

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

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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  
26 lockdown in Yangzhou City, situated in the Yangtze River Delta, China. This lockdown  
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  
31 freshly emitted BCc during the lockdown period (LD). However, PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations  
32 remained relatively unchanged, with an observed increase in the proportion of aged  
33 BCc during LD compared to the period before the lockdown (BLD). The study also  
34 underscored the significant role of regional transport in PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution during the  
35 campaign. Moreover, reactive trace gases (e.g., NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and VOCs) could form thick  
36 coatings on pre-existing particles likely via enhanced heterogeneous hydrolysis under  
37 high relative humidity (RH) as well, resulting in significant BCc particle growth (~600  
38 nm), as well as PM<sub>2.5</sub>, during LD. Our study highlights that short-term, strict local  
39 emission controls may not effectively reduce PM pollution due to the complex  
40 production and transmission characteristics of BCc and the non-linear responses of  
41 PM<sub>2.5</sub> to its precursors. Achieving further effective PM<sub>2.5</sub> reduction mandates a focus  
42 on nuanced control of BCc and necessitates a comprehensive and extensive approach  
43 with a regionally 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  $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$ ) level from  
48  $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2015 to  $30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  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  $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  (*WHO Global Air Quality Guidelines*, 2021). Black  
51 carbon (BC) is a ubiquitous component of aerosols, typically constituting a small  
52 proportion (5~10%) of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the atmosphere (Chen et al., 2020). However, freshly  
53 emitted BC evolves into BC-containing particles (BCc) by undergoing atmospheric  
54 aging, contributing to a rise in the total mass of PM<sub>2.5</sub> through processes of coating or  
55 embedding by other materials (Bond and Bergstrom, 2006; Peng et al., 2016). The  
56 number and mass fraction of BCc can exceed 60% and 50% of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, respectively,  
57 emphasizing the significant role of BC in elevating the mass concentration of  
58 particulate matter (PM) (Sun et al., 2022; Xie et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2020).

59  
60 The atmospheric aging of BCc involves intricate chemical and physical transformations  
61 that influence their mixing state, morphology, hygroscopicity, and optical properties,  
62 all of which have profound implications for climate and human health (Bond et al.,  
63 2013; Ramanathan et al., 2008). For example, freshly emitted BC particles are initially  
64 hydrophobic but possess a porous surface structure that facilitates the internal or  
65 external mixing with co-emitted primary organic/inorganic and secondary materials  
66 that are associated with BC (Cheng et al., 2012; Li et al., 2020). On the other hand, BCc  
67 undergoes continually aging processes, including the condensation of low-volatility  
68 vapors (Li et al., 2022), coagulation with preexisting aerosols (Kondo et al., 2011), and  
69 heterogeneous oxidation with gaseous pollutants (Zhang et al., 2024). This alteration  
70 may affect the coating thickness, morphology, size distribution, and hygroscopicity of  
71 BCc, thereby impacting their climate forcing as well as atmospheric lifetime (Luo et al.,  
72 2022; Taylor et al., 2014). High loading of atmospheric BCc could also depress the  
73 development of the planetary boundary layer and exacerbate PM pollution episodes  
74 (Huang et al., 2018). BCc characteristics are influenced by various combustion sources  
75 and emission conditions, including local industrial burning, vehicle exhausts,  
76 residential coal burning, and biomass burning (Li et al., 2020; Sedlacek et al., 2022;  
77 Zhang et al., 2018), as well as long-range transport from other regions (Adachi et al.,  
78 2014; Zhang et al., 2021). Those diverse conditions complicate the development of  
79 parameterizations of BCc properties, the insufficient understanding of complex  
80 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 2021).

