

1 **Long-term trends and drivers of aerosol pH in eastern China**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Aerosol acidity plays a key role in regulating the chemistry and toxicity of atmospheric aerosol particles.
22 The trend of aerosol pH and its drivers are crucial in understanding the multiphase formation pathways
23 of aerosols. Here, we reported the first trend analysis of aerosol pH from 2011 to 2019 in eastern China,
24 calculated with the ISORROPIA model based on observed gas and aerosol compositions. The
25 implementation of the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan led to -35.8%, -37.6%, -9.6%, -
26 81.0% and 1.2% changes of PM_{2.5}, SO₄²⁻, NH_x, non-volatile cations (NVCs) and NO₃⁻ in the Yangtze
27 River Delta (YRD) region during this period. Different from the drastic changes of aerosol compositions
28 due to the implementation of the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan, aerosol pH showed
29 a minor change of -0.24 over the 9 years. Besides the multiphase buffer effect, the opposite effects from
30 the changes of SO₄²⁻ and non-volatile cations played key roles in determining this minor pH trend,
31 contributing to a change of +0.38 and -0.35, respectively. Seasonal variations in aerosol pH were mainly
32 driven by the temperature, while the diurnal variations were driven by both temperature and relative
33 humidity. In the future, SO₂, NO_x and NH₃ emissions are expected to be further reduced by 86.9%, 74.9%
34 and 41.7% in 2050 according to the best health effect pollution control scenario (SSP1-26-BHE). The
35 corresponding aerosol pH in eastern China is estimated to increase by ~0.19, resulting in 0.04 less NO₃⁻
36 and 0.12 less NH₄⁺ partitioning ratios, which suggests that NH₃ and NO_x emission controls are effective
37 in mitigating haze pollution in eastern China.

38

39 **1 Introduction**

40 Aerosol acidity is an important parameter in atmospheric chemistry. It affects the particle mass and
41 chemical composition by regulating the reactions of aerosols, and is closely associated with human health,
42 ecosystems and climate (Li et al., 2017; Nenes et al., 2020b; Pye et al., 2020; Su et al., 2020). Aerosol
43 acidity has attracted an increasing concern in recent years because of its impacts on the thermodynamics
44 of gas-particle partitioning, pH-dependent condensed-phase reactions and trace metal solubility (Cheng
45 et al., 2016; Fang et al., 2017; Guo et al., 2017b; Guo et al., 2016; He et al., 2018; Song et al., 2018;
46 Weber et al., 2016; Su et al., 2020; Tilgner et al., 2021).

47 Thermodynamic models, such as E-AIM (Clegg et al., 1998) and ISORROPIA II, are commonly used
48 for aerosol pH estimations, due to the limitations and difficulties in direct measurements (Fountoukis and
49 Nenes, 2007; Hennigan et al., 2015). Previously reported aerosol pH generally ranged from -1 to 6 on a
50 global scale (Pye et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2020; Su et al., 2020). In the United States, aerosols were
51 reported to be highly acidic, with pH values of approximately 0–2 (Guo et al., 2015; Nah et al., 2018;
52 Pye et al., 2018; Zheng et al., 2020). In comparison, aerosols in mainland China and Europe were
53 generally less acidic with aerosol pH ranging between 2.5 and 6 (Guo et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2018; Masiol
54 et al., 2020; Shi et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2020).

55 Aerosol pH exhibits notable spatial and temporal variabilities due to changes in factors such as
56 temperature, relative humidity (RH), and aerosol compositions (Pye et al., 2018; Nenes et al., 2020a; Tao
57 et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2020). Very few studies have investigated the trend and spatial variability of
58 aerosol pH and its drivers. Weber et al. (2016) showed that aerosols remained highly acidic upon large
59 (~70%) reduction of particulate sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) during summertime in the southeastern United States over
60 the past 15 years. Based on the 10-year observations conducted at six Canadian sites, Tao and Murphy
61 (2019) suggested that meteorological parameters were more important than the chemical compositions
62 in controlling aerosol pH. Zheng et al. (2020) found that aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) and
63 temperature were the main factors that contribute to the pH difference observed between the wintertime
64 North China Plain and summertime southeastern United States, whereas the change of chemical
65 composition only played a minor role (15%). In China, the long-term trend of aerosol pH and its drivers
66 remain poorly understood, especially in recent years when the emissions and aerosol compositions
67 changed substantially.

68 To tackle severe particulate matter pollution in China, the Chinese government released the Air
69 Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (hereinafter referred to as the Action Plan) in September
70 2013, which is the first plan specifying air quality goals in China (Cai et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018; Zheng
71 et al., 2018). The implementation of the Action Plan has led to significant changes in the concentrations
72 and chemical compositions of fine particulate matter ($\text{PM}_{2.5}$), thus may altering aerosol pH and
73 subsequently feedback to the multiphase formation pathways of aerosols such as sulfate, nitrate and
74 ammonium (Cheng et al., 2016; Vasilakos et al., 2018; Nenes et al., 2020a).

75 In this study, we performed a comprehensive analysis on the long-term trends of aerosol pH and its

76 drivers in Shanghai, China. The thermodynamic model ISORROPIA II (version 2.1) (Fountoukis and
77 Nenes, 2007) was applied to estimate the pH based on 9-year continuous online measurements of PM_{2.5}
78 compositions at an urban site in Shanghai. The main purposes of this study are to: (1) characterize the
79 long-term trend of aerosol pH; (2) investigate the seasonal and diurnal variations of aerosol pH and the
80 main factors that affect these changes and (3) predict future pH under different emission control scenarios.
81 The results presented here can help advance our understanding in aerosol chemistry, providing a scientific
82 basis to the development of effective pollution control strategy in the future.

83 **2 Material and Methods**

84 **2.1 Ambient measurements**

85 The observation site in this study is located at the Shanghai Academy of Environmental Sciences (SAES,
86 31°10'N, 121°25'E), which sits in the densely populated city centre of Shanghai (Figure S1). In the
87 absence of significant nearby industrial sources, this sampling site represents a typical urban area of
88 Shanghai affected by emissions from vehicular traffic, commercial, and residential activities (Qiao et al.,
89 2014; Zhou et al., 2016).

