

25 9%, and 7%, respectively. The rapid increase of the contribution ratio derived from SF to PM_{2.5}
26 implied the intermittent haze events during COVID-19 period were characterized with secondary
27 aerosol pollution, which was mainly contributed by the unfavorable meteorological conditions and
28 high NH₃ level.

29 1. Introduction

30 In December 2019, a cluster of pneumonia cases with unknown etiology were firstly reported
31 in Wuhan and quickly spread around the world (Wu et al., 2020). The continuous global outbreak
32 of coronavirus disease (COVID-19), declared as a public health emergency of international concern
33 by the World Health Organization, resulted in unprecedented public health responses in many
34 countries including lockdown, travel restrictions, and quarantines (Griffiths and Woodyatt, 2020;
35 Horowitz et al., 2020). On January 23, 2020, Chinese government imposed a lockdown in Wuhan
36 and many surrounding cities in Hubei province in order to prevent the spread of epidemic.
37 Afterwards, many similar measures including blocked roads, shutdown of factories, restricted
38 citizen mobility, and checkpoints were soon extended to other cities throughout the entire country.
39 During this period, energy production by coal-fired power plants only remained two thirds levels of
40 the same periods in preceding years (Chang et al., 2020). Besides, the transport volume have been
41 reduced by more than 70% due to the COVID-19 outbreak (Chang et al., 2020). These drastic
42 government-enforced lockdown measures substantially decreased the pollutant emissions, and at
43 least partly improved local air quality. Feng et al. (2020) confirmed that the COVID-19 lockdown
44 have led to more than 70% reduction of NO_x emissions in many large cities over China.
45 Correspondingly, the ~~ambient concentrations of~~ PM_{2.5} and NO₂ ~~concentrations~~ decreased by 35%
46 and 60%, respectively (Shi and Brasseur, 2020). The natural experiment provided an unprecedented

47 opportunity to explore the potential for emission reduction and the corresponding response of air
48 quality.

49 A growing body of studies assessed the response of PM_{2.5} and gaseous pollutants to COVID-19
50 lockdown, and found these stringent restrictions resulted in the significant decreases of these
51 pollutant (e.g., PM_{2.5}, NO₂, and CO) concentrations (Miyazaki et al., 2020; Marlia et al., 2020).

52 However, some haze events still occurred during this period especially in East China. [Huang et al.](#)
53 [\(2020\) employed the chemical transport models \(CTMs\) to infer that these extraordinary findings](#)
54 [might be attributable to enhanced secondary pollution.](#) Understanding the formation mechanism of
55 puzzle haze events depending on CTMs alone might be not very robust, it was highly imperative to
56 perform more field observation to analyze the temporal variations of chemical compositions
57 especially the secondary ions (e.g., SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻) in PM_{2.5} before and after COVID-19 outbreak and
58 then to validate these inferences.

59 To date, only several field observations analyzed the temporal variations of chemical
60 components in fine particles during COVID-19 lockdown period. Chang et al. (2020) observed a
61 remarkably enhanced nitrate formation in Yangtze River Delta (YRD) ~~counteracted~~~~neutralized~~ the
62 decreases of primary components in fine particles, which was in good agreement with the modelling
63 result drawn by Huang et al. (2020). In contrast, Xu et al. (2020) found that the marked decreases
64 of fine particle [concentrations](#) in Lanzhou during COVID-19 lockdown period was mainly
65 contributed by the lower production rate for secondary aerosols. Under the condition of similar
66 emission control measures, the polarized conclusion might be associated with the local meteorology.
67 He et al. (2017) demonstrated that meteorology might explain more than 70% variances of daily
68 average pollutant levels over China during 2014-2015. Besides, Zhang et al. (2020a) also revealed

69 that the release of primary pollutants and the generation of reactive semi-volatile products
70 partitioned between gas and aerosol phases were strongly dependent on the temperature and relative
71 humidity (RH). Thus, in order to accurately assess the effects of lockdown measures on air quality
72 and to reveal the key driver of the haze paradox, it was necessary to isolate the contribution of
73 meteorology. Unfortunately, up to date, the respective contributions of emission and meteorology
74 to chemical compositions in PM_{2.5} during COVID-19 period were not quantified yet in most
75 pioneering studies (Chang et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2020). Moreover, the
76 comparison of source contributions to chemical compositions between pre-lockdown and post-
77 lockdown were scarcely performed. Such knowledge ~~was~~is critical to design effective PM_{2.5}
78 mitigation strategies in the near future.

79 As a heavily industrialized region, North China Plain (NCP) possesses many energy-intensive
80 industries including coal-fired power plants, non-ferrous smelting industries, textiles, building
81 materials, chemical engineering, and papermaking industries (Ren et al., 2011). Due to these
82 intensive industrial emissions, NCP suffered from poor air quality and frequent aerosol pollution in
83 the past decades (Zhang et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2017). Nevertheless, these strict lockdown measures
84 during COVID-19 period inevitably led to the dramatic decreases of industrial emissions, and thus
85 a study about the response of chemical compositions to emission reduction in the heavy-pollution
86 city might ~~make~~be more ~~senses~~sensible.

87 Here, we selected the typical industrial city (Tangshan) in NCP to determine the concentrations
88 of gaseous pollutants and chemical compositions in PM_{2.5} during January 1-March 31, 2020, and
89 then to analyze their temporal variations before and after COVID-19 outbreak. Besides, a machine-
90 learning approach was applied to separate the contributions of emission reduction and meteorology

91 to the temporal variabilities of chemical compositions and gaseous pollutants. Finally, the source
92 apportionment was performed based on the meteorology-normalized datasets to compare the source
93 difference for these pollutants before and after COVID-19 lockdown.

94 2. Materials and methods

95 2.1 Field observation

96 Hourly gaseous pollutants and PM_{2.5} chemical compositions including water-soluble ions and
97 trace elements were measured using on-line instruments during January 1-March 31, 2020 at a
98 supersite in Tangshan. The supersite is located in a commercial region without short-distance
99 industrial emissions (Figure 1). SO₂, NO₂, and CO concentrations were determined by the ultraviolet
100 fluorescence analyzer (TEI, Model 43i from Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA),
101 chemiluminescence trace gas analyzer (TEI Model 42i from Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA),
102 and the correlation infrared absorption analyzer (TAPI, model: 300E, USA) (Li et al., 2017; Li et
103 al., 2019). The mass concentration of PM_{2.5} concentration was determined using an oscillating
104 balance analyzer (TH-2000Z, China) (Wang et al., 2014). The NH₃ concentration and water-soluble
105 ions including sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), sodium ion (Na⁺), and chloridion
106 (Cl⁻) were monitored with a Gas and Aerosol Collector combined with Ion Chromatography (GAC-
107 IC, TH-PKU-303, China) (Wang et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2019). OC and EC were measured using
108 an OC/EC analyzer (Model RT-4, Sunset Laboratory Inc., Tigard, Oregon, USA). Nine trace
109 elements including Hg, Pb, K, Ca, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, and Zn were determined by an online multi-
110 element analyzer (Model Xact 625, Cooper Environment Service, USA). The quality assurance of
111 SO₂, NO₂, CO, and PM_{2.5} were conducted based on HJ 630-2011 specifications. For the quality
112 assurance of NH₃ and water-soluble ions, the concentration gradients of anion and cation standard

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113 solutions were set based on the pollution levels of target species, and correlation coefficients of the
114 calibration curve must be higher than 0.99. Besides, a standard sample was collected each day and
115 the relative standard deviation for the reproducibility test must be less than 5%. The online device
116 agreed well with the result determined by filter sampling coupled with Inductively Coupled Plasma
117 Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) and Inductively Coupled Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectroscopy
118 (ICP-AES).

