1	Measurement report: Intensive biomass burning emissions and
2	rapid nitrate formation drive severe haze formation in Sichuan
3	basin, China: insights from aerosol mass spectrometry
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15 Abstract

16 Haze pollution is a severe environmental problem, caused by elevation of fine particles 17 (aerodynamic diameter < 2.5 µm, PM_{2.5}), which is related to secondary aerosol formation, 18 unfavourable synoptic conditions, regional transport, etc. The regional haze formation in basin areas, 19 along with intensive emission of precursors, high relative humidity and poor dispersion conditions, 20 is still limitedly understood. In this study, a field campaign was conducted to investigate the factors 21 resulting in haze formation in Sichuan Basin (SCB) during winter in 2021. The fine aerosol chemical 22 composition was characterised by using a time-of-flight aerosol chemical speciation monitor (ToF-23 ACSM), which also provided detailed information on the sources for organic aerosols (OA). The 24 average concentration of non-refractory fine particles (NR-PM_{2.5}) was 98.5 \pm 38.7 µg/m³, and 25 organics aerosols, nitrate, sulphate, ammonium, and chloride took up 40.3, 28.8, 10.6, 15.3 and 5.1 % of PM_{2.5}. Three factors, including a hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), a biomass burning OA (BBOA), 26 27 and an oxygenated OA (OOA), were identified by applying the positive matrix factorisation (PMF)

28 analysis, and they constituted 24.2, 24.2 and 51.6 % of OA on average, respectively. Nitrate 29 formation was promoted by gas-phase and aqueous-phase oxidation, while sulphate was mainly 30 formed through aqueous-phase process. OOA showed strong dependence on Ox, demonstrating the 31 contribution of photooxidation to OOA formation. OOA concentration increased as aerosol liquid 32 water content (ALWC) increased within 200 μ g/m³ and kept relatively constant when ALWC > 200 µg/m³, suggesting the insignificant effect of aqueous-phase reactions on OOA formation. Among 33 34 the three haze episodes identified during the whole campaign, the driving factors were different: the 35 first haze episode (H1) was driven by nitrate formation through photochemical and aqueous-phase 36 reactions, and the second haze episode (H2) was mainly driven by the intense emission of primary 37 organic aerosols from biomass burning and vehicle exhaust, while the third haze episode (H3) was mainly driven by reactions involving nitrate formation and biomass burning emission. HOA and 38 39 BBOA were scavenged, while OOA, nitrate, and sulphate formation were enhanced by aqueousphase reactions during fog periods, which resulted in the increase of O:C from pre-fog to post-fog 40 41 periods. This study revealed the factors driving severe haze formation in SCB, and implied the 42 benefit of controlling nitrate as well as intense biomass burning and vehicle exhaust emission to the 43 mitigation of heavy aerosol pollution in this region.

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47 **1. Introduction**

Although a series of emission reduction strategies had been implemented to mitigate severe 48 haze pollution over a decade in China, the fine particle (particulate matter with aerodynamic 49 diameter less than 2.5 µm, PM_{2.5}) pollution events still occurred, especially during autumn and 50 51 winter (Ding et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2020). Haze formation was affected by the 52 intense emission of primary particles, rapid formation of secondary aerosols, stagnant 53 meteorological conditions, and topography. The interplay among these factors usually makes haze formation complex (Bao et al., 2019; Guo et al., 2014; Zheng et al., 2015), which resulted in 54 55 difficulties in making air pollution mitigation strategies.

56 Many studies showed that the rapid increase of secondary aerosols (including secondary 57 inorganic/organic aerosols, i.e., SIA and SOA) played an important role in haze formation (Huang et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2022). Nitrate, sulphate, and ammonium, mainly formed through 58 59 photochemical oxidation and aqueous-phase reactions in the atmosphere, were the major component 60 of SIA. Previous studies demonstrated that the substantial formation of nitrate and sulphate exacerbated severe haze development (Wang et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020). For example, Zheng et 61 62 al. (2016) investigated the factors driving haze formation in Beijing in 2013, and the results showed 63 that the enhanced production of sulphate and nitrate led to their increased contribution to PM_{2.5} as 64 the pollution level increased, while the contribution of organic matter (OM) decreased. The emission 65 of SO₂ had been reduced dramatically over the past ten years in China; however, NOx did not show 66 a significant reduction (Zhou et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2019). Thus, the haze formation was found to 67 be mainly driven by the reactions generating nitrate in recent year (Fu et al., 2020; Li et al., 2018; 68 Zhai et al., 2021).

69 Compared to SIA, the formation process of SOA was more complicated (Chen et al., 2017).
70 For instance, SOA could be formed through the gas-phase photooxidation of volatile organic
71 compounds (VOCs), which was affected by temperature, relative humidity (RH), and total organic
72 aerosol mass loadings (Clark et al., 2016; Hinks et al., 2018; Donahue et al., 2006). SOA could also
73 be formed through the oxidation of water-soluble VOCs or organic products of gas-phase
74 photochemistry, which was observed in the field and laboratory studies (Liu et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2015). Besides, the aging of primary organic aerosols (POA) by oxidants in the atmosphere also

contributed to SOA (Wang et al., 2021; Gilardoni et al., 2016). For instance, the organic aerosols
emitted from biomass burning were oxidised through the photochemical oxidation process driven
by OH radicals which might take place in both gas and aqueous phases (Paglione et al., 2020). The
variations of regional and seasonal emissions might also affect the formation of SOA (Dai et al.,
2019; Sun et al., 2016). Thus, it is of vital importance to consider various factors when investigating
SOA formation.

82 Similar to the city clusters such as Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou in North China Plain 83 (NCP), Yangtze River Delta (YRD) and Pearl River Delta (PRD), the Chengdu-Chongqing city cluster, located in the Sichuan Basin (SCB) in Southwest China, is also suffering severe haze 84 85 pollution (Tao et al., 2017; Tan et al., 2019). Many efforts had been made to investigate the temporal variation, chemical composition and formation mechanism of PM_{2.5} during the evolution of haze 86 episodes in NCP, YRD and PRD (Peng et al., 2021; Sun et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2015; Yan et al., 87 88 2020), whereas, only a few studies focused on the factors resulting in haze formation in SCB (Zhang 89 et al., 2019; Song et al., 2019). These studies mainly focused on the formation of inorganic species 90 in PM_{2.5}, and the results showed that the rapid formation of SIA under high RH conditions promoted 91 the increase of $PM_{2.5}$. However, further studies on the characteristics of OA, including the temporal 92 evolution, sources and formation pathways, are still lacking.

93 The area of SCB is ~260,000 km^{2,} and its population is ~110 million, making it an important 94 developing region in Southwest China. The basin is a subtropical expanse of low hills and plains 95 and is completely encircled by high mountains and plateaus, which is unfavourable for either 96 horizontal transport or vertical diffusion. The atmosphere in SCB was characterised by persistently 97 high relative humidity and low wind speed all year round. The haze evolution in SCB might be 98 different from those in other regions due to its unique topography, meteorological conditions and 99 emission sources, which remained unclear. Therefore, comprehensive studies are needed to reveal 100 the key factors contributing to haze formation in the basin (Wang et al., 2018).

