

1 Dear Editors:

2 Thank you very much for your careful review and helpful comments for improving
3 our manuscript acp-2019-758. We have accordingly made the careful revisions.
4 Revised portions are highlighted in the revised manuscript. In the following we
5 quoted each review question in the square brackets and added our response after each
6 paragraph.

7

8 *[1. Page 2. Line 21. change "observational" to "observed".]*

9 **Response 1:** It has been changed.

10

11 *[2. Page 2. Line 35-36. remove "that contributes...YRMB area"]*

12 **Response 2:** It has been removed.

13

14 *[3. Page 3. Line 43. remove "traffic".]*

15 **Response 3:** It has been removed.

16

17 *[4. Page 3. Line 60. "As of late"? do you understand what you mean]*

18 **Response 4:** We have changed "As of late" to "Over recent years".

19

20 *[5. Page 4. Line 69. "The emissions factor includes ...". This statement is not correct. "chemical
21 production and transformation" should not be counted in emissions.]*

22 **Response 5:** We have corrected the sentence to "The emission factor includes
23 emission source strength of air pollutants and the precursors" and moved the

24 “chemical transformation” into the following sentence.

25

26 *[6. Page 6. Line 106. add "of" in-between "one which".]*

27 **Response 6:** It has been corrected.

28

29 *[7. Page 7. Line 139. change "coupled offline with" to "driven by"]*

30 **Response 7:** It has been changed.

31

32 *[8. Page 8. Line 161-162. It worths to give a bit more detail on the performance for different*
33 *variables and sites for people who do not know much about the Taylor diagram.]*

34 **Response 8:** Many thanks for the editor’s careful review. The performance for
35 different variables of air temperature, wind speed, relative humidity and air pressure
36 at five sites over CEC was validated with standard deviation and the normalized
37 root-mean-square error between simulations and observations in the Taylor diagram.
38 Please the detail on the performance in the caption of Fig. 2.

39

40 *[9. Page 9. Line 169-170. Please explain how you determine the residence time.]*

41 **Response 9:** Many thanks for the editor’s careful review. We have explained the
42 residence time calculation as follows:

43 Stohl et al. (2005) mathematically derived the residence time for particles out of
44 FLEXPART. Generally, in the backward trajectory of FLEXPART modeling, many
45 particles are released at a receptor and transported backward in time. Then the
46 residence time (not the lifetime) of all particles, normalized by the total number of
47 released particles, is determined on a uniform grid.

48 **References**

49 Stohl, A., Forster, C., Frank, A., Seibert, P., and Wotawa, G.: Technical note: The
50 Lagrangian particle dispersion model FLEXPART version 6.2, Atmospheric
51 Chemistry & Physics, 5, 2461-2474, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-5-2461-2005>, 2015.

52

53 *[10. Page 9. Line 172. add "as" after "considered"]*

54 **Response 10:** It has been corrected.

55

56 *[11. Page 9. Line 179. "h" to "hour"]*

57 **Response 11:** It has been corrected.

58

59 *[12. Page 9. Line 184-186. "The primary PM_{2.5} emission data..." Does MEIC provide PM_{2.5}*
60 *emissions? or emissions for BC, SO₂,]*

61 **Response 12:** Many thanks for the editor's careful review. MEIC provide 10 major
62 atmospheric pollutants and greenhouse gases (included SO₂, NO_x, CO, NMVOC,
63 NH₃, CO₂, primary PM_{2.5}, primary PM₁₀, BC and OC), and it can be found in the
64 MEIC website (<http://www.meicmodel.org/about.html>).

65

66 *[13. Page 11. Line 214. remove "apparent"]*

67 **Response 13:** It has been corrected.

68

69 *[14. Page 12. Line 249. "precipitation could impact the emissions". How can precipitation impacts*
70 *the emissions?]*

71 **Response 14:** We have clarified with “precipitation could impact the emissions of
72 fugitive dust” .

73

74 *[15. Page 17. Line 350. change "exhibited" to "shown"]*

75 **Response 15:** It has been corrected.

76

77 *[16. Page 17. Figure 7a. Where do the PM_{2.5} concentrations (color contour in Figure 7a) come
78 from?]*

79 **Response 16:** The PM_{2.5} concentrations were observed from the national air quality
80 monitoring network operated by the Ministry of Ecology and Environment, China.

81

82 *[17. Page 20. Line 412. move "in the YRMB area" to behind "the PM_{2.5} concentrations"]*

83 **Response 17:** It has been corrected.

84

85 *[18. Page 21. Line 425. Cite Gao et al. (2011) which had used the WRF-Chem to study the
86 contributions of regional transport and other aerosol processes (emission, wet scavenging) to air
87 pollution reduction in Beijing Olympic.*

88 *Gao, Y., X. Liu, C. Zhao, and M. Zhang (2011), Emission controls versus
89 meteorological conditions in determining aerosol concentrations in Beijing during the
90 2008 Olympic Games, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 11, 12437-12451.]*

91 **Response 18:** Thanks for the article information. It has been cited.

92

93

94 **Heavy air pollution with a unique “non-stagnant”**
95 **atmospheric boundary layer in the Yangtze River Middle**
96 **Basin aggravated by regional transport of PM_{2.5} over China**

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109

110 **Abstract:** The regional transport of air pollutants, controlled by emission sources and
111 meteorological factors, results in a complex source-receptor relationship of air pollution change.
112 Wuhan, a metropolis in the Yangtze River Middle Basin (YRMB) of Central China, experienced

113 heavy air pollution characterized by hourly PM_{2.5} concentrations reaching 471.1 μg m⁻³ in January
114 2016. To investigate the regional transport of PM_{2.5} over central-eastern China (CEC) and the
115 meteorological impact on wintertime air pollution in the YRMB area, ~~observational-observed~~
116 meteorological and other relevant environmental data from January 2016 were analyzed. Our
117 analysis presented noteworthy cases of heavy PM_{2.5} pollution in the YRMB area with unique
118 “non-stagnant” meteorological conditions of strong northerly winds, no temperature inversion, and
119 additional unstable structures in the atmospheric boundary layer. This unique set of conditions
120 differed from the stagnant meteorological conditions characterized by near-surface weak winds,
121 air temperature inversion, and stable structure in the boundary layer that are typically observed in
122 heavy air pollution over most regions in China. The regional transport of PM_{2.5} over CEC
123 aggravated PM_{2.5} levels, thus creating heavy air pollution in the YRMB area. This demonstrates a
124 source-receptor relationship between the originating air pollution regions in CEC and the
125 receiving YRMB region. Furthermore, a backward trajectory simulation using a FLEXPART-WRF
126 model to integrate the air pollutant emission inventory over China was used to explore the patterns
127 of regional transport of PM_{2.5} governed by the strong northerly winds in the cold air activity of the
128 East Asian winter monsoon season ~~that contributes markedly to the heavy PM_{2.5} pollution in the~~
129 ~~YRMB area~~. It was estimated that the regional transport of PM_{2.5} from non-local air pollutant
130 emissions contributes more than 65% of the PM_{2.5} concentrations to the heavy air pollution in the
131 YRMB region during the study period, revealing the importance of the regional transport of air
132 pollutants over China as a causative factor of heavy air pollution over the YRMB area.

133 **Key words:** PM_{2.5} pollution; Yangtze River Middle Basin; meteorological condition; regional
134 transport; FLEXPART-WRF

135 1. Introduction

136 Haze pollution can result in serious environmental problems that adversely influence ~~traffic~~,
137 human health, climate change, and other significant aspects (An et al., 2019; Fuzzi et al., 2015;
138 Nel, 2005). Based on observations in China, there is a well-established association between haze
139 pollution and high concentrations of PM_{2.5} (particulate matter with an aerodynamic diameter equal
140 to or less than 2.5 μm). Air pollution levels are highly dependent on the emissions of air pollutants
141 and changes in meteorology (An et al., 2019; Tie et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2016a; Xu et al., 2016b).
142 The accumulation, maintenance, and dissipation of haze pollution events are generally determined
143 by meteorological changes (Zhang et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2015), among which boundary layer
144 structures play the most important role (Zhao et al., 2013). Meteorological conditions of
145 stagnation, characterized by near-surface low winds, high humidity, and stable boundary layers,
146 could govern the periodic variations of haze pollution, which present as typical wintertime air
147 pollution in China (Huang et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2016b; Zhang et al., 2013). Major anthropogenic
148 pollutant sources exist over the vast flatland in central-eastern China (CEC), from the eastern
149 edges of the Tibetan Plateau and the Loess Plateau to China's Pacific coast. In the CEC, four
150 major regions of emission sources that exhibit haze pollution with excessive PM_{2.5} concentrations
151 and overall poor air quality are centered over the North China Plain (NCP), the Yangtze River
152 Delta (YRD) in East China, the Pearl River Delta (PRD) in South China, and the Sichuan Basin
153 (SCB) in Southwest China. ~~Over recent years, As of late, sS~~evere haze pollution events that have
154 swept over much of CEC have been attributed to the regional transport of air pollutants (Cheng et
155 al., 2008; Deng et al., 2011; Qiao et al., 2019; Tie et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2016; Zhang et al.,
156 2012). The regional transport of air pollutants with a source-receptor relationship is an important

157 issue in our understanding of changes in air quality.

