





25 intermittent haze events during COVID-19 period were characterized with secondary aerosol  
26 pollution, which was mainly contributed by the unfavorable meteorological conditions and high  
27  $\text{NH}_3$  level.

## 28 1. Introduction

29 In December 2019, a cluster of pneumonia cases with unknown etiology were firstly reported  
30 in Wuhan and quickly spread around the world (Wu et al., 2020). The continuous global outbreak  
31 of coronavirus disease (COVID-19), declared as a public health emergency of international concern  
32 by the World Health Organization, resulted in unprecedented public health responses in many  
33 countries including lockdown, travel restrictions, and quarantines (Griffiths, J. and A. Woodyatt,  
34 2020; Horowitz et al., 2020). On January 23, 2020, Chinese government imposed a lockdown in  
35 Wuhan and many surrounding cities in Hubei province in order to prevent the spread of epidemic.  
36 Afterwards, many similar measures including blocked roads, shutdown of factories, restricted  
37 citizen mobility, and checkpoints were soon extended to other cities throughout the entire country.  
38 During this period, energy production by coal-fired power plants only remained two thirds levels of  
39 the same periods in preceding years (Chang et al., 2020). Besides, the transport volume have been  
40 reduced by more than 70% due to the COVID-19 outbreak (Chang et al., 2020). These drastic  
41 government-enforced lockdown measures substantially decreased the pollutant emissions, and at  
42 least partly improved local air quality. Feng et al. (2020) confirmed that the COVID-19 lockdown  
43 have led to more than 70% reduction of  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions in many large cities over China.  
44 Correspondingly, the ambient  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  concentrations decreased by 35% and 60%,  
45 respectively (Shi and Brasseur, 2020). The natural experiment provided an unprecedented  
46 opportunity to explore the potential for emission reduction and the corresponding response of air



47 quality.

48 A growing body of studies assessed the response of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and gaseous pollutants to COVID-19  
49 lockdown, and found these stringent restrictions resulted in the significant decreases of these  
50 pollutant (e.g., PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and CO) concentrations (Miyazaki et al., 2020; Marlia et al., 2020).  
51 However, some haze events still occurred during this period especially in East China. Huang et al.  
52 (2020) inferred these extraordinary findings might be attributable to enhanced secondary pollution  
53 based on the chemical transport models (CTMs). Understanding the formation mechanism of puzzle  
54 haze events depending on CTMs alone might be not very robust, it was highly imperative to perform  
55 more field observation to analyze the temporal variations of chemical compositions especially the  
56 secondary ions (e.g., SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) in PM<sub>2.5</sub> before and after COVID-19 outbreak and then to validate  
57 these inferences.

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



69 Thus, in order to accurately assess the effects of lockdown measures on air quality and to reveal the  
70 key driver of the haze paradox, it was necessary to isolate the contribution of meteorology.  
71 Unfortunately, up to date, the respective contributions of emission and meteorology to chemical  
72 compositions in  $PM_{2.5}$  during COVID-19 period were not quantified yet in most pioneering studies  
73 (Chang et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2020). Moreover, the comparison of source  
74 contributions to chemical compositions between pre-lockdown and post-lockdown were scarcely  
75 performed. Such knowledge was critical to design effective  $PM_{2.5}$  mitigation strategies in the near  
76 future.

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

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



91 difference for these pollutants before and after COVID-19 lockdown.

## 92 2. Materials and methods

### 93 2.1 Field observation

94 Hourly gaseous pollutants and PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical compositions including water-soluble ions and  
95 trace elements were measured using on-line instruments during January 1-March 31, 2020 at a  
96 supersite in Tangshan. The supersite is located in a commercial region without short-distance  
97 industrial emissions (Figure 1). SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and CO concentrations were determined by the ultraviolet  
98 fluorescence analyzer (TEI, Model 43i from Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA),  
99 chemiluminescence trace gas analyzer (TEI Model 42i from Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA),  
100 and the correlation infrared absorption analyzer (TAPI, model: 300E, USA) (Li et al., 2017; Li et  
101 al., 2019). The PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration was determined using an oscillating balance analyzer (TH-  
102 2000Z, China) (Wang et al., 2014). The NH<sub>3</sub> concentration and water-soluble ions including sulfate  
103 (SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>), nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>), ammonium (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>), sodium ion (Na<sup>+</sup>), and chloridion (Cl<sup>-</sup>) were monitored  
104 with a Gas and Aerosol Collector combined with Ion Chromatography (GAC-IC, TH-PKU-303,  
105 China) (Wang et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2019). Nine trace elements including Hg, Pb, K, Ca, Cr, Cu,  
106 Fe, Ni, and Zn were determined by an online multi-element analyzer (Model Xact 625, Cooper  
107 Environment Service, USA). The quality assurance of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> were conducted  
108 based on HJ 630-2011 specifications. For the quality assurance of NH<sub>3</sub> and water-soluble ions, the  
109 concentration gradients of anion and cation standard solutions were set based on the pollution levels  
110 of target species, and correlation coefficients of the calibration curve must be higher than 0.999.  
111 Besides, a standard sample was collected each day and the relative standard deviation for the  
112 reproducibility test must be less than 5%. The online device agreed well with the result determined



113 by filter sampling coupled with Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry (ICP-MS) and  
114 Inductively Coupled Plasma-Atomic Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-AES).

