



# 1 Impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on the observed vertical distributions of

# 2 PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub> from a tower in the Pearl River Delta

- 3 Lei Li<sup>a, b, c</sup>, Chao Lu<sup>d</sup>, Pak-Wai Chan<sup>e</sup>, Zi-Juan Lan<sup>f</sup>, Wen-Hai Zhang<sup>8</sup>, Hong-Long Yang <sup>d</sup> and Hai-Chao Wang<sup>a, b, c\*</sup>
- 4 a School of Atmospheric Sciences, Sun Yat-Sen University, Zhuhai, 519082, PR China
- 5 b Guangdong Provincial Observation and Research Station for Climate Environment and Air Quality Change in the
- 6 Pearl River Estuary, Zhuhai, 519082, China
- 7 c Key Laboratory of Tropical Atmosphere-Ocean System (Sun Yat-sen University), Ministry of Education, Zhuhai,
- 8 519082, China
- 9 d Shenzhen National Climate Observatory, Meteorological Bureau of Shenzhen Municipality, Shenzhen, 518040,
- 10 PR China
- 11 e Hong Kong Observatory, 999077, Hong Kong
- 12 f Shenzhen Research Academy of Environmental Sciences, Shenzhen, 518001, PR China
- 13 g Shenzhen Academy of Severe Storms Science, Shenzhen, 518057, PR China
- 14 Corresponding author: wanghch27@mail.sysu.edu.cn
- 15
- 16 Abstract. The outbreak of the 2019 novel coronavirus (COVID-19) has brought tremendous impact and influence
- 17 on human health and social economy around the world. The lockdown implemented in China, starting on 23
- 18 January 2020, led to large reductions in human activities and the associated emissions. Sharp declines in primary
- 19 pollution provided a unique chance to examine the relationships between anthropogenic emissions and air quality.
- 20 Here, we report measurements of air pollutants and meteorological parameters at different heights on a tall tower in
- 21 the Pearl River Delta, China, to investigate the response of the vertical scales of pollutants to reductions in human
- 22 activities. Compared to the pre-lockdown period (starting from 16 December 2019), the observations showed that





23	surface layer NO <sub>x</sub> , PM <sub>2.5</sub> and mean values of the daily maximum 8 h average O <sub>3</sub> (MDA8O <sub>3</sub> ) had significant
24	reductions of 76.8%, 49.4%, and 18.6% respectively, but the average O <sub>3</sub> increased (9.7%) during lockdown period.
25	The vertical profiles of $NO_x$ and $O_3$ changed during the lockdown period, but not those of $PM_{2.5}$ . The correlation
26	between $PM_{2.5}$ and $O_3$ was statistically significant, but not that between $PM_{2.5}$ and $NO_x$ for data collected at four
27	different heights during the lockdown period. The significance of these correlations was the opposite during the
28	pre-lockdown period, indicating that the main composition of PM <sub>2.5</sub> has changed dramatically since the lockdown,
29	which is transited from primary aerosol dominating or nitrate dominating (affected by NO <sub>x</sub> ) before lockdown to
30	secondary organic aerosol dominant dominating (affected by O <sub>3</sub> ) during the lockdown. We find weaker diurnal
31	variation of O <sub>3</sub> during the lockdown period is similar to the case at background regions. O <sub>3</sub> concentrations were not
32	sensitive to $NO_x$ concentrations during lockdown, which implies that $O_3$ levels during the lockdown are more
33	representative of the regional background, for which anthropogenic emissions are low and photochemical
34	formation is not a significant ozone source. This evidence suggests that significant reductions of anthropogenic
35	emissions are effective in simultaneous mitigation of PM <sub>2.5</sub> and O <sub>3</sub> levels.
36	Keywords: COVID-19 induced Lockdown, PM <sub>2.5</sub> , NO <sub>x</sub> , O <sub>3</sub> , Tower Observation

37

## 38 1. Introduction

The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic has completely changed the world and caused great losses of life globally. At present, over 200 countries and regions have been affected by the pandemic, and the numbers of infections and deaths caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) and its variants are still rising (Wang et al., 2020). Many countries have chosen to implement lockdowns to bring the pandemic under control; that is, to cut off the spread of SARS-CoV-2 by reducing gatherings and maintaining social distancing among individuals. These measures have generally reduced human activity, decreasing or





- completely halting manufacturing work and the movement of people. Although the lockdowns have had devastating
  socioeconomic impacts, recent studies have shown them to be beneficial for the environment (Chakraborty and
  Maity, 2020).
- 48 The reduction in human activities due to the pandemic has greatly decreased the emission of primary 49 pollutants. This, in turn, has caused significant impacts on regional air quality (Xing et al., 2020; Salma et al., 2020; 50 Wang et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2021) and even climate (Gettelman et al., 2021), albeit differing from region to 51 region. In South East Asia, the lockdown has led to a notable decrease in the aerosol optical depth over the region 52 and in pollution outflow over the oceanic areas, while a significant decrease (27%-30%) in tropospheric nitrogen 53 dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) levels has been observed over territories not affected by seasonal biomass burning (Kanniah et al., 54 2020). Srivastava (2020) noted that the aerosol optical depth had been reduced by up to 50% over the Indo-Gangetic Plain during the lockdown period. In Italy, urban road traffic decreased by 48%-60% on average 55 56 during the country's periods of implemented lockdowns, which greatly decreased the concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> and 57 particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter less than 10 µm (PM<sub>10</sub>) and less than 2.5 µm (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) (Gualtieri et al., 58 2020). Rodríguez-Urrego & Rodríguez-Urrego (2020) found that the average PM2.5 concentration of the 50 most 59 polluted capital cities in the world had decreased by 12% on average. By analysing the emissions data of 28 cities 60 in the USA during its first round of lockdowns (15 March 2020 to 25 April 2020), it was found that 2 out of 3 cities 61 showed greatly reduced NO2 and carbon monoxide (CO) concentrations (with decreases up to 49% and 37%, 62 respectively) compared with the 2017-2019 historical baseline and pre-lockdown levels. These decreases in NO2 and CO concentrations also increased in proportion to the local population density. However, the PM2.5 and PM10 63 64 concentrations only decreased significantly in north-eastern USA, California, and Nevada, which also recorded the 65 largest decreases in NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Rodríguez-Urrego& Rodríguez-Urrego, 2020).
- 66

China was the first country in the world to report SARS-CoV-2 infections to the World Health Organization.





67	The atmospheric environment of China was also significantly affected by the lockdown measures taken during the
68	pandemic, with some studies showing the atmospheric NO <sub>2</sub> concentrations to have been greatly reduced. These
69	reductions first occurred in Wuhan before spreading to the rest of China (Wang and Su, 2020). The Pearl River
70	Delta (PRD) is one of the most important economic zones in China and is also one of the most rapidly urbanising
71	regions in the world. The intensity of human activity in this region is also amongst the highest worldwide (Li et al.,
72	2021). The PRD was once severely affected by air pollution, which manifested as increasingly frequent haze
73	weather and rising PM concentrations. Because of the optimisation of industrial structures and implementation of
74	increasingly stringent pollution control measures, the air quality over the PRD had already been improved
75	significantly over the past decade (Zhang et al., 2015). Nonetheless, because the PRD contains immense
76	transportation networks and a dense distribution of factories, it has been difficult to stamp out pollutant emissions
77	completely. Therefore, the nitric oxide (NO <sub>x</sub> ), PM <sub>2.5</sub> , and ozone (O <sub>3</sub> ) concentrations in the PRD often spike because
78	of unfavourable weather conditions (Li et al., 2020). The pandemic lockdowns have greatly reduced the intensity of
79	human activities in the PRD in a very short time, which has created a rare opportunity for the study of air pollution
80	mechanisms in the area.

