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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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17 Abstract

18 Nitrate, sulfate and ammonium (NSA) are the main secondary inorganic aerosols of PM_{2.5} and play an important role in air pollution. In this study, a three-year 19 20 observational experiment was conducted from January 1, 2015, to December 31, 2017, 21 in Chengdu, southwest China. NSA pollution characteristics, chemical conversion 22 generation, emission reduction control sensitivity and pollutant regional transport 23 characteristics were analysed. NSA are the most important chemical compositions of 24 particles with aerodynamic equivalent diameter $\leq 2.5 \ \mu m$ in ambient air (PM_{2.5}), and 25 the contribution of nitrate to the accumulation of PM2.5 concentration is greater than 26 that of sulfate and ammonium. NSA also have obvious characteristics of annual, 27 monthly, seasonal, diurnal and weekly variations. Through observation data and model 28 simulation, it was also found that the existence of an aerosol aqueous environment plays

29 an important role in the formation and existence of NSA. Sensitivity analysis between NSAs found that controlling NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} play an important role in reducing the 30 contribution of NSA to PM_{2.5}, which also implies that the current control of NOx and 31 32 SO₂ is important for improving air pollution. Combined with meteorological conditions 33 and potential source contribution function (PSCF) analysis, local emissions and 34 regional emissions of pollutants are found to have important impacts on Chengdu's 35 atmospheric environment. This research result not only provides an assessment of the 36 current atmospheric emission reduction effect but also provides an important reference 37 for atmospheric pollution control.

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

40 **1 Introduction**

41 In recent years, with the rapid development of China's domestic economy and 42 acceleration of urbanization, energy consumption and pollutant emissions have also 43 increased, which increases the burden on the atmospheric environment, and severe air 44 pollution has become a focus of social concern (Liu et al., 2013a;An et al., 2019;Fu et 45 al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2017). When air pollution forms, mass concentrations of particles 46 with aerodynamic equivalent diameter $\leq 2.5 \ \mu m$ in ambient air (PM_{2.5}, also known as 47 fine particles) can reach a higher pollution level, which not only reduces atmospheric 48 visibility but also carries a large number of toxic species into the human lungs, 49 increasing the risks of cardiovascular and cerebrovascular diseases (Chang et al., 50 2018; Tie et al., 2009; Kong et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2015a). Nitrate, 51 sulfate, ammonium, organic matter and elemental carbon are the main compositions of 52 PM_{2.5}, among which nitrate, sulfate and ammonium (NSA) are the main secondary 53 inorganic aerosols in PM_{2.5} (Ji et al., 2019;Zheng et al., 2016). NSA mainly originates 54 from the secondary aerosols produced by complex chemical reactions of NOx, SO₂ and 55 NH₃ from coal combustion, vehicle exhaust emissions and agricultural sources (Liu et 56 al., 2013b; Wang et al., 2016; Tian et al., 2017).

57 Because China's current main energy resource is still fossil fuels, which are widely used 58 in industry, for vehicles and residentially, the emission reduction space of NSA is still 59 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 NO₂, SO₂ and NH₃ to form NSA is 61 still very complex, and both homogeneous and heterogeneous reactions involve the 62 chemical conversion of secondary inorganic aerosols, such as photochemical reactions, 63 aqueous phase oxidation environments of aerosols and catalysis of mineral dust (Cheng 64 et al., 2016;Sun et al., 2014;Wang et al., 2016;Ohta and Okita, 1990;He et al., 2014). 65 The formation of sulfate can increase the acidity of aerosols (Sun et al., 2014). In 66 contrast, the presence of NH₃ can play a role in neutralization and maintain the acid-67 base balance of aerosols (Wang et al., 2016). If improper control measures are taken in 68 pollution reduction control, such as further ammonia emission reduction, the acidification of aerosols and environmental problems of acid rain may be aggravated 69 70 (Liu et al., 2019c). In addition to the air pollution caused by the local emission of 71 pollutants, the regional transportation of pollutants from its surrounding cities also has 72 an important impact on the urban air quality. Determination of regional transport 73 sources of pollutants, taking regional joint prevention and control measures, and jointly 74 reducing the emissions of pollutants will enable better air control effects, particularly 75 in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region of northern China (Chen et al., 2019a).

76 Higher concentrations of NSA in PM2.5 were also found in regions with more serious 77 air pollution in China, such as Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei, the Yangtze River Delta, the Pearl 78 River Delta, the Fenwei Plain, and the Chengdu-Chongqing region (An et al., 2019;Li 79 et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2019d). In response to this situation, the Chinese government 80 issued an Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (2013-2017) in 2013 to 81 reduce pollutant emissions and improve air quality (the Sate Council, 2013, last access: 82 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, 83 84 China's ambient air quality control measures had achieved good results (Liu et al.,

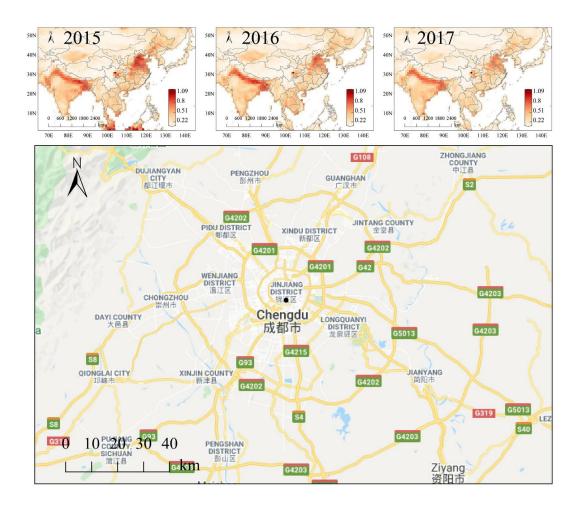
85 2019a;Chen et al., 2019b;Cheng et al., 2019;Li et al., 2019a). In Beijing, PM_{2.5}, NO₂ 86 and SO₂ decreased by 35.2%, 17.9% and 69.8%, respectively, in 2017 compared with 87 2013 (Beijing Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau, 2018, last access: June 17, 88 2020). In Chengdu, PM_{2.5}, NO₂ and SO₂ decreased by 42.3%, 15.9% and 64.5%, 89 respectively, in 2017 compared with 2013 (Chengdu Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau, 2018, last access: June 17, 2020). To continue to promote air 90 91 quality improvement, the Chinese government launched the "Three-Year Action Plan 92 for Winning the Blue Sky Defense Battle" in 2018, which puts forward stricter 93 requirements on how to further promote the implementation of emission reduction 94 plans (the Sate Council, 2018, last access: June 17, 2020). Through long-term 95 observations, a comprehensive analysis of PM_{2.5} chemical compositions and source 96 characteristics is carried out to verify the current implementation effects of emission 97 reduction, and in-depth analyses of pollution reduction control characteristics are of 98 great significance for the next step in air pollution control. However, these analyses 99 may be affected by the experimental equipment, observation stations and other 100 conditions, and the time span of these atmospheric observations usually includes 101 several pollution processes or lasts for weeks or months. Thus, it is difficult to analyse 102 the long-term variations in characteristics of air pollution through comprehensive 103 observation. In particular, there are few high-time-resolution (1 hour) observation 104 experiments carried out with online automatic observation systems (Sun et al., 2013;Tie 105 et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2014). Especially in the Sichuan Basin of southwest China, there 106 are few long-term observational experiments on NSA, which are the main chemical 107 compositions of PM_{2.5}.