## 115 2.2 Deweathered model development

116 The air pollutants were influenced by the combined effects of meteorological conditions and  
117 emissions. In order to quantify the contributions of anthropogenic emissions, the impacts of  
118 meteorological conditions should be removed. In our study, a random forest (RF) approach was  
119 employed to serve as the site-specific modeling platform. All of gaseous pollutants and chemical  
120 compositions in  $PM_{2.5}$  were regarded as the dependent variables. The meteorological parameters  
121 (WS, WD, T, RH, Prec, and P), and time predictors (year, DOY, DOW, hour) served as the  
122 independent variables. The original dataset was randomly classified into a training dataset (90% of  
123 input dataset) for developing the RF model and the remained one was treated as the test dataset.  
124 After the building of the RF model, the deweathered technique was applied to predict the air  
125 pollutant level at a specific time point (e.g., 2020/01/01 12:00). The differences of original pollutant  
126 concentrations and deweathered pollutant concentrations were regarded as the concentrations  
127 contributed by meteorology.

## 128 2.3 Source apportionment

129 Positive matrix factorization (PMF 5.0) model version was used to perform the  $PM_{2.5}$  source  
130 apportionment. The deweathered gaseous pollutants and chemical compositions in  $PM_{2.5}$  were input  
131 into the model. The objective of PMF is to resolve the issues of chemical mass balance between  
132 measured concentration of each species and its source contributions by decomposing the input  
133 matrix into factor contribution and factor profile. The detailed equation is shown in Eq. (1)-(2).  
134 Briefly, the basic principle of PMF is to calculate the least object function  $Q$  when the  $g_{ik}$  must be a



135 positive-definite matrix based on Eq. (2) (Chen et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 2016).

$$136 \quad x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij} \quad (1)$$

$$137 \quad Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \left[ \frac{x_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj}}{u_{ij}} \right]^2 \quad (2)$$

138 where  $x_{ij}$  and  $e_{ij}$  represent the concentration and uncertainty of  $j$ th species, respectively.  $g_{ik}$   
139 represents the contribution ratio of  $k$ th source to  $i$ th sample,  $f_{kj}$  represents the ratio of  $j$ th species in  
140  $k$ th source, and  $e_{ij}$  indicates the residual of  $j$ th species in the  $i$  sample. The uncertainties associated  
141 with factor profiles were evaluated using three error calculation methods including bootstraps (BS)  
142 method, displacement (DISP) analysis, and the combination method of DISP and BS (BS-DISP).  
143 For the BS method, 100 runs were performed and the result has been believed to be valid since all  
144 of the factors showed a mapping of above 90%. DISP analysis also confirmed that the solution was  
145 considered to be stable because the observed drop in the  $Q$  value was less than 0.1% and no factor  
146 swap occurred. For the BS-DISP analysis, the solution has been verified to be useful because the  
147 observed drop in the  $Q$  value was less than 0.5%. Furthermore, both of the results from BS and BS-  
148 DISP did not suggest any asymmetry or rotational ambiguity for all of the factors (Manousakas et  
149 al., Brown et al., 2015).

### 150 3. Results and discussion

#### 151 3.1 The concentration changes of gaseous pollutants and $PM_{2.5}$ chemical compositions

152 Figure 2-4 show the temporal variations of gaseous pollutants and chemical compositions in  
153  $PM_{2.5}$  from January 1-March 31, which could be divided into two periods including before and after  
154 COVID-19 outbreak. In this study, January 23 was regarded as the breakpoint because China's  
155 government imposed a lockdown in Wuhan and surrounding cities. Before COVID-19 outbreak, the



156 average observed concentrations of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and NH<sub>3</sub> during January 1-22 were 34.4 μg/m<sup>3</sup>,  
157 63.5 μg/m<sup>3</sup>, 1.97 mg/m<sup>3</sup>, and 13.6 ppb, respectively. After COVID-19 lockdown, the mean  
158 concentrations of these gaseous pollutants changed to 25.3 μg/m<sup>3</sup>, 39.0 μg/m<sup>3</sup>, 1.62 mg/m<sup>3</sup>, and 18.3  
159 ppb, respectively. Overall, SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and CO concentrations decreased by 36.3%, 62.8%, and  
160 21.3%, respectively, whereas the NH<sub>3</sub> concentration increased by 25.8%.

161 As shown in Figure 2, the chemical compositions in PM<sub>2.5</sub> also showed dramatic changes during  
162 January 1-March 31 due to the impact of COVID-19 lockdown. The observed PM<sub>2.5</sub>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>,  
163 and Cl<sup>-</sup> concentrations decreased by 15.3%, 6.67%, 93.5%, and 40.8%, respectively, while observed  
164 NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (2.17%) and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (7.02%) levels showed slight increases. In Shanghai, Chen et al. (2020)  
165 revealed that SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations displayed significant decreases after COVID-19  
166 outbreak due to the obvious decreases of precursor concentrations (e.g., SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>). However, both  
167 of observed NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations in Tangshan even showed slight increases though the  
168 NO<sub>2</sub> concentration suffered remarkable decrease. It was assumed that the adverse meteorological  
169 conditions might be beneficial to the pollutant accumulation (Zheng et al., 2019; Zhang et al.,  
170 2019b). Besides, the concentrations of nine trace elements were also determined. The observed  
171 values of Pb (68.8%), Ca (64.2%), Cr (69.2%), Cu (7.44%), Fe (32.6%), and Zn (91.5%) suffered  
172 from dramatic decreases, while the Hg (20.0%), K (0.08%), and Ni (1.17%) concentrations still  
173 displayed stable increases. As a whole, the temporal variability of these elements in Tangshan before  
174 and after COVID-19 lockdown was in agreement with the result in Beijing (He et al., 2017).  
175 However, the K concentration in Beijing showed rapid decrease after COVID-19 outbreak, which  
176 was not in coincident with our study (He et al., 2017). It suggested that the slight increase of K in  
177 Tangshan might be linked with the unfavorable meteorological conditions (He et al., 2017).