83  
84 Studies on the effects of large-scale and short-term stringent emission control events on  
85 air quality in China have been widely deployed, e.g., the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games

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

109

110 Yangzhou is located in the central region of the Yangtze River Delta (YRD), at the  
111 junction of the Yangtze River and, the Beijing-Hangzhou Grand Canal, which serves as  
112 a prominent economic city, industrial-intensive area, and highly active inland shipping  
113 node in East China. Due to the complex emissions and feedback with the East Asian  
114 monsoons (Ding et al., 2019), this region is susceptible to anthropogenic aerosols,  
115 especially BC<sub>c</sub> originating from chemical, steelmaking, coal-fired, petrochemical  
116 enterprises, and transportation, etc. Extensive studies have investigated the responses  
117 of atmospheric pollutants to emission changes during the COVID-19 lockdown  
118 measures in the YRD (Chen et al., 2021; Li et al., 2020; Qin et al., 2021; Zhang et al.,  
119 2022). However, the key chemical and physical processes specifically responsible for  
120 the BC<sub>c</sub> in this region are still unclear. During the summer of 2021, Yangzhou  
121 experienced a resurgence of COVID-19 with over 500 confirmed cases. In response,  
122 stringent public health measures were imposed from July 29<sup>th</sup> to September 10<sup>th</sup>,  
123 including the closure of public transport, and suspension of non-essential industrial  
124 plants, restaurants, shopping malls, and entertainment clubs. People were also  
125 mandated to quarantine at home. Consequently, Yangzhou experienced a significant  
126 decline in transportation and industrial energy consumption, dropping by nearly 46%  
127 and 25%, respectively, compared to the same period in 2020 ([www.yangzhou.gov.cn](http://www.yangzhou.gov.cn)),

128 implying a substantial reduction in human activity and primary emissions. Unlike the  
129 nationwide COVID-19 lockdown in China during the cold season of 2020 (Le et al.,  
130 2020; Sulaymon et al., 2021b), the summer lockdown in Yangzhou was more localized  
131 but protracted, significantly altering local anthropogenic emissions while neighboring  
132 cities maintained regular operations, which provides a unique opportunity to explore  
133 and compare the diverse mixing states and, the aging process of BCc in different  
134 anthropogenic emission conditions in summer. Here we report the chemical  
135 compositions and aging characteristics of airborne BCc in YRD. Our investigation  
136 involved a combination of ground measurements, spaceborne observations, and mass  
137 spectrometric analysis conducted during the COVID-19 lockdown in the summer of  
138 2021 in Yangzhou. Additionally, we employed potential source contribution function  
139 (PSCF) analysis to investigate the air pollution patterns in the YRD.

140

## 141 **2. Methods**

### 142 **2.1 Sampling site and instruments**

143 The in-situ online measurements were conducted at a rooftop laboratory 20 m above  
144 ground located in a national air quality monitoring station, Yangzhou Environmental  
145 Monitoring Center (32.41°N, 119.40°E), Yangzhou, China (**Fig. 1**). This sampling site  
146 is a typical urban site surrounded by residential areas, arterial roads, parks, restaurants,  
147 and shopping centers. In this study, the measurement period was divided into three  
148 phases: the before-lockdown period (BLD: 30 June to 28 July 2021), the lockdown  
149 period (LD: 29 July to 9 September 2021), and the after-lockdown period (ALD: 10  
150 September to 7 October 2021) (**Fig. 2**).

151

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

163

164 PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration was measured by a particulate matter monitor (XHPM2000E,  
165 Xianhe, China). Nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub> = NO + NO<sub>2</sub>), SO<sub>2</sub>, and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>)  
166 concentrations were detected with a set of Thermo Fisher Scientific instruments  
167 (Models 42i, 43i, and 49i). The concentrations of 103 volatile organic compounds  
168 (VOCs) in ambient air, comprising 57 ozone precursors (PAMS), 12 aldehydes and  
169 ketones, and 34 toxic organics (TO15), were continuously monitored at hourly intervals

170 using an online device (TH-300B, Tianhong, China). Meteorological parameters,  
171 including ambient temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), wind direction (WD), and  
172 wind speed (WS) were observed synchronously using an automatic weather instrument  
173 (WXT530, Vaisala, Finland). Precipitation (PCP) data was obtained from the Yangzhou  
174 Meteorological Bureau. All online data presented in this paper were hourly averaged at  
175 local time (Beijing time, UTC+8).