119 2.2 Deweathered model development

120 The air pollutants were influenced by the combined effects of meteorological conditions and
121 emissions. In order to quantify the contributions of anthropogenic emissions, the impacts of
122 meteorological conditions should be removed. In our study, a random forest (RF) approach was
123 employed to serve as the site-specific modeling platform (Chen et al., 2018). All of gaseous
124 pollutants and chemical compositions in PM_{2.5} were regarded as the dependent variables. The
125 meteorological parameters including wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), air temperature (T),
126 relative humidity (RH), precipitation (Prec), and air pressure (P), and time predictors (year, day of
127 year (DOY), day of week (DOW), hour) served as the independent variables. The original dataset
128 was randomly classified into a training dataset (90% of input dataset) for developing the RF model
129 and the remained one was treated as the test dataset. After the building of the RF model, the
130 deweathered technique was applied to predict the air pollutant level at a specific time point (e.g.,
131 2020/01/01 12:00). The differences of original pollutant concentrations and deweathered pollutant
132 concentrations were regarded as the concentrations contributed by meteorology. Some statistical
133 indicators including R² value, RMSE, and MAE were regarded as the major criteria to evaluate the
134 modelling performance. In our study, the RF model with the R² value lower than 0.50 was treated

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135 as the unreliable result and cannot reflect the impacts of emission and meteorology on air pollutants
136 accurately because more than 50% variability of the training model cannot be appropriately
137 explained. After the model evaluation, only the species with the cross-validation R^2 values larger
138 than 0.50 were selected to assess the respective contributions of emission and meteorology to their
139 concentrations.

140 2.3 Source apportionment

141 Positive matrix factorization (PMF 5.0) model version was used to perform the $PM_{2.5}$ source
142 apportionment. The deweathered gaseous pollutants and chemical compositions in $PM_{2.5}$ were
143 incorporated input into the model. The objective of PMF is to resolve the issues of chemical mass
144 balance between measured concentration of each species and its source contributions by
145 decomposing the input matrix into factor contribution and factor profile. The detailed equation is
146 shown in Eq. (1)-(2). Briefly, the basic principle of PMF is to calculate the least object function Q
147 when the g_{ik} must be a positive-definite matrix based on Eq. (2) (Chen et al., 2014; Sharma et al.,
148 2016).

$$149 \quad x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij} \quad (1)$$

$$150 \quad Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \left[\frac{x_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj}}{u_{ij}} \right]^2 \quad (2)$$

151 where x_{ij} and e_{ij} represent the concentration and uncertainty of j th species, respectively. g_{ik}
152 represents the contribution ratio of k th source to i th sample, f_{kj} represents the ratio of j th species in
153 k th source, and e_{ij} indicates the residual of j th species in the i sample. The uncertainties associated
154 with factor profiles were evaluated using three error calculation methods including bootstraps (BS)
155 method, displacement (DISP) analysis, and the combination method of DISP and BS (BS-DISP).

156 For the BS method, 100 runs were performed and the result has been believed to be valid since all
157 of the factors showed a mapping of above 90%. DISP analysis also confirmed that the solution was
158 considered to be stable because the observed drop in the Q value was less than 0.1% and no factor
159 swap occurred. For the BS-DISP analysis, the solution has been verified to be useful because the
160 observed drop in the Q value was less than 0.5%. Furthermore, both of the results from BS and BS-
161 DISP did not suggest any asymmetry or rotational ambiguity for all of the factors (Manousakas et
162 al., Brown et al., 2015).

163 3. Results and discussion

164 3.1 The concentration changes of gaseous pollutants and PM_{2.5} chemical compositions

165 Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4, and Figure 5 show the temporal variations of gaseous pollutants
166 and chemical compositions in PM_{2.5} from January 1-March 31, which could be divided into two
167 periods including before and after COVID-19 outbreak. In this study, January 23 was regarded as
168 the breakpoint because China's government imposed a lockdown in Wuhan and surrounding cities.
169 Before COVID-19 outbreak, the average observed concentrations of SO₂, NO₂, CO, 8-h O₃, and
170 NH₃ during January 1-22 were 34 µg/m³, 64 µg/m³, 2.0 mg/m³, 19 µg/m³, and 14 ppb, respectively.
171 After COVID-19 lockdown, the mean concentrations of these gaseous pollutants changed to 25
172 µg/m³, 39 µg/m³, 1.6 mg/m³, 49 µg/m³, and 18 ppb, respectively. Overall, ~~CO, SO₂, and NO₂~~
173 ~~CO~~ concentrations decreased by 18%, 27%, and 39%, respectively ($p < 0.05$). However, the NH₃
174 and O₃ concentration increased by 35% ($p < 0.05$) and 160% ($p < 0.01$).

175 As shown in Figure 2, the chemical compositions in PM_{2.5} also showed dramatic changes during
176 January 1-March 31 due to the impact of COVID-19 lockdown. The observed SO₄²⁻, PM_{2.5}, Na⁺,
177 and Cl⁻ concentrations decreased by 6% ($p > 0.05$), 13% ($p > 0.05$), 29% ($p < 0.05$), and 48% ($p <$

178 0.01), respectively, while observed NO_3^- (2%) and NH_4^+ (7%) levels showed slight increases ($p >$
179 0.05). In Shanghai, Chen et al. (2020) revealed that SO_4^{2-} , and NH_4^+ concentrations displayed
180 significant decreases after COVID-19 outbreak due to the obvious decreases of precursor
181 concentrations (e.g., SO_2 , NO_x). However, both of observed NO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentrations in
182 Tangshan even showed slight increases though the NO_2 concentration suffered from remarkable
183 decrease. It was assumed that the adverse meteorological conditions might be beneficial to the
184 pollutant accumulation (Zheng et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019b). Besides, the concentrations of nine
185 trace elements were also determined. The observed values of Fe (25%), Ca (39%), Pb (41%), Cr
186 (41%), and Zn (48%) suffered from dramatic decreases ($p < 0.05$), while the K (0%), Ni (1%), and
187 Hg (8%) concentrations still displayed slight increases ($p > 0.05$). As a whole, the temporal
188 variability of these elements in Tangshan before and after COVID-19 lockdown was in agreement
189 with the result in Beijing (He et al., 2017). However, the K concentration in Beijing showed rapid
190 decrease after COVID-19 outbreak, which was not in coincident with our study (He et al., 2017). It
191 suggested that the slight increase of K in Tangshan might be linked with the unfavorable
192 meteorological conditions (He et al., 2017). The observed concentrations of OC (-19%) and EC (-
193 39%) also suffered from rapid decreases after COVID-19 lockdown (Figure 4) ($p < 0.05$), which
194 was in good agreement with the sea-salt ions (e.g., Na^+ , Cl^-) and most trace elements (e.g., Zn, Pb).

