# **Elucidating the pollution characteristics of nitrate, sulfate and ammonium in**

## **PM2.5 in Chengdu, southwest China, based on three-year measurements**

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- **Abstract**

 Nitrate, sulfate and ammonium (NSA) are the main secondary inorganic aerosols of PM2.5 and play an important role in air pollution. In this study, a three-year observational experiment was conducted from January 1, 2015, to December 31, 2017, in Chengdu, southwest China. NSA pollution characteristics, chemical conversion generation, emission reduction control sensitivity and pollutant regional transport characteristics were analysed. NSA are the most important chemical compositions of 24 particles with aerodynamic equivalent diameter  $\leq$  2.5 µm in ambient air (PM<sub>2.5</sub>), and 25 the contribution of nitrate to the accumulation of  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  concentration is greater than that of sulfate and ammonium. NSA also have obvious characteristics of annual, monthly, seasonal, diurnal and weekly variations. Through observation data and model simulation, it was also found that the existence of an aerosol aqueous environment plays

 an important role in the formation and existence of NSA. Sensitivity analysis between 30 NSAs found that controlling  $NO_3$  and  $SO_4^2$  play an important role in reducing the contribution of NSA to PM2.5, which also implies that the current control of NOx and SO2 is important for improving air pollution. Combined with meteorological conditions and potential source contribution function (PSCF) analysis, local emissions and regional emissions of pollutants are found to have important impacts on Chengdu's atmospheric environment. This research result not only provides an assessment of the current atmospheric emission reduction effect but also provides an important reference for atmospheric pollution control.

 **Keywords:** Secondary inorganic aerosols; Three-year measurements; Pollution characteristics; Chemical conversions; Regional transport; Chengdu

**1 Introduction**

 In recent years, with the rapid development of China's domestic economy and acceleration of urbanization, energy consumption and pollutant emissions have also increased, which increases the burden on the atmospheric environment, and severe air pollution has become a focus of social concern (Liu et al., 2013a;An et al., 2019;Fu et al., 2014;Zhao et al., 2017). When air pollution forms, mass concentrations of particles 46 with aerodynamic equivalent diameter  $\leq$  2.5 µm in ambient air (PM<sub>2.5</sub>, also known as fine particles) can reach a higher pollution level, which not only reduces atmospheric visibility but also carries a large number of toxic species into the human lungs, increasing the risks of cardiovascular and cerebrovascular diseases (Chang et al., 2018;Tie et al., 2009;Kong et al., 2019;Zhao et al., 2018;Yang et al., 2015a). Nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, organic matter and elemental carbon are the main compositions of PM2.5, among which nitrate, sulfate and ammonium (NSA) are the main secondary inorganic aerosols in PM2.5 (Ji et al., 2019;Zheng et al., 2016). NSA mainly originates 54 from the secondary aerosols produced by complex chemical reactions of NOx,  $SO_2$  and NH3 from coal combustion, vehicle exhaust emissions and agricultural sources (Liu et al., 2013b;Wang et al., 2016;Tian et al., 2017).

 Because China's current main energy resource is still fossil fuels, which are widely used in industry, for vehicles and residentially, the emission reduction space of NSA is still restricted by a large number of gaseous precursors of NSA (Zhao et al., 2018;Tong et 60 al., 2019). In addition, the chemical conversion of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$ ,  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  and NH<sub>3</sub> to form NSA is still very complex, and both homogeneous and heterogeneous reactions involve the chemical conversion of secondary inorganic aerosols, such as photochemical reactions, aqueous phase oxidation environments of aerosols and catalysis of mineral dust (Cheng et al., 2016;Sun et al., 2014;Wang et al., 2016;Ohta and Okita, 1990;He et al., 2014). The formation of sulfate can increase the acidity of aerosols (Sun et al., 2014). In 66 contrast, the presence of  $NH_3$  can play a role in neutralization and maintain the acid- base balance of aerosols (Wang et al., 2016). If improper control measures are taken in pollution reduction control, such as further ammonia emission reduction, the acidification of aerosols and environmental problems of acid rain may be aggravated (Liu et al., 2019c). In addition to the air pollution caused by the local emission of pollutants, the regional transportation of pollutants from its surrounding cities also has an important impact on the urban air quality. Determination of regional transport sources of pollutants, taking regional joint prevention and control measures, and jointly reducing the emissions of pollutants will enable better air control effects, particularly in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region of northern China (Chen et al., 2019a).

 Higher concentrations of NSA in PM2.5 were also found in regions with more serious air pollution in China, such as Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei, the Yangtze River Delta, the Pearl River Delta, the Fenwei Plain, and the Chengdu-Chongqing region (An et al., 2019;Li et al., 2017;Liu et al., 2019d). In response to this situation, the Chinese government issued an Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (2013-2017) in 2013 to reduce pollutant emissions and improve air quality (the Sate Council, 2013, last access: June 17, 2020). A large number of treatment measures have been taken regarding coal combustion, motor vehicle emissions and outdated industrial capacities, and by 2017, China's ambient air quality control measures had achieved good results (Liu et al.,

 2019a;Chen et al., 2019b;Cheng et al., 2019;Li et al., 2019a). In Beijing, PM2.5, NO2 and SO2 decreased by 35.2%, 17.9% and 69.8%, respectively, in 2017 compared with 2013 (Beijing Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau, 2018, last access: June 17, 2020). In Chengdu, PM2.5, NO2 and SO2 decreased by 42.3%, 15.9% and 64.5%, respectively, in 2017 compared with 2013 (Chengdu Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau, 2018, last access: June 17, 2020). To continue to promote air quality improvement, the Chinese government launched the "Three-Year Action Plan for Winning the Blue Sky Defense Battle" in 2018, which puts forward stricter requirements on how to further promote the implementation of emission reduction plans (the Sate Council, 2018, last access: June 17, 2020). Through long-term 95 observations, a comprehensive analysis of  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  chemical compositions and source characteristics is carried out to verify the current implementation effects of emission reduction, and in-depth analyses of pollution reduction control characteristics are of great significance for the next step in air pollution control. However, these analyses may be affected by the experimental equipment, observation stations and other conditions, and the time span of these atmospheric observations usually includes several pollution processes or lasts for weeks or months. Thus, it is difficult to analyse the long-term variations in characteristics of air pollution through comprehensive observation. In particular, there are few high-time-resolution (1 hour) observation experiments carried out with online automatic observation systems (Sun et al., 2013;Tie et al., 2017;Guo et al., 2014). Especially in the Sichuan Basin of southwest China, there are few long-term observational experiments on NSA, which are the main chemical 107 compositions of  $PM_{2.5}$ .

