
25 in wintertime PM_{2.5} concentrations over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) region in the period of
26 2013-2018 are evaluated in this study. Generally, the transport of clean and dry air masses and
27 unstable boundary layer working with the effective near-surface horizontal divergence or pumping
28 action at the top of the boundary layer benefit for the horizontal or vertical diffusion of surface air
29 pollutants. Instead, the co-occurrence of a stable boundary layer, frequent air stagnation, positive
30 water vapor advection and deep near-surface horizontal convergence exacerbate the wintertime air
31 pollution. Favorable circulation conditions lasting for 2~4 days are beneficial for the diffusion of
32 air pollutants, and 3~7 days of unfavorable circulation events exacerbate the accumulation of air
33 pollutants. The occurrence frequency of favorable circulation events is consistent with the
34 interannual variation in seasonal mean PM_{2.5} concentrations. There is better diffusion ability in the
35 winters of 2014 and 2017 than in other years. A 59.9% of the observed decrease in PM_{2.5}
36 concentrations in 2017 over the BTH region could be attributed to the improvement in atmospheric
37 diffusion conditions. It is essential to exclude the contribution of meteorological conditions to the
38 variation in interannual air pollutants when making a quantitative evaluation of emission reduction
39 measurements.

40

41 **Introduction**

42 Rapid economic development and associated emissions have led to recent severe air pollution over
43 China, which has become a central issue of concern for the public and governments (Mu and Zhang,
44 2014; Song et al., 2018; Tao et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2014; Zhao
45 and Garrett, 2015).. High levels of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) concentrations influence people's
46 daily lives and threaten public health (Liu et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2018a; Hong et al., 2019; Zhang
47 et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2019). In addition, they are efficient in scattering and absorbing solar radiation,
48 and are involved in the climate change by changing the surface energy budget (Bi et al., 2016; Chen et
49 al., 2019b; Che et al., 2019; Feng and Wang, 2019; He et al., 2018b; Li et al., 2018; Jian et al., 2018; Wang
50 et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2017; Yang et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2019c). To mitigate PM_{2.5} pollution, the
51 Chinese government issued the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (hereinafter
52 referred to as the Clean Air Action hereinafter) in 2013, which required the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei

53 (BTH) region, Yangtze River Delta and Pearl River Delta to reduce their PM_{2.5} concentrations by
54 15~25% from 2013 to 2017 (China's State Council, 2013). A series of stringent clean air actions
55 was implemented to improve air quality, including improving industrial emission standards, phasing
56 out small and polluting factories, strengthening vehicle emission standards and more (Zhao et al.,
57 2019b;Zhang and Geng, 2019). To further improve air quality, the state council has released a three-
58 year action to win the battle for a blue sky in 2018, solidifying a timetable and roadmap for
59 improving air quality. By 2020, emissions of sulfur dioxide and nitrogen oxides are required to
60 decline by at least 15% from 2015 levels, while cities with low air quality standards should see their
61 PM_{2.5} density fall by at least 18%, according to the plan (China's State Council, 2018). To achieve
62 these goals, many efforts have focused on adjustments to industrial, energy and transportation
63 structures involved with central to local government.

64 With the implementation of the toughest-ever clean air actions from Clean Air Action, the
65 anthropogenic emissions show significant decreased by 59% for SO₂, 21% for NO_x, 23% for CO,
66 36% for PM₁₀ and 33% for primary PM_{2.5} from 2013 to 2017 (Zheng et al., 2018;Wang et al.,
67 2019b;Zhang et al., 2020). As a consequence, air quality in China improved significantly in terms
68 of annual mean PM_{2.5} concentrations, polluted days and pollution durations from 2013 to 2017, and
69 surpassed the mitigation targets of the Clean Air Action (Fan et al., 2020;Gui et al., 2019;Zhao et
70 al., 2018c;Zhong et al., 2018;Zhang et al., 2019a). By the end of 2017, the BTH region achieved its
71 primary goal of reducing the annual average PM_{2.5} concentration to less than 60 µg/m³ with a
72 decreasing trend of -9.3±1.8 µg/m³ (Wang et al., 2019b). However, in addition to air pollutants
73 emissions, atmospheric meteorological conditions play an important role in the long-range transport,
74 accumulation, vertical diffusion, scavenging and chemical production of particles, which drives the
75 evolution of every air pollution episode (Leung et al., 2018;Huang et al., 2018;Sun et al.,
76 2019;Garrett et al., 2010;Wang et al., 2016;Wang and Wang, 2016;Zhang et al., 2012;Zhao et al.,
77 2018b). Moreover, the interannual to interdecadal variations in meteorological or climate signals
78 (e.g., monsoon intensity, variation in sea ice, and the occurrence of El Niño Southern Oscillation
79 (ENSO) and North Atlantic Oscillation (NAO)) also have significant effects on the variation in
80 ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations (Chen et al., 2019a;Chen and Wang, 2015;Dang and Liao, 2019;Feng
81 et al., 2019;Li et al., 2016;Yin et al., 2019;Yin et al., 2017;Zhao et al., 2018d;Chen et al., 2019c).

82 The global warming associated with climate change may also contribute to the air pollution in China
83 (Cai et al., 2017; Zhang, 2017).

84 Recently, many researchers investigated how much of the recent decreased PM_{2.5} concentrations
85 could be attributed to the contribution from emission reduction compared to the effects of
86 atmospheric elements. The studies have been carried out to evaluate the relative effects of emission
87 reduction and meteorological conditions on the recent decrease in PM_{2.5} concentrations (Ding et al.,
88 2019;Guo et al., 2019;He et al., 2018a;Zhang et al., 2019d;Zhao et al., 2019a). Based on a multiple
89 linear regression model, 12% of the decreased PM_{2.5} over China is due to favorable meteorological
90 conditions between 2013 and 2018 (Zhai et al., 2019). For the BTH region, Zhang et al. (2019c)
91 used the parameter linking air quality and meteorology (PLAM) index (a meteorological pollution
92 index for air quality) to evaluate meteorological conditions, and found that only approximately 5%
93 of the 39.6% reduction in PM_{2.5} in 2017 could be attributed to meteorological changes. The relative
94 contribution of emission reduction to the decreased PM_{2.5} concentrations in Beijing calculated by
95 the statistical model and Weather Research and Forecasting-Community Multiscale Air Quality
96 (WRF-CMAQ) was 80%, indicating that emission reductions were crucial for air quality
97 improvement in Beijing from 2013 to 2017 (Chen et al., 2019d). In addition, Zhang et al. (2019b)
98 quantified the contribution of different emission control policies to the rapid improvement in PM_{2.5}
99 pollution over China from 2013 to 2017 and highlighted the significant effects of strengthening
100 industrial emission standards and upgrading industrial boilers on air quality improvement during
101 the Clean Air Action.

102 Based on the investigation of different methods, the effectiveness of emission mitigation actions
103 was confirmed to drive the recent remarkable improvement in air quality in China since 2013.
104 However, most of the existing studies have focused on the relative long-term variation of air quality
105 (i.e., five to six years since 2013) and evaluated emission reduction effects over a multiyear time
106 scale. The Chinese government took a series of steps to reduce air pollutant emissions, which
107 requires a certain sacrifice regarding economic growth. In this situation, the local government need
108 an accurate evaluation of the emission reduction effects during the previous year and reasonable
109 adjustment of the mitigation policies of next year to keep the balance of economic growth and

110 environmental protection. The accurate evaluation of emission reduction effects should exclude the
111 meteorological element contribution to the interannual variations of air quality. China's air quality
112 shows obvious seasonal and regional distributions, with more frequent severe air pollution episodes
113 in winter time and higher air pollutant concentrations in eastern China. As one of the three key
114 regions in the Clean Air Action, lots of mitigation measurements have been taken over BTH region
115 in recent years, which results in the significant improvement of local air quality, especially in winter
116 time. But the relative contribution from meteorological factors are still unclear. Therefore, the
117 contribution of meteorological conditions to the interannual variation in wintertime $PM_{2.5}$
118 concentrations over the BTH region will be discussed in this study.