178 3.2 The impact of emission reduction on air quality

179 Although the observed concentrations of air pollutants can be applied to analyze the impact of  
180 COVID-19 lockdown, the role of emission reduction on air quality might be not clearly revealed  
181 because the meteorological factors were also important variables influencing the air pollutant  
182 concentrations. In order to accurately reflect the response of air quality to emission reduction during  
183 COVID-19 lockdown period, the meteorological conditions were isolated by machine-learning  
184 model. In our study, we developed a random forest model to remove the impacts of meteorological  
185 conditions on air pollutant. As shown in Figure S1-S3, the observed values showed the better  
186 correlation with the normalized values for most of the pollutants, indicating that the developed  
187 model was robust to remove the impact of meteorological conditions. The deweathered  
188 concentrations of gaseous pollutants and chemical compositions in PM<sub>2.5</sub> are depicted in Figure 2-  
189 4. The deweathered SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations decreased by 45.0%, 73.7%, 47.9%,  
190 and 30.9%, respectively during COVID-19 lockdown period compared with before COVID-19  
191 outbreak. Meanwhile, the normalized-meteorology PM<sub>2.5</sub>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, Na<sup>+</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup>  
192 concentrations decreased by 61.7%, 53.9%, 36.4%, 15.7%, 87.9%, and 54.6%, respectively. For  
193 trace elements, deweathered Pb, K, Ca, Cr, Cu, Fe, Ni, and Zn levels reduced by 146%, 29.0%,  
194 118%, 201%, 18.2%, 155%, 37.1%, and 219%, respectively. Nevertheless, the deweathered Hg  
195 concentration still kept stable increase by the rate of 18.0% compared with the period before  
196 COVID-19 outbreak.

197 As shown in Figure 2-4, the deweathered concentrations for most of the pollutants showed  
198 significant decreases after COVID-19 outbreak compared with the period before COVID-19. It was  
199 assumed that many cities proposed the lockdown measures, which significantly minimized



200 industrial, transportation, and commercial activities. Among all of the pollutants, the deweathered  
201 Zn, Cr, Fe, Pb, Ca,  $\text{NH}_4^+$ ,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ , and  $\text{Na}^+$  experienced more than 50% decrease rates  
202 due to the lockdown measures. It was well known that Zn, Cr, and Fe originated mainly from  
203 metallurgical industry (Sun et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2018), while Pb might be derived from coal-fired  
204 power plants (Cui et al., 2019; Meng et al., 2020). During the COVID-19 outbreak, most of the  
205 industries have been shut down and energy production by coal-fired power plants was reduced by  
206 one third (Chang et al., 2020). Thus, these element concentrations suffered from dramatic decreases.  
207 It should be noted that the deweathered Ca concentration also decreased by more than 100%. It was  
208 well documented that the Ca was often associated with the dust resuspension (Chang et al., 2018).  
209 In fact, the Ca was known as one of the most abundant elements in the upper continental crust,  
210 which was likely originated from the road fugitive dust (Chang et al., 2018; Shen et al., 2016). More  
211 than 70% reduction of vehicle transportation and domestic flights facilitated the rapid decrease of  
212 Ca concentration (Chang et al., 2020). Besides,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and some water-soluble ions including  
213 deweathered  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations also experienced marked decreases after COVID-19  
214 lockdown, which was in good agreement with their gaseous precursors. It might be attributable to  
215 the rapid decreases of precursor emissions. The deweathered  $\text{Na}^+$  concentration showed the rapid  
216 decrease after COVID-19 lockdown, which suggested that the  $\text{Na}^+$  in the  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  of Tangshan was  
217 probably derived from waste incineration rather than sea-salt aerosol (Deshmukh et al., 2016).

218 Although most of pollutant concentrations suffered remarkable decreases, the decrease ratios of  
219 deweathered  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations after COVID-19 outbreak were far lower than those of  
220 many other gaseous pollutants and water-soluble ions. It was attributable to the fact that the  
221 contributions of fossil fuel and urban waste sources increased after COVID-19 outbreak (Zhang et



222 al., 2020b). Besides, it should be noted that the normalized-meteorology Hg concentration still  
223 remained the stable increase. It was supposed that the Hg was mainly released from the coal  
224 combustion for domestic heating (Zhou et al., 2018), which was not restricted during the COVID-  
225 19 lockdown period.

### 226 3.3 The role of meteorology on air quality

227 Compared with the observed values, the deweathered concentrations of most pollutants were  
228 significantly reduced. Meanwhile, the deweathered decrease ratios of pollutants were significantly  
229 higher than those of observed values. The result suggested the meteorology conditions during the  
230 COVID-19 lockdown period were not favorable to the pollutant dispersion, as evidenced by some  
231 recent studies (Chang et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2020).

232 As shown in Figure 5, the contributions of meteorological conditions to pollutants remained to  
233 be positive, and their contributions to water-soluble ions and  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations were remarkably  
234 higher than those to other gaseous pollutants and trace elements, suggesting that these chemical  
235 compositions more sensitive to meteorological variations. In our study, six meteorological  
236 parameters including WS, WD, T, RH, Prec, and P have been integrated into the random forest  
237 model to assess the response of each species to different meteorological variables. The variable  
238 importance suggested that the mass concentrations of most species were sensitive to RH (Figure 6-  
239 8). Both of T and WD were key factors for trace elements, while T and P were responsible for the  
240 variability of water-soluble ions. Deshmukh et al. (2016) confirmed that the high RH promoted the  
241 aqueous-phase oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  and the production of sulfate. Tian et al. (2019) also demonstrated  
242 that RH-dependent heterogeneous reactions significantly contributed to the sulfate generation and  
243 the high RH enhanced gas- to aqueous-phase dissolution of  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$ . These pioneering