81 Ever since the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic, numerous scholars have used this unique window of 82 opportunity to gain important insights into the mechanisms of air pollution. However, most of these studies were 83 based on ground-level data or space-based measurements of atmospheric column concentrations. By contrast, there 84 are no reports about the vertical distribution of air pollutants during the COVID-19 pandemic period. The vertical 85 distribution of air pollutants is a crucial piece of the puzzle for understanding how air pollution events are formed. Meteorological towers are by far the most useful platforms for studies about the vertical distribution of near-surface 86 pollutants. Unlike tethered balloons or drones, meteorological platforms can be used to obtain continuous and 87 88 stable measurements over a long period of time. Numerous such studies have previously been performed using the





- 89 325-m-tall meteorological tower in Beijing (Meng et al., 2008; Sun et al., 2010; Sun et al., 2013) and the 300-m-tall
- 90 tower in Boulder, USA (Brown et al., 2013).
- 91 The PRD has one meteorological tower, the Shenzhen Meteorological Gradient Tower (SZMGT). The 92 monitoring equipment on this tower can be used to measure several air quality factors, including PM2.5, NOx, and 93 O3 concentrations. Li et al. (2020) had analysed the vertical distribution of pollutants in the PRD during the peak 94 pollution season, based on air quality data and meteorological data obtained at the SZMGT from December 2017. 95 This provided useful insights about the vertical structure of air pollutant distribution in the PRD. Shenzhen is a very 96 developed city with active human activities (Li et al., 2015) and is facing the problem of air quality (Yang et al., 97 2020). As the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic coincided with the peak pollution season of the PRD, data on 98 the vertical distribution of pollutants recorded by the SZMGT during this period are invaluable for revealing how a
- 99 decrease in human activity may affect pollutant concentrations.

100

## 101 **2. Data and Methods**

The observational data, from 16 December 2019 to 15 February 2020, used in this study were from a meteorological observation base on the east side of the Pearl River estuary; namely, the Shiyan Meteorological Observation Base (hereinafter Shiyan Base), managed by the Shenzhen National Climate Observatory (Fig. 1a). The base, which lies approximately 10 km from the coastline, is in the woodland area surrounding a reservoir. Because the reservoir is an important source of drinking water for the population of Shenzhen, the environment within 1 km around the SZMGT is protected by law and is rarely disturbed by human activity, ensuring that the underlying surface will remain natural for a long time.

109 The entire area of Shenzhen is located within the subtropical monsoon climate zone. The dominant wind 110 direction in summer is south, and the airflow brings clean air from the sea to the base. In winter, the dominant wind





- 111 direction changes to a northerly one, and the airflow carries pollutants from the inland of the PRD to the base (Li et
- 112 al., 2020). The peak of the COVID-19 pandemic occurred mainly in winter, a period when the meteorological
- 113 conditions are generally unfavourable to the atmospheric environment of Shenzhen.



114

Fig. 1. Location of the Shiyan Meteorological Observation Base and Shenzhen meteorological gradient tower
(SZMGT): (a) Location of the Shiyan Meteorological Observation Base; (b) Arial view of the meteorological tower;
(c) Layout of the air quality and meteorological observation on the tower.

118

The SZMGT, which is 365 m tall (Fig. 1b), has 13 layers of meteorological observation platforms, starting from 10 m up to 350 m (Fig. 1c). Four of those layers (i.e. at 60–70, 110–120, 210–220, and 325–335 m, respectively) are atmospheric environmental observation platforms (Fig. 1c). The distance from the SZMGT to the nearest built-up area is approximately 1 km. At 800 m north-east of the Shiyan Base, there is a busy highway from which pollutants emitted by the vehicles passing through could influence the observational data on the tower. There is also an airport located approximately 10 km west of the base which serves an estimated 356,000 flights in a





- 125 normal year. Thus, the airplanes taking off and landing at the airport also potentially influence the pollutant 126 concentration data recorded by the SZMGT (Li et al., 2020). An additional atmospheric environmental observation 127 station lies at the bottom of the SZMGT. Because this station is located on the ground, the height of its sampling port is lower than that of the surrounding forest top. 128 129 The meteorological data used in the current study were collected at all 13 platform heights, as shown in Fig. 1c. 130 The environmental data were collected at the heights of 110-120, 210-220, and 325-335 m. The data at the height 131 of 60-70 m was not included in the analysis owing to the occurrence of equipment failure during the pandemic. 132 Data from the atmospheric environmental observation station at the bottom of the SZMGT were also used in the 133 current study. 134 The following are the equipment used at the SZMGT for sensing wind, temperature and humidity, and visibility, respectively: the Vaisala WMT700 Ultrasonic Wind Sensor, Vaisala HMP155 Humidity and Temperature 135 136 Probe, and Vaisala PWD Present Weather Visibility Sensor. PM2.5 concentration data are collected by Thermo Scientific<sup>™</sup> 5030i Sharp Particulate Monitoring equipment, NO<sub>x</sub> by the Thermo Scientific<sup>™</sup> 42i Gas Analyzer, and 137 138 O<sub>3</sub> by the Thermo Scientific<sup>TM</sup> 49i Gas Analyzer. The data from the various instruments were downloaded at a 139 frequency of once every 5 minutes. Arithmetic averaging of the data was performed for all the elements, except for 140 the wind direction, to obtain hourly average data. The daily average data by arithmetic averaging were obtained 141 using the hourly average data over 24 hours. For determination of the wind direction, representative values were 142 obtained by calculating the highest wind frequency by the hour and by the day. 143
- 144 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 145 **3.1 Change of Pollutants Concentrations and Meteorological Elements**

146 Fig. 2 shows the daily mean concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub> observed at Shiyan Base in Shenzhen from





147	16 December 2019 to 15 February 2020, as well as the daily mean relative humidity (RH), daily mean temperature,
148	daily mean wind speed, and daily dominant wind direction of this period. Two key dates have been marked with
149	blue dotted lines on the PM <sub>2.5</sub> , O <sub>3</sub> , and NO <sub>x</sub> graphs: 15 January 2020 and 23 January 2020. The first case of
150	COVID-19 in Shenzhen was reported by local news outlets on 15 January 2020. The Shenzhen government reacted
151	very quickly to this news, despite the low number of patients with COVID-19 in the area at the time. The news was
152	immediately published on the official Shenzhen government website and social restriction measures were
153	implemented. On the advice of medical experts, a lockdown was imposed on Wuhan on January 23rd. The
154	Guangdong province, where Shenzhen is located, also activated its top-level emergency response on this day, and
155	all residents in Shenzhen and her neighbouring cities were instructed not to leave their homes unless necessary.
156	Therefore, after news about the COVID-19 pandemic first appeared on January 15th, the intensity of human
157	activity in Shenzhen (both manufacturing and traffic) began to decrease. By January 23rd, Shenzhen was virtually
158	shut down because of the strengthening of activity restrictions. Other than the most vitally important logistics
159	chains, very little traffic remained on the streets. Owing to a lack of data, it has not been possible to quantitatively
160	estimate the degree to which human activity decreased in Shenzhen during this period. Nonetheless, air traffic at
161	the airport west of Shiyan Base could provide some indication of the scale. In news reports, it was mentioned that
162	the number of passengers at the airport had decreased by as much as 79.49% in February 2020. Since February
163	usually coincides with the Spring Festival (Chinese New Year), this decrease in passenger volume is enough to
164	describe the magnitude by which human activity decreased in this region.

