

1 **Aerosol transport pathways and source attribution in China**
2 **during the COVID-19 outbreak**

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23 **Abstract**

24 Due to the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, human
25 activities and industrial productions were strictly restricted during January-
26 March 2020 in China. Despite the fact that anthropogenic aerosol
27 emissions largely decreased, haze events still occurred. Characterization of
28 aerosol transport pathways and attribution of aerosol sources from specific
29 regions are beneficial to the air quality and pandemic control strategies.
30 This study establishes source-receptor relationships in various regions
31 covering the whole China during the COVID-19 outbreak based on the
32 Community Atmosphere Model version 5 with Explicit Aerosol Source
33 Tagging (CAM5-EAST). Our analysis shows that PM_{2.5} burden over the
34 North China Plain between January 30 and February 19 is mostly
35 contributed by local emissions (40–66%). For other regions in China, PM_{2.5}
36 burden is largely contributed from non-local sources. During the most
37 polluted days of COVID-19 outbreak, local emissions within North China
38 Plain and Eastern China, respectively, contribute 66% and 87% to the
39 increase in surface PM_{2.5} concentrations. This is associated with the
40 anomalous mid-tropospheric high pressure at the location of climatological
41 East Asia trough and the consequently weakened winds in the lower
42 troposphere, leading to the local aerosol accumulation. The emissions
43 outside China, especially those from South and Southeast Asia, contribute
44 over 50% to the increase in PM_{2.5} concentration in Southwestern China

45 through transboundary transport during the most polluted day. As the
46 reduction in emissions in the near future, aerosols from long-range
47 transport together with unfavorable meteorological conditions are
48 increasingly important to regional air quality and need to be taken into
49 account in clean air plans.

50 **1. Introduction**

51 The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) has spread worldwide since
52 December 2019 and resulted in more than one million cases within the first
53 four months (Sharma et al., 2020; Dong et al., 2020). In order to curb the
54 virus spread among humans, measures were taken by the Chinese
55 government on January 23, 2020 to minimize the interaction among people,
56 including strict isolation, prohibition of large-scale private and public
57 gatherings, restriction of private and public transportation and even
58 lockdown of cities (Tian et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). The estimated NO_x
59 emission in eastern China was reduced by 60-70%, of which 70-80% was
60 related to the reduced road traffic and 20-25% was from industrial
61 enterprises shutdown during the COVID-19 lockdown period. However,
62 severe air pollution events still occurred in East China during the COVID-
63 19 lockdown, even though the anthropogenic emissions were greatly
64 reduced (Huang et al., 2020). The unprecedented large-scale restrictions
65 resulting from the COVID-19 epidemic provide an opportunity to research
66 the relationship between dramatic anthropogenic emission reductions and
67 air quality changes (e.g., Bao et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020).
68 Bao et al. (2020) reported that, during the COVID-19 lockdown period, the
69 air quality index and the PM_{2.5} (particulate matter less than 2.5 μm in
70 diameter) concentration were decreased by 7.8% and 5.9 %, respectively,
71 on average in 44 cities in northern China, mainly due to travel restrictions.

72 By applying the WRF-CAMx model together with air quality monitoring
73 data, Li et al. (2020) revealed that although primary particle emissions were
74 reduced by 15%–61% during the COVID-19 lockdown over the Yangtze
75 River Delta Region, the daily mean concentration of PM_{2.5} was still
76 relatively high, reaching up to 79 µg m⁻³. Wang et al. (2020) found that the
77 relative reduction in PM_{2.5} precursors was twice as much as the reduction
78 in PM_{2.5} concentration, in part due to the unfavorable meteorological
79 conditions during the COVID-19 outbreak in China that led to the
80 formation of the heavy haze. Huang et al. (2020) and Le et al. (2020)
81 reported that stagnant air conditions, high atmospheric humidity, and
82 enhanced atmospheric oxidizing capacity led to a severe haze event in
83 northern China during the COVID-19 pandemic.

84 Aerosols are main air pollutants that play important roles in the
85 atmosphere due to their adverse effects on air quality, visibility (Vautard et
86 al., 2009; Watson, 2002), human health (Lelieveld et al., 2019; Heft-Neal
87 et al., 2018), the Earth's energy balance, and regional and global climate
88 (Ramanathan et al., 2001; Anderson et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2020; Smith
89 et al., 2020). With the rapid development in recent decades, China has
90 experienced severe air pollutions that damage human health and cause
91 regional climate change (Chai et al., 2014; Liao et al., 2015; Fan et al.,
92 2020). In order to control air pollution, the Chinese government issued and
93 implemented the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan in 2013

94 (China State Council, 2013). Although emissions in China have decreased
95 significantly in recent years (Zheng et al., 2018), aerosols transported from
96 other source regions could add on top of local emissions (Yang et al., 2017a,
97 2018a; Ren et al., 2020). Therefore, it is important to understand the
98 relative effects of local emissions and regional transport on aerosols in
99 China.

100 Source tagging and apportionment is an effective way to establish
101 aerosol source-receptor relationships, which is conducive to both scientific
102 research and emission control strategies (Yu et al., 2012). By applying the
103 Particulate Source Apportionment Technology in CAMx model, Xue et al.
104 (2014) found that the contributions of regional transport to annual average
105 PM_{2.5} concentrations in Hainan, Shanghai, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Jilin and
106 Jiangxi provinces of China are more than 45%. By adding a chemical tracer
107 into the WRF model, Wang et al. (2016) studied the sources of black carbon
108 (BC) aerosol in Beijing and reported that about half of BC in Beijing came
109 from the central North China Plain. Liu et al. (2017) applied WRF-Chem
110 model and showed that Foshan, Guangzhou and Dongguan, respectively,
111 with relatively high emissions contributed 14%, 13% and 10% to the
112 regional mean PM_{2.5} concentration in the Pearl River Delta.

113 Currently, previous studies only focused on regional transport of
114 aerosols, very few studies have explored the aerosol transport pathways
115 and source attribution covering the whole China during the COVID-19

116 pandemic. In this study, the global aerosol-climate model CAM5
117 (Community Atmosphere Model, version 5) equipped with an Explicit
118 Aerosol Source Tagging (CAM5-EAST) is employed to quantify source-
119 receptor relationships and transport pathways of aerosols during the
120 COVID-19 outbreak in China. We also provide model evaluations of PM_{2.5}
121 concentrations against observations made during the COVID-19 outbreak.
122 With the aerosol source tagging technique, source region contributions to
123 PM_{2.5} column burden over various receptor regions and transport pathways
124 in China are analyzed. The source contributions to the changes in near-
125 surface PM_{2.5} in the most polluted days compared to the monthly means
126 during February 2020 are also quantified. Our study provides source
127 apportionment of aerosols covering the whole China and quantifies the
128 contribution from foreign transport for the first time in the case of COVID-
129 19 emission reductions, which is beneficial to the investigation of policy
130 implications for future air pollution control.

131 **2. Methods**

132 **2.1 Model description and experimental setup**

133 The CAM5 model is applied to estimate the PM_{2.5} changes during the
134 COVID-19 period, which is the atmospheric component of the earth
135 system model CESM (Community Earth System Model, Hurrell et al.,
136 2013). In this study, major aerosol species including sulfate, BC, primary
137 organic matter (POM), secondary organic aerosol (SOA), sea salt, and

138 mineral dust, are represented by three lognormal size modes (i.e., Aitken,
139 accumulation, and coarse modes) of the modal aerosol module (MAM3)
140 (Liu et al., 2012). The detailed aerosol representation in CAM5 was
141 provided in Liu et al. (2012) and Wang et al. (2013). The aerosol mixing
142 states consider both internal mixed (within a same mode) and external
143 mixed (between modes). On top of the default CAM5, additional
144 modifications that improve the representation of aerosol wet scavenging
145 and convective transport (Wang et al., 2013) are also included in the model
146 version used for this study.