195 3.2 The impact of emission reduction on air quality

196 Although the observed concentrations of air pollutants can be applied to analyze the impact of
197 COVID-19 lockdown, the role of emission reduction on air quality might be not clearly revealed
198 because the meteorological factors were also important variables influencing the air pollutant
199 concentrations. In order to accurately reflect the response of air quality to emission reduction during

200 COVID-19 lockdown period, the meteorological conditions were isolated by machine-learning
201 model. In our study, we developed a random forest model to remove the impacts of meteorological
202 conditions on air pollutants. Based on the result in Figure S1, Figure S2, Figure S3, and Figure S4,
203 the RF models for all of the species showed the better performance because all of the R² values were
204 higher than 0.50 and the slope of all of the fitting curve were also close to the R² values. Thus, we
205 believed that the developed model was robust to remove the impact of meteorological conditions.
206 The deweathered concentrations of gaseous pollutants and chemical compositions in PM_{2.5} are
207 depicted in Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4, and Figure 5. Compared with the period before COVID-
208 19, the deweathered NH₃, SO₂, CO, and NO₂ concentrations decreased by 27%, 31%, 32%, and 42%
209 after COVID-19 lockdown period outbreak, respectively ($p < 0.05$), while the deweathered 8-h O₃
210 concentration increased by 80% ($p < 0.01$). Meanwhile, the normalized-meteorology NH₄⁺, NO₃⁻,
211 SO₄²⁻, Cl⁻, PM_{2.5}, and Na⁺ and concentrations decreased by 14%, 27%, 35%, 35%, 38%, and 47%,
212 respectively. For trace elements, deweathered Cu, K, Ni, Ca, Pb, Fe, Cr, and Zn levels reduced by
213 15%, 23%, 27%, 54%, 59%, 61%, 67%, and 69%, respectively ($p < 0.05$). Nevertheless, the
214 deweathered Hg concentration still kept stable increase by the rate of 6% compared with the period
215 before COVID-19 outbreak ($p > 0.05$).

216 The deweathered concentrations for most of the pollutants showed significant decreases after
217 COVID-19 outbreak compared with the period before COVID-19 (Figure 2, Figure 3, Figure 4,
218 Figure 5). It was assumed that many cities proposed the lockdown measures, which significantly
219 minimized industrial, transportation, and commercial activities. Among all of the pollutants, the
220 deweathered Zn, Cr, Fe, Pb, and Ca experienced more than 50% decrease rates due to the lockdown
221 measures. It was well known that Zn, Cr, and Fe originated mainly from metallurgical industry (Sun

222 et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018), while Pb might be derived from coal-fired power plants (Cui et al.,
223 2019; Meng et al., 2020). During the COVID-19 outbreak, most of the industries have been shut
224 down and energy production by coal-fired power plants was reduced by one third (Chang et al.,
225 2020). Based on the adjustment factor estimated by Doumbia et al. (2020), the contributions of
226 industrial activity and power sector have decreased by 40% after COVID-19 outbreak, which was
227 close to the decrease ratios of Zn, Cr, Fe, and Pb concentrations. Thus, these element concentrations
228 ~~suffered from dramatic decreases.~~ It should be noted that the deweathered Ca concentration also
229 decreased by more than 50%. It was well documented that the Ca was often associated with the dust
230 resuspension (Chang et al., 2018). In fact, the Ca was known as one of the most abundant elements
231 in the upper continental crust, which likely originated from the fugitive dust (Chang et al., 2018;
232 Shen et al., 2016). More than 70% reduction of vehicle transportation and domestic flights facilitated
233 the rapid decrease of Ca concentration (Chang et al., 2020). Although the observed K concentration
234 did not show marked decrease after the COVID-19 lockdown, the deweathered K level suffered
235 from rapid decrease (-22%) ($p < 0.05$). It was widely acknowledged that K was considered to be a
236 key fingerprint of biomass burning (Zheng et al., 2020a), and thus the result suggested that the open
237 biomass burning was also restricted during the period. Both of the deweathered concentrations of
238 OC (-22%) and EC (-45%) also experienced remarkable decreases. In our study, both of OC and EC
239 concentrations showed significant correlation with K level ($p < 0.05$), indicating that the restriction
240 of biomass burning also led to the decreases of OC and EC. Besides, $PM_{2.5}$ and some water-soluble
241 ions including deweathered SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- concentrations experienced marked decreases after
242 COVID-19 lockdown, which was in good agreement with their gaseous precursors. It might be
243 attributable to the rapid decreases of precursor emissions. Zheng et al. (2020b) verified that the SO_2

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244 emission in the industrial sector and NO_x emission in the transportation sector in Hebei province
245 have decreased by 19% and 13%, respectively. The deweathered Na⁺ concentration showed the rapid
246 decrease after COVID-19 lockdown, which suggested that the Na⁺ in the PM_{2.5} of Tangshan was
247 probably derived from waste incineration rather than sea-salt aerosol (Deshmukh et al., 2016).

248 Although most of pollutant concentrations suffered from remarkable decreases, the decrease
249 ratios of deweathered NH₃ and NH₄⁺ concentrations after COVID-19 outbreak were far lower than
250 those of many other gaseous pollutants and water-soluble ions. It was attributable to the fact that

251 ambient NH₃ was mainly sourced from the fertilizer application and livestock, which did not show
252 significant decrease during the COVID-19 period (Kang et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2020b; Doumbia
253 et al., 2020). Although the transportation volume suffered from dramatic decrease, the contribution
254 of transportation to NH₃ was generally less than 5% (Kang et al., 2016). Furthermore, the

255 contributions of urban waste sources slightly increased after COVID-19 outbreak, offsetting the
256 effect of traffic outage (Zhang et al., 2020b). Besides, it should be noted that the normalized-
257 meteorology 8-h O₃ and Hg concentrations still remained the stable increase. Liu et al. (2020) have
258 confirmed that uncoordinated decreases of NO_x and VOCs emissions (decrease ratio: NO_x > VOCs)

259 dominated the 8-h O₃ increase in urban areas because most of urban areas belonged to VOC-limited
260 region. Besides, the excessive decrease of PM_{2.5} from primary emission significantly increased the
261 HO₂ radical concentration on the surface of aerosol, thereby promoting the O₃ formation (Shi and

262 Brasseur, 2020). It was supposed that theThe minor increase of deweathered Hg level was
263 attributable to that the coal combustion for domestic heating was not restricted during the COVID-
264 19 lockdown period (Zhou et al., 2018). Based on the updated global anthropogenic emission
265 adjustment factor during COVID-19, the contribution of residential sector to air pollutants did not

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266 [decrease after COVID-19 lockdown \(Doumbia et al., 2020\)](#).