90 Gases and PM_{2.5} components were continuously sampled by an on-line analyser to monitor aerosols
91 and gases (MARGA ADI 2080, Applikon Analytical B.V) from 2011 to 2019. Hourly mass
92 concentrations of major inorganic components were obtained, including gaseous components, i.e.,
93 hydrogen chloride (HCl), nitrous acid (HNO₂), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitric acid (HNO₃), ammonia (NH₃)
94 and particulate components, i.e., SO₄²⁻, nitrate (NO₃⁻), chloride (Cl⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), sodium (Na⁺),
95 potassium (K⁺), calcium (Ca²⁺) and magnesium (Mg²⁺). Details of measurements have been given in
96 Qiao et al. (2014), thus are only briefly described here. To better track the changes in retention time of
97 different ion species and ensure their concentrations were measured correctly, an internal standard check
98 was conducted every hour with lithium bromide (LiBr) standard solution (Qiao et al., 2014; Zhou et al.,
99 2016). The sampling system of MARGA was cleaned and multi-point calibrations with the standard
100 solutions were performed every three months to ensure the accuracy of measurements. To ensure the data
101 quality, ion balance between the measured charge equivalent concentrations of cation (NH₄⁺, Na⁺, K⁺,
102 Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺) and anion (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻ and Cl⁻) species was examined as shown in Figure S2. Strong
103 correlation ($R^2 = 0.94$) was found between the cations and anions, suggesting good data quality during

104 the measurement period. We note that data during 2011-2016 were more scattered than those during
 105 2017-2019, likely due to the significant decreases in Ca^{2+} , K^+ and Mg^{2+} from 2011 to 2019 (Figure S3-
 106 S5). In previous studies, intercomparison experiments between MARGA and filter-based method have
 107 been carried out, and the data measured by MARGA showed acceptable accuracy and precision (Rumsey
 108 et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2014; Stieger et al., 2018). A Thermal/Optical Carbon Aerosol Analyzer (model
 109 RT-4, Sunset laboratory Inc.) equipped with a $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ cyclone was used for the organic carbon
 110 measurement at a time resolution of 1 hour. The $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentrations were measured
 111 simultaneously using an on-line beta attenuation PM monitor (FH 62 C14 series, Thermo Fisher
 112 Scientific) at a time resolution of 5 min.

113 Temperature and RH, which are important factors affecting aerosol pH, were also measured at a time
 114 resolution of 1 min. Annually averaged temperature and RH from 2011 to 2019 are shown in Figure S6.
 115 The *t*-test results revealed that temperature rose significantly at a rate of 1.2 %/yr ($p < 0.01$), while RH
 116 changed little.

117

118 2.2 Aerosol pH prediction

119 The aerosol pH was predicted using the ISORROPIA II thermodynamic model (Fountoukis and Nenes,
 120 2007). ISORROPIA II can calculate the equilibrium H_{air}^+ and aerosol liquid water content of inorganic
 121 material (ALWC_i) with the input of concentrations of the total SO_4^{2-} (TH_2SO_4 , replaced by observed
 122 SO_4^{2-}), total NO_3^- (TNO_3 , gas HNO_3 plus particle NO_3^-), total ammonia (NH_x , gas NH_3 plus particle
 123 NH_4^+), total Cl^- (TCl , replaced by observed Cl^- due to the low concentration and large measurement
 124 uncertainties of HCl) (Fu et al., 2015; Ding et al., 2019), non-volatile cations (NVCs, observed Na^+ , K^+ ,
 125 Ca^{2+} , Mg^{2+}) and meteorological parameters (temperature and RH) (Guo et al., 2016). H_{air}^+ and ALWC_i
 126 are then used to obtain the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ pH by Eq. (1).

$$127 \text{ pH} = -\log_{10} \text{H}_{\text{aq}}^+ \cong -\log_{10} \frac{1000\text{H}_{\text{air}}^+}{\text{ALWC}_i + \text{ALWC}_o} \cong -\log_{10} \frac{1000\text{H}_{\text{air}}^+}{\text{ALWC}_i}, \quad (1)$$

128 where H_{aq}^+ is the H^+ concentration in solution (mol/L), H_{air}^+ is the H^+ loading for an air sample ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
 129 and ALWC_i and ALWC_o are the aerosol liquid water contents of inorganic and organic species,
 130 respectively ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). ALWC_o is calculated by Eq. (2) (Guo et al., 2015).

$$131 \quad ALWC_o = \frac{m_{org}\rho_w}{\rho_{org}} \frac{\kappa_{org}}{\left(\frac{1}{RH}-1\right)}, \quad (2)$$

132 where m_{org} is the mass concentration of organic aerosol, ρ_w is the density of water ($\rho_w=1.0\text{g/cm}^3$),
 133 ρ_{org} is the density of organics ($\rho_{org}=1.4\text{g/cm}^3$) (Guo et al., 2015), and κ_{org} is the hygroscopicity
 134 parameter of organic aerosol ($\kappa_{org} = 0.087$) (Li et al., 2016). The concentration of organic aerosol was
 135 estimated by multiplying the measured concentration of organic carbon by a factor of 1.6 (Turpin and
 136 Lim, 2001). The average concentrations of $ALWC_o$ and $ALWC_i$ in Shanghai from 2011 to 2019 were
 137 $4.1 (\pm 10.2)$ and $32.6 (\pm 52.5) \mu\text{g/m}^3$, respectively. $ALWC_o$ only accounted for 11.1% of the total aerosol
 138 liquid water content. The pH predictions in previous studies were insensitive to $ALWC_o$ unless the
 139 mass fraction of $ALWC_o$ to the total aerosol liquid water content was close to unity (Guo et al., 2015).
 140 The use of $ALWC_i$ to predict pH is therefore fairly accurate and common (Battaglia et al., 2017; Ding
 141 et al., 2019; Battaglia Jr et al., 2019). In this study, ISORROPIA II was run in the forward mode and
 142 ‘metastable’ state. Calculations using total (gas and aerosol) measurements in the forward mode are
 143 less affected by measurement errors (Hennigan et al., 2015; Song et al., 2018). A detailed description of
 144 the pH calculations can be found in previous studies (Guo et al., 2017a; Guo et al., 2015; Song et al.,
 145 2018).