101 The Time-of-Flight Aerosol Chemical Speciation Monitor (ToF-ACSM) is a robust and highly 102 sensitive instrument that provides real-time characterisation and composition of non-refractory 103 PM₁/PM_{2.5} (NR-PM₁/PM_{2.5}) depending on the type of the aerodynamic lens used (Liu et al., 2007; 104 Xu et al., 2017). Compared to the Aerodyne aerosol spectrometer (AMS), the ToF-ACSM is more 105 compact and cheaper. However, the ToF-ACSM does not figure particle sizing. Compared to the 106 quadrupole-ACSM (Q-ACSM), the ToF-ACSM has better mass resolution and detection limits 107 (Fröhlich et al., 2013). Although the ToF-ACSM had not been widely deployed in field observations 108 as AMS/Q-ACSM did in a number of different sites over China, it had successfully characterised 109 the variation of $PM_1/PM_{2.5}$ and the sources of organic aerosols in the cities within NCP, YRD and PRD (Ge et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2020). Despite this, few studies applied a Q/ToF-110 111 ACSM or AMS in SCB. The responses of aerosol chemistry to meteorology and emissions therein 112 remained poorly understood. To the authors' best knowledge, this is the first time that the ToF-113 ACSM has been deployed in the field observations within SCB.

The present study aims to uncover the factors driving severe haze formation during winter in 114 SBC. The characteristics of NR-PM_{2.5}, including mass concentration, chemical composition, 115 temporal and diurnal variation, were described in detail. The OA sources resolved by the positive 116 117 matrix factorisation (PMF) analysis and elemental composition were investigated to elucidate the 118 possible aging process of OA. The formation mechanism for SIA and SOA was also studied based 119 on the dependencies of nitrate, sulphate and OOA with odd oxygen ($Ox = O_3 + NO_2$) and aerosol 120 liquid water content. In addition, the evolution process of chemical composition and elemental 121 composition were summarised during different haze and fog episodes to investigate the main factors 122 exacerbating haze pollution. The data and results would fill the knowledge gap on the factors 123 affecting haze formation in SCB and provide a scientific basis for future air pollutant mitigation 124 strategies in this unique basin.

125 **2. Material and methods**

126 **2.1 Sampling site**

The field study was carried out from 18 December 2021 to 22 January 2022 at a site (30 55'59" N, 104 12'25"E) in Deyang, and the site was near the northern border of Chengdu, the capital of Sichuan province, China (as shown in Fig. 1). The site was located in a typical suburban region surrounded by several food, aluminium alloy, and building materials factories. There was a main road ~200 m south of the site. The north and west of the site were croplands and villages. Thus, the site was affected by traffic emissions, biomass burning and industrial pollutants. The study at this site would help to understand the characteristics of regional haze pollution and the influence of 134 regional transport between urban and suburban areas on haze formation

135 **2.2 Instrumentation**

During the campaign, the mass loadings of non-refractory organics, nitrate, sulphate, ammonium and chloride in PM_{2.5} were obtained online by a ToF-ACSM. The gaseous species, including NO, NO₂, O₃, SO₂, CO and CO₂, were continuously measured by the Thermo gas analysers (model 43i, 49i, 42i, 48i and 410i). The meteorological parameters, including temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), solar radiation (SR), wind speed (WS) and wind direction (WD), were obtained by an automatic weather station (Luff WS501-UMB).

For the NR-PM_{2.5} measurement, the ambient air was pumped into the sampling line via a vacuum pump, and the flow rate was maintained at 3 L/min with a mass flow controller. Before being sampled by the ToF-ACSM, the ambient air would go through a PM_{2.5} cyclone (URG-2000-30ED, USA) to remove coarse particles, then was dried by a Nafion drier. The relative humidity of the air samples dried by the Nafion drier usually ranged from ~35% to 46 %, and could reach ~56 % during fog events. The sampling line was assembled using 3/8' stainless steel tubes coated with the sponge to prevent water condensation.

149 The working principle of ToF-ACSM had been described in detail in previous studies (Ng et 150 al., 2011; Fröhlich et al., 2013). Briefly, a 100 µm critical orifice and an aerodynamic lens were 151 settled in the front inlet system to focus the ambient particles into a concentrated and narrow beam 152 with a flow rate of ~ 0.084 L/min. It should be mentioned that a PM_{2.5} lens was used during the 153 whole campaign, which allowed to chemically characterise the $PM_{2.5}$ composition (Xu et al., 2017). 154 The particle beam was transmitted through a vacuum chamber in which the gas-phase species 155 were separated from the particle beam. At the end of the vacuum chamber, the particles were 156 thermally vaporised at ~600 $\,^{\circ}$ C by impacting on a resistively heated porous tungsten surface. There the non-refractory constituents in the particles flash vaporise and are subsequently ionised by a 70 157 eV electron impact. Finally, the ions were extracted by a set of ion optics and detected by the time-158 159 of-flight mass spectrometer.

160 The ToF-ACSM was operated with a time resolution of 10 mins and scanned from m/z 10 to
161 219. The ionisation efficiency (IE) calibration was performed before and after the campaign

according to the proposal of a previous study (Fr öhlich et al., 2013). Briefly, the size-selected (350 nm) NH₄NO₃ particles, which were generated by an aerosol generator, were simultaneously sampled by the ToF-ACSM and a condensation particle counter (CPC 3775, TSI). Then, the IE can be determined by comparing the response of ToF-ACSM to the mass of ammonium nitrate. The relative ionisation efficiencies (RIEs) of sulphate and ammonium were also determined by sampling (NH₄)₂SO₄ particles.

168 **2.3 Data process**

169 2.3.1 ToF-ACSM data analysis

The ToF-ACSM data analysis software (Tofware v2.5.13) written in Igor (Wavemetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA) was used to analyse the mass concentration and chemical composition. The IE value was 239 ions/pg, and the RIEs for sulphate and ammonium were 1.05 and 3.6, respectively. For organics, nitrate and chloride, commonly used RIE values, i.e. 1.4, 1.1 and 1.3, were applied. The algorithm proposed by Middlebrook et al. (2012) to determine the collection efficiency (CE) of ToF-ACSM was applied to quantify the aerosol species, as the acidity, chemical composition, and phase state changed the particle bounce effects at the vaporiser (Matthew et al., 2008).

The triangle plot of *f*44 (ratio of m/z 44 to total signal in the component mass spectrum) versus *f*43 (ratio of m/z 43 to total signal in the component mass spectrum) and *f*44 versus *f*60 (ratio of m/z 60 to total signal in the component mass spectrum) were applied to characterise the evolution of OA (Ng et al., 2010). The O/C and H/C were determined by the parameterization proposed by Canagaratna et al. (2015).

182 2.3.2 PMF analysis

The mass spectrum data matrix of OA was analysed by the PMF Evaluation Tool (PET, v2.08D) (Paatero and Tapper, 1994; Ulbrich et al., 2009) in order to resolve distinct OA factors that might be representative of specific sources. The PMF-ACSM data processing was followed by the procedures proposed previously (Ulbrich et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2011). Due to the weak signal intensities, the ions with m/z over 120 were not included in the analysis. Any ions with signal-tonoise (S/N) < 0.2 were removed from the analysis, and the ions whose S/N was 0.2–2 were downweighted by increasing their errors calculations by a factor of 2 (Sun et al., 2011). Different PMF solutions were resolved by varying the factor number from 2 to 7. The solutions were evaluated by comparing the mass spectral profiles of the output secondary aerosol factors as a function of the rotational parameter (fpeak). Finally, a three-factor solution with fpeak = 0 was selected as our best solution. The comparison of the results for three to five-factor solutions was described in detail in Fig. S4 and Table. S2.