As shown in Figs. 2a and 2c, the daily mean concentrations of  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $NO_x$  closely tracked the lockdown-mediated change in human activity. Since there were no cases of COVID-19 in Shenzhen before 15 January 2020, the local government did not impose any restrictions during the period between December 16<sup>th</sup>, 2019 and January 15<sup>th</sup>, 2020 and the pollutant concentrations remained high. After the first report of COVID-19 on





169	January 15th, many residents began to reduce the frequency of their outdoor activities owing to awareness of the
170	pandemic. Since these reductions in human activity were voluntary and not universal, the pollutant concentrations
171	only decreased slowly. However, the widespread implementation of high-level restrictions on January 23rd led to
172	drastic and sustained reductions in pollutant concentrations. The daily mean concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and $\text{NO}_{x}$
173	generally remained low after January 23rd, and their ranges of variation also became significantly narrower.
174	Although all three measured pollutants were reduced by the lockdown, the change in NO <sub>x</sub> was the most substantial.
175	This is because NO <sub>x</sub> is primarily derived from traffic emissions, and since the decrease in human activity also
176	decreased traffic emissions, the concentration of $NO_x$ in the atmosphere decreased instantaneously upon the
177	cessation of vehicular traffic. Meanwhile, although the daily mean concentration of O <sub>3</sub> did not change significantly
178	after January 23rd (Fig. 2b), the daily range of variation in its concentration (i.e. the difference between the
179	minimum and maximum O <sub>3</sub> concentrations in a day) did decrease significantly after this date.
180	The variations in daily mean temperature, daily mean RH, daily mean wind speed, and daily dominant wind
181	direction during the study period are shown in Figs. 2d and 2e. As evident in Fig. 2d, the RH and temperature
182	correlated strongly with each other, indicating that the dry air in the PRD comes predominantly from cold air
183	
184	masses. During the study period, cold fronts occurred on 26-27 December 2019, 12 January 2020, and 27-30
	masses. During the study period, cold fronts occurred on 26–27 December 2019, 12 January 2020, and 27–30 January 2020. Whenever a cold air mass passes over the Shiyan Base, the daily mean temperature and RH will
185	masses. During the study period, cold fronts occurred on 26–27 December 2019, 12 January 2020, and 27–30 January 2020. Whenever a cold air mass passes over the Shiyan Base, the daily mean temperature and RH will decrease in step with each other. As evident in Fig. 2e, the daily mean wind speeds of the study period were usually
185 186	masses. During the study period, cold fronts occurred on 26–27 December 2019, 12 January 2020, and 27–30 January 2020. Whenever a cold air mass passes over the Shiyan Base, the daily mean temperature and RH will decrease in step with each other. As evident in Fig. 2e, the daily mean wind speeds of the study period were usually below 2 m/s. Additionally, the daily dominant wind direction was in the northerly direction for approximately 75%
185 186 187	masses. During the study period, cold fronts occurred on 26–27 December 2019, 12 January 2020, and 27–30 January 2020. Whenever a cold air mass passes over the Shiyan Base, the daily mean temperature and RH will decrease in step with each other. As evident in Fig. 2e, the daily mean wind speeds of the study period were usually below 2 m/s. Additionally, the daily dominant wind direction was in the northerly direction for approximately 75% of the time. The weather that was observed during the study period is common during the winters in Shenzhen,
185 186 187 188	masses. During the study period, cold fronts occurred on 26–27 December 2019, 12 January 2020, and 27–30 January 2020. Whenever a cold air mass passes over the Shiyan Base, the daily mean temperature and RH will decrease in step with each other. As evident in Fig. 2e, the daily mean wind speeds of the study period were usually below 2 m/s. Additionally, the daily dominant wind direction was in the northerly direction for approximately 75% of the time. The weather that was observed during the study period is common during the winters in Shenzhen, indicating that no meteorological abnormalities had coincided with the study period. When we compared the
185 186 187 188 189	masses. During the study period, cold fronts occurred on 26–27 December 2019, 12 January 2020, and 27–30 January 2020. Whenever a cold air mass passes over the Shiyan Base, the daily mean temperature and RH will decrease in step with each other. As evident in Fig. 2e, the daily mean wind speeds of the study period were usually below 2 m/s. Additionally, the daily dominant wind direction was in the northerly direction for approximately 75% of the time. The weather that was observed during the study period is common during the winters in Shenzhen, indicating that no meteorological abnormalities had coincided with the study period. When we compared the variations in each meteorological factor against the pollutant concentrations, only the RH and O <sub>3</sub> concentration







192



Fig. 2. Daily variations in pollutant concentrations and related meteorological factors in the surface layer during the period of 16 December 2019 to 15 February 2020: (a)  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations, (b) O<sub>3</sub> concentrations, and (c) NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations observed at different heights; (d) Air temperature and relative humidity observed at Shiyan Meteorological Observation Base; (e) Wind speed and wind direction observed by the auto weather station at Shiyan Meteorological Observation Base. ppbv means parts per billion by volume.

199

200 Taking 23 January 2020 as a date boundary, Fig. 3 compares the average concentrations of the 3 pollutants

201 before and during the lockdown. Fig. 3 clearly illustrates the decrease of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>, during the lockdown. The

202 decrease of  $NO_x$  is much more drastic than that of  $PM_{2.5}$ . The change of  $O_3$  is more complex than that of  $PM_{2.5}$  or



203



findings of other studies (Gualtieri et al., 2020). While the mean values of the daily maximum 8 h average O<sub>3</sub> (MDA8O<sub>3</sub>) had significantly decreased during the lockdown. The definition of MDA8O<sub>3</sub> is as follows: in a natural day, take 0:00, 1:00,..., 16:00 local standard time (LST) as the starting point respectively, calculate the average concentration of O<sub>3</sub> for 8 consecutive hours for each starting point, and one can obtain totally 17 8-hour-average O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The maximum value of all the 8-hour-average concentrations is MDA8O<sub>3</sub>, which is generally used to assess the severity of O<sub>3</sub> pollution. The truth that daily O<sub>3</sub> concentration and MDA8O<sub>3</sub> had different changes means there might be quite different chemical environments related to O<sub>3</sub> before and during the lockdown.

 $NO_x$ . The daily average  $O_3$  concentration had slightly increased during the lockdown, which is consistent with the



212



 $\mu g/m^3$ ) concentrations of the whole surface layer before and during the lockdown

215

Table 1 furtherly compares the average values of the meteorological factors and pollutant concentrations during and before the lockdown and those in the December of 2017 (Li et al., 2020). In the pre-lockdown period, the air quality in the area where the SZMGT is located had already been significantly improved compared with December 2017, which is reflected in the decrease of the average concentrations of the three pollutants.

