#### **Characteristics of airborne black carbon-containing particles** 1 during the 2021 summer COVID-19 lockdown in a typical 2 Yangtze River Delta city, China 3

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#### 22 Abstract

23 Black carbon-containing particles (BCc) are ubiquitous in ambient air, significantly 24 contributing to particulate matter (PM) pollution. The unexpected outbreak of the 25 COVID-19 pandemic in the summer of 2021 prompted a localized and prolonged lockdown in Yangzhou City, situated in the Yangtze River Delta, China. This lockdown 26 27 led to significantly altering in local anthropogenic emissions, while neighboring cities 28 continued regular operations, providing a unique opportunity for the investigation of 29 BCc characteristics influenced by varying emission conditions. Single particle aerosol 30 mass spectrometer (SPA-MS) analysis revealed a notable decrease in the proportion of freshly emitted BCc during the lockdown period (LD). However, we did observe a 31 32 concurrent 7% increase in PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration during LD, with a higher proportion of 33 aged BCc compared to the period before the lockdown (BLD). Evidence shows that 34 regional transportation plays a vital role in the enhancement of PM<sub>2.5</sub> during LD. Moreover, reactive trace gases (e.g.,  $NO_x$ ,  $SO_2$ , and VOCs) could form thick coatings 35 36 on pre-existing particles likely via enhanced heterogeneous hydrolysis under high RH 37 as well, resulting in significant BCc particle growth (~600 nm), as well as PM<sub>2.5</sub>, during 38 LD. Our study highlights that short-term, strict local emission controls may not 39 effectively reduce PM pollution due to the complex production and transmission 40 characteristics of BCc and the non-linear responses of PM<sub>2.5</sub> to its precursors. 41 Achieving further effective PM<sub>2.5</sub> reduction mandates a focus on nuanced control of 42 BCc and necessitates a comprehensive and extensive approach with a regionally 43 coordinated and balanced control strategy through joint regulation.

## 44 **1. Introduction**

45 China has implemented long-term clean air measures to cut down anthropogenic 46 emissions and improve air quality (Ge et al., 2020), resulting in a nationwide reduction 47 of average fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>, aerodynamic diameter ≤ 2.5 µm) level from 48 50 µg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2015 to 30 µg m<sup>-3</sup> in 2020 (Zhou et al., 2022). However, this PM<sub>2.5</sub> 49 concentration remains significantly higher than the new World Health Organization 50 (WHO) guideline value of 5 µg m<sup>-3</sup> (*WHO Global Air Quality Guidelines*, 2021).

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52 Black carbon (BC) is a ubiquitous component of aerosols, typically constituting a small proportion (5~10%) of  $PM_{2.5}$  in the atmosphere (Chen et al., 2020). However, freshly 53 54 emitted BC evolves into BC-containing particles (BCc) by undergoing atmospheric 55 aging, contributing to a rise in the total mass of PM<sub>2.5</sub> through processes of coating or 56 embedding by other materials (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006; Peng et al., 2016). The 57 number and mass fraction of BCc can excess 60% and 50% of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, respectively, emphasizing the significant role of BC in elevating the mass concentration of 58 59 particulate matter (PM) (Sun et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020).

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61 The atmospheric aging of BCc involves intricate chemical and physical transformations 62 that influence their mixing state, morphology, hygroscopicity, and optical properties, all of which have profound implications for climate and human health (Bond et al., 63 64 2013; Ramanathan et al., 2008). For example, freshly emitted BC particles are initially 65 hydrophobic but possess a porous surface structure that facilitates the internal or 66 external mixing with co-emitted primary organic/inorganic and secondary materials that are associated with BC (Cheng et al., 2012; Li et al., 2020). On the other hand, BCc 67 68 undergoes continually aging processes, including the condensation of low-volatility 69 vapors (Li et al., 2022), coagulation with preexisting aerosols (Kondo et al., 2011), and 70 heterogeneous oxidation with gaseous pollutants (Zhang et al., 2024). This alteration 71 may affect the coating thickness, morphology, size distribution, and hygroscopicity of 72 BCc, thereby impacting their climate forcing as well as atmospheric lifetime (Luo et al., 73 2022; Taylor et al., 2014). High loading of atmospheric BCc could also depress the 74 development of the planetary boundary layer and exacerbate PM pollution episodes 75 (Huang et al., 2018). BCc characteristics are influenced by various combustion sources 76 and emission conditions, including local industrial burning, vehicle exhausts, 77 residential coal burning, and biomass burning (Li et al., 2020; Sedlacek et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2018), as well as long-range transport from other regions (Adachi et al., 78 79 2014; Zhang et al., 2021). Those diverse conditions complicate the development of 80 parameterizations of BCc properties, the insufficient understanding of complex emission sources, aging processes, and physical properties of BCc, hampering the 81 effectiveness of air quality remediation (Cappa et al., 2019; Kahnert, 2010; Sun et al., 82 83 2021).

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85 Studies on the effects of large-scale and short-term stringent emission control events on 86 air quality in China have been widely deployed, e.g., the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games 87 (Wang et al., 2010; Zhou et al., 2010), the 2015 Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) (Zhu et al., 2015), the 2014 Nanjing Youth Olympic Games (Wang et al., 2022) 88 89 and the national COVID-19 lockdown in 2020 winter (Huang et al., 2021; Le et al., 90 2020; L. Li et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020). Previous studies extensively investigated air pollutant variations during the COVID-19 lockdown in the winter of 2020 across 91 92 different regions of the world. Stringent restrictions on industrial and vehicular 93 activities have resulted in significant reductions in gaseous pollutants and particulate 94 matter, not only in megacities (Chen et al., 2020; Jeong et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2020) 95 but also in middle-sized cities (Clemente et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020) 96 and rural areas (Cui et al., 2021, 2020; Jain et al., 2021). Compared to the decreasing 97 trends observed in most cities worldwide, the level of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Shanghai (Chang et al., 98 2020), Hohhot (Zhou et al., 2022), and the Northeast of China Plain (Nie et al., 2021) 99 increased unexpectedly. These observations reveal the complex aerosol chemistry of 100 PM<sub>2.5</sub> comprising primary and secondary components. The reduction of primary 101 pollutants during lockdown resulted in a shift towards a higher proportion of secondary 102 aerosols, including inorganic and organic species, exhibiting a non-linear response to emission changes (Zhang et al., 2021). Furthermore, some studies suggested that the 103 104 increase in secondary aerosols during lockdown is due to the enhanced atmospheric 105 oxidative capacity resulting from the rise in ozone levels (Y. Wang et al., 2021), 106 unfavorable meteorological conditions (Chien et al., 2022; Sulaymon et al., 2021a), changes of local and regional emission sources (Feng et al., 2022). However, most 107 108 previous studies focused on lockdown events during the cold seasons, and studies on 109 summer lockdown events in China were very limited.

