

1 Rapid transition in winter aerosol composition in Beijing from 2014 to 2 2017: response to clean air actions

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13 **Abstract.** The clean air actions implemented by the Chinese government in 2013 have led to significantly improved air quality in
14 Beijing. In this work, we combined the in-situ measurements of the chemical components of submicron particles (PM₁) in Beijing
15 during the winters of 2014 and 2017 and a regional chemical transport model to investigate the impact of clean air actions on
16 aerosol chemistry and quantify the relative contributions of anthropogenic emissions, meteorological conditions, and regional
17 transport to the changes in aerosol chemical composition from 2014 to 2017. We found that the average PM₁ concentration in
18 winter in Beijing decreased by 49.5% from 2014 to 2017 (from 66.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 33.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). Sulfate exhibited a much larger decline
19 than nitrate and ammonium, which led to a rapid transition from sulfate-driven to nitrate-driven aerosol pollution during the
20 wintertime. Organic aerosol (OA), especially coal combustion OA, and black carbon also showed large decreasing rates, indicating
21 the effective emission control of coal combustion and biomass burning. The decreased sulfate contribution and increased nitrate
22 fraction were highly consistent with the much faster emission reductions in sulfur dioxide (SO₂) due to phasing out coal in Beijing
23 compared to reduction in nitrogen oxides emissions estimated by bottom-up inventory. The chemical transport model simulations
24 with these emission estimates reproduced the relative changes in aerosol composition and suggested that the reduced emissions in
25 Beijing and its surrounding regions played a dominant role. The variations in meteorological conditions and regional transport
26 contributed much less to the changes in aerosol concentration and its chemical composition during 2014-2017 compared to the
27 decreasing emissions. Finally, we speculated that changes in precursor emissions possibly altered the aerosol formation
28 mechanisms based on ambient observations. The observed explosive growth of sulfate at a relative humidity (RH) greater than 50%
29 in 2014 was delayed to a higher RH of 70% in 2017, which was likely caused by the suppressed sulfate formation through
30 heterogeneous reactions due to the decrease of SO₂ emissions. Thermodynamic simulations showed that the decreased sulfate and
31 nitrate concentrations have lowered the aerosol water content, particle acidity, and ammonium particle fraction. The results in this
32 study demonstrated the response of aerosol chemistry to the stringent clean air actions and identified that the anthropogenic
33 emission reductions are a major driver, which could help to further guide air pollution control strategies in China.

34 1 Introduction

35 Beijing, the capital of China, is one of the most heavily polluted cities in the world (Lelieveld et al., 2015), and it frequently
36 experiences severe and persistent haze pollution episodes in winter (Guo et al., 2014). For example, in January 2013, the daily
37 concentration of ambient particles with an aerodynamic diameter less than 2.5 μm (PM_{2.5}) reached a record high of 569 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in
38 Beijing (Ferreri et al., 2018), which was over 20 times higher than the World Health Organization standard (25 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for daily

average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$). As a complex mixture of many different components, ambient aerosols have a range of chemical compositions and originate from various emission sources and formation processes in the atmosphere (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2012). The adverse effects of aerosols on visibility (Pui et al., 2014), climate (IPCC, 2013), and human health (Pope et al., 2009) are intrinsically related to the chemical composition of particles.

To tackle severe aerosol pollution, the Chinese State Council implemented the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (denoted as clean air actions) in September 2013, which is the most stringent pollution mitigation policy ever in China. As a consequence, China's anthropogenic emissions have declined by 59% for SO_2 , 21% for NO_x , 32% for organic carbon (OC), and 28% for black carbon (BC) during 2013-2017 (Zheng et al., 2018). The annual average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration in Beijing decreased by 35.6% from 2013 to 2017, reaching $58 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in 2017. Combining the bottom-up emission inventory and chemical transport model simulations, our recent study (Cheng et al., 2019) quantified the relative contributions of meteorological conditions, emission reductions from surrounding regions, and emission reductions from local sources to the decrease in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration in Beijing during 2013-2017. While changes in meteorological conditions partially explained air quality improvement in Beijing in 2017, local and regional emission controls played major roles. In addition, the aerosol chemical composition is expected to change correspondingly due to the rapid reductions in precursor emissions, which is not well understood yet because the chemical components of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are not measured by China's monitoring network. A few studies have examined the change in aerosol composition in Beijing after 2013, including a semicontinuous measurement of carbonaceous aerosols during 2013-2018 (Ji et al., 2019) and an aerosol mass spectrometry study comparing aerosol composition and size distribution between 2014 and 2016 (Xu et al., 2019). However, neither performed a comprehensive assessment of all the main factors affecting aerosol concentration and its composition. A deep understanding of how the aerosol composition has changed since the clean air actions were activated and the possible linkage between them is urgently needed.

The chemical composition of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ is mainly affected by the following factors: precursor emissions, meteorological conditions, atmospheric chemical reactions, and regional transport and deposition. Emissions are typically the main driver of aerosol composition changes. During 2005-2012, the sulfate concentration in China decreased, while the nitrate concentration increased, which was caused by the considerable reduction in SO_2 emissions but limited control of NO_x (Geng et al., 2017). Based on the measurements of organic aerosol (OA) composition in Beijing, a larger decrease in secondary OA than primary OA was found during the 2014 Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation summit due to the strict emission controls (Sun et al., 2016). Meteorological conditions affect aerosol composition by changing emissions, chemical reactions, and transport and deposition processes (Mu and Liao, 2014). For example, increases in relative humidity (RH) enhance the secondary formation of sulfate through heterogeneous reactions (Zheng et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016), and decreases in temperature favor particulate nitrate formation by facilitating gas-to-particle partitioning (Pye et al., 2009; Li et al., 2018). With chemical transport model simulations in China for the years 2004-2012, Mu and Liao (2014) demonstrated that due to the large variations in meteorological parameters in North China, all aerosol species showed large corresponding interannual variations. Furthermore, aerosol characteristics in Beijing are influenced by regional transport from adjacent polluted regions. Polluted air masses from the southern regions contributed more secondary inorganic aerosols (SIAs) than primary aerosols in Beijing (Zhang et al., 2014; Du et al., 2018).

Following our previous work (Cheng et al., 2019), the main objective of this study is to investigate the impact of clean air actions on changes in aerosol chemical composition from 2014 to 2017. With both the in-situ observations of aerosol species in Beijing during the winters of 2014 and 2017 and model simulations for the corresponding periods, this work provides the opportunity for a detailed evaluation of the underlying drivers. First, changes in aerosol characteristics are illustrated for inorganics and organics by comparing aerosol measurements in 2014 and 2017. Then, the relative importance of different factors in varying aerosol composition is assessed by combining direct observations and model simulations, including synoptic conditions, emission changes,

79 regional transport and formation mechanisms. Last, we show that the transition in aerosol characteristics influenced particle
80 properties, such as aerosol water content (AWC) and particle acidity, which in turn affects secondary aerosol formation.

81 **2 Experimental methods**

82 **2.1 Ambient sampling and instrumentation**

83 Online aerosol measurements were performed in urban Beijing during the winters of 2014 (from 6 December 2014 to 27 February
84 2015) and 2017 (from 11 December 2017 to 2 February 2018). The sampling site is located on the roof of a three-story building
85 on the campus of Tsinghua University (40.0° N, 116.3° E), which is surrounded by school and residential areas. No major industrial
86 sources are situated nearby. An Aerodyne Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ACSM) was deployed for the real-time chemical
87 observations of nonrefractory PM₁ (NR-PM₁), including organics, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, and chloride. A detailed description
88 of the instrument can be found in Ng et al. (2011a). The mass concentration of BC in PM₁ was measured using a multiangle
89 absorption photometer (MAAP, model 5012; Petzold and Schönlinner, 2004). In addition, the total PM_{2.5} mass was simultaneously
90 recorded with a PM-712 monitor based on the β -ray absorption method (Kimoto Electric Co., Ltd., Japan). For gaseous species,
91 the mixing ratios of SO₂, NO_x, CO, and O₃ were monitored by a suite of commercial gas analyzers (Thermo Scientific). The
92 meteorological parameters, including temperature, RH, wind speed (WS), and wind direction (WD), were obtained from an
93 automatic meteorological observation instrument (MILOS520, VAISALA Inc., Finland).

94 **2.2 ACSM data analysis**

95 The ACSM data were analyzed using the standard analysis software within Igor Pro (WaveMetrics, Inc., Oregon USA). Default
96 relative ionization efficiencies (RIEs) were applied to organics (1.4), nitrate (1.1), and chloride (1.3), while the RIEs of ammonium
97 and sulfate were experimentally determined through calibrations with pure ammonium nitrate and ammonium sulfate, respectively.
98 A composition-dependent collection efficiency (CE) algorithm was used to account for the incomplete detection of aerosol particles
99 (Middlebrook et al., 2012). As shown in Fig. S1, the total measured PM₁ mass (NR-PM₁ plus BC) correlated well with the PM_{2.5}
100 obtained from PM-712 ($r^2 = 0.80$ and 0.87 for 2014 and 2017, respectively). On average, PM₁ accounted for 68% and 80% of the
101 total PM_{2.5} in Beijing during the winters of 2014 and 2017.