119

120 **2. Data and Methods**

121 **2.1 On-site $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration**

122 The wintertime (December to February of the following year) hourly observed $PM_{2.5}$ mass
123 concentration dataset over China from 2013 to 2018 was provided by the Ministry of Ecology and
124 Environment of the People's Republic of China (<http://106.37.208.233:20035>). This study mainly
125 focuses on the region of BTH region (113.5°-119°E and 36°-42.5°N, the solid-line box in Fig. 2),
126 and 114 $PM_{2.5}$ stations are available over this region. Daily $PM_{2.5}$ data is set as missing when the
127 valid hourly data on the specific day is less than 40%.

128 **2.2 Method of atmospheric circulation classification**

129 Commonly used objective classification methods include correlation, clustering, nonlinear methods,
130 principal component analysis (PCA), and fuzzy analysis. Huth et al. (2008) compared these five
131 classification methods and proposed that the performance of the T-mode PCA was the best in terms
132 of its reproduction of predefined types, temporal and spatial stabilities, and reduced dependence on
133 preset parameters. In this model, the input data matrix is space-time two-dimensional: the rows
134 represent spatial grids, and the columns is time series. The data are divided into ten subsets to speed
135 up computations, and the principal components (PCs) are achieved using the singular value

136 decomposition for each subset and an oblique rotation is applied to the PCs to achieve better
137 classification effects. Then, chi-square test is used to evaluate the ten classifications based on the
138 subsets and the subset with the highest sum is chosen and assigned to a type. The T-mode PCA has
139 been successfully applied to studies of general circulation models (Huth, 2000), climate change
140 (Cavazos, 2000), and local air pollution (Xu et al., 2016; Valverde et al., 2015; Miao et al., 2017; Li
141 et al., 2019). Zhang et al. (2012) first employed the obliquely rotated T-mode PCA method
142 developed by European Cooperation in Science & Technology (COST) action 733
143 (<http://www.cost733.org>) (Philipp et al., 2014) to identify the circulation pattern that is conducive
144 to particulate matter pollution in North China. In this study, the four-times-daily dataset of the fifth
145 generation European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF ERA5) atmospheric
146 reanalysis in winters from 2013 to 2018 with a horizontal resolution of 0.25° was used for synoptic
147 circulation classification. The daily mean geopotential height fields at 925, 850 and 500 hPa were
148 applied to the T-mode PCA method in the Cost733 toolbox. Our target region is 105°-125°E and
149 30°-55°N (the dashed box in Fig. 3). Prior to using Cost733, the number of principal components
150 need to be defined manually. To exclude the influences of various number of principal components,
151 sensitivity tests with principal components from 2 to 10 are conducted in this study, the explained
152 variances of which are shown in Fig. S1.

153 **2.3 Model simulation**

154 The regional chemical/transport model WRF chemical model (WRF-Chem) version 4.0, was
155 applied to simulate the effects of meteorological condition variation on seasonal air pollution over
156 northern China at a horizontal resolution of 9 km (245*220 horizontal grid cells) and vertical
157 resolution of 33 layers. The simulation domain covers most areas of the North China region (Fig.
158 10). The initial and lateral meteorological boundary conditions are derived from the National
159 Centers for Environmental Prediction Final (NCEP FNL) reanalysis data every 6 hours. The
160 chemical and aerosol mechanisms used were the RADM2 chemical mechanism from Stockwell et
161 al. (1990) and MADE/SORGAM aerosols (Ackermann et al., 1998; Schell et al., 2001).
162 MADE/SORGAM are used to simulate all major aerosol components including sulfate, nitrate,
163 ammonium, black carbon, organic carbon, sodium, chloride, mineral dust, and water content.

164 Madronich photolysis was used to calculate photochemical reactions. Other major physical
165 processes included the CAM shortwave radiation (Collins et al., 2004), RRTMG longwave radiation
166 (Iacono et al., 2008), the unified Noah land-surface model land surface option and MYJ planetary
167 boundary layer parameterization (Janjić, 1994). To consider the couple effects of aerosol and
168 meteorology, the parameterization of feedback from aerosol to radiation, feedback from convection
169 to atmospheric radiation and photolysis, wet scavenging and cloud chemistry are turned on in the
170 simulation.

171 To evaluate the impacts of meteorological contributions on the PM_{2.5} variation between the 2016
172 winter (Dec. 2016 to Feb. 2017) and 2017 winter (Dec. 2017 to Feb. 2018) over the BTH region,
173 we conducted two sensitivity runs: the same emissions as the 2016 winter and the actual
174 meteorological conditions of 2016 and 2017. Thus, the difference in the simulated PM_{2.5}
175 concentrations between the 2016 and 2017 winters could be attributed to the meteorological
176 variation, which can be assumed as a typical value of meteorological contribution to the interannual
177 variation of PM_{2.5} concentrations. The anthropogenic emission inventory for 2016 developed by
178 Tsinghua University was used in this study (available at <http://www.meicmodel.org>), as is named
179 the Multiresolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC), containing monthly anthropogenic
180 emissions of SO₂, NO_x, CO, NH₃, PM_{2.5}, PM_{coarse}, BC, OC and NMVOCs. The horizontal
181 resolution of the MEIC used in this study is 0.25°. Each simulation is initialized at 00:00 UTC on
182 Nov. 23, and the first week simulations are regarded as the spin-up period. Daily mean PM_{2.5}
183 concentrations between Dec. 1, 2016 to Feb. 28, 2017, and Dec. 1, 2017 to Feb. 28, 2018, are used
184 to investigate the effects of meteorological conditions on seasonal air pollution.

185

186 **3. Results**

187 **3.1 Dominant synoptic circulation types in winter over the BTH region**

188 As shown in Fig.1, the wintertime PM_{2.5} concentrations over the BTH region show a remarkable
189 decrease from 2013 to 2018 due to a series of air pollution reduction measures. Compared to 2013,
190 the mean PM_{2.5} concentration for 2018 decreased by 35.6% over 114 stations around the BTH region

191 (cf. Table 1). However, under the background of improved air quality, evident interannual variations
192 in PM_{2.5} concentrations have been observed in recent years. The PM_{2.5} concentrations in the winters
193 of 2016 and 2018 are higher than those in the same period of the previous year, with mean values
194 increasing by 18% and 13.36%, respectively. The high emissions of primary fine particulate matters
195 and its precursors are considered as internal factors of severe PM_{2.5} pollution in China; thus,
196 emission reduction is the most direct and effective way to improve local air quality. However, the
197 evolution of each air pollution episode is strongly affected by the local synoptic circulation pattern.
198 Both emissions and atmospheric conditions are related to the ambient PM_{2.5} concentration level. It
199 is essential to exclude the atmospheric circulation impacts on air quality when assessing emission
200 mitigation effects.

