



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

Due to the coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, human 24 activities and industrial productions were strictly restricted during January-25 March 2020 in China. Despite the fact that anthropogenic aerosol 26 27 emissions largely decreased, haze events still occurred. Characterization of aerosol transport pathways and attribution of aerosol sources from specific 28 regions are beneficial to the air quality and pandemic control strategies. 29 30 This study establishes source-receptor relationships in various regions of China during the COVID-19 outbreak based on the Community 31 Atmosphere Model version 5 with Explicit Aerosol Source Tagging 32 (CAM5-EAST). Our analysis shows that  $PM_{2.5}$  burden over the North 33 China Plain between January 30 and February 19 is largely contributed by 34 local emissions (40-66%). For other regions in China, PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden is 35 largely contributed from non-local sources. During the polluted days of 36 COVID-19 outbreak, local emissions within North China Plain and Eastern 37 China, respectively, contribute 66% and 87% to the increase in surface 38 PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations. This is associated with the anomalous mid-39 tropospheric high pressure at the location of climatological East Asia 40 trough and the consequently weakened winds in the lower troposphere, 41 leading to the local aerosol accumulation. The emissions outside China, 42 especially from South and Southeast Asia, contribute over 50% to the 43 increase in PM2.5 concentration in Southwestern China through 44





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





## 49 1. Introduction

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) had an outbreak in China 50 in December 2019. It has resulted in more than one million cases within 51 the first four months worldwide (Sharma et al., 2020; Dong et al., 2020). 52 In order to curb the virus spread among humans, China was the first 53 country to take dramatic measures to minimize the interaction among 54 people, including strict isolation, prohibition of large-scale private and 55 public gatherings, restriction of private and public transportation and even 56 lockdown of cities (Tian et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). The estimated 57 NOx emission in eastern China was reduced by 60-70%, of which 70-80% 58 was related to the reduced road traffic and 20-25% was from industrial 59 enterprises shutdown during the COVID-19 lockdown period (Huang et al., 60 2020). However, severe air pollution events still occurred in East China 61 during the COVID-19 lockdown. It is of great concern that why severe air 62 pollution was not avoided by decreasing anthropogenic emissions. 63

The unprecedented large-scale restrictions resulting from the COVID-19 epidemic provide an opportunity to research the relationship between dramatic anthropogenic emission reductions and air quality change (e.g., Bao et al., 2020; Li et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). Bao et al. (2020) reported that, during the COVID-19 lockdown period, the air quality index (AQI) and the PM<sub>2.5</sub> (particulate matter less than 2.5 µm in diameter) concentration were decreased by 7.8% and 5.9 %, respectively, on average





in 44 cities in northern China, mainly due to travel restrictions. By applying 71 the WRF-CAMx model together with air quality monitoring data. Li et al. 72 (2020) revealed that although primary particle emissions were reduced by 73 15%-61% during the COVID-19 lockdown over the Yangtze River Delta 74 75 Region, the daily mean concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was still relatively high, reaching up to 79  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>. Wang et al. (2020) found that the relative 76 77 reduction in PM<sub>2.5</sub> precursors was twice as much as the reduction in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration, in part due to the unfavorable meteorological conditions 78 during the COVID-19 outbreak in China that led to the formation of the 79 heavy haze. Huang et al. (2020) and Le et al. (2020) reported that stagnant 80 air conditions, high atmospheric humidity, and enhanced atmospheric 81 oxidizing capacity led to a severe haze event in northern China during the 82 COVID-19 pandemic. 83

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





implemented the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan in 2013
(China State Council, 2013). Although emissions in China have decreased
significantly in recent years (Zheng et al., 2018), aerosols transported from
other source regions could add on top of local emissions (Yang et al., 2017a,
2018a; Ren et al., 2020). Therefore, it is important to understand the
relative effects of local emissions and regional transport on aerosols in
China.