146 Figure S7 compares the predicted vs. measured concentrations of NH_3 , NH_4^+ , NO_3^- and HNO_3 . The
 147 results show that the predicted and measured concentrations of NH_3 , NH_4^+ and NO_3^- are in good
 148 agreements (R^2 values all over 0.89 and slopes close to 1.00), indicating that the thermodynamic analysis
 149 accurately represents the aerosol state. However, the predicted and measured concentrations of HNO_3
 150 are not well correlated, which is also observed in previous studies (Ding et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2015).
 151 The reason for the gap can be attributed to (1) lower concentrations of gas-phase HNO_3 than that of
 152 particle-phase NO_3^- , (2) MARGA has high uncertainty for HNO_3 measurement (Rumsey et al., 2014).
 153 The development of an alternative approach is therefore warranted to accurately represent HNO_3 in the
 154 future.

155 **2.3 Drivers of aerosol pH variations**

156 To investigate the factors that drive changes in aerosol pH, sensitivity tests of different factors on pH
 157 variations, including temperature, RH, SO_4^{2-} , TNO_3 , NH_x , Cl^- and NVCs, were performed with the one-
 158 at-a-time method. That is, assuming the aerosol pH estimated under scenario I (pH_I) differs from that

159 under scenario II (pH_{II}), the pH difference, ($\Delta pH = pH_{II} - pH_I$), are thus caused by the variations in the
160 factors listed above. To quantify the contributions of individual factors, we varied the factor i from the
161 value in scenario I to the value in scenario II while keeping the other factors constant. The corresponding
162 changes in pH, ΔpH_i , were assumed to represent the contribution of the change of this individual factor
163 to the overall aerosol pH variations. Note that because of the nonlinear dependence of pH to different
164 factors, the sum of contributions of individual factors can be slightly different from the overall
165 contributions of all factors. The unresolved contributors to pH differences, i.e., $\Delta pH - \sum_i \Delta pH_i$, were
166 attributed to “others”, which might represent the contribution of covariations between the factors. This
167 method was used for the results presented in Figure 1b, Figure 3 and Figure 5, where the corresponding
168 scenarios represented the average conditions in different years (Figure 1b), seasons (Figure 3) or diurnal
169 periods (Figure 5).

170 **3 Results and Discussion**

171 **3.1 Long-term trends of aerosol pH**

172 **3.1.1 Trends of aerosol pH**

173 The 9-year time series of aerosol pH calculated by ISORROPIA II is shown in Figure 1a. A declining
174 trend in $PM_{2.5}$ pH from 3.30 ± 0.58 in 2011 to 3.06 ± 0.55 in 2019 was observed, with the fitted decrease
175 rate of around 0.04 pH per year, which may be related to chemical composition changes (Figure S8-S9)
176 due to the pollution control measures taken in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region. The Chinese
177 government started to carry on the Action Plan, a series of air pollution control policies, in September
178 2013, which resulted in declines in $PM_{2.5}$ and its major components (Cheng et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019).
179 Compared to the concentrations before the implementation of the Action Plan (i.e., average of 2011-2012
180 averages), $PM_{2.5}$, SO_4^{2-} , NH_x and NVCs during 2018-2019 decreased by 35.8%, 37.6%, 9.6% and 81.0%,
181 respectively, while NO_3^- increased by 1.2% (Fig. S8). Through the years, SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ and NO_3^- remained
182 the most abundant inorganic water-soluble ions, accounting for 83.4%–94.1% of the total ions in $PM_{2.5}$.
183 While the proportions of NH_4^+ and NO_3^- showed continuous increases (increased by 2.2% and 13.1%
184 from 2011 to 2019, respectively), those of NVCs and SO_4^{2-} decreased by 6.0% and 4.6%, respectively.
185 Despite the substantial changes of aerosol abundance and composition, the aerosol pH only showed a

186 minor change. The effects of changes in PM_{2.5} chemical composition on the aerosol pH will be detailed
187 in Section 3.1.2.

188 The PM_{2.5} in Shanghai was moderately acidic with a daily pH averaging 3.18 and ranging from 1.15
189 to 5.62, similar to those from other cities in China (Shi et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2018). Compared with
190 other countries globally (Table S1), aerosol pH values in Chinese cities of 1.82 to 5.70 were higher than
191 those in US cities of 0.55 to 2.20 (Guo et al., 2015; Pye et al., 2018; Nah et al., 2018), yet similar to those
192 in European cities of 2.30 to 3.90 (Guo et al., 2018; Masiol et al., 2020). Among all of the Chinese cities,
193 the aerosol pH was highest in Inner Mongolia, which might be caused by a higher contribution of crustal
194 dust (Wang et al., 2019). The pH values in Shanghai and Guangzhou were lower than those in North
195 China, which may be due to higher concentrations of NH₃ and dust emissions over the latter region (Shi
196 et al., 2007; Liu et al., 2019).