201 We use synoptic circulation types to measure the ability of atmospheric circulation to accumulate,
202 remove, and transport air pollutants. The daily mean geopotential height fields at 925, 800 and 500
203 hPa in the winters of 2013 to 2018 (total of 451 days) are used to conduct objective synoptic
204 circulation classification based on the T-mode PCA method with the Cost733 toolbox. Three levels
205 of geopotential height fields (i.e., 925 850 and 500 hPa) in the lower to middle troposphere over
206 105°-125°E and 30°-55°N are used in circulation type (CT) classification. Six typical synoptic
207 circulation types (CTs) are identified during winter in the BTH region, with a total explained
208 variance of 70% (Fig. S1). The horizontal (i.e., sea level pressure (SLP), wind, relative humidity
209 (RH) and boundary layer height (BLH)) and vertical (i.e., atmospheric stability, vertical velocity,
210 temperature and divergence) distributions of meteorological variables are used to illustrate the
211 mechanism behind CT effects on air pollution. To obtain a broad view of the six CTs, the horizontal
212 distribution of atmospheric circulation patterns, as shown in Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 cover a larger area
213 than the area used in the CT classification with the Cost733 toolbox.

214 Fig. 2 and Fig. 3 exhibit the original and anomalous patterns of the mean SLP and surface wind field
215 of each CT, respectively. CT1 is the most frequent CT during the study period with an occurrence
216 frequency of 33% based on the results of the Cost733 classification. CT1 shows that a high-pressure
217 system originates in the Siberian region extending along central Inner Mongolia to southern China.
218 Northwesterly winds prevail in northern China and turn into northerly winds in southern China. The

219 mean wind speed is 3.27 m/s over the BTH region (cf. Table 2), which is the highest among the six
220 CTs and benefits the outward transport of local air pollutants. Fig. 3 shows the SLP and surface
221 wind anomalies of each CT. In the CT1 situation, the BTH region is located west of the cyclonic
222 anomaly, which is dominated by an obvious northwesterly wind anomaly. The wind field pattern
223 corresponds to the negative RH anomaly over the BTH region in Fig. 4. The vertical profiles of
224 dynamic and thermodynamic stratification are included to investigate vertical diffusion. Based on
225 the vertical distribution of atmospheric stability shown in Fig. 5, atmospheric stratification is
226 characterized by a stable layer at the top of the boundary layer for all the cases. For CT1, an obvious
227 unstable stratification occurs at the bottom of boundary layer over the BTH region, which enhances
228 the turbulent activities and is beneficial for the vertical diffusion of air pollutants. The unstable
229 boundary layer is also confirmed by the positive BLH anomaly and elevated negative temperature
230 anomaly, as shown in Fig. S2 and Fig. S3. Fig. S4 shows a strong surface divergence and strong top
231 convergence vertical pattern in CT1, which generates sinking movement over the BTH region. As
232 shown in Fig. 6, a subsidence anomaly appears at the lower to middle troposphere over the BTH
233 region with a mean descending velocity of 0.04 pa/s between 850 and 1000 hPa. The strong
234 downdraft brings a clean and dry air mass to the surface and increases the horizontal divergence of
235 surface air pollutants (shown in Fig. S4). The cold, clean and dry air mass transported by the surface
236 northwesterly winds, unstable boundary layer and strong horizontal divergence are favorable for the
237 improvement in ambient air quality.

238 The occurrence frequency of CT2 is 11%. As shown in Fig. 2, a high-pressure system around Baikal
239 is obvious under the CT2 condition, which is stronger and further east than CT1. The BTH region
240 is located at the ridge of the high-pressure system with weak northwesterly winds occurring in the
241 northern BTH region, which turn to northeasterly in the southern BTH region. The anomalous fields
242 in Fig. 3 show a large area of a positive SLP anomaly over the north of 40°N. The BTH region is
243 just located at the south edge of the anticyclone anomaly with prevailing northeasterly surface wind.
244 Fig. 4 shows a weak negative RH anomaly over the BTH region due to the dry wind from the
245 northeast. Similar to CT1, CT2 also shows an unstable stratification in the boundary layer, which
246 increases the vertical diffusion of air pollution. Both the weak positive BLH anomaly and elevated
247 negative temperature anomaly indicate the enhanced instability of the atmospheric boundary layer

248 (Figs. S2-S3). Intense updraft is stimulated by strong convergence at the surface working with
249 strong divergence at the top of the boundary layer, as shown in Fig. S4. As shown in Fig. 6, upward
250 movement dominates in the middle-low troposphere over the BTH region with a mean ascending
251 velocity of 0.0358 pa/s between 850 and 1000 hPa. Although the elevated temperature stability is
252 relatively strong in CT2, the bottom-up updraft breaks through the stable layer and brings the surface
253 air pollutants to the free atmosphere. In summary, the unstable boundary layer working with the
254 upper divergence pumping action enhances the vertical diffusion of surface air pollutants, which
255 will decrease the surface concentrations of air pollutant.

256 CT3 shows a relatively uniform SLP distribution with a weak pressure gradient over the BTH region
257 as shown in Fig. 2. The prevailing westerly wind hinders the southward transport of the cold air
258 mass to some extent. The cyclonic anomaly with southwesterly wind can be found over the BTH
259 region. As shown in Fig. 3, the southwesterly wind transports the upstream air pollutants and warm
260 moisture to the BTH, which accelerates the hygroscopic growth of particles, promotes the gas-to-
261 particle transformation and increases the local air pollutant concentration (Wang et al., 2019a). The
262 positive RH and temperature anomaly in Fig. 4 and Fig. S3 correspond to the southwesterly wind
263 anomaly. Unlike to CT1 and CT2, CT3 shows a stable stratification below 700 hPa. In addition, the
264 upper unstable stratification of CT3 is lower than that of CT1 and CT2, indicating a negative BLH
265 anomaly (as shown in Fig. S2). CT3 also shows upward movement over the BTH region, but it is
266 weaker than CT2 by one order of magnitude. By contrast, the effects of the stronger near-surface
267 convergence will offset the upward transport, which will increase the local air pollutants. The stable
268 boundary layer, southeasterly warm moisture and effective convergence aggravate local air
269 pollution.

270 For the cases of CT4 and CT5, the BTH region is co-located with a weak surface anticyclone with
271 low average surface winds of 2.24 and 2.58 m/s, respectively. The calm surface winds coexisting
272 with the lower BLHs (cf. Fig. S2) decrease the ventilation coefficient and increase the occurrence
273 of air stagnation conditions. The surface anomaly fields show southeasterly and southerly winds in
274 CT4 and CT5, respectively. As shown in Fig. 4, the northward wind anomaly increases the humidity
275 and air pollutants of the BTH region. Based on the vertical profiles of temperature and atmospheric

276 stability, an elevated positive temperature anomaly increases the stability of the boundary layer, thus
277 reducing the vertical diffusion of air pollutants. The weak near surface convergence could increase
278 the accumulation of air pollution, but moderate upward movement will bring the surface air
279 pollutants to the outside of the boundary layer, which offsets the surface convergence to some extent.
280 CT4 and CT5 had the same occurrence of 15% during the study period. Although the CT4 and CT5
281 show different large-scale surface circulation patterns, the meteorological variables over the BTH
282 region are almost the same. The air stagnation conditions and southerly water vapor transport result
283 in the accumulation and hygroscopic growth of particles.

284 In terms of CT6, the BTH region is located at the ridge of the Mongolian anticyclone, and its high-
285 pressure system is weaker than that of CT2. The prevailing wind turns from northwest to northeast
286 over the BTH region. As shown by the surface meteorological anomaly distribution, the BTH region
287 is situated at the border between the northern anticyclonic and southern cyclonic anomalies with
288 prevailing northeasterly wind coming from the Bohai Sea. A large amount of water vapor from the
289 sea plays an important role in the hygroscopic growth of particles over the BTH region. Fig. 5
290 indicates a stable boundary layer when CT6 occurs, which reduces the vertical diffusion of surface
291 air pollutants. CT6 shows a deep horizontal convergence under 850 hPa, which is favorable for the
292 accumulation of moisture and air pollutants. The effect of the relatively weak divergence above
293 strong convergence is not distinct for the improvement in surface air quality. Therefore, the
294 circulation pattern of warm moist flow from the sea, a stable boundary and effective horizontal
295 convergence exacerbates local air pollution.