244 experiments suggested that secondary aerosols were often formed under the condition of high RH.  
245 Very recently, Chang et al. (2020) observed that the nitrate concentration in YRD experienced  
246 unusual increase during COVID-19 period, while Xu et al. (2020) obtained the opposite result in  
247 Lanzhou. It was assumed that the persistent increase of T and decrease of RH in Lanzhou during  
248 this period was not beneficial to the generation of secondary aerosol, while the high RH in YRD  
249 significantly elevated local nitrate level. Compared with the water-soluble ions, some trace elements  
250 such as Fe and Zn on the mineral/soot surface only catalyzed the heterogeneous generation of sulfate  
251 and nitrate, which was less sensitive to RH than water-soluble ions (Hu et al., 2015). Except RH,  
252 the trace elements were mainly affected by both of T and WD. The higher temperature often resulted  
253 in the lower water content in the soil and a higher tendency of dust suspension (Lyu et al., 2016).  
254 As shown in Figure 8, the Ca concentration was significantly influenced by T because Ca was  
255 mainly enriched in the fugitive dust. The trace element concentrations were also affected by WD. It  
256 was assumed that the strong northwestern winds during the dust events led to higher concentrations  
257 of Ca and Fe concentrations. In addition, the neighboring industrial points including cement plants  
258 and coal-fired power plants also affected the concentrations of trace elements via long/short-range  
259 transport, which was strongly dependent on WD.

260 Unlike the trace elements, water-soluble ions were frequently affected by T and P rather than  
261 WD. Wu et al. have found that the heterogeneous oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> by ozone was sensitive to the  
262 variation of T, and showed a turning point for sulfate formation rate around 250 K (Wu et al., 2011).  
263 Major water-soluble ions in PM<sub>2.5</sub> including SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> were mainly derived from  
264 secondary formation rather than the direct emission (Feng et al., 2020a; Zhang et al., 2020a), and  
265 thus they were not very sensitive to WD.



266 3.4 The enhanced secondary aerosol formation during COVID-19 lockdown period

267 The deweathered chemical compositions suggested that the sulfate and nitrate chemistry  
268 changed slightly after COVID-19 outbreak. The oxidation ratio of sulfate (SOR, the ratio of sulfate  
269 concentration and the sum of sulfate and SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations) decreased from 0.26 to 0.22, while  
270 the oxidation ratio of nitrate (NOR, the ratio of nitrate concentration and the sum of nitrate and NO<sub>2</sub>  
271 concentrations) increased from 0.22 to 0.25 (Table 1). The decreased SOR after COVID-19 outbreak  
272 indicated that the decrease rate of sulfate is higher than that of SO<sub>2</sub>. In contrast, the increased NOR  
273 during COVID-19 lockdown period revealed that the decrease rate of nitrate is lower than that of  
274 NO<sub>2</sub>. The increased NOR after COVID-19 outbreak suggested the consecutive nitrate production,  
275 though the NO<sub>2</sub> emission experienced tremendous reduction, which was in good agreement with the  
276 result observed by Chang et al. (2020). It was assumed that the persistently higher observed NH<sub>3</sub>  
277 concentration during this period promoted the ammonium nitrate formation though the lower NO<sub>x</sub>  
278 emission (Zhang et al., 2020b), which also partially explained the abnormal increases of observed  
279 concentrations of secondary ions after COVID-19 outbreak. In general, NH<sub>3</sub> firstly tends to react  
280 with H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> to form ammonium sulfate, and then the excess NH<sub>3</sub> participated in the reaction with  
281 HNO<sub>3</sub> (Chen et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019a). However, sulfate concentration suffered from more  
282 dramatic decrease compared with SO<sub>2</sub>, which might be associated with the aerosol acidity during  
283 COVID-19 lockdown period. The ratio of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> and the sum of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and Cl<sup>-</sup> named C/A was  
284 regarded as an indicator to reflect the aerosol acidity. In our study, the C/A value decreased from  
285 0.33 to 0.28 after COVID-19 outbreak, implicating that the aerosol acidity even showed slight  
286 increase during the COVID-19 lockdown period. It was well known that the higher aerosol acidity  
287 might prohibit the conversion from SO<sub>2</sub> to sulfate (Liu et al., 2020; Shao et al., 2019), which yielded



288 the lower SOR.

### 289 3.5 The impact of COVID-19 lockdown on source apportionment

290 The emission control measures inevitably triggered the variation of source apportionment (Liu  
291 et al., 2017; Meng et al., 2020). In the present study, Positive matrix factorization (PMF 5.0) was  
292 employed to identify the major sources of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Tangshan before and after COVID-19 outbreak.  
293 About 3-9 factor solutions were examined, and a five-factor solution obtained the lowest Q (robust)  
294 and Q (true) values. Additionally, the PMF analysis and error diagnostics also suggested the result  
295 was robust (Table S1-S3).

296 The source apportionment profiles in pre-COVID and post-COVID resolved by PMF are  
297 depicted in Figure 9. For pre-COVID, the first factor contributed 35.2% to the total species. The  
298 factor was characterized with high levels of NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (41.1%), SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (35.8%), and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (33.9%). SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>  
299 and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> were generally produced by oxidation of SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>, respectively. The NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> was often  
300 formed through the heterogeneous reaction of NH<sub>3</sub> and sulfate or HNO<sub>3</sub>. Thus, the factor was  
301 regarded as the secondary formation (SF). The second factor was characterized with high loadings  
302 of Zn (48.7%), Cr (43.1%), Fe (42.3%), and Pb (30.1%). Cr and Fe were mainly originated from  
303 fuel combustion and metallurgical industry such as chrome plating and steel production (Liu et al.,  
304 2018a), while Pb and Zn was derived from the roasting, sintering and smelting process for the  
305 extraction of Pb/Zn ores (Wu et al., 2012). Therefore, the factor 2 was treated as the industrial  
306 process (IP) source. The predominant species in factor 3 included Na<sup>+</sup> (41.3%) and K (40.2%). K  
307 was often regarded as the fingerprint of biomass burning (BB) (Chen et al., 2017; Zheng et al.,  
308 2019b), whereas the Na<sup>+</sup> was generally regarded as the tracer of waste incineration (Alam et al.,  
309 2019; Durlak et al., 1997). Hence, the factor 3 was treated as the BB source. Tangshan suffered from