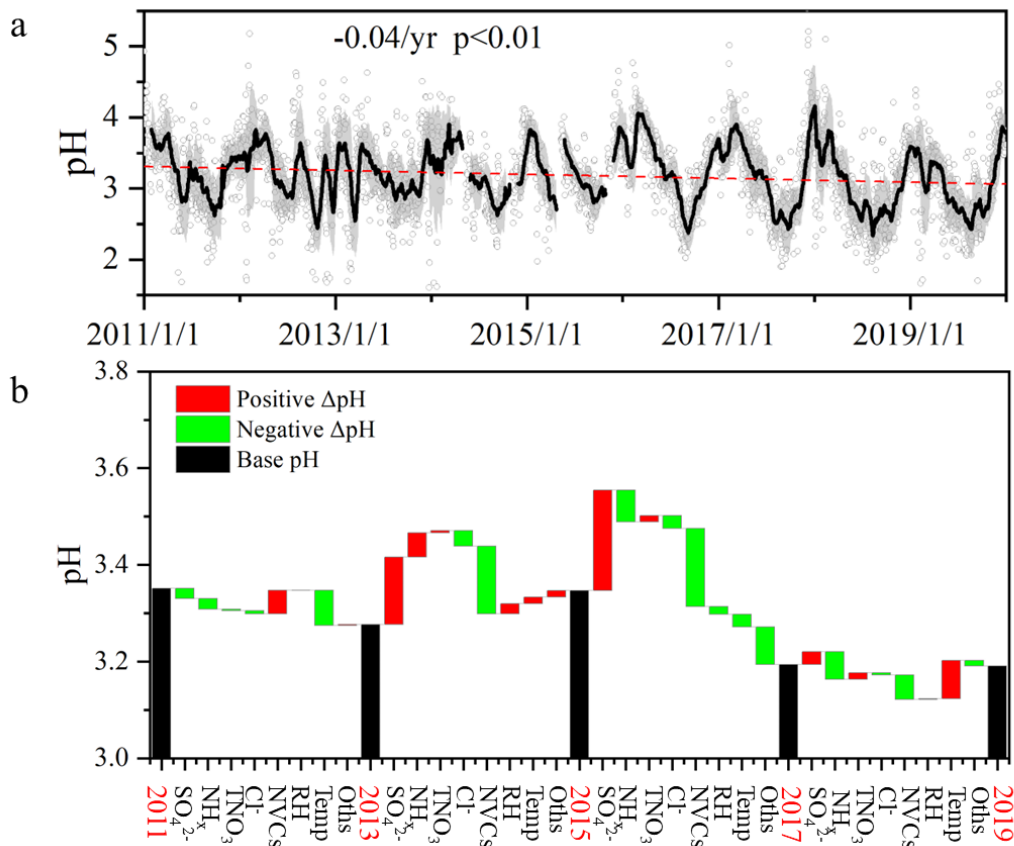
197 **1.1.2 Driving factors.**

198 Figure 1b shows the contributions of individual factors to the ΔpH from 2011 to 2019. Here the bar plots
199 indicate the factors contributing to the ΔpH between two adjacent scenarios as shown in Figure 1b, e.g.,
200 2011 and 2013. See Figure S10a for the factor contribution to the variation from average conditions. Note
201 that in Fig. 1b, the aerosol pH was calculated from the annual averages of input parameters. This is
202 different from Sect 3.1.1, where the annual pH was the average of hourly values based on hourly
203 observation data. As shown in Figure 1b, the aerosol pH decreased from 3.35 in 2011 to 3.28 in 2013.
204 The main factors that affected the pH during 2011-2013 (prior to the implementation of the Action Plan)
205 were the temperature and NVCs. The pH value also continuously decreased from 3.28 in 2013 to 3.19 in
206 2019. Yet, chemical composition showed more prominent effects on the aerosol pH during 2013-2019
207 compared to that of 2011-2013. As aforementioned, upon implementation of the Action Plan (2013-2019),
208 the concentrations of PM_{2.5} and its chemical components decreased substantially (Figure S8). Changes
209 of SO₄²⁻ and NVCs were important determinants in the change of aerosol pH, resulting in ΔpH of +0.38
210 and -0.35 respectively from 2013 to 2019. Changes in the NH_x and Cl⁻ contributed 0.08 and 0.06
211 decreases in ΔpH, respectively, whereas TNO₃ had little impact on the ΔpH. Hence, besides the effect of
212 reduction in SO₄²⁻ (Fu et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2020), our results suggest that the change in NVCs may
213 also play an important role in determining the trend of aerosol pH. During 2017-2019, temperature and
214 NH_x became the main drivers of the ΔpH. The effects of SO₄²⁻ and NVCs on pH were much weaker than

215 those during 2013–2017, consistent with the fact that the declines in pollutant concentrations slowed
 216 down in recent years (Fig. S9).

217 Overall, the changes in SO_4^{2-} and NVCs were the main drivers of the ΔpH upon the implementation
 218 of the Action Plan, and NH_x appeared to play an increasingly important role in determining the aerosol
 219 pH through the years.

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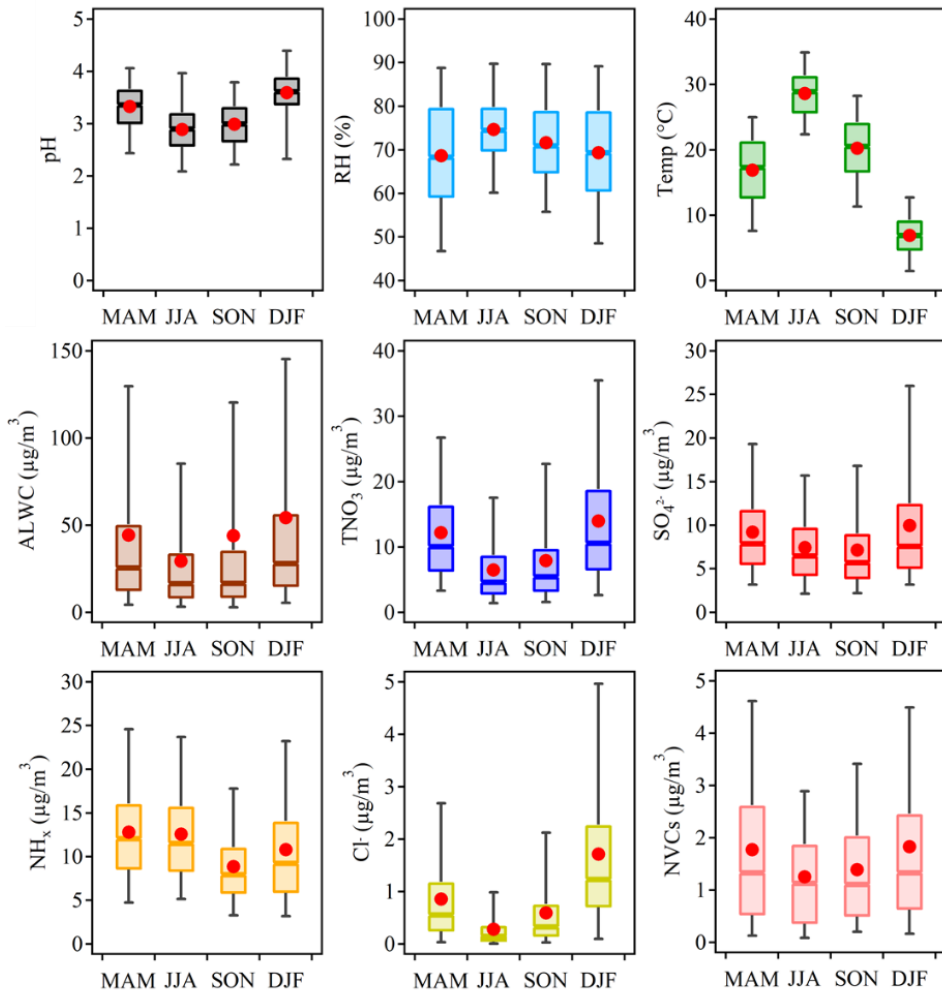
222 **Figure 1. (a) Long-term trends in aerosol pH during 2011–2019 in Shanghai.** Gray dots and black lines
 223 represent the daily pH values and 30-day moving average pH values, respectively. Shaded areas mark the standard
 224 deviation of 30-day moving average pH values. **(b) Contributions of individual factors to the ΔpH from 2011 to**
 225 **2019.** Here the black bars indicate the mean pH of different years, and the red and green bars represent the positive
 226 and negative effects of individual factors on ΔpH between two adjacent scenarios, e.g., 2011 and 2013,
 227 respectively. The meanings of the abbreviations: RH, relative humidity; Temp, temperature; NVCs, non-volatile
 228 cations; NH_x , total ammonia; TNO_3 , total nitrate; Oths, others.