267 3.3 The role of meteorology and potential chemical reactions on air quality

268 Compared with the observed values, the deweathered concentrations of most pollutants were
269 significantly reduced. Meanwhile, the deweathered decrease ratios of pollutants were significantly
270 higher than those of observed values (Figure 6). The result suggested the meteorology conditions
271 during the COVID-19 lockdown period were not favorable to the pollutant dispersion, as evidenced
272 by some recent studies (Chang et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2020). In our study, six meteorological
273 parameters including WS, WD, T, RH, Prec, and P have been integrated into the random forest
274 model to assess the response of each species to different meteorological variables. The variable
275 importance of each meteorological to all of the species are shown in Figure 7, Figure 8, Figure 9,
276 and Figure 10.

277 Among all of the gaseous pollutants, the meteorological conditions played the significantly
278 positive roles on NH_3 (62%) and 8-h O_3 concentrations (80%) (Figure 6). As shown in Figure 7, T
279 was the most important factor for the rapid elevation of NH_3 concentration after COVID-19
280 lockdown. It was assumed that the higher T enhanced the emissions of NH_3 from soil and urban
281 wastes and promoted the volatilization of NH_3 from aerosol NH_4^+ pools (Zhang et al., 2020). In our
282 study, the hourly mean air temperature have increased from 0°C before COVID-19 outbreak to 5°C
283 after COVID-19 lockdown, which strongly supported the inference. For 8-h O_3 concentration
284 (Figure 7), T was also treated as the most important variable. On the one hand, the higher T generally
285 enhanced biogenic isoprene emissions, which was the most abundant biogenic VOC and showed
286 the highest ozone formation potential (Liu and Wang, 2020). On the other hand, high T often
287 increased chemical reaction rates and accelerated the O_3 formation (Shi et al., 2020). Besides, WS

288 also played an important role on the 8-h O₃ concentration. Shi et al. (2020) have demonstrated that
289 weaker winds often slowed down the advection and convection of NO_x and VOCs, which was
290 beneficial to O₃ formation.

291 Besides, the contributions of meteorological conditions to some secondary ions (e.g., SO₄²⁻
292 (29%), NO₃⁻ (29%), and NH₄⁺ (21%)) were remarkably higher than those to other ions and some
293 trace elements, suggesting that the chemical reactions and formation pathways of these species were
294 more sensitive to meteorological variations. Deshmukh et al. (2016) confirmed that the high RH
295 promoted the aqueous-phase oxidation of SO₂ and the production of sulfate. Tian et al. (2019) also
296 demonstrated that RH-dependent heterogeneous reactions significantly contributed to the sulfate
297 generation and the high RH enhanced gas- to aqueous-phase dissolution of NH₃ and HNO₃. These
298 pioneering experiments suggested that secondary aerosols were often formed under the condition of
299 high RH. Very recently, Chang et al. (2020) observed that the nitrate concentration in YRD
300 experienced unusual increase during COVID-19 period, while Xu et al. (2020) obtained the opposite
301 result in Lanzhou. It was assumed that the persistent increase of T and decrease of RH in Lanzhou
302 during this period was not beneficial to the generation of secondary aerosol, while the high RH in
303 YRD significantly elevated local nitrate level. Although air temperature in Tangshan suffered from
304 increase after COVID-19 lockdown, RH displayed rapid increase from 47% to 57% during this
305 period. Moreover, the increased O₃ could promote the secondary aerosol formation and partially
306 offset the decreased PM_{2.5} compositions triggered by the primary emission reduction (Liu et al.,
307 2020). Similar to secondary ions, both of OC and EC were also sensitive to RH. It was supposed
308 that high RH could increase the secondary organic aerosol (SOA) levels, which accounted for the
309 major fraction of OC (Zheng et al., 2020).

310 In addition, some trace elements such as Fe, Ni, and Cr were also significantly affected by the
311 meteorological conditions. As shown in Figure 9, these element concentrations were mainly
312 sensitive to WD. It was assumed that the neighboring industrial points including cement plants and
313 coal-fired power plants could influence the concentrations of trace elements via long/short-range
314 transport, which was strongly dependent on WD. Following WD, RH was also an important factor
315 for the variation of these trace elements. Under the condition of high RH, Fe and Cr could catalyze
316 the heterogeneous generation of sulfate and nitrate on the mineral/soot surface (Hu et al., 2015).

317 Unlike the trace elements, water-soluble ions and OC were less sensitive to WD. Major water-
318 soluble ions in $PM_{2.5}$ including SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ were mainly derived from secondary
319 formation rather than the direct emission (Feng et al., 2020a; Zhang et al., 2020a), and thus they
320 were not very sensitive to WD.

321 3.4 The enhanced secondary aerosol formation during COVID-19 lockdown period

322 The deweathered chemical compositions suggested that the sulfate and nitrate chemistry
323 changed slightly after COVID-19 outbreak. The oxidation ratio of sulfate (SOR, the ratio of sulfate
324 concentration and the sum of sulfate and SO_2 concentrations) decreased from 0.26 to 0.22, while
325 the oxidation ratio of nitrate (NOR, the ratio of nitrate concentration and the sum of nitrate and NO_2
326 concentrations) increased from 0.22 to 0.25 (Table 1). The decreased SOR after COVID-19 outbreak
327 indicated that the decrease rate of sulfate is higher than that of SO_2 . In contrast, the increased NOR
328 during COVID-19 lockdown period revealed that the decrease rate of nitrate is lower than that of
329 NO_2 . The increased NOR after COVID-19 outbreak suggested the consecutive nitrate production,
330 though the NO_2 emission experienced tremendous reduction, which was in good agreement with the
331 result observed by Chang et al. (2020). It was assumed that the persistently higher observed NH_3

332 concentration during this period promoted the ammonium nitrate formation though the lower NO_x
333 emission (Zhang et al., 2020b), which also partially explained the abnormal increases of observed
334 concentrations of secondary ions after COVID-19 outbreak. In general, NH_3 firstly tends to react
335 with H_2SO_4 to form ammonium sulfate, and then the excess NH_3 participated in the reaction with
336 HNO_3 (Chen et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019a). However, sulfate concentration suffered from more
337 dramatic decrease compared with SO_2 , which might be associated with the aerosol acidity during
338 COVID-19 lockdown period. The ratio of NH_4^+ and the sum of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and Cl^- named C/A was
339 regarded as an indicator to reflect the aerosol acidity. In our study, the C/A value decreased from
340 0.33 to 0.28 after COVID-19 outbreak, implicating that the aerosol acidity even showed slight
341 increase during the COVID-19 lockdown period. It was well known that the higher aerosol acidity
342 might prohibit the conversion from SO_2 to sulfate (Liu et al., 2020; Shao et al., 2019), which yielded
343 the lower SOR.