176

## 177 2.2 Data analysis

### 178 2.2.1 Satellite Product

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

### 194 2.2.2 Geographic Source Analysis

195 The potential source contribution function (PSCF) analysis, based on the Hybrid  
196 Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model, can be employed  
197 to identify regional sources of air pollutants. Before conducting the PSCF analysis, 36  
198 hours of air mass backward trajectories with one-hour resolution at 500 m above ground  
199 level were calculated using the wind data from the Global Data Assimilation System  
200 (GDAS) provided by the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA)  
201 (Wang et al., 2009). An open-source software MeteoInfo (Wang, 2014) was utilized for  
202 the PSCF analysis. The whole study area (110.1~133.4 °E and 21.3~39.9 °N) covered  
203 by the trajectories was divided into thousands of cells with a spatial resolution of 0.1°  
204 × 0.1°. The PSCF was simulated according to the following equation:

$$205 \quad PSCF_{ij} = \frac{m_{ij}}{n_{ij}} \quad (1)$$

206 where  $PSCF_{ij}$  is the conditional probability that the grid cell ( $i, j$ ) was a source of the  
207 species found in high concentration (Hopke et al., 1993);  $n_{ij}$  is the number of all  
208 trajectories passing through this grid cell, and  $m_{ij}$  is the number of trajectories. In this  
209 study, the pollution criterion values for different BCc particle types were set as the 75<sup>th</sup>

210 percentile of hourly average number fractions, respectively. To further improve the  
 211 accuracy of the PSCF analysis and minimize analytical uncertainties, the Weighted  
 212 PSCF (WPSCF) functions as shown in Equation (2~3) were applied (Polissar et al.,  
 213 1999). The weight ( $W_{ij}$ ) for each grid cell was determined based on the number of  
 214 trajectory endpoints ( $n_{ij}$ ) as follows:

$$215 \quad WPSCF_{ij} = W_{ij} \times PSCF_{ij} \quad (2)$$

$$216 \quad W_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1.00 & n_{ij} > 3n_{ave} \\ 0.70 & 1.5n_{ave} < n_{ij} \leq 3n_{ave} \\ 0.40 & n_{ave} < n_{ij} \leq 1.5n_{ave} \\ 0.17 & n_{ij} \leq n_{ave} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

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

### 218 2.2.3 SPA-MS Data Analysis

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

228

## 229 3. Results and discussion

### 230 3.1 Field observations

231 **Figure 2** presents the temporal variations of meteorological parameters,  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $NO_x$ ,  
 232 and  $SO_2$  concentrations. Notably, significantly reductions in  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $NO_x$ , and  $SO_2$  were  
 233 observed at the end of BLD due to a high precipitation event, with a peak hourly  
 234 precipitation reaching 37 mm, and the data collected during this event were excluded  
 235 from the analysis. During BLD, the mean temperature ( $T$ ) was  $28 \pm 3$  °C, the total  
 236 precipitation was 221 mm, with an average relative humidity (RH) of  $83 \pm 12\%$ . The  
 237 prevailing winds originated from the south and southeast, with a mean wind speed (WS)  
 238 of  $3.3 \pm 1.2$  m  $s^{-1}$ . In comparison, LD shows a decline in temperature to  $27 \pm 2$  °C and WS  
 239 to  $2.3 \pm 1.0$  m  $s^{-1}$ , but an increase in RH to  $87 \pm 11\%$  and a reduction in total precipitation  
 240 to 86 mm. **Figure S2b and c** present uniform distributions of RH and boundary-layer  
 241 height (BLH) across the YRD during LD. These regional meteorological conditions and  
 242 the effective removal of the pollutants accumulated at the end of BLD facilitated the  
 243 investigation of BCc regional transport in YRD. During ALD, the temperature declined  
 244 further to  $25 \pm 3$  °C, WS increased to  $3.3 \pm 1.5$  m  $s^{-1}$ , and total precipitation dropped to 27  
 245 mm with a lower RH of  $77 \pm 14\%$ .