310 remarkable increasing usage of biomass fuels for domestic heating in winter, which promoted the  
311 emissions of K and Na<sup>+</sup> (Chen et al., 2017). The most abundant species in factor 4 were Hg (73.6%),  
312 Pb (69.4%), K (38.2%), Cu (34.2%), Cl<sup>-</sup> (35.4%), and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (26.6%). Pb, Hg, and Cu were typical  
313 marker elements for coal combustion, and around 56% of Pb and 47% of Hg were released from  
314 coal combustion (Cheng et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2020). In northern China, the coal-based domestic  
315 heating was one of the most important sector of coal consumption (Liu et al., 2018b). Dai et al.  
316 (2019) also verified that the residential coal combustion was major source of primary sulfate. Thus,  
317 the factor 4 was regarded as the coal combustion (CC) source. The last factor was distinguished by  
318 high loadings of Fe (47.0%), Ni (46.0%), and Ca (38.1%). Fe, Ni, and Ca were enriched in the brake  
319 wear and tyre wear dusts (Dehghani et al., 2017; Urrutia-Goyes et al., 2018), and thus the elements  
320 in this factor were mainly sourced from traffic-related road dust (RD).

321 After COVID-19 outbreak, the chemical compositions in PM<sub>2.5</sub> were also classified into five  
322 sources including SF, IP, BB, CC, and RD. However, the contribution ratios of these sources varied  
323 greatly after the implementation of serious lockdown measures. The contribution ratio of IP  
324 experienced the largest decrease from 28.9% to 20.5%, whereas the apportionment of SF showed  
325 the marked increase from 35.2% to 42.7%. The contributions of other three sources only suffered  
326 from slight variations. The rapid decrease of IP contribution might be associated with the shutdown  
327 of many industries during COVID-19 period (Zheng et al., 2020), while the obvious increase of SF  
328 contribution was attributable to more heterogeneous or aqueous reactions of precursors (Chang et  
329 al., 2020). For nearly all of the species, the contribution ratios of IP suffered from remarkable  
330 decreases after COVID-19 outbreak. The contribution ratios of SF for SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
331 increased from 35.8%, 33.9%, and 41.1% to 48.4%, 45.6%, and 49.9% after COVID-19 outbreak,



332 respectively. However, the contribution ratios of SF for other species remained relatively stable. It  
333 was assumed that  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ ,  $\text{NO}_3^-$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  were mainly produced from secondary formation of  
334 precursors (Jiang et al., 2019; Yao et al., 2020), while other species especially the trace elements  
335 were mainly derived from the primary emission (Wu et al., 2020b). Although the COVID-19  
336 pandemic led to the shutdown of many coal-fired power plants and industries and decreased the CC  
337 emissions from these sectors (Kraemer et al., 2020), the government-enforced home order might  
338 increase the electricity consumption (Venter et al., 2020), which offset the decreases of CC  
339 contributions to industrial activities. Therefore, the contribution ratios of CC did not experience  
340 dramatic variation after COVID-19 outbreak.

#### 341 **4. Conclusions and implications**

342 The lockdown measures led to the shutdown of many industries, in turn resulting in the  
343 significant decreases of primary components in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ . We employed RF model to determine the  
344 respective contributions of meteorology and emission reduction on the variations of gaseous  
345 pollutants and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  chemical compositions during COVID-19 lockdown period. The deweathered  
346 levels of some trace elements (e.g., Pb (-147%), Zn (-219%)) and water-soluble ions (e.g.,  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  (-  
347 53.9%)) derived from industrial emissions experienced more than 50% decrease rates due to the  
348 stringent lockdown measures. However, the higher relative humidity (RH) and lower air temperature  
349 (T) significantly prohibited the decreases of water-soluble ion concentrations because they were  
350 beneficial to the heterogeneous or aqueous reaction of sulfate and nitrate. Trace elements were very  
351 sensitive to wind direction (WD) due to the long-range transport of anthropogenic emissions.  
352 Besides, the contributions of secondary formation to  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  increased from 35.2% to 42.7% after  
353 COVID-19 outbreak. The finding also explained that the opposite change trends of the secondary



354 aerosols in East and West China found by previous studies was not only attributable to the large  
355 difference in meteorological conditions, but also the discrepancy of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration.

356 In the future work, it is necessary to seek multi-pollutants (e.g., VOC,  $\text{NO}_x$ ) emission control  
357 measures to reduce the concentrations of primary and secondary components simultaneously since  
358 adverse meteorological conditions coupled with slightly higher oxidation capability especially in  
359 winter still caused the haze formation. Our results also highlight that more  $\text{NH}_3$  emission control  
360 measures are urgently needed because the excess  $\text{NH}_3$  could exacerbate the generation of secondary  
361 aerosols. Besides, the generation of primary pollutants was very sensitive to RH and WD. Thus, the  
362 primary pollutant emissions from the industries in the upwind direction should be strictly restricted.