102 The ACSM provides unit-mass-resolution mass spectra of submicron particles, facilitating source apportionment via factor analysis.
103 In this study, positive matrix factorization (PMF) was implemented to resolve OA into various sources using a multilinear engine
104 (ME-2; Paatero, 1999) via the SoFi toolkit (Source Finder; Canonaco et al., 2013). The so-called a value approach allows for the
105 introduction of a priori factor profile or time series to reduce the rotational ambiguity and obtain a unique solution. The spectra
106 and error matrices of organics were pretreated based on the procedures given by Ulbrich et al. (2009) and Zhang et al. (2011). Ions
107 larger than m/z 120 were not considered in this study given the interferences of the internal standard of naphthalene at m/z 127-
108 129, the low signal-to-noise ratio of larger ions, and their low contributions to OA loading. For the winter of 2014, a reference
109 hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA) profile from Ng et al. (2011b) was introduced into the ME-2 analysis to constrain the model
110 performance, varying a values from 0 to 1. Following the guidelines by Canonaco et al. (2013) and Crippa et al. (2014), an optimal
111 solution with four factors was finally accepted, with an a value of 0. Detailed evaluation of the factor time series, mass spectra,
112 and diurnal patterns with different a values can be found in the Supplement (Figs. S2-10). Figure S11 shows the source
113 apportionment results with three primary factors, i.e., HOA, coal combustion OA (CCOA), and biomass burning OA (BBOA), and
114 one secondary factor, oxygenated OA (OOA). For the 2017 dataset, the mass spectral profiles of HOA, CCOA, and BBOA from
115 the ME-2 analysis of 2014 were adopted to constrain the model performance. Similarly, a four-factor solution with HOA, BBOA,

116 CCOA, and OOA was selected for the winter of 2017, which allowed a better comparison of the OA sources between 2014 and
117 2017.

118 2.3 WRF-CMAQ model

119 The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model, version 3.8, and the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model,
120 version 5.1, were applied to evaluate the impact of meteorological changes, regional transport and emission variations on the PM_{2.5}
121 concentration in Beijing in winter. The simulated area was designed as three nested domains, and the innermost area covered
122 Beijing and its surrounding regions (including Tianjin, Hebei, Shanxi, Henan, Shandong and Inner Mongolia), with a horizontal
123 resolution of 4 km × 4 km. The simulated period basically followed the observation time, which covered December 2014 – February
124 2015 and December 2017 – February 2018. A one-month spin-up was applied in each simulation.

125 The WRF model is driven by the National Centers for Environmental Prediction Final Analysis (NCEP-FNL) reanalysis data,
126 which then provided the meteorological fields for the CMAQ model. We used CB05 and AERO6 as the gas and particulate matter
127 chemical mechanisms, respectively. The in-line windblown dust and photolytic rate calculation modules were also adopted to
128 improve the simulation. The chemical initial and boundary conditions originated from the interpolated outputs of the Goddard
129 Earth Observing System with chemistry (GEOS-Chem) model (Bay et al., 2001).

130 The anthropogenic emission inventory for Beijing was taken from the Beijing Municipal Environmental Monitoring Center
131 (BMEMC), which was documented and analyzed in Cheng et al. (2019), while the emission inventory outside Beijing was provided
132 by the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) (<http://www.meicmodel.org>; Zheng et al., 2018) and the MIX
133 emission inventory for the other Asian countries (M. Li et al., 2017). The biogenic emissions were obtained by the Model of
134 Emission of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN v2.1); however, open biomass burning was not considered in this work.
135 Detailed model configurations and validations can be found in Cheng et al. (2019), and the simulated results well reproduced the
136 temporal and spatial distributions and variations in PM_{2.5} in Beijing and its surrounding areas. In this study, we evaluated the model
137 performance by comparing the simulated PM_{2.5} concentrations and compositions in Beijing with observation data. The hourly
138 observed PM_{2.5} concentrations were collected from the Beijing Municipal Environmental Protection Bureau; and the observed
139 PM_{2.5} compositions came from the Surface PARTiculate mAtter Network (SPARTAN, www.spartan-network.org). We also
140 compared the simulated PM_{2.5} compositions with the observed PM₁ species from this work. The average simulated PM_{2.5} in Beijing
141 decreased from 91.5 (winter of 2014) to 52.5 (winter of 2017) $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with a total decrease of 39 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, while the observed PM_{2.5}
142 varied from 81.9 to 40.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, decreasing by 41.3 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Generally, the simulated and observed PM_{2.5} (24-hour averages) in
143 Beijing agreed well. The time series comparison and detailed monthly descriptive statistic of the observed and CMAQ-simulated
144 PM_{2.5} concentrations can be found in Fig. S12 and Table S1. For PM_{2.5} compositions, the Pearson correlation coefficients between
145 simulated PM_{2.5} and observed PM₁ components were all above 0.7 (Table S2a), indicating that the model simulations could well
146 reproduce the species variations. Detailed comparisons of the simulated and observed PM_{2.5} components were listed in Table S2b.
147 We designed six simulation cases to investigate the impact of meteorological and emission variations. Two base cases were driven
148 by the actual emission inventory and meteorological conditions in the winter of 2014 (case A) and winter of 2017 (case B). Cases
149 C and D were designed to quantify the impact of meteorological changes; case C was simulated with the emissions in 2014 and
150 meteorological conditions of 2017, while case D used the 2017 emissions and 2014 meteorological conditions. Therefore, the
151 differences between A and C or between B and D show the influence of meteorological conditions, and the differences between A
152 and D or between B and C correspond to the contributions of emission variations. We used the averaged differences as the final
153 impacts. Cases E and F were developed to evaluate the effect of regional transport on PM_{2.5} variations in Beijing in the winter of
154 2014 (E) and winter of 2017 (F). In these two cases, the emissions in Beijing were set to zero, while the regional emissions

remained at the actual level. The balances between *A* and *E* or between *B* and *F* represent the contributions of regional transport to the PM_{2.5} concentration in Beijing during the corresponding periods.

2.4 Clustering analysis of back trajectories

The Hybrid Single Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model was conducted to calculate the back trajectories of air masses arriving in Beijing during the observation periods in 2014 and 2017. The meteorological input was downloaded from the National Oceanographic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) Air Resource Laboratory Archived Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) (<ftp://arlftp.arlhq.noaa.gov/pub/archives/>). Each trajectory was run for three days, with a time resolution of 1 hour, and the initialized height was 100 m above ground level. In total, 2108 and 1292 trajectories were obtained for the winters of 2014 and 2017, respectively. Based on the built-in clustering calculation, the trajectories were then classified into different groups to represent the main airflows influencing the receptor site. Finally, the optimal 5-cluster and 7-cluster solutions were adopted for the winters of 2014 and 2017, respectively. Details are shown in Fig. S13.

2.5 ISORROPIA-II equilibrium calculation

The ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic model was used to investigate the effects of particle chemical composition on aerosol properties, i.e., particle pH, AWC, and the partitioning of semivolatile species (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007). The model computes the equilibrium state of an NH₄⁺-SO₄²⁻-NO₃⁻-Cl⁻-Na⁺-Ca²⁺-K⁺-Mg²⁺-H₂O inorganic aerosol system with its corresponding gases (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007). When running the ISORROPIA-II model, it is assumed that aerosols are internally mixed and composed of a single aqueous phase. The validity of these assumptions has been evaluated by a number of studies in various locations (Guo et al., 2015; Weber et al., 2016; M.X. Liu et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018).

The model was run in the forward mode by assuming that aerosol solutions were metastable. The forward mode calculates the gas-particle equilibrium partitioning with the total concentrations of both gas and particle phase species. Compared to the reverse mode using only aerosol phase compositions, calculations with the forward mode are affected much less by the measurement errors (Hennigan et al., 2015; Guo et al., 2017a; Song et al., 2018). Particle water associated with OA was not considered in this study given its minor effects. M. X. Liu et al. (2017) showed that organic matter (OM)-induced particle water accounted for only 5% of the total AWC in Beijing. Up to now, there are no observational data showing whether aerosols are in a metastable (only liquid) or stable (solid plus liquid) state in Beijing in winter (Song et al., 2018). According to previous studies, at low RH (RH < 20% or 30%), aerosols are less likely to be in a completely liquid state (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007; Guo et al., 2016, 2017). Therefore, periods with RH < 30% were excluded in this study. The effects of nonvolatile cations (i.e., Na⁺, K⁺, Ca²⁺, Mg²⁺) are not considered in this study because the fraction of nonvolatile cations in PM₁ in Beijing is generally negligible compared to SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺ (Sun et al., 2014). Although nonvolatile nitrate may exist in ambient particles as Ca(NO₃)₂ and Mg(NO₃)₂, Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺ are mainly abundant at sizes above 1 μm (Zhao et al., 2017). In addition, the mixing state of PM₁ nonvolatile cations with SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺ remains to be investigated (Guo et al., 2016, 2017). Previous studies showed that including the nonvolatile cations in ISORROPIA-II does not significantly affect the pH calculations unless the cations become important relative to anions (Guo et al., 2016; Song et al., 2018). The sensitivity test for Beijing winter conditions suggested that with nonvolatile cations, the predicted pH values increase by about 0.1 units.

In this study, the transition in aerosol composition was mainly reflected in the variations in nitrate and sulfate concentrations. For the analysis of the sensitivity of aerosol properties to particle composition, a selected sulfate concentration combined with the average temperature, RH, and total ammonia concentration (NH₃ + NH₄⁺) during the winters of 2014 and 2017 was input into the ISORROPIA-II model, where the total nitrate concentration (HNO₃ + NO₃⁻) was left as the free variable. The gaseous HNO₃ and

NH₃ concentrations were not directly measured during our campaign. But long-term measurements in Beijing showed that gaseous NH₃ concentration correlated well with NO_x concentration in winter (Meng et al., 2011). Therefore, the empirical equation derived from Meng et al. (2011), $\text{NH}_3 \text{ (ppb)} = 0.34 \times \text{NO}_x \text{ (ppb)} + 0.63$, was applied to estimate the gaseous NH₃ concentration. On average, the NH₃ concentration was approximated to be 14.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the winters of 2014 and 2017, consistent with previous observations in the same season of Beijing (Meng et al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018). The total nitrate concentration, including both gaseous HNO₃ and particulate nitrate, varied from 0.2 to 75 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for the sensitivity study.

