 \pm 0.16)$  sites. According to Walker et al. (2004), 748 a value greater than 0.5 indicates that  $NH_{y}$  is more likely to be from local sources as 749 opposed to long-range transport. 750



751

**Figure 10.** Correlations of monthly mean molar concentrations of (a)  $pNH_4^+$  vs.  $NH_3$ ; (b)  $pNO_3^-$  vs.  $NO_2$ ; (c)  $pSO_4^{2-}$  vs.  $SO_2$ ; (d)  $pNO_3^-$  vs.  $pNH_4^+$ ; (e)  $pNH_4^+$  vs.  $pSO_4^{2-}$ ; (f)  $pNH_4^+$  vs.  $(pSO_4^{2-} + pNO_3^-)$  at three land use types in eastern China. The number of sites with the same land use type in each region can be found in Table S1 in the Supplement.

757 It is known that  $NH_3$  in the atmosphere is preferentially neutralized by  $H_2SO_4$  to





758 form (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and/or NH<sub>4</sub>HSO<sub>4</sub>, with any remainder available for potential reaction with HNO<sub>3</sub> to form NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>. At urban and rural sites, monthly mean  $pNH_4^+$ 759 concentrations significantly positively correlated with the sum of  $pSO_4^{2-}$  and  $pNO_3^{-}$ 760 concentrations (Fig. 10f). However, the slopes of regression equations between them 761 were both smaller than unity (0.57 and 0.44 at urban and rural sites, respectively), 762 indicating an incomplete neutralization of acidic species (HNO<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) by NH<sub>3</sub> 763 at urban and rural sites. In other words, NH<sub>3</sub> is a factor limiting the formation of 764 secondary inorganic ions. A model simulation by Wang et al. (2011) found that, 765 without NH<sub>3</sub> emission controls, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in PM<sub>2.5</sub> will be enhanced by 10% in 2030 766 compared with 2005 in China, despite improved NO<sub>x</sub> emissions controls. As reported 767 by Zhang et al. (2017), total NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China increased from 12.1 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 768 2000 to 15.6 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2015 at an annual rate of 1.9%. In contrast, total emissions 769 of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> have decreased or stabilized in recent years, and were estimated to be 770 8.4 Tg N yr<sup>-1</sup> and 12.5 Tg S yr<sup>-1</sup> in 2014, respectively (Xia et al., 2016). Based on 771 these factors, implementation of  $NH_3$  control strategies, relative to current  $NO_r$  and 772 SO2 emission controls, should be considered to mitigate atmospheric Nr pollution. 773

#### 4.4 The role of NH<sub>3</sub> emission in control of N deposition

The present results showed that total dry N deposition fluxes at three land use 775 776 types were higher in the northern region of eastern China than in the southern region 777 (Table 1), mainly due to higher NH<sub>3</sub> dry deposition resulting from higher NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the north. This is especially true for northern rural sites (Table 1), 778 mostly located in the North China Plain (NCP) (see details in Xu et al. (2015)). The 779 780 NCP (that is, Beijing and Tianjin cities and Hebei, Henan, and Shandong provinces), a highly populated region with intensive agricultural production, contributes 30-40% of 781 the total annual NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China (Huang et al., 2012). Thus, we anticipate that 782 reducing NH<sub>3</sub> emissions can effectively control N deposition. 783

To further examine contributions of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions to total (wet plus dry) N deposition at each site and over eastern China, we conducted model sensitivity tests using the nested GEOS-Chem atmospheric chemistry model driven by the GEOS-5 assimilated meteorological fields at a horizontal resolution of  $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$ . The model





788 used anthropogenic emissions from the Multi-Resolution Emission Inventory of China (MEIC, http://meicmodel.org) for the year 2010, except for NH<sub>3</sub> emissions that 789 are taken from the Regional Emission in Asia (REAS-v2) inventory (Kurokawa et al., 790 2013), with an improved seasonality derived by Zhao et al. (2015). In brief, 791 anthropogenic sources of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions include fertilizer use, livestock, human waste, 792 and fuel combustion (that in power plant, industry, transportation and residential), 793 whereas NO<sub>x</sub> emission sources include industry, power, transportation, and residential. 794 Both  $NH_3$  and  $NO_x$  have natural sources (including lighting, biomass burning and soil 795 emissions). It should be pointed out that fertilizer NH<sub>3</sub> emissions include both 796 chemical fertilizer and manure fertilizer. Details of the model emissions and 797 mechanisms have been described elsewhere (Zhao et al., 2017, Xu et al., 2018). 798