195 2.3.3 Identification of haze episodes

196 The haze episodes were defined by the daily PM2.5 mass concentration exceeding Grade II National Ambient Air Quality Standard (AAQS) of 75 μ g/m³ for two successive days (Wang et al., 197 198 2014). In the present study, we made some slight modifications to this definition following the 199 procedure of Zheng et al. (2016). Briefly, the periods during which the 24 h-moving average 200 concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ exceeds 75 µg/m³ for two successive days are regarded as episode candidates. If the hourly $PM_{2.5}$ concentration during the first hour of an episode candidate is 50-75 μ g/m³, then 201 202 the episode has a shape of 'slow start'; if it is 0-50 μ g/m³, then the episode has the shape of the 'rapid 203 start'. Similarly, the shape at the end of an episode candidate can also be identified. Haze episodes 204 having a 'slow start' typically arise from the gradual accumulation of pollutants emitted both locally 205 and regionally under unfavourable meteorological conditions, while haze episodes having a 'rapid 206 start' are most likely related to regional transport (Zheng et al., 2015). Haze episodes having a 'slow 207 end' usually resulted from the gradual scavenge of pollutants.

According to the definition mentioned above, three haze episodes (denoted as H1, H2 and H3, respectively, in Fig. 2), all with the types of 'slow start' and 'slow end', were identified over the whole campaign. In addition, a fog event occurred during each haze episode (denoted as F1, F2 and F3, respectively). Lacking the information of visibility and aerosol size distribution up to several tens of micrometres, we were not able to precisely diagnose the accumulation and dissipation stages of a fog event. Instead, we selected the hours with RH near 100 % as the duration of a fog event, which was the same as the condition described in previous studies (Izhar et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2015).

215 **2.4 Air parcels trajectories analysis**

216 2-day back trajectories arriving at the receptor site were calculated every hour over the whole 217 campaign using the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) HYSPLIT version 4 (Draxler and Hess, 1998). Input to the model is in the form of 1° latitude-longitude gridded 218 219 meteorological parameters from the Global Data Assimilation System meteorological dataset. We 220 chose an arrival height of 500 m which is above ground level (AGL) for target analysis in the 221 HYSPLIT model to diminish the effects of surface friction (Polissar et al., 2001). Finally, 839 backward trajectories in total were obtained. Then, these trajectories were grouped into four clusters, 222 223 i.e., cluster 1 from the north, cluster 2 from the southwest, cluster 3 from the northeast, and cluster 224 4 from the east. The trajectories of each cluster accounted for 12.6, 6.2, 58.4, and 22.8 % of total air 225 parcels trajectories during the whole campaign, respectively.

226 **3. Results and discuss**

227 **3.1** Overview of meteorology and PM_{2.5} chemical composition

The temporal variation of meteorological parameters, concentrations of gaseous pollutants, and chemical compositions of PM_{2.5} over the whole campaign are illustrated in Fig. 2. The missing data were due to the acquisition software malfunction of the instrument. During the campaign, the temperature ranged from -1.9 to 16.3 °C with a mean value of 7.3 \pm 2.8 °C, and the RH ranged from 35 to 100 % with an average of 81 \pm 12.4%. The wind from the southwest prevailed with an average speed of 0.7 \pm 0.5 m/s during the entire campaign. This indicated that the atmosphere was in a stagnant state with relatively low temperature and high RH.

The mass concentration of NR-PM_{2.5} during the campaign ranged from 23 to 230 µg/m³, with an average of 98.5 ± 38.7 µg/m³. This was comparable to the average PM_{2.5} concentrations during wintertime in other cities in the SCB (Table S1). The OA concentration varied from several to 103 µg/m³, with an average of $39.2 \pm 3.9 \mu$ g/m³, constituting the majority of PM_{2.5}. OA contributed ~20-69 % to PM_{2.5} with an average of 40.3 ± 7.6 %. The average concentrations of nitrate, sulphate, ammonium and chloride were 29 ± 14 (ranging from ~4 to 80 µg/m³), 10 ± 4.2 (ranging from ~2 to 28μ g/m³), 15.1 ± 6.4 (ranging from ~3 to 38μ g/m³) and $5.2 \pm 4.1 \mu$ g/m³ (ranging from ~1 to 50 μ g/m³), taking up 28.8 ± 5.5, 10.6 ± 2.8, 15.3 ± 2.2 and 5.1 ± 3.1 % of PM_{2.5}, respectively. The dominance of organic species was similar to previous observations in urban Chengdu during the winter of 2014 and 2015 (Kong et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2018). However, the nitrate concentration was higher than that of sulphate, which was contrary to that reported previously. A recent observation in urban Chengdu also found that higher fraction of nitrate in PM_{2.5} compared to sulphate, probably due to the remarkable decrease in SO₂ emission in the past ten years (Huang et al., 2021; Fu et al., 2017).

249 **3.2 Characteristics of inorganic aerosol**

The correlation between the molar equivalent concentrations of measured ammonium and the sum of molar equivalent concentrations of nitrate, sulphate and chloride was illustrated in Fig. 3. The slope of the regression line for ammonium against the sum of nitrate, sulphate and chloride with a value of 1.01 indicated that the anions in $PM_{2.5}$ were well neutralised by cation (ammonium). This result illustrated that nitrate, sulphate, and chloride were mainly in the form of NH_4NO_3 , $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ and NH_4Cl , which were commonly considered secondarily formed (Ianniello et al., 2011; Ge et al., 2017).

As SO_4^{2-} competed with NO_3^{-} for NH_4^+ during their formation, the relationship between nitrateto-sulphate molar ratio ($[NO_3^{-}]/[SO_4^{2-}]$) and ammonium-to-sulphate molar ratio ($[NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}]$) was indicative of the pathway of nitrate formation (He et al., 2012). If $[NO_3^{-}]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ linearly correlated with $[NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ under ammonium-rich conditions ($[NO_3^{-}]/[SO_4^{2-}] \ge 1.5$), the homogeneous formation of nitrate was expected:

262 $HNO_3(g) + NH_3(g) \leftrightarrow NH_4NO_3(s,aq) \quad (1)$

263 While for ammonium-poor conditions ($[NO_3^-]/[SO_4^{2-}] < 1.5$), the high concentration of nitrate 264 was attributed to its formation through hydrolysis of N₂O₅ on the pre-existing aerosols (Pathak et 265 al., 2009):

266
$$N_2O_5(aq) + H_2O(aq) \leftrightarrow 2NO_3^-(aq) + 2H^+(aq)$$
 (2)

To better elucidate the factors affecting nitrate formation, we divided the observation period into daytime (6:00 - 18:00, local time) and nighttime (18:00 - 6:00 next day, local time) hours. Fig. S1 showed that the [NO₃⁻]/[SO₄²⁻] during daytime was larger than 1.5, indicating ammonium-rich 270 conditions. $[NO_3^-]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ was significantly correlated with $[NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ during daytime with the 271 regression function:

272 $\frac{NO_3^-}{SO_4^{2-}} = 0.69 \times \frac{NH_4^+}{SO_4^{2-}} - 1.08 \quad (3)$

The intercept of the regression line on the $[NH_4^+]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ axis was 1.56, which was close to 1.5, as suggested by Pathak et al. (2009), implying that the nitrate formation was mainly driven by the homogeneous pathway (Sun et al., 2011). Indeed, the nitrate concentration and nitrogen oxidation ratio (NOR = $n(NO_3^-)/[n(NO_2) + n(NO_3^-)]$) increased as the Ox concentration increased (as shown in Fig. 4), and exhibited a strong O₃/Ox ratio dependency, which further demonstrated the homogeneous daytime formation of nitrate.