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

Currently, many studies have investigated the impact of reduced human
activity on regional air quality, as a result of the COVID-19 outbreak. Few





studies have focused on aerosol transport pathways and source attribution 115 in China during the COVID-19 pandemic. In this study, the global aerosol-116 climate model CAM5 (Community Atmosphere Model, version 5) 117 equipped with an Explicit Aerosol Source Tagging (CAM5-EAST) is 118 employed to quantify source-receptor relationships and transport pathways 119 of aerosols during the COVID-19 outbreak in China. We also provide 120 model evaluations of PM2.5 concentrations against observations made 121 122 during the COVID-19 outbreak. With the aerosol source tagging technique, source region contributions to PM<sub>2.5</sub> column burden over various receptor 123 regions and transport pathways in China are analyzed. The source 124 contributions to the changes in near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> in polluted days 125 compared to the monthly means during February 2020 are also quantified. 126 This paper provides source apportionment of aerosols in China during the 127 COVID-19 emission reductions, which is beneficial to the investigation of 128 policy implications for future air pollution control. 129

130 **2. Methods** 

### 131 **2.1 Model description and experimental setup**

The CAM5 model is applied to estimate the PM<sub>2.5</sub> changes during the COVID-19 period. In CAM5, which is the atmospheric component of the earth system model CESM (Community Earth System Model, Hurrell et al., 2013). In this study, major aerosol species including sulfate, BC, primary organic matter (POM), secondary organic aerosol (SOA), sea salt,





and mineral dust, are represented by three lognormal size modes (i.e., 137 Aitken, accumulation, and coarse modes) of the modal aerosol module 138 (MAM3) (Liu et al., 2012). The detailed aerosol representation in CAM5 139 was provided in Liu et al. (2012) and Wang et al. (2013). The aerosol 140 mixing states consider both internal mixed (within a same mode) and 141 external mixed (between modes). On top of the default CAM5, additional 142 modifications that improve the representation of aerosol wet scavenging 143 and convective transport (Wang et al., 2013) are also included in the model 144 version used for this study. 145

In this study, simulations were conducted with a horizontal resolution 146 of  $1.9^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$  and 30 vertical layers up to 3.6 hPa in year 2020. 147 Anthropogenic emissions in China are derived from the MEIC (Multi-148 resolution Emission Inventory of China) inventory (Zheng et al., 2018). 149 while emissions for the other countries use the SSP (Shared Socioeconomic 150 Pathways) 2-4.5 scenario data set under CMIP6 (the Coupled Model 151 Intercomparison Project Phase 6). Emissions in year 2017 are used as the 152 baseline during the simulation period considering the time limit of MEIC 153 inventory. To better estimate the impact of restricted human activities on 154 emission reductions owing to COVID-19 lockdown, we updated China's 155 emission inventory from January to March 2020 based on the provincial 156 total emission reduction ratio in Huang et al. (2020). Emissions from the 157 transportation sector are decreased by 70% and the remaining reductions 158





are evenly distributed to other sectors from January to March 2020 159 compared to the baseline emission in 2017. The sea surface temperature, 160 sea ice concentrations, solar radiation and greenhouse gas concentrations 161 are fixed at present-day climatological levels. To capture the large-scale 162 atmospheric circulations during the COVID-19, we nudge the model wind 163 fields toward the MERRA-2 (Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for 164 Research and Applications, version 2) reanalysis (Gelaro et al., 2017) from 165 April 2019 to March 2020 repeatedly for six years. Only model results from 166 the last year are used to represent year 2020. In this study, we analyze the 167 transport pathways and source attribution of aerosols during the three 168 weeks that had the largest number of newly-diagnosed COVID-19 cases 169 (Fig. 2, hereafter referred to as the 'Week 1': January 30-February 5, 170 'Week 2': February 6-February 12 and 'Week 3': February 13-February 171 19), when unexpected hazardous air pollution events also occurred during 172 this time period (Le et al., 2020). 173

### 174 **2.2 Explicit aerosol source tagging and source regions**

To examine the source apportionment of aerosols in China, the Explicit Aerosol Source Tagging (EAST) technique was implemented in CAM5, which has been utilized in many aerosol source attribution studies (e.g., Wang et al., 2014; Yang et al., 2017a, b, 2018a, b, c, 2020; Ren et al., 2020). Different from the emission sensitivity method that assumes a linear response to emission perturbation and the traditional backward trajectory