 The Sichuan Basin is among the most important areas of air pollution in China (Qiao et al., 2019;Gui et al., 2019;Zhong et al., 2019). Although there are many studies in this area, there are few long-term studies of the hourly concentration data resolution of 111 PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical compositions. In this study, through three years of observations (from 112 January 1, 2015, to December 31, 2017), we analysed the pollution characteristics of  NSA, as well as their formation mechanism and pollution control sensitivity. Finally, combined with local emissions and regional transport characteristics, we analysed the air pollution transport characteristics of Chengdu air pollution.

#### **2 Experiment and methods**

## **2.1 Observation site**

 Comprehensive observations were carried out at the Chengdu comprehensive observation station of atmospheric combined pollution (30.63°N, 104.08°E). The observation equipment was placed on the top of a building, approximately 25 m from the ground, and there was no obvious pollution source within approximately 200 m. The site is located in south section 1 of Yihuan Road, Wuhou District, Chengdu (Fig. 123 1), and traffic emission sources may be the main pollution emission source around the observation station. This is a typical residential, traffic and commercial mixed area that represents the characteristics of the urban atmospheric environment. Chengdu is also a megacity in the Sichuan Basin of southwest China, as well as an important part of the Chengdu-Chongqing region, which is among the regions with serious air pollution in China, and as shown in Fig. 1, the Sichuan Basin also has high aerosol optical depth (AOD).



130

131 Fig. 1. Observation site in Chengdu. The image on the top shows the aerosol optical 132 depth (AOD, 550 nm) from 2015 to 2017 (National Aeronautics and Space 133 Administration, 2019, last access: June 17, 2020). The black dot in the image on the 134 bottom shows the location of the observation site in Chengdu (background map from 135 Google Maps, last access: June 17, 2020).

# 136 **2.2 Instruments**

137 During the research period, online experimental monitoring instruments were used to 138 obtain the observation data with an hourly resolution (1 hour). The equipment list is 139 shown in Table 1. Data quality control and assurance are an important part of the 140 atmospheric comprehensive observation experiment, and this result is described in 141 detail in the supplementary materials (Fig. S1-4).

142 Table 1. The experimental instruments used in this study



OC: organic carbon; EC: element carbon

### 143 **2.3 Chemical conversions and model methods**

 To clarify the conversion of gaseous pollutants to secondary aerosols, the nitrogen oxidation ratio (NOR) and sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR) were used to reflect the 146 conversions of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> to NO<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>, respectively (Sun et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015a). These ratios can be calculated using Eq. (1) and Eq. (2):

$$
148 \qquad \text{NOR} = n\text{NO}_3^{\text{I}}/(n\text{NO}_3^{\text{-}} + n\text{NO}_2) \tag{1}
$$

149 
$$
SOR = nSO_4^{2-}/(nSO_4^{2+}nSO_2)
$$
 (2)

150 where n is the molar concentration.

 The ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic model was used to analyse the variation in interaction characteristics among aerosol chemical compositions (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007;Guo et al., 2017a;Ding et al., 2019). Temperature (T), relative humidity 154 (RH) and the concentrations of Na<sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>-, NH<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, Ca<sup>2+</sup>, K<sup>+</sup> and Mg<sup>2+</sup> were input into the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model. In this study, we used the "forward problems" mode to run the model, assuming that the aerosols were in a "metastable" state (salts do not precipitate under supersaturated conditions). At the time 158 of data input, NH<sub>3</sub> data were the sum of NH<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. Previous studies had shown that the model has better performance when the RH is greater than 30%, and some studies also believe that the model performance is greater than 40%, so this study maintains the RH at higher than 40% when data are input (Ding et al., 2019;Guo et al., 2016). The simulated data and observed data were compared and analysed, and the

 observation data of NH3 were consistent with the input data of the model. The linear 164 regression fitting slope of NH<sub>3</sub> was 0.96 ( $R^2$ =0.98), which showed that the run result of the model had good reliability and performance (Ding et al., 2019). Simultaneously, the aerosol water content (AWC) was calculated, and the sensitivity of the interaction between aerosol chemical compositions (NSA) and the pH of aerosols was analysed (Ding et al., 2019;Fountoukis et al., 2009). The pH was calculated using Eq. (3):

169 
$$
pH = -\log_{10} H_{aq}^+ \cong -\log_{10} \frac{1000 H_{air}^+}{AWC}
$$
 (3)

170 where  $H_{aq}^{+}$  (mol/L) is the concentration of hydronium ions in liquid water of 171 atmospheric particulate matter, which can be calculated by the  $H_{air}^{+}$  and AWC ( $\mu g/m^{3}$ ) outputs from the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model (Ding et al., 2019;Guo et al., 2017a).

### **2.4 CPF and PSCF methods**

 We used the conditional probability function (CPF) to analyse the characteristics of pollutants under the influence of wind direction (WD) and wind speed (WS). The analysis results using CPF were obtained using the R programming language, named 178 openair. This function can be defined as CPF=  $m_{\theta,i}/n_{\theta,i}$ , where  $m_{\theta,i}$  is the number of 179 samples in the WD interval  $\theta$  and WS interval j with mixing ratios greater than some 180 'high' pollution concentration, and  $n_{\theta,i}$  is the total number of samples in the same WD- WS interval (Uria-Tellaetxe and Carslaw, 2014). Usually, a higher given 'high' pollution concentration (percentile) is chosen, such as the 90th percentile, which will mask the lower percentile pollution concentration source contributions. In this work, to obtain a more complete contribution of pollution sources, a range of percentile values, 0-25, 25-50, 50-75 and 75-100 were selected for the CPF calculation.