147 In this study, simulations were conducted with a horizontal resolution
148 of $1.9^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ and 30 vertical layers up to 3.6 hPa in year 2020. The
149 anthropogenic emissions used in the baseline simulation are derived from
150 the MEIC (Multi-resolution Emission Inventory of China) inventory
151 (Zheng et al., 2018), referred to here as the Baseline experiment. While
152 emissions for the other countries use the SSP (Shared Socioeconomic
153 Pathways) 2–4.5 scenario data set under CMIP6 (the Coupled Model
154 Intercomparison Project Phase 6). Emissions in year 2017 are used as the
155 baseline during the simulation period considering the time limit of MEIC
156 inventory. To better estimate the impact of restricted human activities on
157 emission reductions owing to COVID-19 lockdown (referred to as Covid
158 experiment), we updated China’s emission inventory from January to
159 March 2020 based on the provincial total emission reduction ratio in Huang

160 et al. (2020). Emissions from the transportation sector are decreased by
161 70%. The remaining emission reduction, by excluding transport reduction
162 from the total emission reduction, are evenly distributed to other sectors,
163 including industry, power plant, residential, international shipping and
164 waste treatment from January to March 2020 compared to the baseline
165 emission in 2017. Unless otherwise specified, all the results in this study
166 are derived from the Covid experiment.

167 The sea surface temperature, sea ice concentrations, solar radiation and
168 greenhouse gas concentrations are fixed at present-day climatological
169 levels. To capture the large-scale atmospheric circulations during the
170 COVID-19, we nudge the model wind fields toward the MERRA-2
171 (Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications,
172 version 2) reanalysis (Gelaro et al., 2017) from April 2019 to March 2020
173 repeatedly for six years. Only model results from the last year are used to
174 represent year 2020 with the first five years as model spin-up. In this study,
175 we analyze the transport pathways and source attribution of aerosols during
176 the three weeks that had the largest number of newly-diagnosed COVID-
177 19 cases (Fig. S1, hereafter referred to as the ‘Week 1’: January 30–
178 February 5, ‘Week 2’: February 6–February 12 and ‘Week 3’: February 13–
179 February 19), when unexpected hazardous air pollution events also
180 occurred during this time period (Huang et al., 2020; Le et al., 2020).

181 **2.2 Explicit aerosol source tagging and source regions**

182 To examine the source apportionment of aerosols in China, the Explicit
183 Aerosol Source Tagging (EAST) technique was implemented in CAM5,
184 which has been utilized in many aerosol source attribution studies (e.g.,
185 Wang et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2017a, b, 2018a, b, c, 2020; Ren et al., 2020).
186 Different from the emission sensitivity method that assumes a linear
187 response to emission perturbation and the traditional backward trajectory
188 method, aerosols from each tagged region or sector are calculated
189 independently in EAST within one single simulation. Without relying on a
190 set of model simulations with emission perturbations or assuming constant
191 decaying rate, EAST is more accurate and time-saving than the source
192 apportionment method mentioned above. In addition to the sulfate, BC and
193 POM species that were tagged in previous studies (e.g., Yang et al., 2020),
194 SOA and precursor gas are now also tagged in the EAST. These types of
195 aerosols from independent source regions and sectors can be explicitly
196 tagged and tracked simultaneously. In this study, focusing on the aerosols
197 in China during the COVID-19 outbreak period, the domestic aerosol and
198 precursor emissions from eight geographical source regions (Fig. 1),
199 including Northeastern China (NEC), North China Plain (NCP), Eastern
200 China (ESC), Southern China (STC), Central-West China (CWC),
201 Southwestern China (SWC), Northwestern China (NWC) and the
202 Himalayas and Tibetan Plateau (HTP), and the rest of the world (ROW),
203 are tagged separately.

204 **3. Model evaluation**

205 Many previous studies have assessed the spatial distribution and
206 seasonal to decadal variations in aerosol concentrations in China and
207 worldwide simulated by CAM5 with the observations (e.g., Wang et al.,
208 2013; Yang et al., 2017a,b, 2018b,c, 2020). In order to evaluate the model's
209 performance in simulating aerosols during the COVID-19 outbreak period
210 in China, the surface concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$, estimated as the sum of
211 sulfate, BC, POM and SOA for model results, during the analyzed time
212 periods are compared with measurements from the China National
213 Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC), as shown in Fig. 2a. The
214 model reasonably reproduces the overall spatial distribution of near-
215 surface $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the three time periods, with high
216 values in the North China Plain and low values in western China. However,
217 as reported in many CAM5 model studies (e.g., Yang et al., 2017a,b), the
218 model underestimates the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations with normalized mean
219 biases (NMB) of -55%~-49%, compared to the available site observations
220 (Fig. S2). The discrepancies are related to coarse-resolution model
221 sampling bias relative to the observational sites, uncertainties in aerosol
222 emissions, wet removal, and gas-particle exchange. In addition, the model
223 version used in this study is not able to simulate nitrate and ammonium
224 aerosols, which are also the main components of $PM_{2.5}$ (Kong et al., 2020;
225 Xu et al., 2019).

226 The long-distance transport of aerosols mainly occurs in the upper
227 troposphere rather than near the surface (Hadley et al., 2007; Zhang et al.,
228 2015). Aerosols are lifted from the atmospheric boundary layer of the
229 emission source regions to the free troposphere and then undergo the
230 transboundary and intercontinental transport effectively driven by the
231 upper tropospheric circulations. Therefore, it is helpful to analyze the
232 relative contributions of local and non-local sources by focusing on the
233 column burden of aerosols. Figure 2b presents spatial distributions of
234 simulated mean column burden of PM_{2.5} during the three time periods
235 ('Week 1': January 30–February 5, 'Week 2': February 6–February 12 and
236 'Week 3': February 13–February 19), which had the largest number of
237 newly-diagnosed COVID-19 cases. The contrast in column burden does
238 not differ significantly from that of near-surface concentrations.
239 Comparing to Week 3, Week 1 and Week 2 have higher PM_{2.5} loading, with
240 values in the range of 20–40 and 20–30 mg m⁻² in the North China Plain,
241 Eastern China, and Southern China, while the PM_{2.5} loading in Week 3 is
242 relative lower with than Week 1 and Week 2 with values ranging mostly
243 from 10 to 20 mg m⁻². Note that the column burden of PM_{2.5} in South and
244 Southeast Asia is higher than 20 mg m⁻² in three time periods and reaches
245 up to 50 mg m⁻² in Week 2, which potentially influences aerosol
246 concentrations in China through transboundary transport.

247 **4. Transport Pathways**

248 The explicit aerosol tagging technique can clearly identify the transport
249 pathways of aerosols moving from their source regions to their destination.
250 Figure 3 shows the spatial distribution of mean column burden of simulated
251 $PM_{2.5}$ originating from the six tagged source regions in central and eastern
252 China and outside of China during the three time periods. Aerosols and/or
253 precursor gases emitted from the various regions follow quite different
254 transport pathways determined by their source locations, meteorological
255 conditions, emission injection height, and physical and chemical
256 characteristics of aerosol species. Aerosols from Northeastern China are
257 transported southeastward by the northwesterly winds (Fig. 1b). From the
258 North China Plain, aerosols can be transported either southward reaching
259 Eastern, Southern and Southwestern China during Week 1 or across east
260 coast of China to the oceanic region during Week 2-3. Aerosols originating
261 from Eastern China move straight to Southwestern and Southern China
262 during Week 1-2, while they also entered the North China Plain during
263 Week 2-3. Aerosols emitted from Southern China and Central-West China
264 have no obvious transport due to their relatively weak emissions. In
265 addition to the local impact, emissions from Southwestern China affect
266 mostly the Southern China and Eastern China. Air parcels with high levels
267 of $PM_{2.5}$ from South and Southeast Asia moved into Southwestern,
268 Southern and Eastern China and even the North China Plain during the
269 three time periods.