229 3.2 Seasonal variation

230 Figure 2 shows the seasonal variations of aerosol pH in Shanghai. The average pH values were $3.33 \pm$
231 0.49 , 2.89 ± 0.49 , 2.99 ± 0.52 and 3.59 ± 0.57 in spring (March–May, MAM), summer (June–August,
232 JJA), fall (September–November, SON) and winter (December–February, DJF), respectively. The
233 highest aerosol pH was found in winter while the lowest pH was found in summer. While the seasonal
234 variations of pH in Shanghai were similar to those observed in Beijing and other cities in North China
235 Plain (Tan et al., 2018; Ding et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020), the absolute values were
236 lower, due to the generally lower $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in YRD.

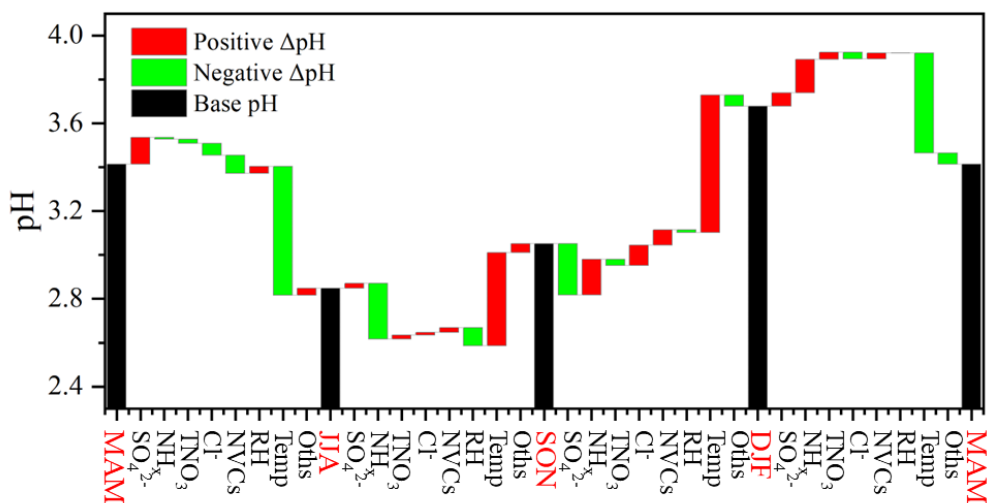
237 Figure 3 shows the contributions of individual factors to the ΔpH across the four seasons. Here the bar
238 plots indicate the factors contributing to the ΔpH between two adjacent seasons, e.g., spring (MAM) and
239 summer (JJA). See Figure S10b for the factor contribution to the variation from average conditions. The
240 aerosol pH was calculated from the mean averages of input parameters in four seasons, and the ΔpH was
241 estimated by varying one factor while holding the other factors fixed in different seasons. According to
242 the multiphase buffer theory, the peak buffer pH, pK_a^* , regulates the aerosol pH in a multiphase-buffered
243 system, and temperature can largely drive the seasonal variation of aerosol pH through its impact on pK_a^*
244 (Zheng et al., 2020). This is evidenced by the results in Figure 3, as temperature showed a dominant role
245 in driving the seasonal variation of aerosol pH. The temperature was associated with a maximum ΔpH
246 of 0.63 from fall to winter. Besides temperature, other two main factors were NH_x and SO_4^{2-} (Figure 3),
247 contributing 16% and 12% of the changes, respectively. Our results suggest a central role of temperature
248 in the determination of seasonal variations in aerosol pH, consistent with the results of Tao and Murphy
249 (Tao and Murphy, 2019) at six Canadian sites and the prediction by the multiphase buffer theory (Zheng
250 et al., 2020). In comparison, some previous studies emphasized the importance of chemical compositions
251 in seasonal variations (Tan et al., 2018; Ding et al., 2019), which is mainly due to the different sensitivity
252 analysis methods applied.

253



254

255 **Figure 2. Seasonal variations of the mass concentrations of major components in PM_{2.5}, relative humidity**
 256 **(RH), temperature (Temp), predicted aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) and aerosol pH during 2011–2019**
 257 **in Shanghai.**