Table 1 also provides the information on the changes of meteorological factors. In December 2017, the relative





- humidity was lower than that in the period of the current study, which was more favorable to the photochemical
- $\label{eq:22} reactions generating PM_{2.5} and O_3. On the other hand, the wind speed in December 2017 was much higher than that$
- in the period of the current study, which was favorable to disperse the pollutants. Thus, it is difficult to compare the
- 224 comprehensive impacts of the meteorological conditions on the pollutant's concentrations in December 2017 with
- 225 those in pre-lockdown or during-lockdown period.
- 226

227 **Table 1.** Comparison of pollutants and meteorological elements during lockdown, before lockdown and December

228 2017

Time period	December	Before 23	After 23	Change of	Change during
	2017	Jan. 2020	Jan. 2020	pre-lockdown	lockdown
				compared with	compared with
				December 2017	before lockdown
PM <sub>2.5</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	47.0	38.5	19.5	-18.1%	-49.4%
O <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	42.0	26.8	29.4	-36.2%	+9.7%
MDA8O <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	59.6	51.4	42.1	-13.8%	-18.6%
$NO_x (\mu g/m^3)$	54.2	50.9	11.8	-6.1%	-76.8%
Air temperature ( $^{\circ}C$ )	17.1	18.9	16.5	10.5%	-12.7%
Relative humidity (%)	58.5	75.3	77.0	+28.7%	+2.3%
Wind speed (m/s)	2.2	1.6	1.8	-27.3%	+12.5%
Wind direction	NNE	NNE	NNE		

\* NNE means north-north-east. All pollutant concentrations in the table are average values for the whole surface

230 layer recorded by the tower.

231

While, at least one of the possible reasons leading to the decrease of pollutants concentrations in the pre-lockdown period compared with December 2017 is quite clear, which is the strengthening of pollution emission control in Shenzhen in the past 2 years. For example, according to local news reports, in 2019 more than 1000 heavy-duty diesel trucks in Shenzhen were replaced by electric trucks. In the past, the emissions of these diesel





trucks were an important source of pollution in Shenzhen.



238

237

Fig. 4. Average vertical air temperature profiles recorded by the Shenzhen Meteorological Gradient Tower before
and after 23 January 2020.

241

242 The changes in the meteorological factors during the lockdown compared with pre-lockdown period may 243 largely be attributed to the intense cold air front that developed on 27-30 January 2020, which decreased the mean 244 temperature of the lockdown period. By contrast, the RH changed very little after the lockdown was implemented. 245 The meteorological factors that were most closely related to pollutant dispersal in the Shenzhen region were the 246 wind speed and wind direction. Although the average wind speed increased during the lockdown, it was still weaker 247 than that in December 2017 and never exceeded 2.0 m/s, thereby limiting any improvement in pollutant dispersion. 248 The dominant wind direction in the pre-lockdown and lockdown periods was north-north-east, indicating that the 249 winds in Shenzhen came mainly from the inland regions of China. In a normal year, these winds would carry a large amount of air pollution from the inland parts of the PRD and thus cause a spike in pollutant concentrations (Li 250 et al., 2020). Therefore, it can be concluded that the meteorological conditions of the Shenzhen region were largely 251 252 identical before and during the lockdown. Although an intense cold spell occurred after January 23rd and the





- average wind speed had increased slightly, it can be learnt from the experience that these changes would not be nearly enough to cause the dramatic decreases in average  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $NO_x$  concentrations recorded. Figure 4 furtherly provides the average vertical air temperature profiles recorded by SZMGT before and after 23 January 2020, from which it can be found that there is no significant difference in the stratification of air temperature before and after the outbreak of the pandemic. The data illustrated in Table 1 and Fig. 4 show that the drastic change of the pollutant concentration in the study period is almost impossible to be caused by the change of meteorological factors.
- 260 **3.2 Diurnal Variations at Different Heights**

261 Figure 5 shows the diurnal variations in PM2.5, NOx, and O3 concentrations on the surface (2 m) and at three 262 different heights of the SZMGT (120, 220, and 335 m) before and during the lockdown. The PM<sub>2.5</sub> time series 263 curves in Fig. 5a are characterised by two trends: a bimodal distribution for the ground level (2 m) and 120 m 264 curves, and a unimodal distribution for the 220 m and 335 m curves. The peaks of the bimodal curves occurred at 265 09:00LST and 20:00 LST, which correspond roughly to the morning and evening rush hours. The difference between the PM2.5 curves at 0 m/120 m and that of 220 m/335 m probably reflects the uplift process of the mixing 266 267 layer top in this area. During night and early morning, the height of the mixing layer top is between 120m and 268 220m, so the curves of the upper and lower layers are quite different. After the noon time, with the rise of the 269 mixing layer top, the curves of all layers become to be similar. Although the PM2.5 concentrations at 2 and 120 m 270 followed the same qualitative trend, the values on the ground were generally lower than those at 120 m. This may have been caused by the presence of dense forests near the ground observation point (Shiyan Base), which may 271 272 have obstructed the dispersal of particulate matter and thus reduced the apparent PM2.5 concentration. The peaks of 273 the unimodal 220 and 335 m curves occurred at 17:00-19:00 LST. Therefore, the diurnal variations in PM2.5 274 concentration were different at lower and higher heights. This is consistent with the findings of Li et al. (2020),





- 275 whose study implied that high- and low-height PM<sub>2.5</sub> may have different sources. High-height PM<sub>2.5</sub> is formed
- 276 predominantly by chemical reactions, whereas low-height PM2.5 may be derived from multiple sources
- 277 (predominantly surface-level primary emissions).





Fig. 5. Diurnal variations in the pollutants observed at different heights of the meteorological tower:  $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations before lockdown (a) and during lockdown (b); O<sub>3</sub> concentrations before lockdown (c) and during lockdown (d); NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations before lockdown (e) and during lockdown (f).

282





283	The diurnal variations in $PM_{2.5}$ concentration at 2, 120, 220, and 335 m during the COVID-19 lockdown are
284	shown in Fig. 5b. It was obvious that the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration had decreased significantly at all heights after
285	January 23rd. The 120 m curve still had the highest PM <sub>2.5</sub> concentration and it still retained the bimodal structure of
286	its pre-lockdown counterpart. The $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at 220 and 335 m were still unimodal, and the peak still
287	occurred at a similar time. The biggest lockdown-mediated change in $PM_{2.5}$ concentration occurred at 2 m, where
288	the curve lost its peak in the morning and changed from a bimodal to a unimodal graph. It is likely that the morning
289	peak of the pre-lockdown curve was caused by direct emissions from nearby human activities. These emissions
290	were therefore greatly reduced by the lockdown-mediated decrease in human activity and were more easily blocked
291	by the dense forest around the ground observation point.
292	With regard to O <sub>3</sub> , it was evident that the diurnal variation in its concentration was unimodal and peaked at
293	approximately 15:00-16:00 LST (when photochemical O <sub>3</sub> formation is most active) both before and during the
294	lockdown (Figs. 5c and 5d, respectively). These diurnal variations were also qualitatively invariant with altitude;
295	that is, only the average concentration varied from one altitude to the other. However, the shape of the O <sub>3</sub> curve did
296	become significantly flatter during the lockdown, indicating that the range of the diurnal variations became much
297	narrower during the lockdown. The flattening of the peaks and valleys of the O3 curve implies that the chemical
298	reactions that generate O <sub>3</sub> during day-time and consume O <sub>3</sub> during night-time became to be mush inactive during
299	the lockdown. Under this condition, the $O_3$ concentration seemed to be determined primarily by background $O_3$
300	concentration (Xu et al., 2020). While, it should be noted that a flatter O <sub>3</sub> curve means the decrease of MDA8O <sub>3</sub> ,
301	which implies that the prevention of $O_3$ and $PM_{2.5}$ pollution can be realized at the same time theoretically.