270 The vertical distributions of $PM_{2.5}$ emitted from six major tagged
271 source regions are shown in Figs. S3 and S4. The $PM_{2.5}$ has much higher
272 concentrations in the lower troposphere and decreases with increasing
273 height. During Week 1-2, owing to the presence of high $PM_{2.5}$ loadings, a
274 stronger vertical mixing and transport brought more $PM_{2.5}$ to the upper
275 troposphere compared to that during Week 3. High concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$
276 originating from the North China Plain extended southeastward by strong
277 northwesterly winds. Weak winds over Eastern China led to accumulations
278 of $PM_{2.5}$ within this region, which is consistent with the findings in Yang
279 et al. (2017a). Strong southwesterly winds in the south of Southwestern
280 China and weak winds in the north of this region produced convergences
281 and updrafts that lift aerosols up to 700 hPa.

282 Considering that the emissions outside China contribute greatly to
283 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in Southwestern China through transboundary
284 transport (Yang et al., 2017a) and aerosols from East Asia can be
285 transported to the North Pacific and even North America (Yu et al., 2008;
286 Yang et al., 2018c), it is of great importance to study the inflow and outflow
287 of $PM_{2.5}$ across the boundaries of China. Figures 4 and 5 show the vertical
288 distribution of $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations resulting from emissions within and
289 outside China over $29^{\circ}N$, $88^{\circ}E$ and $21^{\circ}N$ around the south boundaries
290 (cross-sections (CS) 1-3 in Fig. 1a) and $123^{\circ}E$ around the east boundary
291 (CS 4 in Fig. 1a) of the mainland of China. Over the southern border, $PM_{2.5}$

292 concentrations are more influenced by transboundary transport of aerosols
293 from ROW than those originating from domestic emissions. The high
294 concentrations of PM_{2.5} from South and Southeast Asia are lifted into the
295 free atmosphere of the Tibetan Plateau and Yun-Gui Plateau, and then
296 transported to Southern and Southwestern China by southwesterly winds.
297 Over the North China Plain and Eastern China, northwesterly winds at 35-
298 45° N and southwesterly winds at 25-35° N cause aerosols to accumulate
299 in the lower atmosphere and then export across east border of China below
300 700 hPa.

301 **5. Source apportionment of PM_{2.5} in China during the COVID-19**

302 **5.1 Source contributions to PM_{2.5} burden**

303 Figure 6 shows the simulated relative contributions in percentage to
304 PM_{2.5} column burden from local source emissions, regional transport from
305 the untagged regions of China (rest of China, RCN) and rest of the world
306 (ROW). Over the North China Plain, where emissions are relatively high,
307 PM_{2.5} column burden is dominated by local emissions during the three time
308 periods. In contrast, regions with relative low emissions are mainly
309 affected by nonlocal sources, especially by foreign contributions.
310 Emissions from the ROW contribute a large amount to PM_{2.5} burden over
311 Northeastern, Southern, Central-West, Southwestern, Northwestern China
312 and the Tibetan Plateau. PM_{2.5} burden in Eastern China is greatly
313 contributed by the sources from RCN, especially in Week 1 when regional

314 transport of PM_{2.5} from the North China Plain is relatively strong (Fig. S4).

315 Table 1 summarizes the contributions of tagged source regions to the
316 PM_{2.5} burden over different receptor regions in China. In Northeastern
317 China, 36%-43% of the PM_{2.5} column burden comes from local emissions,
318 while a larger portion (39%-54%) is contributed by emissions from ROW
319 during the three time periods. The impacts of nonlocal sources within
320 China on PM_{2.5} burden are relatively low in Northeastern China during
321 Week 1 with the contribution of less than 5%, while RCN is responsible for
322 23% and 25% during Week 2 and Week 3, respectively.

323 In the North China Plain, the majority of the PM_{2.5} burden is attributed
324 to local emissions in all cases, with local contributions in a range of 40–
325 66%. Emissions from the North China Plain also produce a widespread
326 impact on PM_{2.5} over its neighboring regions. The sources from North
327 China Plain account for 14–33% of the PM_{2.5} burden in Eastern China and
328 7–23% in Southern China during the three time periods.

329 In Eastern China, local emissions account for 27–40% of PM_{2.5} column
330 burden, while ROW contributes 20–45%. Southern China and Central-
331 West China have 13–18% and 25–31% of local source contributions,
332 respectively, whereas 37–64% are due to emissions from outside China in
333 these two regions. In Southwestern China, 15–18% of the PM_{2.5} burden
334 originates from local emissions and 7–24% is from RCN. ROW emissions
335 play important roles in affecting PM_{2.5} burden over this region, with

336 relative contributions in a range of 59–78% during the three time periods,
337 which is associated with the transboundary transport by southwesterly
338 winds. PM_{2.5} burden over the Northwestern China and Himalayas and
339 Tibetan Plateau with relatively low local emissions are strongly influenced
340 by nonlocal sources, where more than 70% of the PM_{2.5} burden originates
341 from emissions outside China.

342 **5.2 Aerosol source attribution during polluted days**

343 In spite of the large reductions in emissions, severe air pollution events
344 still occurred in China during the COVID-19 lockdown. Source attribution
345 of PM_{2.5} during polluted days in China has policy implications for future
346 air pollution control. In Beijing, capital of China over the North China
347 Plain, a serious haze event happened from February 11 to 13, 2020 during
348 the COVID-19 outbreak period according to observations released by
349 CNEMC. CAM5-EAST reproduced the polluted day on February 11 over
350 the North China Plain. In this study, the most polluted day is defined as the
351 day with the highest daily PM_{2.5} concentration in February 2020 for each
352 receptor region in China. Figure 7 presents the composite differences in
353 near-surface PM_{2.5} concentrations and 850 hPa wind fields between the
354 most polluted day and normal days (all days in February 2020) for each
355 receptor region. The local and nonlocal source contributions to the PM_{2.5}
356 differences are summarized in Fig. 8.

357 Unexpectedly, near-surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in the North China

358 Plain and Eastern China experienced remarkable increases during the same
359 most polluted day of COVID-19 lockdown. The simulated PM_{2.5}
360 concentrations increased, with the largest increases of more than 20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
361 in the North China Plain and Eastern China, 10 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ maximum increase
362 in the Southwestern China and 5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the Northeastern, Southern and
363 Central-West China, during the most polluted days compared to the normal
364 days.

365 The increase in near-surface PM_{2.5} concentrations during the most
366 polluted day over Northeastern China is largely influenced by the local
367 emissions, which contribute to a regional averaged concentration increase
368 of 1.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. This is mainly due to the accumulation of local aerosols
369 under the weakened prevailing northwesterly winds over this region.

370 When the PM_{2.5} pollution occurred in the North China Plain on
371 February 11, 2020, which was also reported as the polluted day in
372 observations (Huang et al., 2020), the concentration of PM_{2.5} was 16.1 μg
373 m^{-3} higher than that in normal days. The contribution from local emissions
374 accounts for 66% of the averaged increase, which was related to the
375 stagnant air condition (i.e., weakened lower tropospheric winds) resulting
376 from the anomalous mid-tropospheric high pressure located at the
377 climatological location of the East Asia trough (Fig. S5). Sources from
378 Eastern China also explain 4.3 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (27%) of the total increase over the
379 North China Plain.

380 During the most polluted day in Eastern China (the same day as the
381 most polluted day in North China Plain), the concentration of PM_{2.5} was 16
382 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ higher than that in normal days, which is primarily contributed by
383 the local emissions. While the contribution from the North China Plain
384 decreased in the most polluted day, the anomalous southerly winds brought
385 more aerosols from Southern China and ROW into Eastern China,
386 contributing to 4% and 10% aerosol increase, respectively.