108 The Sichuan Basin is among the most important areas of air pollution in China (Qiao 109 et al., 2019;Gui et al., 2019;Zhong et al., 2019). Although there are many studies in this 110 area, there are few long-term studies of the hourly concentration data resolution of 111 $PM_{2.5}$ 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 113 NSA, as well as their formation mechanism and pollution control sensitivity. Finally, 114 combined with local emissions and regional transport characteristics, we analysed the 115 air pollution transport characteristics of Chengdu air pollution.

116 **2** Experiment and methods

117 **2.1 Observation site**

118 Comprehensive observations were carried out at the Chengdu comprehensive 119 observation station of atmospheric combined pollution (30.63°N, 104.08°E). The 120 observation equipment was placed on the top of a building, approximately 25 m from 121 the ground, and there was no obvious pollution source within approximately 200 m. 122 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 124 observation station. This is a typical residential, traffic and commercial mixed area that 125 represents the characteristics of the urban atmospheric environment. Chengdu is also a 126 megacity in the Sichuan Basin of southwest China, as well as an important part of the 127 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 128 129 (AOD).



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

136 **2.2 Instruments**

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

142 Table 1. The experimental instruments used in this study

Instruments	Parameters	Manufacturer/Country	
URG-9000	$NO_3^{-}/SO_4^{2-}/NH_4^{+}/Na^{+}/Mg^{2+}/Ca^{2+}/Cl^{-}/K^{+}$	Thermo Fisher Scientific/USA	
SHARP 5030	PM _{2.5}	Thermo Fisher Scientific/USA	
RT-4	OC/EC	Sunset Laboratory/USA	
Xact-625	Metal elements	Cooper Environmental Services /USA	
17i/450i/48i/49i	NOx/NO ₂ /NO/NH ₃ /SO ₂ /CO/O ₃	Thermo Fisher Scientific/USA	
WXT520	Meteorological parameters	VAISALA/Germany	

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 conversions of NO₂ and SO₂ to NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻, respectively (Sun et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2015a). These ratios can be calculated using Eq. (1) and Eq. (2):

$$148 \quad \text{NOR}=n\text{NO}_3/(n\text{NO}_3+n\text{NO}_2) \tag{1}$$

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

150 where n is the molar concentration.

151 The ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic model was used to analyse the variation in interaction characteristics among aerosol chemical compositions (Fountoukis and 152 153 Nenes, 2007; Guo et al., 2017a; Ding et al., 2019). Temperature (T), relative humidity (RH) and the concentrations of Na⁺, SO₄²⁻, NH₃, NO₃⁻, Cl⁻, Ca²⁺, K⁺ and Mg²⁺ were 154 155 input into the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model. In this study, we used 156 the "forward problems" mode to run the model, assuming that the aerosols were in a 157 "metastable" state (salts do not precipitate under supersaturated conditions). At the time 158 of data input, NH₃ data were the sum of NH₃ and NH₄⁺. Previous studies had shown 159 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 160 maintains the RH at higher than 40% when data are input (Ding et al., 2019;Guo et al., 161 162 2016). The simulated data and observed data were compared and analysed, and the 163 observation data of NH₃ were consistent with the input data of the model. The linear 164 regression fitting slope of NH₃ was 0.96 (R^2 =0.98), which showed that the run result of 165 the model had good reliability and performance (Ding et al., 2019). Simultaneously, the 166 aerosol water content (AWC) was calculated, and the sensitivity of the interaction 167 between aerosol chemical compositions (NSA) and the pH of aerosols was analysed 168 (Ding et al., 2019;Fountoukis et al., 2009). The pH was calculated using Eq. (3):

169
$$pH = -\log_{10}H_{aq}^{+} \cong -\log_{10}\frac{1000H_{air}^{+}}{AWC}$$
 (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 ($\mu g/m^3$) 172 outputs from the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model (Ding et al., 173 2019;Guo et al., 2017a).

174 **2.4 CPF and PSCF methods**

175 We used the conditional probability function (CPF) to analyse the characteristics of 176 pollutants under the influence of wind direction (WD) and wind speed (WS). The 177 analysis results using CPF were obtained using the R programming language, named openair. This function can be defined as CPF= $m_{\theta,i}/n_{\theta,i}$, where $m_{\theta,i}$ is the number of 178 179 samples in the WD interval θ 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-181 WS interval (Uria-Tellaetxe and Carslaw, 2014). Usually, a higher given 'high' 182 pollution concentration (percentile) is chosen, such as the 90th percentile, which will 183 mask the lower percentile pollution concentration source contributions. In this work, to 184 obtain a more complete contribution of pollution sources, a range of percentile values, 185 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 longdistance regional transport of pollutants (Ji et al., 2019). In this study, MeteoInfoMap and TrajStat (Wang et al., 2009) were used, and the model simulation data input model was provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (National

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191 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, 2019, last access: June 17, 2020); these data 192 were calculated to the 24-hour backward trajectories at the observation site at a height 193 of 500 m every 1 hour from January 1, 2015, to December 31, 2017 (UTC+8). The 194 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
$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1.0 (N_{ij} \ge 3N_{ave}) \\ 0.7 (3N_{ave} > N_{ij} \ge 1.5N_{ave}) \\ 0.4 (1.5N_{ave} > N_{ij} \ge N_{ave}) \\ 0.2 (N_{ave} > N_{ij}) \end{cases}$$
(5)

198 where PSCF_{ij} is the value for the ijth grid cell and M_{ij} 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_{ii} is the number of backward trajectory endpoints in the ijth 202 grid cell $(0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ})$ 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_{ij} , the empirical weight function W_{ij} was introduced in Eq. (5), 206 where N_{ave} is the average of N_{ij} 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**