In the case of  $NO_x$ , the diurnal variations in its concentration were bimodal before the lockdown (Fig. 5e). The 2 and 120 m curves showed a peak at 09:00 LST, which coincided with the timing of the morning rush hour. The second peak, which begins at 18:00 LST and continues until 21:00 LST, was likely caused by the evening rush hour





305 and the night-time decrease in the altitude of the mixed layer. The first peak in both the 220 and 335 m curves 306 lagged the first peak of the curves of lower altitude by 1 hour. However, the second peak occurred at roughly the 307 same time in both sets of curves. Although the mean NOx concentrations had decreased significantly during the 308 lockdown, their diurnal variations were still bimodal (Fig. 5f). However, inter-altitude differences in NOx 309 concentration did become much smaller during the lockdown and the timing of the NOx peaks at each altitude also 310 became much closer to each other. During the lockdown, the first peak was delayed by 1 hour while the second 311 peak occurred at 17:00-19:00 LST. The NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations also changed in another significant way; that is, they 312 were lower at 2 and 120 m than at 220 and 335 m. Since NOx is a primary pollutant, its significantly lower 313 concentrations at the low altitudes implies that near-ground chemical reactions consume it more rapidly than the 314 high-altitude chemical reactions do.



315

Fig. 6. Diurnal variations in the during-lockdown/pre-lockdown ratios of the pollutants observed at different heights of the meteorological tower: (a)  $PM_{2.5}$ ; (b)  $O_3$  and (c)  $NO_x$ .

318

In order to furtherly analyze the change of the pollutants during the lockdown, the concentration ratios of the
pollutants before and during the lockdown are calculated, and the diurnal variation of the ratios is illustrated in Fig.
6. The diurnal variation curves of different pollutants had different characteristics. For NO<sub>x</sub>, the curves at different





322	heights were relatively consistent, which were relatively flat and maintained around 0.3, indicating that $NO_x$
323	decreased significantly and evenly in the boundary layer. The curves for PM <sub>2.5</sub> were different. The ratio curves were
324	relatively flat and maintained at about 0.5 all day at heights above 110 m, but there were relatively large
325	fluctuations on the ground. The ratio on the ground increased significantly between 7:00 and 18:00 LST instead of
326	keeping flat. Especially during 8:00 to 10:00 LST in the morning, the ratio value reached around 0.7, which showed
327	that the decrease of ground level $PM_{2.5}$ concentration (~ -30%) during the morning "rush-hours" of lockdown was
328	not as drastic as that of the average data of the whole boundary layer ( $\sim$ -50%), though it was still difficult for the
329	$PM_{2.5}$ generated on the ground to affect the air mass above 100 m. The fluctuation of ratio diurnal curves of $O_3$ was
330	much more obvious than those of the other two pollutants. The ratios were generally greater than 1.0 in night and
331	less than 1.0 in daytime, which showed that during lockdown, the concentration of O3 increased in night and
332	decreased in daytime. Especially at the height of 110-120 m, the fluctuation of the curve was more drastic, and the
333	maximum ratio in night could reach 1.7. A possible reason leading to this phenomenon is that in the area where the
334	SZMGT is located, the key height of night chemical reactions may be around 110-120 m. Under normal conditions,
335	the night chemical reactions consuming O <sub>3</sub> in this layer may be more active than other heights. Therefore, when all
336	emissions were weakened, the O3 consumed by night chemical reaction was greatly reduced, and the O3
337	concentration in this layer increases significantly. While this conjecture need further researches to confirm in the
338	future.

#### 339 **3.3 Vertical Distribution of Pollutants**

340 The changes in the vertical distribution of the 3 pollutants and total oxidants,  $Ox (= O_3 + NO_2)$ , measured at 341 120, 220, and 335 m of the SZMGT before and during the lockdown are shown in Fig. 7. In terms of the all-day averages (Figs. 7a-7d), it was obvious that the PM2.5, NOx concentrations were lower at all altitudes during the 342 343 lockdown. By contrast, the O3 concentrations did not decrease significantly, but their vertical gradations did





344	become less pronounced. Therefore, the O <sub>3</sub> concentrations became more uniform in the vertical direction during the
345	lockdown. The Ox concentrations, both on daytime and nighttime average (Figs. 7h-7i), also were generally lower
346	during the lockdown than that before the lockdown, indicating that the oxidation capacity for the whole boundary
347	layer weakened during the lockdown. We also checked the nitrate radical production rate during the nighttime,
348	which is an indicator of nighttime oxidation reactions, and showed a large decline with an average of $\sim$ 70%,
349	suggests the weaken NO <sub>3</sub> oxidation capacity. The decrease in nighttime oxidation is mainly attributed to cliff fall of
350	NO <sub>x</sub> . Overall, our vertical observation showed that the atmospheric oxidation processes, including photochemistry
351	and nighttime chemistry were largely reduced due to the lockdown.
352	As shown in Fig. 7a, the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations initially decreased with increasing altitude, before increasing
353	slightly with further increases in the altitude. This trend occurred both before and during the lockdown period. The
354	PM <sub>2.5</sub> concentration was the highest at the lowest observation point studied (i.e. 120 m), whereas the concentration
355	at 335 m was between those recorded at 120 and 220 m. This observation is rather interesting, as it is contrary to
356	the expectation that the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration should decrease monotonically with increasing altitude (Sun et al.
357	2010). However, this can be explained if we consider the results of previous studies about the possible sources of
358	$PM_{2.5}$ at each altitude. At the lowest height (120 m), $PM_{2.5}$ may have come from photochemical reactions and
359	primary pollution sources on the ground. At the middle level and above, PM <sub>2.5</sub> is formed mainly by photochemical
360	reactions (Li et al. 2020). Therefore, the efficiency of $PM_{2.5}$ generation at these heights may be affected by the
361	oxidative potential of the atmosphere. Based on the observations on the SZMGT, the O3 concentration generally
362	increases with increasing height, and the Ox is also higher at 335 m than at 220 m. Hence, it is likely that the
363	oxidation capacity of the atmosphere is higher at the highest level, increasing the efficiency of PM <sub>2.5</sub> formation at
364	this altitude. Although volatile organic compound (VOC) concentrations were not measured on the SZMGT,
365	measurements in the nearby region of Taiwan have shown that these compounds also tend to increase with





- increasing altitude, up to a peak of 300-400 m, thus providing an ample supply of reactants for photochemical
- 367 reactions at high altitudes (Vo et al., 2019). At the middle level (220 m), the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration is not significantly
- 368 affected by primary pollutant sources on the ground, and the PM<sub>2.5</sub>-forming photochemical reactions are also less
- 369 efficient here than in the higher levels. Consequently, the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations are lower in the middle level than in
- the high level.



371

**Fig. 7.** Vertical distribution of three pollutants and  $Ox (= NO_2 + O_3)$  observed at the Shenzhen Meteorological

373 Gradient Tower. Panel (a-d) show whole-day data; panel (d-h) show day-time data; and panel (i-l) show night-time

374 data.