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### 366 **Author contributions**

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

### 368 **Competing interests**

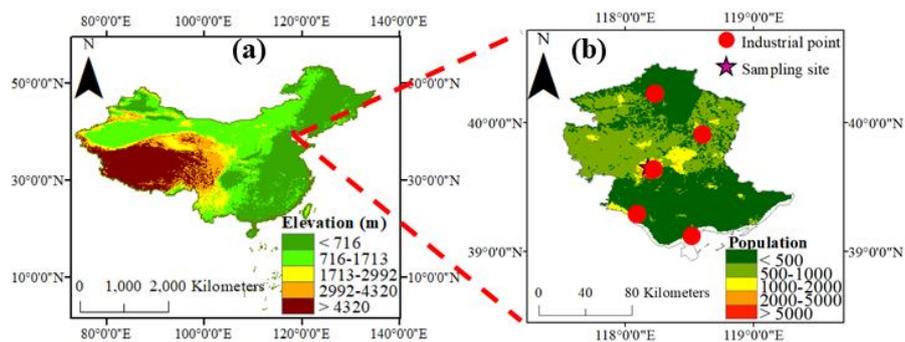
369 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

### 370 **Data availability**

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

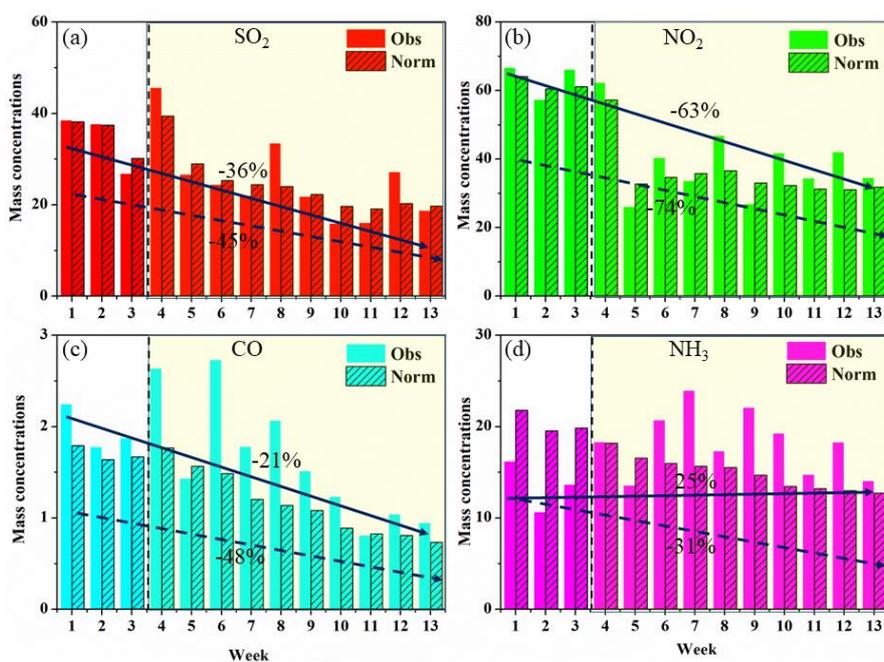


**Figure 1** The topographic map of China indicating the location of Tangshan (a), sampling site (b), and some key industrial points (b). The population density of Tangshan is also depicted in (b).



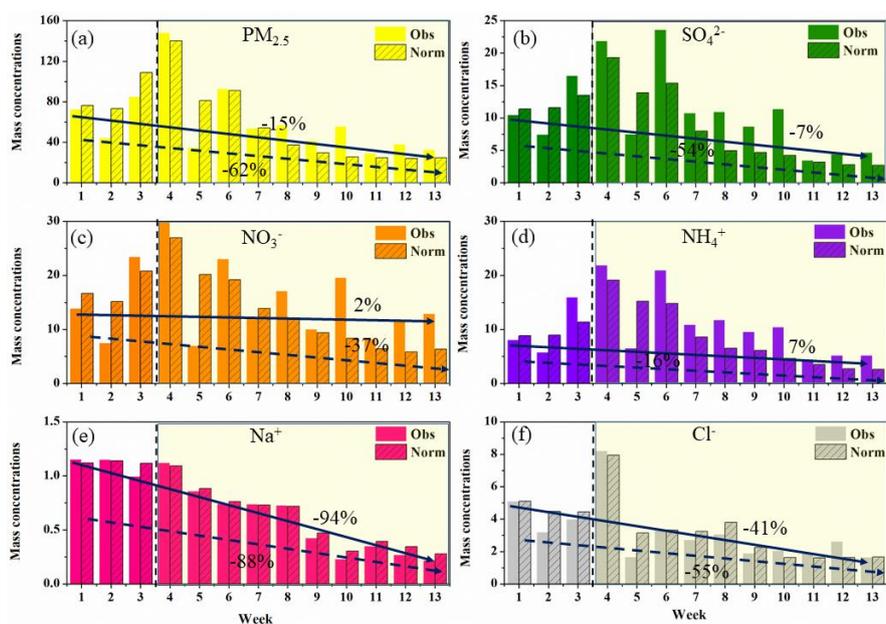


**Figure 2** Observed and deweathered weekly concentrations and changes of gaseous pollutants during January 1st-March 31th. The black dotted line represent the date of COVID-19 lockdown in China. The white background denotes the changes of gaseous pollutants before COVID-19, while the faint yellow one represents the chemical components after COVID-19 outbreak.