158 The source-receptor relationship of air pollution describes the impacts of emissions from
159 an upwind source region to pollutant concentrations or deposition at a downwind receptor area
160 (Seibert and Frank, 2004). The regional transport of source-receptor air pollutants is generally
161 complicated by two types of factors: emissions and meteorology (Voulgarakis et al., 2010; Zhao et
162 al., 2012). The emission factor includes emission source strength [of air pollutants and the](#)
163 [precursors](#). Meanwhile, the meteorological factor determines the transport pathway from the
164 source to receptor regions, exchanges between the boundary layer and free troposphere, [the](#)
165 [chemical transformation and](#) the removal processes occurring over the source and receptor regions
166 as well as along the transport pathways. Driven by atmospheric circulations, the regional transport
167 of PM_{2.5} from source regions can deteriorate air quality in the downwind receptor regions, leading
168 to the regional haze pollution observed in a large area over China (Chang et al., 2018; He et al.,
169 2017; Hu et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2014).

170 The Yangtze River Middle Basin (YRMB) covers the lower subbasin of two provinces,
171 Hubei and Hunan, in Central China. It is geographically surrounded by four major haze pollution
172 regions, the NCP to the north, the YRD to the east, the PRD to the south, and the SCB to the west
173 (Fig. 1a). Due to the specialized location of the YRMB as a regional air pollutant transport hub
174 with subbasin topography (Fig. 1b), the regional transport of air pollutants driven by the cold air
175 flows of East Asian winter monsoon over CEC can create a special source-receptor relationship
176 between the source regions of haze pollution in upstream and the downwind YRMB region
177 (Zhong et al., 2019). However, there are unresolved questions regarding the meteorological

178 processes involved in the regional transport of air pollutants and the patterns of regional transport
179 over CEC that may contribute to the air pollution changes observed in the YRMB area.

180 Wuhan, a metropolis located in the YRMB, has confronted environmental problems
181 associated with urban air pollution, especially the heavy $PM_{2.5}$ pollution events that occur
182 frequently in the winter (Gong et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2017). Local emissions of air pollutants from
183 urban transportation, industrial exhaust, and bio-combustion play an important role in the YRMB
184 urban air pollution (Acciai et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2015). Previous observational and modeling
185 studies on air pollution in this area have been conducted (Wu et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2019).
186 However, the regional transport routes of $PM_{2.5}$ across CEC are governed by meteorological
187 drivers and their contribution to air pollution over the YRMB area are poorly understood,
188 especially in relation to heavy air pollution events. This study selected Wuhan as a representative
189 area within the YRMB for investigating the meteorological changes of air pollution events in
190 January 2016 and assessing the contribution of regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ over CEC to heavy air
191 pollution in the YRMB area.

192 **2. Data and methods**

193 **2.1 Data**

194 Wuhan, the capital of the Hubei province, is located across the Yangtze River where its
195 surrounding water network attributes to its humid environment (Fig. 1b). In order to analyze the
196 air quality changes in Wuhan, hourly concentrations of air pollutants, including $PM_{2.5}$ in January
197 2016, were collected from the national air quality monitoring network operated by the Ministry of
198 Ecology and Environment (<http://www.mee.gov.cn/>), including ten observational sites in Wuhan,

199 nine of which were urban sites in residential and industrial zones and one of which was suburban
200 (Fig. S1). The air quality observation data are released by the Ministry of Ecology and
201 Environmental and Environmental Protection under quality control that is based on China's
202 national standard of air quality observation.

203 The meteorological data of surface observations and air sounding in Wuhan and other
204 observatories in CEC were obtained from the Meteorological Data Sharing Network of China
205 Meteorological Administration (<http://data.cma.cn/>). The data selected for this study included air
206 temperature, relative humidity, air pressure, and wind speed and wind direction. In order to
207 analyze the meteorological variations in the atmospheric boundary layer at the time of our study,
208 we used data with temporal resolutions of 3 h for surface observations, and 12 h for sounding
209 observations.

210 The surface PM_{2.5} concentrations, averaged over the ten observational sites in Wuhan, were
211 used to characterize the variations of air pollution in January 2016 over this urban area.
212 Correlation coefficients were calculated between the 10-site averages and the observed
213 meteorological elements, including wind speed and air temperature, in Wuhan to explore the local
214 meteorological influences on the changes of ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations.

215 The ERA-Interim reanalysis data from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather
216 Forecasts (ECMWF) (<https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/>) were
217 applied to explore the cold air flows of East Asian winter monsoonal winds in January 2016 and
218 their anomalies during heavy PM_{2.5} pollution over CEC.

219 **2.2 FLEXPART-WRF modeling**

220 **2.2.1 Model description**

221 The Flexible Particle dispersion (FLEXPART) model (Stohl et al., 2003; Stohl et al., 2005) is
222 a Lagrange particle diffusion model developed by the Norwegian Institute for Air Research
223 (NIAR). In this model, the trajectory of a large number of particles released from a source is
224 simulated, considering the processes of tracer transport, turbulent diffusion, and wet and dry
225 depositions in the atmosphere (Brioude et al., 2013). Applying a backward trajectory simulation
226 can determine the distribution of potential source regions that may have an impact on a target
227 point or receptor region (Chen et al., 2017a; Chen et al., 2017b; Seibert and Frank, 2004; Zhai et
228 al., 2016).

229 Initially, the FLEXPART model could be driven by the global reanalysis meteorological data
230 obtained from the ECMWF or the National Centers of Environmental Prediction (NCEP).
231 However, since this study focuses on the fine and multiscale modeling of air pollutant sources and
232 regional transport, the FLEXPART model was ~~driven by coupled offline with~~ the Weather Research
233 and Forecasting (WRF) model to effectively devise the combined model FLEXPART-WRF (Fast
234 and Easter, 2006; Brioude et al., 2013), which has been widely used to investigate the potential
235 sources of air pollutants regarding environmental change (An et al., 2014; De Foy et al., 2011;
236 Sauvage et al., 2017; Stohl et al., 2003).

237

238 **2.2.2 WRF modeling configuration and meteorological validation**

239 In this study, the WRF model was configured with two nested domains, coarse and fine. The

240 coarse domain covered the entirety of Asia with a 30×30 km horizontal resolution, and the nested
241 fine domain included most of China and its surrounding regions with a 10×10 km horizontal
242 resolution (Fig. S2). The physical parameterizations used in WRF modeling were selected with the
243 Morrison microphysics scheme (Morrison et al., 2009), the Rapid Radiative Transfer Model
244 (RRTM) scheme for long and short wave radiation (Mlawer et al., 1997), the Yonsei University
245 (YSU) boundary layer scheme (Hong et al., 2006), the Grell 3D cumulus parameterization, and the
246 Noah land surface scheme (Grell et al., 2005). Using the reanalysis meteorological data in the
247 horizontal resolutions of $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ obtained from NCEP for initial and boundary meteorological
248 conditions, the WRF simulation ran 12 h each time, where the first 6 h simulations constituted
249 spin-up time.

250 The WRF-simulated meteorological fields, which included wind speed and direction, air
251 temperature, relative humidity, and air pressure, were compared with observations at five typical
252 sites (Wuhan, Changsha, Hefei, Zhengzhou, and Nanchang) over CEC (Fig. 2). The correlation
253 coefficients were calculated and found to pass the significance level of 0.001, and the normalized
254 standardized deviations were determined to be low (Taylor, 2001) (Fig. 2). Based on these results,
255 it was evaluated that the WRF modeled meteorology was reasonably consistent with observations
256 and could be used to drive the FLEXPART backward trajectory simulation.

257 **2.3 Estimating contribution of regional transport of PM_{2.5} to air pollution**

258 In the FLEXPART-WRF model, the trajectory of particles released from a source is simulated.
259 Using this Lagrangian method could result in a Jacobian matrix (footprint) with units of mass per
260 volume per unit flux. Stohl et al (2005) mathematically derived the residence time for particles out

261 of FLEXPART. Generally, in the backward trajectory of FLEXPART modeling, many particles are
262 released at a receptor and transported backward in time. Then the residence time (not the lifetime)
263 of all particles, normalized by the total number of released particles, is determined on a uniform
264 grid. Selecting Wuhan as the receptor in the YRMB, the residence time for a thickness of 100 m
265 above the surface was calculated and considered as the “footprint” (in units of s). By multiplying
266 the residence time with the air pollutant emission flux in the respective grid cell (in units of $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$
267 s^{-1}) calculated from the air pollutant emission inventory of 2016 for China
268 (<http://www.meicmodel.org/>), the emission source contribution (in units of $\mu\text{g m}^{-2}$) from this grid
269 cell to the receptor’s air pollution change could be estimated (Stohl et al., 2003; Stohl et al., 2005;
270 Ding et al., 2009).

271 In this study, the FLEXPART-WRF simulation was conducted for a ~~48-h~~48-hour backward
272 trajectory with the release of 50,000 air particles in the first h from Wuhan (30.61°N, 114.42°E)
273 for three heavy pollution events in January 2016. The results were output with the residence time
274 of air particles in a horizontal resolution of $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$. The simulations of particle residence time
275 over the 48 h backward trajectory pathways were multiplied with the regional primary $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
276 emission fluxes to quantify the contribution of regional transport of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ to air quality change in
277 the YRMB area while identifying patterns of regional transport of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ over CEC. The primary
278 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emission data from the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC)
279 (<http://www.meicmodel.org/>) in 2016 were selected for use as the regional $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emission fluxes
280 in this study.