246

247 During LD, strict measures resulted in notably lower surface concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
248 (20.3 μg m<sup>-3</sup>), NO<sub>x</sub> (16.8 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) and TVOC (55.9 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) compared to BLD and ALD.  
249 Conversely, the surface O<sub>3</sub> concentration showed an increase of 18.4 μg m<sup>-3</sup> (28%)  
250 during LD relative to BLD. The reduction of fresh NO emission alleviates O<sub>3</sub> titration  
251 (Steinfeld, 1998) could be an explanation. Analysis from **Fig. S3** indicates that the O<sub>3</sub>  
252 level is higher than those of neighboring cities in the YRD, suggesting higher local  
253 atmospheric oxidation capacity during LD. However, the average concentrations of  
254 PM<sub>2.5</sub> (20.6 vs. 20.3 μg m<sup>-3</sup>), SO<sub>2</sub> (9.1 vs. 9.2 μg m<sup>-3</sup>) and CO (0.61 vs. 0.62 mg m<sup>-3</sup>)  
255 were comparable during both BLD and LD (**Fig. 3**). After LD, social activities  
256 gradually resumed in Yangzhou City, leading to an apparent increase in all observed  
257 pollutants during the ALD period. For instance, there were relative increases of 66%  
258 for NO<sub>x</sub>, 19% for SO<sub>2</sub>, 36% for TVOC, 14% for O<sub>3</sub>, 32% for PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and 16% for CO  
259 from LD to ALD, respectively (**Fig. 3**).

260

261 Satellite-retrieved PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> data over the entire region of eastern China  
262 were also investigated, and results show that these pollutants were predominantly  
263 concentrated in Shanghai and its neighboring cities, including Yangzhou, during both  
264 BLD and LD (**Fig. S4**). **Figure 4** presents regional fractional changes of mean PM<sub>2.5</sub>,  
265 NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from the BLD to LD periods in YRD, all showing an  
266 increase of 29%, 6%, and 14%, respectively. In comparison, Yangzhou city experienced  
267 lower increases in these air pollutants, with slight changes of 6%, -18%, and -4% for  
268 PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. The implication is that, even though local primary  
269 emissions, such as NO<sub>2</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub>, were reduced substantially during LD, they still could  
270 be affected by regional transport. Furthermore, as depicted in **Fig. S3**, the  
271 concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> in major cities of the YRD were more than twice higher than in  
272 Yangzhou during LD, confirming a relatively lower local primary emissions due to the  
273 stringent lockdown. However, the higher level of SO<sub>2</sub> in Yangzhou during LD may be  
274 attributed to the nearby power stations along the Yangtze River, which were not  
275 impacted by the lockdown measures.

276

### 277 3.2 Chemical composition and size distribution of individual BCc

278 Based on the SPA-MS analysis, a total of 1068362 BCc was collected during the whole  
279 study period. The BCc accounted for 59%, 69%, and 57% of the total number of  
280 measured particles in the BLD, LD, and ALD periods, respectively. **Figure 5** shows the  
281 normalized average mass spectra of BCc during three periods. Ion height in each  
282 spectrum reflects the number fraction of the detected BCc with the corresponding ion  
283 to the total BCc, while colors represent peak area ranges of detected ions. BCc in BLD,  
284 LD, and ALD shown similar mass spectra at  $m/z < 100$ , with common peaks including  
285 carbon ion clusters (C<sub>n</sub><sup>+</sup>, 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>,  
286 63[C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>3</sub>]<sup>+</sup>, 46[NO<sub>2</sub>]<sup>-</sup>, 62[NO<sub>3</sub>]<sup>-</sup>, and 97[HSO<sub>4</sub>]<sup>-</sup>. However, the abundance of large  $m/z$   
287 carbon ions (C<sub>n</sub><sup>+</sup>, n > 7) in both BLD and ALD periods was 1.5 times higher than that in  
288 the LD. Previous studies have indicated that high-mass carbon ions may be linked to



289 traffic emissions, particularly those from diesel trucks(Xie et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2019),  
290 and the observed reduction in such ions during LD suggests a decrease in local vehicle  
291 emissions. This trend is also consistent with the changes observed in aromatic  
292 compounds, e.g.  $m/z$  119[ $C_9H_{11}$ ]<sup>+</sup>.