The annual average mass concentration of NSA and its proportion in $PM_{2.5}$ are shown in Table 2. The annual averages of $PM_{2.5}$ were 67.78, 71.88 and 59.68 $\mu g/m^3$, corresponding to 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively. However, the pollution of $PM_{2.5}$ in Chengdu was much higher than the annual secondary guideline value (35 $\mu g/m^3$, Ambient air quality standards/GB3095-2012) and the World Health Organization annual guideline value (10 $\mu g/m^3$). The same $PM_{2.5}$ pollution problem was also a serious problem in Beijing and Nanjing (Ji et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2019). The annual 217 average mass concentration of NSA also changed significantly, and the difference was 218 large. The Mann-Whitney U test showed that the variation in NO₃⁻ was nonsignificant 219 (p > 0.05), and SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ had obvious significance from 2015 to 2017 (p < 0.05), 220 indicating that NO3⁻ had not decreased significantly, and there was an increase in 2017 compared to 2015. SO₄²⁻ continued to decline, and NH₄⁺ was also lower in 2017 than 221 in 2016. Notably, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ decreased significantly in 2017 compared with 2015, 222 223 but the variation in NO3⁻ was nonsignificant. Meanwhile, the annual averages of NO3⁻ /SO4²⁻ were 0.95, 1.02 and 1.45 for 2015, 2016 and 2017, respectively, indicating that 224 225 the contribution of NOx emissions sources to PM2.5 was increased compared with that 226 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 NO₂ in Chengdu were obviously higher than those 228 of SO₂, but PM_{2.5}, NO₂ and SO₂ all decreased due to the implementation of the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan launched by the Chinese government and 229 230 a more detailed pollution control plan launched by Sichuan Province. From 2015 to 231 2017, the measures taken by Sichuan Province in the coordinated reduction of multiple 232 pollutants have been continuously strengthened, and the scope of management and 233 control has been continuously expanded, for example, in the improvement of 234 desulfurization, denitrification and dust removal technologies in key industries, from 235 accelerated improvement in 2015 to deeper improvement in 2017. The process of 236 eliminating small coal-fired boilers began in 2015 and was completed in 2017, when 237 the ultra-low-emission coal-fired power plant transformation was promoted. In terms 238 of vehicle emission control, we accelerated the elimination of "yellow label" vehicles 239 (general term for gasoline vehicles with emission levels lower than the national I 240 emission standard and diesel vehicles with emission levels lower than the national III 241 emission standard when new vehicles are finalized) and "old vehicles" (the emission 242 level does not meet the national stage IV emission standard) in 2015 and basically 243 completed the elimination of "yellow label" vehicles in 2017. The quality supervision 244 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, NOx and SO₂ decreased by 5.98% and 32.35%, respectively, in 2017, which shows that 247 248 the treatment of NOx and SO₂ emissions has achieved remarkable results, of which the SO₂ emission reduction effect is the best, followed by that of NOx. The effect of this 249 250 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).

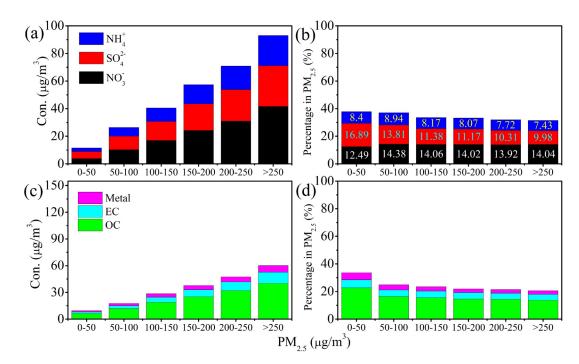
253 Table 2. Comparison of annual mass averages ($\mu g/m^3$) and proportions (%) for NSA

	PM _{2.5}	NO ₃ -	SO4 ²⁻	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	NO3 ⁻ /PM _{2.5} *	SO4 ²⁻ /PM _{2.5} *	NH4 ⁺ /PM _{2.5} *
2015	67.78	9.13	10.37	6.14	12.90	16.54	8.77
2016	71.88	9.27	8.53	6.16	12.30	13.31	8.90
2017	59.68	9.17	6.88	5.01	14.05	13.23	7.91

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

*: Average of sample proportions

255





257 Fig. 2. Variation characteristics of the NSA (nitrate, sulfate and ammonium) and other

chemical compositions with different concentrations of $PM_{2.5.}$ (a) NSA mass concentration. (b) Percentage of NSA in $PM_{2.5.}$ (c) Chemical compositions of organic carbon (OC), elemental carbon (EC), and metal elements. (d) Percentage of OC, EC and metal elements in $PM_{2.5.}$

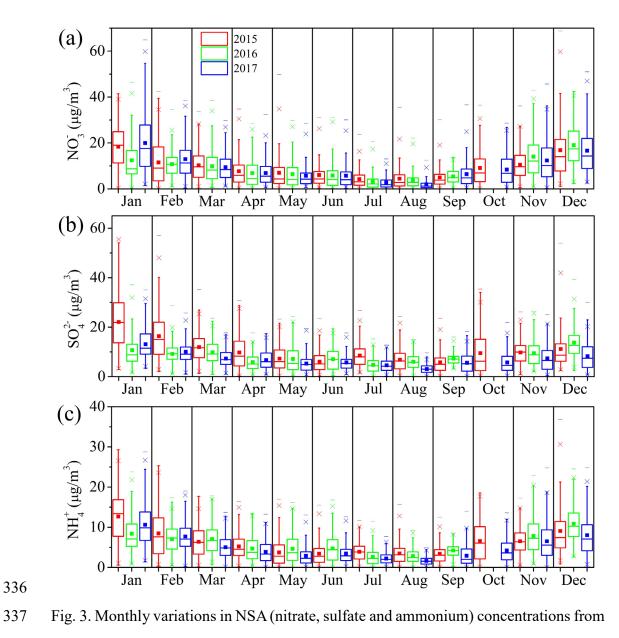
262 The chemical compositions of PM_{2.5} from 2015 to 2017 varies with concentration, as 263 shown in Fig. 2. With the accumulation of $PM_{2.5}$ in the atmosphere, the concentration 264 of NSA also increased significantly, but the proportion of NSA in PM_{2.5} decreased (Fig. 265 2a and b). The variation 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 PM2.5 270 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 that of lower PM_{2.5} concentration (Huang et al., 2014;Li et al., 2017;Geng et al., 2019). 276 When PM_{2.5} was less than 50 μ g/m³ and greater than 250 μ g/m³, the mass 277 278 concentrations of NSA were 11.57 and 90.06 μ g/m³, 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_{2.5} 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_{2.5} concentrations greater than 50 μ g/m³, 283 NO_3^- accounts for a high proportion in NSA and is stable at approximately 14%, and the proportion of SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ continues to decrease (Li et al., 2019b; Wang et al., 284 2016). When the PM_{2.5} concentration was less than 50 μ g/m³, the concentration of SO₄²⁻ 285