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111 Yangzhou is located in the central region of the Yangtze River Delta (YRD), at the 112 junction of the Yangtze River and, the Beijing-Hangzhou Grand Canal, which serves as 113 a prominent economic city, industrial-intensive area, and highly active inland shipping 114 node in East China. Due to the complex emissions and feedback with the East Asian 115 monsoons (Ding et al., 2019), this region is susceptible to anthropogenic aerosols, 116 especially BCc originating from chemical, steelmaking, coal-fired, petrochemical 117 enterprises, and transportation, etc. Extensive studies have investigated the responses 118 of atmospheric pollutants to emission changes during the COVID-19 lockdown 119 measures in the YRD (Chen et al., 2021; L. Li et al., 2020; Qin et al., 2021; K. Zhang 120 et al., 2022). However, the key chemical and physical processes specifically responsible 121 for the BCc in this region are still unclear. During the summer of 2021, Yangzhou 122 experienced a resurgence of COVID-19 with over 500 confirmed cases. In response, stringent public health measures were imposed from July 28th to September 10th, 123 including the closure of public transport, and suspension of non-essential industrial 124 125 plants, restaurants, shopping malls, and entertainment clubs. People were also 126 mandated to quarantine at home. Unlike the nationwide COVID-19 lockdown in China during the cold season of 2020 (Le et al., 2020; Sulaymon et al., 2021b), the summer
lockdown in Yangzhou was more localized but protracted, significantly altering local
anthropogenic emissions while neighboring cities maintained regular operations, which
provides a unique opportunity to explore and compare the diverse mixing states and,

- 131 the aging process of BCc in different anthropogenic emission conditions in summer.
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Here we report the chemical compositions and aging characteristics of airborne BCc in
YRD. Our investigation involved a combination of ground measurements, spaceborne
observations, and mass spectrometric analysis conducted during the COVID-19
lockdown in the summer of 2021 in Yangzhou. Additionally, we employed potential
source contribution function (PSCF) analysis to investigate the air pollution patterns in
the YRD.

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## 140 **2. Methods**

## 141 2.1 Sampling site and instruments

142 The in-situ online measurements were conducted at a rooftop laboratory 20 m above ground located in a national air quality monitoring station, Yangzhou Environmental 143 Monitoring Center (32.41°N, 119.40°E), Yangzhou, China (Figure 1). This sampling 144 145 site is a typical urban site surrounded by residential areas, arterial roads, parks, 146 restaurants, and shopping centers. In this study, the measurement period was divided 147 into three phases: the before-lockdown period (BLD: 30 June to 27 July 2021), the 148 lockdown period (LD: 28 July to 9 September 2021), and the after-lockdown period 149 (ALD: 10 September to 7 October 2021) (Figure 2).

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151 A single-particle aerosol mass spectrometer (SPA-MS, Hexin Analytical Instrument Co., 152 Ltd., China) was deployed during the field campaign to obtain the chemical 153 composition, size distribution, and mixing state of individual PM<sub>2.5</sub> particles. A cyclone 154 with a 2.5 µm cutpoint (Model URG-2000-30ED) and a Nafion dryer is equipped in front of the sampling inlet. Individual particles are introduced into the SPA-MS through 155 156 a critical orifice at a flow rate of 3 L min<sup>-1</sup>. The vacuum aerodynamic diameters  $(D_{va})$ 157 are determined using the velocities derived from two continuous laser beams (diode Nd: 158 YAG, 532 nm) spaced 6 cm apart. Subsequently, these particles are desorbed and 159 ionized by a downstream pulsed laser (266 nm), and ion fragments are generated and 160 measured by a Z-shaped bipolar time-of-flight mass spectrometer. A more detailed 161 description of SPA-MS can be found in previous studies (Li et al., 2011).

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163 PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration was measured by a particulate matter monitor (XHPM2000E, 164 Xianhe, China). Nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub> = NO + NO<sub>2</sub>), SO<sub>2</sub>, and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) 165 concentrations were detected with a set of Thermo Fisher Scientific instruments 166 (Models 42i, 43i, and 49i). The concentrations of 103 volatile organic compounds 167 (VOCs) in ambient air, comprising 57 ozone precursors (PAMS), 12 aldehydes and ketones, and 34 toxic organics (TO15), were continuously monitored at hourly intervals
using an online device (TH-300B, Tianhong, China). Meteorological parameters,
including ambient temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), precipitation (PCP), wind
direction (WD), and wind speed (WS) were observed synchronously using an automatic
weather instrument (WXT530, Vaisala, Finland). All online data presented in this paper
were hourly averaged at local time (Beijing time, UTC+8).

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## 175 2.2 Data analysis

### 176 **2.2.1 Satellite Product**

177 In this study, we utilized the Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS) 178 Global Near-Real-Time dataset (available at https://developers.google.com/earth-179 engine/datasets/catalog/ECMWF\_CAMS\_NRT), acquired from the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF), to analyze the distribution of total 180 181 surface column concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub> and surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration. 182 CAMS offers the capacity to continuously monitor the composition of the Earth's 183 atmosphere at global and regional scales since 2016, with a spatial resolution of 44528 184 meters (Benedetti et al., 2009; Morcrette et al., 2009). The details of the bands of the 185 dataset used in this study are shown in Table S2. We calculated and plotted the averaged 2-dimensional data of ECMWF/CAMS/NRT NO2, SO2, and PM2.5 during BLD and LD 186 187 over the region of interest (17.93~54.74 °N, 71.21~142.23 °E) using Google Earth 188 Engine (Gorelick et al., 2017). The integration of remote sensing measurements has 189 provided a more comprehensive understanding of the sources and distributions of 190 particle matter and gaseous pollutants facilitating the evaluation of the impact of human 191 activities on air quality.