296 **3.2 Atmospheric circulation pattern effects on air quality**

297 The potential mechanisms of the CT effects on local air quality are discussed in section 3.1.
298 Combinations of the following situations are favorable for the improvement in air quality:
299 transport of a clean and dry air mass, unstable boundary layer, effective horizontal divergence and
300 vertical transport of air pollutants to the free atmosphere. In contrast, the positive humidity anomaly,
301 stable boundary layer, frequent air stagnation conditions and deep horizontal convergence
302 exacerbate air pollution.

303 To exclude the effects of interannual variation in air quality due to the emission reduction
304 background, the daily PM_{2.5} concentration distribution displayed by year and CT, as shown in Fig.
305 7 reveals the effects of CT on air quality. The mean and median values of PM_{2.5} concentrations
306 during each CT are summarized in Table 1. The mean and median PM_{2.5} concentrations in the CT1
307 condition are both lower than the seasonal mean and median for all years. Under the CT2 condition,
308 the PM_{2.5} concentrations are also lower than the seasonal mean except for 2014. However, the PM_{2.5}
309 concentrations are generally higher than the seasonal mean in CT3-CT6. As for the multiyear
310 average, it shows distinctly lower PM_{2.5} concentrations in CT1 and CT2 than the other CTs. Based
311 on the PM_{2.5} concentration in each CT, CT1 and CT2 can be considered as favorable CTs for air
312 quality, which are beneficial for the diffusion of air pollutants, and CT3-CT6 are unfavorable CTs,
313 which exacerbate air pollution.

314 Giving the above analysis, PM_{2.5} concentration tended to be lower than normal when a favorable
315 CT occurred, and vice versa. Therefore, the occurrence frequency of each CT plays an important
316 role in air quality during the study period. CT1 and CT2 are combined as the favorable circulation,
317 and CT3-CT6 are referred to as the unfavorable circulation. Fig. S5 exhibits the seasonal
318 occurrences of favorable and unfavorable circulation types. Fifty-four days of unfavorable
319 circulation occurred in winter 2013, which is the greatest frequency during the study period. A
320 higher unfavorable circulation frequency was also shown in 2014 and 2018 winters. In contrast, the
321 favorable circulations were much higher in 2015 and 2017 winters than in the other winters. The
322 seasonal frequencies of favorable and unfavorable circulations are in line with the trend in seasonal
323 PM_{2.5} concentrations. It is worth noting that although the seasonal mean PM_{2.5} concentration in the
324 winter of 2015 (Dec. 2015 to Feb. 2016) is lower than that of 2014, the PM_{2.5} concentration in Dec.
325 2015 is much higher than that in Dec. 2014. The high PM_{2.5} concentration in Dec. 2015 is consistent
326 with the high frequency of unfavorable CTs during that time, which indicates the robustness of
327 circulation classification.

328 However, every air pollution event has a duration from the development to decay stage. Generally,
329 several days are needed for the accumulation of air pollutants, followed by a relatively quick
330 removal. The variation in meteorological conditions controls the evolution of each air pollution

331 episode. Therefore, the duration of each CT determines the duration of the air pollution event. Fig.
332 8 exhibits the variation in the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration anomaly with the duration of favorable and
333 unfavorable CTs. As discussed above, the favorable circulations generally correspond to the
334 negative $PM_{2.5}$ concentration anomaly (lower than the monthly mean), while the unfavorable
335 circulations result in a positive $PM_{2.5}$ concentration anomaly. When the favorable circulation
336 duration is shorter than 4 days, the absolute values of the negative anomaly of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations
337 increase with the duration of favorable circulation; however, with the continuous increase in
338 favorable circulation durations, the magnitude of the negative anomaly of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations
339 slightly decreases and remains unchanged. Similarly, the positive anomalies of the $PM_{2.5}$
340 concentrations increase with the duration of unfavorable circulation durations when the duration is
341 less than 7 days. However, the effect of circulation on air pollutant diffusion is not obvious when a
342 one-day favorable or one-two-day unfavorable circulation occurs. That is favorable CTs lasting 2~4
343 days are beneficial for the diffusion of air pollutants; and unfavorable circulation events lasting 3~7
344 days exacerbate the accumulation of air pollutants.

345 The occurrences of 2~4 days favorable circulation and 3~7 days of unfavorable CTs are shown in
346 Fig. 9. It shows a high frequency of 2~4 days of favorable circulation in 2017 and 2014 with totally
347 15 and 13 days, respectively. The favorable circulation occurrences are lower in the winters of 2016
348 and 2018 than in the other winters. In terms of the 3~7 days of unfavorable circulations, the years
349 of 2013, 2016 and 2018 show higher frequencies than the other years. Therefore, based on the
350 occurrence of favorable and unfavorable CTs, the atmospheric diffusion abilities are better in 2014
351 and 2017 than in the other years. The significant improvement in air quality in 2014 and 2017 is
352 consistent with the improvement in atmospheric diffusion abilities compared to their previous years.

353 **3.3 Contributions of atmospheric diffusion condition variations to the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration** 354 **decrease between 2016 and 2017**

355 Although the interannual variation in $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations show good correlation with the
356 occurrence of favorable or unfavorable circulation, Sec. 3.2 is just a qualitative analysis. Taking the
357 interannual variation in $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations between 2016 and 2017 as an example, the model
358 simulation based on the WRF-Chem model is used to evaluate the quantitative contributions of

359 meteorological condition variations to the PM_{2.5} concentration decrease in 2017. The emissions are
360 fixed in 2016 (Dec. 2016 to Feb. 2017), and the meteorological fields come from the NECP GDAS
361 Final Analysis dataset for the 2016 and 2017 winters, respectively. The meteorological fields and
362 air pollutants over some cities from north to south in the simulated domain (i.e., Shijiazhuang,
363 Beijing, Tianjin, Xuzhou and Shanghai) are included to evaluate the performance of the model
364 simulation. Fig. S6 shows the variations in the observed and simulated daily mean air temperature,
365 sea level pressure, relative humidity and surface wind speed from Jan. to Feb. of 2017. Although
366 the model slightly overestimates the surface wind speed over Shijiazhuang and Shanghai, most of
367 the simulated meteorological variables agree well with the observations over all cities. For the
368 concentration of air pollutants in Fig. S7, the model generally underestimates the PM_{2.5}
369 concentrations under highly polluted conditions, with a bias of 44.9%~59.6% (different cities) when
370 the observed PM_{2.5} was higher than 75 µg/m³. However, the bias between the simulated and
371 observed PM_{2.5} concentrations decreased to 12.4%~26.8% at lower PM_{2.5} concentration level. Due
372 to the deficiency of the PBL scheme (Tie et al., 2015), the heterogeneous/aqueous process in the
373 model (Li et al., 2011) and uncertainty in the emission inventory, current air quality models show
374 limited capacity in severe air pollution episodes. However, the day-to-day variation in all the air
375 pollutants can be well captured by the WRF-Chem model, with the highest correlation coefficient
376 of 0.76 between the observed and simulated PM_{2.5} in Xuzhou. Overall, both the meteorological
377 variables and air pollutants are well reproduced by the WRF-Chem model, which provides
378 confidence for further discussions.