344 3.5 The impact of COVID-19 lockdown on source apportionment

345 The emission control measures inevitably triggered the variation of source apportionment (Liu
346 et al., 2017; Meng et al., 2020). In the present study, Positive matrix factorization (PMF 5.0) was
347 employed to identify the major sources of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in Tangshan before and after COVID-19 outbreak.
348 About 3-9 factor solutions were examined, and a five-factor solution obtained the lowest Q (robust)
349 and Q (true) values. Additionally, the PMF analysis and error diagnostics also suggested the result
350 was robust (Table S2, Table S3, and Table S4).

351 The source apportionment profiles in pre-COVID and post-COVID resolved by PMF are
352 depicted in Figure 11. For pre-COVID, the first factor contributed 36% to the total species. The
353 factor was characterized with high levels of NH_4^+ (41%), SO_4^{2-} (35%), and NO_3^- (33%). SO_4^{2-} and

354 NO_3^- were generally produced by oxidation of SO_2 and NO_x , respectively. The NH_4^+ was often
355 formed through the heterogeneous reaction of NH_3 and sulfate or HNO_3 . Thus, the factor was
356 regarded as the secondary formation (SF). The second factor was characterized with high loadings
357 of Zn (47%), Cr (42%), Fe (42%), and Pb (31%). Cr and Fe were mainly originated from fuel
358 combustion and metallurgical industry such as chrome plating and steel production (Liu et al.,
359 2018a), while Pb and Zn was derived from the roasting, sintering and smelting process for the
360 extraction of Pb/Zn ores (Wu et al., 2012). Therefore, the factor 2 was treated as the industrial
361 process (IP) source. The predominant species in factor 3 included Na^+ (42%), K (40%), OC (35%),
362 and EC (33%). K was often regarded as the fingerprint of biomass burning (BB) (Chen et al., 2017;
363 Zheng et al., 2019b), whereas the Na^+ was generally regarded as the tracer of waste incineration
364 (Alam et al., 2019; Durlak et al., 1997). Hence, the factor 3 was treated as the BB source. Tangshan
365 suffered from remarkable increasing usage of biomass fuels for domestic heating in winter, which
366 promoted the emissions of K and Na^+ (Chen et al., 2017). The most abundant species in factor 4
367 were Hg (75%), Pb (68%), K (36%), Cu (35%), Cl^- (33%), and SO_4^{2-} (27%). Pb, Hg, and Cu were
368 typical marker elements for coal combustion, and around 56% of Pb and 47% of Hg were released
369 from coal combustion (Cheng et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2020). In northern China, the coal-based
370 domestic heating was one of the most important sector of coal consumption (Liu et al., 2018b). Dai
371 et al. (2019) also verified that the residential coal combustion was major source of primary sulfate.
372 Thus, the factor 4 was regarded as the coal combustion (CC) source. The last factor was
373 distinguished by high loadings of Fe (46%), Ni (45%), and Ca (38%). Fe and Ca were main elements
374 enriched in upper crust, and Ni was enriched in the brake wear and tyre wear dusts (Dehghani et al.,
375 2017; Urrutia-Goyes et al., 2018). Thus, these elements in this factor were mainly sourced from

376 traffic-related road dust (RD).

377 After COVID-19 outbreak, the chemical compositions in $PM_{2.5}$ were also classified into five
378 sources including SF, IP, BB, CC, and RD. However, the contribution ratios of these sources varied
379 greatly after the implementation of serious lockdown measures. The contribution ratio of IP
380 experienced the largest decrease from 27% to 20%, whereas the apportionment of SF showed the
381 marked increase from 36% to 44%. The contributions of other three sources only suffered from
382 slight variations. The rapid decrease of IP contribution might be associated with the shutdown of
383 many industries during COVID-19 period (Zheng et al., 2020), while the obvious increase of SF
384 contribution was attributable to more heterogeneous or aqueous reactions of precursors (Chang et
385 al., 2020). For nearly all of the species, the contribution ratios of IP suffered from remarkable
386 decreases after COVID-19 outbreak. The contribution ratios of SF for SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+
387 increased from 35%, 33%, and 41% to 48%, 44%, and 52% after COVID-19 outbreak, respectively.
388 However, the contribution ratios of SF for other species remained relatively stable. It was assumed
389 that SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ were mainly produced from secondary formation of precursors (Jiang et
390 al., 2019; Yao et al., 2020), while other species especially the trace elements were mainly derived
391 from the primary emission (Wu et al., 2020b). Although the COVID-19 pandemic led to the
392 shutdown of many coal-fired power plants and industries and decreased the CC emissions from
393 these sectors (Kraemer et al., 2020), the government-enforced home order might increase the
394 electricity consumption (Venter et al., 2020), which offset the decreases of CC contributions to
395 industrial activities. Therefore, the contribution ratios of CC did not experience dramatic variation
396 after COVID-19 outbreak.

397 4. Conclusions and implications

398 The lockdown measures led to the shutdown of many industries, in turn resulting in the
399 significant decreases of primary components in PM_{2.5}. We employed RF model to determine the
400 respective contributions of meteorology and emission reduction on the variations of gaseous
401 pollutants and PM_{2.5} chemical compositions during COVID-19 lockdown period. The deweathered
402 levels of some trace elements (e.g., Pb (-59%), Zn (-69%)) derived from industrial emissions
403 experienced more than 50% decrease rates due to the stringent lockdown measures. However, the
404 higher relative humidity (RH) and lower air temperature (T) significantly prohibited the decreases
405 of water-soluble ion concentrations because they were beneficial to the heterogeneous or aqueous
406 reaction of sulfate and nitrate. Trace elements were very sensitive to wind direction (WD) due to
407 the long-range transport of anthropogenic emissions. Besides, the contributions of secondary
408 formation to PM_{2.5} increased from 36% to 44% after COVID-19 outbreak. The finding also
409 explained that the opposite change trends of the secondary aerosols in East and West China found
410 by previous studies was not only attributable to the large difference in meteorological conditions,
411 but also the discrepancy of NH₃ concentration.