## 192 2.2.2 Geographic Source Analysis

193 The potential source contribution function (PSCF) analysis, based on the Hybrid 194 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model, can be employed 195 to identify regional sources of air pollutants. Before conducting the PSCF analysis, 36 hours of air mass backward trajectories with one-hour resolution at 500 m above ground 196 197 level were calculated using the wind data from the Global Data Assimilation System 198 (GDAS) provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) 199 (Wang et al., 2009). An open-source software MeteoInfo (Wang, 2014) was utilized for 200 the PSCF analysis. The whole study area (110.1~133.4 °E and 21.3~39.9 °N) covered by the trajectories was divided into thousands of cells with a spatial resolution of  $0.1^{\circ}$ 201 202  $\times 0.1^{\circ}$ . The PSCF was simulated according to the following equation:

$$PSCF_{ij} = \frac{m_{ij}}{n_{ij}}$$
(1)

where  $PSCF_{ij}$  is the conditional probability that the grid cell (i, j) was a source of the species found in high concentration (Hopke et al., 1993);  $n_{ij}$  is the number of all trajectories passing through this grid cell, and  $m_{ij}$  is the number of trajectories. In this study, the pollution criterion values for different BCc particle types were set as the 75<sup>th</sup> 208 percentile of hourly average number fractions, respectively. To further improve the 209 accuracy of the PSCF analysis and minimize analytical uncertainties, the Weighted 210 PSCF (WPSCF) functions as shown in Equation (2~3) were applied (Polissar et al., 211 1999). The weight ( $W_{ij}$ ) for each grid cell was determined based on the number of 212 trajectory endpoints ( $n_{ij}$ ) as follows:

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$$WPSCF_{ij} = W_{ij} \times PSCF_{ij}$$
(2)

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$$W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1.00 & n_{ij} > 3n_{ave} \\ 0.70 & 1.5n_{ave} < n_{ij} \le 3n_{ave} \\ 0.40 & n_{ave} < n_{ij} \le 1.5n_{ave} \\ 0.17 & n_{ij} \le n_{ave} \end{cases}$$
(3)

215 Here,  $n_{ave}$  is the average number of trajectory endpoints of each grid.

#### 216 2.2.3 SPA-MS Data Analysis

217 In total, 1649574 particles were analyzed during the entire observation period. The size 218 and chemical composition of single particles were analyzed using the Computational 219 Continuation Core (COCO V1.4) toolkit in MATLAB 2022 (The MathWorks, Inc.). Our focus was on BCc, which was identified based on the relative peak area (RPA) of 220 carbon ion clusters ( $C_n^{\pm}$ , n = 1, 2, 3, ...), with a threshold of 0.05 (Zhang et al., 2021). 221 An adaptive resonance theory-based neural network algorithm (ART-2a) was applied 222 223 to classify the measured individual particles based on the presence and intensity of ion 224 peaks, with a vigilance factor of 0.75, a learning rate of 0.05, and 20 iterations (Song et 225 al., 1999).

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## 227 **3. Results and discussion**

## 3.1 Field observations

229 Figure 2 presents the temporal variations of meteorological parameters,  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $NO_x$ , 230 and SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Notably,  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $NO_x$ , and SO<sub>2</sub> were significantly reduced at the end of BLD due to a high precipitation event, and the data collected during the 231 232 precipitation were excluded from the data analysis. During BLD, the mean temperature 233 (T) was  $28\pm3$  °C, with an average relative humidity (RH) of  $81\pm11\%$ . The prevailing 234 winds originated from the south and southeast, with a mean wind speed (WS) of  $3.4\pm$ 0.9 m s<sup>-1</sup>. In comparison, LD shows a decline in temperature to 26±2 °C and WS to 2.3 235  $\pm 0.8$  m s<sup>-1</sup>, but an increase in RH to  $87\pm10\%$ . Figure S2b and c present uniform 236 237 distributions of RH and boundary-layer height (BLH) across the YRD during LD. The implication is that the resemblance of regional meteorological conditions in YRD and, 238 239 the effective removal of the pollutants accumulated at the end of BLD, provides a 240 favorable condition for investigating the regional transport of BCc during LD in Yangzhou. During ALD, the temperature declined to 25±3 °C, the WS increased to 3.2 241  $\pm 1.4$  m s<sup>-1</sup>, and RH decreased to a lower level of 75 $\pm 15\%$ . 242

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- Surface concentrations of NO<sub>x</sub> (19  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) and TVOC (56  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>) were the lowest 244 245 during LD compared to those of BLD and ALD, whereas the surface O<sub>3</sub> concentration 246 showed an increase of 13 µg m<sup>-3</sup> (19%) during LD compared to BLD. The reduction of 247 fresh NO emission alleviates O<sub>3</sub> titration (Steinfeld, 1998) could be an explanation. 248 Furthermore, analysis from **Figure S3** indicates that the  $O_3$  level is higher than those 249 of neighboring cities in the YRD, suggesting higher atmospheric oxidation capacity during LD. However, the average concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> (19.9 vs. 21.2 µg m<sup>-3</sup>), SO<sub>2</sub> 250 (9.4 vs. 9.5 µg m<sup>-3</sup>), CO (0.61 vs. 0.64 mg m<sup>-3</sup>), and TVOC (58 vs. 56 µg m<sup>-3</sup>) were 251 252 comparable during both BLD and LD (Figure 3).
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254 After LD, social activities gradually resumed in Yangzhou City, leading to an apparent 255 increase in all observed pollutants during the ALD period. For instance, there were 256 relative increases of 71% for NO<sub>x</sub>, 22% for SO<sub>2</sub>, 55% for TVOC, 30% for O<sub>3</sub>, 29% for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and 17% for CO from LD to ALD, respectively(Figure 3). Given that both BC 257 258 and CO are byproducts of incomplete combustion of carbon-containing fuels (Wang et 259 al., 2015), and the high correlation between BC and CO (Zhou et al., 2009), it is 260 plausible to infer that the primary emission source of BC during LD was different with 261 that during ALD.