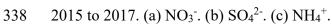
was higher than that of NO_3^- , and the concentration of NH_4^+ was lower than the NH_4^+ concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ at 50 to 100 μ g/m³, possibly due to SO_4^{2-} concentration being higher than the NO_3^- concentration, forming more chemically stable (NH_4)₂SO₄ (Guo et al., 2017a). In addition, when the $PM_{2.5}$ was less than 50 μ g/m³, low RH and strong solar radiation were also important ways to generate sulfate (Yao et al., 2018).

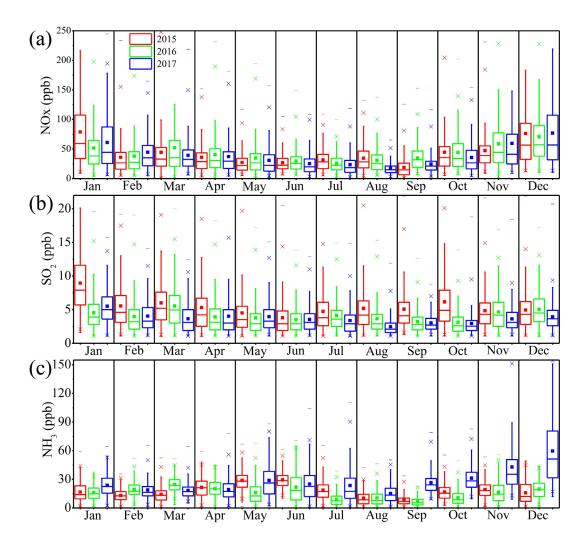
3.2 Monthly and seasonal variations

292 The monthly variation characteristics of NSA from 2015 to 2017 are shown in Fig. 3. 293 At the beginning and end of each year, the pollutant concentration is relatively high and 294 relatively low in the middle of each year. The meteorological conditions also have 295 obvious monthly variation characteristics (Fig. S5 a and b); from April to August, they 296 have higher WS and lower RH, which is not only conducive to the dilution and diffusion 297 of pollutants but also reduces the chemical conversions of pollutants by aqueous phase 298 and influences the formation of secondary inorganic aerosols (Wang et al., 2016; Ji et 299 al., 2019). Overall, the concentrations are higher in January and December and lower in July and August. The highest monthly average NO_3^- reached 19.98 μ g/m³ in January 300 2017, and the highest monthly average SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ were 22.08 µg/m³ and 12.66 301 $\mu g/m^3$ in January 2015, respectively. The lowest concentrations of NSA appeared in 302 August 2017, which were 1.96, 3.07 and 1.62 μ g/m³. The gaseous precursors of NSA 303 304 also have obvious monthly variations, and the NOx and SO₂ trends were similar to those of NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ (Fig. 3 and 4). NH₃ emissions were significantly different, with 305 306 increases in warmer months (April-July) and colder months (September-December). 307 On the one hand, NH₃ volatilization was promoted by relatively high Ts (Fig. S5c); on 308 the other hand, the use of agricultural fertilizers and livestock farming were also 309 important sources of NH₃ in China. Second, from urban region, fossil fuel combustion 310 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 311 312 with 2015 and 2016, especially during low-T months (Fig. 4c). The results of an 313 analysis of the monthly concentration variation of pollutants indicate that the 314 implementation of pollution reduction and control measures should be strengthened at 315 the beginning of each year (January to March) and the end of the year (October to 316 December).

317 The seasonal variation in NSA is shown in Fig. S6, and the concentration in winter was 318 much higher than that in summer. NO_3^- only declined in spring and summer from 2015 319 to 2017, with an increase in autumn and winter (Fig. S6a). Seasonal variations in NH₄⁺ 320 were similar to those of NO₃⁻, with higher concentrations in winter and the lowest in 321 summer (Fig. S6c). This may be because higher Ts and WSs can not only promote the 322 decomposition of NH₄NO₃ in summer but also promote the dilution and diffusion of 323 pollutant concentrations (Guo et al., 2017a;An et al., 2019). There is a significant downward trend in SO42-, which continues to decrease in spring, summer and winter 324 from 2015 to 2017 (Fig. S6b). In autumn, the concentration was the highest in 2016, 325 326 and it was significantly lower in 2017 than in 2015 and 2016. The variation amplitude 327 of NSA and gaseous pollutants in cold months was significantly higher than that in 328 warm months (Figs. 3, 4 and S6). This higher variation amplitude may be due to the 329 differences in pollutant accumulation and scavenging processes. This finding also 330 indicates that the instability of local pollutant emissions and regional transport during 331 cold months was affected by meteorological conditions (Li et al., 2017; Ji et al., 2018). 332 The large variation amplitude of pollutants in different months, similar to the changes 333 in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region of northern China and Chengdu, are due to the 334 accumulation and removal of pollution by meteorological conditions and pollutant 335 emissions (Ji et al., 2019;Qin et al., 2019;Zhang et al., 2019a).







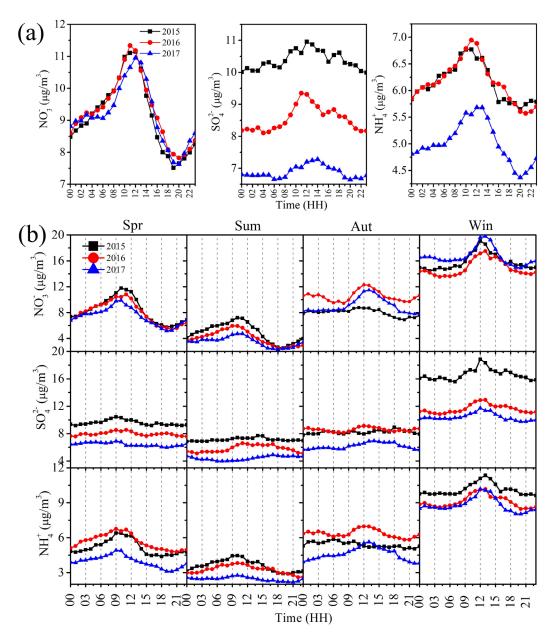
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Fig. 4. Monthly variations in NOx, SO₂ and NH₃ concentrations from 2015 to 2017. (a)
NOx. (b) SO₂. (c) NH₃.