412 In the future work, it is necessary to seek multi-pollutants (e.g., VOC, NO_x) emission control
413 measures to reduce the concentrations of primary and secondary components simultaneously since
414 adverse meteorological conditions coupled with slightly higher oxidation capability especially in
415 winter still caused the haze formation. Our results also highlight that more NH₃ emission control
416 measures are urgently needed because the excess NH₃ could exacerbate the generation of secondary
417 aerosols. Besides, the generation of primary pollutants was very sensitive to RH and WD. Thus, the
418 primary pollutant emissions from the industries in the upwind direction should be strictly restricted.

419 In addition, the present study still suffered from some uncertainties. At first, only six

420 meteorological factors were incorporated into the RF model to quantify the contributions of
421 emission and meteorology of air pollutants. Especially, the missing of solar radiation could affect
422 the accuracy of 8-h O₃ estimation. Besides, solar radiation could change the concentrations of
423 hydroxyl radicals, thereby affecting the NO₃ formation. In the future work, the solar radiation
424 should be integrated into the model. In addition, some temporal indicators such as hour and DOY
425 were applied to reflect the COVID-19 lockdown intensity because hourly emission inventory during
426 this period was not available, which should be integrated into the RF model after the development
427 of real-time emission inventory

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431 **Author contributions**

432 Hongbo Fu designed the study. Rui Li wrote the manuscript. Yilong Zhao analyzed the data.

433 **Competing interests**

434 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

435 **Data availability**

436 The meteorological data are available in <http://data.cma.cn/>.

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Figure 1 The topographic map of China indicating the location of Tangshan (a), sampling site (b), and some key industrial points (b). The population density of Tangshan is also depicted in (b). The red circle in Fig. (b) represents the industrial points, and the pink pentagram denotes the sampling site.

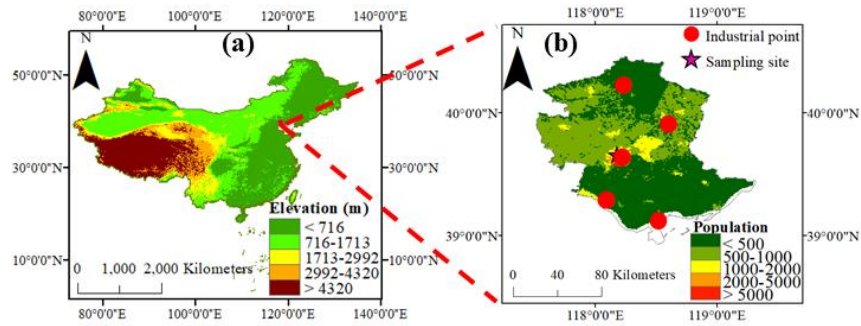


Figure 2 Observed and deweathered weekly concentrations and changes of gaseous pollutants during January 1st-March 31th. The black solid line and dotted line represent the decrease ratio of observed concentration and simulated concentration from Pre-COVID to Post-COVID, respectively. The white background denotes the changes of gaseous pollutants before COVID-19, while the faint yellow one represents the chemical components after COVID-19 outbreak.

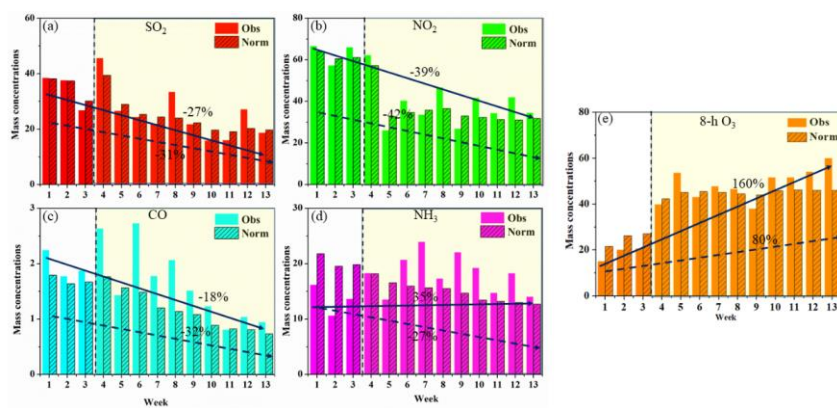


Figure 3 Observed and deweathered weekly concentrations and changes of PM_{2.5} and water-soluble ions during January 1st-March 31th. The black solid line and dotted line represent the decrease ratio of observed concentration and simulated concentration from Pre-COVID to Post-COVID, respectively. The white background denotes the changes of gaseous pollutants before COVID-19, while the faint yellow one represents the chemical components after COVID-19 outbreak.

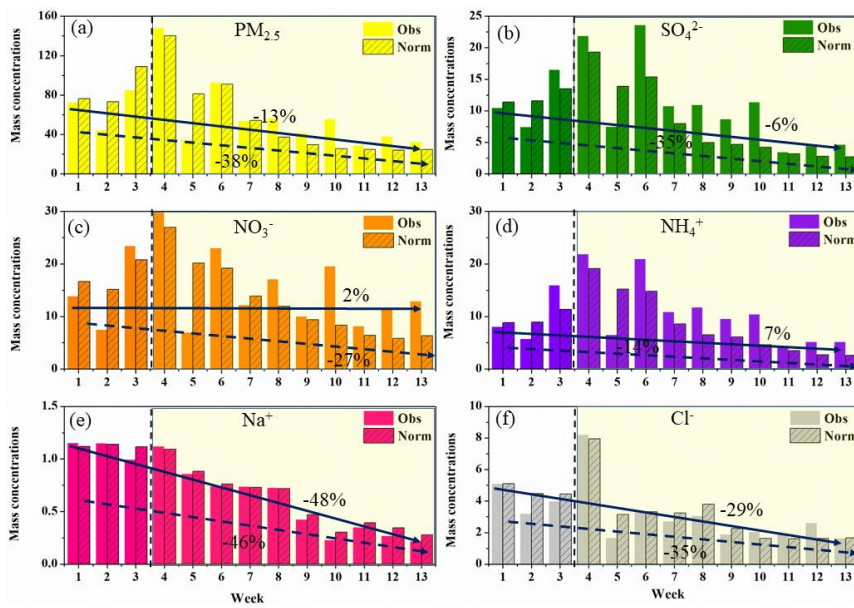


Figure 4 Observed and deweathered weekly concentrations and changes of trace elements during January 1st-March 31th. The black solid line and dotted line represent the decrease ratio of observed concentration and simulated concentration from from Pre-COVID to Post-COVID, respectively. The white background denotes the changes of gaseous pollutants before COVID-19, while the faint yellow one represents the chemical components after COVID-19 outbreak.