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263 Satellite-retrieved PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> data over the entire region of eastern China 264 were also investigated, and results show that these pollutants were predominantly 265 concentrated in Shanghai and its neighboring cities, including Yangzhou, during both 266 BLD and LD (Figure S4). Figure 4 presents regional fractional changes, including 267 Yangzhou, of mean PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from the BLD to LD periods 268 in YRD, all showing an increase of 29%, 6%, and 14%, respectively. In comparison, 269 Yangzhou city experienced lower increases in these air pollutants, with slight changes of 6.0%, -18.0%, and -4.3% for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The implication is 270 that, even though local primary emissions, such as NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>, were reduced 271 272 substantially during LD, they still could be affected by regional transport. Furthermore, 273 as depicted in **Figure S3**, the concentrations of  $NO_2$  in major cities of the YRD were 274 more than twice higher than in Yangzhou during LD, confirming a relatively lower local 275 primary emissions due to the stringent lockdown. However, the higher level of SO<sub>2</sub> in 276 Yangzhou during LD may be attributed to the nearby power stations along the Yangtze 277 River, which were not impacted by the lockdown measures.

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# 279 3.2Chemical composition and size distribution of individual

280 BCc

Based on the SPA-MS analysis, a total of 1068362 BCc was collected during the whole
study period. The BCc accounted for 59%, 69%, and 57% of the total number of
measured particles in the BLD, LD, and ALD periods, respectively. Figure 5 shows the
normalized average mass spectra of BCc during three periods. Ion height in each

- spectrum reflects the number fraction of the detected BCc with the corresponding ion 285 286 to the total BCc, while colors represent peak area ranges of detected ions. BCc in BLD, LD, and ALD shown similar mass spectra at m/z < 100, with common peaks including 287 288 carbon ion clusters ( $C_n^{\pm}$ , n = 1~7), m/z 27[C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>]<sup>+</sup>, 37[C<sub>3</sub>H]<sup>+</sup>, 43[C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O]<sup>+</sup>, 51[C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>3</sub>]<sup>+</sup>, 289  $63[C_5H_3]^+$ ,  $46[NO_2]^-$ ,  $62[NO_3]^-$ , and  $97[HSO_4]^-$ . However, the abundance of large m/z290 carbon ions ( $C_n^{\pm}$ , n > 7) in both BLD and ALD periods was 1.5 times higher than that in 291 the LD. Previous studies have indicated that high-mass carbon ions may be linked to 292 traffic emissions, particularly those from diesel trucks(Xie et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2019), 293 and the observed reduction in such ions during LD suggests a decrease in local vehicle 294 emissions. This trend is also consistent with the changes observed in aromatic 295 compounds, e.g.  $m/z \ 119[C_9H_{11}]^+$ .
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297 Further, BCc was classified into 12 types based on the differences in chemical features 298 and temporal variations, as shown in Table S1. Fresh BC particles (BC-fresh) are those 299 freshly emitted without undergoing significant atmospheric processing (Ding et al., 300 2021). Five types of BC-fresh particles were identified according to their ion markers: 301 (i) BC-pure is dominated by carbon clusters  $(C_n^{\pm})$  with minor ion signals of inorganic species, such as  $m/z 46[NO_2]^-$  and  $m/z 97[HSO_4]^-$  from nitrate and sulfate, respectively 302 (Xie et al., 2020); (ii) BCc from biomass burning (BB) are characterized by ion signals 303 304 at m/z 39[K]<sup>+</sup>, 45[CHO<sub>2</sub>]<sup>-</sup>, 59[C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>3</sub>O<sub>2</sub>]<sup>-</sup>, and 73[C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>2</sub>]<sup>-</sup>, with a relative peak area 305 (RPA) more than 0.5 (Silva et al., 1999); (iii) coal combustion BCc (CC) typically 306 include small carbon clusters ( $C_n^{\pm}$ , n = 1~4), metal elements (e.g., m/z 7[Li]<sup>+</sup>, 23[Na]<sup>+</sup>, 307 27[A1]<sup>+</sup>, 56[Fe]<sup>+</sup>, 63[Cu]<sup>+</sup> and 206/207/208[Pb]<sup>+</sup>), and organic carbon (38[C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>2</sub>]<sup>+</sup>, 308  $43[C_2H_3O]^+$ ) peaks in the positive mass spectrum, while the strong signals of secondary 309 inorganic species  $(46[NO_2]^-, 43[AlO]^-, 62[NO_3]^-, 80[SO_3]^-, 97[HSO_4]^-)$  in the 310 negative ion mode suggest that CC particles were long-distance transported or more processed (Zhang et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2009); (iv) particles from vehicle emission 311 312 (VE) are characterized by the presence of ion signals at m/z 40[Ca]<sup>+</sup>, 51[V]<sup>+</sup>, 55[Mn]<sup>+</sup>, 313 67[VO]<sup>+</sup>, 46[NO<sub>2</sub>]<sup>-</sup>, 62[NO<sub>3</sub>]<sup>-</sup>, and 79[PO<sub>3</sub>]<sup>-</sup>, as well as high loadings of organic 314 carbon  $(41[C_3H_5]^+, 43[C_2H_3O]^+)$  and carbon clusters  $(C_n^{\pm}, n = 1 \sim 4)$  ion peaks (Yang et al., 2017); (v) BCc that are internally mixed with more than one type (BB, CC, and VE) 315 316 are categorized as Mix type (Sun et al., 2022).

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318 Aged BC particles, denote as BC-aged, undergo a series of chemical reactions and 319 physical transformations. These processes typically lead to changes in their morphology, 320 hygroscopicity, and optical properties as they are coated with other materials (He et al., 321 2015). Six types of BCc are classified as BC-aged and are further grouped into BCOC 322 and BC-SNA, depending on whether they contain mainly organic carbon (OC) or sulfate/nitrate/ammonium (SNA). First, BCOC types indicate BC-aged particles that 323 are internally mixed with OC. These particles are characterized by the presence of 324 325 carbon clusters ( $C_n^{\pm}$ ) and  $C_n H_m^+$  ions (n = 1~6, m = 1~3) in positive mass spectra (Xie 326 et al., 2020). On the other hand, BC-aged particles that do not mix with OC are named

BC-SNA indicating the mix with secondary inorganic species. Additionally, BCOC 327 328 particles with negative mass spectra dominated by nitrate ions  $(46[NO_2]^{-1})$  and 329 62[NO<sub>3</sub>]<sup>-</sup>) or sulfate ions (97[HSO<sub>4</sub>]<sup>-</sup>) are referred to as BCOC-N or BCOC-S, 330 respectively; otherwise, BCOC particles showing similar peak areas of nitrate and 331 sulfate are named BCOC-SN. The BC-SNA particles are further categorized as BC-N, 332 BC-S, and BC-SN based on similar principles. Note the remaining particles that cannot 333 be classified into either BC-fresh or BC-aged ones are denoted as BC-other. More 334 details of BCc particle types are shown in Table S1 and Figure S1 in the Supplement.