3 Results and discussions

3.1 Overall variations in aerosol characteristics from 2014 to 2017

Figures S14 and S15 display the temporal variations in meteorological parameters, trace gases, and aerosol species during the two winter campaigns, with the average values shown in Table 1. Compared to the frequently occurring haze episodes in the winter of 2014, more clean days with lower PM₁ concentrations were observed in the winter of 2017. On average, the PM₁ concentrations were 66.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 33.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the winters of 2014 and 2017, respectively. The large reduction in PM₁ concentration reflects the effectiveness of pollution abatement strategies. Satellite-derived estimates also showed an evident decrease in PM_{2.5} concentration in North China in recent years (Gui et al., 2019).

3.1.1 Changes in SIA characteristics

Sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium are the dominant components in SIAs and are generally recognized as ammonium sulfate and ammonium nitrate in PM_{2.5}. With the implementation of clean air actions, sulfate underwent the largest decline in the mass concentration among all SIA species (from 7.7 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 2.8 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during 2014-2017). The decreases in particulate nitrate and ammonium during this period were 1.3 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 1.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. Different changes in the mass concentration of SIA species led to variations in the PM₁ chemical composition. As illustrated in Fig. 1, nitrate exhibited an increasing mass fraction in PM₁ from 18% to 30%, whereas the mass contribution of sulfate decreased from 12% to 8%. Correspondingly, the mass ratio of nitrate/sulfate increased from 1.4 in 2014 to 3.5 in 2017. Based on the measurements in Beijing from November to December, Xu et al. (2019) also observed a higher nitrate/sulfate ratio in 2016 (1.36) than in 2014 (0.72). Similar annual variations in aerosol chemical composition were found in North America over 2000-2016, with an increased proportion of nitrate and a decreased contribution of sulfate (van Donkelaar et al., 2019). The diurnal cycles of SIAs are displayed in Fig. 2. All SIA species showed similar diel trends in the two winters, with increasing concentrations after noon due to enhanced photochemical processes and peak concentrations at night caused by a lower boundary layer height. The CO-scaled diurnal plots for SIA species are shown in Fig. S16 to eliminate the influence of different dilution/mixing conditions. However, the absolute variations in the SIA mass concentration differed greatly between 2014 and 2017. While the mass concentration of sulfate decreased by a factor of 2-3 in 2017, nitrate and ammonium showed much smaller reductions of 15-40% in their mass concentrations throughout the day. Previous studies have concluded that the dramatically enhanced contribution of sulfate was a main driving factor of winter haze pollution in China (Wang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2016; H. Y. Li et al., 2017). However, with the emission mitigation efforts, the role of SIA species in aerosol pollution changed significantly. Aerosol pollution was classified into three categories in this study: clean ($\text{PM}_{10} \leq 35 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), slightly polluted ($35 < \text{PM}_{10} \leq 115 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), and polluted ($\text{PM}_{10} > 115 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The contributions of different pollution levels and the PM₁₀ chemical compositions at each pollution level are shown in Fig. 3 for the winters of 2014 and 2017. While the polluted level accounted for 38% of the observation period in the winter of 2014, only 14% of the observation period was recognized as being polluted in the winter of 2017. In 2014, the mass fraction of sulfate in PM₁₀ was 16.1% during clean

230 periods. With the increase in pollution level, the contribution of sulfate increased from 10.6% in slightly polluted periods to 13.6%
231 in polluted periods, while the mass fraction of nitrate decreased. In contrast, sulfate comprised a smaller fraction of haze
232 development in 2017 compared to 2014. It was nitrate that exhibited a substantially increased mass fraction at higher PM₁ loadings
233 in the winter of 2017. From clean to polluted periods, the nitrate contribution to PM₁ increased from 22.6% to 34.9%. These results
234 demonstrated that aerosol pollution in Beijing has gradually changed from sulfate-driven to nitrate-driven in recent years.

235 3.1.2 Changes in OA characteristics

236 In response to the strict emission controls, the mass concentration of organics declined by $\sim 18.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ from 2014 ($30.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
237 to 2017 ($11.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), which was mainly caused by OOA ($\sim 6.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and CCOA ($\sim 6.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The decrease in the mass
238 concentration of HOA was $2.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, which was associated with the strengthened controls on vehicle emissions. BBOA decreased
239 by $3.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ because the use of traditional biofuels, such as wood and crop residuals, was forbidden in Beijing by the end of 2016.
240 Generally, the concentrations of all OA factors declined substantially throughout the day in 2017. For primary factors, the
241 reductions in their mass concentrations were much higher at night than during the day (Fig. 2). Compared to 2014, CCOA decreased
242 by a factor of 4-5 at night in 2017 and a factor of 1.5 during the day.

243 Overall, the mass fraction of organics in PM₁ declined from 49% to 36% over the period (Fig. 1). The source apportionment results
244 demonstrated that coal combustion was largely accountable for the reduced contribution of organics. During 2014-2017, the mass
245 fraction of CCOA in the total OA decreased from 27% to 18%. Reports from the Beijing Municipal Environmental Protection
246 Bureau (MEPB) also revealed that the contribution of coal combustion to aerosol pollution showed a large decrease during 2013-
247 2017. The decline in CCOA was largely driven by the reduced emissions of organics from coal combustion with the implementation
248 of clean air actions. In contrast, the mass contribution of OOA in the total OA increased from 41% to 49% during 2014-2017.
249 OOA is formed in the atmosphere through various oxidation reactions of volatile organic compounds (VOCs). From 2013 to 2017,
250 VOCs emissions decreased by approximately half in Beijing but remained constant in the surrounding regions. Large amounts of
251 OOA brought to Beijing via regional transport weakened the efforts of local emission cuts. Therefore, stronger emission controls
252 of VOCs need to be placed in both local Beijing and adjacent areas in the future.

253 3.2 Factors affecting aerosol characteristics from 2014 to 2017

254 3.2.1 Meteorological conditions

255 To evaluate the influence of weather conditions on air quality improvement, we compared the daily changes in meteorological
256 parameters during the winters of 2014 and 2017 (Fig. S17). Compared to 2014, the temperature in 2017 was slightly lower
257 throughout the whole day, which may have facilitated gas-particle conversion for semivolatile species, such as ammonium nitrate.
258 Although the RH was similar between 2014 and 2017 during the daytime, the nighttime RH in 2017 was slightly higher than that
259 in 2014, which was favorable for the heterogeneous reactions of secondary species. On average, the observed RH was 29.6% in
260 the winter of 2014 and 33.9% in the winter of 2017. Diurnal cycles of WS showed that the WS in winter of 2017 was somewhat
261 higher, implying beneficial conditions for the dispersal of air pollutants. To illustrate the variations in WD, the observed data were
262 classified into four groups: from north to east (N-E; $0^\circ \leq \text{WD} < 90^\circ$), east to south (E-S; $90^\circ \leq \text{WD} < 180^\circ$), south to west (S-W;
263 $180^\circ \leq \text{WD} < 270^\circ$), and west to north (W-N; $270^\circ \leq \text{WD} \leq 360^\circ$). As displayed in Fig. S17d, the winters of 2014 and 2017 were
264 both dominated by W-N and N-E, which usually bring clean air masses. After noon, the contribution of winds from S-W started
265 to increase. According to previous studies, southerly winds arriving in Beijing generally carry higher levels of air pollutants from
266 the southern regions (Sun et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2009).

267 Simulations with the WRF-CMAQ model helped to assess the relative importance of meteorology for changes in aerosol
268 concentration and chemical composition. The effects of meteorology were quantified by comparing cases *A* and *C* or cases *B* and
269 *D*. The differences between *A* and *D* or *B* and *C* reflected the effectiveness of emission control. For the total PM_{2.5} concentration,
270 the simulation results clearly demonstrated that variations in meteorology from 2014 to 2017 had a much lower influence on the
271 PM_{2.5} reduction than the changes in air pollutant emissions (Fig. S18). On average, changes in weather conditions resulted in a
272 PM_{2.5} decrease of 9.6 µg m⁻³, which explained 24.8% of the total PM_{2.5} reduction. These results suggest that meteorological
273 variations are far from sufficient to explain PM_{2.5} abatement during 2014-2017. In terms of aerosol composition, we compared the
274 simulated results of cases *B* and *D* and found that meteorological changes from 2014 to 2017 had a negligible influence on the
275 chemical composition of PM_{2.5} (Fig. 4). Therefore, we conclude that weather conditions in 2017 marginally favored air quality
276 improvement in Beijing, and emission reductions in air pollutants played a dominant role in the variations in aerosol concentration
277 and composition.

278 3.2.2 Emission changes

279 According to both the observations (Fig. 1) and simulation results (Fig. 5a), sulfate and organics experienced the largest decreases
280 among different components in Beijing from 2014 to 2017, which is consistent with the considerable emission reductions in SO₂
281 and primary OC in local Beijing and its surrounding regions (Fig. 6; i.e., Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong, Henan, Shanxi, and Inner
282 Mongolia). Comparatively, the wintertime nitrate concentration showed the lowest reduction during 2014-2017, which was
283 expected from the smaller emission cut of NO_x in Beijing and its surrounding areas.