method, aerosols from each tagged region or sector are calculated 181 independently in EAST within one single simulation. Without relying on a 182 set of model simulations with emission perturbations or assuming constant 183 decaying rate, EAST is more accurate and time-saving than the source 184 apportionment method mentioned above. In addition to the sulfate, BC and 185 POM species that were tagged in previous studies (e.g., Yang et al., 2020), 186 SOA and precursor gas are now also tagged in the EAST. These types of 187 aerosols from independent source regions and sectors can be explicitly 188 tagged and tracked simultaneously. In this study, focusing on the aerosols 189 in China during the COVID-19 outbreak period, the domestic aerosol and 190 precursor emissions are divided into eight geographical source regions (Fig. 191 1), including Northeastern China (NEC), North China Plain (NCP), Eastern 192 China (ESC), Southern China (STC), Central-West China (CWC), 193 Southwestern China (SWC), Northwestern China (NWC) and the 194 Himalayas and Tibetan Plateau (HTP), and the rest of the world (ROW) 195 emissions are tagged separately. 196

197 **3. Model evaluation** 

Many previous studies have assessed the spatial distribution and seasonal to decadal variations in aerosol concentrations in China and worldwide simulated by CAM5 with the observations (e.g., Wang et al., 201 2013; Yang et al., 2017a,b, 2018b,c, 2020). In order to evaluate the model's performance in simulating aerosols during the COVID-19 outbreak period





in China, the surface concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, estimated as the sum of 203 sulfate, BC, POM and SOA for model results, during the analyzed time 204 periods are compared with measurements from the China National 205 Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC), as shown in Fig. 3a. The 206 model reasonably reproduces the overall spatial distribution of near-207 surface PM2.5 concentrations during the three time periods, with high 208 values in the North China Plain and low values in western China. However, 209 as reported in many CAM5 model studies (e.g., Yang et al., 2017a,b), the 210 model underestimates the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations with normalized mean 211 biases (NMB) of -55%~-49%, compared to the available site observations 212 (Fig. S1). The discrepancies are related to coarse-resolution model 213 sampling bias relative to the observational sites, uncertainties in aerosol 214 emissions, wet removal, and gas-particle exchange. In addition, the model 215 version used in this study is not able to simulate nitrate and ammonium 216 aerosols, which are also the main components of PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Kong et al., 2020; 217 Xu et al., 2019). 218

The long-distance transport of aerosols mainly occurs in the upper troposphere rather than near the surface (Hadley et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2015). Aerosols are lifted from the atmospheric boundary layer of the emission source regions to the free troposphere and then undergo the transboundary and intercontinental transport effectively driven by the upper tropospheric circulations. Therefore, it is helpful to analyze the





relative contributions of local and non-local sources by focusing on the 225 column burden of aerosols. Figure 3b presents spatial distributions of 226 simulated mean column burden of PM<sub>2.5</sub> during the three time periods. The 227 contrast in column burden does not differ significantly from that of near-228 surface concentrations. Among the three time periods, Week 1 and Week 2 229 have higher PM<sub>2.5</sub> loading, with values in the range of 20-40 and 20-30 230 mg m<sup>-2</sup> in the North China Plain, Eastern China, and Southern China, while 231 the PM<sub>2.5</sub> loading in Week 3 is relative lower with values ranging mostly 232 from 10 to 20 mg m<sup>-2</sup>. Note that the column burden of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in South and 233 Southeast Asia is higher than 20 mg m<sup>-2</sup> in three time periods and reaches 234 up to 50 mg m<sup>-2</sup> in Week 2, which potentially influences aerosol 235 concentrations in China through transboundary transport. 236

## 237 4. Transport Pathways

The explicit aerosol tagging technique can clearly identify the transport 238 pathways of aerosols moving from their source regions to their destination. 239 Figure 4 shows the spatial distribution of mean column burden of simulated 240 PM<sub>2.5</sub> originating from the six tagged source regions in central and eastern 241 China and outside of China during the three time periods. Aerosols and/or 242 precursor gases emitted from the various regions follow quite different 243 transport pathways determined by their source locations, meteorological 244 conditions, emission injection height, and physical and chemical 245 characteristics of aerosol species. Aerosols from Northeastern China are 246





transported southeastward by the northwesterly winds (Fig. 1b). From the 247 North China Plain, aerosols can be transported either southward reaching 248 Eastern, Southern and Southwestern China during Week 1 or across east 249 coast of China to the oceanic region during Week 2-3. Aerosols originating 250 from Eastern China move straight to Southwestern and Southern China 251 during Week 1-2, while they also entered the North China Plain during 252 Week 2-3. Aerosols emitted from Southern China and Central-West China 253 have no obvious transport due to their relatively weak emissions. In 254 additional to the local impact, emissions from Southwestern China affect 255 mostly the Southern China and Eastern China. Air parcels with high levels 256 of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from South and Southeast Asia moved into Southwestern, 257 Southern and Eastern China and even the North China Plain during the 258 259 three time periods.