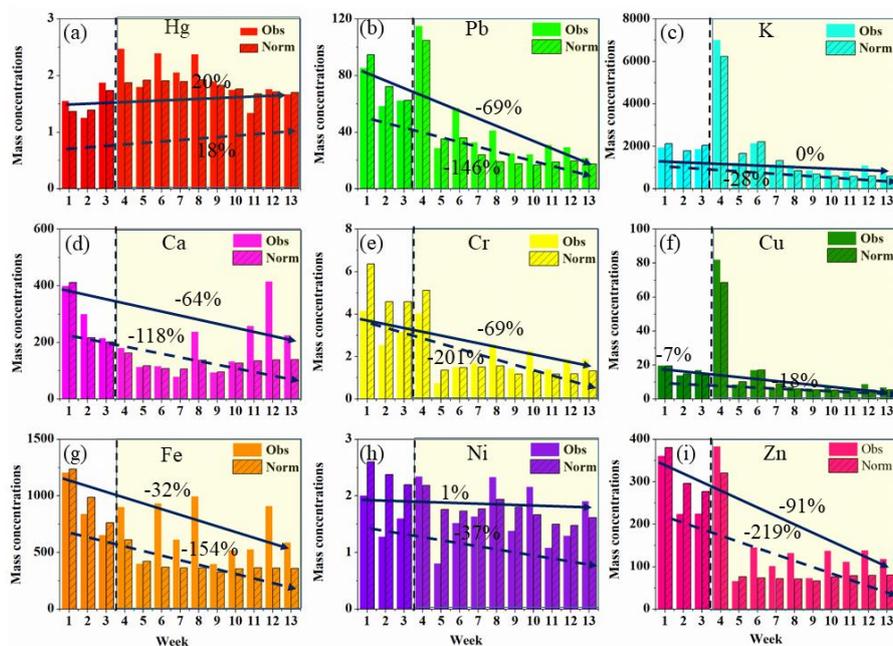


**Figure 3** Observed and deweathered weekly concentrations and changes of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and water-soluble ions during January 1st-March 31th. The black dotted line represent the date of COVID-19 lockdown in China. The white background denotes the changes of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  and water-soluble ions before COVID-19, while the faint yellow one represents the chemical components after COVID-19 outbreak.



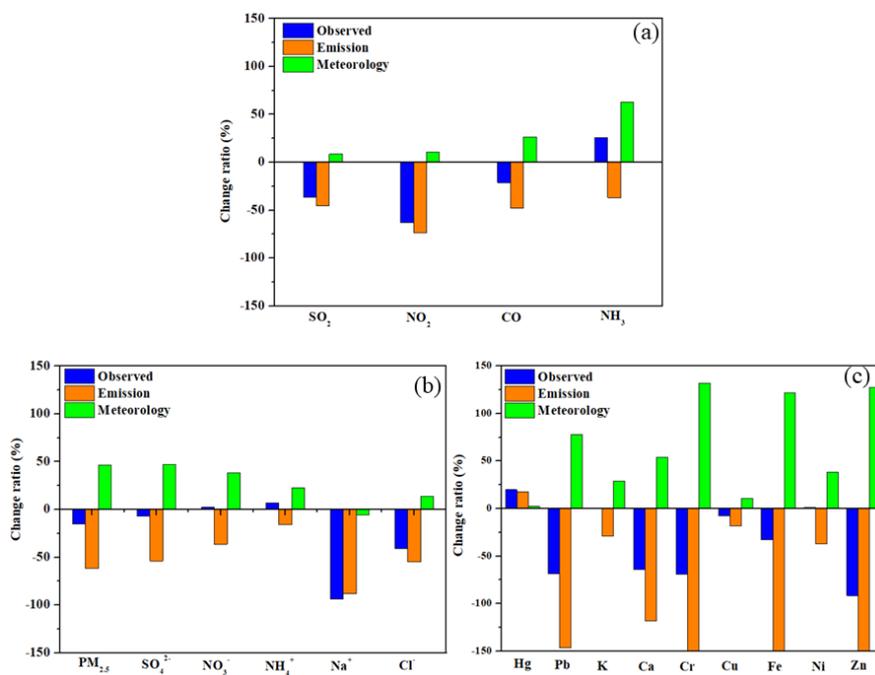


**Figure 4** Observed and deweathered weekly concentrations and changes of trace elements during January 1st-March 31th. The black dotted line represent the date of COVID-19 lockdown in China. The white background denotes the changes of trace elements before COVID-19, while the faint yellow one represents the chemical components after COVID-19 outbreak.



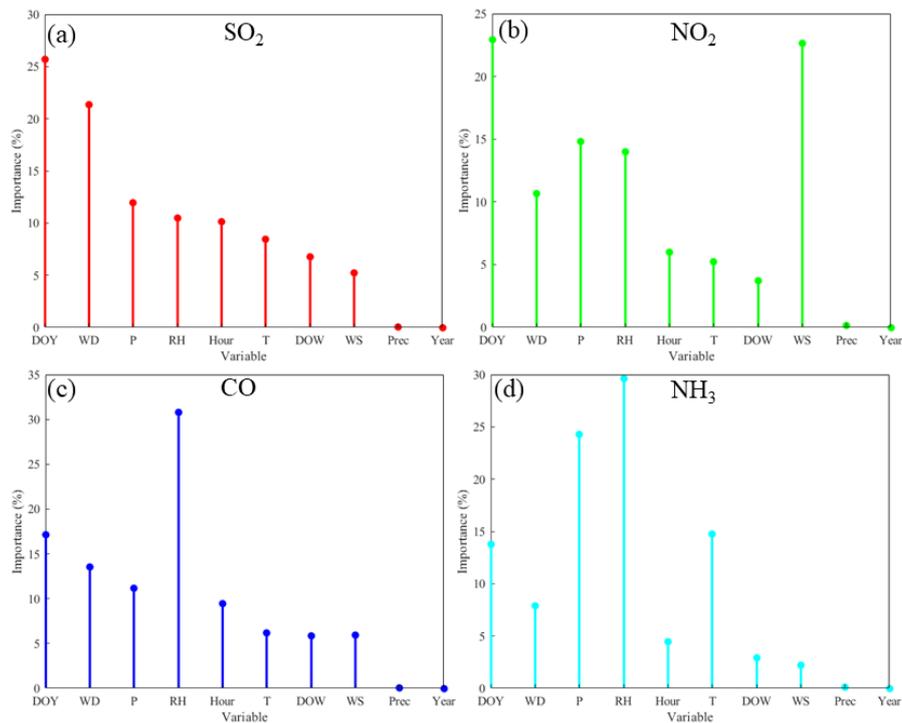


**Figure 5** The changes of observed concentrations of multiple components between pre-lockdown and post-lockdown against the changes derived from the emission and meteorological changes.