375	As mentioned above, the O <sub>3</sub> concentrations increased monotonically with increasing altitude (Fig. 7b). Even
376	during the lockdown, the average concentration of O3 stayed high without showing any significant change.
377	Completely different from the change of O <sub>3</sub> , vehicular exhaust-gas emissions had plummeted to a very low level
378	during the lockdown, which is clearly evidenced in Fig. 7c. This figure shows that the NO <sub>x</sub> concentrations had
379	decreased considerably at near-ground altitudes, especially at 120 m, where the concentration had decreased by
380	over 75% compared with pre-lockdown levels. The persistence of high O3 concentrations during the lockdown
381	period proves the importance of VOCs for the air quality of this region once again. Actually, given the significant
382	decrease in NO <sub>x</sub> concentrations (as much as -78.2% in the current study), the concentrations of VOCs did not seem
383	to have a same change as $NO_x$ did. In recent studies, Qi et al (2021) reported that the decrease of VOCs in PRD
384	during the lockdown is much less than that of NO <sub>x</sub> , and Liu et al (2021) reported that formaldehyde (HCHO)
385	abundance in the PRD area even slightly increased during the lockdown based on TROPOspheric Monitoring
386	Instrument (TROPOMI) satellite observation, which indicate that VOCs were likely to play an even more important
387	role in photochemical reactions during the lockdown period.

388 Figs. 7e-h and 7i-l displays the vertical distributions of pollutants and Ox during the day and night, 389 respectively. The day-time and night-time distributions of PM2.5, NOx and Ox were not significantly different. By 390 contrast, the vertical distribution of O3 varied significantly between day and night. At all altitudes, the day-time O3 concentrations were generally lower during the lockdown, whereas the night-time concentrations were higher. This 391 392 paradoxical trend can be explained by the weakening of atmospheric chemical activity during the lockdown. Since 393 the decrease in human activity during the lockdown also decreased primary pollutant emissions, the availability of 394 precursors for photochemical O<sub>3</sub> generation was significantly lower, resulting in decreased day-time O<sub>3</sub> 395 concentrations. During the night, the dark chemical reactions that consume O<sub>3</sub> also became less active during the 396 lockdown, which resulted in significantly higher night-time O3 concentrations at the near-surface atmosphere.





397 These changes are consistent with the diurnal variations in O<sub>3</sub> (Fig. 5d).

## 398 **3.4 Correlations at Different Altitudes**

Fig. 8 depicts scatter plots and fit lines of O<sub>3</sub> versus PM<sub>2.5</sub> at each level of the SZMGT, before and during the

## 400 lockdown.



401

402 Fig. 8. Scatter plots of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations at different heights of the meteorological tower before and
403 during the lockdown: (a) and (b) are for ground level; (c) and (d) are for low level; (e) and (f) are for middle level;

404 (g) and (h) are for high level. The fit lines of the plots were produced following the instruction of Cantrell (2008).

405

406 Prior to the lockdown, the correlation between the  $O_3$  and  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations were weak, with none of the 407 correlation coefficients (*R*) passing the significance test. When performing the correlation significance test for two





408	variables, namely x and y, which means two different pollutants, the Pearson correlation coefficient $R$ was
409	calculated. Compare $R$ to the appropriate critical value corresponding to the N-2 value in a standard table, where N
410	is size of the sample set of $(x, y)$ pairs. If the absolute value of R is greater than the critical value, the correlation
411	between the two variables is significant. During the lockdown, the correlation between $PM_{2.5}$ and $O_3$ became
412	significantly stronger, with the R values for the 0, 120, 220, and 335 m scatter plots all being significant at the 0.1
413	level. It may be inferred that prior to the lockdown, PM2.5 and O3 did not have related sources. However, during the
414	lockdown, both were likely to have a similar source. In the PRD region, VOCs contribute significantly to the
415	formation of fine particles (Liu et al., 2008; Zheng et al., 2009), especially secondary organic aerosols (Huang et al.,
416	2006; Chang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). Although the advent of the COVID-19 pandemic did result in
417	reductions in the concentrations of NO <sub>x</sub> , SO <sub>2</sub> , and other primary pollutants, the VOCs emissions might not change
418	as dramatically as $NO_x$ (Liu et al., 2021), which provided important precursors for both $O_3$ and the secondary
419	organic aerosols during the lockdown, and strengthened the correlation between the PM <sub>2.5</sub> and O <sub>3</sub> concentrations.
420	Li et al. (2020) analysed the correlation coefficients of $O_3$ and $PM_{2.5}$ at different heights of SZMGT in
421	December 2017, and the conclusions were different from this study. In December 2017, the correlation coefficient
422	of $O_3$ and $PM_{2.5}$ increased significantly with the increase of height. They pointed out that this is because $PM_{2.5}$ is
423	also mainly generated by photochemical reaction at high altitudes, so it has a strong correlation with O <sub>3</sub> . At lower
424	heights, a considerable part of $PM_{2.5}$ is primary source and had nothing to do with photochemical reactions, so it
425	had much weaker correlation with $O_3$ . While in this study, the correlation between $PM_{2.5}$ and $O_3$ was weak at all
426	heights in the pre-lockdown period. The reason leading to this is mainly because that Shenzhen had conducted a
427	large number of pollution emission control strategies in the past two years, resulting in a significant decrease in the
428	primary pollutants. As shown in Table 1, the average concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ in the whole surface layer during the
429	pre-lockdown period had decreased by 18.1% compared with December 2017, while the average concentration of





430 O<sub>3</sub> had decreased by 36.2%. The decrease of O<sub>3</sub> concentration in the surface layer was twice that of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, while 431 the primary aerosol like black carbon is not reduced, indicating that there were much fewer products of 432 photochemical reaction and secondary aerosol formation, so that the correlation coefficient between O3 and PM2.5 433 concentration was no longer high even in the higher heights. However, during the lockdown, the average 434 concentration of PM2.5 decreased again because the primary emission was drastically compressed. In this process, 435 PM2.5 formed from the primary emission became to be insignificant, and the photochemical oxidation of VOCs 436 became to be important sources of particulate matter again. Therefore, the correlation coefficients between O<sub>3</sub> and 437 PM<sub>2.5</sub> became to be higher than those before the lockdown.