284 Based on the bottom-up emission inventories (Zheng et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2019), SO₂ emissions decreased by 79.9% in Beijing
285 during 2014-2017, mainly due to the effective control of coal combustion sources and the optimization of the energy structure. By
286 the end of 2017, all coal-fired power units were shut down, and small coal-fired boilers with capacities of <7 MW were eliminated
287 in Beijing, which reduced coal use by more than 17 million tons. In addition, most of the clustered and highly polluted enterprises
288 and factories were phased out during this period. These control measures remarkably reduced SO₂ emissions from power and
289 industry sectors. Enhanced energy restructuring was also implemented in the residential sector. During 2013-2017, more than 2
290 million tons of residential coal was replaced by cleaner natural gas and electricity, involving 900,000 households in Beijing. Apart
291 from coal burning, the use of traditional biomass, such as wood and crops, was thoroughly forbidden in Beijing by the end of 2016.
292 The strict governance of residential fuel also made substantial contributions to the BC and OC emission reductions in Beijing,
293 which decreased by 71.2% and 59.9%, respectively, during 2014-2017. In comparison, NO_x showed a lower emission reduction
294 of 38.1% from 2014 to 2017 in Beijing. The decline in NO_x emissions was mainly caused by the strengthened emission control of
295 on-road and off-road transportation, the shutdown of all coal-fired power plants, and the application of low-nitrogen-burning (LNB)
296 technologies in industrial boilers. However, due to the insufficient end-of-pipe control of widespread gas-fired facilities and the
297 rapid increase in the vehicle population (the number of vehicles in Beijing increased by nearly 10% during 2013-2017), the NO_x
298 emission reduction in Beijing was not as significant as the SO₂ emission reduction.

299 In adjacent regions, SO₂ emissions decreased by 50.6% from 2014 to 2017, while NO_x emissions showed a much smaller reduction
300 of 15.2%. Comparatively, the energy structure adjustments in surrounding areas were less intense than those in Beijing. Emission
301 reductions in SO₂ and NO_x in surrounding regions were mainly attributed to ultralow power plant emissions and the reinforced
302 end-of-pipe control of key industries. Because of the looser emission standards for vehicles and the lack of vehicle management,
303 control measures on transportation in adjacent regions were highly insufficient for NO_x emission reduction compared with those
304 in Beijing. Overall, the observed transition in PM₁ chemical composition with increasing nitrate contribution and decreasing sulfate
305 fraction was in agreement with the emission changes in their precursors.

306 3.2.3 Regional transport

307 Variations in regional weather patterns and emission changes in air pollutants in surrounding regions influenced the effect of
308 regional transport on aerosol characteristics in Beijing. Statistical analysis of air mass trajectories was performed using the
309 HYSPLIT model. Based on the clustering technique, back trajectories were classified into groups of similar length and curvature
310 to identify the main airflows affecting the site. The five-cluster solution and seven-cluster solution were adopted for the winters of
311 2014 and 2017, respectively. The PM_{10} mass concentration and mass composition for each cluster are shown in Fig. S19. For a
312 better comparison between 2014 and 2017, clusters were further grouped into two categories according to PM_{10} loadings. Clusters
313 arriving in Beijing when the local PM_{10} concentration was less than $35 \mu g m^{-3}$ were recognized as clean clusters, while clusters with
314 PM_{10} concentrations greater than $35 \mu g m^{-3}$ were defined as polluted clusters. As displayed in Fig. 7, the average PM_{10} concentration
315 in local Beijing was $114 \mu g m^{-3}$ in 2014 when the polluted clusters arrived, which was much higher than that in 2017 ($74 \mu g m^{-3}$).
316 While the contribution of polluted clusters in 2014 was 47%, polluted air masses transported from surrounding regions influenced
317 Beijing approximately 20% of the time in 2017. The results here indicate that compared to 2014, Beijing was less influenced by
318 polluted air masses transported from surrounding areas in 2017 during the wintertime, which benefited air quality improvement.
319 In addition, air masses in 2017 brought more nitrate and less sulfate to Beijing than those in 2014.
320 The WRF-CMAQ model simulations showed that the contributions of regional transport to the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in Beijing were
321 $31.4 \mu g m^{-3}$ and $19.0 \mu g m^{-3}$ in the winters of 2014 and 2017, respectively (Fig. 5b). Although the proportion of regional transport
322 (relative to the total $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in Beijing) remained at approximately 35% in the two winters (34.4% in the winter of
323 2014 and 36.4% in the winter of 2017), the absolute amount decreased by 39.6%. This result further supported that less $PM_{2.5}$
324 transported from surrounding regions indeed helped with $PM_{2.5}$ abatement in Beijing. Compared with 2014, the variations in $PM_{2.5}$
325 components due to regional transport (Fig. 5b) in 2017 were basically consistent with the total aerosol composition changes that
326 were observed (Fig. 1) and simulated (Fig. 5a) in Beijing. Sulfate had the most notable decrease, with a decrease of 57.9% in its
327 mass concentration, and the regional transport of OM and BC decreased by over 38%. The significant reduction in sulfate was
328 mainly attributed to the effective SO_2 emission controls in the surrounding regions, such as the special emission limits for power
329 plants and the innovation of industrial boilers. The decreasing rate of regional transport OM was obviously lower than the total
330 change, suggesting that the local emission controls of VOCs and primary OM in Beijing had a dominant contribution to the decrease
331 in OM. The reduction in nitrate from regional transport was much smaller than that in other components. This was not only due to
332 the insufficient NO_x emission controls in the surrounding areas but also the relatively rich ammonium environment in North China,
333 which might have weakened the effects of NO_x reductions. Therefore, the collaborative reductions in NO_x and NH_3 are important
334 for future air pollution control strategies (Liu et al., 2019).

335 3.2.4 Formation mechanisms

336 From a traditional viewpoint, sulfate formation mainly includes SO_2 oxidation by OH in the gas phase and SO_2 oxidation in cloud
337 droplets by H_2O_2 and O_3 in the aqueous phase (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2012). This is actually the case for global sulfate production
338 (Roelofs et al., 1998). The formation rate of sulfate through aqueous reactions is typically much faster than that through gas-phase
339 oxidations. Recently, studies have found that SO_2 oxidation by NO_2 in aerosol water with near neutral aerosol acidity, which is
340 usually ignored in current model simulations, plays an important role in the persistent formation of sulfate during haze events in
341 northern China (B. Zheng et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016). Others pointed out that regardless of the high NH_3
342 levels, aerosols are always moderately acidic in northern China, and there are probably other alternative formation pathways
343 contributing to fast sulfate production in haze pollution (Guo et al., 2017b; Liu et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018). As the SO_2 emissions

344 decreased substantially with the clean air actions, the importance of heterogeneous chemistry in sulfate formation is highly
 345 uncertain.

346 To shed light on this query, the formation of sulfate and nitrate with increasing RH was compared between 2014 and 2017. As
 347 displayed in Fig. 8, the SO_4/BC ratio was much lower in 2017 than in 2014, especially at a higher RH, indicating greatly weakened
 348 sulfate formation in 2017 compared to primary BC emissions. NO_3/BC showed little difference between 2014 and 2017. The sulfur
 349 oxidation ratio (SOR) and nitrogen oxidation ratio (NOR) were further estimated as the molar ratio of sulfate to the sum of sulfate
 350 and SO_2 and the molar ratio of nitrate to the sum of nitrate and NO_x , respectively, to quantify the degree of SO_2 and NO_x oxidations
 351 (Zheng et al., 2015; Li et al., 2016). Median values were used for comparison between 2014 and 2017 to avoid bias caused by
 352 outliers. When the $\text{RH} > 50\%$, SOR started to increase significantly with the enhancement in RH in 2014, which was consistent
 353 with previous observations in Beijing in 2013 (G. J. Zheng et al., 2015). A year-long study in Beijing from 2012 to 2013 also
 354 revealed that a rapid increase in SOR was found at a RH threshold of $\sim 45\%$ (Fang et al., 2019). However, the starting point of SOR
 355 growth was clearly delayed in 2017, with a higher RH of 70%. Considering the decrease in the SO_2 mixing ratio from 15.5 ppb in
 356 the winter of 2014 to 2.8 ppb in the winter of 2017 (Table 1), we speculated that with the large reduction in gaseous precursors,
 357 the rapid formation of sulfate through heterogeneous reaction is more difficult to occur. In addition to emission reduction, reduced
 358 regional transport from southern polluted regions in 2017 helped to lower SO_2 concentrations in Beijing. Previous studies have
 359 revealed the positive feedback between aerosols and boundary layers, as high aerosol loadings could decrease the boundary layer
 360 height and further increase aerosol concentrations (Petäjä et al., 2016; Z. Li et al., 2017). With a lower $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration in 2017,
 361 the interactions between aerosols and the boundary layer were weakened, which in turn also favored a decrease in the SO_2
 362 concentration. At a lower RH, the SOR in 2017 (~ 0.14) was unexpectedly higher than that in 2014 (~ 0.06), demonstrating a higher
 363 sulfate production rate in 2017. Similar results have been observed over the eastern United States, where a considerable decrease
 364 in SO_2 resulted in the more efficient formation of particulate sulfate during wintertime (Shah et al., 2018). Combining airborne
 365 measurements, ground-based observations, and GEOS-Chem simulations, Shah et al. (2018) explained that sulfate production in
 366 winter is limited by the availability of oxidants and particle acidity. At lower concentrations of precursor gases, the oxidant
 367 limitation on SO_2 oxidation weakened, leading to a higher formation rate of sulfate.