379 The simulated seasonal mean PM_{2.5} concentrations of the 2016 and 2017 winters are presented in
380 Fig. S8. It shows a significant spatial distribution of seasonal PM_{2.5} concentrations with higher
381 concentrations over the BTH region, Shandong and Henan Provinces. Even though the emissions
382 were set to the level of 2016, the simulated seasonal PM_{2.5} concentrations in 2016 were much higher
383 than those in 2017 due to the difference in meteorological fields. Fig. 10 exhibits the observed and
384 simulated PM_{2.5} concentration differences between 2017 and 2016. Both the observations and
385 simulations show significant negative growth in PM_{2.5} concentrations over northern China from
386 2016 to 2017 in winter but relatively weak positive growth over the lower Yangtze River Delta. The
387 BTH region is located at the center of negative growth, with an observed 47.7 µg/m³ decrease in

388 PM_{2.5} concentration from 2016 to 2017 at 114 stations over the region of 113°-117.5°E and 36°-
389 42°N. While, the simulated difference of PM_{2.5} at these 114 stations is -11.7 μg/m³, which is much
390 lower than the observed value. The absolute PM_{2.5} concentration would be underestimated because
391 of the limited performance of the WRF-Chem model under severe air pollution; therefore, the
392 relative differences between 2016 and 2017 are involved to evaluate the effects of meteorological
393 field variations on the decrease in PM_{2.5} concentrations. Based on the relative difference in PM_{2.5}
394 concentration between 2016 and 2017, the observed difference at the 114 stations over the BTH
395 region is -37.7% compared to the mean value of 2016 winter, and the averaged simulated difference
396 is -22.6%, which is due to the difference in meteorological conditions. Thus, 59.9% of the observed
397 37.7% decrease in PM_{2.5} concentration in 2017 over the BTH region could be attributed to the
398 improvement in atmospheric diffusion conditions. The variation of meteorological conditions plays
399 an important role in the interannual variation in air pollutant concentrations.

400

401 **4. Conclusions and Discussion**

402 Recent severe PM_{2.5} pollution in China has aroused unprecedented public concern. The Chinese
403 government has implemented many emission reduction measurements, which has greatly improved
404 the air quality recently. The wintertime PM_{2.5} concentration of 2018 decreased by 35.6% compared
405 to 2013 over the BTH region. However, there was obvious interannual variation in PM_{2.5}
406 concentrations from 2013 to 2018. Atmospheric circulation classification method based on the
407 Cost733 toolbox is used to investigate the mechanism behind atmospheric circulation effects on air
408 pollutant diffusion. Six CTs are identified during the winters from 2013 to 2018 over northern China,
409 and two of which are considered as favorable circulations for air pollutant diffusion and the other
410 four CTs exacerbate local air pollution. Generally, the transport of clean and dry air mass and
411 unstable boundary layers working with the effective near-surface horizontal divergence or pumping
412 action at the top of the boundary layer will benefit for the horizontal or vertical diffusion of surface
413 air pollutants. However, the co-occurrence of a stable boundary layer, frequent air stagnation,
414 positive water vapor advection and deep near-surface horizontal convergence exacerbates the air
415 pollution.

416 Except for the atmospheric circulation characteristic of CTs, the durations of each circulation type
417 also have a great influence on the local air quality. The one-day favorable or less than two-day
418 unfavorable circulations have no significant effects on the diffusion and accumulation of air
419 pollutants. Comparatively speaking, favorable CTs lasting for 2~4 days are beneficial for the
420 diffusion of air pollutants, and the 3~7 days of unfavorable circulation events exacerbate the
421 accumulation of air pollutants. The occurrences of 2~4 days of favorable and 3~7 days of
422 unfavorable circulation are used to evaluate the atmospheric diffusion ability, which shows better
423 diffusion abilities in 2014 and 2017 than in the other years. Taking the decrease of PM_{2.5}
424 concentration between 2016 and 2017 as an example, 59.9% of the decreased concentration over
425 the BTH region could be attributed to the improvement in atmospheric diffusion conditions of 2017.
426 The variation in meteorological conditions plays an important role in the interannual variation in air
427 pollutant concentrations. The 2020 is the key and target year for the three-year action to win the
428 battle for a blue sky goal set in 2018. It is essential to exclude the contribution of meteorological
429 conditions to the variation in interannual air pollutants when making a quantitative evaluation of
430 emission reduction measurements.

431 The quantitative evaluation of meteorological elements contribution to the interannual variation of
432 PM_{2.5} concentrations between winters of 2016 and 2017 is derived from the WRF-Chem simulation
433 in this study. Although the model performance for PM_{2.5} is generally satisfactory in Fig. S7, it shows
434 obvious underestimation in the severe haze days. Reasons for these biases might be the
435 overestimation in surface wind speed, uncertainties of emission inventory and insufficient
436 treatments of some new chemistry mechanisms of particle formation, which need be further
437 discussed in the future. In addition, some emission modules are turned off to reduce the computation
438 cost, i.e., dust, sea salt, dimethyl sulphide, biomass burning and wildfires, which would result in the
439 uncertainty of simulated PM_{2.5} mass concentrations.

440

441 **Acknowledgments:** This study was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China
442 (41790470 and 41805117).

443

444 **Code/Data availability:** The release version 4.0 of WRF-Chem can be download from
445 http://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/wrf/users/download/get_source.html. Hourly PM_{2.5} concentration
446 observations were obtained from the website of Ministry of Ecology and Environment of the
447 People’s Republic of China (<http://106.37.208.233:20035>). Daily four times ECMWF ERA5 dataset
448 during 2013 to 2018 are downloaded from [https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5)
449 [datasets/era5](https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/datasets/reanalysis-datasets/era5). Hourly observations of meteorological variables used for the WRF-Chem simulation
450 evaluations are downloaded from the Intergrated Surface Database of National Climate Data Center
451 (<https://www.ncdc.noaa.gov/isd>).

452

453 **Competing interests:** The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

454

455 **Author contributions:** Wang X. and Zhang R. designed research; Wang X. performed the analyses
456 and wrote the paper; All authors contributed to the final version of the paper.

457

458

Figure Captions:

459 Figure 1. Interannual variation in the wintertime $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at 114 stations over the BTH region. In each
460 box, the central mark indicates the median, and the bottom and top edges of the box indicate the 25th and 75th
461 percentiles, respectively. The whiskers extending to the most extreme data points are considered outliers. The region
462 covered by the blue box in Fig. 2 is considered as the BTH region (113° - 117.5° E and 36° - 42° N).

463 Figure 2. The distribution of sea level pressure (shaded, unit: pa) and 10 m wind fields (vector, unit: m/s) in each
464 circulation type. The number over each subplot indicates the occurrence frequency of the specific circulation type.
465 The solid blue box is the location of BTH region. The daily mean geopotential height fields at 925, 850 and 500 hPa
466 over the dashed blue box (105° - 125° E and 30° - 55° N) were applied to T-mode PCA method with the cost733 toolbox.
467 The region mean wind speed of each circulation type is shown in Table 2.

468 Figure 3. The distribution of sea level pressure (unit: pa) and 10 m wind fields (unit: m/s) anomaly in each circulation
469 type. The anomaly values are with respect to the 1980-2010 mean. Regional mean wind speed anomaly of each
470 circulation type is summarized in Table 2.

471 Figure 4. The distribution of relative humidity in each circulation type (unit: %). The anomaly values are with respect
472 to the 1980-2010 mean.

473 Figure 5. Zonal profile of temperature lapse rate over the BTH region (36° - 42° N) (unit: K/100 m). The gray region
474 indicates the average altitude over 36° - 42° N. The region between the two dashed lines is the horizontal location of
475 the BTH region (113° - 117.5° E).

476 Figure 6. Zonal vertical profile of vertical velocity anomaly over BTH region (unit: pa/s). The anomaly of the vertical
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478 Figure 7. The box plot of the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations varies with the circulation types. To exclude the effect of emission
479 reduction on the annual mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, the $PM_{2.5}$ distributions at the year and multiyear (average) scales
480 are shown here, respectively. The dashed line for each year indicates the median $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in wintertime
481 of a specific year.