438

439 Fig. 9. Scatter plots of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations at different heights of the meteorological tower before ad

440 during the lockdown: (a) and (b) are for ground level; (c) and (d) are low level; (e) and (f) are for middle level; (g)





## 441 and (h) are for high level.

442	Fig. 9 compares the correlation between the $PM_{2.5}$ and $NO_x$ concentrations before and during the lockdown.
443	The trend of the correlation between $PM_{2.5}$ and $O_3$ was the exact opposite of that between $PM_{2.5}$ and $O_3$ ; that is, it
444	was strong before the lockdown (R = $\sim 0.5$ at all altitudes) but much weaker after (R = $\sim 0.2$ at all altitudes).
445	Therefore, there may be significant differences between $PM_{2.5}$ sources before and during the lockdown. Owing to a
446	lack of data, it was not possible to perform a composition analysis to determine why PM <sub>2.5</sub> was closely correlated
447	with $NO_x$ emissions prior to the lockdown but not during it. One possible explanation is that the primary emission
448	of PM <sub>2.5</sub> in the PRD is a large part before the lockdown, since NOx can be treated as an indicator of anthropogenic
449	emission, and primary emission of $PM_{2.5}$ decreased significantly during the lockdown. The other possible
450	explanation is that the nitrate content of $PM_{2.5}$ in the PRD decreased significantly during the lockdown, given that it
451	has been previously found that nitrate accounts for a large percentage of $PM_{2.5}$ before the year of 2020 (Yang et al.,
452	2020).
453	Fig. 10 displays the correlation between the O <sub>3</sub> and NO <sub>x</sub> concentrations before and during the lockdown. Prior
454	to the pandemic, $O_3$ and $NO_x$ were negatively correlated with each other owing to $NO_x$ titration. The relationship
455	between the $O_3$ and $NO_x$ concentrations could be fitted with an exponential function. During the lockdown, the
456	(negative) correlation between $\mathrm{O}_3$ and $\mathrm{NO}_x$ weakened significantly, which means that at very low $\mathrm{NO}_x$

457 concentrations, variations in the concentration of this pollutant seemed to virtually have no obvious effect on the O<sub>3</sub>
458 concentrations.

The comparison of scatter plots before and during the lockdown showed that  $PM_{2.5}$  was poorly correlated to  $O_3$ but closely correlated to  $NO_x$  before the lockdown, indicating that a large proportion of  $PM_{2.5}$  might come from primary emissions or nitrate aerosol. While after the implementation of the lockdown,  $PM_{2.5}$  became to be closely correlated to  $O_3$ , but not to  $NO_x$ , and  $O_3$  formation cannot attribute to the local photochemistry, indicating that





- 463 PM<sub>2.5</sub> during the lockdown might primarily be secondary pollutants (especially organic aerosols) generated from
- 464 photochemical reactions.



465

466 Fig. 10. Scatter plots of the O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> concentrations at different heights of the meteorological tower before and

467 during the lockdown: (a) and (b) are for ground level; (c) and (d) are r low level; (e) and (f) re for middle level; (g)

468 and (h) are for high level.

469

## 470 4 Conclusions and Implications

In this study, changes in the NO<sub>x</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations over the PRD, mediated by the local COVID-19 pandemic lockdown measures, were investigated through the analysis of their vertical distribution before and during the lockdown, using data from the Shiyan Base and SZMGT. The conclusions of this study are as follows:





475	(1) The advent of the COVID-19 pandemic forced a dramatic decrease in human activity. This greatly reduced
476	the emission of primary pollutants like NOx, thus changing the chemical environment of the near-surface
477	atmosphere. The concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ was also reduced significantly because of the decrease in precursor
478	availability.
479	(2) The reduction in primary pollutant emissions during the COVID-19 pandemic lockdown significantly
480	decreased MDA8O3, while did not decrease the daily average concentration of O3. The diurnal curves of O3
481	concentration were changed by the lockdown, with the day-time concentrations being lower and the night-time
482	ones being higher than the pre-pandemic concentrations at all levels of the SZMGT.
483	(3) The correlation between $PM_{2.5}$ and $O_3$ concentrations was insignificant before the lockdown but became
484	significantly stronger after, to the point where the correlation coefficients between PM <sub>2.5</sub> and O <sub>3</sub> were significant at
485	the 0.05 level, regardless of altitude. This indicates a strong correlation between $PM_{2.5}$ and $O_3$ . By contrast, the
486	correlation between $PM_{2.5}$ and $NO_x$ was much weaker during the lockdown. Hence, the composition of $PM_{2.5}$ may
487	have changed from being predominantly from primary emissions or nitrate aerosol before the lockdown to being
488	predominantly a secondary organic aerosol thereafter. However, the validation of this hypothesis will require
489	further investigations.
490	(4) Prior to the COVID-19 pandemic, the $O_3$ and $NO_x$ concentrations were significantly negatively correlated
491	with each other. This correlation virtually disappeared after the beginning of the pandemic. It may be concluded
492	that at very low $NO_x$ concentrations, variations in its concentration have almost no effect on the $O_3$ concentration.
493	Overall, the advent of COVID-19 has devastated economies and societies around the world. However, the
494	dramatic reduction in human activity resulting from the lockdown measures has provided a unique opportunity for
495	researchers to study the response of the atmospheric environment to human activities. The data indicate that the
496	atmospheric chemical environment of the PRD has changed during the pandemic, leading the drastic change of

27





- 497 pollutants concentrations. These results have a clear indication for pollution prevention policy. In the past, quite a
- 498 few environmental policy studies doubted whether it was necessary to further reduce mobile emissions, because in
- some areas, decreasing  $NO_x$  led to an increase of  $O_3$  concentration. While this study shows that the continuous
- reduction of  $NO_x$  emission can still reduce the peak value and MDA8O<sub>3</sub>, although it will not further reduce the
- 501 daily average value of O<sub>3</sub>.
- 502
- 503 Competing interests.
- 504 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
- 505

#### 506 Acknowledgement.

- 507 This study is supported by the Science and Technology Projects of Guangdong Province (grant number
- 2019B121201002), Natural Science Foundation of China (grant number 42075059, 41907185) and Guangdong
- 509 Basicand Applied Basic Research Foundation (grant number 2019A1515012008)
- 510

## 511 References:

- 512 Brown, S. S., Thornton, J. A., Keene, W. C., Pszenny, A. A. P., Sive, B. C., Dubé, W. P., Wagner, N. L., Young, C. J.,
- 513 Riedel, T. P., Roberts, J. M., VandenBoer, T. C., Bahreini, R., Ozturk, F., Middlebrook, A. M., Kim, S., Hubler,
- 514 G., Wolfe, D.. Nitrogen, Aerosol Composition and Halogens on a Tall Tower (NACHTT): Overview of a
- 515 Wintertime Air Chemistry Field Study in the Front Range Urban Corridor of Colorado. Journal of Geophysical
- 516 Research: Atmospheres.118: 8067-8085. 2013.
- 517 Cantrell, C. A.. Technical note: Review of methods for linear least-squares fitting of data and application to
- 518 atmospheric chemistry problems. Atmos. Chem. Phys., 8, 5477-5487. 2008.