We evaluate the model simulations by comparing with measured bulk (both 799 NH4<sup>+</sup>-N and NO3<sup>-</sup>-N) fluxes. The model biases for bulk NH4<sup>+</sup>-N and NO3<sup>-</sup>-N 800 801 deposition were 23 and -23%, respectively (Fig. S8, Supplement). These biases are reasonable, given uncertainties in Nr emissions and predictions of meteorology. Given 802 that model evaluation is not central to this work, we presented the details in Sect. S1 803 804 in the Supplement. As shown in Fig. 11, fertilizer use is the dominant source of total N deposition at all sites, with contributions between 16-50%. Also, over eastern China 805 806 the largest contribution was from fertilizer use (36%) relative to livestock (10%), 807 industry (14%), power plant (11%), transportation (9%), and other sources (20%, the sum of contributions from human waste, residential activities, soil, lighting and 808 biomass burning). These results indicate that reducing NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from improper 809 810 fertilizer (including chemical and organic fertilizer) application should be a priority in curbing N deposition in eastern China. 811





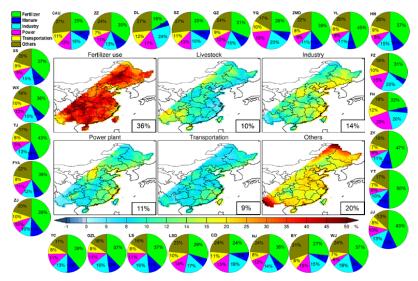




Figure 11. Fractional contributions to total N deposition from emission sectors (i.e.
fertilizer use, livestock, industry, power plant, transportation, and others including
emissions from human waste, residential activities, soil, lighting and biomass burning)
at the twenty-seven sites and over eastern China.

817

#### 818 **4.5 Deposition response to emission change**

Similar to  $N_r$  concentrations, there were no significant decreasing trends in dry and bulk deposition of total N or of individual  $N_r$  species at almost all study sites (Figs. S3 and S4, Supplement). In addition, we found that changes in annual mean deposition fluxes of various  $N_r$  species are fairly small between the 2013-2015 and 2011-2012 periods (Fig. 5). These results suggest that current emission controls did not effectively reduce N deposition in eastern China.

To further assess the relationship between emission and deposition change, we considered the emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> affecting the sixteen study sites with continuous and simultaneous dry and bulk deposition measurements (Fig. S6 and Table S1, Supplement). The regional NH<sub>3</sub> emission data for 2011-2015 were derived from Zhang et al. (2017), while SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emission data for 2011-2014 were derived from Xia et al. (2016) (emission data for the year 2015 were provided by Prof. Yu Zhao, and were unpublished). We compared these annual data with annual mean

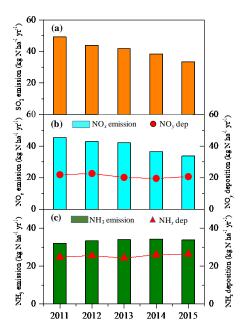




deposition values from the 16 sites. It should be noted that such assessment is subject
to some uncertainty, as emission data was estimated based on the areas belonging to
eastern China.

835 A clear decreasing trend in  $SO_2$  and  $NO_x$  emissions was observed, with reductions of 32% and 25% in 2015 compared to 2011, respectively (Fig. 12a, b). This 836 reduction is directly related to the widespread use of selective catalytic reduction and 837 flue gas de-sulfurization on power plants and industries (Van der A et al., 2017), and 838 to a lesser extent to the introduction of new emission standards for cars (F. Liu et al., 839 2016). In contrast,  $NH_3$  emissions generally showed a gradual increasing trend 840 between 2011 and 2015 (Fig. 12c), as control strategies have not yet been enacted and 841 implemented for NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in China. 842

843



844

Figure 12. Emission of  $SO_2$  (a),  $NO_x$  (b) and  $NH_3$  (c) obtained as average data from the areas belonging to eastern China, compared with deposition values in the same periods (mean values from the sixteen sites showing in Fig. S6 and Table S1 in the Supplement, 5-year averages).