482 Figure 8. The daily $PM_{2.5}$ concentration anomalies vary with favorable (F) and unfavorable (U) event durations. The
483 occurrences of CT1 and CT2 are collectively called favorable events, and CT3 to CT6 are referred to as unfavorable
484 events. U1 indicates an unfavorable circulation event lasting for one day, and U2 means a two-day event. The central
485 red line in each box indicates the median, and the circle is the mean value.

486 Figure 9. Occurrence frequencies of the effective favorable and unfavorable events. The effective favorable events
487 referred to the favorable events lasting for two to four days. The effective unfavorable events indicate the unfavorable

488 events lasting for three to seven days. The specific number of days for favorable/unfavorable events is shown on the
489 top of each bar.

490 Figure 10. Distributions of the observed and simulated $PM_{2.5}$ difference between the winters of 2016 and 2017. The
491 left panel is the absolute value (unit: $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and the right panel is the relative difference with respect to the mean
492 value of 2016 (unit: %). The simulated seasonal mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the two years are shown in Fig.
493 S8.

494

495 Table 1. The seasonal mean and median PM_{2.5} concentrations in each atmospheric circulation type (CT) over the
 496 BTH region. PM_{2.5} concentrations in bold represent the mean/median value of each CT lower than the all-case
 497 seasonal mean/median value.

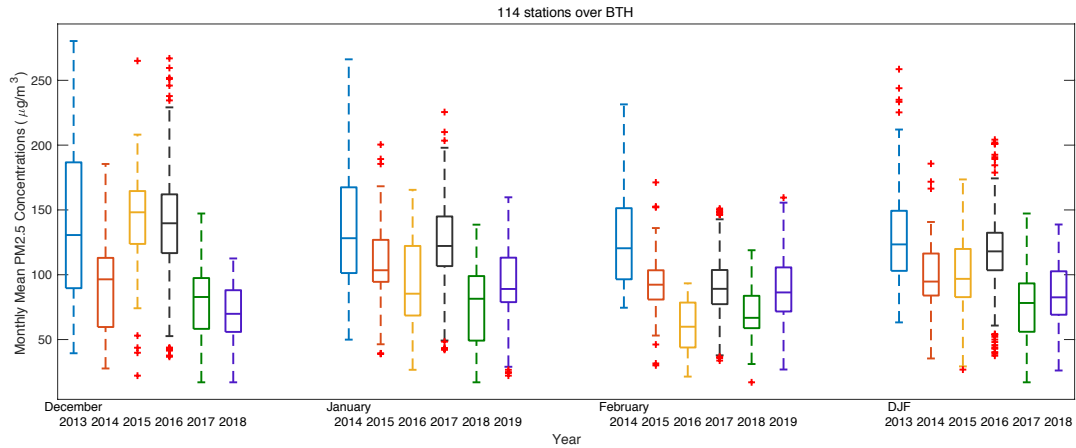
Seasonal Mean/ Median ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)	CT1	CT2	CT3	CT4	CT5	CT6
2013 (123.97/97.23)	104.99/71.42	94.51/69.33	144.76/118.50	135.47/117.20	166.28/156.52	67.90/47.21
2014 (93.07/75.79)	71.03/51.52	122.99/109.37	105.91/96.82	86.26/72.06	115.37/94.69	118.16/110.17
2015 (95.67/65.97)	58.56/38	89.38/73.07	134.77/114.69	135.91/106.36	124.15/99.81	106.14/70.63
2016 (112.94/91.32)	84.74/66.16	110.02/88.10	138.96/114.26	122.86/95.02	142.52/128.77	132.95/129.52
2017 (70.44/54.07)	56.49/43.16	60.70/39.61	80.03/67.39	83.89/67.24	93.63/79.28	69.77/52.23
2018 (79.85/63.02)	77.99/60.68	51.77/37.43	89.26/77.57	86.70/81.35	75.08/52.72	108.60/93.02
AVERAGE (95.27/72.22)	73.14/53.04	79.12/54.89	115.18/96.29	109.85/88.25	116.04/89.04	100.40/82.04

498

499 Table 2. Regional mean meteorological variables over the BTH region under each circulation type

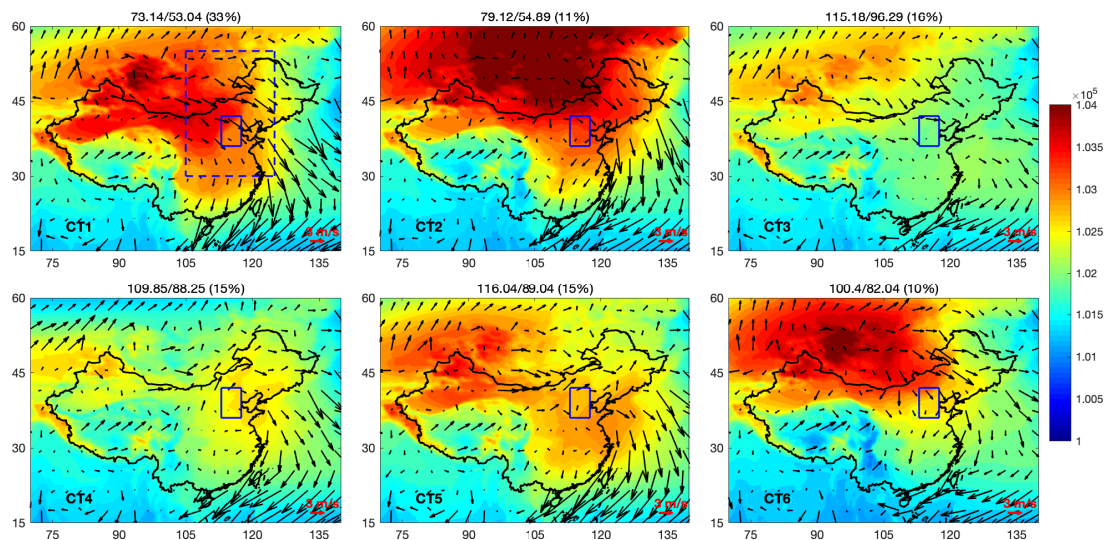
Variables	CT1	CT2	CT3	CT4	CT5	CT6
Surface wind speed (m/s)	3.27	2.31	2.71	2.24	2.58	2.54
Surface wind speed anomaly (m/s)	0.53	-0.42	-0.04	-0.49	-0.15	-0.19
Mean vertical velocity anomaly between 850 to 1000 hPa (pa/s)	0.04	-0.0358	-0.0038	-0.0296	-0.0111	-0.0213
Difference of temperature anomaly between 850 and 1000 hPa (K)	-0.716	-0.206	0.664	0.456	0.232	0.485