281 Based on this backward trajectory simulation, the upstream sources of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ emissions for
282 heavy air pollution in Wuhan were identified. The contribution rates $\text{rate}_{i,j}$ of regional transport of

283 PM_{2.5} from the upstream sources to air pollution in the downstream receptor region of the YRMB
 284 were calculated by Eq. (1), and the total contribution **R** of regional transport from the non-local
 285 emission sources are estimated by Eq. (2) (Chen et al., 2017b; Ding et al., 2009).

$$rate_{i,j} = \frac{E_{i,j} \times r_{i,j}}{\sum_{i=1}^{N,S} E_{i,j} \times r_{i,j}} \quad (1)$$

286

$$R = \sum_{(N_1, S_1)}^{(N_2, S_2)} rate_{i,j} \quad (2)$$

287 where the subscripts **i** and **j** represent a grid location (**i, j**) over the 48 h backward trajectory from
 288 the first grid (**i=1, j=1**) in Wuhan to the last grid (**i=N, j=S**) over CEC; **r_{ij}** represents the residence
 289 time of PM_{2.5} particles simulated by FLEXPART-WRF; and **E_{ij}** represents the PM_{2.5} emission flux
 290 over the grid. In Eq. (2), the first grid location (**N₁, S₁**) and the last grid location (**N₂, S₂**) over the
 291 non-local emission sources and the local area of Wuhan were determined, respectively, by the
 292 regional transport of PM_{2.5} pathways and the YRMB area in Wuhan as simulated by the
 293 FLEXPART-WRF model.

294 **3. Results and Discussion**

295 **3.1 Variations in local PM_{2.5} concentrations and meteorology in January 2016**

296 Based on the National Ambient Air Quality Standards of China released by the Ministry of
 297 Ecology and Environment in 2012 (<http://www.mee.gov.cn/>), light and heavy air pollution levels
 298 of PM_{2.5} are categorized by the daily average PM_{2.5} concentrations exceeding 75 and 150 µg m⁻³ in
 299 ambient air, respectively. The average monthly PM_{2.5} concentration reached 105.8 µg m⁻³ in
 300 Wuhan, where the daily PM_{2.5} concentrations exceeded 75 µg m⁻³ on 27 days during the entire
 301 month of January 2016 (Fig. 3a), indicating that this YRMB urban area was under significant

302 PM_{2.5} pollution during this wintertime period. As shown in Figure 3a, a 21 day prolonged air
303 pollution event resulted from high levels of daily PM_{2.5} concentrations ($> 75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) from the 1st
304 to the 21st. During this period, three notably heavy air pollution events occurred on January 4th, the
305 10th to the 12th, and the 17th to the 18th with excessive daily PM_{2.5} concentrations ($>150 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$).
306 These three events are marked as P1, P2, and P3, respectively (Fig. 3b). Based on these
307 observations, we found the interesting phenomenon of an ~~apparent~~ approximately 7 day cycle of
308 heavy air pollution, reflecting an important modulation of meteorological oscillation in the East
309 Asian winter monsoonal winds affecting air pollution over the YRMB region (Xu et al., 2016a). A
310 period analysis on long-term observation data of air quality could provide further understanding
311 on air quality changes associated with meteorological drivers.

312 Figure 3b presents the hourly changes of PM_{2.5} concentrations during the three heavy air
313 pollution events P1, P2, and P3. P1 began at 11:00 a.m. (local time is used for all events) and
314 ended at 11:00 p.m. the same day with an observed PM_{2.5} concentration peak of $471.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. P2
315 occurred from 10:00 p.m. on the 10th to 00:00 a.m. on the 12th. Over the 26 hour duration, it had
316 two peaks: 231.4 and $210.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. P3 occurred between 7:00 p.m. on the 17th and 2:00 p.m. on
317 the 18th with an explosive growth rate of $42.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ h}^{-1}$. These events were characterized by short
318 durations of less than 26 h from rapid accumulation to fast dissipation.

319 The changes in PM_{2.5} concentrations presented few differences between the suburban and
320 urban sites. Both had similar patterns and peaks of hourly changes during the heavy pollution
321 periods (Figs. S3, S4, and S5), demonstrating that regional heavy air pollution in a large area of
322 the YRMB region is, in part, due to regional transport over CEC. The only obvious differences in
323 air pollutant concentrations were measured during the clean air periods (PM_{2.5} concentration < 75

324 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) with the ~~relative~~relatively high and low concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at urban and suburban
325 sites, respectively (Figs. S3, S4, and S5). This shows the important influence of high air pollutant
326 emissions over urban areas on local air quality.

327 Using the environmental and meteorological data observed in Wuhan in January 2016, the
328 effects of the meteorological conditions on $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in the YRMB region were
329 statistically analyzed in regard to hourly variations of surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations, near-surface
330 wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), surface air temperature (T) and pressure (P), and relative
331 humidity (RH) (Fig. 4). Among the observed changes shown in Figure 4, the changes of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
332 concentrations were found to have obviously positive correlations to T and RH, as well as a
333 pronounced negative correlation to P and a weak positive correlation to WS (Table 1). There are
334 several reasons for these results. Firstly, the lower WS could alter the concentrations of air
335 pollutants with a weaker advection of cold air in conjunction with strong subsidence and stable
336 atmospheric stratification, thus easily producing a stagnation area in the lower troposphere and
337 resulting in regional pollutant accumulations for the development of haze events. Secondly, in the
338 presence of high soil moisture, strong surface evaporation could increase the near-surface RH,
339 which is conducive to the hygroscopic growth of particles for haze formation (Dawson et al.,
340 2014; Xu et al., 2016a). Additionally, high air temperature and strong solar radiation could
341 enhance chemical conversions for the formation of secondary aerosols in the atmosphere (He et al.,
342 2012; Huang et al., 2014). Furthermore, precipitation could impact the emissions of fugitive dust
343 and depositions of air pollutants (Dawson et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2016). These observations
344 could reflect the special influences of meteorological factors, such as winds, air temperature,
345 humidity, and precipitation, on the physical and chemical processes in the ambient atmosphere that

346 affect air quality change in the YRMB region.

347 **3.2 A unique meteorological condition of “non-stagnation” for heavy PM_{2.5}** 348 **pollution**

349 **3.2.1 Strong northerly winds**

350 When we focused on the meteorological changes leading to high PM_{2.5} levels exceeding 150
351 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the heavy air pollution events, it is noteworthy that all three episodes, P1, P2, and P3,
352 were accompanied with strong WSs in the northerly direction, as well as evident turning points in
353 prevailing conditions leading to falling T and increasing P (Fig. 4). The conditions observed
354 during these episodes present the typical meteorological characteristics of cold air invasion with
355 high air pressure over the East Asian monsoon region. The southward advance of a cold front
356 could drive the regional transport of air pollutants over CEC (Kang et al., 2019). Climatologically,
357 a strong northerly wind, low air temperature, and high air pressure are typical features of an
358 incursion of cold air during the East Asian winter monsoon season that could disperse air
359 pollutants, thus improving air quality in the NCP region (Miao et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2016b). This
360 differs from the meteorological conditions of stagnation with weak winds observed for heavy air
361 pollution events in the major air pollution regions of CEC (Ding et al., 2017; Huang et al., 2018),
362 and the strong near-surface wind that anomalously accompanied the intensification of PM_{2.5}
363 during heavy air pollution periods over the study area (Fig. 4). This could imply that the regional
364 air pollutant transport is worsening air quality over the YRMB, driven by the strong northerly
365 winds during the East Asian winter monsoon season.

366 To further investigate the connection between meteorological elements in the near-surface

367 layer and changes in air quality affected by PM_{2.5} concentrations in the YRMB region, we carried
368 out a more detailed correlation analysis of PM_{2.5} concentrations in Wuhan with WS and air
369 temperature for three different levels of PM_{2.5} concentrations: clean air environment (PM_{2.5} < 75
370 μg m⁻³), light air pollution (75 μg m⁻³ ≤ PM_{2.5} < 150 μg m⁻³) and heavy air pollution (PM_{2.5} ≥ 150
371 μg m⁻³) periods (Table 2). The surface PM_{2.5} concentrations were positively correlated with air
372 temperature, and negatively correlated with wind speeds during the periods of clean air
373 environment and light air pollution. It should be emphasized here that a significantly negative
374 correlation (R = -0.19) of PM_{2.5} concentrations to WS for the light air pollution period could
375 indicate that weak winds are favorable for local PM_{2.5} accumulation, reflecting an important effect
376 of local air pollutant emissions on light air pollution periods over the YRMB area. In January 2016,
377 the overall wind speed of Wuhan was weak with a monthly mean value of 2.0 m s⁻¹, which could
378 help maintain the high PM_{2.5} levels in the prolonged air pollution events experienced in the YRMB
379 area. However, a significantly positive correlation (R = 0.41) existed between heavy air pollution
380 levels of PM_{2.5} concentrations (PM_{2.5} > 150 μg m⁻³) and strong WSs during the heavy air pollution
381 periods, which was inconsistent with the meteorological conditions of stagnation observed in the
382 near-surface layer where weak winds were associated with heavy air pollution in East China (Cao
383 et al., 2012; Deng et al., 2011). The meteorology and environment conditions in the YRMB region
384 indicate the close association of heavy air pollution periods enhancing PM_{2.5} concentrations with
385 strong winds (Fig. 4, Table 2), therefore, reflecting a key role of regional transport of air pollutants
386 in the development of the YRMB's heavy air pollution periods.