368 Semivolatile $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ nitrate is formed through the partitioning of HNO_3 to the particle phase, which is more favored at higher aerosol
 369 pH. Aerosol pH is affected by gas phase NH_3 concentrations, where higher NH_3 generally leads to higher pH and therefore possibly
 370 more particulate nitrate. Aerosol pH is also influenced by the abundance of particulate sulfate (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2012). Sulfate
 371 is nonvolatile in the atmosphere. When sulfate is a significant fraction of aerosol mass, it has a dominant influence on aerosol pH,
 372 making aerosol acidic (low pH). In contrast, ammonium and nitrate are mainly semivolatile in the atmosphere. The particle-phase
 373 concentrations of ammonium and nitrate depend on the meteorological conditions (i.e., temperature and RH), their corresponding
 374 gas phase concentrations (NH_3 and HNO_3 respectively), and aerosol pH. For example, at high sulfate and moderate NH_3
 375 concentrations, aerosols can be too acidic for the partitioning of HNO_3 to particle phase. However, at higher RH, or higher NH_3
 376 concentrations, or if sulfate concentrations drop sufficiently, particle pH will increase and can reach a point at which HNO_3
 377 partitioning to the particle phase occurs and particulate nitrate is formed. Lower temperature also favors HNO_3 partitioning to the
 378 particle phase through Henry's law constants. In this study, at a lower RH, NOR was slightly higher in 2017 than in 2014 (Fig. 8),
 379 which may be caused by the higher aerosol pH associated with the decrease in sulfate concentration in 2017 (details in Sect. 3.3).
 380 When $\text{RH} > 60\%$, NOR increased substantially in 2014 and 2017, indicating the importance of heterogeneous reactions in nitrate
 381 production. In addition, as RH increases, the AWC increases accordingly, resulting in higher aerosol pH. This allows more
 382 semivolatile nitrate to partition to the particle phase through a feedback loop, thus favoring the formation of particulate nitrate.

3.3 Influence of the transition in aerosol characteristics on particle properties

According to thermodynamic calculations, various aerosol properties were affected by changes in aerosol characteristics associated with clean air actions. As shown in Fig. 9a, nitrate and sulfate play key roles in determining the AWC in PM_{2.5}. The decreasing mass concentrations of nitrate and sulfate result in a lower AWC. Similar observations have been reported previously across northern China, revealing that nitrate and sulfate are dominant anthropogenic inorganic salts driving AWC (Wu et al., 2018). With the clean air actions enacted, the mass concentrations of nitrate and sulfate decreased during 2013-2017, leading to an average decline in AWC from 12.0 to 8.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Data for the winter of 2013 were acquired from Sun et al. (2016). The reduced AWC further helped air quality improvement by lowering the ambient aerosol mass and enhancing visibility. Because aqueous-phase reactions contribute largely to sulfate formation in winter, the decrease in AWC decelerated the formation of sulfate. In addition, the lower AWC slowed down the uptake coefficient of N₂O₅ for heterogeneous processing, thereby suppressing the formation of particulate nitrate.

Figure 9b displays the effects of nitrate and sulfate concentrations on particle acidity. Particle acidity is largely driven by the mass concentration of sulfate and is less sensitive to the variation in nitrate. Particle pH substantially decreases with increasing sulfate concentration. Ding et al. (2019) suggested that sulfate is one of the common driving factors influencing particle acidity in Beijing across all four seasons. In contrast, more particulate nitrate leads to a slightly higher pH by increasing the particle liquid water and diluting aqueous H⁺ concentrations. Through the comparison of pH predictions among various locations worldwide, Guo et al. (2018) also found that a higher particle pH was generally associated with higher concentrations of nitrate. During 2013-2017, the average particle pH varied from 4.5 to 5.3, with a significant decrease in sulfate concentration. The pH values here agree reasonably with previous ISORROPIA-II calculations, showing that fine particles are moderately acidic in northern China during wintertime (Guo et al., 2017a; Liu et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018; Ding et al., 2019). When pH > 5.0, aqueous-phase productions of sulfate are dominated by SO₂ oxidation with H₂O₂, O₃, and NO₂ under haze conditions in Beijing (Cheng et al., 2016). The sulfate oxidation rates by O₃ and NO₂ increase with increasing particle pH. Therefore, a more neutral atmosphere would favor aqueous-phase sulfate formation in Beijing. Particle acidity also influences the gas-particle partitioning of nitrate. The rising particle pH would result in a higher fraction of particulate nitrate ($\epsilon(\text{NO}_3^-) = \frac{[\text{NO}_3^-]}{[\text{HNO}_3] + [\text{NO}_3^-]}$) (Guo et al., 2016). Figure S20a displays the variation in $\epsilon(\text{NO}_3^-)$ as a function of particle pH under typical Beijing winter conditions (temperature of approximately 0°C). With a particle pH below 3, $\epsilon(\text{NO}_3^-)$ increases sufficiently with the enhancement in particle pH. However, when the particle pH is larger than 3, $\epsilon(\text{NO}_3^-)$ remains relatively stable (approaching 1), consistent with previous findings by Guo et al. (2018). From 2013 to 2017, with the particle pH remaining above 3 in Beijing, no clear change in $\epsilon(\text{NO}_3^-)$ was observed (Fig. S20b).

The variations in nitrate and sulfate concentrations also affected the gas-particle partitioning of total ammonium (NH_x = NH₃ + NH₄⁺). As expected, the decreased concentrations of nitrate and sulfate led to a reduction in the ammonium particle fraction ($\epsilon(\text{NH}_4^+) = \text{NH}_4^+/\text{NH}_x$; Fig. 10). From 2013 to 2017, $\epsilon(\text{NH}_4^+)$ in Beijing always stayed below 0.4, indicating that most ammonium existed in the gas phase. Therefore, a minor reduction in NH_x would not be sufficient for air quality improvement. Guo et al. (2018) revealed that for winter haze conditions in Beijing, an approximate 60% decrease in NH_x was required to achieve an effective reduction in PM_{2.5}. Due to the close linkage between ammonia emissions and agricultural activities, it may be difficult to attain substantial ammonia reduction in China.

4 Conclusions

This study investigated the variations in aerosol characteristics in Beijing during the winters of 2014 and 2017 by combining the online measurements of aerosol chemical composition with a comprehensive model analysis of meteorological conditions,

anthropogenic emissions, and regional transport. The average PM₁ concentration decreased from 66.2 µg m⁻³ in the winter of 2014 to 33.4 µg m⁻³ in the winter of 2017, with decreasing concentrations of organics, sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium by 18.5 µg m⁻³, 4.9 µg m⁻³, 1.3 µg m⁻³, and 1.5 µg m⁻³, respectively. These changes reduced the mass fractions of organics and sulfate from 59% to 36% and from 13% to 9%, respectively, whereas increased the nitrate contribution from 19% to 32%. Consequently, the winter haze pollution changed from sulfate-driven to nitrate-driven in Beijing from 2014 to 2017, implicating the increasing role of nitrate in aerosol pollution.

The chemical transport model simulations suggest that the rapidly declining emissions in Beijing and its adjacent regions account for ~75% of PM_{2.5} abatement in Beijing, and the remaining portion can be explained by the favorable weather conditions in 2017. The faster reductions in SO₂ emissions compared to NO_x emissions are in line with the decreased sulfate contribution and increased nitrate fraction in observed aerosols, and the model simulations with these emission estimates can reproduce the relative changes in aerosol composition. Regional transport contributed moderately to the variations in aerosol concentration and its chemical composition, with less polluted air masses transported from surrounding regions to Beijing in the winter of 2017. The air masses were observed to have brought more nitrate and less sulfate to Beijing. Furthermore, the fast SO₂-to-sulfate conversion through heterogeneous reactions was observed to increase promptly at a RH threshold of ~50% in 2014, while a higher RH of 70% was observed in 2017. Based on these ambient observations, the suppressed sulfate formation during wintertime was possibly caused by the considerable decrease in SO₂ emissions.

Thermodynamic calculations showed that the decreased sulfate and nitrate concentrations in 2017 caused a lower AWC in PM_{2.5}, which further decreased the ambient aerosol mass and weakened the formation rates of sulfate and nitrate through aqueous-phase reactions. Particle acidity displayed a decline during 2014-2017, mostly driven by the declining sulfate concentration. In turn, the more neutral ambient environment would favor the aqueous oxidation of sulfate in Beijing. Analysis of the ammonium particle fraction indicated that most ammonium in Beijing existed in the gas phase. Therefore, increased efforts are needed to achieve an effective reduction in particle ammonium in the future.

Author contributions

QZ and KH conceived the study. HL conducted the field measurements and carried out the data analysis. JC provided the emission data and performed the model simulations. BZ participated the data analysis. HL, JC and QZ wrote the paper with inputs from all coauthors.

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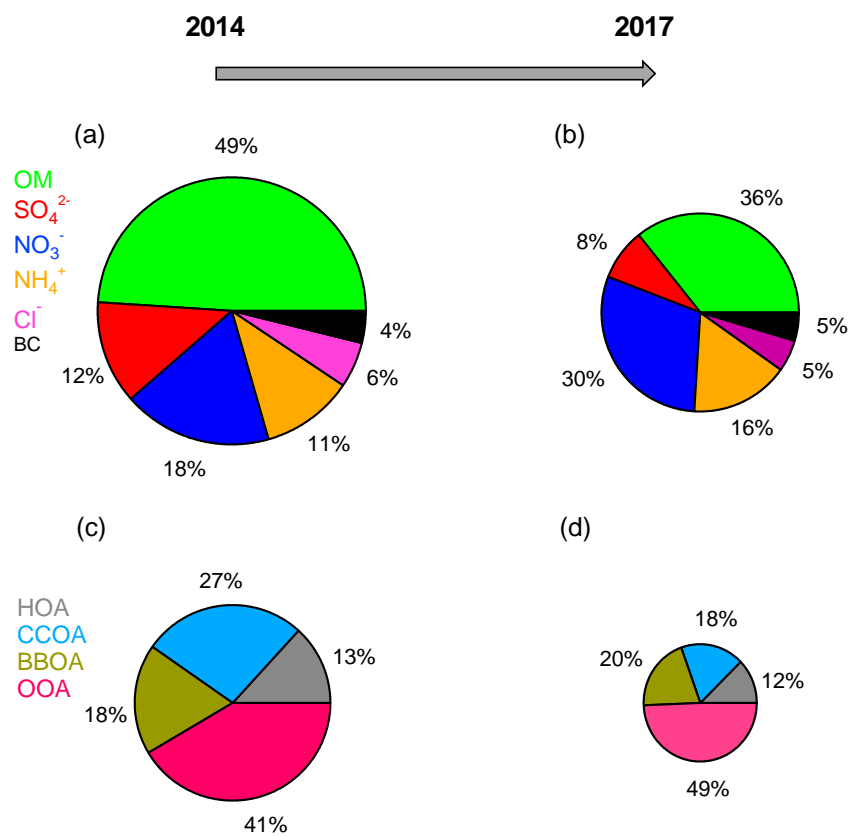
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638 **Table 1** Summary of the average meteorological parameters, mixing ratios of gaseous species, and mass concentrations of the PM₁ chemical
639 components observed during the winters of 2014 and 2017.