The vertical distributions of PM<sub>2.5</sub> emitted from six major tagged 260 source regions are shown in Figs. S2 and S3. The PM<sub>2.5</sub> has much higher 261 concentrations in the lower troposphere and decreases with increasing 262 height. During Week 1-2, owing to the presence of high PM<sub>2.5</sub> loadings, a 263 stronger vertical mixing and transport brought more PM<sub>2.5</sub> to the upper 264 troposphere compared to that during Week 3. High concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> 265 originating from the North China Plain extended southeastward by strong 266 northwesterly winds. Weak winds over Eastern China led to accumulations 267 of PM<sub>2.5</sub> within this region, which is consistent with the findings in Yang 268





et al. (2017a). Strong southwesterly winds in the south of Southwestern
China and weak winds in the north of this region produced convergences
and updrafts that lift aerosols up to 700 hPa.

Considering that the emissions outside China contribute greatly to 272 PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in Southwestern China through transboundary 273 transport (Yang et al., 2017a) and aerosols from East Asia can be 274 transported to the North Pacific and even North America (Yu et al., 2008; 275 276 Yang et al., 2018c), it is of great importance to study the inflow and outflow of PM<sub>2.5</sub> across the boundaries of China. Figures 5 and 6 show the vertical 277 distribution of PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations resulting from emissions within and 278 outside China over 29°N, 88°E and 21°N around the south boundaries 279 (cross-sections (CS) 1-3 in Fig. 1a) and 123° E around the east boundary 280 (CS 4 in Fig. 1a) of the mainland of China. Over the southern border,  $PM_{25}$ 281 concentrations are more influenced by transboundary transport of aerosols 282 from ROW than those originating from domestic emissions. The high 283 concentrations of PM2.5 from South and Southeast Asia are lifted into the 284 free atmosphere of the Tibetan Plateau and Yun-Gui Plateau, and then 285 transported to Southern and Southwestern China by southwesterly winds. 286 Over the North China Plain and Eastern China, northwesterly winds at 35-287 45° N and southwesterly winds at 25-35° N cause aerosols to accumulate 288 in the lower atmosphere and then export across east border of China below 289 700 hPa. 290





# **5. Source apportionment of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in China during the COVID-19**

## 292 5.1 Source contributions to PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden

Figure 7 shows the simulated relative contributions in percentage to 293 PM<sub>2.5</sub> column burden from local source emissions, regional transport from 294 the untagged regions of China (rest of China, RCN) and rest of the world 295 (ROW). Over the North China Plain, where emissions are relatively high, 296 PM<sub>2.5</sub> column burden is dominated by local emissions during the three time 297 periods. In contrast, regions with relative low emissions are mainly 298 affected by nonlocal sources, especially by foreign contributions. 299 Emissions from the ROW contribute a large amount to PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden over 300 Northeastern, Southern, Central-West, Southwestern, Northwestern China 301 and the Tibetan Plateau. PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden in Eastern China is greatly 302 contributed by the sources from RCN, especially in Week 1 when regional 303 transport of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from the North China Plain is relatively strong (Fig. S3). 304 Table 1 summarizes the contributions of tagged source regions to the 305 PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden over different receptor regions in China. In Northeastern 306 China, 36%-43% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> column burden comes from local emissions, 307 while a larger portion (39%-54%) is contributed by emissions from ROW 308 during the three time periods. The impacts of nonlocal sources within 309 China on PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden are relatively low in Northeastern China during 310 Week 1 with the contribution of less than 5%, while RCN is responsible for 311 23% and 25% during Week 2 and Week 3, respectively. 312





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

In Eastern China, local emissions account for 27–40% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> column 319 burden, while ROW contributes 20-45%. Southern China and Central-320 West China have 13-18% and 25-31% of local source contributions, 321 respectively, whereas 37-64% are due to emissions from outside China in 322 these two regions. In Southwestern China, 15-18% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden 323 originates from local emissions and 7-24% is from RCN. ROW emissions 324 325 play important roles in affecting PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden over this region, with relative contributions in a range of 59–78% during the three time periods, 326 which is associated with the transboundary transport by southwesterly 327 winds. PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden over the Northwestern China and Himalayas and 328 Tibetan Plateau with relatively low local emissions are strongly influenced 329 by nonlocal sources, where more than 70% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden originates 330 from emissions outside China. 331