 The potential source contribution function (PSCF) is based on an analysis of pollution sources given the airmass backward trajectory and can be used to judge the long- distance regional transport of pollutants (Ji et al., 2019). In this study, MeteoInfoMap and TrajStat [\(Wang et al., 2009\)](#page-37-0) were used, and the model simulation data input model was provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (National  Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 2019, last access: June 17, 2020); these data were calculated to the 24-hour backward trajectories at the observation site at a height of 500 m every 1 hour from January 1, 2015, to December 31, 2017 (UTC+8). The calculated domain for PSCF was a range of 20-50° N, 75-115° E, and a grid cell with 195 a resolution of  $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$  was divided. The PSCF could be defined using Eq. (4):

196 
$$
PSCF_{ij} = \frac{M_{ij}}{N_{ij}} W_{ij}
$$
 (4)

197 
$$
W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1.0 \left( N_{ij} \ge 3N_{ave} \right) \\ 0.7 \left( 3N_{ave} > N_{ij} \ge 1.5N_{ave} \right) \\ 0.4 \left( 1.5N_{ave} > N_{ij} \ge N_{ave} \right) \\ 0.2 \left( N_{ave} > N_{ij} \right) \end{cases}
$$
(5)

198 where PSCF<sub>ij</sub> is the value for the ijth grid cell and  $M_{ii}$  is the total number of endpoints 199 in the ijth grid cell, with pollution concentrations at the observation site (30.63°N, 200 104.08°E) that are greater than a given threshold value (the 75th percentile was selected 201 for gaseous pollutants). N<sub>ij</sub> is the number of backward trajectory endpoints in the ijth 202 grid cell  $(0.5\degree\times0.5\degree)$  during the simulation period. Therefore, the PSCF reflects the two-203 dimensional planar position distribution characteristics of potential sources, not the 204 three-dimensional characteristics that reflect the transmission of pollution. To reduce 205 the uncertainty in  $N_{ii}$ , the empirical weight function  $W_{ii}$  was introduced in Eq. (5), 206 where N<sub>ave</sub> is the average of N<sub>ij</sub> during the simulation period (Ji et al., 2019; Zhang et 207 al., 2017;Wang et al., 2009).

## 208 **3 Results and discussion**

#### 209 **3.1 Pollution characteristics of the interannual and entire observation periods**

210 The annual average mass concentration of NSA and its proportion in  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  are shown 211 in Table 2. The annual averages of  $PM_{2.5}$  were 67.78, 71.88 and 59.68  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, 212 corresponding to 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively. However, the pollution of  $PM_{2.5}$ 213 in Chengdu was much higher than the annual secondary guideline value (35  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, 214 Ambient air quality standards/GB3095-2012) and the World Health Organization 215 annual guideline value (10  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>). The same PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution problem was also a 216 serious problem in Beijing and Nanjing (Ji et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2019). The annual  average mass concentration of NSA also changed significantly, and the difference was 218 large. The Mann-Whitney U test showed that the variation in  $NO<sub>3</sub>$  was nonsignificant 219 (p > 0.05), and  $SO_4^2$  and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> had obvious significance from 2015 to 2017 (p < 0.05), 220 indicating that  $NO_3$ <sup>-</sup> had not decreased significantly, and there was an increase in 2017 221 compared to 2015.  $SO_4^2$  continued to decline, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was also lower in 2017 than 222 in 2016. Notably,  $SO_4^2$  and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> decreased significantly in 2017 compared with 2015, 223 but the variation in  $NO_3$  was nonsignificant. Meanwhile, the annual averages of  $NO_3$  /SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> were 0.95, 1.02 and 1.45 for 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively, indicating that 225 the contribution of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions sources to  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  was increased compared with that of SO2 emissions sources (Li et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2015). As shown in Table S1, 227 from 2013 to 2017, the emissions of  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  in Chengdu were obviously higher than those 228 of SO<sub>2</sub>, but PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> all decreased due to the implementation of the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan launched by the Chinese government and a more detailed pollution control plan launched by Sichuan Province. From 2015 to 2017, the measures taken by Sichuan Province in the coordinated reduction of multiple pollutants have been continuously strengthened, and the scope of management and control has been continuously expanded, for example, in the improvement of desulfurization, denitrification and dust removal technologies in key industries, from accelerated improvement in 2015 to deeper improvement in 2017. The process of eliminating small coal-fired boilers began in 2015 and was completed in 2017, when the ultra-low-emission coal-fired power plant transformation was promoted. In terms of vehicle emission control, we accelerated the elimination of "yellow label" vehicles (general term for gasoline vehicles with emission levels lower than the national I emission standard and diesel vehicles with emission levels lower than the national III emission standard when new vehicles are finalized) and "old vehicles" (the emission level does not meet the national stage IV emission standard) in 2015 and basically completed the elimination of "yellow label" vehicles in 2017. The quality supervision of oil products has also been improved, and non-road mobile machinery pollution 245 control requirements were proposed in the 2017 plan (The People's Government of 246 Sichuan Province, 2015, 2016, 2017, last access: June 17, 2020). Compared with 2015, 247 NOx and SO2 decreased by 5.98% and 32.35%, respectively, in 2017, which shows that 248 the treatment of NOx and  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions has achieved remarkable results, of which the  $249$  SO<sub>2</sub> emission reduction effect is the best, followed by that of NOx. The effect of this 250 emission reduction is due to air pollution prevention measures, especially measures of 251 "electricity instead of coal" and "natural gas instead of coal" (refers to increased use of 252 electricity and natural gas in the residential sector to reduce coal combustion).

253 Table 2. Comparison of annual mass averages  $(\mu g/m^3)$  and proportions (%) for NSA

254 (nitrate, sulfate and ammonium) from 2015 to 2017.



255

256



257 Fig. 2. Variation characteristics of the NSA (nitrate, sulfate and ammonium) and other 258 chemical compositions with different concentrations of  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ . (a) NSA mass

259 concentration. (b) Percentage of NSA in  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ . (c) Chemical compositions of organic 260 carbon (OC), elemental carbon (EC), and metal elements. (d) Percentage of OC, EC 261 and metal elements in  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ .

262 The chemical compositions of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from 2015 to 2017 varies with concentration, as 263 shown in Fig. 2. With the accumulation of  $PM_{2.5}$  in the atmosphere, the concentration 264 of NSA also increased significantly, but the proportion of NSA in  $PM_{2.5}$  decreased (Fig. 265 2a and b). The variation trend of OC, EC and metal elements with increasing  $PM_{2.5}$ 266 concentration is similar to that of NSA (Fig. 2c and d), and this variation trend of OC 267 and EC is consistent with the results of long-term observation research carried out in 268 Beijing (Ji et al., 2019). With the accumulation of  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration, NSA, OC, EC 269 and metal element concentrations have an increasing trend, but their ratio with  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$ 270 gradually decreases, indicating that other compositions have a higher contribution. This 271 result, on the one hand, maybe since some chemical compositions such as ions and dust 272 have not included in the statistics, on the other hand, the unknown component may also 273 have a high contribution characteristic to  $PM_{2.5}$  (Zhang et al., 2015; Huang et al., 2014). 274 For the contribution characteristics of unknown components of  $PM_{2.5}$ , studies in some 275 regions of China show that the contribution of higher  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration is higher than 276 that of lower  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration (Huang et al., 2014; Li et al., 2017; Geng et al., 2019). 277 When  $PM_{2.5}$  was less than 50  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> and greater than 250  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, the mass 278 concentrations of NSA were 11.57 and 90.06  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, respectively, and the proportions 279 were 37.78 and 31.45%, respectively. Comparing Fig. 2b and d, it was found that NSA 280 was always the main contributor in the entire process of  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  accumulation, which 281 was significantly higher than the proportions of OC and EC (Ji et al., 2019;Li et al., 282 – 2019b). In the accumulation process of PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations greater than 50  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, 283 NO<sub>3</sub> accounts for a high proportion in NSA and is stable at approximately 14%, and 284 the proportion of  $SO_4^2$  and  $NH_4^+$  continues to decrease (Li et al., 2019b; Wang et al., 285 2016). When the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration was less than 50  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, the concentration of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> 286 was higher than that of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and the concentration of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was lower than the NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>

287 concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> at 50 to 100  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, possibly due to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> concentration being 288 higher than the  $NO_3$  concentration, forming more chemically stable  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  (Guo 289 et al., 2017a). In addition, when the PM<sub>2.5</sub> was less than 50  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, low RH and strong solar radiation were also important ways to generate sulfate (Yao et al., 2018).

#### **3.2 Monthly and seasonal variations**

 The monthly variation characteristics of NSA from 2015 to 2017 are shown in Fig. 3. At the beginning and end of each year, the pollutant concentration is relatively high and relatively low in the middle of each year. The meteorological conditions also have obvious monthly variation characteristics (Fig. S5 a and b); from April to August, they have higher WS and lower RH, which is not only conducive to the dilution and diffusion of pollutants but also reduces the chemical conversions of pollutants by aqueous phase and influences the formation of secondary inorganic aerosols (Wang et al., 2016;Ji et al., 2019). Overall, the concentrations are higher in January and December and lower 300 in July and August. The highest monthly average  $NO_3$  reached 19.98  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> in January 301 2017, and the highest monthly average  $SO_4^2$  and  $NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> were 22.08  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> and 12.66  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> in January 2015, respectively. The lowest concentrations of NSA appeared in 303 August 2017, which were 1.96, 3.07 and 1.62  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>. The gaseous precursors of NSA also have obvious monthly variations, and the NOx and SO<sub>2</sub> trends were similar to those 305 of NO<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> (Fig. 3 and 4). NH<sub>3</sub> emissions were significantly different, with increases in warmer months (April-July) and colder months (September-December). On the one hand, NH3 volatilization was promoted by relatively high Ts (Fig. S5c); on the other hand, the use of agricultural fertilizers and livestock farming were also important sources of NH3 in China. Second, from urban region, fossil fuel combustion and motor vehicle emissions also contribute significantly (Liu et al., 2013b;Pan et al., 2016). Notably, NH3 increased significantly from April to December 2017 compared with 2015 and 2016, especially during low-T months (Fig. 4c). The results of an analysis of the monthly concentration variation of pollutants indicate that the implementation of pollution reduction and control measures should be strengthened at  the beginning of each year (January to March) and the end of the year (October to December).

 The seasonal variation in NSA is shown in Fig. S6, and the concentration in winter was 318 much higher than that in summer. NO<sub>3</sub> only declined in spring and summer from 2015 319 to 2017, with an increase in autumn and winter (Fig. S6a). Seasonal variations in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> 320 were similar to those of  $NO<sub>3</sub>$ , with higher concentrations in winter and the lowest in summer (Fig. S6c). This may be because higher Ts and WSs can not only promote the 322 decomposition of NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> in summer but also promote the dilution and diffusion of pollutant concentrations (Guo et al., 2017a;An et al., 2019). There is a significant 324 downward trend in  $SO_4^2$ , which continues to decrease in spring, summer and winter from 2015 to 2017 (Fig. S6b). In autumn, the concentration was the highest in 2016, and it was significantly lower in 2017 than in 2015 and 2016. The variation amplitude of NSA and gaseous pollutants in cold months was significantly higher than that in warm months (Figs. 3, 4 and S6). This higher variation amplitude may be due to the differences in pollutant accumulation and scavenging processes. This finding also indicates that the instability of local pollutant emissions and regional transport during cold months was affected by meteorological conditions (Li et al., 2017;Ji et al., 2018). The large variation amplitude of pollutants in different months, similar to the changes in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region of northern China and Chengdu, are due to the accumulation and removal of pollution by meteorological conditions and pollutant emissions (Ji et al., 2019;Qin et al., 2019;Zhang et al., 2019a).



338 2015 to 2017. (a)  $NO_3$ . (b)  $SO_4^2$ . (c)  $NH_4^+$ .



339

 $340$  Fig. 4. Monthly variations in NOx, SO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations from 2015 to 2017. (a) 341 NOx. (b)  $SO_2$ . (c) NH<sub>3</sub>.