387 Owing to the enhanced northerly winds, emissions from the North
388 China Plain and Eastern China contribute 33% and 39% of the increase,
389 respectively, in PM_{2.5} concentration over Southern China. The most
390 polluted day in Central-West China is mostly caused by local emissions
391 (65% of the total increase).

392 When Southwestern China was under the polluted condition, PM_{2.5}
393 concentration increased by 2.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Emissions from ROW, especially
394 those from South and Southeast Asia, are of great significance to the
395 increase of PM_{2.5} concentrations due to the enhanced southwesterly winds
396 over this region. The relative contribution from ROW emissions is more
397 than 50% over Southwestern China during the most polluted day. It
398 highlights that the important role of transboundary transport needs to be
399 considered when controlling local emissions to improve air quality in the
400 near future.

401

402 **6. Conclusions and discussions**

403 The COVID-19 pandemic disrupted human activities and lead to abrupt
404 reductions in anthropogenic emissions. This study first investigated the
405 source contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ over various regions covering the whole
406 China during the COVID-19 pandemic. We pay attention not only to local
407 emissions, but also to the impacts from regional and foreign transport of
408 aerosols. An explicit aerosol source tagging is implemented in the
409 Community Atmosphere Model version 5 (CAM5-EAST) to examine the
410 aerosol transport pathways and source attribution of $PM_{2.5}$ in China during
411 the first few weeks of the COVID-19 outbreak (Week 1: January 30–
412 February 5, Week 2: February 6–February 12 and Week 3: February 13–
413 February 19). The contributions of emissions to $PM_{2.5}$ originating from
414 eight source regions in the mainland of China, including Northeastern
415 China, North China Plain, Eastern China, Southern China, Central-West
416 China, Southwestern China, Northwestern China and Himalayas and
417 Tibetan Plateau, and sources outside China (ROW) to near-surface
418 concentrations, column burdens, transport pathways of $PM_{2.5}$, and haze
419 formation in different receptor regions in China are quantified in this study.

420 Aerosols emitted from the North China Plain, where the air quality is
421 often poor, can be transported through Eastern China and reach
422 Southwestern China during the three time periods. Similarly, aerosols from
423 Eastern China move straight to Southern China and Southwestern China

424 during Week 1 and Week 2, and a significant portion can also enter the
425 North China Plain during Week 2 and Week 3.

426 Across the southern boundary of the mainland of China, high
427 concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ from South and Southeast Asia are lifted into the
428 free atmosphere and then transported to Southern and Southwestern China.
429 While $PM_{2.5}$ from the North China Plain and Eastern China can also be
430 brought out of China via westerly winds, mostly below 700 hPa.

431 $PM_{2.5}$ in China is affected not only by local emissions but also by long-
432 range transport of pollutants from distant source regions. Over the North
433 China Plain, 40–66% of the $PM_{2.5}$ burden is attributed to local emissions
434 during the COVID-19 outbreak. They also impact $PM_{2.5}$ in neighboring
435 regions, accounting for 14–33% of the $PM_{2.5}$ burden in Eastern China and
436 7–23% in Southern China during the three time periods. Northeastern
437 China has 36%-43% of local source contributions to its $PM_{2.5}$ column
438 burden, while 39%-54% is contributed by emissions from ROW during the
439 three time periods. In Eastern China, local emissions explain 27–40% of
440 $PM_{2.5}$ burden, while ROW contributes 20–45%. In Southwestern China,
441 59–78% of the $PM_{2.5}$ burden is contributed by emissions from ROW. Over
442 the Northwestern China and Himalayas and Tibetan Plateau, ROW
443 emissions have a great contribution of more than 70% to the $PM_{2.5}$ column
444 burden.

445 In this study, the most polluted day is defined as the day with the

446 highest daily PM_{2.5} concentration in February 2020 for each receptor
447 region in China. The transport from outside of China only has a great
448 impact on some specific regions in China. In Southwestern China, the
449 relative contribution from ROW emissions, especially those from South
450 and Southeast Asia, to the increment of PM_{2.5} concentration during the
451 most polluted days compared with normal days is more than 50%. It is
452 consistent with the previous studies that emissions from South and
453 Southeast Asia have an important impact on air quality in southwest China
454 (Yang et al., 2017a; Zhu et al., 2016, 2017). For other receptor regions in
455 China (Northeastern China, North China Plain, Eastern China, Southern
456 China and Central-West China), PM_{2.5} concentrations are largely
457 contributed by local emissions during the most polluted days compared
458 with normal days. In the future with emissions reductions for better air
459 quality in China, decreasing air pollution should consider aerosols from
460 both Chinese local emissions and pollutant transport from outside of China.

461 Despite the large reductions in emissions, near-surface PM_{2.5}
462 concentrations in the North China Plain and Eastern China increased a lot
463 during the most polluted days of COVID-19 lockdown (with the highest
464 daily PM_{2.5} concentration in February 2020), with the largest increases of
465 more than 20 µg m⁻³. In addition to local emissions, regional transport of
466 pollutants is also an important factor that causes haze events in China. The
467 increases in PM_{2.5} concentrations during the most polluted days over the

468 North China Plain and Eastern China are largely influenced by the stagnant
469 air condition resulting from the anomalous high pressure system and
470 weakening of winds, which lead to a reduced ventilation and aerosol
471 accumulation in the North China Plain, together with an increase in aerosol
472 inflow from regional transport. During the most polluted day in
473 Southwestern China, ROW contributes over 50% of the $PM_{2.5}$
474 concentration increase, with enhanced southwesterly winds that drive
475 pollution transport from South and Southeast Asia. It indicates that regional
476 transport and unfavorable meteorology need to be taken into consideration
477 when controlling local emissions to improve air quality in the near future.

478 To highlight the roles of regional and foreign transport, the differences
479 between Covid and Baseline simulations in relative contributions to $PM_{2.5}$
480 burden from local, region (RCN) and foreign (ROW) emissions are given
481 in Figure S6. During the COVID-19 period, the local and RCN emission
482 contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ were 1–4% lower than that in Base experiment over
483 NCP and NEC. In Eastern China, the contribution from the local emissions
484 decreased by 3–4% compared with Base experiment, while the
485 contribution from ROW increased by more than 5%. In Southern China,
486 50–70% of the $PM_{2.5}$ burden is contributed by emissions from ROW in
487 Base experiment. During the COVID-19 period with low emission levels,
488 the contribution from ROW to $PM_{2.5}$ burden in Southern China had an
489 increase of more than 5%. It indicates that the important role of

490 transboundary transport needs to be considered when controlling local
491 emissions to improve air quality in the near future.

492 Many studies have examined the importance of meteorology on
493 regional air quality during the COVID-19 lockdown period and
494 emphasized that, when meteorology is unfavorable, abrupt emissions
495 reductions cannot avoid severe air pollutions (Le et al. 2020; Sulaymon et
496 al. 2021; Shen et al. 2021). Through model simulations, Le et al. (2020)
497 found that abnormally high humidity promotes the heterogeneous
498 chemistry of aerosols, which have contributed to the increase of PM_{2.5} by
499 12% in northern China during the city lockdown period. Sulaymon et al.
500 (2021) found that significant increase in PM_{2.5} concentrations caused by
501 unfavorable meteorological conditions in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region
502 during the lockdown period based on Community Multiscale Air Quality
503 (CMAQ) model simulations. By analyzing the observational data and
504 model simulations, Shen et al. (2021) reported that 50% of the pollution
505 episodes during the COVID-19 lockdown in Hubei of China were due to
506 the stagnant meteorological conditions. Huang et al. (2020) found that the
507 stagnant air conditions and enhanced atmospheric oxidizing capacity
508 caused a severe haze event during the same time period. In line with
509 previous studies, we also revealed the stagnant air condition under the
510 anomalous high pressure system in the most polluted day over the North
511 China Plain. In addition to the meteorological conditions, the effect of

512 foreign transport was also raised in this study causing aerosol pollution in
513 southwestern China during COVID-19 outbreak.