387 In order to clearly illustrate the impact of wind speed and direction on the PM_{2.5}
388 concentrations associated with the regional transport of upwind air pollutants, Figure 5 presents

389 the relation of hourly changes in surface PM_{2.5} concentrations to WS and wind direction in Wuhan
390 during January 2016. As seen in Figure 5, strong northerly winds accompanied extremely high
391 PM_{2.5} concentrations ($> 150 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during the heavy air pollution periods, including a northeast
392 gale exceeding 5 m s^{-1} during the extreme heavy pollution periods with extremely high PM_{2.5}
393 concentrations ($> 300 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). These results reveal a unique meteorological condition of
394 “non-stagnation” with strong winds during events of heavy air pollution over the YRMB area.
395 Conversely, the observed PM_{2.5} concentrations ranging between 75 and $150 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for light air
396 pollution periods generally corresponded with low wind speeds ($< 2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$) (Fig. 5). Therefore, it is
397 the meteorological condition of stagnation, characterized by weak winds, involved in the
398 accumulation of local air pollutants that is responsible for the light air pollution periods.
399 Meteorological impacts on air quality could include not only the stagnant condition of
400 meteorology with weak winds and stable boundary layer but also air temperature, humidity,
401 precipitation, and atmospheric radiation in close connection with atmospheric physical and
402 chemical processes. The meteorological drivers of air quality change are complicated by a series
403 of physical and chemical processes in the atmosphere, especially the formation of secondary air
404 pollutants with strong hygroscopic growth in the humid air environment overlying the dense water
405 network (Fig. 1b) in the YRMB region (Cheng et al., 2014; He et al., 2012; Huang et al., 2014).

406 **3.2.2 Unstable structures in the atmospheric boundary layer**

407 The air sounding data observed in Wuhan were used to compare the structures of the
408 atmospheric boundary layer during the heavy air pollution and clean air periods. Figure 6 presents
409 the vertical profiles of air temperature, wind velocity, and potential temperature averaged for the
410 heavy PM_{2.5} pollution and clean air periods in January 2016. It can be seen that the inversion layer

411 of air temperature did not exist during the heavy pollution periods, while a near-surface inversion
412 layer appeared at the height of about 200 m during the clean air periods (Fig. 6a). Compared to the
413 clean air period, the heavy air pollution events had stronger winds within the 1000 m layer but
414 weaker winds above the 1000 m layer (Fig. 6b), indicating that the regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ was
415 mainly limited to the 1000 m layer, especially between 250 m and 800 m. These vertical structures
416 of horizontal wind could conduce to the downward mixing of the regionally transported air
417 pollutants and produce the near-surface accumulations of air pollutants over the YRMB area with
418 elevated ambient $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, thus contributing to heavy air pollution.

419 To quantitatively characterize the stability of the atmospheric boundary layer, the vertical
420 profiles of potential air temperature (θ) were calculated with air temperature and pressure (Fig. 6c).
421 In this study, the vertical change rate of θ was used to quantify the static stability of the boundary
422 layer (Oke, 2002). A lower vertical change rate of θ generally indicates decreasing stability or
423 increasing instability of the boundary layer. The averaged static stability values of the near-surface
424 layer below a height of 200 m during the heavy pollution and clean air periods were
425 approximately 4.4 and 13.2 K km^{-1} , respectively (Table 3). This obvious decrease in stability of
426 the boundary layer from clean air to heavy pollution periods indicates an anomalous tendency of
427 the unstable boundary layer for the heavy pollution periods during January 2016 in the YRMB
428 area.

429 The meteorological conditions of stagnation characterized by weak wind, temperature
430 inversion, and a stable vertical structure of the atmospheric boundary layer are generally accepted
431 as the typical meteorological drivers for heavy air pollution (An et al., 2019; Ding et al., 2017).
432 Nevertheless, this study revealed a unique meteorological condition of “non-stagnation” in the

433 atmospheric boundary layer during heavy air pollution periods characterized by strong wind, lack
434 of an inversion layer, and a more unstable structure of the atmospheric boundary layer. These
435 “non-stagnant” meteorological conditions could be generally regarded as the typical pattern of
436 atmospheric circulation that facilitates the regional transport of air pollutants from upstream
437 sources to downwind receptor regions. The regional transport of PM_{2.5} connected with the
438 source-receptor relationship between the air pollution regions in CEC and the YRMB area was
439 further investigated with the following observational and modeling analyses.

440 **3.3 Regional transport of PM_{2.5} in northerly winds observed over CEC**

441 The monthly averages of PM_{2.5} concentrations and the anomalies of wind speed averaged in
442 three heavy air pollution periods relative to the monthly mean wind speed in January 2016
443 observed over CEC are ~~exhibited~~shown in Figure 7. Note that a large area of CEC experienced air
444 pollution with high levels of PM_{2.5} > 75 µg m⁻³ that were especially severe in the NCP region and
445 the Fenhe-Weihe Plain in Central China (Fig. 7a). As seen in Figure 7, Wuhan (site 1 in Fig. 7a)
446 and the surrounding YRMB region were situated in the downwind southern edge of the air
447 pollution area blanketing CEC (Fig. 7a), where the northerly winds prevailed (Fig. 7b).
448 Climatologically, CEC is a typical region of East Asian monsoons dominated with wintertime
449 northerly winds (Ding, 1993). Note that the anomalously stronger northerly winds were observed
450 over upstream CEC during the three periods of wintertime heavy PM_{2.5} pollution (Fig. 7b). Driven
451 by the stronger northerly winds, the regional transport of air pollutants from the source regions in
452 windward CEC could largely contribute to heavy air pollution in the downwind receptor region of
453 YRMB.

454 In order to explore the connection between the regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ over CEC and the
455 three events of heavy air pollution in the YRMB region, six observational sites were selected from
456 the northwestern, northern, and northeastern directions over upstream CEC (Fig. 7a). These sites
457 represent three different routes of the regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ to Wuhan (site 1 in Fig. 7a) and
458 are governed by the southward incursion of stronger northerly winds (Fig. 7b). Figure 8 presents
459 the temporal changes of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration and wind speed along three typical routes of regional
460 transport of $PM_{2.5}$ over CEC. The southeastward movement of heavy $PM_{2.5}$ pollution was driven
461 by stronger northerly winds from Luoyang and Xinyang to Wuhan (sites 3, 2, and 1 in Fig. 7) and
462 presented a northwestern route of regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ for P1 (see upper panels of Fig. 8).
463 The westward advance of $PM_{2.5}$ peaks was governed by the northeastern winds from Tongling and
464 Hefei to Wuhan (sites 6, 5, and 1 in Fig. 7a). The regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ across Eastern China
465 to the YRMB in Central China exerted a significant impact on P2 (see middle panels of Fig. 8). A
466 northern pathway of regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ connected Zhengzhou and Xinyang to Wuhan
467 (sites 4, 2, and 1 in Fig. 7a) during P3 with anomalously strong northerly winds (see Fig. 7b and
468 lower panels of Fig. 8). Note, in Figure 8, that the heavy $PM_{2.5}$ pollution periods at the upstream
469 sites of Hefei, Tongling, Luoyang, Xinyang, and Zhengzhou (sites 2-6 in Fig. 7a) were generally
470 dispelled by strong northerly winds. At the same time, these winds could trigger the periods of
471 heavy $PM_{2.5}$ pollution in the YRMB region (Wuhan, site 1 in Fig. 7a). Such inverse effects of
472 strong winds on heavy air pollution in CEC and the YRMB region show the important role that
473 regional transport of air pollutants can have in cleaning and worsening air pollution in the
474 upstream CEC source regions and the downstream YRMB receptor region, respectively.

475 The regional transport over CEC that is associated with the source-receptor relationship

476 directing heavy $PM_{2.5}$ pollution to the YRMB region was revealed via observational analysis. The
477 FLEXPART-WRF backward trajectory modeling was used to further identify the patterns of
478 regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ and estimate the resulting contribution to heavy air pollution in the
479 YRMB region in the following section.

480 **3.4 Contribution of regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ to heavy pollution**

481 In this study, for the receptor of Wuhan, the $PM_{2.5}$ contributions of regional transport over
482 CEC to air pollution in the downwind receptor region could be approximately estimated. These
483 estimations were based on the product of the residence time of air particles during regional
484 transport as simulated by the FLEXPART-WRF model, and the $PM_{2.5}$ emission flux over the
485 source grid in CEC determined by Eq. (1). The data yielded a so-called potential source
486 contribution map, which is the geographical distribution of the regional transport contribution
487 rates (%) of the emission source grid cell to $PM_{2.5}$ pollution at the receptor of Wuhan (Fig. 9).

488 The non-local emission sources that affected $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during P1, P2, and P3
489 were quantified over CEC using the $PM_{2.5}$ contribution rates calculated with Eq. (1). Combining
490 the distribution of high $PM_{2.5}$ contribution rates with the prevailing winds experienced during the
491 three heavy $PM_{2.5}$ pollution periods, the major pathways of regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ over CEC
492 could be recognized (Fig. 9). During P1 in the YRMB region, the regional transport of air
493 pollutants was centered along a northwestern route from the Fenhe-Weihe Plain in Central China,
494 and a northeastern route from the YRD region in Eastern China (Fig. 9a). The YRD emission
495 sources of air pollutants exerted a large impact on P2 through regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ across
496 Eastern China to the YRMB region along the north side of Yangtze River (Fig. 9b). Two major

497 regional transport pathways of $PM_{2.5}$ indicated by the spatial distribution of high contribution rates
498 of $PM_{2.5}$ from the NCP and YRD regions contributed to the elevated $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during
499 P3 (Fig. 9c). Governed by the anomalous northerly winds in January 2016 (Fig. 7b), the regional
500 transport of $PM_{2.5}$ from the air pollutant emission source regions in CEC provided a significant
501 contribution to the wintertime heavy $PM_{2.5}$ pollution observed in the YRMB region (Figs. 7-9).
502 This was confirmed by the results of the FLEXPART-WRF backward trajectory simulation
503 utilized in this study.