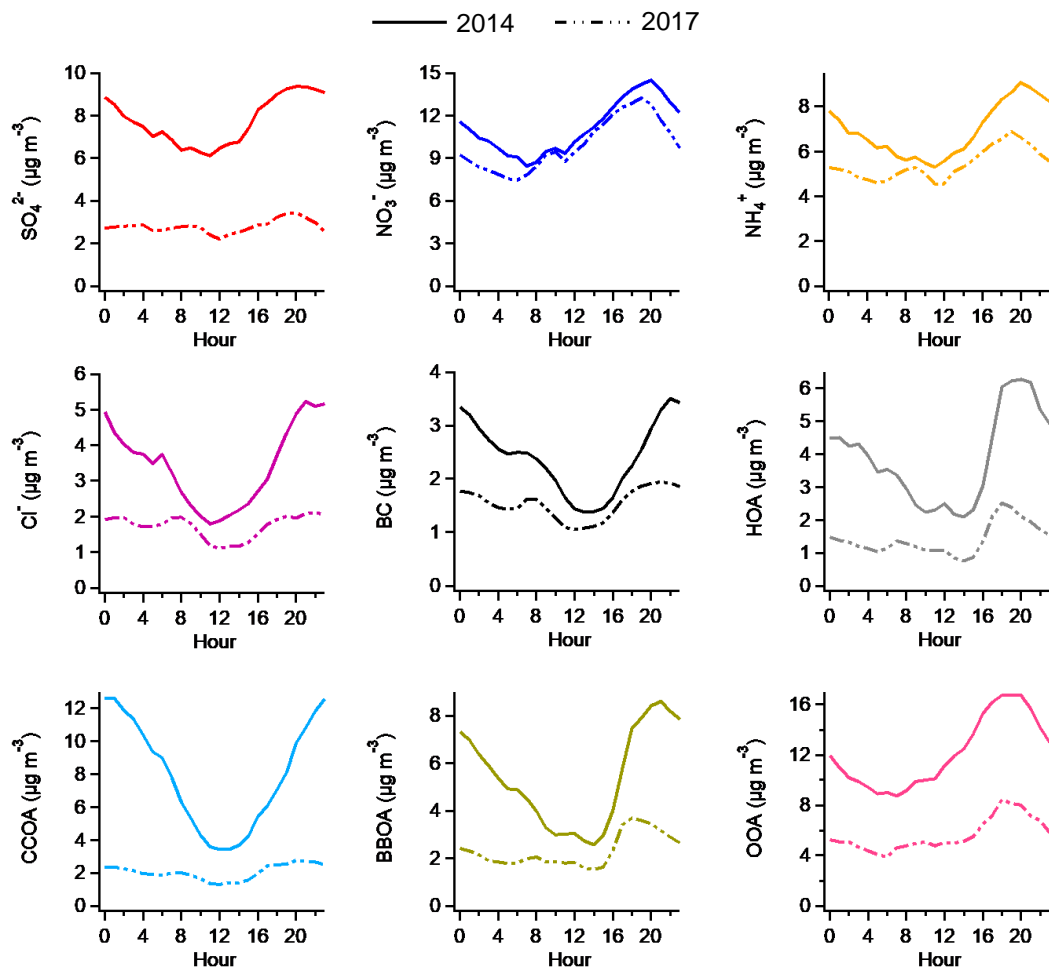
Sampling period		2014 winter	2017 winter
Meteorological parameters	T (°C)	1.70	-2.26
	RH (%)	29.6	33.9
	WS (m s ⁻¹)	1.58	1.73
Gaseous species	SO ₂ (ppb)	15.5	2.8
	NO ₂ (ppb)	26.0	24.9
	CO (ppm)	1.6	0.7
	O ₃ (ppb)	14.4	15.5
Aerosol species (µg m ⁻³)	Org	30.4	11.9
	HOA	4.1	1.5
	BBOA	5.6	2.4
	CCOA	8.2	2.2
	OOA	12.6	5.8
	SO ₄ ²⁻	7.8	2.8
	NO ₃ ⁻	11.2	9.9
	NH ₄ ⁺	6.9	5.4
	Cl ⁻	3.4	1.7
	BC	2.4	1.5
	PM ₁	66.2	33.4

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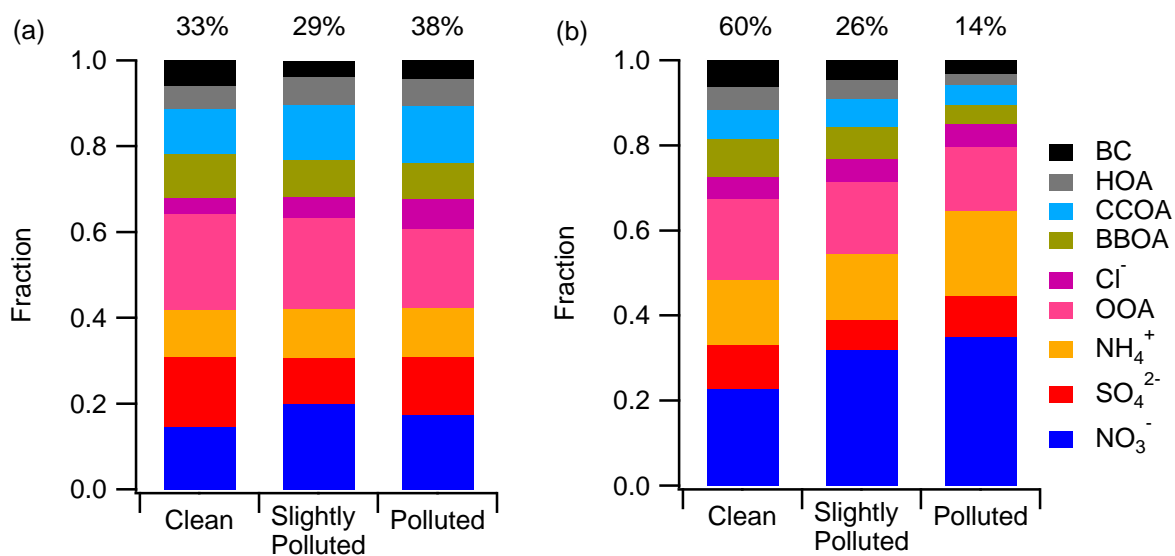
641

642 **Figure 1. Average chemical compositions of PM₁ and OA in (a, c) winter of 2014 and (b, d) winter of 2017. The decreases in the mass**
 643 **concentrations of different components from 2014 to 2017 are as follows: 60.9% for organics, 64.1% for sulfate, 11.6% for nitrate, 21.7%**
 644 **for ammonium, 50.0% for chloride, and 37.5% for BC.**



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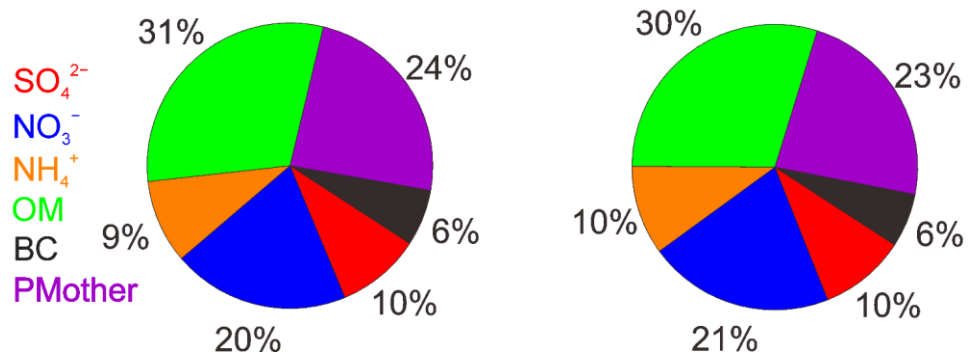
646 Figure 2. Average diurnal cycles of different aerosol species in the winter of 2014 (solid line) and winter of 2017 (dashed line).