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. As shown in Fig. S7, from 9:00 to 11:00 a.m., the concentrations of SO₂, NOx, NH₃ 346 347 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 high atmospheric humidity (approximately 65%), and O₃ and NO₂/NO also 349 350 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 352 the formation of secondary aerosols and promotes the accumulation of NSA (Cheng et 353 al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016; Sun et al., 2014). In addition, before 10 o'clock, relatively 354 low WS will enable easy pollutant concentration accumulation. In contrast, the higher 355 WS in the afternoon may be the main factor for the decrease in pollutant concentration 356 (Figs. 5 and S8). Photochemical reactions may also be one of the factors in the 357 formation of NSA, and the concentration of O₃ peaks at approximately 15:00, which 358 may be affected by the free radicals generated by photochemistry. At approximately 359 19:00, the ratio of NO_2/NO reached its highest value, and the concentration of NO_2 also 360 increased significantly (Song et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2019). At night, with the increase 361 in RH (Fig. S8), dissolved ozone, free radicals, hydrogen peroxide and NO₂ can catalyse SO₂ to form secondary aerosols through an aqueous phase reaction (Zhang et al., 362 363 2015; An et al., 2019). The seasonal diurnal variation in NSA is shown in Fig. 5b. The 364 concentration of NSA in winter was obviously higher than that in summer, and the 365 diurnal variation range was larger. The concentrations in spring and autumn were closer, 366 but the diurnal variation in spring was larger than that in autumn. The larger diurnal 367 variation range not only indicates serious pollution but also indicates the importance of 368 other factors affecting air quality, such as meteorological conditions and secondary 369 aerosol conversion conditions (Ji et al., 2019; Yang et al., 2015b). The peak value of the 370 NSA seasonal diurnal variation also varies in different seasons. The peak value appears 371 at approximately 13:00 in winter, approximately 10:00 in spring and summer, and 372 approximately 12:00 in autumn, possibly due to the influence of meteorological 373 conditions. In previous studies in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei and the Pearl River Delta, the 374 concentration of pollutants was affected by meteorological factors, and it was usually 375 lower in the daytime than at night. In the Yangtze River Delta, the peak usually occurs 376 in the morning, but in our study, the concentration was higher in the daytime than at 377 night (Peng et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2018; Guo et al., 2017b). In addition to the diurnal 378 variations in WS and atmospheric humidity, some studies have shown that due to the 379 unique topographical structure of the Sichuan Basin, the atmospheric circulation

between the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau and Sichuan Basin and the meteorological conditions of the Chengdu region are affected, such as the characteristics of air mass transport and typical "night rain" (more precipitation at night than in the day) under the influence of atmospheric circulation (Zhang et al., 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

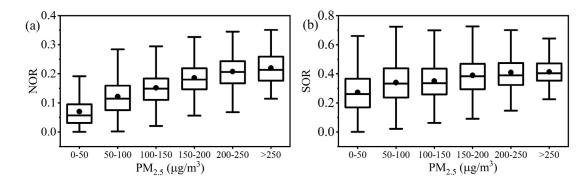
390 (Saturday and Sunday), with the highest variation being on Tuesday and the lowest 391 being on Sunday. Despite the difference in mean values between Tuesday and Sunday, 392 nonparametric tests show that the difference in mean values was nonsignificant (Mann-393 Whitney U test, P > 0.05). As shown in Fig. S9, the average trends of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ 394 were consistent from Monday to Sunday. The correlation coefficient was 0.94 (P < 0.01) 395 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 NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ concentrations from 2015 to 2017 were 9.21, 8.64 and 5.64 ug/m³ 397 on workdays and 8.56, 8.33 and 5.29 ug/m³ on weekends, respectively. The average 398 399 values of NOx, SO₂ and NH₃ 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 400 401 NSA and gaseous precursors (NOx, SO₂ and NH₃) was not significant by the Mann-402 Whitney U test on weekdays and weekends. Population standard deviation comparisons of NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻ and NH₄⁺ showed that workdays had higher standard deviations than did 403 weekends, with 7.96, 6.04 and 4.35 on weekdays and 6.76, 5.69 and 3.88 on weekends, 404 405 respectively, and it could also be seen from the Box-plot of NSA weekly variation that 406 the concentration range on working days was slightly larger than that on weekends (Fig. 407 S10). Analysis of the diurnal variation in NSA gaseous precursors on weekdays and 408 weekends shows that the variation trend is relatively consistent (Fig. S11), and the 409 concentration of NOx on weekdays will be slightly higher at the peak of 9:00 to 10:00 410 than on weekends, which may be affected by the morning rush hour of vehicles. In this 411 study, NSA and gaseous precursors are also slightly higher on weekdays than on 412 weekends, which indicates that in Chengdu's air pollution prevention and control 413 actions, the management of relevant industries and departments should be strengthened 414 on weekdays.

415 **3.4 Chemical characteristics of NSA**

416 **3.4.1** Chemical conversion characteristics of NSA

417 Fig. 6 shows the abilities of NO₂ and SO₂ to chemically convert to NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ at

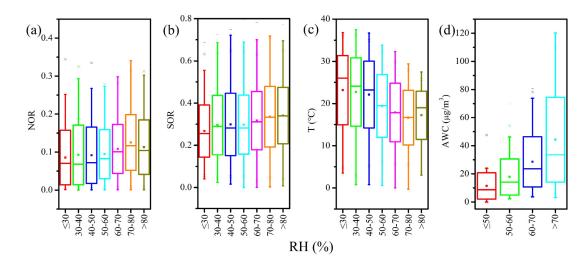
418 different PM_{2.5} concentrations. With the increase in PM_{2.5} concentration, NOR and SOR gradually increased, indicating that the formation ability of NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ increased 419 during the formation of air pollution. In this study, when the PM_{2.5} concentration was \leq 420 421 $50 \mu g/m^3$, the average NOR and SOR were 0.07 and 0.27, respectively, and when the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was greater than 250 µg/m³, the average NOR and SOR increased 422 423 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).