293

294 Further, BCc was classified into 12 types based on the differences in chemical features  
295 and temporal variations, as shown in **Table S1**. Fresh BC particles (BC-fresh) are those  
296 freshly emitted without undergoing significant atmospheric processing (Ding et al.,  
297 2021). Five types of BC-fresh particles were identified according to their ion markers:  
298 (i) BC-pure is dominated by carbon clusters ( $C_n^\pm$ ) with minor ion signals of inorganic  
299 species, such as  $m/z$  46[ $NO_2$ ]<sup>-</sup> and  $m/z$  97[ $HSO_4$ ]<sup>-</sup> from nitrate and sulfate, respectively  
300 (Xie et al., 2020); (ii) BCc from biomass burning (BB) are characterized by ion signals  
301 at  $m/z$  39[ $K$ ]<sup>+</sup>, 45[ $CHO_2$ ]<sup>-</sup>, 59[ $C_2H_3O_2$ ]<sup>-</sup>, and 73[ $C_3H_5O_2$ ]<sup>-</sup>, with a relative peak area  
302 (RPA) more than 0.5 (Silva et al., 1999); (iii) coal combustion BCc (CC) typically  
303 include small carbon clusters ( $C_n^\pm$ ,  $n = 1\sim 4$ ), metal elements (e.g.,  $m/z$  7[ $Li$ ]<sup>+</sup>, 23[ $Na$ ]<sup>+</sup>,  
304 27[ $Al$ ]<sup>+</sup>, 56[ $Fe$ ]<sup>+</sup>, 63[ $Cu$ ]<sup>+</sup> and 206/207/208[ $Pb$ ]<sup>+</sup>), and organic carbon (38[ $C_3H_2$ ]<sup>+</sup>,  
305 43[ $C_2H_3O$ ]<sup>+</sup>) peaks in the positive mass spectrum, while the strong signals of secondary  
306 inorganic species (46[ $NO_2$ ]<sup>-</sup>, 43[ $AlO$ ]<sup>-</sup>, 62[ $NO_3$ ]<sup>-</sup>, 80[ $SO_3$ ]<sup>-</sup>, 97[ $HSO_4$ ]<sup>-</sup>) in the  
307 negative ion mode suggest that CC particles were long-distance transported or more  
308 processed (Zhang et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2009); (iv) particles from vehicle emission  
309 (VE) are characterized by the presence of ion signals at  $m/z$  40[ $Ca$ ]<sup>+</sup>, 51[ $V$ ]<sup>+</sup>, 55[ $Mn$ ]<sup>+</sup>,  
310 67[ $VO$ ]<sup>+</sup>, 46[ $NO_2$ ]<sup>-</sup>, 62[ $NO_3$ ]<sup>-</sup>, and 79[ $PO_3$ ]<sup>-</sup>, as well as high loadings of organic carbon  
311 (41[ $C_3H_5$ ]<sup>+</sup>, 43[ $C_2H_3O$ ]<sup>+</sup>) and carbon clusters ( $C_n^\pm$ ,  $n = 1\sim 4$ ) ion peaks (Yang et al., 2017);  
312 (v) BCc that are internally mixed with more than one type (BB, CC, and VE) are  
313 categorized as Mix type (Sun et al., 2022).