279 The emission of NOx and SO₂ had been reduced while NH₃ increased in the past almost ten 280 years, which resulted in the ammonium-rich condition in the atmosphere (Fu et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2018). Despite this, a recent study showed that the nocturnal nitrate formation was not sensitive to 281 282 NH_3 , and even increased slightly as NH_3 decreased, which was likely due to the aerosol acidity effects on the partitioning of nitrate (Wen et al., 2018). Thus, the fitting of $[NO_3^-]/[SO_4^{2-}]$ vs. 283 [NH₄⁺]/[SO₄²⁻] might not be applicable for identifying the nitrate formation process during 284 285 nighttime. The average O₃ concentration was 13.7 µg/m³ and the average RH was 83.3 % during 286 nighttime, which favoured the aqueous-phase reactions to occur. Higher nitrate concentration was 287 observed with increasing ALWC during nighttime (as illustrated in Fig. S2), and so was NOR. This 288 phenomenon further implies the heterogeneous hydrolysis of N₂O₅ might dominate the formation 289 of nocturnal nitrate. The results were consistent with the study of Tian et al. (2019), which showed that heterogeneous hydrolysis of N₂O₅ dominated nitrate formation during nighttime, while 290 291 photochemical reactions also played an important role in nitrate formation during daytime in two 292 megacities in Sichuan Basin.

Fig. S2(a) showed that the average sulphate concentration increased slightly when Ox > 60µg/m³ during daytime hours, suggesting the contribution of the photochemical process to sulphate formation. However, the overall sulphur oxidation ratio (SOR = $n(SO_4^{2-})/[n(SO_2) + n(SO_4^{2-})])$ decreased with increasing Ox (Fig. 4(b)), suggesting the photooxidation was not efficient for converting SO₂ to sulphate. By contrast, SOR showed an increasing trend as ALWC increased, demonstrating the efficient conversion of SO₂ to sulphate through aqueous-phase reactions. A previous study showed that the aqueous oxidation of SO_2 by NO_2 is key to efficient sulphate formation on fine aerosols with high relative humidity and NH_3 neutralisation (Wang et al., 2016). As mentioned above, the atmospheric aerosols were well neutralised, and RH was high, which favoured the following reaction to occur:

303

$$SO_2(g) + 2NO_2(g) + 2H_2O(aq) \rightarrow 2H^+(aq) + SO_4^{2-}(aq) + 2HONO(g)$$
 (5)

304 3.3 Characteristics of organic aerosol

305 3.3.1 Source appointment of OA

PMF analysis was performed to explore the OA sources measured during the whole campaign.
A three-factor solution was chosen as the best PMF analysis results based on the mass spectra profile,
variation of Q/Qexp, diurnal variation and correlation with external tracers. The resolved factors
included a hydrocarbon-like OA (HOA), a biomass burning OA (BBOA) and an oxygenated OA
(OOA). The mass spectra profiles of these three factors were shown in Fig. 5, and the temporal
profile of each factor and its external tracer were also shown.

The mass spectrum of HOA was dominated by the ions of m/z 29, 41, 55, 57, 69 and 71. HOA was well correlated with BC (r = 0.77), which was largely emitted by vehicles. The diurnal cycles of HOA showed two peaks during typical rush hours, demonstrating the contribution of traffic emissions to HOA (Lanz et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2005). The average concentration of HOA was 8.9 ± 6.5 μ g/m³ and constituted 24.2 ± 10.4 % of OA over the whole campaign. The increased fraction of HOA as a function of total OA (Fig. 6) demonstrated the contribution of motor vehicle emissions to haze formation.

BBOA was characterised by the pronounced peaks at m/z 60 (mainly $C_2H_4O_2^+$) and 73 ($C_3H_5O_2^+$), which were generally regarded as biomass burning markers from levoglucosan compounds (Mohr et al., 2012; Weimer et al., 2008; Alfarra et al., 2007). BBOA was well correlated with m/z 60 and m/z 73 (r = 0.76 and 0.94, respectively) and accounted for 88 % of m/z 60 and 70 % for m/z 73, which were higher than those in other sources. A good correlation was also found between BBOA and chloride (r = 0.64), which was also suggested to be one of the tracers of biomass burning. The diurnal variation of BBOA showed a similar trend of chloride (Fig. S3(a)), with two peaks during 8:00-10:00 and at 19:00, which was due to the residential cooking and heating using biomass. The concentration of BBOA ranged from ~1 to 34 μ g/m³, with an average of 8.9 ± 5.4 μ g/m³. BBOA took up 24.2 ±8.6 % with a maximum of 46 % of OA, and its fraction also increased with increasing total OA concentration, indicating the contributions of biomass burning activities during haze episodes.

331 OOA was featured by the dominant signal intensities at m/z 28 (mainly CO⁺) and m/z 44 (CO₂⁺). 332 OOA accounted for 69 % of m/z 44, which was higher than those in other sources. The time series 333 of OOA correlated well with those of nitrate and sulphate (r = 0.81 and 0.72, respectively), suggesting the commonly regional and aged properties of OOA. The concentration of OOA 334 335 accumulated gradually from 8:00 to 13:00, then decreased till night time. The diurnal cycle of OOA 336 was similar to solar radiation (as shown in Fig. S3(d)), suggesting OOA formation was associated with photochemical reactions. The average OOA concentration showed increasing trends as Ox 337 338 concentration increased during both daytime and nighttime (Fig. S5), indicating the probable 339 formation pathways of OOA from its precursors (Kuang et al., 2020; Zhan et al., 2021). Note that 340 the accumulation of NO₂ would lead to the decrease of O_3/Ox ratio at night; thus, Ox might not be 341 an appropriate indicator of photochemical oxidation (Xu et al., 2017; Herndon et al., 2008). The 342 OOA formation might be attributed to other processes during nighttime. For example, previous 343 studies showed that high NOx concentration facilitated the formation of nitrate radical (NO₃), and 344 the NO₃ oxidation of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOC) was important for nighttime 345 secondary organic aerosol formation (Boyd et al., 2017; Rollins et al., 2012). Except that the average OOA concentration showed an increasing trend when ALWC $< 200 \,\mu g/m^3$ during nighttime, 346 347 OOA concentration did not change significantly with increasing ALWC during both day- and 348 nighttime, suggesting the aqueous-phase reactions were not a significant pathway toward OOA 349 formation.

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3.3.2 Elemental composition of OA

The *f*44 vs. *f*43 and *f*44 vs. *f*60 during the entire campaign were illustrated in Fig. 7. The triangle plot of *f*44 vs. *f*43 has been widely used to characterise OA evolution in the atmosphere because m/z's 44 and 43 are usually from different functional groups, and the ratio changes as a function of 354 atmospheric aging. The f43 ranged from ~0.06 to 0.12 with an average of 0.08 \pm 0.009, and the range of f44 was ~0.07-0.24 with an average of 0.15 \pm 0.03, suggesting the existence of both fresh 355 356 and aged aerosols in the atmosphere. Most of the data were within the triangle space characterised 357 by a series of field observations and experimental data (Ng et al., 2011). However, those points with higher f44 were outside the upper boundary of the triangle region, suggesting the corresponding 358 aerosols were more oxidised. It could be observed that the points with higher f44 (> 0.16) 359 corresponded to relatively higher Ox concentration and lower ALWC, while those with lower f44 360 361 corresponded to relatively lower Ox concentration and higher ALWC, suggesting that the formation of more oxidised OOA was mainly attributed to photochemical reactions, and the formation of less 362 363 oxidised OOA was probably attributed to aqueous-phase reactions (Zhao et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2019). 364