504 The $PM_{2.5}$ contributions of regional transport over CEC to the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in the
505 YRMB area during P1, P2, and P3 ~~in the YRMB area~~ were estimated using Eq. (2) with the
506 resulting high contribution rates of 68.1%, 60.9%, and 65.3%, respectively (Table 4). The regional
507 transport of $PM_{2.5}$ from non-local air pollutant emissions could contribute more than 65% of the
508 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations to the heavy air pollution in the YRMB region during the study period,
509 revealing a large contribution of regional transport of $PM_{2.5}$ over CEC to the enhancement of
510 $PM_{2.5}$ levels in the YRMB area for the wintertime heavy air pollution.

511 Note that the potential source contribution is estimated based on transport alone, ignoring
512 chemical and removal processes. We understand that these processes, including complex
513 deposition, and chemical conversion for the formation of secondary particles, were not introduced
514 in the FLEXPART-WRF simulation, which could represent the basic features of contribution and
515 patterns of regional $PM_{2.5}$ transport over CEC when limited to the primary $PM_{2.5}$ particles
516 highlighted in this study.

517 Normally researchers rely on 3-D numerical models with process analysis capability, such

518 as integrated process rates (IPRs), in order to quantify the contributions of regional transport to the
519 occurrence of air pollution episodes ([Gao et al., 2011](#); Hu et al., 2018; Jiang et al., 2015). In this
520 study, simulations with a Lagrange particle dispersion FLEXPART-WRF model were utilized to
521 calculate the percentage contribution of regional transport while identifying the transport pathway.
522 The major uncertainty of this method for such calculations, as compared to other methods such as
523 IPRs, is that the physical and chemical processes, including chemical conversion for the formation
524 of secondary particles, were not introduced in the FLEXPART-WRF simulation. Considering that
525 there is less precipitation in the winter monsoon season over CEC, this methodology has proven
526 its robustness to quantify the regional transport contribution within the uncertainty range by
527 relying on a portion of secondary organic and inorganic aerosols that resulted from the complex
528 physical and chemical processes in the atmosphere.

529 **4. Conclusions**

530 This study investigated the ambient PM_{2.5} variations over Wuhan, a typical YRMB area in
531 Central China in January 2016, by analyzing the observational data of the environment and
532 meteorology. In addition to this, we did a FLEXPART-WRF simulation to explore the
533 meteorological processes involved in the regional transport of air pollutants, the regional transport
534 patterns of PM_{2.5}, and how it contributes to heavy air pollution in the YRMB region. Focusing our
535 study on three heavy PM_{2.5} pollution periods we found a unique “non-stagnant” atmospheric
536 boundary layer for wintertime heavy air pollution that was aggravated by the regional transport of
537 PM_{2.5} over CEC. This boundary layer was characterized by strong winds, no inversion layer, and a
538 more unstable structure. These non-stagnant conditions during heavy air pollution periods with
539 high PM_{2.5} concentrations facilitate our understanding of the air pollutant source-receptor

540 relationship of regional transport in air quality change. Our study is of great interest to the air
541 quality community given the unique features of the air pollution meteorology, which are very
542 different from “stagnant” meteorological conditions presented in textbooks.

543 Although emissions and local accumulation of air pollutants can lead to the formation of
544 light air pollution, in regard to PM_{2.5} over the YRMB region, the regional transport of PM_{2.5} from
545 upstream source regions of air pollutant emissions in CEC contributed significantly (more than
546 65%) to the excessive PM_{2.5} concentrations during wintertime heavy air pollution in the downwind
547 YRMB region in January 2016, as governed by the strong northerly winds in the East Asian winter
548 monsoon season over CEC.

549 Based on the variations of air quality and meteorology in a typical urban YRMB region, this
550 study revealed a unique “non-stagnant” meteorological condition for heavy air pollution with a
551 strong contribution of regional transport of PM_{2.5} over China. These conditions and contributions
552 can be investigated further with climate analyses of long-term observations and more
553 comprehensive modeling of air quality and meteorology.

554

555 **Data availability:** The data used in this paper can be provided by Chao Yu
556 (ychao012@foxmail.com) upon request.

557

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559

560 **Author contributions:** CY, TZ, and YB conducted the study design. XY, LZ, and SK provided
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771 China, *Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 19, 3287–3306, <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-3287-2019>, 2019.

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775

776 **Table 1.** Correlation coefficients between hourly $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations and near-surface
 777 meteorological elements WS (wind speed), T (air temperature), P (air pressure), and RH (relative
 778 humidity) in Wuhan in January 2016.

Correlation coefficients	WS	T	P	RH
$PM_{2.5}$	0.10	0.31	-0.47	0.20

779

780

781 **Table 2.** Correlation coefficients of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations with wind speed (WS) and air
 782 temperature (T) in different air quality levels during the study period.

Air quality	$PM_{2.5}$ levels	Number of samples	WS	T
Clean	$PM_{2.5} < 75 \mu g m^{-3}$	73	-0.20	0.56
Light pollution	$75 \mu g m^{-3} \leq PM_{2.5} < 150 \mu g m^{-3}$	135	-0.19	0.15
Heavy pollution	$PM_{2.5} \geq 150 \mu g m^{-3}$	37	0.41	-0.08

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785

786 **Table 3.** Atmospheric static stability below heights of 200 m in the boundary layer during heavy
787 pollution and clean air periods with anomalies relative to the average over January 2016 in
788 Wuhan.

Period	heavy pollution period	clean air period	monthly average
	(K km ⁻¹)	(K km ⁻¹)	(K km ⁻¹)
Static stability	4.4	13.2	8.6
Anomalies of stability	-4.2	4.6	-

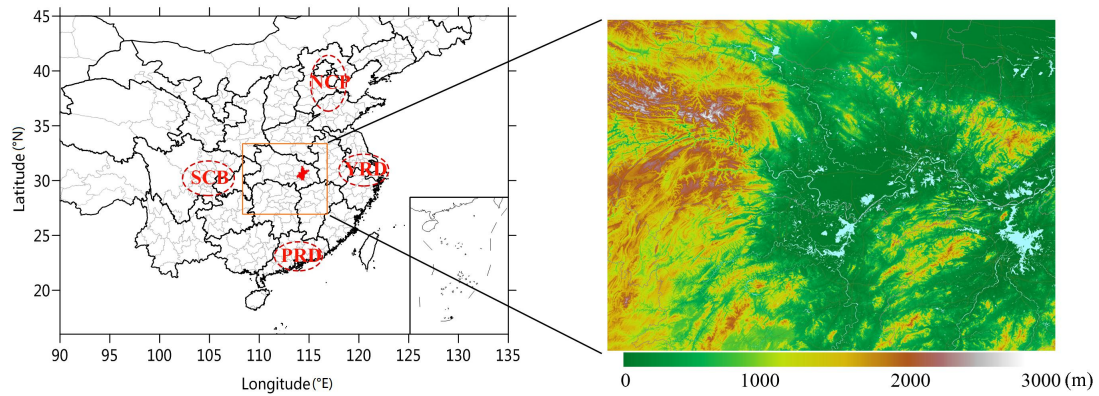
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791 **Table 4.** The relative contributions of regional transport over CEC to three PM_{2.5} heavy pollution
792 periods, P1, P2, and P3, in the YRMB with local contributions.

Contribution rates	P1	P2	P3	Averages
Regional transport	68.1%	60.9%	65.3%	65.1%
Local contribution	31.9%	39.1%	34.7%	34.9%

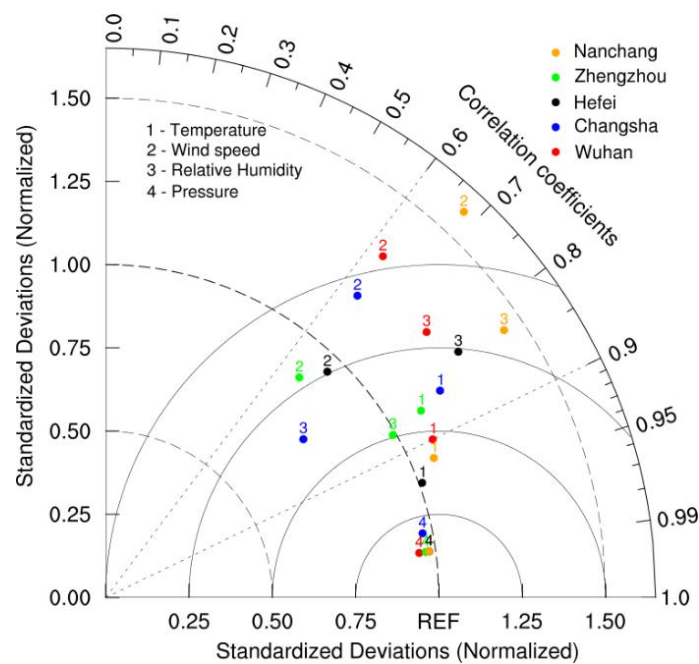
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795 **Fig. 1.** (a) Distribution of the YRMB (orange rectangle) with the location of Wuhan (red area) and
 796 the major haze pollution regions of NCP, YRD, PRD, and SCB in CEC as well as (b) the YRMB
 797 region with terrain height (color contours, m in a.s.l.). The river and lake network (blue areas) are
 798 downloaded from <https://worldview.earthdata.nasa.gov>.