514 There are a few uncertainties in this study. The CAM5 model has low
515 biases in reproducing the near-surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in China,
516 compared to observations, in part due to the incapability of simulating
517 some aerosol components of PM_{2.5} (e.g., ammonium and nitrate), excessive
518 aerosol wet removal during the long-range transport (Wang et al., 2013),
519 and uncertainties in observations. In majority of the climate models, the
520 simulation of nitrate and ammonium aerosols are not included in the
521 aerosol schemes, partly due to the complexity of calculation efficiency. For
522 example, in many of the CMIP6 models, only two of them provide nitrate
523 and ammonium mass mixing ratios. Many previous studies have evaluated
524 the global climate models performance in reproducing aerosol
525 concentrations (e.g., Fan et al., 2018; Shindell et al., 2013; Yang et al.,
526 2017a,b). In general, the models can well simulate aerosols in North
527 America and Europe but significantly underestimates aerosols in East Asia
528 by about -36 to -58 % compared with observations. It can lead to an
529 underestimation of aerosols contributed by Chinese local emissions in
530 magnitudes, but might not change the main conclusions of this study.
531 Uncertainties in the estimate of emission reductions in different source
532 regions during the COVID-19 pandemic can also introduce uncertainties
533 to our results. During the COVID-19 lockdown, greenhouse gas emissions

534 also decreased (Le Quéré et al., 2020), but the effect of greenhouse gas
535 reduction on meteorology that potentially influence aerosol distributions
536 was not taken into consideration. Nevertheless, this study is the first
537 attempt to provide source apportionment of aerosols covering the whole
538 China during the COVID-19 outbreak, which is beneficial to the
539 investigation of policy implications for future air pollution control.

540 ***Data availability.***

541 The CAM5 model is available at
542 <http://www.cesm.ucar.edu/models/cesm1.2/> (last access: 3 August 2021).
543 CAM5-EAST model code and results can be made available upon request.
544 The surface PM_{2.5} observations are from the China National Environmental
545 Monitoring Center (CNEMC, <http://www.cnemc.cn>, last access: 3 August
546 2021)

547 ***Competing interests.***

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

549 ***Author contribution.***

550 YY and LR designed the research; YY performed the model simulations;
551 LR analyzed the data. All authors discussed the results and wrote the paper.

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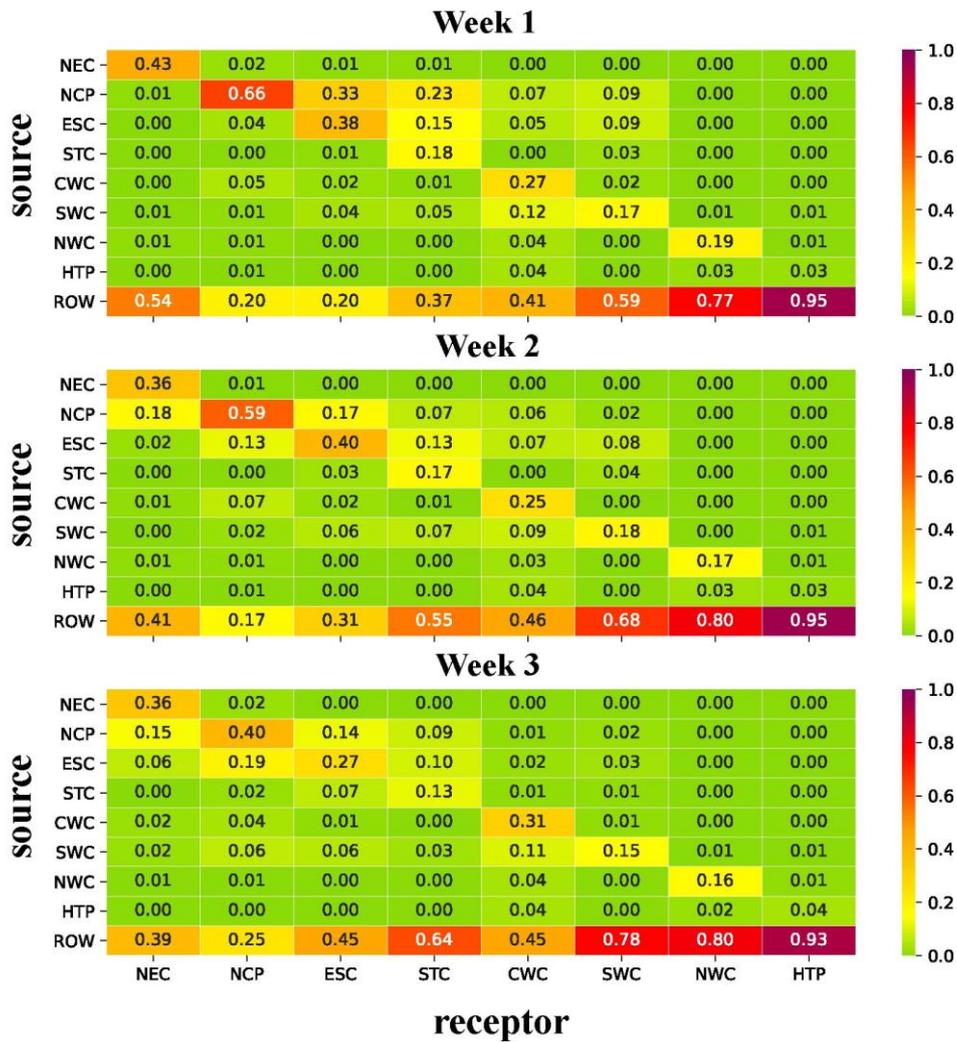
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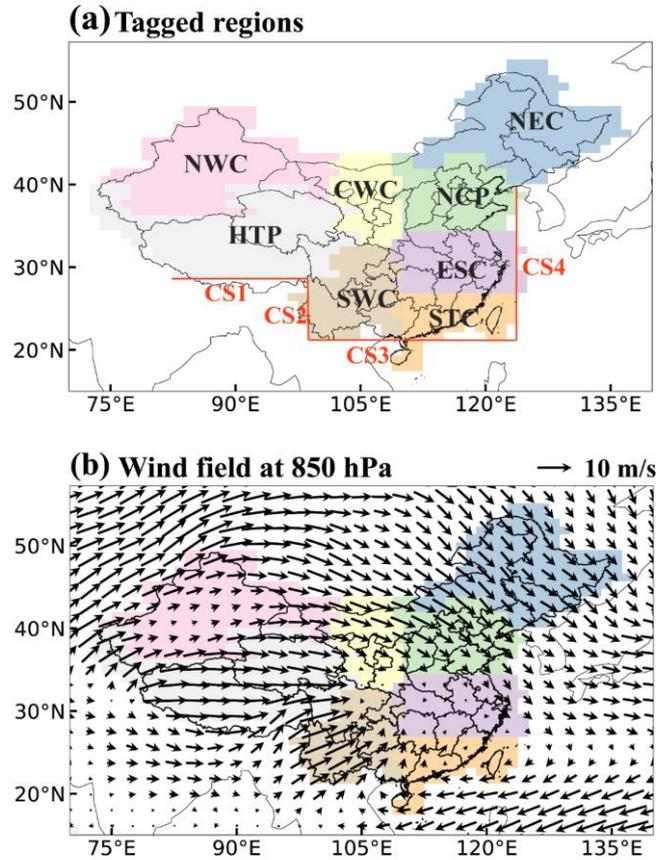
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809 **Table 1.** Fractional contributions of emissions from nine tagged source regions (vertical
 810 axis) to mean PM_{2.5} column burden in eight receptor regions (horizontal axis) during
 811 the three time periods (‘Week 1’: January 30–February 5, ‘Week 2’: February 6–
 812 February 12 and ‘Week 3’: February 13–February 19).
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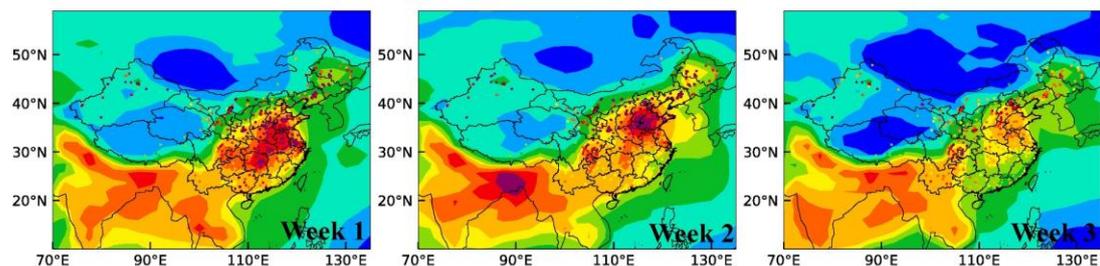
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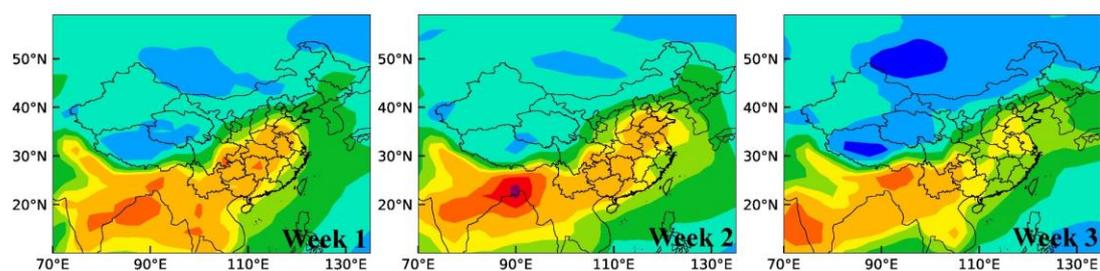
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Figure 1. (a) Tagged source regions (NEC: Northeastern China, NCP: North China Plain, ESC: Eastern China, STC: Southern China, CWC: Central-West China, SWC: Southwestern China, NWC: Northwestern China, HTP: Himalayas and Tibetan Plateau, ROW: rest of the world) and (b) mean wind field (units: m s^{-1} , vectors) at 850 hPa during the three weeks of the study from January 30 to February 19, which had the largest number of newly-diagnosed COVID-19 cases. Lines in (a) mark the cross-sections (CS) defined to study the transport of aerosols to and from China.