The triangle plot of f44 vs. f60 was widely used as a metric to access the evolution of 365 atmospheric BBOA (Cubison et al., 2011). A value of 0.003 for f60 was recommended as an 366 367 appropriate value to represent the atmospheric background free of biomass burning influence (Aiken 368 et al., 2009; Docherty et al., 2008). The f60 ranged from 0.0028 to 0.055 with an average of 0.008 369 ± 0.003 during the campaign. Except for several points, the f60 was ubiquitously higher than 0.003 370 and most points fell in the triangular region, suggesting the contribution of biomass burning to OA. 371 The f44 and f60 of BBOA resolved by PMF in the present study were also in the triangular region 372 and comparable with previous studies (Paglione et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2019; Kim et al., 2019). 373 Fig. S6 showed that f44 increased while f60 decreased with increasing Ox, indicating the likely 374 oxidation of levoglucosan and/or levoglucosan-like substances. Cubison et al. (2011) suggested that 375 the increasing f44 was not only attributed to the oxidation of levoglucosan-like species, but the 376 oxidation of bulk OA also played a role because the levoglucosan-like species only contributed a 377 small fraction of the OA mass (Aiken et al., 2009). Their contribution to the total signal m/z 44 378 before or after aging was also small. Compared to the effects of Ox, the increasing ALWC did not 379 seem to push f60 to the left upper region. Most of the data points, which corresponded to high ALWC, were within the region of aged BBOA in the f44 vs. f60 space as defined previously by 380 381 Paglione et al. (2020), indicating the probable aqueous-phase oxidation of BBOA. Although the 382 aqueous OOA (aq-OOA) could not be resolved in the present study, we deduced that the aqueous-383 phase reactions occurred and contributed to the formation of OOA, for (1) the ambient RH was

typically above 65%, which favoured the presence of wet aerosol particles; (2) the range of O/C
estimated from the Improved-Ambient (IA) method varied from 0.46 to 0.85 when the ambient RH >
80 %, covering the O/C range of the OOA obtained from the photooxidation of organic precursors
in the aqueous phase and ambient aq-OOA observed in many other cities (Duan et al., 2021;
Mandariya et al., 2019; Sun et al., 2010; Xu et al., 2017; Gilardoni et al., 2016).

389 The evolution of OA during the whole campaign was characterised by the van Krevelen (VK) 390 diagram in Fig. 8. The slope obtained from the linear regression of H:C versus O:C plotted in the 391 VK- $\overline{OS_c}$ space could be used to infer the composition of OA and the chemical process in OA formation (Docherty et al., 2018). The slope of 0 in VK- $\overline{OS_c}$ plot was related to the replacement of 392 393 a hydrogen atom with an OH moiety, while the slopes of -0.5 and -1 indicated the formation of 394 carboxylic groups with/without fragmentation, and a slope of -2 was equivalent to the replacement of an aliphatic carbon with a carbonyl group (Heald et al., 2010; Ng et al., 2011). The slope of the 395 396 linear fitting line for all the data points was -0.14, suggesting the probable formation of carboxylic 397 acid moieties and hydroxyl groups. The slopes of the linear fitting lines for each fog episode were similar 398 and close to zero, which was consistent with the hydroxyl group formation possibly taking place in 399 aerosol water through dark chemistry (Sun et al., 2010; Yu et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2014).

400 **3.4 Regional transport**

401 Air parcels from the north (cluster 1) transported at relatively high heights before arriving at 402 the observation site (as illustrated in Fig. 9), and corresponded to the lowest average $PM_{2.5}$ concentration (66 \pm 30 µg/m³). The air parcels of cluster 2 had the longest transport distance and 403 404 highest transport height. Although they took up the least proportion of total air parcels, they had the 405 highest average PM_{2.5} concentration ($119 \pm 30 \ \mu g/m^3$) during the whole campaign, suggesting that 406 pollutants accumulated high in the air. Air parcels from the east (cluster 3) with the shortest transport distance and relatively low transport height had an average PM_{2.5} concentration of $113 \pm 34 \,\mu g/m^3$. 407 408 This indicated that the pollutants might be brought to the observation site along with the transport 409 of air parcels originating from adjacent areas. The air parcels from the northeast of Sichuan province 410 (cluster 4) had the lowest transport height; however, the corresponding PM_{2.5} concentration was 411 lower than that of cluster 3.

412 Compared to cluster 1 and cluster 4, a higher contribution of nitrate to PM_{2.5} was observed for
413 cluster 2 and cluster 3, which was mainly related to the intense emission from industry and vehicles.
414 However, the contribution of BBOA was higher for cluster 3 and cluster 4 compared to other clusters,
415 suggesting intense biomass burning along their transport paths.

416 To better understand the potential pollutant sources during the campaign, the potential source 417 contribution function (PSCF) was applied to analyse the possible regions that might contribute to 418 haze formation. The spatial distribution of weighted PSCF for different chemical compositions was 419 illustrated in Fig. 10. The WPSCF values for organics over the southwest and southeast were > 0.7, 420 indicating these locations were likely source areas of organics. For nitrate and sulphate, the areas 421 by the southwest and south of the sampling site were potential source regions. The major source 422 regions for HOA were the areas of south and northeast Deyang. The regions contributing to BBOA 423 were the areas of east Sichuan province, which was consistent with a higher proportion of BBOA in $PM_{2.5}$ in the air parcels stemming from these locations. For OOA, the WPSCF values over the 424 425 southwest and southeast of Deyang and northeast Sichuan province were > 0.7, suggesting the 426 contribution of these regions.

427 **3.5 Case studies for haze pollution**

428 **3.5.1 Factors driving the evolution of haze episodes**

As mentioned above, three haze episodes were identified over the whole campaign. The synoptic conditions and aerosol chemical composition for each haze episode were summarised in Table. S3. The average temperature during H2 was lower than those during H1 and H3, while the average solar radiation was higher. The mean RH and wind speed were almost the same during each haze episode. The average concentrations of aerosol chemical composition and their contributions to PM_{2.5} were different in each haze episode, indicating that the factors causing haze formation might be different during the campaign.

The average $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations measured by ToF-ACSM during H1, H2, and H3 were 113 ±46, 109 ±46, and $104 \pm 30 \,\mu\text{g/m}^3$, respectively. The average mass fractions of OA, nitrate, sulphate, ammonium, and chloride were similar during H1 and H3 (as shown in Fig. 11(a)). During H2, the mass fractions of sulphate and ammonium were slightly higher than those in H1 and H3, while the mass fractions of OA and chloride were lower. In OA, the fraction of primary organic aerosols (POA
= HOA + BBOA) during H3 was higher than those during H1 and H2. The fraction of BBOA showed
an increasing trend from H1 to H3, demonstrating the contribution of biomass burning to haze
formation. Despite the importance of BBOA to winter haze formation in SCB, the control of biomass
burning did not receive much attention, and more efforts were needed for atmospheric aerosol
mitigation in the future.

446 Fig. 11(b) showed that the concentrations of OA, nitrate, sulphate, ammonium, and chloride 447 all increased as the ambient air quality worsened (implying by the increasing PM_{2.5} concentration) 448 during each haze episode. During H1, the fraction of nitrate in PM_{2.5} increased, while the proportions 449 of sulphate, OOA, and HOA in PM2.5 decreased as the PM2.5 concentration increased, indicating the 450 evolution of this haze episode was mainly driven by the reactions involving nitrate formation. The 451 average NO₃⁻ formation rate as a function of PM_{2.5} concentration during H1 was depicted in Fig. S7. 452 The NO₃⁻ formation rate increased fast as PM_{2.5} concentration increased from 50 to 110 μ g/m³, 453 which also showed the rapid formation of nitrate contributed to haze formation. In contrast, the average nitrate formation rates were below zero when the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was < 130 µg/m³ 454 455 during H2 and H3, suggesting nitrate formation did not play an important role at the early stage of 456 H2 and H3. Although the nitrate formation rate decreased when $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was > 110 457 $\mu g/m^3$ during H1, it remained positive, suggesting the nitrate concentration increased gradually.