Regarding N deposition, a non-significant increasing trend was found for  $NH_x$ 





(slope=0.36 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>) between the 2011 and 2015 period, whereas NO<sub>v</sub> 850 deposition exhibited a non-significant decreasing trend (slope=0.54 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> yr<sup>-1</sup>). 851 Also, there were non-significant linear correlations between NH<sub>x</sub> deposition and NH<sub>3</sub> 852 853 emission and between NO<sub>y</sub> deposition and NO<sub>x</sub> emission. This is not surprising given that atmospheric chemistry is complex and often behaves non-linearly (Fowler et al., 854 2007; Fagerli and Aas, 2008). Interactions between the different pollutants, 855 precipitation variability, changes in the relative amounts and lifetimes of the chemical 856 species and in gas-particle partitioning all may contribute to the lack of correlation 857 between emission and deposition trends. Non-linearities between emission and 858 deposition change have been described also elsewhere (Aguillaume et al., 2016; 859 Karlsson et al., 2011). Deposition in eastern China is also influenced by emissions 860 from outside the region, further degrading any expected correlation with local 861 862 emissions.

#### 863 4.6 Uncertainties and limitations

864 The present study examined annual trends of concentrations of  $N_r$  species in air and precipitation as well as dry and bulk N deposition based on Kendall tests and only 865 866 five annual data values (2011-2015). Although the test can use as few as 4 data points, indications of statistically significant trends for datasets are unlikely to be truly 867 representative of the trends that are actually occurring due to in the short duration of 868 the measurement dataset. Longer time series (e.g., more than 10-year) will likely 869 allow detection of more significant time trends in future work. Another uncertainty 870 871 may arise from the fact that we used fixed monthly mean dry deposition velocities of 872 gaseous and particulate Nr species for the same months from June 2013 to December 2015. Nevertheless, the uncertainty in the  $V_d$  value did not largely affect the 873 deposition trend, as the annual trend in dry deposition of Nr species is more likely 874 driven by changes in ambient Nr concentrations than to changing deposition velocities, 875 as evident from fairly low standard deviations of annual mean  $V_{\rm d}$  of N<sub>r</sub> species at our 876 selected 27 sites between 2008 and 2012 (~0.029 for NH<sub>3</sub>, ~0.005 for NO<sub>2</sub>, ~0.054 for 877 HNO<sub>3</sub>, and ~0.019 for both  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$ , data were extracted from Zhao et al. 878 (2017)).879





880 In addition, we did not account for inter-annual changes in meteorology, which also strongly influences atmospheric  $N_r$  levels and N deposition (Xu et al., 2015, 881 2017). For example, air concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$  trend to 882 883 increase under the relatively stagnant conditions prior to a cold front's arrival and decrease substantially after the cold front brings precipitation and strong winds into 884 the region (Xu et al., 2017). On the inter-annual time scale, the frequency of cold front 885 passages may be affected by large-scale circulation patterns such as the position of the 886 Siberian high for eastern China (Jia et al., 2015). Given that *in-situ* measurements of 887 meteorological variables are not available, and that GEOS-5 assimilated 888 meteorological fields were updated after May 2013, an evaluation of the effect of 889 meteorology on Nr concentration and deposition is recommended for future work. 890

891 Uncertainties also exist in the source attribution calculated with the GEOS-Chem simulations, since results largely depend on the emission inventories fed to the model. 892 893 Zhao et al. (2017) pointed out that uncertainties in current NH<sub>3</sub> emissions inventories 894 (e.g. large range of the emission value in current studies and absence of inclusion of 895 bi-directional NH<sub>3</sub> exchange between the land and atmosphere) may influence 896 nitrogen deposition simulation in China. Future work based on improved NH<sub>3</sub> emission inventories (e.g., Zhang et al., 2018) and including bidirectional ammonia 897 exchange with the surface is essential to better examine source attribution of N 898 deposition in China. 899