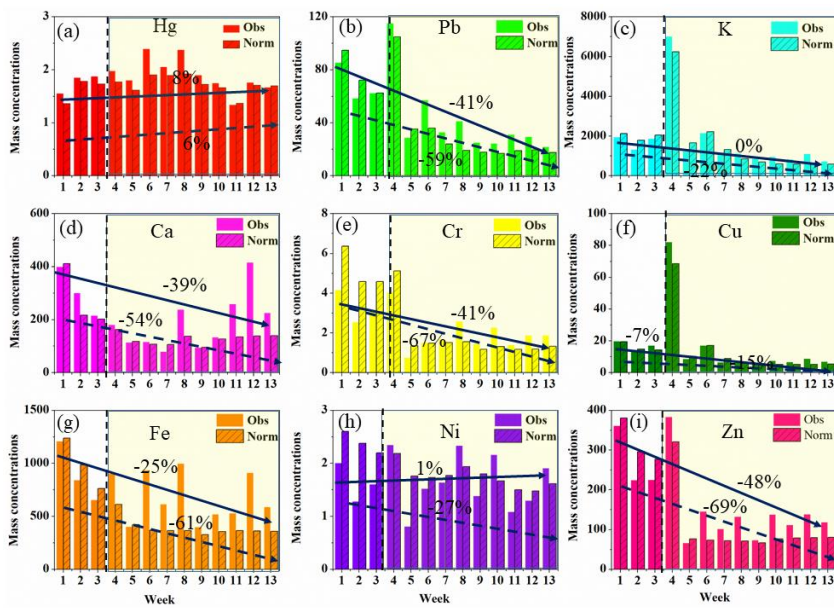


Figure 5 Observed and deweathered weekly concentrations and changes of organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) during January 1st-March 31th. The black solid line and dotted line represent the decrease ratio of observed concentration and simulated concentration from from Pre-COVID to Post-COVID, respectively. The white background denotes the changes of gaseous pollutants before COVID-19, while the faint yellow one represents the chemical components after COVID-19 outbreak.

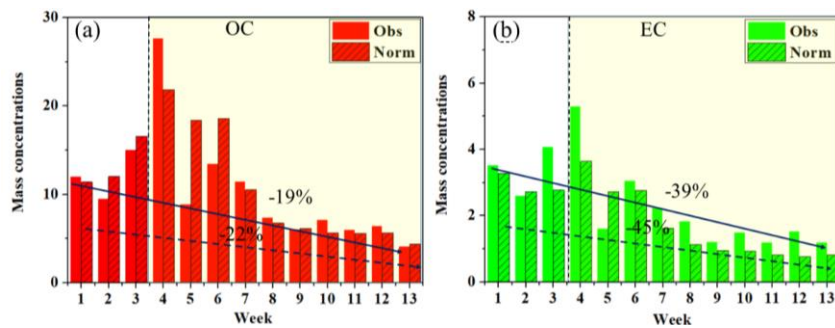


Figure 6 The changes of observed concentrations of multiple components between pre-lockdown (week 1-3) and post-lockdown (week 4-13) against the changes derived from the emission and meteorological changes. The gaseous pollutants, water-soluble ions and carbonaceous aerosols, and trace metals are shown in (a), (b), (c), respectively.

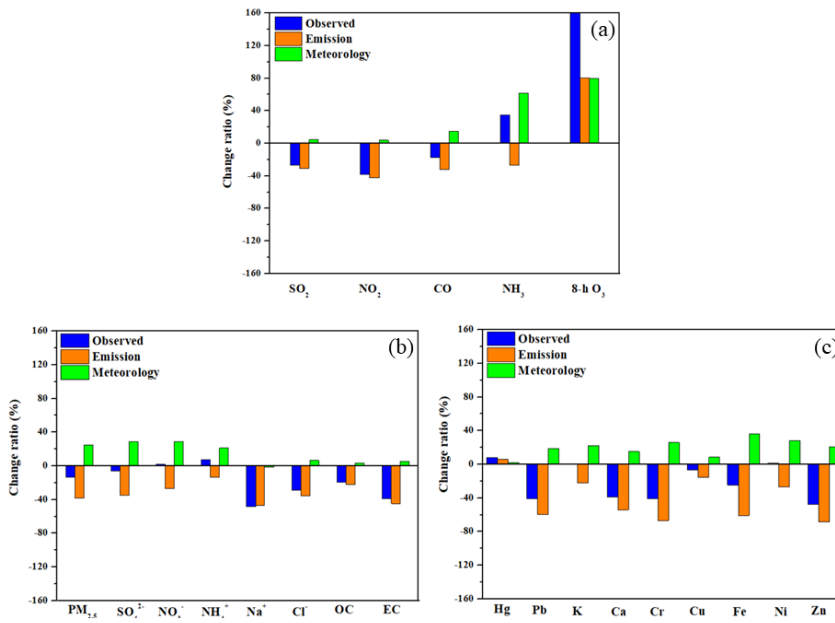


Figure 7 Relative importance of the predictors for the prediction of gaseous pollutants. The match in the figure denotes the variable importance in RF models for various species. DOY, WD, P, RH, Hour, T, DOW, WS, Prec, and Year represent day of year, wind direction, air pressure, relative humidity, hour of the day, air temperature, day of week, wind speed, precipitation, and study year.

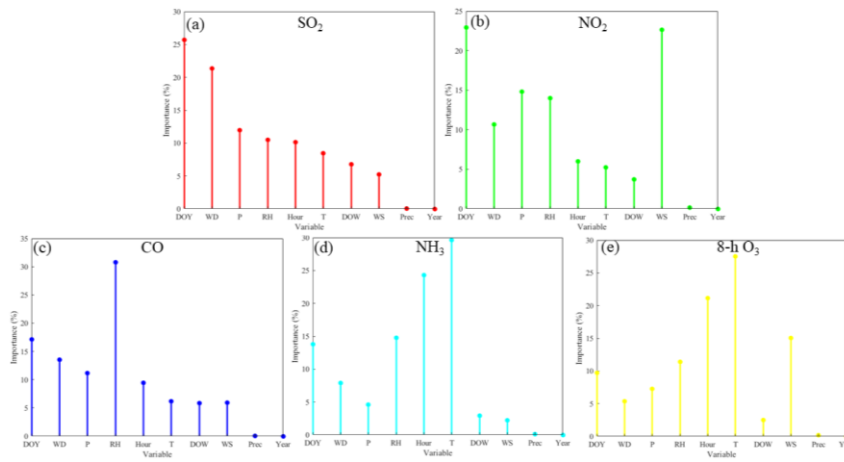


Figure 8 Relative importance of the predictors for the prediction of water-soluble ions in PM_{2.5}. The match in the figure denotes the variable importance in RF models for various species. DOY, WD, P, RH, Hour, T, DOW, WS, Prec, and Year represent day of year, wind direction, air pressure, relative humidity, hour of the day, air temperature, day of week, wind speed, precipitation, and study year.