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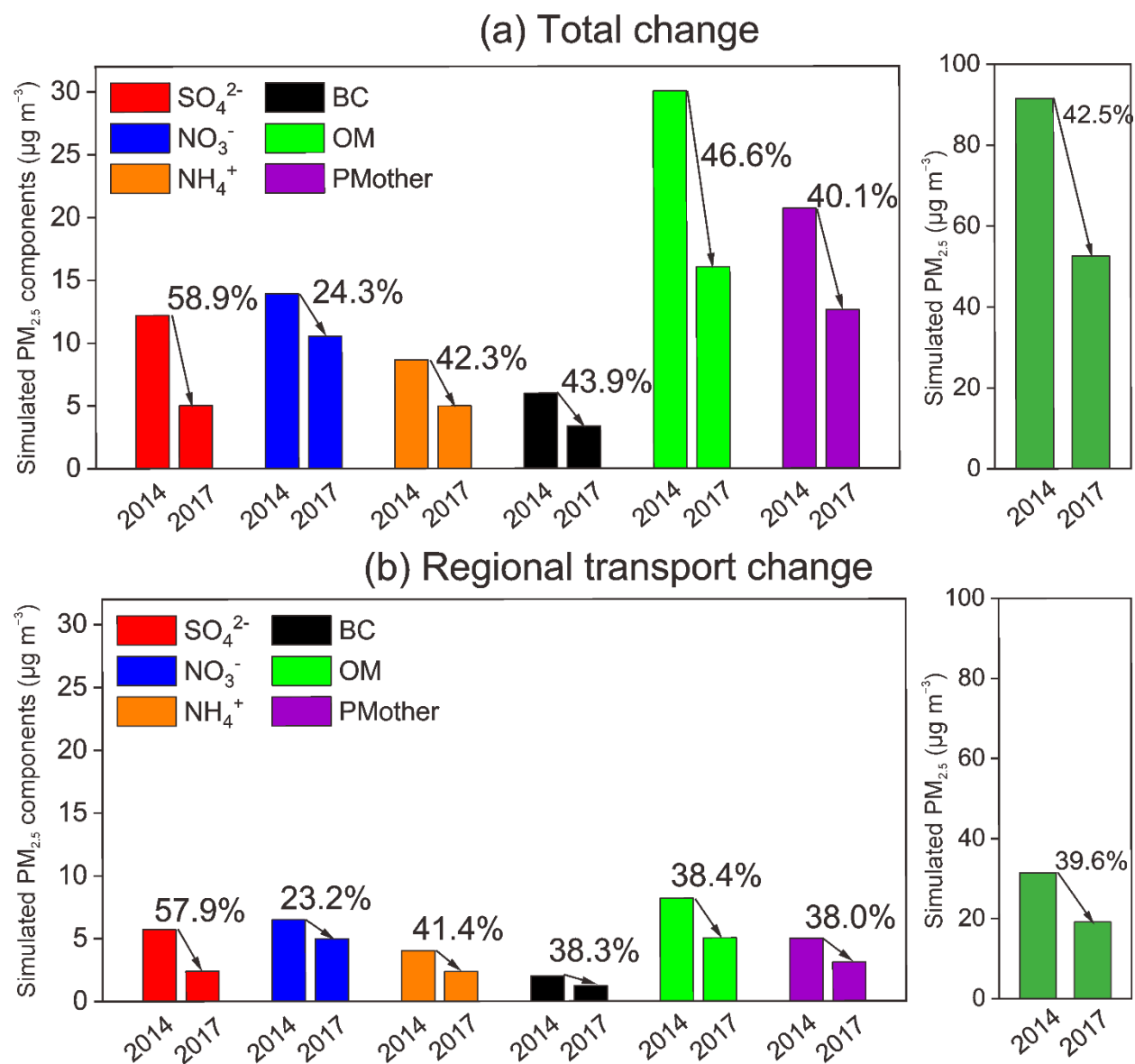
648 **Figure 3. Aerosol chemical composition at different pollution levels in the (a) winter of 2014 and (b) winter of 2017. The contributions of**
 649 **each pollution level are shown at the top of each bar.**

(a) 2017 Emission+2017 Meteorology (b) 2017 Emission+2014 Meteorology



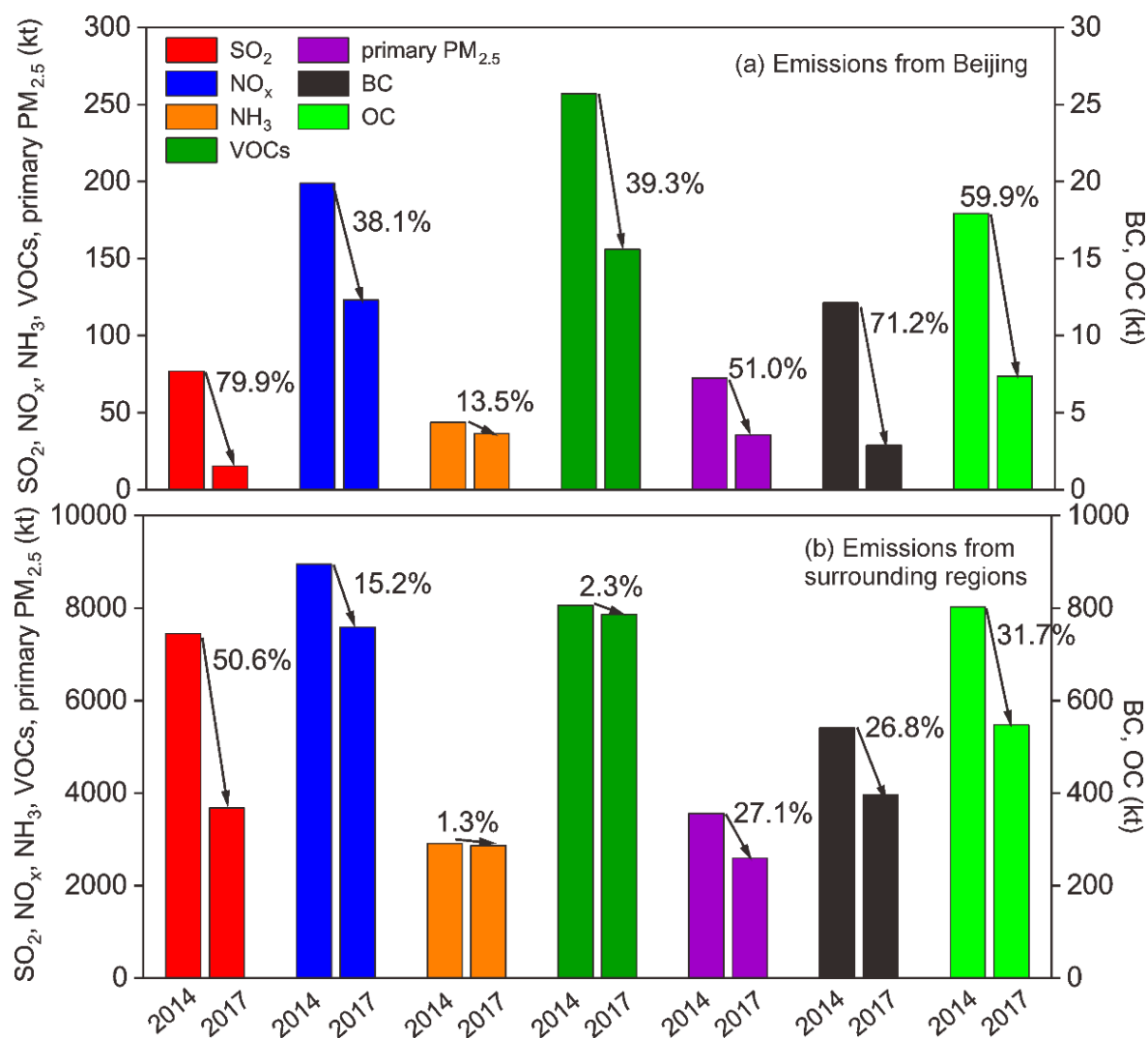
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651 **Figure 4. The average PM_{2.5} chemical composition simulated by the WRF-CMAQ model for the observation periods in 2017: (a) base**
 652 **scenario with the 2017 emissions and the 2017 meteorological conditions; (b) simulation with the 2017 emissions and 2014 meteorological**
 653 **conditions.**