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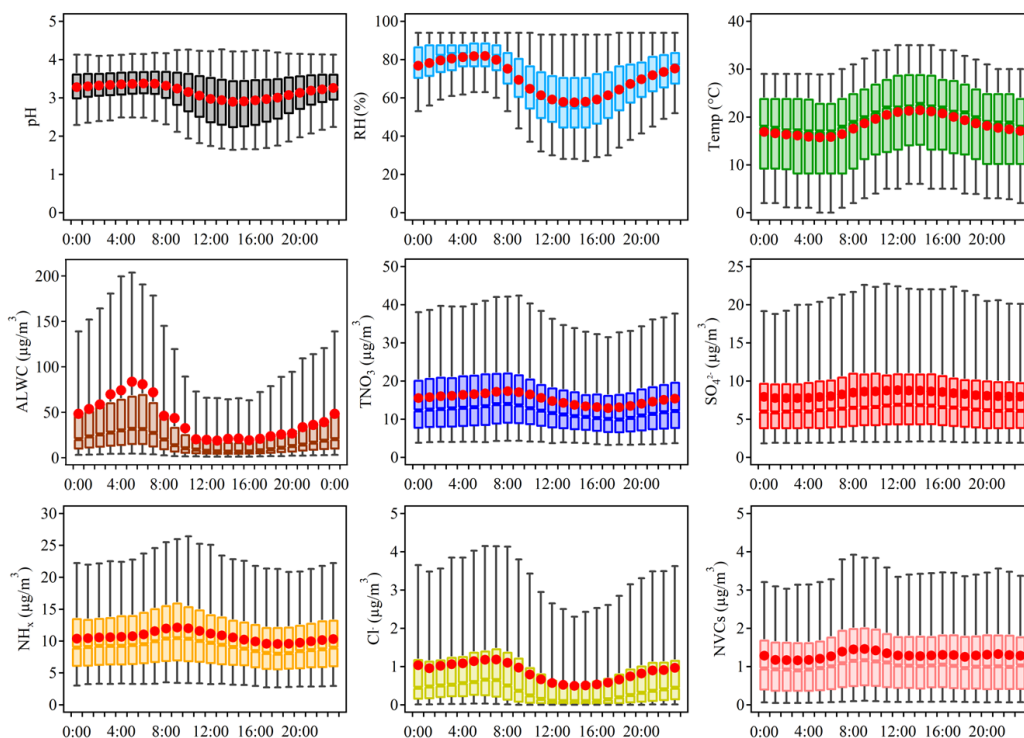
259 **Figure 3. Contributions of individual factors to the ΔpH across the four seasons. Here the black bars indicate**

260 the mean pH of different seasons, and the red and green bars represent the positive and negative effects of individual
261 factors on ΔpH between two adjacent scenarios, e.g., spring (MAM) and summer (JJA), respectively. The meanings
262 of the abbreviations: RH, relative humidity; Temp, temperature; NVCs, non-volatile cations; NH_x , total ammonia;
263 TNO_3 , total nitrate; Oths, others.

264 3.3 Diurnal variation

265 Aerosol pH in Shanghai exhibited notable diurnal variations with higher aerosol acidity observed during
266 daytime. Diurnal variations of aerosol pH as well as those of its potential drivers are depicted in Figure
267 4. We further explored the effects of individual factors on the ΔpH between day and night through
268 sensitivity tests.

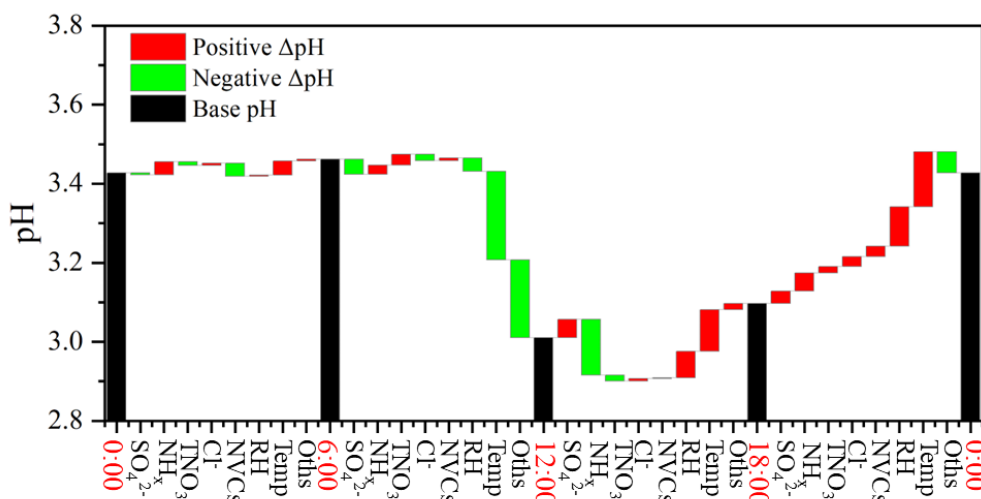
269 The bar plots in Figure 5 indicate the factors contributing to the ΔpH between two adjacent hour
270 periods, e.g., 0:00 and 6:00. See Figure S10c for the combined effects of contributions from different
271 factors on the average ΔpH . The aerosol pH was calculated from the averages of input parameters in 0:00,
272 6:00, 12:00 and 18:00, and ΔpH was estimated by varying one factor while holding the other factors
273 fixed in different hours. Temperature and RH were among the main drivers of the diurnal variation of
274 aerosol pH, with a maximum ΔpH of -0.22 and +0.10, respectively. As shown in Figure 4, the maximum
275 values of RH and ALWC occurred at approximately 5:00. After sunrise, the increase in temperature
276 resulted in an immediate drop of RH with ALWC reaching its lowest level in the afternoon. Accordingly,
277 the minimum aerosol pH (~ 2.8) was also found in the afternoon with high temperature and low RH. After
278 sunset, the decreasing temperature and increasing RH led to the highest aerosol pH overnight. Minor
279 changes in pH were found between 0:00 and 6:00, when temperature and RH also showed minor changes.
280 The impacts of other factors, such as SO_4^{2-} , on the diurnal variations of pH were notably smaller than
281 those on seasonal variations, which may be attributed to the relatively small variations of chemical
282 profiles during the course of a day. Among the chemical compositions, NH_x played the most important
283 role, followed by SO_4^{2-} . Overall, temperature and RH were more important than chemical compositions
284 in regulating the diurnal variations of aerosol pH.



285

286 **Figure 4. Diurnal variations of the mass concentrations of major ions in PM_{2.5}, relative humidity (RH),**
 287 **temperature (Temp), predicted aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) and aerosol pH during 2011–2019 in**
 288 **Shanghai.**

289



290

291 **Figure 5. Contributions of individual factors to the ΔpH between day and night.** Here the black bars indicate
 292 the mean pH of different hours, and the red and green bars represent the positive and negative effects of individual
 293 factors on ΔpH between two adjacent scenarios, e.g., 0:00 and 6:00, respectively. The meanings of the abbreviations:

294 RH, relative humidity; Temp, temperature; NVCs, non-volatile cations; NH_x, total ammonia; TNO₃, total nitrate;
295 Oths, others.