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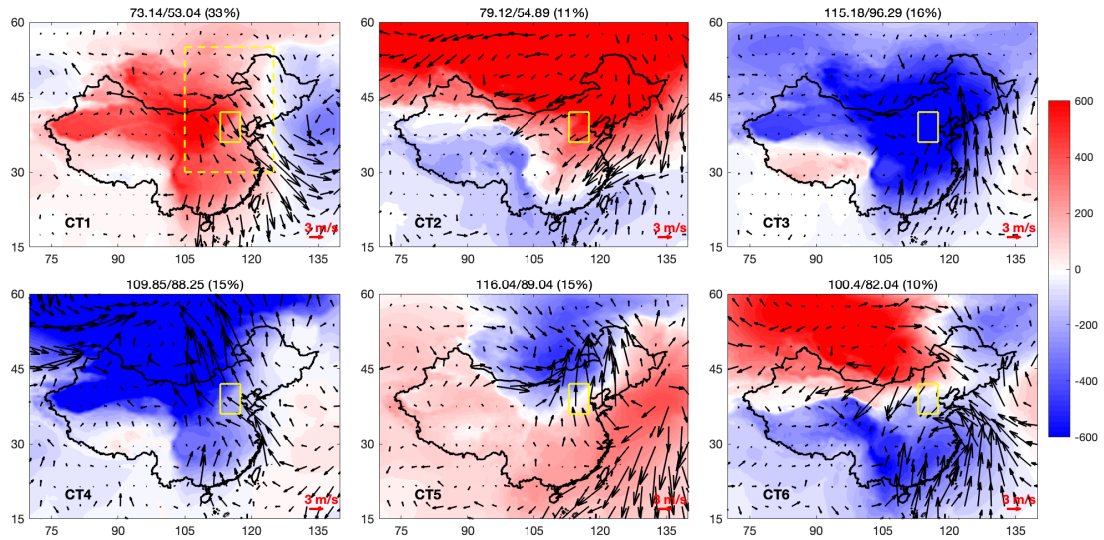
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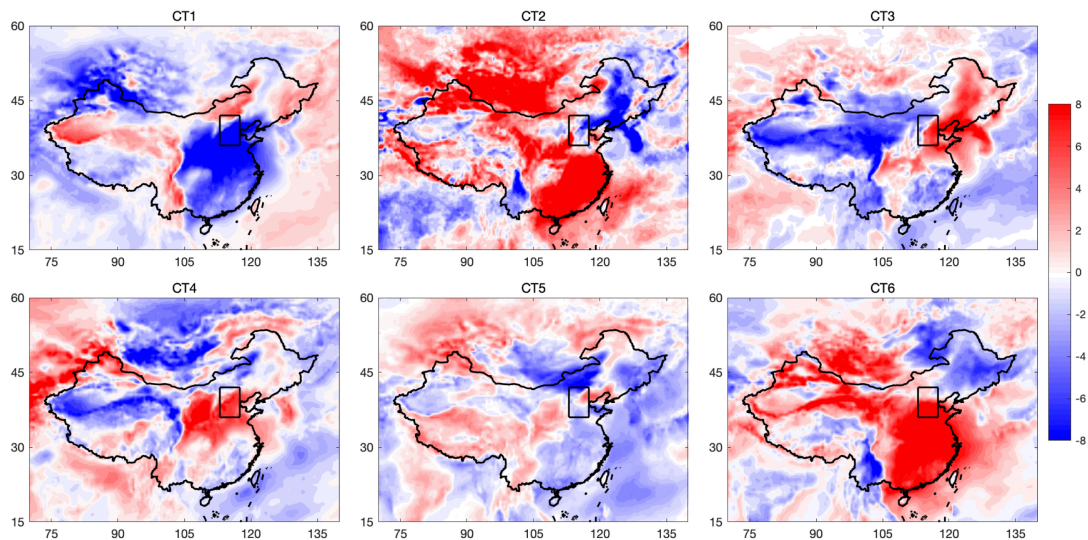
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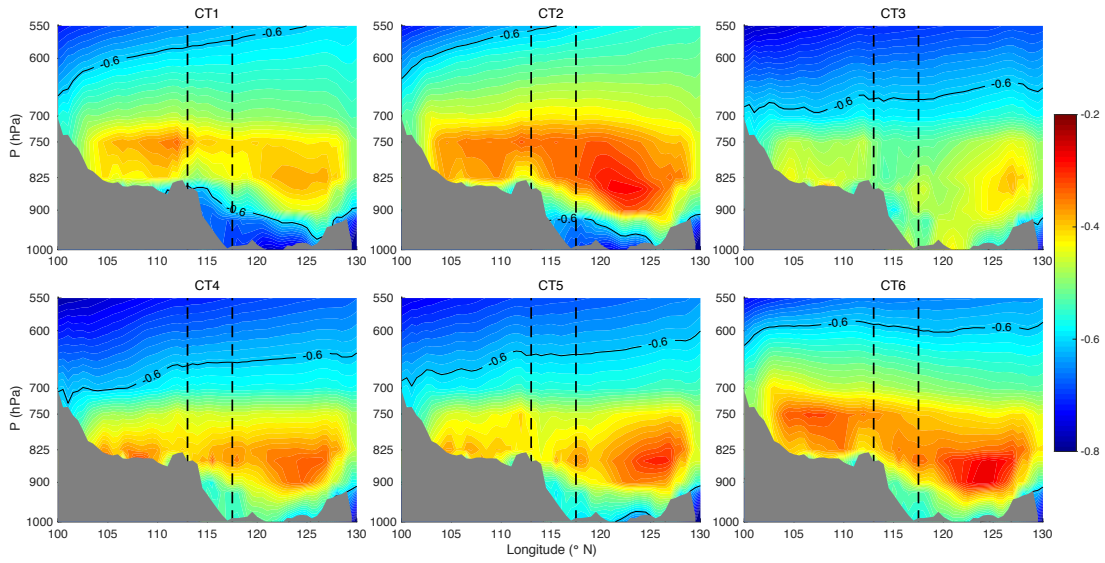


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518 Figure 4. The distribution of relative humidity in each circulation type (unit: %). The anomaly values are with respect
 519 to the 1980-2010 mean.