- 519 Chakraborty, I., Maity, P., COVID-19 outbreak: Migration, effects on society, global environment and prevention.
- 520 Science of The Total Environment, 728: 138882. 2020.
- 521 Chang, D., Wang, Z., Guo, J., Li, T., Liang, Y., Kang, L., Xia, M., Wang, Y., Yu, C., Yun, H., Yue, D., Wang, T..
- 522 Characterization of organic aerosols and their precursors in southern China during a severe haze episode in
- january 2017. Science of Total Environment. 691, 101–111. 2019.
- 524 Gettelman, A., Chen, C.C., Bardeen, C.G.. The climate impact of COVID-19-induced contrail changes. Atmos.
- 525 Chem. Phys., 21, 9405–9416. 2021.
- 526 Gualtieri, G., Brilli, L., Carotenuto, F., V Agnoli, C., Gioli, B.. Quantifying road traffic impact on air quality in
- 527 urban areas: a covid19-induced lockdown analysis in italy. Environmental Pollution, 267, 115682. 2020.
- 528 Huang, X.F., Yu, J.Z., He, L.Y., Yuan, Z., Water-soluble organic carbon and oxalate in aerosols at a coastal urban
- 529 site in China: size distribution characteristics, sources, and formation mechanisms. Journal of Geophysical
- 530 Research. 111: D22212. 2006.
- 531 Kanniah, K. D., Zaman, N. A. F. K., Kaskaoutis, D., Latif, M. T.. COVID-19's impact on the atmospheric
- 532 environment in the SoutheastAsia region. Science of The Total Environment, 736: 139658. 2020.
- 533 Kim, H.C., Kim, S., Cohen, M., Bae, C., Lee, D., Saylor, R., Bae, M., Kim, E., Kim, B.U., Yoon, J.H., Stein, A.,
- 534 Quantitative assessment of changes in surface particulate matter concentrations and precursor emissions over
- 535 China during the COVID-19 pandemic and their implications for Chinese economic activity. Atmos. Chem.
- 536 Phys., 21, 10065–10080. 2021.
- 537 Li, L., Chan, P.W., Wang, D., Tan, M.. Rapid urbanization effect on local climate: intercomparison of climate trends
- 538 in Shenzhen and Hong Kong, 1968-2013. Climate Research. 63, 145-155. 2015.
- 539 Li, L., Chan, P.W., Deng, T., Yang, H.L., Luo, H.Y., Xia, D., He, Y.Q.. Review of advances in urban climate study
- 540 in the Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macau greater bay area, China. Atmospheric Research. 261,105759. 2021.





- 541 Li, L., Lu, C., Chan, P. W., Zhang, X., Yang, H. L., Lan, Z. J., Zhang, W. H., Liu, Y. W., Pan, L., Zhang, L.. Tower
- 542 observed vertical distribution of PM2.5, O3 and NOx in the pearl river delta. Atmospheric Environment, 220,
- 543 117083. 2020.
- 544 Liu, S., Liu, C., Hu, Q., Su, W., Yang, X., Lin, J., Zhang, C., Xing, C., Ji, X., Tan, W., Liu, H., Gao, M.: Distinct
- regimes of O<sub>3</sub> response to COVID-19 lockdown in China. Atmosphere. 12,184. 2021
- 546 Liu, Y., Shao, M., Lu, S., Chang, C.C., Wang, J.L., Fu, L.. Source apportionment of ambient volatile organic

547 compounds in the Pearl River Delta, China: part II. Atmospheric Environment. 42, 6261–6274. 2008.

- 548 Meng, Z. Y., Ding, G. A., Xu, X. B., Xu, X. D., Yu, H. Q. Wang, S. F.. Vertical distributions of SO2 and NO2 in the
- 549 lower atmosphere in Beijing urban areas, China. Sci. Total Environ. 390: 456-465. 2008.
- 550 Qi, J., Mo, Z., Yuan, B., Huang, S., Huangfu, Y., Wang, Z., Li, X., Yang, S., Wang, W., Zhao, Y., Wang, X., Wang,
- 551 W., Liu, K., Shao, M.. 1.An observation approach in evaluation of ozone production to precursor changes
- during the COVID-19 lockdown. Atmospheric Environment. 262: 118618. 2021.
- 553 Rodríguez-Urrego, D., Rodríguez-Urrego, L.. Air quality during the covid-19: PM2.5 analysis in the 50 most
- polluted capital cities in the world. Environmental Pollution, 266: 115042. 2020.
- 555 Salma, I., Vörösmarty, M., Gyöngyösi, A.Z. Thén, W., Weidinger, T., What can we learn about urban air quality
- 556 with regard to the first outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic? A case study from central Europe. Atmos. Chem.
- 557 Phys., 20, 15725–15742. 2020.
- Srivastava, A.. COVID-19 and air pollution and meteorology-an intricate relationship: A review. Chemosphere, 263:
  128297. 2021.
- 560 Sun, Y.Wang, Y., Zhang, C. Vertical Observations and Analysis of PM2.5, O3, and NOxat Beijing and Tianjin from
- Towers during Summer and Autumn 2006. Advances in Atmospheric Sciences. 27: 123-136. 2010.
- 562 Sun, Y., Song, T., Tang, G., Wang, Y. The vertical distribution of PM2.5 and boundary-layer structure during





- summer haze in Beijing. Atmospheric Environment. 74: 413-421. 2013.
- 564 Vo, T.D.H., Lin, C., Weng, C.E., Yuan, C.S., Lee, C.W., Hung, C.H., Bui, X.T., Lo, K.C., Lin, J.X.. Vertical
- 565 stratification of volatile organic compounds and their photochemical product formation potential in an
- industrial urban area. Journal of Environmental Management. 217: 327–336. 2018.
- 567 Wang, C., Horby, P.W., Hayden, F.G., Gao, G.F.. A novel coronavirus outbreak ofglobal health concern.
- 568 Lancet.395(10223):470-473. 2020.
- 569 Wang, S., Ma, Y., Wang, Z., Wang, L., Chi, X., Ding, A., Yao, M., Li, Y., Li, Q., Wu, M., Zhang, L., Xiao, Y., Zhang,
- 570 Y., Mobile monitoring of urban air quality at high spatial resolution by low-cost sensors: impacts of
- 571 COVID-19 pandemic lockdown. Atmos. Chem. Phys., 21, 7199–7215. 2021.
- 572 Wang, Q., Su, M., A preliminary assessment of the impact of COVID-19 onenvironmenteA case study of
- 573 China.Science of The Total Environment. 138915. 2020.
- 574 Xing, J., Li, S., Jiang, Y., Wang, S., Ding, D., Dong, Z., Zhu, Y., Hao, J.. Quantifying the emission changes and
- 575 associated air quality impacts during the COVID-19 pandemic on the North China Plain: a response modeling
- 576 study. Atmos. Chem. Phys., 20, 14347–14359. 2020.
- 577 Yang, H.L., Zhang, Y., Li, L., Chan, P.W., Lu, C., Zhang, L., Characteristics of aerosol pollution under different
- visibility conditions in winter in a coastal mega-city in China. Journal Tropical Meteorology, 26(2), 231-238.
  2020.
- 580 Zhang, Y.Q., Chen, D.H., Ding, X., Li, J., Zhang, T., Wang, J.Q., Cheng, Q., Jiang, H., Song, W., Ou, Y.B., Ye, P.L.,
- 581 Zhang, P.L., Zhang, G., Wang, X.M.. Impact of anthropogenic emissions on biogenic secondary organic
- aerosol: observation in the Pearl River Delta, southern China. Atmos. Chem. Phys., 19, 14403–14415. 2019.
- 583 Zhang, L., Li, L., Chan, P. W., Al., E.. Why the number of haze days in Shenzhen, China has reduced since 2005:
- 584 From a perspective of industrial structure. MAUSAM, 1: 45-54. 2018.





- 585 Zheng, J., Shao, M., Che, W., Zhang, L., Zhong, L., Zhang, Y., Streets, D., Speciated VOC emission inventory and
- 586 spatial patterns of ozone formation potential in the Pearl River Delta, China. Environmental Science &
- 587 Technology. 43: 8580–8586. 2009.
- 588 Xu, X., Lin, W., Xu, W., Jin, J., Wang, Y., Zhang, G., Zhang, X., Ma, Z., Dong, Y., Ma, Q., Yu, D., Li, Z., Wang, D.,
- 589 Zhao, H.. Long-term changes of regional ozone in China: implications for human health and ecosystem
- 590 impacts. Elem Sci Anth, 8: 13. 2020.