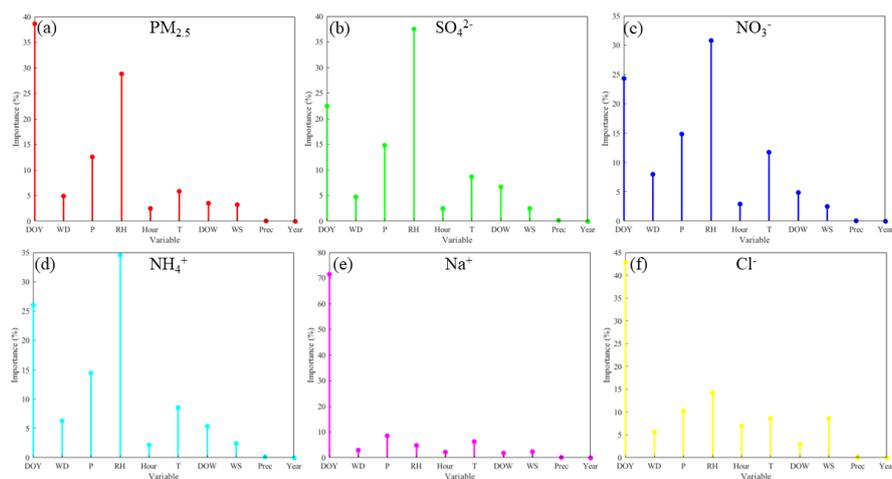


**Figure 6** Relative importance of the predictors for the prediction of gaseous pollutants.



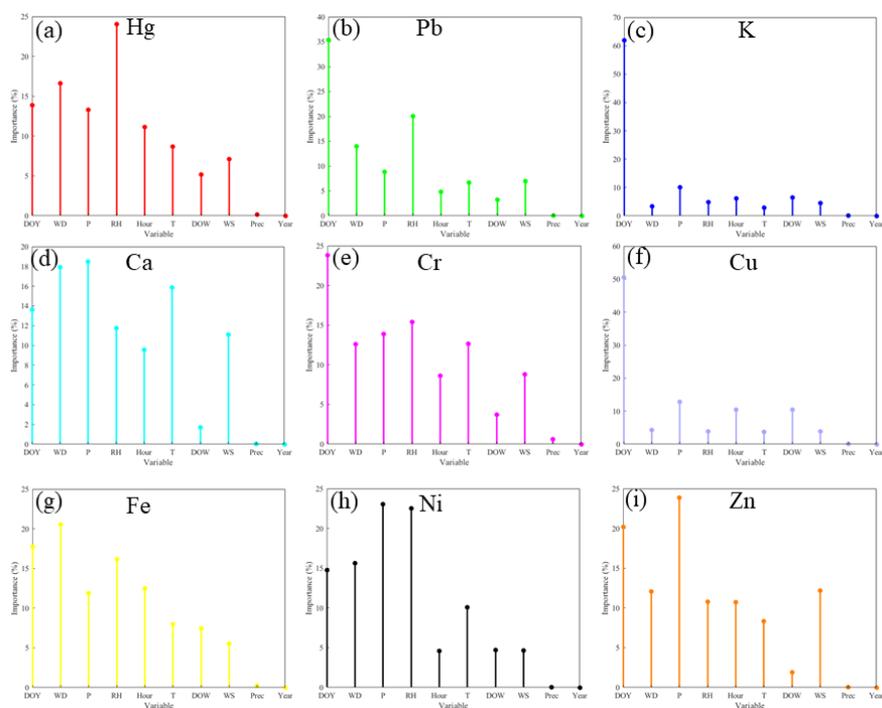


**Figure 7** Relative importance of the predictors for the prediction of water-soluble ions in PM<sub>2.5</sub>.



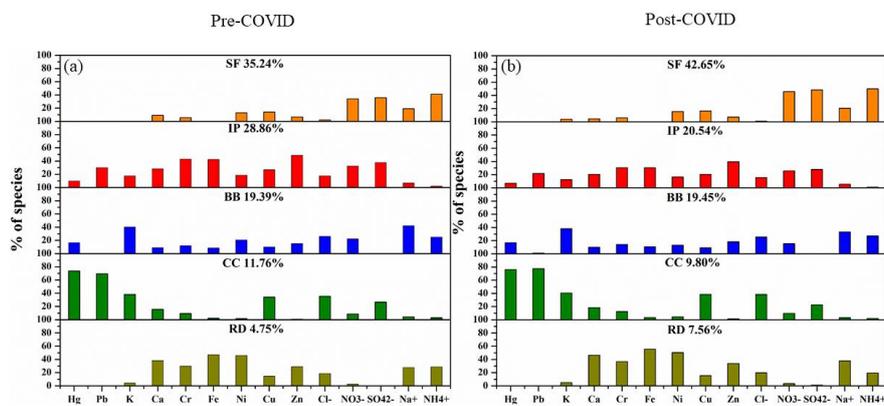


**Figure 8** Relative importance of the predictors for the prediction of trace elements in PM<sub>2.5</sub>.





**Figure 9** The comparison of source apportionment for PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemical compositions before (a) and after (b) COVID-19 outbreak.





**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



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