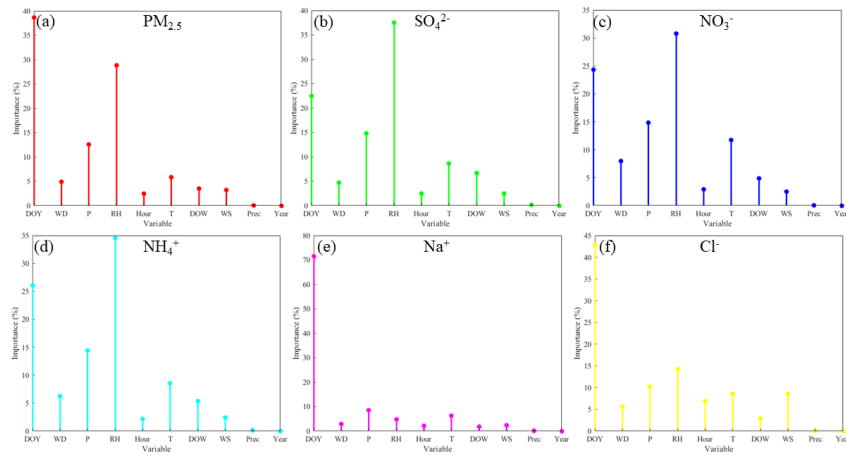


Figure 9 Relative importance of the predictors for the prediction of trace elements in PM_{2.5}. The match in the figure denotes the variable importance in RF models for various species. DOY, WD, P, RH, Hour, T, DOW, WS, Prec, and Year represent day of year, wind direction, air pressure, relative humidity, hour of the day, air temperature, day of week, wind speed, precipitation, and study year.

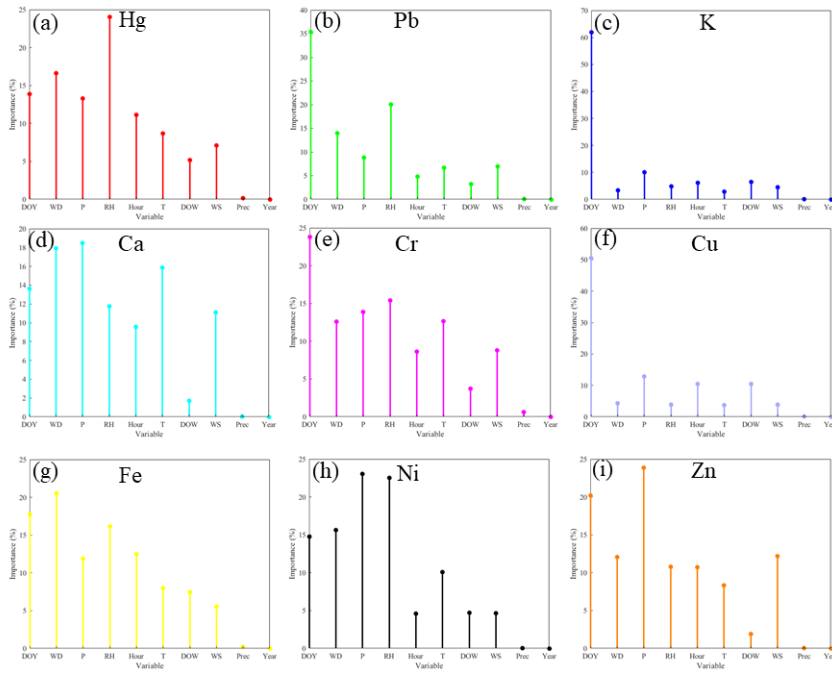


Figure 10 Relative importance of the predictors for the prediction of OC and EC in PM_{2.5}. The match in the figure denotes the variable importance in RF models for various species. DOY, WD, P, RH, Hour, T, DOW, WS, Prec, and Year represent day of year, wind direction, air pressure, relative humidity, hour of the day, air temperature, day of week, wind speed, precipitation, and study year.

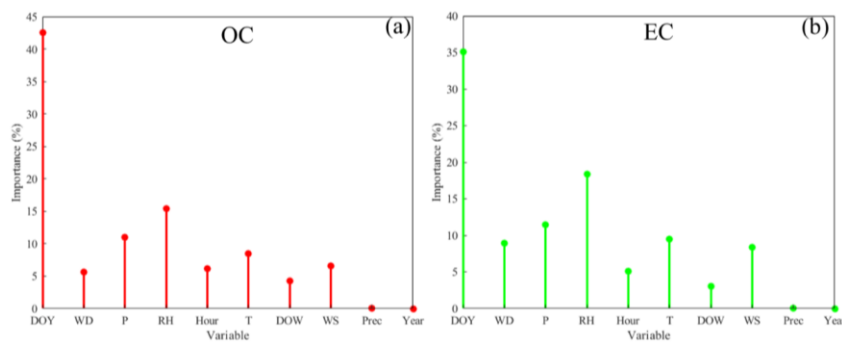


Figure 11 The comparison of source apportionment for PM_{2.5} chemical compositions before (a) and after (b) COVID-19 outbreak. In our study, five major sources were distinguished based on PMF model. The color bar denotes the contributions of these sources to each species. SF, IP, BB, CC, and RD represent secondary formation, industrial process, biomass burning, coal combustion, road dust, respectively.

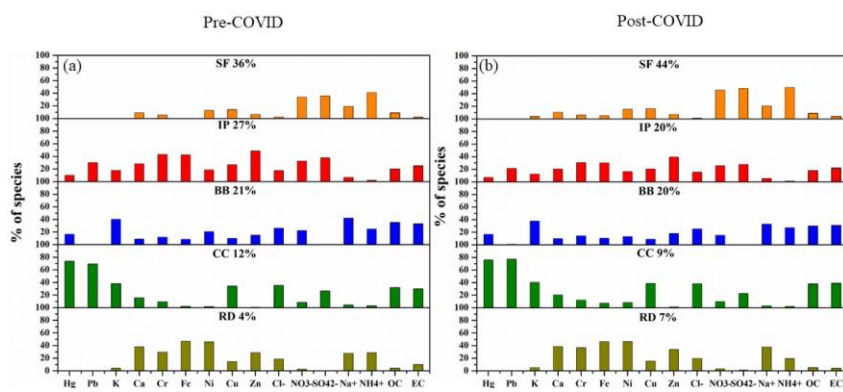


Table 1 SOR, NOR, and C/A values in Pre-COVID and Post-COVID (SOR = $\text{SO}_4^{2-}/(\text{SO}_4^{2-}+\text{SO}_2)$,

NOR= $\text{NO}_3^-/(\text{NO}_3^-+\text{NO}_2)$, C/A= $\text{NH}_4^+/(\text{SO}_4^{2-}+\text{NO}_3^-+\text{Cl}^-)$).

	SOR	NOR	C/A
Pre-COVID	0.26	0.22	0.33
Post-COVID	0.22	0.25	0.28