(a) PM_{2.5} surface conc. ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)



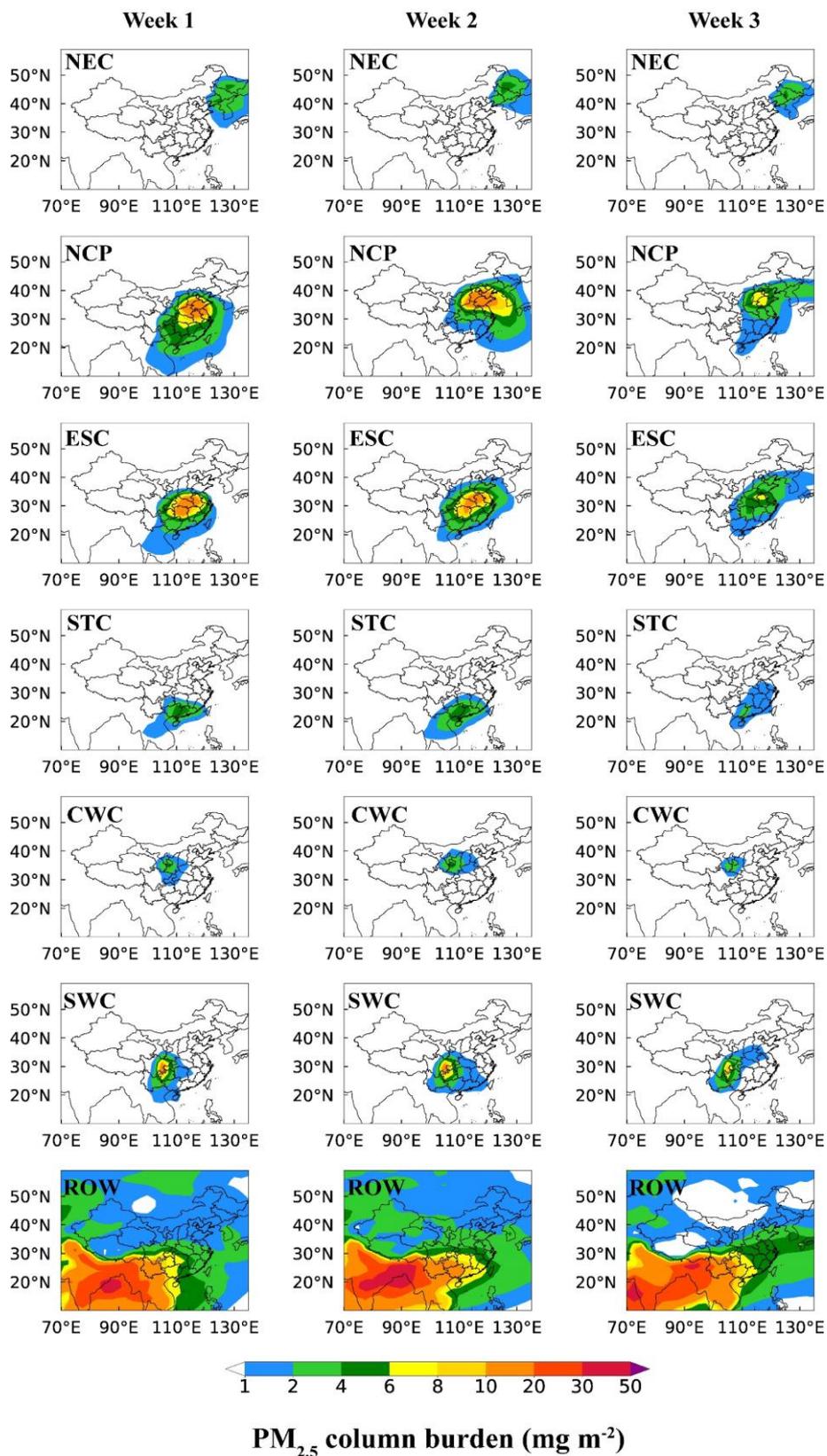
(b) PM_{2.5} column burden (mg m^{-2})