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

In spite of the large reductions in emissions, severe air pollution events
 still occurred in China during the COVID-19 lockdown. Source attribution





of PM<sub>2.5</sub> during polluted days in China has policy implications for future 335 air pollution control. In Beijing, capital of China over the North China 336 Plain, a serious haze event happened from February 11 to 13, 2020 during 337 the COVID-19 outbreak period according to observations released by 338 CNEMC. CAM5-EAST reproduced the polluted day on February 11 over 339 the North China Plain. In this study, the most polluted day is defined as the 340 day with the highest daily PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration in February 2020 for each 341 receptor region in China. Figure 8 presents the composite differences in 342 near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations and 850 hPa wind fields between 343 polluted days and normal days (all days in February 2020) for each receptor 344 region. The local and nonlocal source contributions to the PM2.5 differences 345 are summarized in Fig. 9. 346

Unexpectedly, near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in the North China 347 Plain and Eastern China experienced remarkable increases during the 348 polluted days of COVID-19 lockdown. The simulated PM2.5 concentrations 349 increased, with the largest increases of more than 20  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> in the North 350 China Plain and Eastern China, 10  $\mu g\ m^{-3}$  maximum increase in the 351 Southwestern China and 5 µg m<sup>-3</sup> in the Northeastern, Southern and 352 Central-West China, during the most polluted days compared to the normal 353 days. 354

The increase in near-surface  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations during the most polluted day over Northeastern China is largely influenced by the local





emissions, which contribute to a regional averaged concentration increase of 1.1  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>. This is mainly due to the accumulation of local aerosols under the weakened prevailing northwesterly winds over this region.

When the PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution occurred in the North China Plain, the 360 concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> was 16.1  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> higher than that in normal days. 361 The contribution from local emissions accounts for 66% of the averaged 362 increase, which was related to the stagnant air condition (i.e., weakened 363 lower tropospheric winds) resulting from the anomalous mid-tropospheric 364 high pressure located at the climatological location of the East Asia trough 365 (Fig. S4). Sources from Eastern China also explain 4.3  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> (27%) of the 366 total increase over the North China Plain. 367

<sup>368</sup> During the most polluted day in Eastern China (the same day as the <sup>369</sup> polluted day in North China Plain), the regional averaged increase in  $PM_{2.5}$ <sup>370</sup> concentrations is 16 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, which is primarily contributed by the local <sup>371</sup> emissions. While the contribution from the North China Plain decreased in <sup>372</sup> the polluted day, the anomalous southerly winds brought more aerosols <sup>373</sup> from Southern China and ROW into Eastern China, contributing to 4% and <sup>374</sup> 10% aerosol increase, respectively.

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





379 (65% of the total increase).

380 When Southwestern China was under the polluted condition, PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration was increased by 2.1  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>. Emissions from ROW, 381 especially those from South and Southeast Asia, are of great significance 382 to the increase of PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations due to the enhanced southwesterly 383 winds over this region. The relative contribution from ROW emissions is 384 more than 50% over Southwestern China during the most polluted day. It 385 highlights that the important role of transboundary transport needs to be 386 considered when controlling local emissions to improve air quality in the 387 near future. 388

389

### 390 6. Conclusions and discussions

An explicit aerosol source tagging is implemented in the Community 391 Atmosphere Model version 5 (CAM5-EAST) to examine the aerosol 392 transport pathways and source attribution of PM2.5 in China during the first 393 few weeks of the COVID-19 outbreak (Week 1: January 30-February 5, 394 Week 2: February 6–February 12 and Week 3: February 13–February 19). 395 The contributions of emissions to PM<sub>2.5</sub> originating from eight source 396 regions in the mainland of China, including Northeastern China, North 397 China Plain, Eastern China, Southern China, Central-West China, 398 Southwestern China, Northwestern China and Himalayas and Tibetan 399 Plateau, and sources outside China (ROW) to near-surface concentrations, 400





401 column burdens, transport pathways of  $PM_{2.5}$ , and haze formation in 402 different receptor regions in China are quantified in this study.