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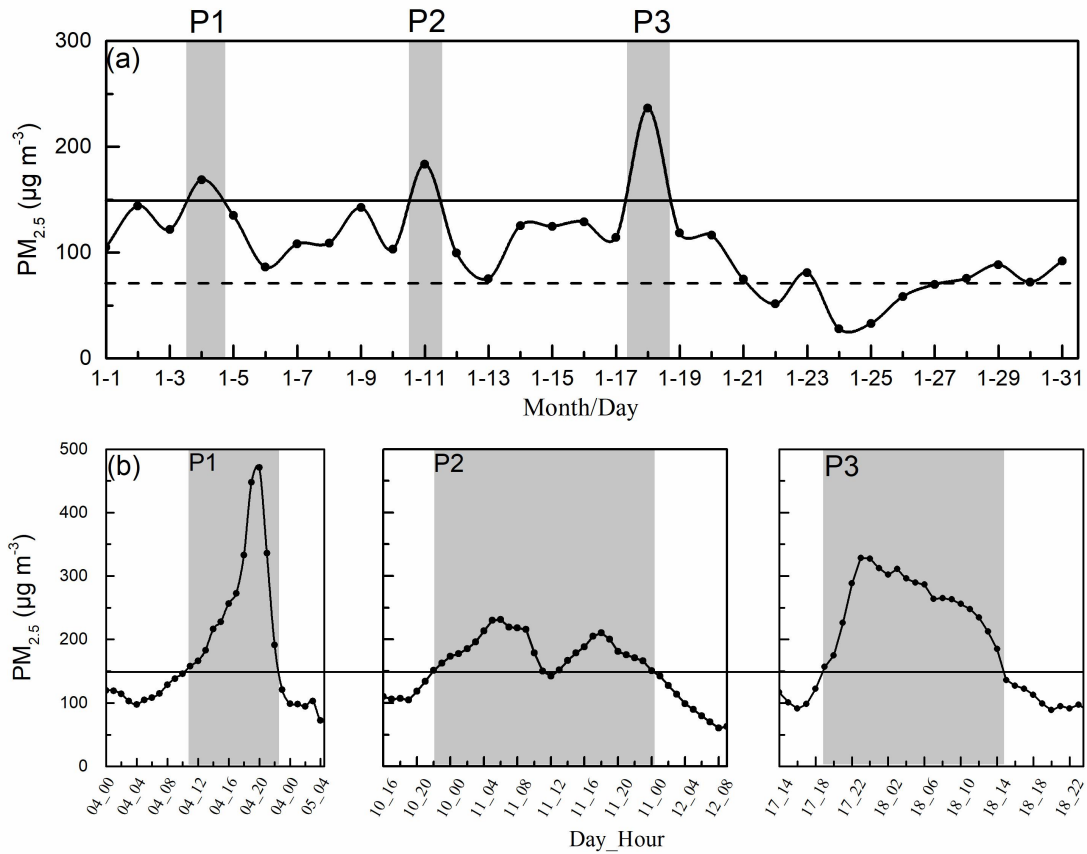


800

801 **Fig. 2.** A Taylor plot with the normalized standard deviations and correlation coefficients between
 802 WRF-simulated and observed meteorological fields. The radian of the sector represents the
 803 correlation coefficient. The solid line indicates the ratio of standard deviation between simulations

804 and observations. The distance from the marker to “REF” reflect the normalized root-mean-square
805 error (NRMSE).

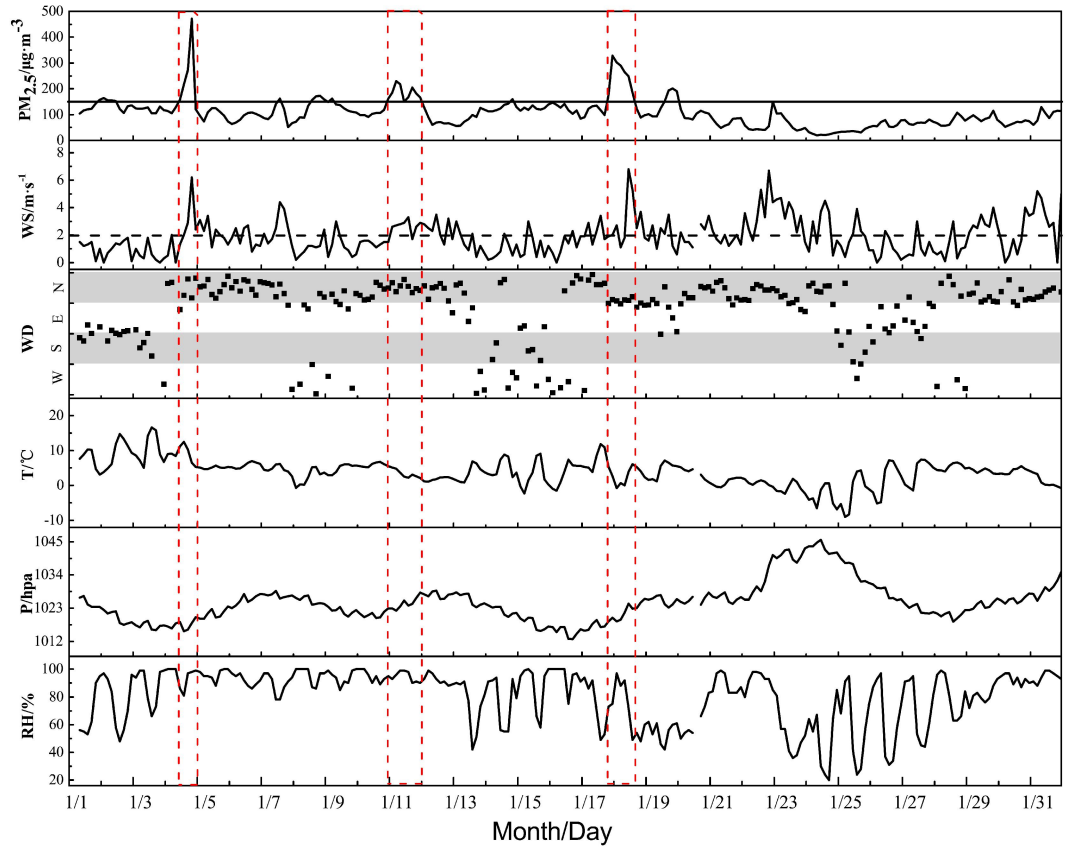
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808 **Fig. 3.** (a) Daily changes of surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in Wuhan in January 2016 with PM_{2.5}
809 concentrations exceeding 75 µg m⁻³ (dash line) and 150 µg m⁻³ (solid lines) for light and heavy
810 haze pollution, respectively. (b) The hourly variations of surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in three
811 heavy air pollution events, P1, P2, and P3, with excessive PM_{2.5} levels (> 150 µg m⁻³) marked by
812 the shaded areas.

813



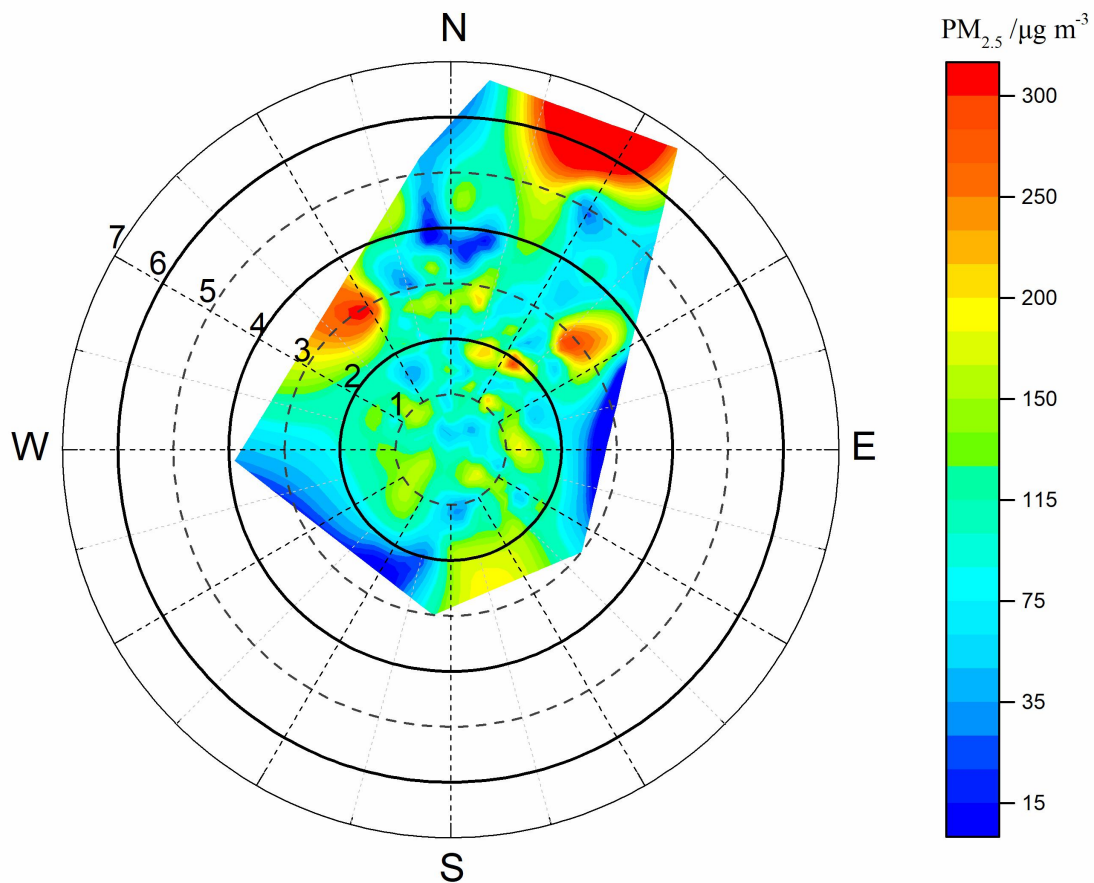
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815 **Fig. 4.** Hourly variations of meteorological elements and $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Wuhan in

816 January 2016. Heavy air pollution periods are marked with columns in red dash lines and $PM_{2.5}$

817 concentrations exceeding $150 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (solid line in the upper panel).