458 For H2, the fraction of nitrate and ammonium in $PM_{2.5}$ did not show apparent changes, and the 459 fractions of sulphate and OOA decreased, while the fractions of BBOA and HOA increased as the 460 air quality worsened, demonstrating that the emission of primary organic aerosols from biomass 461 burning and vehicle exhaust were the major factors which drove the haze formation. During H3, the 462 fractions of nitrate and BBOA in PM2.5 increased, while OOA decreased and HOA, sulphate, 463 ammonium, chloride did not change significantly as the $PM_{2.5}$ concentration increased, showing that 464 the evolution of this haze episode was mainly driven by the reactions involving nitrate formation and biomass burning. The fire maps (as illustrated in Fig. S8) showed that more fire spots during 465 466 H2 and H3 were observed around Deyang compared to non-haze episodes, suggesting the biomass 467 burning activities were more intensive during these haze episodes.

468 The average estimated O:C and H:C during H1 and H2 were similar and slightly higher/lower 469 than that during H3, thus resulting in a higher carbon oxidation state ($\overline{OS_c} \approx 2O$:C - H:C) during 470 H1 and H2. The lower average $\overline{OS_c}$ during H3 might be due to the higher proportion of HOA and

471 BBOA, which did not undergo long-time aging and kept relatively fresh in the atmosphere.

472 **3.5.2** Evolution of chemical composition during fog periods

The fog periods usually started at night or early morning and dissipated in the afternoon. The individual meteorological parameter differed among each fog period (as summarised in Table S3). The average temperature was the highest during F1 ($6.2 \pm 2.3 \,^{\circ}$ C), and the lowest was observed during F2 ($1.5 \pm 3.2 \,^{\circ}$ C). The maximum solar radiation during F1 and F2 (470 and 500 W/m²) were similar and much higher than that during F3 (75 W/m²). The synoptic conditions with low temperature and calm wind favoured the formation of radiation fogs in each fog period.

479 The chemical composition of PM_{2.5} was also different during each fog period. The average 480 concentrations of organics, nitrate, and ammonium were almost the same during F2 and F3 and 481 significantly lower than those during F1. However, the average chloride concentration during F2 482 was twice of those during F1 and F3, suggesting the possibility of stronger biomass burning emissions during F2. OOA constituted the major part of OA during F1, while HOA and BBOA were 483 more important than OOA during F2 and F3. The domination of secondary species in PM2.5 during 484 485 F1 was probably due to the aqueous-phase reactions, while the primary emission tended to be 486 stronger during F2 and F3.

Since the aerosols were dried by a Nafion drier, the aerosols that ToF-ACSM measured were the interstitial particles in droplets or those excluded from fog droplets. In order to better characterise the evolution of chemical composition in each fog period, the intervals for 3 h before and after the fog period, when ambient RH was lower than 95 %, were regarded as pre-fog and post-fog periods, respectively (Kim et al., 2019). Note that the post-fog was not assigned for F3 because the ToF-ACSM data were not available with a failure of acquisition software.

The average concentrations of different chemical compositions during the evolution of fog episodes (pre-fog, during fog, and post-fog) were illustrated in Fig. 12. Compared to the pre-fog period of F1, all species in the interstitial aerosols decreased during the foggy period, likely due to the scavenging by fog droplets. Note that the OOA and sulphate decreased less than other species, probably due to the OOA and sulphate formation through aqueous-phase reactions against the scavenging effect of fog droplets. Except for OOA and nitrate, all species kept decreasing during
post-fog periods, which might be attributed to the increase of the planet boundary layer (PBL) height.
The increase of OOA and nitrate was probably associated with the enhancement of photochemical
reaction after the dissipation of fog.

502 All species (except for HOA) increased during the foggy period from the pre-fog period 503 during F2, which was different from the case during F1. Although hydrophilic species (e.g., nitrate, 504 sulphate, and OOA) tended to be scavenged by fog droplets, it seemed that the formation of OOA, 505 nitrate, sulphate, and ammonium was significantly faster than wet removal, thus resulting in an 506 increase during the foggy period. BBOA and HOA were commonly considered as hydrophobic 507 species, and they were excluded from fog droplets. Previous studies showed that BBOA and HOA 508 concentrations decreased during the foggy period compared to the pre-fog period (Collett et al., 509 2008; Kim et al., 2019), despite their insoluble nature. The increase of BBOA in the present study 510 was likely attributed to the intense emission from biomass burning during the foggy period, which 511 overwhelmed the scavenging effects of fog droplets. The enhanced partitioning of biomass burning 512 VOCs under high RH conditions might also contribute the increase of BBOA. For example, a recent 513 study showed that the large quantities of phenols from biomass burning emission would readily 514 partition into the atmospheric aqueous phase (Xiao et al., 2022). During the post-fog period, BBOA 515 and HOA decreased significantly, possibly due to weaker emission and the efficient removal of fog 516 droplets through nucleation and/or coagulation. The dynamics of PBL might also play a role because 517 the temperature kept increasing, and higher PBL was expected during the post-fog period. With 518 stronger solar radiation, OOA, nitrate, and ammonium continued growing during the post-fog period 519 from the foggy period through photochemical reactions. However, sulphate slightly decreased, 520 which might be due to the insufficient formation through photochemical reactions, and decreased 521 as the PBL height increased. Similar to F2, all the secondary species increased during the foggy 522 period from the pre-fog period during F3. However, BBOA and HOA were reduced significantly by 523 the scavenging of fog droplets and/or by the conversion to OOA through aqueous phase reactions.

The average elemental O:C showed an increasing trend from pre-fog periods to post-fog/foggy periods, while H:C did not change significantly for different fog events, suggesting the OA became more oxidised. As shown in Fig. S9, the mass fractions of OOA increased, while the contribution of BBOA and HOA decreased from pre-fog periods to post-fog/foggy periods for the three fog events. 528 Except for the scavenging of fog droplets, BBOA and HOA could also be oxidised to OOA through 529 aqueous-phase reactions (Wang et al., 2021), thus resulting in the decrease contribution of BBOA 530 and HOA. As a consequence, the O:C increased in line with the increased contribution of OOA. 531 Previous studies had reported that the aqueous-phase reactions enhanced OOA formation during fog/high RH periods (Chakraborty et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2020; Chakraborty et al., 2015). It 532 533 appeared that the OOA formation would balance out the scavenging of fog droplets during the foggy 534 period for the three fog events, despite the hydrophilic OOA being preferentially scavenged by fog 535 droplets. Thus, the OOA concentration marginally decreased or even increased during foggy periods.

536 **4. Conclusions**

537 Haze pollution has long been a severe environmental problem in SCB. The formation process of haze pollution in SCB might be different from those in NCP, YRD, and PRD due to the unique 538 539 topography, meteorological conditions and emission sources, which are still unclear. Based on the 540 measurement data of a ToF-ACSM and combined with the PMF and PSCF analysis, the temporal 541 variation, formation process, and sources of PM_{2.5} were characterised to elucidate further the factors contributing to haze formation. It was found that the concentrations of OA and nitrate increased 542 543 dramatically as PM_{2.5} concentration increased, and the stagnant synoptic condition favoured the 544 accumulation of these pollutants. For different haze events, the driving factors could be classified 545 into three types: one was the reactions involving nitrate formation; another one was the intense 546 biomass burning and vehicle exhaust emissions, and the last one was the combination of the 547 reactions involving nitrate formation and biomass burning. Nitrate formation was primarily affected 548 by photooxidation during daytime, while the nocturnal nitrate formation was dominated by aqueous-549 phase reactions. OOA constituted a major part of OA, and it was mainly generated through 550 photooxidation, while aqueous-phase reactions did not significantly promote its formation.