428

429 Fig. 6. Analysis of atmospheric chemical conversion ability at different PM_{2.5} 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 RH. NOR and SOR increased with increasing RH, suggesting that NO₂ and SO₂ were 432 more likely to produce NO3⁻ and SO4²⁻ under higher RH conditions. Previous studies 433 have shown that the presence of NH₃ and NO₂ can promote the chemical conversion of 434 SO_2 to SO_4^{2-} in the aqueous phase (Wang et al., 2016). In an aerosol aqueous phase 435 environment, alkaline aerosol (NH₃) components can promote the dissolution of SO₂ 436 and the formation of SO_4^{2-} under the oxidation of NO₂ (Cheng et al., 2016). Especially 437 when the atmosphere is polluted, the formation of SO_4^{2-} by SO_2 through the aqueous 438 phase environment can contribute most of the SO_4^{2-} (Sun et al., 2013). When the RH is 439 440 greater than 80%, the NOR appears to decline, possibly because HNO₃ is semivolatile,

441 and the T increases at this time (Fig. 7 c), which is not conducive to the condensation 442 of gaseous HNO₃ to particulate matter, which affects the amount of NO_3^- in $PM_{2.5}$ (Guo 443 et al., 2017a). According to the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model 444 simulation, AWC also increases with RH (Fig. 7 d), and the increase in AWC can 445 provide a liquid environment for aerosols, which is conducive to the dissolution and 446 conversion of gaseous precursors of NO₂, SO₂ and NH₃ and promotes the formation of more NSA. The Pearson's correlation coefficients of RH and NOR and SOR were 0.12 447 448 and 0.16 (p<0.01), and the AWC and NOR and SOR were 0.73 and 0.37 (p<0.01), 449 respectively, showing a significant positive correlation, indicating that the increase in 450 AWC may be beneficial to the conversion of NO₂ and SO₂ to NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻. As shown 451 in Fig. S12, the simulated values of NSA (metastable state, liquid phase components) 452 are compared with the observed data. The linear regression fitting slope is 453 approximately 1 (p<0.01), indicating that the effect of the liquid phase environment in 454 PM_{2.5} is obvious; in addition, stable state simulation is also performed, and the linear 455 regression fitting slopes of the NSA liquid phase state data output from the model and 456 the observation data are 0.73, 0.63 and 0.74, and the Pearson's correlations are 0.82, 457 0.71 and 0.80 (p<0.01), indicating that they are more often combined with AWC in the 458 aerosol aqueous phase environment at a stable state. Previous studies have also 459 confirmed that the aqueous phase environment of aerosols plays an important role in the formation of secondary inorganic aerosols (Wang et al., 2016; Cheng et al., 2016). 460



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**

The molar ratio analysis of NSA shown in Fig. 8 was used to analyse the chemical 466 relationships among NSA. (NH₄)₂SO₄ and NH₄NO₃ are mainly composed of NH₄⁺, 467 SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ in particulate matter (Malm and Hand, 2007;Meier et al., 2009). 468 Because (NH₄)₂SO₄ has better stability than NH₄NO₃, NH₄⁺ will first combine with 469 SO_4^{2-} and then with NO_3^{-} (Liu et al., 2012). The annual average molar ratio of NH_4^+ to 470 $2*SO_4^{2-}$ was more than 1, which indicates that SO_4^{2-} can be completely neutralized by 471 NH_4^+ (Fig. 8a). The molar ratios of residual NH_4^+ (NH_4^+ - 2*SO₄²⁻) to NO_3^- were 0.85, 472 473 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 increase in NH_4^+ in aerosol compared with SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- , especially in 2017, with a 475 ratio of 1.04, indicating the presence of other forms of NH₄⁺, such as NH₄Cl and 476 $(NH_4)_2C_2O_4$ (Sun et al., 2006). Seasonal variations in NH_4^+ , SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^{-} are shown 477 478 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 shows that the proportion of NH_4^+ relative to NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} in $PM_{2.5}$ has increased. 480 Therefore, while currently controlling NOx and SO₂ emissions, it is also necessary to 481 482 strengthen NH₃ emissions control.

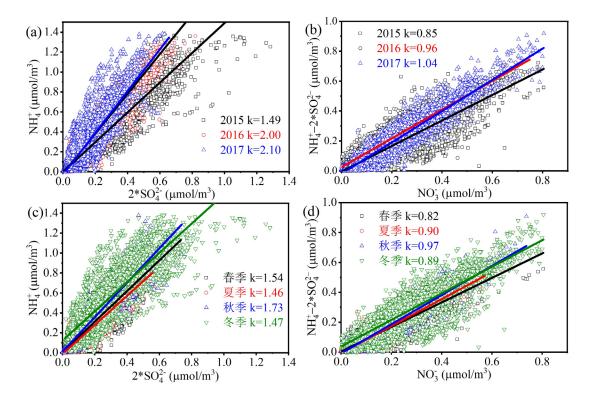


Fig. 8. Molar ratio analysis of NSA (nitrate, sulfate and ammonium). (a) Interannual variation in the molar ratio of SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ . (b) Interannual variation in the molar ratio of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ . (c) Seasonal variation in the molar ratio of SO_4^{2-} and NH_4^+ . (d) Seasonal variation in the molar ratio of NO_3^- and NH_4^+ . k: Fitting slope of linear regression.

483

Table 3 shows the sensitivity analysis of the concentration variations in SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^{-} and 489 NH4⁺. ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model sensitivity analysis is 490 491 described in detail in the Supplementary Materials. The coefficient of variance 492 represents the response of the species to variations in other components. The coefficients of variance for NH_4^+ and NO_3^- produced by SO_4^{2-} changes were 52.22 and 493 1.70, respectively. Similarly, the coefficients of variance for NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} produced 494 by NO₃⁻ changes were 51.42 and 0.0005, respectively. The large coefficient of variance 495 for NH_4^+ indicates that the changes in NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} can affect the presence of NH_4^+ , 496 497 which also indicates that NH₄NO₃ and (NH₄)₂SO₄ were the main states of NH₄⁺ (Liu et al., 2012). The coefficients of variance for SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ produced by TNH₃ 498 499 $(NH_3+NH_4^+)$ changes were 0.47 and 15.76, respectively, and the effect of TNH₃ on

- 500 SO_4^{2-} was less than that of NO_3^{-} , which indicates that NH_4^+ was excessive to SO_4^{2-} and
- 501 that NH_4^+ first combines with SO_4^{2-} to form stable (NH₄)₂SO₄, and the remaining NH_4^+
- 502 and NO_3^- will combine to form NH_4NO_3 .

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

504 variations during the different observation periods.