Aerosols emitted from the North China Plain, where the air quality is often poor, can be transported through Eastern China and reach Southwestern China during the three time periods. Similarly, aerosols from Eastern China move straight to Southern China and Southwestern China during Week 1 and Week 2, and a significant portion can also enter the North China Plain during Week 2 and Week 3.

Across the southern boundary of the mainland of China, high concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> from South and Southeast Asia are lifted into the free atmosphere and then transported to Southern and Southwestern China. While PM<sub>2.5</sub> from the North China Plain and Eastern China can also be brought out of China via westerly winds, mostly below 700 hPa.

PM<sub>2.5</sub> in China is affected not only by local emissions but also by long-414 range transport of pollutants from distant source regions. Over the North 415 China Plain, 40-66% of the PM2.5 burden is attributed to local emissions 416 during the COVID-19 outbreak. They also impact PM<sub>2.5</sub> in neighboring 417 regions, accounting for 14-33% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden in Eastern China and 418 7-23% in Southern China during the three time periods. Northeastern 419 China has 36%-43% of local source contributions to its PM<sub>2.5</sub> column 420 burden, while 39%-54% is contributed by emissions from ROW during the 421 three time periods. In Eastern China, local emissions explain 27-40% of 422





PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden, while ROW contributes 20–45%. In Southwestern China,
59–78% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> burden is contributed by emissions from ROW. Over
the Northwestern China and Himalayas and Tibetan Plateau, ROW
emissions have a great contribution of more than 70% to the PM<sub>2.5</sub> column
burden.

Despite the large reductions in emissions, near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> 428 concentrations in the North China Plain and Eastern China increased a lot 429 during the most polluted days of COVID-19 lockdown (with the highest 430 daily PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration in February 2020), with the largest increases of 431 more than 20 µg m<sup>-3</sup>. In addition to local emissions, regional transport of 432 pollutants is also an important factor that causes haze events in China. The 433 increases in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations during the most polluted days over the 434 North China Plain and Eastern China are largely influenced by the stagnant 435 air condition resulting from the anomalous high pressure system and 436 weakening of winds, which lead to a reduced ventilation and aerosol 437 accumulation in the North China Plain, together with an increase in aerosol 438 inflow from regional transport. During the most polluted day in 439 Southwestern China, ROW contributes over 50% of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> 440 concentration increase, with enhanced southwesterly winds that drive 441 pollution transport from South and Southeast Asia. It indicates that regional 442 transport and unfavorable meteorology need to be taken into consideration 443 when controlling local emissions to improve air quality in the near future. 444





There are a few uncertainties in this study. The CAM5 model has low 445 biases in reproducing the near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in China, 446 compared to observations, in part due to the incapability of simulating 447 some aerosol components of PM2.5 (e.g., ammonium and nitrate), excessive 448 aerosol wet removal during the long-range transport (Wang et al., 2013), 449 and uncertainties in observations. Uncertainties in the estimate of emission 450 reductions in different source regions during the COVID-19 pandemic can 451 also introduce uncertainties to our results. During the COVID-19 lockdown, 452 greenhouse gas emissions also decreased (Le Quéré et al., 2020), but the 453 effect of greenhouse gas reduction on meteorology that potentially 454 influence aerosol distributions was not taken into consideration. 455 Nevertheless, this study is the first attempt to provide source 456 apportionment of aerosols in China during the COVID-19 outbreak, which 457 is beneficial to the investigation of policy implications for future air 458 pollution control. 459





# 460 Data availability.

461	The	CAM5	moc	lel	is	availab	le	at			
462	http://www	.cesm.ucar.ed	u/model	s/cesm1.2	/ (last acce	ss: 25 O	ctober 20	20).			
463	CAM5-EAS	ST model cod	le and re	sults can b	be made av	ailable u	pon requ	est.			
464	The surface $PM_{2.5}$ observations are from the China National Environmental										
465	Monitoring	Center (Cl	NEMC,	http://ww	w.cnemc.c	en, last	access:	25			
466	October 202	20)									
467	Competing	interests.									
468	The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.										