## 342 **3.3 Diurnal and weekly variations**

343 From 2015 to 2017, the concentration of NSA was higher in the daytime than in the 344 evening (Fig. 5a), and similar results were found in different seasons (Fig. 5b), which 345 may be due to the combination of pollutant emissions and meteorological conditions. 346 As shown in Fig. S7, from 9:00 to 11:00 a.m., the concentrations of  $SO_2$ ,  $NOx$ ,  $NH_3$ 347 and CO increased significantly, indicating that the primary emission of pollutants was 348 relatively strong. At this time, although RH is in a declining stage, it still has a relatively 349 high atmospheric humidity (approximately  $65\%$ ), and  $O_3$  and  $NO_2/NO$  also 350 occasionally show an increasing trend, indicating that the atmospheric oxidizability has 351 also increased (Figs. S7 and S8). This situation also provides favourable conditions for  the formation of secondary aerosols and promotes the accumulation of NSA (Cheng et al., 2016;Wang et al., 2016;Sun et al., 2014). In addition, before 10 o'clock, relatively low WS will enable easy pollutant concentration accumulation. In contrast, the higher WS in the afternoon may be the main factor for the decrease in pollutant concentration (Figs. 5 and S8). Photochemical reactions may also be one of the factors in the formation of NSA, and the concentration of  $O<sub>3</sub>$  peaks at approximately 15:00, which may be affected by the free radicals generated by photochemistry. At approximately 359 19:00, the ratio of NO<sub>2</sub>/NO reached its highest value, and the concentration of NO<sub>2</sub> also increased significantly (Song et al., 2018;Zhu et al., 2019). At night, with the increase in RH (Fig. S8), dissolved ozone, free radicals, hydrogen peroxide and NO<sub>2</sub> can catalyse SO2 to form secondary aerosols through an aqueous phase reaction (Zhang et al., 2015;An et al., 2019). The seasonal diurnal variation in NSA is shown in Fig. 5b. The concentration of NSA in winter was obviously higher than that in summer, and the diurnal variation range was larger. The concentrationsin spring and autumn were closer, but the diurnal variation in spring was larger than that in autumn. The larger diurnal variation range not only indicates serious pollution but also indicates the importance of other factors affecting air quality, such as meteorological conditions and secondary aerosol conversion conditions (Ji et al., 2019;Yang et al., 2015b). The peak value of the NSA seasonal diurnal variation also varies in different seasons. The peak value appears at approximately 13:00 in winter, approximately 10:00 in spring and summer, and approximately 12:00 in autumn, possibly due to the influence of meteorological conditions. In previous studies in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei and the Pearl River Delta, the concentration of pollutants was affected by meteorological factors, and it was usually lower in the daytime than at night. In the Yangtze River Delta, the peak usually occurs in the morning, but in our study, the concentration was higher in the daytime than at night (Peng et al., 2011;Wang et al., 2018;Guo et al., 2017b). In addition to the diurnal variations in WS and atmospheric humidity, some studies have shown that due to the unique topographical structure of the Sichuan Basin, the atmospheric circulation 380 between the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau and Sichuan Basin and 381 the meteorological conditions of the Chengdu region are affected, such as the 382 characteristics of air mass transport and typical "night rain" (more precipitation at night 383 than in the day) under the influence of atmospheric circulation (Zhang et al., 384 2019c;Zhang et al., 2019b).



385

386 Fig. 5. Diurnal variations in NSA (nitrate, sulfate and ammonium) from 2015 to 2017.

387 (a) Annual average. (b) Seasonal average.

388 The weekly variation in NSA is shown in Fig. S9. During the overall observational

389 period, workdays (Monday to Friday) showed higher variations than weekends

 (Saturday and Sunday), with the highest variation being on Tuesday and the lowest being on Sunday. Despite the difference in mean values between Tuesday and Sunday, nonparametric tests show that the difference in mean values was nonsignificant (Mann-393 Whitney U test,  $P > 0.05$ ). As shown in Fig. S9, the average trends of NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> were consistent from Monday to Sunday. The correlation coefficient was 0.94 (P <0.01) from 2015 to 2017, which indicates that they have a common source and that vehicle 396 emissions also have an important contribution to  $NH_4^+$  (Pan et al., 2016). The average 397 NO<sub>3</sub>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations from 2015 to 2017 were 9.21, 8.64 and 5.64 ug/m<sup>3</sup> 398 on workdays and 8.56, 8.33 and 5.29 ug/m<sup>3</sup> on weekends, respectively. The average 399 values of NOx,  $SO_2$  and NH<sub>3</sub> were 42.43, 4.35 and 20.39 ppb on weekdays and 39.60, 4.34 and 19.67 ppb on weekends, respectively. Similarly, the mean difference between NSA and gaseous precursors (NOx, SO2 and NH3) was not significant by the Mann- Whitney U test on weekdays and weekends. Population standard deviation comparisons 403 of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> showed that workdays had higher standard deviations than did weekends, with 7.96, 6.04 and 4.35 on weekdays and 6.76, 5.69 and 3.88 on weekends, respectively, and it could also be seen from the box chart of NSA weekly variation that the concentration range on working days was slightly larger than that on weekends (Fig. S10). Analysis of the diurnal variation in NSA gaseous precursors on weekdays and weekends shows that the variation trend is relatively consistent (Fig. S11), and the concentration of NOx on weekdays will be slightly higher at the peak of 9:00 to 10:00 than on weekends, which may be affected by the morning rush hour of vehicles. In this study, NSA and gaseous precursors are also slightly higher on weekdays than on weekends, which indicates that in Chengdu's air pollution prevention and control actions, the management of relevant industries and departments should be strengthened on weekdays.

**3.4 Chemical characteristics of NSA**

## **3.4.1 Chemical conversion characteristics of NSA**

417 Fig. 6 shows the abilities of NO<sub>2</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> to chemically convert to NO<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> at

418 different PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations. With the increase in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration, NOR and SOR 419 gradually increased, indicating that the formation ability of NO<sub>3</sub> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> increased 420 during the formation of air pollution. In this study, when the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration was  $\leq$  $50 \mu g/m^3$ , the average NOR and SOR were 0.07 and 0.27, respectively, and when the  $P_{M_2}$  PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration was greater than 250  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>, the average NOR and SOR increased 423 to 0.22 and 0.41, respectively, indicating that the chemical conversion and formation 424 ability of secondary inorganic aerosols was obviously enhanced when air pollution was 425 aggravated. Previous studies suggested that when NOR and SOR were greater than 0.1 426 and 0.2, respectively, it has intense conversions and forms secondary inorganic aerosols 427 (Yang et al., 2015a).



20 429 Fig. 6. Analysis of atmospheric chemical conversion ability at different PM2.5 430 concentrations. (a) NOR (nitrogen oxidation ratio). (b) SOR (sulfur oxidation ratio). 431 Fig. 7 shows the variation characteristics of NSA chemical conversions with increasing 432 RH. NOR and SOR increased with increasing RH, suggesting that  $NO<sub>2</sub>$  and  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  were 433 more likely to produce  $NO_3$  and  $SO_4$ <sup>2</sup> under higher RH conditions. Previous studies 434 have shown that the presence of  $NH_3$  and  $NO_2$  can promote the chemical conversion of  $435$  SO<sub>2</sub> to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in the aqueous phase (Wang et al., 2016). In an aerosol aqueous phase 436 environment, alkaline aerosol (NH<sub>3</sub>) components can promote the dissolution of  $SO_2$ 437 and the formation of  $SO_4^2$  under the oxidation of NO<sub>2</sub> (Cheng et al., 2016). Especially 438 when the atmosphere is polluted, the formation of  $SO_4^2$  by  $SO_2$  through the aqueous 439 phase environment can contribute most of the  $SO_4^2$  (Sun et al., 2013). When the RH is 440 greater than 80%, the NOR appears to decline, possibly because  $HNO<sub>3</sub>$  is semivolatile,





461

462 Fig. 7. Effects of RH on the chemical conversion of NSA (nitrate, sulfate and 463 ammonium). (a) NOR (nitrogen oxidation ratio). (b) SOR (sulfur oxidation ratio). (c) 464 Temperature (T). (d) AWC (aerosol water content).