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336 During BLD, the average number fraction of BC-fresh particles was 36% with sizes 337 mainly concentrated at 500 nm, similar to the mode size of BC-aged particles was 520 338 nm (Figure 6). The predominant BCc types during BLD were BCOC-S and BC-S (24% 339 and 12% by number), likely because sulfate was removed less efficiently than organic 340 matter (OM) and NO<sub>3</sub> by heavy precipitation, especially during the warm seasons 341 (Isokääntä et al., 2022). As shown in Figures 6c and d, the peak size of BC-SNA was 342 larger than that of BCOC in all periods, indicating that organics coated BCc generally 343 had a relatively thin coating compared to those coated by secondary inorganic species, 344 which is consistent with previous studies (Sun et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2019).

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346 During the transition of BLD to LD, heavy precipitation occurred from the evening to July 27<sup>th</sup> and early morning of July 28<sup>th</sup> (the eve of lockdown), resulting in the removal 347 of a majority of the pollutants ( $PM_{2.5}$ : 4 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, O<sub>3</sub>: 35 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, NO<sub>x</sub>: 8 µg m<sup>-3</sup>). After 348 349 that, strict lockdown were carried on and the primary emissions were abruptly cut down. 350 As a result, the number fraction of BC-fresh particles significantly decreased from 37% 351 to 28% and that of VE-type particles dropped from 12% to 3% (by number). Expectedly, 352 with the decrease in  $NO_x$ , an obvious enhancement of  $O_3$  was observed during LD 353 (Figure 3). According to previous studies (Huang et al., 2021; Laughner et al., 2021), 354 large reduction of  $NO_x$  may promote the formation of  $O_3$  under a VOC-limited regime 355 and enhance the oxidation capacity of the local atmosphere, which may promote the 356 number fraction of BC-aged particles increased from 64% in the BLD to 72% in LD 357 (Figure 7a), indicating the lockdown could accelerate aging of BCc through 358 complicated chemical reactions and/or physical coagulation. Additionally, the most 359 abundant type of BCc changed from BCOC-S (24% by number) in the BLD to BC-N 360 (25%) in the LD (Figure 7a), suggesting different BCc formation pathways. Despite 361 the abrupt reductions of  $NO_x$  due to the city lockdown, it should be aware that the PM<sub>2.5</sub> 362 concentration slightly increased during LD, highlighting the non-linear relationship 363 between primary emissions and PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels.

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365 During ALD (PM<sub>2.5</sub>: 26  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>, NO<sub>x</sub>: 28  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>, TVOC: 76  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup>), the number fraction 366 of BC-fresh particles rose from 28% (LD) to 31% (ALD), while the fraction of VE 367 particles also increased from 3% (LD) to 12% (ALD) (**Figure 7a**). Notably, the size 368 distributions of BC-fresh and BC-aged particles presented relatively small peaks at 690 369 nm and 820 nm during ALD, in addition to the prominent peaks at 490 nm and 500 nm, 370 which were different from those in the BLD and LD periods. These small peaks were 371 relatively close to the dominant sizes of BC-fresh and BC-aged particles during LD 372 (Figure 6). This result suggests that a substantial number of BCc with small sizes 373 (around 500 nm) after the lockdown was lifted in Yangzhou, owing to the sudden 374 enhancement of primary emissions; on the other hand, particles with large diameters 375 (>690 nm) may have formed due to the participation of more trace reactive gases (e.g., 376  $NO_x$ ,  $SO_2$ , and VOCs) in continuous aging reactions, resulting in thicker coatings on the surface of pre-existing particles and therefore a more clear separation of two-mode 377 sizes during the ALD period than during the other two periods. This hypothesis was 378 379 also supported by the increased number fraction of BCOC-SN during the ALD period 380 (Figure 7a). Similar findings have been reported in the North China Plain (NCP) and 381 the YRD during cold seasons, where thicker coatings on secondary aerosols were also 382 observed under lower RH (<70%) (Zhang et al., 2021). This might be due to that 383 particles with more organics and nitrate can result in earlier deliquescence and provide 384 aqueous surfaces that facilitate the heterogeneous formation of secondary species under 385 relatively low RH (Zhang et al., 2021). Among the three periods, the difference between the mode sizes of BC-aged and BC-fresh particles was the smallest (10 nm) during the 386 ALD period (Figure 6a and b). This size reduction can be attributed to the increased 387 388 BCOC and hydrophobic primary particles after lockdown (Figure 7). Because the 389 internally mixed BCOC and hydrophobic primary particles may constrain further 390 growth of secondary BC-SNA particles (Liu et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2018), thereby 391 leading to smaller-sized BC-aged particles. Moreover, the differences in BCc mode 392 sizes between ALD and BLD periods also reveal an interesting fact that the lockdown 393 effect may not only affect air quality during lockdown but also can influence the air 394 quality even after lockdown, as the resumed emissions after lockdown may be subjected 395 to different chemistry from that before lockdown.

396

397 Throughout the entire observation, the changes in the number fraction of BC-SNA 398 exhibited consistency with the variations in RH (Figure 7b), indicating that BC tends 399 to mix with ammonium sulfate and ammonium nitrate under high RH conditions. 400 Meanwhile, the number fraction of BCOC shows similar patterns as TVOC, suggesting 401 that high TVOC levels may facilitate the coating of organics on BC cores under low 402 RH condition. Figure 8 displays the number fraction of BCc species as a function of 403 PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Overall, as PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels increased, the number fraction of BC-aged particles also increased, while the proportion of BC-fresh particles decreased during BLD and LD, 404 405 indicating a clear transition from BC-fresh particles to more aged ones, in line with the 406 average size distribution during ALD has a small peak at 900 nm. Specifically, the 407 increase in PM2.5 was driven by BCOC-S during BLD (Figure 8a), whereas BC-N played a vital role in the PM<sub>2.5</sub> increase during LD (Figure 8b). Interestingly, the 408 409 concentration of NO<sub>x</sub>, the primary precursor of BC-N, decreased by 31% and 41% 410 during LD compared to BLD and ALD, respectively (Figure 3), indicating a strong 411 non-linear response of nitrate in BCc to  $NO_x$ , likely due to much faster conversion of 412 NO<sub>x</sub> to nitrate upon enhanced atmospheric oxidation capacity; additionally, the high 413 proportion of BC-N during LD might be attributed to regional transport, similar to that 414 in Shanghai during 2020 winter lockdown (Chang et al., 2020).