469 Author contribution.

470 YY and LR designed the research; YY performed the model simulations;

471 LR analyzed the data. All authors discussed the results and wrote the paper.

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- 693 **Table 1.** Fractional contributions of emissions from nine tagged source regions (vertical
- $a_{2.5}$  axis) to mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> column burden in eight receptor regions (horizontal axis) during the three time periods.

					We	ek 1				
	NEC -	0.43	0.02	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
source	NCP -	0.01	0.66	0.33	0.23	0.07	0.09	0.00	0.00	
	ESC -	0.00	0.04	0.38	0.15	0.05	0.09	0.00	0.00	
	STC -	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.18	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	
	CWC -	0.00	0.05	0.02	0.01	0.27	0.02	0.00	0.00	
	SWC -	0.01	0.01	0.04	0.05	0.12	0.17	0.01	0.01	
	NWC -	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.19	0.01	
	HTP -	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.03	0.03	
	ROW -	0.54	0.20	0.20	0.37	0.41	0.59	0.77	0.95	
		1			We	ek 2	1			
	NEC -	0.36	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
	NCP -	0.18	0.59	0.17	0.07	0.06	0.02	0.00	0.00	
	ESC -	0.02	0.13	0.40	0.13	0.07	0.08	0.00	0.00	
5	STC -	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.17	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.00	
3	cwc-	0.01	0.07	0.02	0.01	0.25	0.00	0.00	0.00	
2	SWC -	0.00	0.02	0.06	0.07	0.09	0.18	0.00	0.01	
	NWC -	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.17	0.01	
	HTP -	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.03	0.03	
	ROW -	0.41	0.17	0.31	0.55	0.46	0.68	0.80	0.95	
		1			We	ek 3				
	NEC -	0.36	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
	NCP -	0.15	0.40	0.14	0.09	0.01	0.02	0.00	0.00	
P)	ESC -	0.06	0.19	0.27	0.10	0.02	0.03	0.00	0.00	
2	STC -	0.00	0.02	0.07	0.13	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	
n	cwc -	0.02	0.04	0.01	0.00	0.31	0.01	0.00	0.00	
2	SWC -	0.02	0.06	0.06	0.03	0.11	0.15	0.01	0.01	
	NWC -	0.01	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.16	0.01	
	HTP -	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.02	0.04	
	ROW -	0.39	0.25	0.45	0.64	0.45	0.78	0.80	0.93	
		NEC	NCP	ESC	STC	cwc	swc	NWC	HTP	
					rec	eptor				









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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<sup>-1</sup>, vectors) at 850 hPa
during the time period of interest. Lines in (a) mark the cross-sections (CS) defined to
study the transport of aerosols to and from China.

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- Figure 2. The number of daily newly-diagnosed cases in China from January 23 to
- February 27, 2020, during the COVID-19.







(a)  $PM_{2.5}$  surface conc. (µg m<sup>-3</sup>)

715 716 **Figure 3.** Spatial distribution of (a) the simulated and observed mean near-surface

PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations ( $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) and (b) PM<sub>2.5</sub> column burden (mg m<sup>-2</sup>) during January 30–February 5 (Week 1), February 6–February 12 (Week 2) and February 13–February

719 19 (Week 3).







PM<sub>2.5</sub> column burden (mg m<sup>-2</sup>)

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Figure 4. Spatial distribution of PM<sub>2.5</sub> column burden (mg m<sup>-2</sup>) originating from the
 six major source regions in China (NEC, NCP, ESC, STC, CWC and SWC) and sources
 outside China (ROW) during the three time periods.







Figure 5. Vertical distributions of PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations (μg m<sup>-3</sup>), originating from
 emissions outside China (i.e., ROW sources), across the latitudinal and/or longitudinal
 extents marked in Fig.1, respectively, during the three time periods.







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Figure 6. Vertical distributions of  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations ( $\mu g m^{-3}$ ), 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.

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- rest of China (RCN) and (c) all sources outsidecolumn burden during the three time periods.
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**Figure 8.** Composite differences in winds at 850 hPa (m s<sup>-1</sup>) and near-surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations ( $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) between polluted and normal days in February 2020. The

polluted day is defined as the day with the highest daily PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration in February
2020 in each receptor region in China.







Figure 9. Composite differences in near-surface  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations (µg m<sup>-3</sup>) averaged over receptor regions (marked on the horizontal axis) in China between polluted and normal days in February 2020 originating from individual source regions (corresponding color bars in each column).