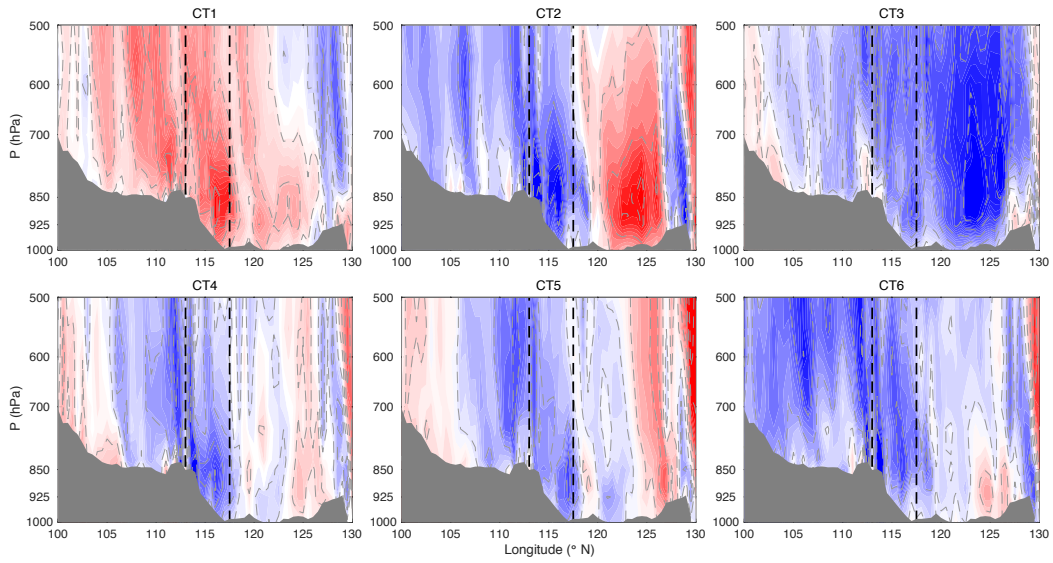
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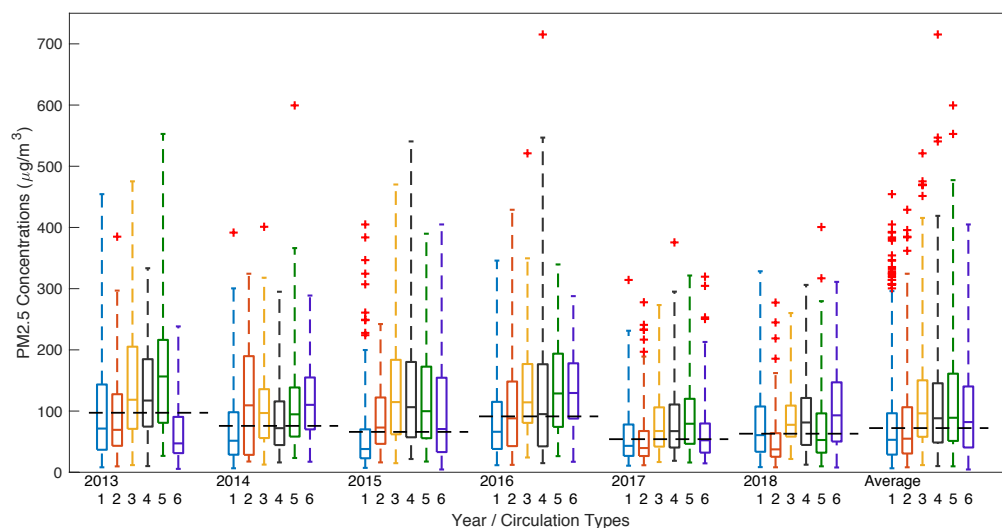
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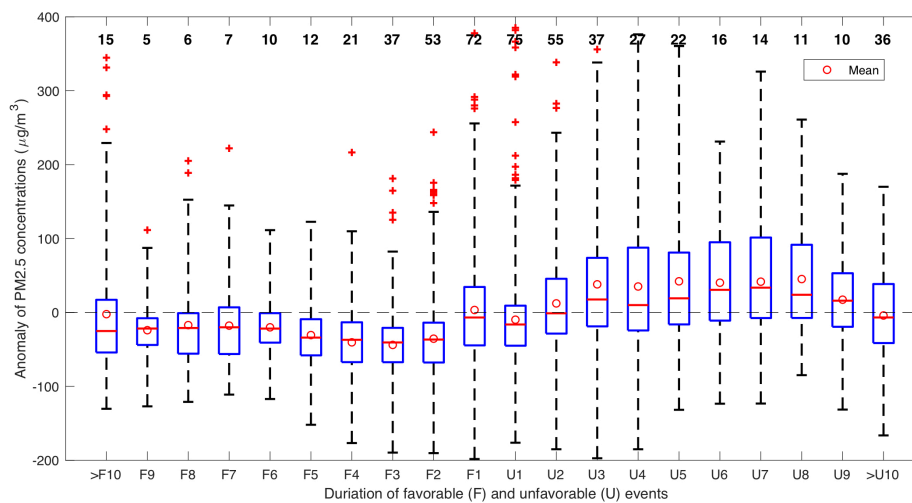
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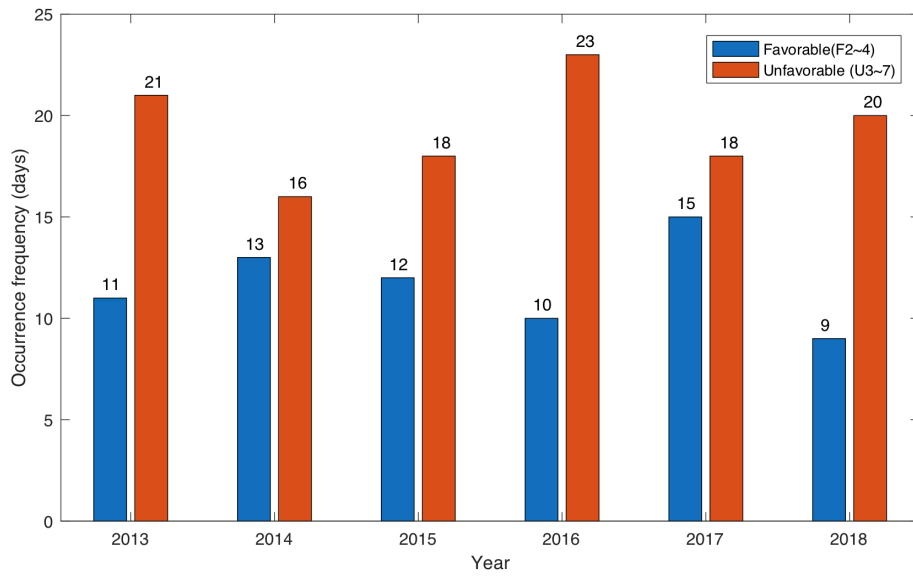
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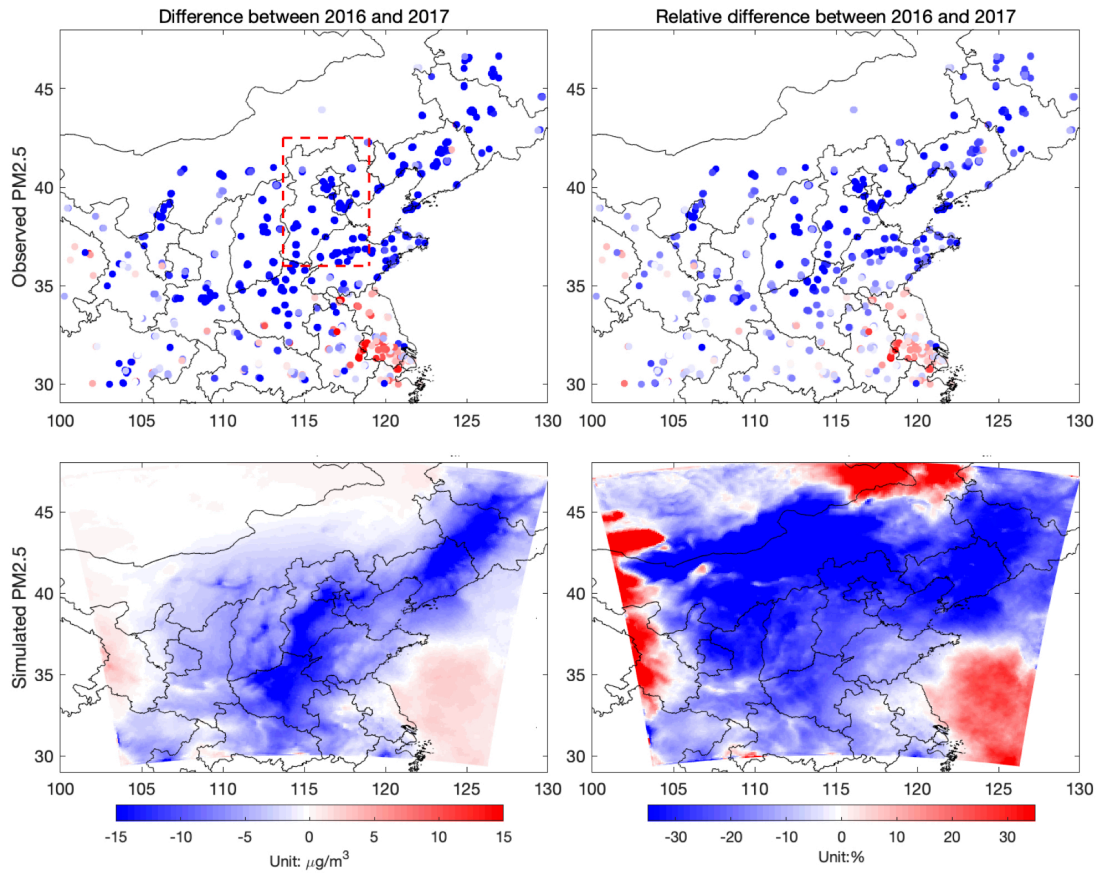
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