296 **3.4 Future projections**

297 A series of prevention and control measures have been suggested for continuous improvement in air
298 quality, which are expected to affect particulate compositions and subsequently alter aerosol pH in China.
299 To explore China's future anthropogenic emission pathways in 2015–2050, Tong et al. (2020) developed
300 a dynamic projection model, based on which different emission scenarios were created by connecting
301 five socio-economic pathway (SSP) scenarios, five representative concentration pathways (RCP)
302 scenarios (RCP8.5, 7.0, 6.0, 4.5 and 2.6) and three pollution control scenarios (business as usual, BAU;
303 enhanced control policy, ECP; and best health effect, BHE). These scenarios provide a better
304 understanding of future trends in pollutant emissions (Tong et al., 2020).

305 In this study, we chose three different emission reduction scenarios (SSP3-70-BAU, SSP2-45-ECP,
306 and SSP1-26-BHE) as the future anthropogenic emission pathways, and based on which we tried to
307 project future aerosol pH levels in Shanghai. SSP1-26-BHE, which involves a combination of strong
308 low-carbon and air pollution control policy, has the greatest emission reduction, followed by SSP2-45-
309 ECP. SSP3-70-BAU is a reference scenario without additional efforts to constrain emissions. We first
310 tested the sensitivity of aerosol abundances to precursor emissions with the historical data (Figure S11),
311 where the emissions of Shanghai were obtained by the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China
312 (MEIC, <http://meicmodel.org/>, last access: 15 January 2020). We found that the non-volatile sulfate
313 concentrations generally correlated linearly with that of the SO₂ emissions. For the volatile TNO₃ and
314 NH_x, the correlations are less linear, likely due to the different deposition velocities of gases and particles
315 (Pye et al., 2020; Weber et al., 2016; Nenes et al., 2021). The historical emission reductions have resulted
316 in a moderate pH decrease (Figure 1), a moderate increase (0.2% per year) in the NO₃⁻ partitioning, and
317 a decrease (-0.6% per year) in the NH₄⁺ partitioning (Figure S12).

318 For a first-order estimation, we applied the average Δ aerosol / Δ (precursor emissions) in ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$)
319 / (Gg/yr) as derived from the historical data (Figure S11a-c) to the future scenario predictions. Figure 6
320 shows the projected emissions of SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, the predicted pH levels, and the effects of major
321 chemical components (NH_x, SO₄²⁻, and TNO₃) to the Δ pH in Shanghai from 2015 to 2050 under the three

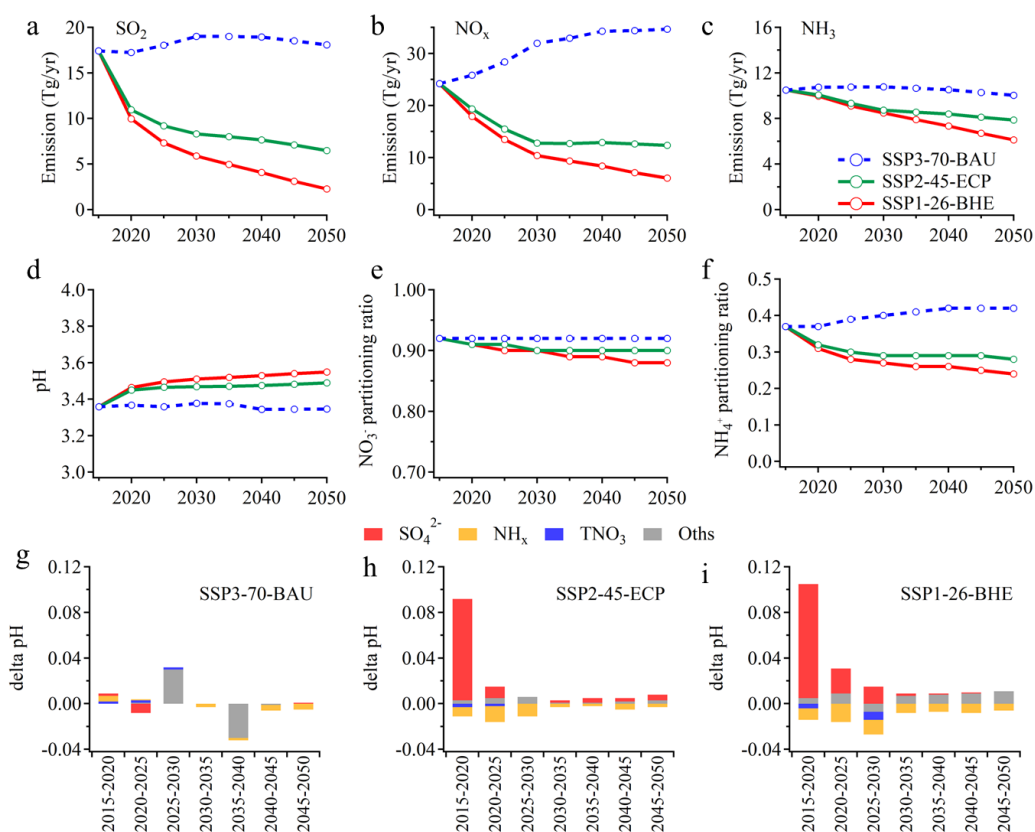
322 scenarios. Based on this assumption, the concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ are expected to drop to
323 ~ 6.3 , 5.7 and $2.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively, in 2050 with the SSP1-26-BHE scenario, generally in agreement
324 with the predicted $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ levels of $\sim 15 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ under a similar scenario (Shi et al., 2021).

325 Under the reference scenario of SSP3-70-BAU with weak control policy (blue dashed lines in Figure
326 6a-f), SO_2 and NO_x are predicted to increase, while the NH_x is relatively stable. NH_x , SO_4^{2-} , and TNO_3
327 have minor effects on ΔpH (Figure 6g). Correspondingly, there are little changes in aerosol pH and the
328 predicted NO_3^- partitioning ratio ($\text{NO}_3^- / (\text{NO}_3^- + \text{HNO}_3)$). However, the NH_4^+ partitioning ratio ($\text{NH}_4^+ /$
329 ($\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{NH}_3$)) will increase substantially, suggesting an enhanced formation of ammonium aerosols.