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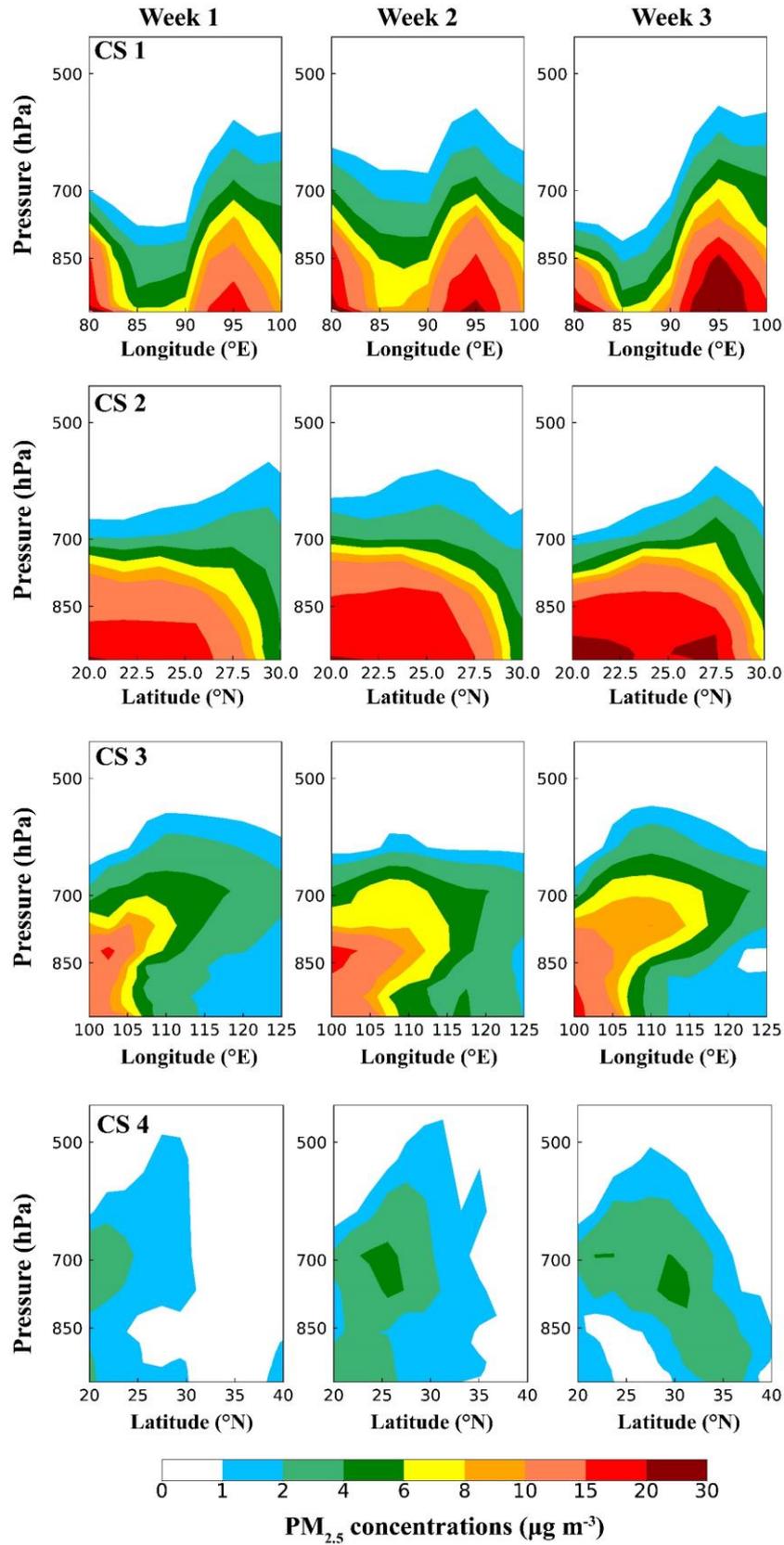
829 **Figure 2.** Spatial distribution of (a) the simulated and observed mean near-surface
830 PM_{2.5} concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and (b) PM_{2.5} column burden (mg m^{-2}) during January
831 30–February 5 (Week 1), February 6–February 12 (Week 2) and February 13–February
832 19 (Week 3).



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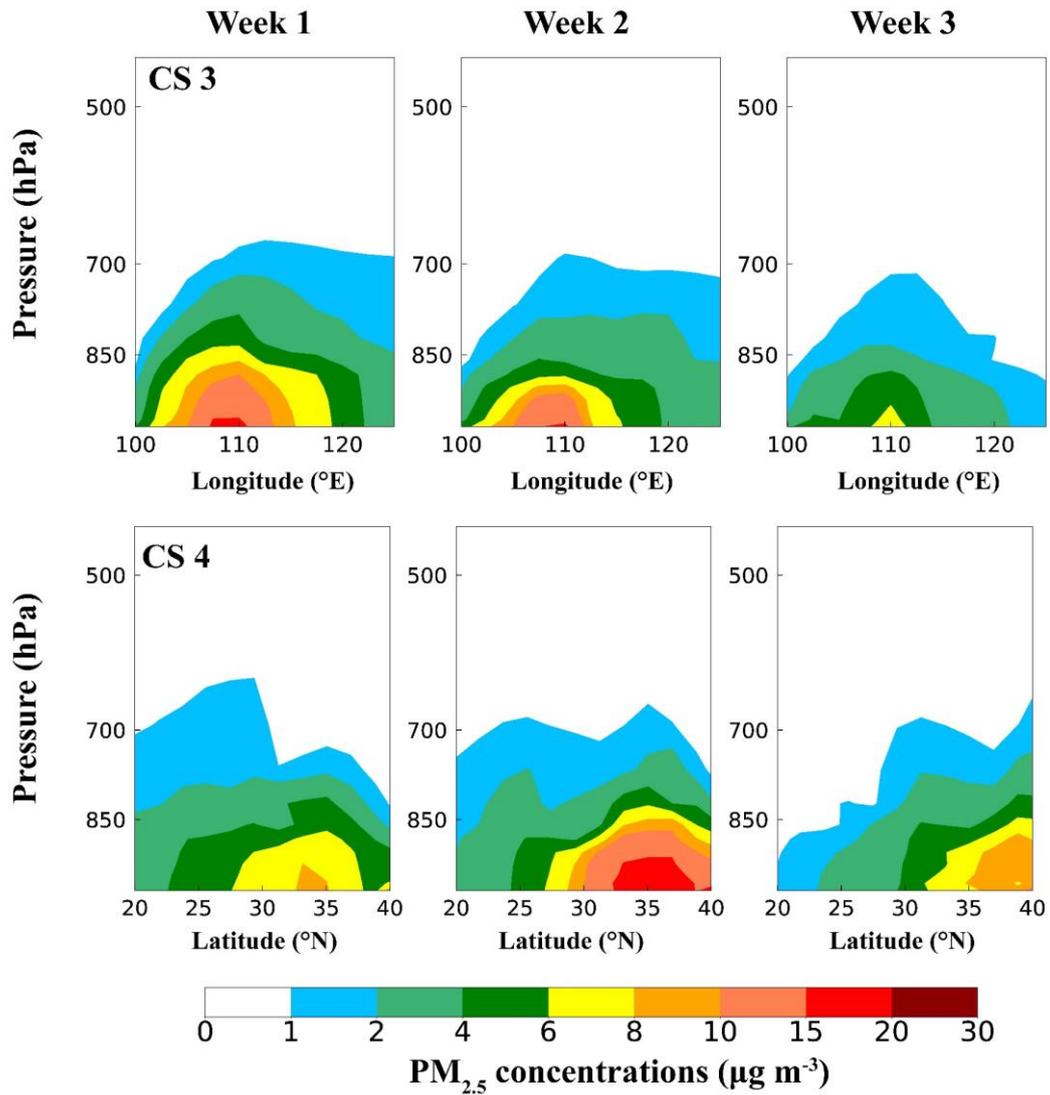
834 **Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of PM_{2.5} column burden (mg m⁻²) originating from the
 835 six major source regions in China (NEC, NCP, ESC, STC, CWC and SWC) and sources
 836 outside China (ROW) during the three time periods.

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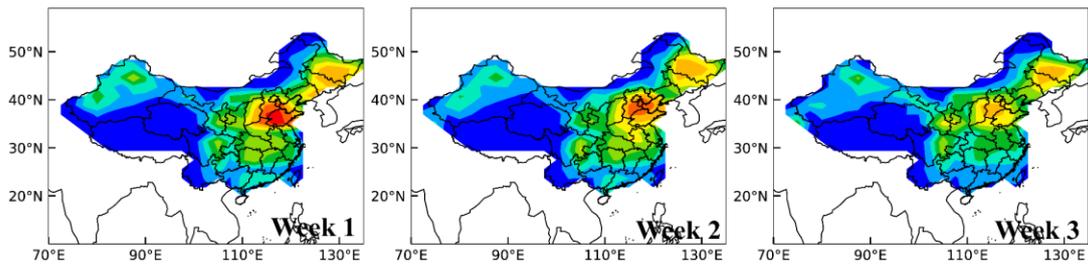
839 **Figure 4.** Vertical distributions of PM_{2.5} concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), originating from
 840 emissions outside China (i.e., ROW sources), across the latitudinal and/or longitudinal
 841 extents marked in Fig.1, respectively, during the three time periods.