Period	Variation	Coefficients of variance			
		NO ₃ -	$\mathrm{NH_4}^+$	SO4 ²⁻	
	NO ₃ -		51.42	0.0005	
2015-2017	TNH ₃	15.76		0.47	
	SO4 ²⁻	1.70	52.22		

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

Variation TNH₃: NH₃+NH₄⁺ (μ g/m³);

Variation $SO_4{}^2\mbox{-}$ and $NO_3{}^-\mbox{-}$ units: $\mu g/m^3$

Through the implementation of the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan, 505 the reduction in SO₄²⁻ in PM_{2.5} has achieved good results. Therefore, while continuing 506 507 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 NO₃⁻ and NH4⁺ emissions. To further improve air quality, the Chinese government launched a 509 "Three-Year Action Plan for Winning the Blue Sky Defense Battle" in 2018 and 510 511 proposed emission reduction targets for NOx and SO₂ emissions, which will be 15% 512 lower in 2020 than in 2015 (the Sate Council, 2018, last access: June 17, 2020). The results of using the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model to simulate NO₃, 513 SO42- and TNH3 emission reduction control effects of 5%, 10%, 15% and 20%, 514 respectively, are shown in Table S3, showing that controlling the concentration of NO₃⁻ 515 and SO_4^{2-} is also helpful to reduce the concentration of NH_4^+ and indicating that 516 517 controlling its precursor NOx and SO₂ is of great significance to reduce the secondary inorganic aerosol in PM_{2.5} (the detailed results are described in the supplementary 518 materials). Previous studies have also shown that the conversion of SO_2 to SO_4^{2-} in the 519

aqueous phase not only increases the conversion of SO42- but also enhances the 520 formation of NO₃⁻ in the aqueous phase (Wang et al., 2016). Therefore, SO₂ emission 521 522 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 NH₄⁺ ((NH₄)₂SO₄) in particulate matter but also affects the formation of NH₄NO₃ by influencing the formation of NO₃⁻. NO₂ 524 and NH₃ can also promote the conversion of SO₂ to SO_4^{2-} through an aqueous phase 525 526 environment (Wang et al., 2016). Therefore, priority control of NOx and SO₂ emissions is an important way to reduce NSA in particulate matter. 527

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., 2020; Ding et al., 2019). Previous studies have also shown that SO_4^{2-} formation reduces 530 aerosol pH (Sun et al., 2014). The effects of NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} and TNH_3 on pH when using 531 the ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model to simulate pollutant 532 concentration reduction are shown in Table S3. With the decrease in NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} , 533 the pH value increases, but NO_3^- has no obvious effect on the pH value, SO_4^{2-} has an 534 obvious effect on the pH value, which indicates that the formation of SO₄²⁻ in the 535 536 aerosol can increase the acidity of the aerosol (Sun et al., 2014). The greater the 537 reduction of TNH₃, the lower the pH value is, which shows that the presence of NH₃ as an alkaline gas can alleviate some of the acidity produced by SO_4^{2-} (Cheng et al., 2016). 538 539 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, SO₂ and NH₃

emissions, it is necessary to consider the aerosol acid and alkali changes caused byemission reduction.

550 **3.5** Characteristics of local emissions and regional transport

551 **3.5.1 Local emissions**

552 The concentration of pollutants is obviously affected by meteorological conditions; for 553 example, WS and WD can affect the accumulation and removal of pollutants (Li et al., 554 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 555 556 accompanied by a lower pollutant concentration. As the WS decreased, the pollution 557 became serious, and the pollution hot spots were gradually concentrated. On the whole, 558 when the WS was usually greater than 2 m/s, the pollution was light (pollutant 559 concentration percentile was between 0-25). When WS was usually less than 1 m/s, the 560 pollution was heavy (pollutant concentration percentile was between 75-100), which 561 also reflects the distance and orientation between the emission source and the 562 observation station, indicating that when the pollution was serious, the contribution of 563 local source emissions was more prominent.

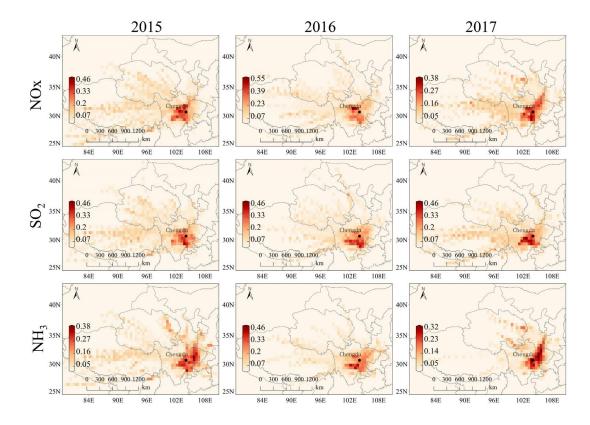
564 NO₃⁻ and NOx have similar distributions of pollution hot spots in the polar plot diagram 565 (Fig. S14), and when the concentration percentile was 0-25, the hot spots were 566 concentrated in the northeast and southeast directions and widely distributed. When the concentration percentile was 25-75, the sources of NO3⁻ and NOx were distributed west, 567 568 southwest and northeast of the observation site, and there were important contribution 569 sources in the northwest direction (WS was approximately 3-4 m/s) in 2017. When the 570 WS was approximately 1-2 m/s and the concentration percentile was 50-75, the 571 important NOx source was in the northwest direction. When the accumulation of 572 pollution concentration was high (concentration percentile was 75-100), the NO₃⁻ 573 source was mainly concentrated in the east and southeast of the observation site, and 574 NOx was distributed in the south and southeast, with WSs of less than 1 m/s. 575 Additionally, the distribution of pollution hot spots was relatively wide in 2016 (the

576 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 577 reasons for the relatively high concentration. The SO₄²⁻ and SO₂ pollution sources 578 579 affected by meteorological conditions also have similar distribution characteristics (Fig. S15). At a higher concentration of pollutants, the pollution hot spots of SO_4^{2-} were 580 distributed in the east and southeast of the observation site, and SO₂ was distributed in 581 582 the northeast, southeast and west. Compared with 2017 and 2016, the distribution of 583 SO₂ pollution sources in 2016 was also more extensive, mainly in the west and northeast. 584 The NH₃ emissions were slightly different from those of NOx and SO₂ (Fig. S16). 585 Under conditions of high pollution concentration (concentration percentile was 75-100), 586 the pollution hot spots were distributed in the west in 2015 (WS was approximately 2-587 3 m/s), in the north in 2016 (WS was approximately 1 and 3 m/s), and in the near 588 distance in 2017 (WS was approximately 0.5 m/s). The higher pollution concentration 589 was accompanied by a relatively higher WS (2015 and 2016), which indicates that the 590 NH₃ emission transport in the surrounding area was more obvious, which may come 591 from the surrounding agricultural source distribution area (Liu et al., 2019b;Liu et al., 592 2013b). The annual mean value of NH₃ emissions in 2017 was 27.91 ppb, which is 593 significantly higher than those in 2015 and 2016 at 17.93 ppb and 16.55 ppb, 594 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 595 596 percentile period, there was an obvious source northwest of the observation site, with a 597 WS of approximately 4 m/s. During the 75-100 concentration percentile periods, the 598 pollution sources were mainly local. This shows that in 2017, in addition to the pollution 599 sources being distributed in the east and northwest, the higher NH₃ emissions were also 600 contributed by the surrounding emission sources northwest of Chengdu.