551 Due to the limitation of the present study, the parameters which are indicative of the pathways 552 of nitrate formation are not characterised. The major precursors contributing to a large amount of 553 OOA are not clear yet. In addition, further investigation is needed to gain a better understanding of 554 the gas/particles emitted by biomass burning or other primary emissions and how they will affect 555 the haze formation processes, which may help to implement appropriate POA emission control to

- reduce the occurrence of haze. Nonetheless, the results in this study implied that controlling primary
- 557 emissions (such as biomass burning and vehicle exhaust) and precursors of secondary aerosols (e.g.,
- 558 NOx, SO₂, and VOCs) during severe haze periods will benefit the improvement of air quality in
- 559 SCB.
- 560
- 561

562	Data availability. The data generated and analysed in this study are available on visiting
563	https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.6965551.
564	
565	Author contributions. FY and SX designed this study. XZ and QL contributed to data collection
566	during the field campaign. JZ, DZ, and CZ performed field experiments. ZL and CP performed the
567	data analysis. ZB wrote the manuscript. GS, LZ, and YC contributed to the scientific discussion and
568	paper correction.
569	
570	Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.
571	
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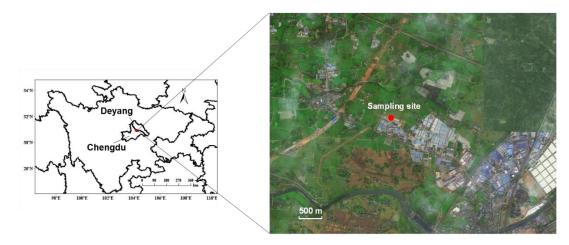






Fig. 1 Location of the observation site (from Baidu Maps, ©2022 Baidu – GS(2021)6026).



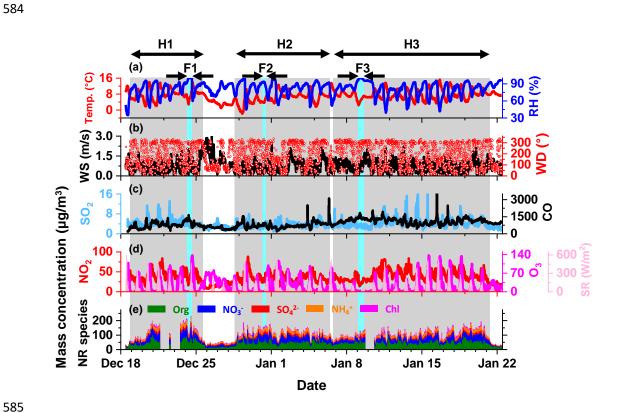


Fig. 2 Time series of (a) relative humidity (RH) and temperature (T); (b) wind direction and wind speed; (c), (d) CO, NO₂, SO₂, and O₃ mass concentrations and solar radiation; (e) mass concentration of organics, nitrate, sulphate, ammonium, and chloride in NR-PM_{2.5}. The grey-shaded areas represent the intervals of H1, H2, and H3, respectively. The light blue-shaded areas represent the intervals of F1, F2, and F3, respectively.

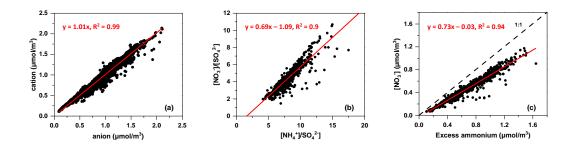
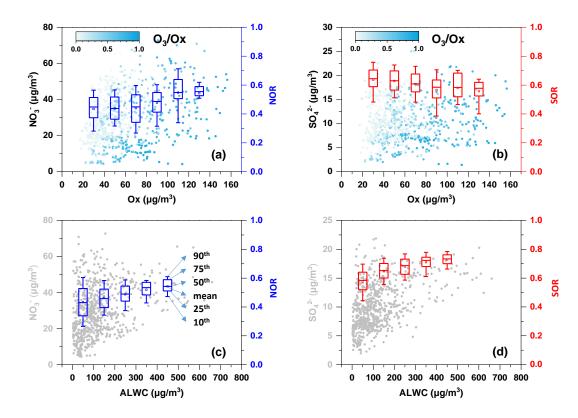


Fig. 3 Scatter plots of (a) molar concentrations of cations vs. anions, (b) molar ratios of nitrate to
sulphate vs. ammonium to sulphate, and (c) molar concentrations of nitrate vs. excess ammonium.



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Fig. 4 Variation of (a), (c) nitrate and NOR and (b), (d) sulphate and SOR as Ox/ALWC increases. The data NOR and SOR were grouped into different bins according to 20 µg/m³ increment of Ox in (a) and (b), and 100 µg/m³ increment of ALWC in (c) and (d). The colour scale represents O₃/Ox ratios in (a) and (b). The mean (square), 50th (horizontal line inside the box), 25th and 75th percentiles (lower and upper box), and 10th and 90th percentiles (lower and upper whiskers) of the box chart are marked in (c). The concentration of ALWC was simulated using the ISORROPIA-II model.

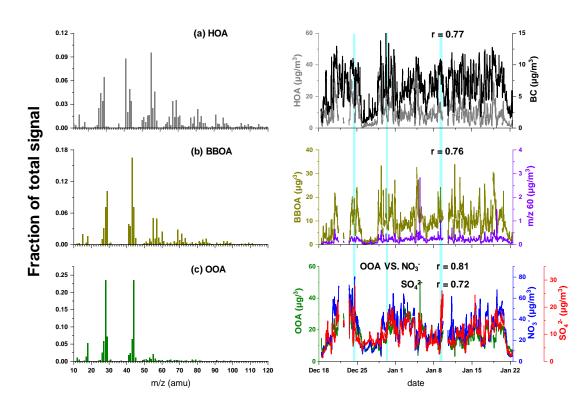


Fig. 5 Mass spectrum of (a) HOA, (b) BBOA, and (c) OOA resolved by PMF. The time series of
each OA source and corresponding tracers are depicted in the right panel. The light blue shaded
areas represent the intervals of foggy periods.

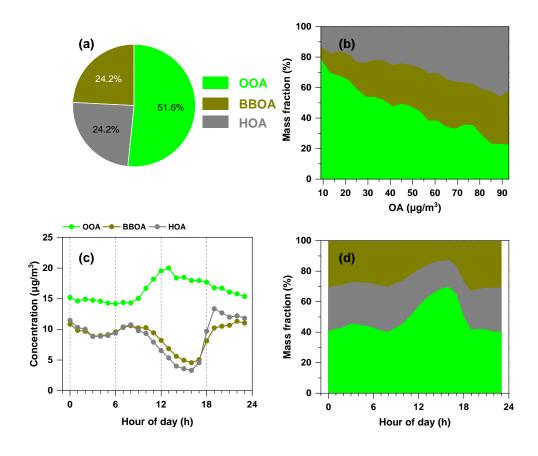
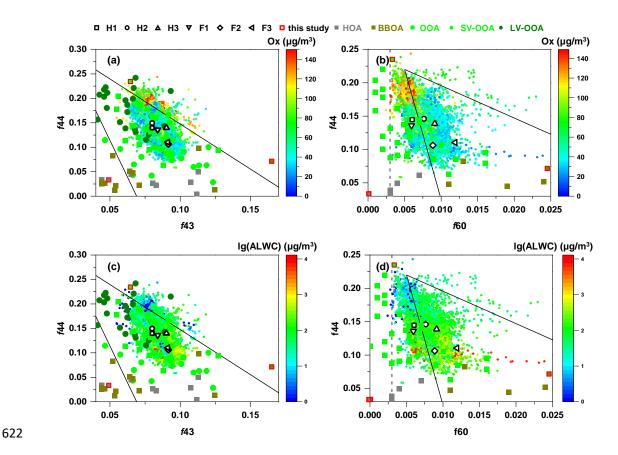


Fig. 6 Average mass fraction of different OOA, BBOA, and HOA (a) in OA and (b) as a function of
OA mass concentration. The diurnal variation of different OA factors and their mass contributions
are shown in (c) and (d).