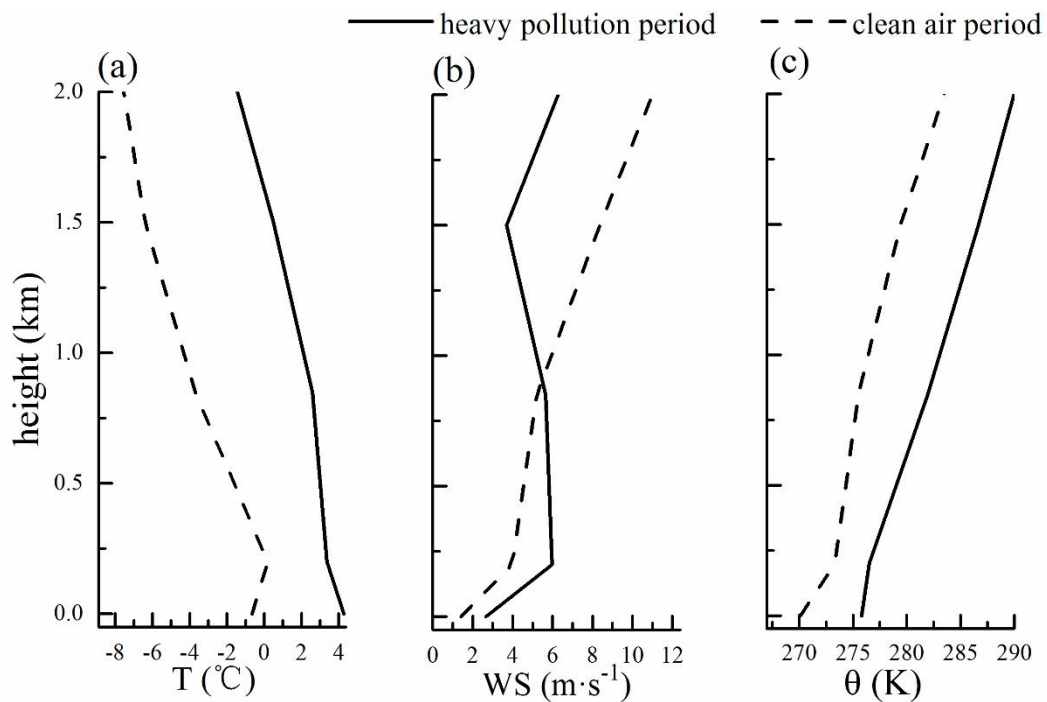
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820 **Fig. 5.** A polar plot of the hourly variations in wind speed (round radius, in units of m s^{-1}) and
 821 direction (angles) to surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations (color contours, in units of $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in Wuhan in
 822 January 2016.

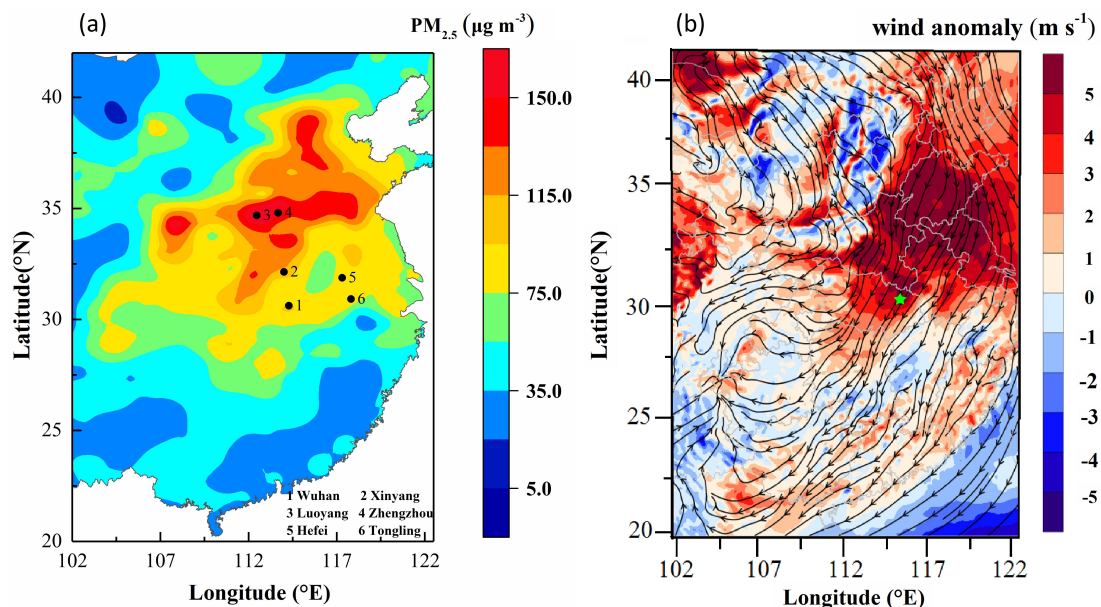
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825 **Fig. 6.** Vertical profiles of (a) air temperature, (b) wind velocity and (c) potential temperature
 826 averaged in the heavy pollution periods P1, P2 and P3 and in the clean air period over Wuhan
 827 during January 2016.

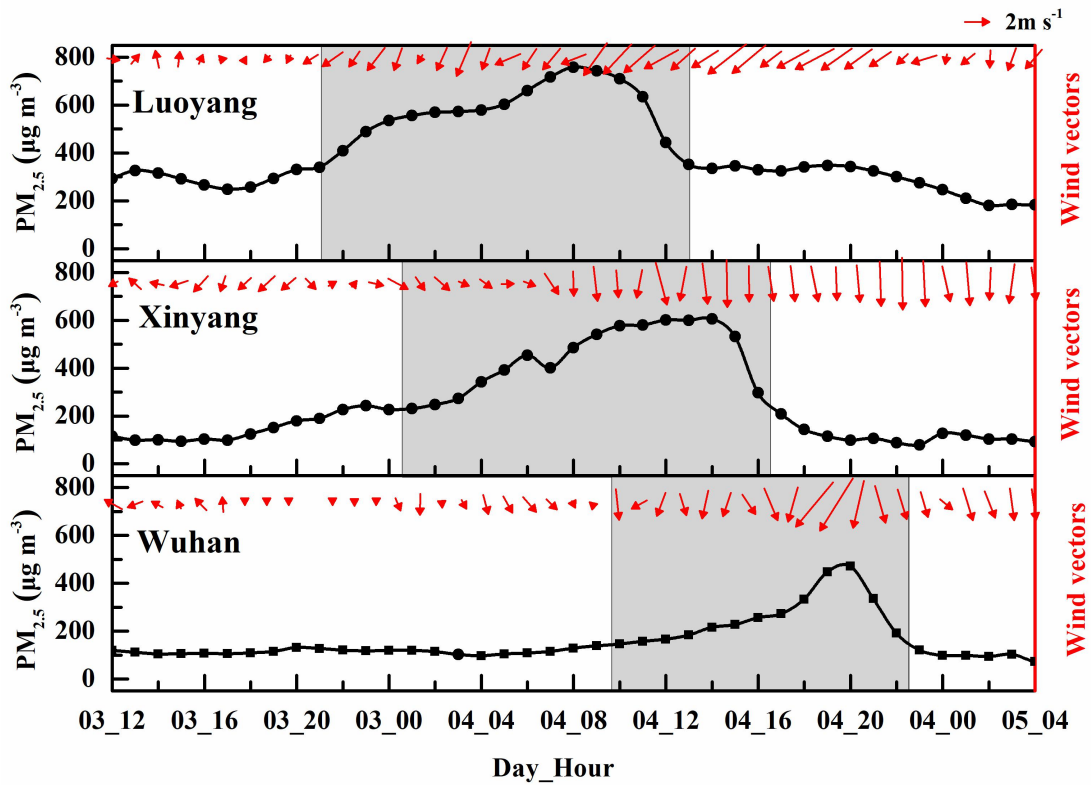
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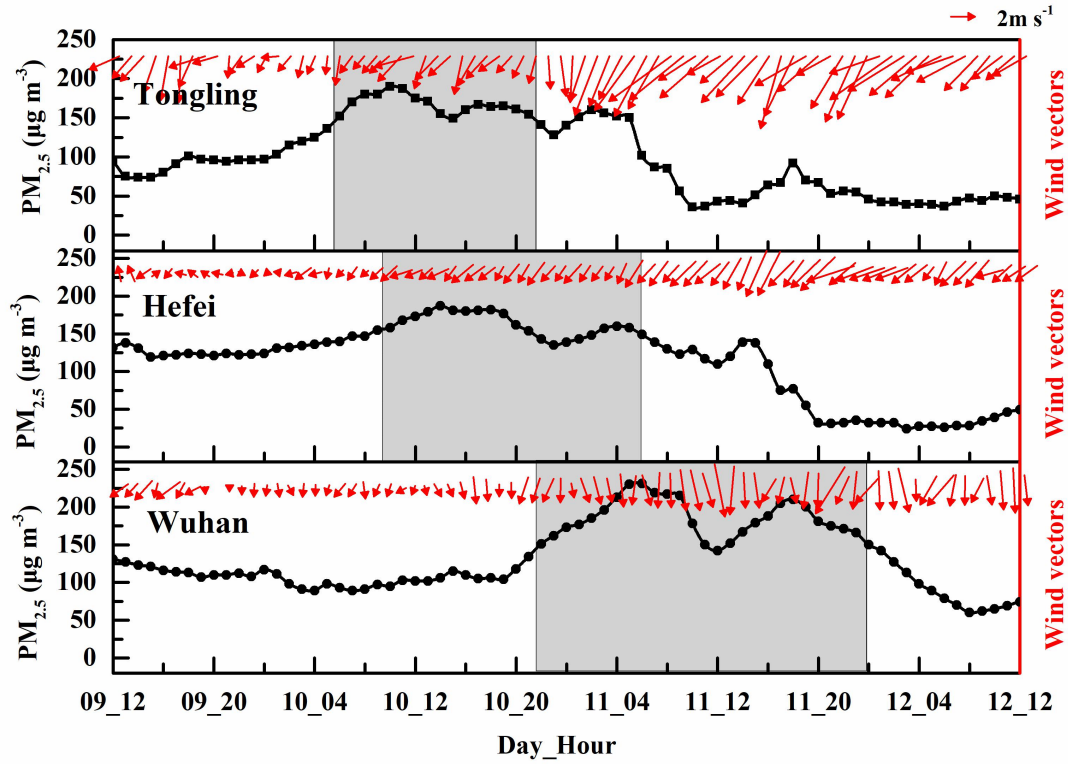
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830 **Fig. 7** (a) Distribution of the monthly averages of surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations observed in
 831