#### 900 5. Conclusion

901 We have characterized spatial and temporal (annual and seasonal) variations in 902 concentrations and deposition of major  $N_r$  species in air (NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, pNH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, and  $pNO_3$  and precipitation (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>-N and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>-N) for three land use types (e.g., 903 urban, rural and background) in eastern China by examining five-year (2011-2015) in 904 situ measurements at twenty-seven sites. We further examined regional features of Nr 905 pollution by comparison of satellite and surface measurements of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> and 906 examined the sources of total N deposition over the whole region for the year 2010 907 using the GEOS-Chem model at horizontal resolution of  $1/2^{\circ} \times 2/3^{\circ}$ . Our major 908 results and conclusions are as follows: 909





910 In eastern China, annual mean concentrations and dry and bulk deposition fluxes of measured N<sub>r</sub> species in air and precipitation generally ranked in the order urban >911 rural > background. The air concentrations and dry deposition were usually higher at 912 913 all land use types in the northern region of eastern China than in the southern region, especially (except HNO<sub>3</sub>) at rural sites, for which the differences reached statistically 914 significant levels. This is also true for the annual VWM concentrations of NH4<sup>+</sup>-N, 915 NO<sub>3</sub>-N, and TIN in precipitation, whereas bulk deposition fluxes of these species 916 were comparable for matched land use types between the northern and southern 917 regions. 918

No significant trends in the annual mean concentrations and dry and bulk 919 deposition fluxes of measured  $N_r$  species in air and precipitation were observed at 920 almost all sites during the 2011-2015 period. Also, annual averages of these values 921 showed non-significant changes between the 2011-2012 and 2013-2015 periods for all 922 923 land use types. Ambient total concentrations of measured  $N_r$  species showed a 924 non-significant seasonal variation at all land use types, whereas individual  $N_r$  species exhibited a significant seasonal variation in most cases, except for NO<sub>2</sub> and  $pNH_4^+$  at 925 926 urban sites, and HNO<sub>3</sub> at all land use types. Unlike air concentrations, dry deposition of total  $N_r$  showed a consistent and significant seasonal variation for each land use 927 type, with the highest values in summer and the lowest values in winter. The  $V_d$  was a 928 929 dominant factor influencing seasonal variations of NO<sub>2</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and  $pNH_4^+$ concentrations, while seasonal variations of NH<sub>3</sub> and  $pNO_3^{-1}$  are mainly influenced by 930 their respective air concentrations. The concentrations of NH4<sup>+</sup>-N, NO3<sup>-</sup>-N, and TIN in 931 932 precipitation showed significant seasonal variations, ranking in a consistent order of winter > spring > autumn ~ summer. Also, significant seasonal variations in bulk 933 deposition were also found, following in a consistent order of summer > spring ~ 934 935 autumn > winter.

Both IASI satellite-retrieved NH<sub>3</sub> columns and OMI satellite-retrieved NO<sub>2</sub> columns over eastern China showed higher values in the north than in the south. In addition, significant positive correlations were found between measured NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and retrieved NH<sub>3</sub> columns, and between measured NO<sub>2</sub>





940 concentrations and columns. These results together reveal that atmospheric  $N_r$ pollution is more serious in the northern region, and also suggest that satellite 941 retrievals of NH<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> columns can provide useful information on spatial 942 943 concentration variability of these two key  $N_r$  species at a regional or national scale. Weak correlations between IASI NH<sub>3</sub> observations and surface NH<sub>3</sub> measurements 944 were found at most selected sites, suggesting that IASI\_NH<sub>3</sub> observations in their 945 current state are not as readily used to accurately track temporal variability in surface 946 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. 947

Ammonia is currently not included in China's emission control policies of air 948 pollution precursors, although the necessity of mitigation has been the subject of 949 discussion during recent years. Across all urban and rural sites, the slopes of the 950 regression relation between  $pNH_4^+$  and the sum of  $pSO_4^{2-}$  and  $pNO_3^-$  were both 951 smaller than unity, indicating control of NH<sub>3</sub> emission not only can directly reduce 952 953 ambient NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations, but also lower the formation of  $pNH_4^+$  and  $pNO_3^-$ . Fertilizer use contributed 36% of the total N deposition over eastern China, 954 suggesting reducing NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from fertilizer application would be an effective 955 956 strategy for reducing N deposition. Overall, our findings reveal persistent serious  $N_r$ pollution during the 12th FYP period despite implementation of current emission 957 958 controls, and highlight the importance of NH<sub>3</sub> emission control on mitigating future 959 atmospheric Nr concentrations and deposition in eastern China.

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