601 **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, SO₂ (approximately 9.6 d) and NOx (approximately 1 605 d) are also very different (Guo et al., 2014), and the research also shows that NH₃ is 606 significantly contributed by local source emissions (Walker et al., 2004). Therefore, we 607 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, SO₂ and 609 NH₃, with significant differences in their potential source distributions. The higher 610 PSCF value of NOx was mainly distributed west, northwest and southwest of Chengdu 611 in 2015, northwest and south of Chengdu in 2016, and south, west and northeast of 612 Chengdu in 2017. The PSCF of NO₂ and NO (Fig. S17) also reflects that their potential 613 sources are mainly influenced by the interior of Sichuan Province, especially in the 614 cities around Chengdu. Chengdu is located along the western margin of the Sichuan 615 Basin, and it was also observed through satellite remote sensing data that the higher 616 NO₂ emissions in the Sichuan Basin were distributed in Chengdu and Chongqing (Fig. 617 S18a). The SO₂ emissions were widely distributed, mainly in the Sichuan Basin. Among 618 them, Leshan city and Meishan city south of Chengdu had higher SO₂ emissions, and 619 another higher emission source was distributed in Chongqing (Fig. S18b). The PSCF 620 analysis of SO₂ showed that the higher PSCF values were distributed in southern, 621 western and southwestern Chengdu. Therefore, a comparison of Figs. 9 and S18b shows 622 that the main source of SO₂ may be distributed in the southern, western and 623 southwestern margin region of the Sichuan Basin. In particular, Leshan, Ya'an and 624 Meishan were important potential sources. As shown in the PSCF analysis of NH₃ in 625 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 NH₃ was 627 mainly distributed in the southwest and northeast of Chengdu, with higher PSCF in 628 Nanchong and other regions. In the southwest, it was concentrated in Ya'an, Meishan 629 and Leshan. In 2016, potential sources were mainly distributed in the southwest of Ya'an, 630 Meishan, Leshan and the southern part of the Ganzi Tibetan Autonomous Prefecture. 631 There were two characteristics of potential sources in 2017. A relatively light source

632 was relatively close to Chengdu, and the high PSCF was in Chengdu, which can be 633 considered the contribution of local emissions. The other contribution is obvious as a 634 long-distance potential source contribution, mainly in some cities in the northeast, 635 Nanchong, Guangyuan and Mianyang, and to a certain extent at the junction of Shaanxi, 636 Gansu and Sichuan. In 2017, in addition to the contribution of local emissions, the 637 contribution of regional transport in the northeast may also be an important reason for 638 the higher NH₃ concentration. Fig. S19 shows satellite remote sensing data of NH₃. 639 Overall, the higher NH₃ column concentration is distributed in the Sichuan Basin, 640 mainly concentrated in the region near Chengdu, showing that NH₃ is more discharged 641 in the Sichuan Basin, especially in the surrounding areas of Chengdu. In addition, 642 through the analysis of the Multiresolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC), it is 643 also found that the higher NOx, SO₂ and NH₃ emissions in Sichuan Basin are mainly 644 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, SO₂ emissions are 646 obvious in Chengdu and Western Chongqing, NH₃ emissions are widely distributed, and there are higher emission characteristics in Chengdu and its surrounding areas. 647 648 Therefore, according to the analysis of pollution emissions and PSCF in Chengdu, it is 649 necessary to strengthen regional air pollution control and take regional joint prevention 650 and control measures to reduce the impact of air pollutant regional transport.



651

Fig. 9. PSCF (potential source contribution function) of NOx, SO₂ and NH₃ in Chengdu
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 conversion and the sensitivity of emission reduction control were analysed. Finally, 659 660 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:

(1) With the increase in PM_{2.5} concentration, the NSA mass concentration increased,

accounting for 31.45-37.78% of PM_{2.5}, and the contribution of NSA was higher than

- that of carbon aerosol (OM and EC). From 2015 to 2017, the contribution of NO_3^- to
- 666 PM_{2.5} increased, and in 2017, it became the main contribution component of NSA, and

it plays an important role in the concentration accumulation of $PM_{2.5}$. 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 $PM_{2.5}$ concentration, there is an increasing trend of NOR and SOR, which indicates that the formation of NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ increases obviously, and the 673 increase in RH will promote the formation of NO3⁻ and SO4²⁻. Using the ISORROPIA-674 675 II thermodynamic equilibrium model, it is found that NSA in aerosols is more likely to 676 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 677 between NSA also confirmed that NH_4^+ will first combine with SO_4^{2-} to form 678 $(NH_4)_2SO_4$, and the remaining NH_4^+ will combine with NO_3^- to form NH_4NO_3 . The 679 680 sensitivity analysis of NSA concentration shows that reducing NOx and SO₂ is 681 beneficial to reducing NSA contribution in PM2.5, but their changes also have an 682 important impact on the pH of aerosols.

683 (3) Local emissions and regional transport of NSA gaseous precursors have an 684 important impact on air pollution in Chengdu. When pollution is aggravated, the 685 contributions of NOx and SO₂ to local emissions are relatively obvious. In addition to the local emission of NH₃, the contribution of pollution sources around Chengdu is also 686 687 relatively obvious. PSCF analysis shows that the potential sources of pollution 688 transmission in Chengdu are mainly distributed in Sichuan Province, and the most 689 prominent contribution is made in Sichuan Basin, especially among the cities around 690 Chengdu. The analysis of local emissions and regional transport shows that it is 691 necessary to implement joint prevention and control of air pollution in the Sichuan 692 Basin.

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697 **Data availability**

698 The data are available on request to the corresponding author.

699 Author contribution

- 700 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,
- 702 RZ and ZW discussed the results. LK and XL wrote the paper. All authors commented
- on the paper.

704 **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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