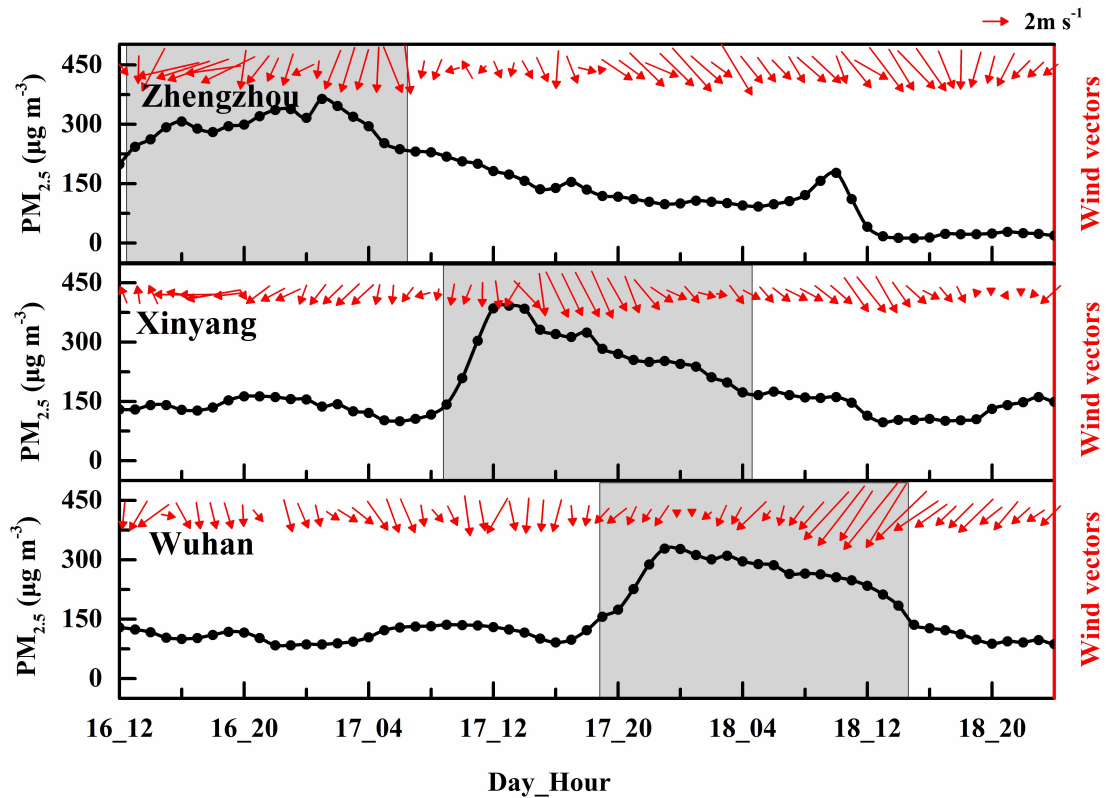
831 January 2016 over CEC with the locations of six sites (black dots): 1. Wuhan, 2. Xinyang, 3.
 832 Luoyang, 4. Zhengzhou, 5. Hefei, and 6. Tongling. (b) Distribution of anomalies (color contours)
 833 of 200 m wind speeds averaged during the three heavy air pollution periods relative to the monthly
 834 wind averages (streamlines) in January 2016 over CEC with the location of Wuhan (a light blue
 835 star).
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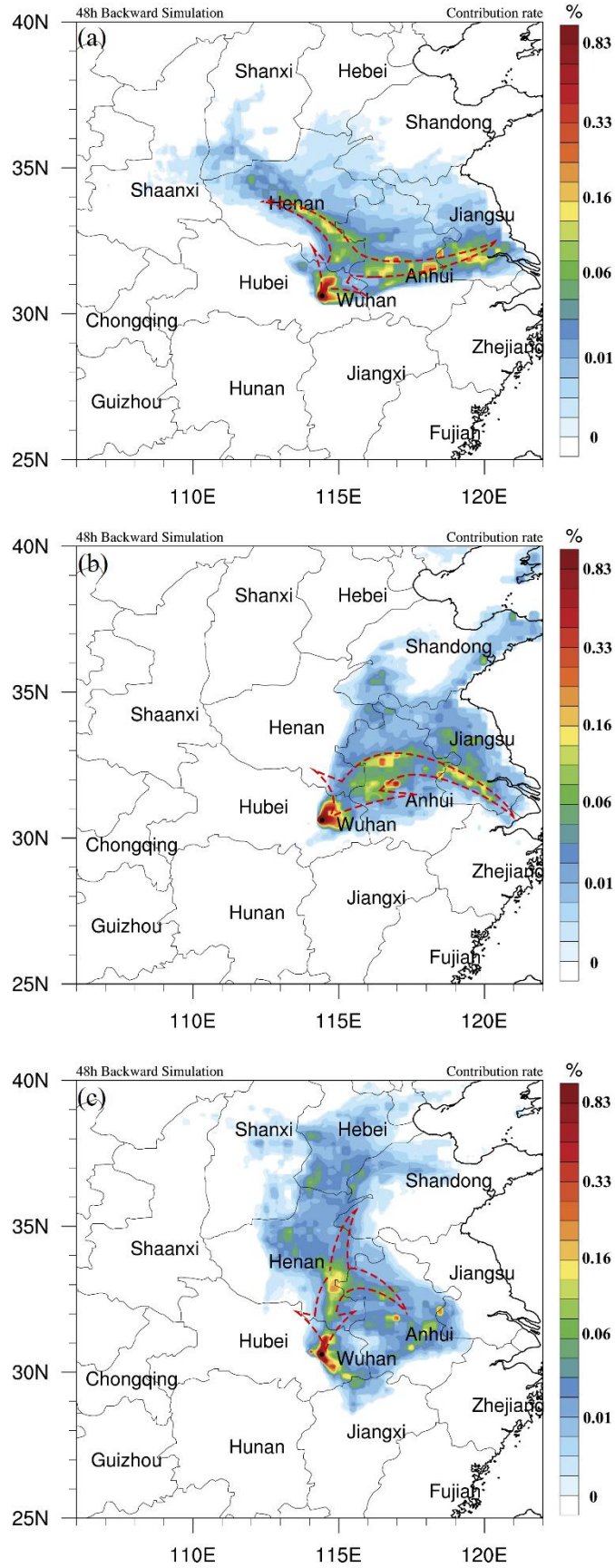


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840 **Fig. 8.** Temporal changes of PM_{2.5} concentrations (dotted lines) and near-surface winds (vectors)

841 observed at five upstream sites (Fig. 6) and Wuhan with shifts of PM_{2.5} peaks (marked with shaded

842 areas) to the YRMB's heavy $PM_{2.5}$ pollution periods P1 (upper panel), P2 (middle panel) and P3
843 (lower panel), in January 2016.



844

845 **Fig. 9.** Spatial distribution of contribution rates (color contours) to PM_{2.5} concentrations in Wuhan

846 with the major pathways of regional transport over CEC (dash arrows) for three heavy pollution
847 periods (a) P1, (b) P2, and (c) P3 in January 2016 simulated by the FLEXPART-WRF model.