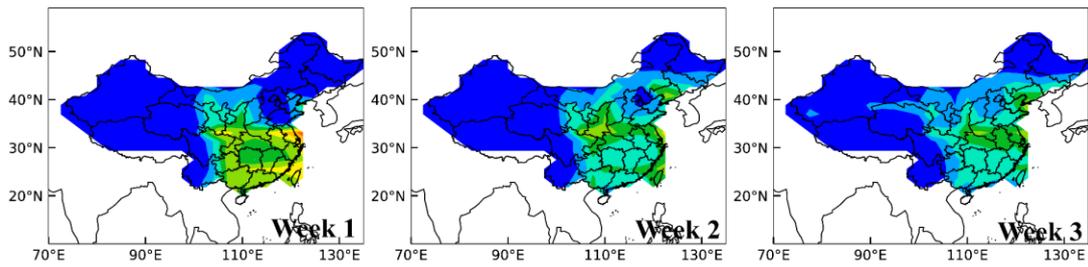
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Figure 5. Vertical distributions of PM_{2.5} concentrations ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), originating from domestic emissions in China, across the latitudinal and/or longitudinal extents marked in Fig.1, respectively, during the three time periods. The values along CS 1 and CS 2 are negligibly small.

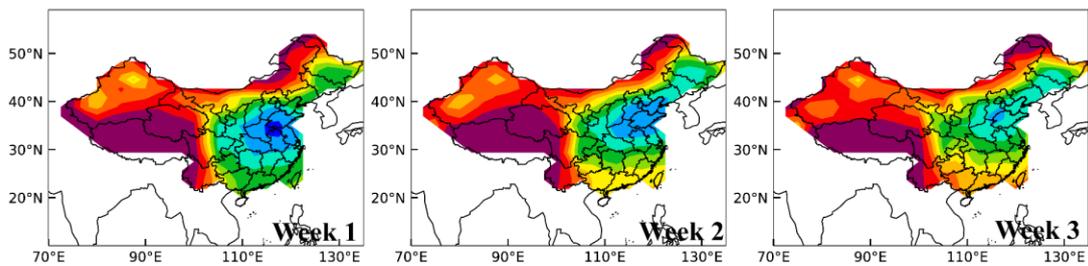
(a) Local contribution



(b) RCN contribution



(c) ROW contribution



Relative contribution to PM_{2.5} column burden (%)

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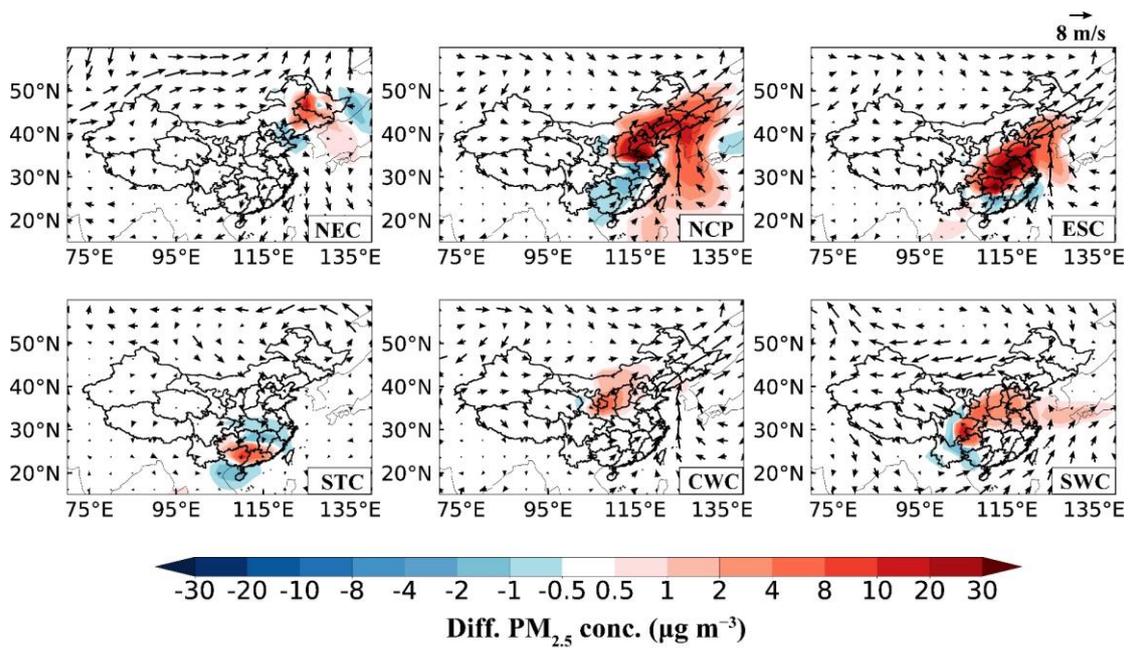
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852 **Figure 6.** Relative contributions (%) of (a) local emissions, (b) the emissions from the

853 rest of China (RCN) and (c) all sources outside China (rest of the world, ROW) to PM_{2.5}

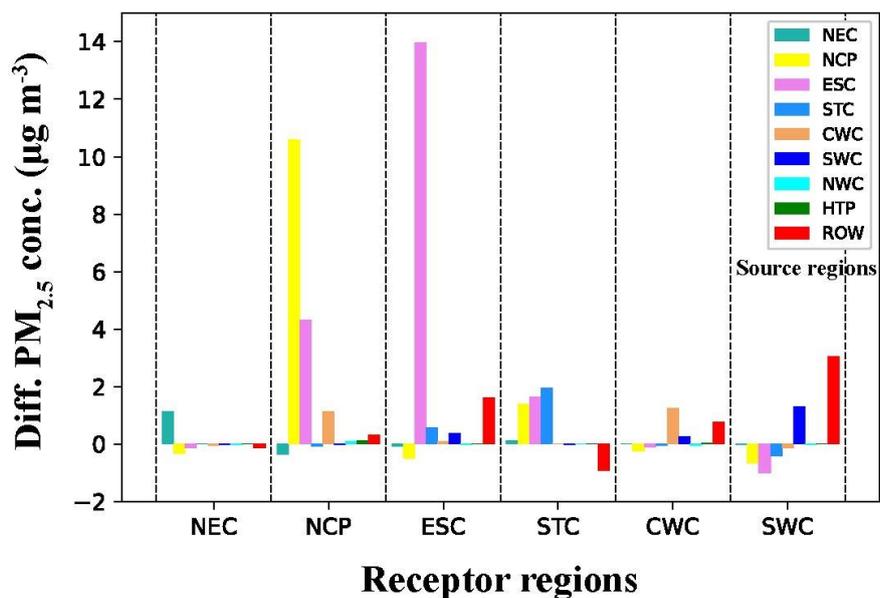
854 column burden during the three time periods.

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Figure 7. Composite differences in winds at 850 hPa ($m s^{-1}$) and near-surface $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations ($\mu g m^{-3}$) between the most polluted and normal days in February 2020. The most polluted day is defined as the day with the highest daily $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in February 2020 in each receptor region in China.



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865 **Figure 8.** Composite differences in near-surface PM_{2.5} concentrations (µg m⁻³)
 866 averaged over receptor regions (marked on the horizontal axis) in China between the
 867 most polluted and normal days in February 2020 originating from individual source
 868 regions (corresponding color bars in each column).