415

# 416 **3.3 Chemical aging of BCc**

417 As shown in Figure 5, in the average positive mass spectra of total BCc, the peak areas 418 of  $C_n^+$ , OM, and metals contributed to more than 95% of the total, while nitrate and 419 sulfate peak areas accounted for more than 90% of the negative mass spectral signal. 420 To better elucidate the aging processes of BCc during different lockdown periods, we summed the carbon clusters  $C_n^{\pm}$  (n = 1~5, accounting for more than 99% of  $C_n$ ) peak 421 422 areas to represent BC, and the total peak area of sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium (SNA) 423 to represent the second inorganic components coated on BC. Additionally, we defined 424 the sum of positive peak areas, excluding  $C_n^+$  and metals, as OC to represent the OM 425 coated on BC. These peak areas encompassed almost all the coating materials, except 426 for metals, of BCc. The changes in the mixing state and morphology of BCc can provide 427 insights into their aging characteristics, as reported previously (Kandler et al., 2018; 428 Moffet et al., 2013). In this study, we use OC/Cn and SNA/Cn ratios to describe different 429 types of chemical components coated on BC-fresh, and we use the ratio of the mode 430 size of BC-aged ( $D_{aged}$ ) to that of contemporaneous BC-fresh ( $D_{fresh}$ ) to represent the 431 aging degree of BCc.

432

433 Figure 9 illustrates the diurnal variations of the OC/C<sub>n</sub> and SNA/C<sub>n</sub> ratios along with 434 the size distribution of BCc during different periods. We observed that both  $OC/C_n$  and 435 SNA/C<sub>n</sub> increased during nighttime and decreased during daytime. These variations showed the prominent enhancements of nocturnal OM and SNA, which could be 436 437 attributed to the accelerated gas-to-particle partitioning and nocturnal secondary formation of organic/inorganic components under high relative humidity (RH > 85%) 438 and relatively stagnant air mass (WS  $< 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) (Figure S5). It is worth noting that from 439 440 BLD to LD and ALD, the intensity of diurnal variations of OC/C<sub>n</sub> and SNA/C<sub>n</sub> 441 increased obviously. This discrepancy can be attributed to several reasons. (i) During 442 BLD, the frequent precipitations effectively scavenged the particles (Isokääntä et al., 443 2022); (ii) In contrast, stronger solar radiation and higher O<sub>3</sub> concentration during LD 444 promoted photochemical formations of OC and SNA; (iii) After lockdown, more 445 precursors due to increased local emissions may lead to more production of secondary 446 components than that during BLD as explained earlier. These results indicate that the 447 aging process and mixing state of BCc depend strongly on meteorological conditions 448 as well as emission sources in urban cities.

449

450 As shown in **Figure 9**, BCc with  $\sim$ 400 nm D<sub>va</sub> exhibited significant diurnal fluctuations 451 in the OC/C<sub>n</sub> and SNA/C<sub>n</sub> ratios, during LD. There is a noticeable increase in the 452 proportion of BC-SNA particles during nighttime when RH is relatively high. These 453 observations suggest that nighttime heterogeneous hydrolysis may be considered a key 454 mechanism responsible for the formation of BCOC and BC-SNA particles. According 455 to Jacobson (2002), coagulation can be significant between particles with sizes <100nm and  $>1\mu m$  but insignificant for particles of >300nm, when the total particle number 456 concentration is higher than  $10^4$  cm<sup>-3</sup>. During LD, the OC/C<sub>n</sub> and SNA/C<sub>n</sub> ratios of 457 458 BCc with ~400 nm D<sub>va</sub> exhibited pronounced diurnal variations (Figure 9) and the 459 number fraction of BC-SNA increased obviously. Despite the difference between D<sub>va</sub> 460 and physical diameter, such results imply that chemical reactions should be considered as the major pathway for BCOC and BC-SNA particles of ~400 nm D<sub>va</sub>, while the large-461 462 sized BC-aged particles (>1 µm) may be partially from physical coagulation. 463 Additionally, the larger mode peak (600 nm,  $D_{va}$ ) and higher  $D_{aged}/D_{fresh}$  ratios (1.11) 464 were observed compared to those of BLD (510 nm, 1.03) and ALD (500 nm, 1.02) 465 (Figure 6). Since RH was significantly higher during LD (average RH of 87%) than 466 BLD (average RH of 81%) and ALD period (average RH of 75%), this result again 467 supports that aqueous or heterogeneous reactions might play a more important role to 468 facilitate the chemical conversion of trace reactive gases (e.g.,  $SO_2$ ,  $NO_x$ , and VOCs) 469 and then formed a thicker coating on the surfaces of BC cores, leading to evident growth 470 in the size of BCc. This aqueous or heterogeneous process during LD likely converted 471 partially coated particles to fully thickly coated BCc as well.

472

#### 473

## 3.4 Source apportionment of BCc during lockdown

474 In addition to local emissions, regional transport plays a significant role in influencing 475 pollutant levels. The emergent lockdown in Yangzhou led to strict limitation on local 476 emissions, while surrounding cities were still running as usual. This is supported by 477 Figure S6, which illustrates the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in Yangzhou and the other five 478 surrounding YRD cities (e.g., Nanjing, Zhenjiang, Changzhou, Taizhou, and Chuzhou) 479 during the campaign. High correlations between PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in Yangzhou and 480 the other five cities were observed across all different periods (Figure S6). These 481 findings underscore the importance of the regional transport in PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution during 482 the campaign, providing an unique opportunity to investigate the transmission and 483 source characteristics of BCc in YRD during summer. Herein, PSCF analysis was 484 applied to qualitatively simulate the source probability distributions of the specific BCc 485 particle types (BC-fresh, BC-aged, BCOC, and BC-SNA) during LD.