#### 465 **3.4.2 Sensitivity analysis**

466 The molar ratio analysis of NSA shown in Fig. 8 was used to analyse the chemical 467 relationships among NSA. (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub> are mainly composed of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>,  $468$  SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub> in particulate matter (Malm and Hand, 2007;Meier et al., 2009). 469 Because (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> has better stability than NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> will first combine with 470 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and then with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Liu et al., 2012). The annual average molar ratio of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> to 471  $2*SO_4^2$  was more than 1, which indicates that  $SO_4^2$  can be completely neutralized by 472 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (Fig. 8a). The molar ratios of residual NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> - 2\*SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>) to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> were 0.85, 473 0.96 and 1.04 in 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively. As shown in Fig. 8a and b, the 474 gradual increase in the ratio (slope k) from 2015 to 2017 indicates that there is an 475 increase in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in aerosol compared with  $SO_4^2$  and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, especially in 2017, with a 476 ratio of 1.04, indicating the presence of other forms of  $NH_4^+$ , such as NH<sub>4</sub>Cl and 477 (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub> (Sun et al., 2006). Seasonal variations in NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> are shown 478 in Fig. 8c and d. The higher molar ratio in autumn indicates that the intensity of 479 ammonia emission in autumn was higher than that in other seasons. This result also 480 shows that the proportion of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> relative to NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> in PM<sub>2.5</sub> has increased. 481 Therefore, while currently controlling NOx and  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions, it is also necessary to 482 strengthen NH3 emissions control.



484 Fig. 8. Molar ratio analysis of NSA (nitrate, sulfate and ammonium). (a) Interannual 485 variation in the molar ratio of  $SO_4^2$  and  $NH_4^+$ . (b) Interannual variation in the molar 486 ratio of NO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. (c) Seasonal variation in the molar ratio of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. (d) 487 Seasonal variation in the molar ratio of  $NO<sub>3</sub>$  and  $NH<sub>4</sub>$ <sup>+</sup>. k: Fitting slope of linear 488 regression.

483

489 Table 3 shows the sensitivity analysis of the concentration variations in  $SO_4^2$ ,  $NO_3^-$  and 490 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>. ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model sensitivity analysis is 491 described in detail in the Supplementary Materials. The coefficient of variance 492 represents the response of the species to variations in other components. The 493 coefficients of variance for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> produced by  $SO_4^2$ - changes were 52.22 and 494 1.70, respectively. Similarly, the coefficients of variance for  $NH_4^+$  and  $SO_4^2$  produced 495 by NO<sub>3</sub> changes were 51.42 and 0.0005, respectively. The large coefficient of variance 496 for NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> indicates that the changes in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup><sup>-</sup> can affect the presence of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, 497 which also indicates that  $NH_4NO_3$  and  $(NH_4)_2SO_4$  were the main states of  $NH_4^+$  (Liu et 498 al., 2012). The coefficients of variance for  $SO_4^2$  and  $NO_3$  produced by TNH<sub>3</sub>  $499$  (NH<sub>3</sub>+NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) changes were 0.47 and 15.76, respectively, and the effect of TNH<sub>3</sub> on

- 500 SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> was less than that of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, which indicates that NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was excessive to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and
- 501 that NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> first combines with  $SO_4^2$  to form stable (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and the remaining NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>
- 502 and  $NO_3$ <sup>-</sup> will combine to form  $NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>$ .

503 Table 3. Sensitivity analysis of NSA (nitrate, sulfate and ammonium) concentration

504 variations during the different observation periods.



Coefficients of variance: standard deviation/average \*100%;

Variation TNH<sub>3</sub>:  $NH_3+NH_4$ <sup>+</sup> ( $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup>);

Variation  $SO_4^2$  and  $NO_3$  units:  $\mu g/m^3$ 

505 Through the implementation of the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan, 506 the reduction in  $SO_4^2$  in PM<sub>2.5</sub> has achieved good results. Therefore, while continuing 507 to promote "electricity instead of coal" and "natural gas instead of coal" to reduce coal 508 combustion pollution, more stringent control measures should be added for  $NO<sub>3</sub>$  and  $509$  NH $4^+$  emissions. To further improve air quality, the Chinese government launched a 510 "Three-Year Action Plan for Winning the Blue Sky Defense Battle" in 2018 and 511 proposed emission reduction targets for NOx and  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  emissions, which will be 15% 512 lower in 2020 than in 2015 (the Sate Council, 2018, last access: June 17, 2020). The 513 results of using the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model to simulate  $NO_3$ ,  $514$  SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> and TNH<sub>3</sub> emission reduction control effects of 5%, 10%, 15% and 20%, 515 respectively, are shown in Table S3, showing that controlling the concentration of  $NO<sub>3</sub>$ 516 and  $SO_4^2$  is also helpful to reduce the concentration of  $NH_4^+$  and indicating that 517 controlling its precursor NOx and  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  is of great significance to reduce the secondary 518 inorganic aerosol in PM2.5 (the detailed results are described in the supplementary 519 materials). Previous studies have also shown that the conversion of  $SO_2$  to  $SO_4^2$  in the

520 aqueous phase not only increases the conversion of  $SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>$  but also enhances the 521 formation of  $NO_3$ <sup>-</sup> in the aqueous phase (Wang et al., 2016). Therefore,  $SO_2$  emission 522 reduction may play a key role in the process of controlling emission reduction in NSA 523 pollution, as it not only reduces the presence of  $NH_4^+$  ((NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>) in particulate matter 524 but also affects the formation of  $NH_4NO_3$  by influencing the formation of  $NO_3$ .  $NO_2$ 525 and NH<sub>3</sub> can also promote the conversion of SO<sub>2</sub> to SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup> through an aqueous phase 526 environment (Wang et al., 2016). Therefore, priority control of NOx and  $SO_2$  emissions 527 is an important way to reduce NSA in particulate matter.