623 Fig. 7 Triangle plots of (a), (c) f44 (ratio of m/z 44 to total signal in the component mass spectrum) 624 vs. f43 (ratio of m/z 43 to total signal in the component mass spectrum), and (b), (d) f44 vs. f60 625 (ratio of m/z 60 to total signal in the component mass spectrum) during the whole campaign. The colour scale in (a) and (b) represents Ox concentration, and that in (c) and (d) represents lg(ALWC). 626 627 The solid lines in (a) and (c) are derived from the results reported by Ng et al. (2010). The dashed line representing the background value of secondary aged OA and the solid guidelines in (b) and (d) 628 are derived from Cubison et al. (2011). The f44 vs. f43 and f44 vs. f60 for different OA sources 629 reported in previous studies are also shown (Kim et al., 2019; Ng et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2016; Zhao 630 631 et al., 2019; Paglione et al., 2020).

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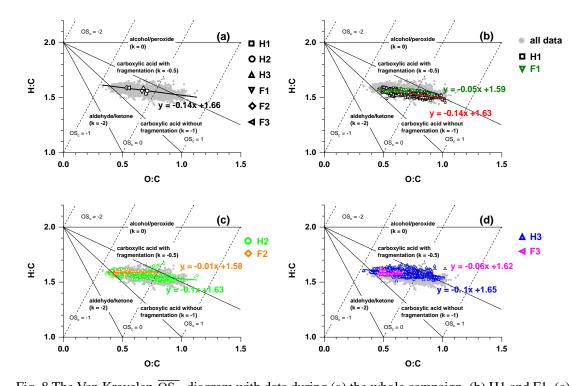




Fig. 8 The Van Krevelen- $\overline{OS_c}$ diagram with data during (a) the whole campaign, (b) H1 and F1, (c) H2 and F2, and (d) H3 and F3. The triangle lines with different slopes show distinct formation

638 processes (Heald et al., 2010).

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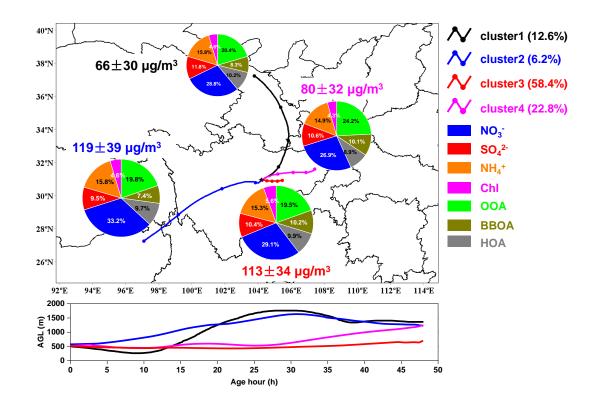




Fig. 9 Simulation results of 48 h backward air parcels cluster-mean trajectories during the campaign.
The lines in black, blue, red, and purple represent the mean trajectories of cluster 1 to cluster 4,
respectively. The pie charts show the average mass contribution of different chemical compositions
to PM_{2.5} for each cluster. The lower panel shows the height profile (above ground level, AGL) for
different air parcels clusters along their transport paths.

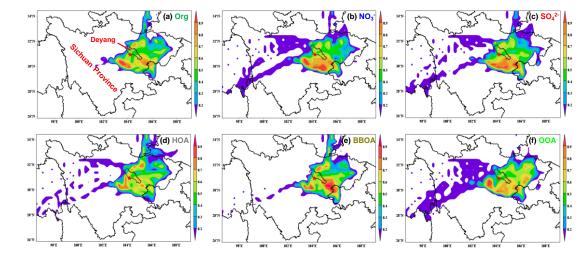




Fig. 10 Simulation results of PSCF for (a) organics, (b) nitrate, (c) sulphate, (d) HOA, (e) BBOA, and (f) OOA during the whole campaign. The 50th percentile of the concentrations for each composition (organics: 39.5 μ g/m³, nitrate: 27.8 μ g/m³, sulphate: 9.5 μ g/m³, HOA: 7.6 μ g/m³, BBOA: 8.7 μ g/m³, OOA: 15.2 μ g/m³) were used as thresholds in the PSCF analysis. The areas of Deyang and Sichuan Province are marked in (a).

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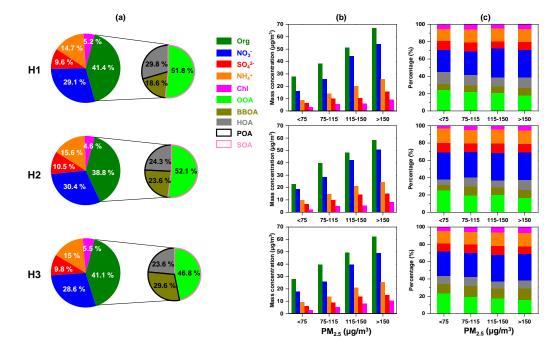
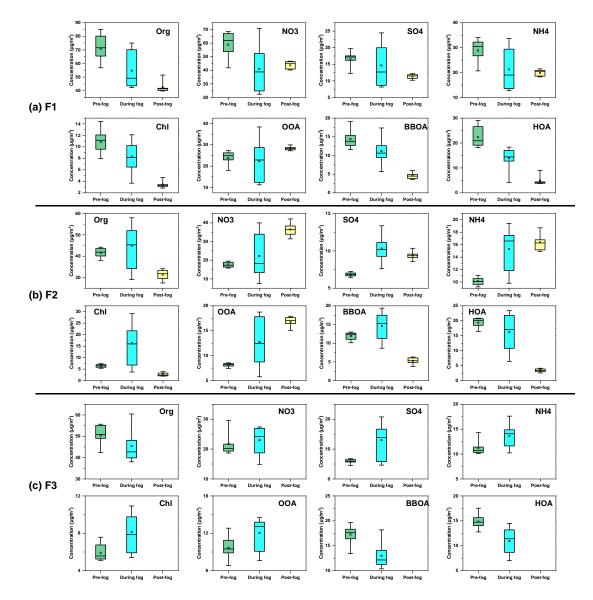


Fig. 11 (a) Average mass fractions of different chemical compositions in $PM_{2.5}$, (b) mass concentration, and (c) relative contribution of inorganic/organic species as a function of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration during each haze episode. The right panel in (a) depicts the contribution of OOA, BBOA, and HOA to OA.

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670 Fig. 12 Variation of organics, nitrate, sulphate, ammonium, chloride, OOA, BBOA, and HOA

⁶⁷¹ concentration during the evolution of (a) F1, (b) F2, and (c) F3.

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