486

487 As shown in Figure 10, the hotspots of potential sources for the four particle types 488 exhibited strong agreements with each other and primarily concentrated in the southeast 489 of Yangzhou, especially along the coast of the Yangtze River, with the WPSCF greater 490 than 0.6. These hotspot areas also encompassed chemical enterprises, power plants, 491 petrochemical industrial parks, and the Yangtze River in the YRD. This evidence 492 suggests that the region of southeast Yangzhou and lower reaches of the Yangtze River 493 are major source areas for the regionally transported BCc in Yangzhou during lockdown. 494 Additionally, Luo et al. (2023) reported that regional transport of pollutants can occur

near the surface from upwind areas when the wind speed (WS) exceeds 2 m s<sup>-1</sup>. Figure 495 **S5b** shows that the mean daytime WS was 3 m s<sup>-1</sup>, indicating that both BC-fresh and 496 497 BC-aged particles, along with trace gases (e.g.,  $SO_2$ ,  $NO_x$ , and VOCs), originating from 498 the hotspot areas, could be transported effectively to Yangzhou. Additionally, the 499 average size of BCc remained around 600 nm at daytime (Figure S5c), suggesting that 500 BCc could undergo continual aging reactions under relatively lower RH, but produce relatively thinly coated BCc with smaller sizes than those at nighttime (average size of 501 650 nm). The mean nocturnal WS decreased to 2 m s<sup>-1</sup>, indicating that the regional 502 503 atmosphere becomes stagnant (Figures S5a, b). As mentioned earlier and underscored 504 here again, this stagnant and humid atmospheric condition may promote aqueous or 505 heterogeneous reactions, likely further leading to the production of more thickly coated 506 BCc than daytime ones.

507

## 508 **4. Conclusions and implications**

509 During the summer of 2021, the COVID-19 lockdown imposed in Yangzhou resulted 510 in a significant decrease in anthropogenic emissions from traffic and manufacturing sectors. To examine the effects of this lockdown, we utilized spaceborne observations, 511 512 ground-based measurements, and particularly SPA-MS analysis to explore the 513 variations, aging characteristics, and sources of BCc in the YRD. We showed that the 514 strict emission controls effectively reduced local gaseous pollutants. However, the 515 decline in NO<sub>x</sub> (-30%) and TVOC (-5%) levels might on the other hand result in 516 increased O<sub>3</sub> (+19%), leading to a rise in BC-aged particles and a slight elevation in 517 PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels during the lockdown. Our results revealed a strong non-linear response of 518  $PM_{2.5}$  and  $O_3$  to the gaseous precursors.

519

520 The SPA-MS analysis results further demonstrate significant enhancement of OM and 521 SNA coating species on BC-fresh particles, owing to gas-to-particle partitioning and 522 nocturnal multiphase chemistry. Consequently, we observed a higher fraction of BC-523 aged particles (73%) during the lockdown due to enhanced oxidizing capacity and high 524 relative humidity (RH > 85%). The BC-fresh particles tended to mix with SNA under 525 high RH conditions, while high TVOC levels were accompanied by BCOC formation. 526 However, BCOC particles generally exhibited smaller sizes compared to BC-SNA 527 particles. Moreover, we propose that aqueous or heterogeneous reactions might be 528 important to generate BCOC and BC-SNA particles, especially ones with 400 nm Dva, 529 while coagulation might play a more prominent role in larger BC-aged particles. The 530 aging process during LD promoted the conversion of partly coated particles to totally 531 coated ones, with larger diameters (600 nm) and thicker coatings.

532

533 It should be noted that the observed average  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration during the lockdown 534 in Yangzhou was 21 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, which still significantly exceeds the WHO's air quality 535 guideline of 5 µg m<sup>-3</sup>. Our research underscores the crucial role of BCc, which 536 constitutes a significant portion of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, in particulate matter pollution. These particles originate from diverse combustion sources and their behavior is intricately influenced 537 538 by complex chemistry, regional transport, and meteorological factors. Mere reductions 539 in local primary emissions from traffic and manufacturing sectors exhibit limited efficacy in air quality improvement. Therefore, effective air quality remediation 540 541 strategies necessitate nuanced control of BCc alongside broader emission reduction 542 efforts. We suggest a more comprehensive regulation of precursor gases from multiple 543 sectors, a wide-ranging joint regulation approach as well as proper consideration of the 544 chemistry, to develop an effective strategy for air quality improvement.

545 **Data availability.** The data in this study are available from the corresponding author 546 upon request (caxinra@163.com).

547

548 **Author contributions.** XG, JW, and YD designed the research. YD, HW, and SC 549 conducted the field measurements. YD, HW, JW, and SC analyzed the data. XG, JW, 550 HL, YW, YZ, and EA reviewed the paper and provided useful suggestions. YD, JW, 551 and XG wrote the first draft of the paper. All people were involved in the discussion of 552 the results.

- 553
- 554 **Supplement.** The supplement related to this article is available online at XXX.
- 555

556 **Competing interests.** The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-557 authors have any competing interests.

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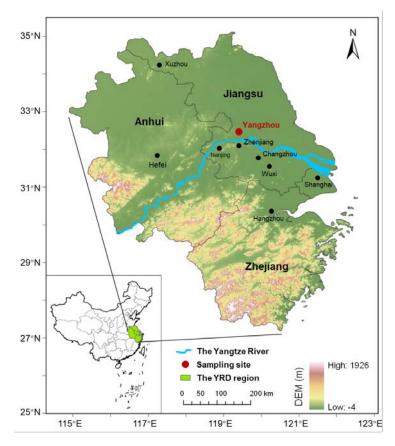
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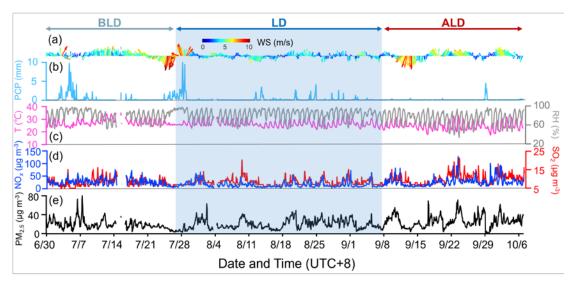
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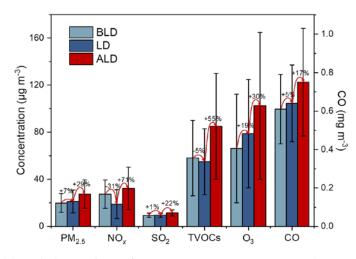
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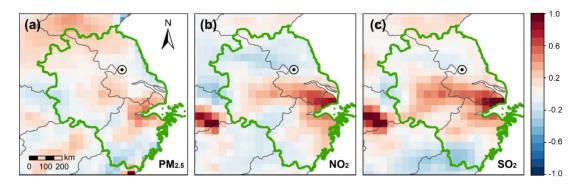
**Figure 1.** Geographical overview of the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) Region in China, depicting the major cities within the YRD and the sampling site located in Yangzhou. The color gradient from green to white indicates varying altitudes across the region (Maps were generated by using ArcGIS Pro).