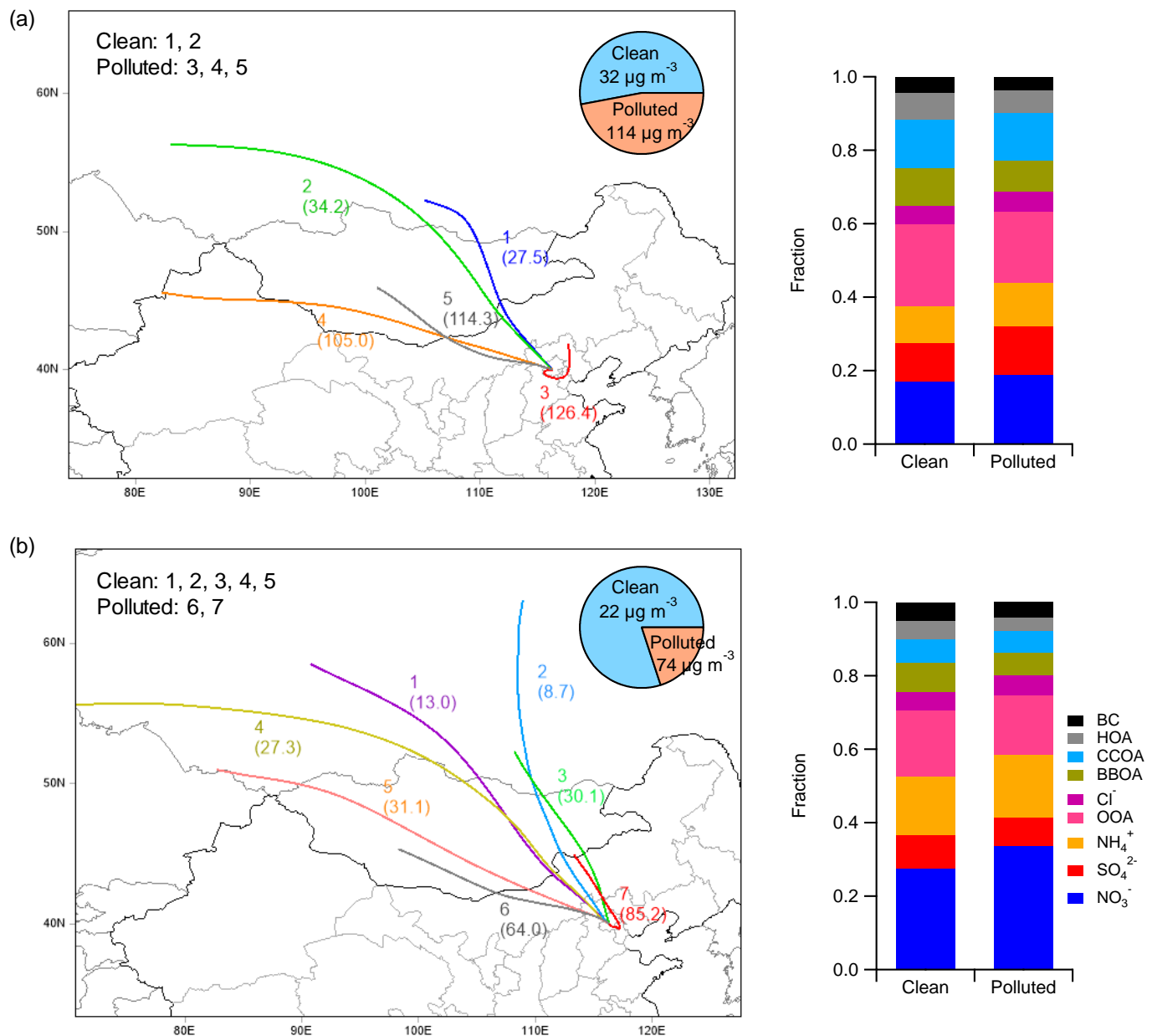
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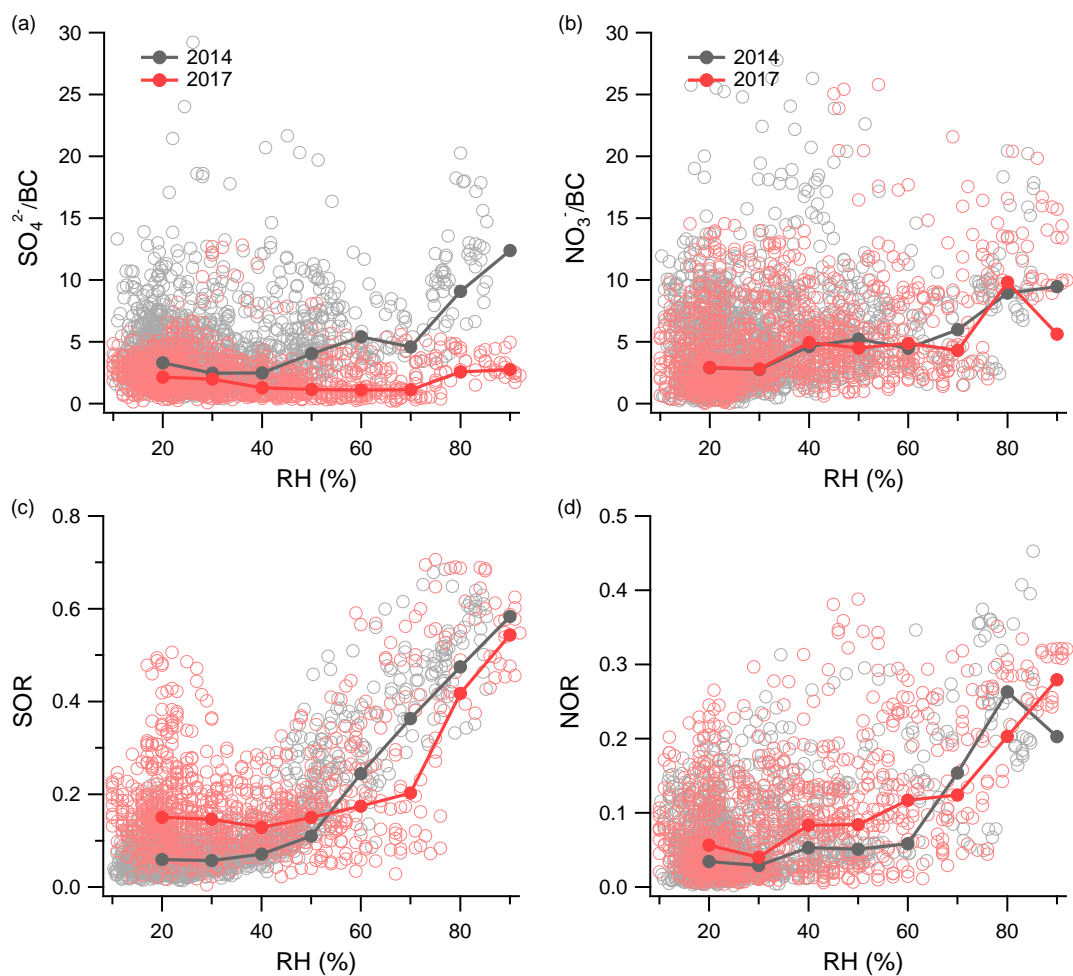
655 **Figure 5. Simulated concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ and its chemical components during the observation periods of 2014 and 2017: (a) total**
 656 **changes in Beijing and (b) changes due to regional transport.**



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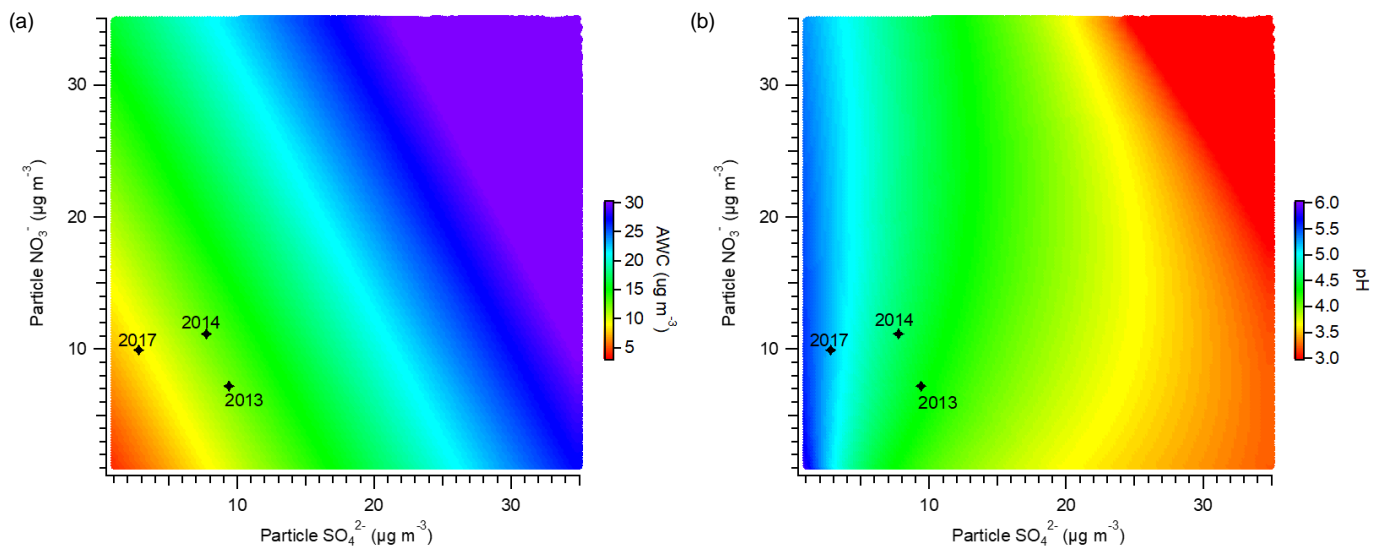
658 **Figure 6. Changes in the anthropogenic emissions of SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, VOCs, primary PM_{2.5}, BC, and OC in (a) Beijing and (b) its**
 659 **surrounding regions from 2014 to 2017.**





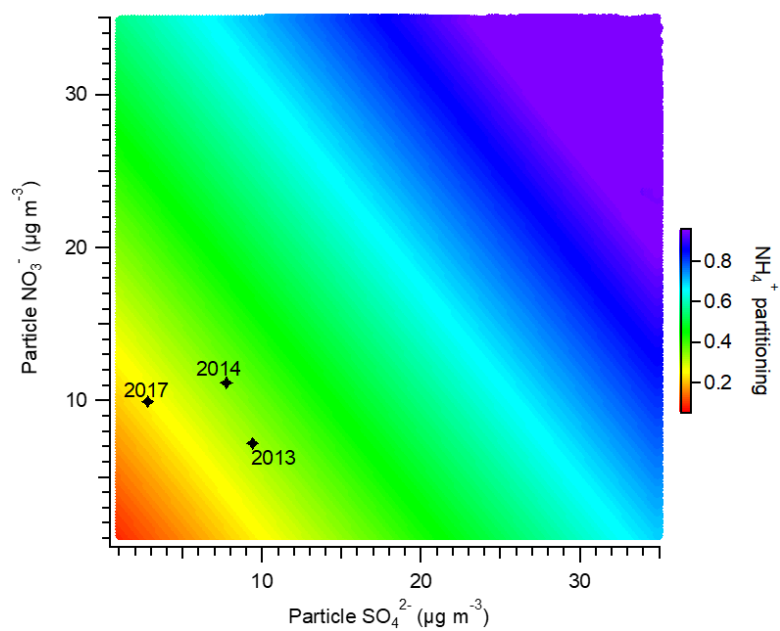
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665 **Figure 8. Variations in (a) SO_4/BC , (b) NO_3/BC , (c) SOR, and (d) NOR plotted against increasing RH. The data are also binned according**
 666 **to RH values, with the median value shown for each bin.**



667

668 **Figure 9. Sensitivity of (a) AWC and (b) particle pH to the mass concentrations of particulate sulfate and nitrate. The stars indicate the**
 669 **average winter conditions for the years 2013, 2014, and 2017.**



670

671 **Figure 10. Sensitivity of the ammonium partitioning ratio to the mass concentrations of particulate sulfate and nitrate. The stars indicate**
 672 **the average winter conditions for the years 2013, 2014, and 2017.**