528 The increase in NSA can increase the hygroscopicity properties of aerosols, and more 529 AWC can increase the pH by diluting the hydrogen ion concentration (Kong et al., 530 2020; Ding et al., 2019). Previous studies have also shown that  $SO_4^2$  formation reduces 531 aerosol pH (Sun et al., 2014). The effects of NO<sub>3</sub>,  $SO_4^2$  and TNH<sub>3</sub> on pH when using 532 the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model to simulate pollutant 533 concentration reduction are shown in Table S3. With the decrease in NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, 534 the pH value increases, but  $NO_3$  has no obvious effect on the pH value,  $SO_4^2$  has an 535 obvious effect on the pH value, which indicates that the formation of  $SO_4^2$  in the 536 aerosol can increase the acidity of the aerosol (Sun et al., 2014). The greater the 537 reduction of TNH<sub>3</sub>, the lower the pH value is, which shows that the presence of NH<sub>3</sub> as 538 an alkaline gas can alleviate some of the acidity produced by  $SO_4^2$  (Cheng et al., 2016). 539 When the synergistic control of pollutants is reduced, it also has a certain effect on pH, 540 increasing from 4.07 to 4.16. Some studies believe that if ammonia emissions are 541 reduced significantly, the risk of acid rain may increase (Liu et al., 2019c). As shown 542 in Fig. S13, the acid rain problem in China is mainly concentrated in southern China, 543 especially in southwestern China, southern China, and the Yangtze River Delta in 544 eastern China. Therefore, how to adjust the emission reduction ratio in combination 545 with the characteristics of regional air pollution and energy consumption and thus help 546 reduce the problem of aerosol acidity changes caused by air pollution reduction is a 547 problem worthy of in-depth study. Therefore, when controlling NOx,  $SO_2$  and NH<sub>3</sub>  emissions, it is necessary to consider the aerosol acid and alkali changes caused by emission reduction.

#### **3.5 Characteristics of local emissions and regional transport**

#### **3.5.1 Local emissions**

 The concentration of pollutants is obviously affected by meteorological conditions; for example, WS and WD can affect the accumulation and removal of pollutants (Li et al., 2016). Figs. S14-16 show the annual variation characteristics of NSA and gas precursors affected by the WS and WD using CPF. Overall, the higher WS was accompanied by a lower pollutant concentration. As the WS decreased, the pollution became serious, and the pollution hot spots were gradually concentrated. On the whole, when the WS was usually greater than 2 m/s, the pollution was light (pollutant concentration percentile was between 0-25). When WS was usually less than 1 m/s, the pollution was heavy (pollutant concentration percentile was between 75-100), which also reflects the distance and orientation between the emission source and the observation station, indicating that when the pollution was serious, the contribution of local source emissions was more prominent.

 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NOx have similar distributions of pollution hot spots in the polar plot diagram (Fig. S14), and when the concentration percentile was 0-25, the hot spots were concentrated in the northeast and southeast directions and widely distributed. When the 567 concentration percentile was 25-75, the sources of  $NO<sub>3</sub>$  and  $NO<sub>X</sub>$  were distributed west, southwest and northeast of the observation site, and there were important contribution sources in the northwest direction (WS was approximately 3-4 m/s) in 2017. When the WS was approximately 1-2 m/s and the concentration percentile was 50-75, the important NOx source was in the northwest direction. When the accumulation of 572 pollution concentration was high (concentration percentile was  $75-100$ ), the NO<sub>3</sub> source was mainly concentrated in the east and southeast of the observation site, and NOx was distributed in the south and southeast, with WSs of less than 1 m/s. Additionally, the distribution of pollution hot spots was relatively wide in 2016 (the

 annual mean values of NOx were 42.15, 43.99 and 39.63 ppb in 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively), indicating that the source was relatively wide, which may be one of the 578 reasons for the relatively high concentration. The  $SO_4^2$  and  $SO_2$  pollution sources affected by meteorological conditions also have similar distribution characteristics (Fig. 580 S15). At a higher concentration of pollutants, the pollution hot spots of  $SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2</sup>$  were 581 distributed in the east and southeast of the observation site, and  $SO_2$  was distributed in the northeast, southeast and west. Compared with 2017 and 2016, the distribution of SO2 pollution sources in 2016 was also more extensive, mainly in the west and northeast. 584 The NH<sub>3</sub> emissions were slightly different from those of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> (Fig. S16). Under conditions of high pollution concentration (concentration percentile was 75-100), the pollution hot spots were distributed in the west in 2015 (WS was approximately 2- 3 m/s), in the north in 2016 (WS was approximately 1 and 3 m/s), and in the near distance in 2017 (WS was approximately 0.5 m/s). The higher pollution concentration was accompanied by a relatively higher WS (2015 and 2016), which indicates that the NH3 emission transport in the surrounding area was more obvious, which may come from the surrounding agricultural source distribution area (Liu et al., 2019b;Liu et al., 2013b). The annual mean value of NH3 emissions in 2017 was 27.91 ppb, which is significantly higher than those in 2015 and 2016 at 17.93 ppb and 16.55 ppb, respectively. During the 25-50 concentration percentile period of NH3, there was a WS of approximately 2 m/s east of the observation site, and during the 50-75 concentration percentile period, there was an obvious source northwest of the observation site, with a WS of approximately 4 m/s. During the 75-100 concentration percentile periods, the pollution sources were mainly local. This shows that in 2017, in addition to the pollution sources being distributed in the east and northwest, the higher NH3 emissions were also contributed by the surrounding emission sources northwest of Chengdu.