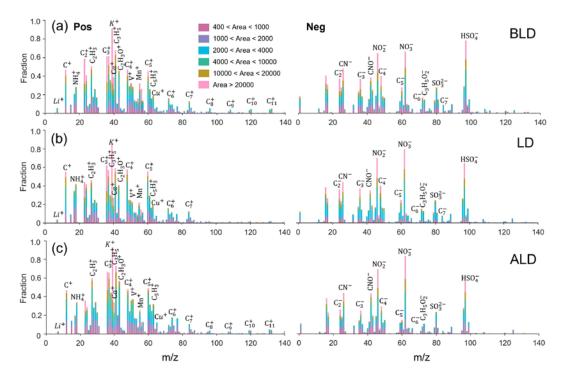
**Figure 2.** Temporal variations of (**a**) wind direction (WD) and wind speed (WS), (**b**) precipitation (PCP), (**c**) temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH), (**d**) concentrations of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>, and (**e**) mass loading of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. The blue-grey, dark-blue, and crimson arrow ranges denote the periods before lockdown (BLD), during lockdown (LD), and after lockdown (ALD).



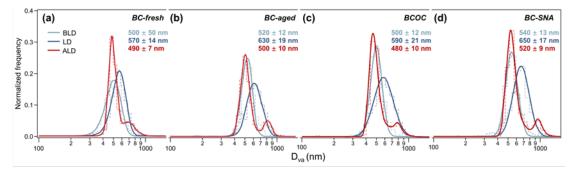
**Figure 3.** Ground-based observations of  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $NO_x$ ,  $SO_2$ ,  $O_3$ , CO, and TVOC concentrations in Yangzhou. The figure compares the averages during the BLD (blue-grey), LD (dark-blue), and ALD (crimson) periods. Error bars indicate SDs over different lockdown periods.



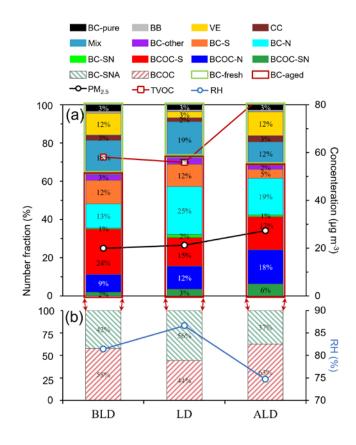
**Figure 4.** The fractional changes (i.e., (LD - BLD)/BLD) of (a) PM<sub>2.5</sub>, (b) NO<sub>2</sub>, and (c) SO<sub>2</sub> between BLD and LD periods based on spaceborne measurement. The circle symbols in the maps indicate the location of Yangzhou, and the green region represents the YRD.



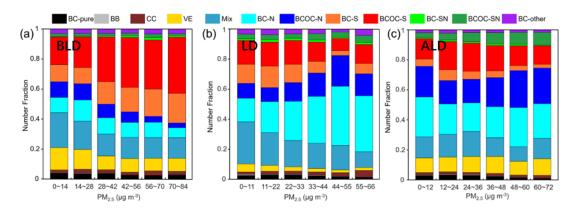
**Figure 5.** The average positive and negative mass spectra of BCc (**a**) before the lockdown period (BLD), (**b**) during the lockdown period (LD), and (**c**) after the lockdown period (ALD).



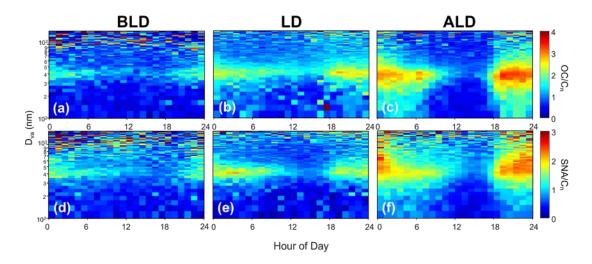
**Figure 6.** Size distribution of different types of BCc during different periods in Yangzhou. (**a**) BC-fresh particles, (**b**) BC-aged particles, (**c**) BCOC particles, and (**d**) BC-SNA particles. The Lognormal distribution was used to fit the unimodal size distribution, and the Lorentz distribution was used to fit the bimodal size distribution. The corresponding mode sizes (with the standard deviations) are also shown.



**Figure 7.** Number fractions of BCc. (a) The number fractions of different BCc along with the concentrations of  $PM_{2.5}$  and total volatile organic compounds (TVOC). (b) The number fractions of different types of BC-aged particles along with relative humidity (RH).



**Figure 8.** Variations of number fractions of BCc particle types with  $PM_{2.5}$  mass concentrations during (a) the BLD period, (b) LD, and (c) the ALD period.



**Figure 9.** Diurnal variations of the ratios of OC/Cn and SNA/Cn with a size distribution of BCc during (**a**, **d**) BLD, (**b**, **e**) LD, and (**c**, **f**) ALD.

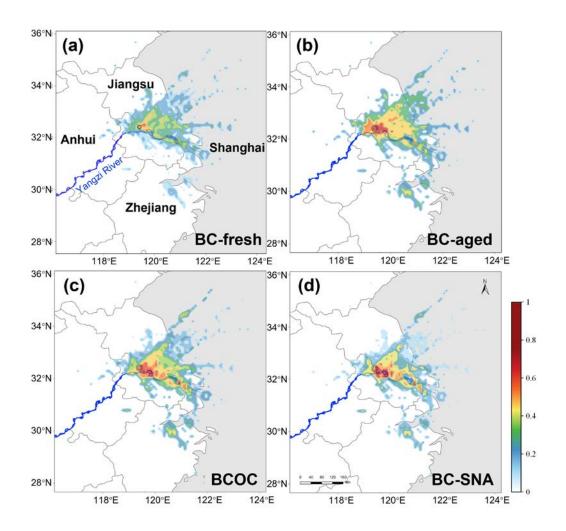


Figure 10. The PSCF maps for different BCc during LD. (a) BC-fresh. (b) BC-aged. (c) BCOC. (d) BC-SNA.