330 Under the moderate control policy (SSP2-45-ECP), the emissions of SO_2 , NO_x , and NH_3 in 2050 will
331 be reduced by 62.7%, 49.0% and 25.0%, respectively with corresponding decreases in SO_4^{2-} , TNO_3 and
332 NH_x . The predicted pH will increase by ~ 0.13 , and the NH_4^+ partitioning ratio will decrease by 0.09,
333 indicating that relatively more ammonium will exist in the gas phase as NH_3 . The NO_3^- partitioning ratios
334 are relatively stable, suggesting its general insensitivity in the predicted pH ranges (Nenes et al., 2020a).
335 Changes in the SO_4^{2-} , TNO_3 and NH_x will result in ΔpH of +0.18, -0.05 and -0.02 from 2015 to 2050,
336 respectively (Figure 6h).

337 With the strict control policy (SSP1-26-BHE), the emissions of SO_2 , NO_x and NH_3 in 2050 will
338 decrease by 86.9%, 74.9% and 41.7%, respectively, and the concentrations of SO_4^{2-} , TNO_3 and NH_x
339 decrease substantially. The pH value will increase continuously by ~ 0.19 (from 3.36 in 2015 to 3.55 in
340 2050). Changes in SO_4^{2-} are more important determinants of ΔpH , resulting in ΔpH of +0.28 from 2015
341 to 2050. Changes in the TNO_3 and NH_x are associated with 0.04 and 0.09 decreases in ΔpH , respectively.
342 Moreover, the NO_3^- and NH_4^+ partitioning ratios will decrease by 0.04 and 0.12, respectively, indicating
343 a benefit of NH_3 and NO_x emission controls in mitigating haze pollution in eastern China.

344 We also note that above analysis based on the historical average Δ aerosol / Δ (precursor emissions) is
345 subject to uncertainties associated with changes in the atmospheric oxidation capacity, meteorological
346 conditions, etc. It is only a first-order estimation, and a full examination with 3-D chemical transport
347 models is recommended in the future.



348

349 **Figure 6. Emissions of SO₂ (a), NO_x (b), NH₃ (c), predicted pH (d), NO₃⁻ partitioning (NO₃⁻ / (NO₃⁻ + HNO₃))**
 350 **(e) and NH₄⁺ partitioning (NH₄⁺ / (NH₄⁺ + NH₃)) (f) in China from 2015 to 2050 under the three scenarios**
 351 **published in Tong et al.(Tong et al., 2020). Predicted contributions of individual factors to the ΔpH under the**
 352 **three scenarios, including SSP3-70-BAU (g), SSP2-45-ECP (h) and SSP1-26-BHE (i). The stacked color bars**
 353 **below the dashed line represent the factors that had negative impacts on ΔpH and the stacked color bars**
 354 **above the dashed line represent the increase in ΔpH. The meanings of the abbreviations: NH_x, total ammonia;**
 355 **TNO₃, total nitrate; Oths, others.**

356 4 Conclusion

357 The aerosol pH values at an urban site in Shanghai during 2011–2019 were modelled and reported for
 358 the first time based on observed gas and aerosol compositions. Although significant variations of aerosol
 359 compositions were observed from 2011 to 2019 in the YRD region, the estimated aerosol pH declined
 360 only slightly by 0.24. We quantified the contributions from individual factors to the variation of aerosol
 361 pH from 2011 to 2019. We found that besides the multiphase buffer effect, SO₄²⁻ and NVCs changes are
 362 key in regulating the aerosol pH from 2011 to 2019 in Shanghai. SO₄²⁻ and NVCs showed an overall

363 opposite effect on aerosol pH, with a contribution of +0.38 and -0.35, respectively.

364 Distinct seasonal variations in the aerosol pH were observed, with maximum and minimum aerosol
365 pH of 3.59 ± 0.57 in winter and 2.89 ± 0.49 in summer, respectively. Seasonal variations in aerosol pH
366 were mainly driven by the temperature, with the maximum ΔpH of 0.63 between fall and winter. The
367 diurnal cycle of aerosol pH was driven by the combined effects of temperature and RH which could result
368 in ΔpH of -0.22 and +0.10, respectively. These results emphasized the importance of meteorological
369 conditions in controlling the seasonal and diurnal variations of aerosol pH.

370 To explore the effects of China's future anthropogenic emission control pathways on aerosol pH and
371 compositions, we chose three different emission reduction scenarios proposed by Tong et al. (2020) for
372 future haze mitigation, namely SSP3-70-BAU, SSP2-45-ECP and SSP1-26-BHE, as case studies. We
373 found that under the weak control policy (SSP3-70-BAU), the future aerosol pH and NO_3^- partitioning
374 ratio will only have subtle changes. While our results show that future aerosol pH will increase under
375 both strict control policy (SSP1-26-BHE) and moderate control policy (SSP2-45-ECP), the former will
376 result in a more dramatic increase. The significant increase in aerosol pH is mainly associated with the
377 decrease in SO_4^{2-} . In addition, the increase in aerosol pH with strict control policy and moderate control
378 policy will lead to relatively more nitrate and ammonium partitioning in the gas phase, which is beneficial
379 for future $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ pollution control. These results highlight the potential effects of precursor reductions on
380 aerosol pH with future pollution control policy.

381 **Author Contributions**

382 HS, HW, and CH conceived and led the study. MZ conducted the field measurements and carried out the
383 data analysis. MZ and GZ performed model simulations. MZ, HS, HW, CH, GZ, LQ, SZ, DH, YC, JA
384 discussed the results. LQ, SZ, DH, SL, ST, QW, RY, YM, CC conducted the measurements at the station.
385 MZ, HS and GZ wrote the manuscript with input from all co-authors.

386 **Supplement**

387 The supplement is available in a separate file.

388 **Competing interests**

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

390 **Data availability**

391 The data presented in this paper are available upon request from Hang Su (h.su@mpic.de) and Cheng
392 Huang (huangc@saes.sh.cn).

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