**3.5.2 Gaseous precursors of NSA regional transport**

 The PSCF is used to analyse the potential source distribution of pollutants to determine the regional transport characteristics of pollutants (Ji et al., 2019). In addition,

604 considering the aerosol lifetime,  $SO_2$  (approximately 9.6 d) and NOx (approximately 1 605 d) are also very different (Guo et al., 2014), and the research also shows that  $NH_3$  is significantly contributed by local source emissions (Walker et al., 2004). Therefore, we comprehensively consider selecting a 24-hour backward trajectory to carry out PSCF 608 simulation in the Chengdu region. Fig. 9 shows the PSCF analysis of NOx,  $SO_2$  and NH3, with significant differences in their potential source distributions. The higher PSCF value of NOx was mainly distributed west, northwest and southwest of Chengdu in 2015, northwest and south of Chengdu in 2016, and south, west and northeast of 612 Chengdu in 2017. The PSCF of NO<sub>2</sub> and NO (Fig. S17) also reflects that their potential sources are mainly influenced by the interior of Sichuan Province, especially in the cities around Chengdu. Chengdu is located along the western margin of the Sichuan Basin, and it was also observed through satellite remote sensing data that the higher NO2 emissions in the Sichuan Basin were distributed in Chengdu and Chongqing (Fig. 617 S18a). The  $SO_2$  emissions were widely distributed, mainly in the Sichuan Basin. Among 618 them, Leshan city and Meishan city south of Chengdu had higher  $SO_2$  emissions, and another higher emission source was distributed in Chongqing (Fig. S18b). The PSCF analysis of  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  showed that the higher PSCF values were distributed in southern, western and southwestern Chengdu. Therefore, a comparison of Figs. 9 and S18b shows 622 that the main source of  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  may be distributed in the southern, western and southwestern margin region of the Sichuan Basin. In particular, Leshan, Ya'an and Meishan were important potential sources. As shown in the PSCF analysis of NH3 in Fig. 9, the higher PSCF was also concentrated in the inner Sichuan Basin, especially in 626 the urban agglomeration around Chengdu. In 2015, the potential source of  $NH_3$  was mainly distributed in the southwest and northeast of Chengdu, with higher PSCF in Nanchong and other regions. In the southwest, it was concentrated in Ya'an, Meishan and Leshan. In 2016, potential sources were mainly distributed in the southwest of Ya'an, Meishan, Leshan and the southern part of the Ganzi Tibetan Autonomous Prefecture. There were two characteristics of potential sources in 2017. A relatively light source

 was relatively close to Chengdu, and the high PSCF was in Chengdu, which can be considered the contribution of local emissions. The other contribution is obvious as a long-distance potential source contribution, mainly in some cities in the northeast, Nanchong, Guangyuan and Mianyang, and to a certain extent at the junction of Shaanxi, Gansu and Sichuan. In 2017, in addition to the contribution of local emissions, the contribution of regional transport in the northeast may also be an important reason for 638 the higher  $NH_3$  concentration. Fig. S19 shows satellite remote sensing data of  $NH_3$ . Overall, the higher NH3 column concentration is distributed in the Sichuan Basin, 640 mainly concentrated in the region near Chengdu, showing that  $NH_3$  is more discharged in the Sichuan Basin, especially in the surrounding areas of Chengdu. In addition, through the analysis of the Multiresolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC), it is 643 also found that the higher NOx,  $SO_2$  and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in Sichuan Basin are mainly concentrated in Sichuan Basin, as shown in Fig. S20. It can also be seen that NOx is 645 mainly concentrated in more-developed Chengdu and Chongqing,  $SO_2$  emissions are obvious in Chengdu and Western Chongqing, NH3 emissions are widely distributed, and there are higher emission characteristics in Chengdu and its surrounding areas. Therefore, according to the analysis of pollution emissions and PSCF in Chengdu, it is necessary to strengthen regional air pollution control and take regional joint prevention and control measures to reduce the impact of air pollutant regional transport.



651

652 Fig. 9. PSCF (potential source contribution function) of NOx,  $SO_2$  and NH<sub>3</sub> in Chengdu 653 from 2015 to 2017.

# 654 **4 Conclusions**

655 The three-year observation experiment with hourly resolution of NSA from January 1, 656 2015 to December 31, 2017 was carried out in Chengdu in southwest China, which is 657 in the Sichuan Basin. The pollution characteristics of NSA's annual, monthly, seasonal, 658 diurnal and weekly variations were demonstrated. The characteristics of chemical 659 conversion and the sensitivity of emission reduction control were analysed. Finally, 660 combined with meteorological parameters and PSCF simulation, the local emission and 661 regional transport characteristics of NSA gaseous precursors were also illustrated. The 662 main conclusions were as follows:

663 (1) With the increase in PM2.5 concentration, the NSA mass concentration increased,

664 accounting for 31.45-37.78% of PM2.5, and the contribution of NSA was higher than

- 665 that of carbon aerosol (OM and EC). From 2015 to 2017, the contribution of  $NO<sub>3</sub>$  to
- 666 PM2.5 increased, and in 2017, it became the main contribution component of NSA, and

667 it plays an important role in the concentration accumulation of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Higher and lower NSA concentrations were seen in winter and summer, respectively, and higher concentrations were seen more during the day than at night. Although the NSA concentration on weekdays was slightly higher than that on weekends, the mean difference between them was nonsignificant.

672 (2) With the increase in  $PM<sub>2.5</sub>$  concentration, there is an increasing trend of NOR and 673 SOR, which indicates that the formation of  $NO_3$  and  $SO_4^2$  increases obviously, and the 674 increase in RH will promote the formation of  $NO_3$  and  $SO_4^2$ . Using the ISORROPIA- II thermodynamic equilibrium model, it is found that NSA in aerosols is more likely to combine with AWC, which indicates that the aqueous environment of aerosols plays an important role in promoting the formation of NSA. The analysis of the interaction 678 between NSA also confirmed that  $NH_4^+$  will first combine with  $SO_4^2$  to form (NH<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and the remaining NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> will combine with NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> to form NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>. The 680 sensitivity analysis of NSA concentration shows that reducing NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub> is beneficial to reducing NSA contribution in PM2.5, but their changes also have an important impact on the pH of aerosols.

 (3) Local emissions and regional transport of NSA gaseous precursors have an important impact on air pollution in Chengdu. When pollution is aggravated, the 685 contributions of NOx and  $SO<sub>2</sub>$  to local emissions are relatively obvious. In addition to 686 the local emission of  $NH<sub>3</sub>$ , the contribution of pollution sources around Chengdu is also relatively obvious. PSCF analysis shows that the potential sources of pollution transmission in Chengdu are mainly distributed in Sichuan Province, and the most prominent contribution is made in Sichuan Basin, especially among the cities around Chengdu. The analysis of local emissions and regional transport shows that it is necessary to implement joint prevention and control of air pollution in the Sichuan Basin.

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## **Data availability**

The data are available on request to the corresponding author.

## **Author contribution**

- XL, QT and LK designed and led this study. QT and MF were responsible for the
- observations. LK, MF, YL, YZ, CZ, and CL analysed the data. LK, YQ, JA, NC, YD,
- RZ and ZW discussed the results. LK and XL wrote the paper. All authors commented
- on the paper.

# **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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