314

315 Aged BC particles, denote as BC-aged, undergo a series of chemical reactions and  
316 physical transformations. These processes typically lead to changes in their morphology,  
317 hygroscopicity, and optical properties as they are coated with other materials (He et al.,  
318 2015). Six types of BCc are classified as BC-aged and are further grouped into BCOC  
319 and BC-SNA, depending on whether they contain mainly organic carbon (OC) or  
320 sulfate/nitrate/ammonium (SNA). First, BCOC types indicate BC-aged particles that  
321 are internally mixed with OC. These particles are characterized by the presence of  
322 carbon clusters ( $C_n^\pm$ ) and  $C_nH_m^+$  ions ( $n = 1\sim 6$ ,  $m = 1\sim 3$ ) in positive mass spectra (Xie  
323 et al., 2020). On the other hand, BC-aged particles that do not mix with OC are named  
324 BC-SNA indicating the mix with secondary inorganic species. Additionally, BCOC  
325 particles with negative mass spectra dominated by nitrate ions (46[ $NO_2$ ]<sup>-</sup> and 62[ $NO_3$ ]<sup>-</sup>)  
326 or sulfate ions (97[ $HSO_4$ ]<sup>-</sup>) are referred to as BCOC-N or BCOC-S, respectively;  
327 otherwise, BCOC particles showing similar peak areas of nitrate and sulfate are named  
328 BCOC-SN. The BC-SNA particles are further categorized as BC-N, BC-S, and BC-SN  
329 based on similar principles. Note the remaining particles that cannot be classified into  
330 either BC-fresh or BC-aged ones are denoted as BC-other. More details of BCc particle

331 types are shown in **Table S1** and **Fig. S1** in the Supplement.

332

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

342

343 During the transition from BLD to LD, heavy and continuous precipitation occurred  
344 from July 25<sup>th</sup> to July 28<sup>th</sup> (the eve of lockdown), resulting in the removal of a majority  
345 of the pollutants (PM<sub>2.5</sub>: 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>). Following this  
346 environmental clearance, strict lockdown measures were implemented, resulting in a  
347 drastic reduction in primary emissions. As a result, the number fraction of BC-fresh  
348 particles significantly decreased from 37% to 28% and that of VE-type particles  
349 dropped from 12% to 3% (by number). Expectedly, with the decrease in NO<sub>x</sub>, an  
350 obvious enhancement of O<sub>3</sub> was observed during LD (**Fig. 3**). According to previous  
351 studies (Huang et al., 2021; Laughner et al., 2021), large reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> may promote  
352 the formation of O<sub>3</sub> under a VOC-limited regime and enhance the oxidation capacity of  
353 the local atmosphere, which may promote the number fraction of BC-aged particles  
354 increased from 64% in the BLD to 72% in LD (**Fig. 7a**), indicating the lockdown could  
355 accelerate aging of BCc through complicated chemical reactions and/or physical  
356 coagulation. Additionally, the most abundant type of BCc changed from BCOC-S (24%  
357 by number) in the BLD to BC-N (25%) in LD (**Fig. 7a**), suggesting different BCc  
358 formation pathways. Despite the abrupt reductions of NO<sub>x</sub> (-39%) due to the city  
359 lockdown, it is important to note that the concentration of PM<sub>2.5</sub> only slightly decreased  
360 during LD (-1%), highlighting the non-linear relationship between primary emissions  
361 and PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels.

362

363 During ALD (PM<sub>2.5</sub>: 26.7 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, NO<sub>x</sub>: 27.9 µg m<sup>-3</sup>, TVOC: 76.0 µg m<sup>-3</sup>), the number  
364 fraction of BC-fresh particles rose from 28% (LD) to 31% (ALD), while the fraction of  
365 VE particles also increased from 3% (LD) to 12% (ALD) (**Fig. 7a**), coinciding with a  
366 16% rise in CO concentration. This suggests a shift in combustion practices and fuel  
367 usage patterns as economic activities resumed. The increased CO levels, a known  
368 marker for combustion-related emissions, align with the resurgence of vehicle  
369 emissions and other activities that emit BC and CO concurrently (Wang et al., 2015,  
370 Zhou et al., 2009). Notably, the size distributions of BC-fresh and BC-aged particles  
371 presented relatively small peaks at 690 nm and 820 nm during ALD, in addition to the  
372 prominent peaks at 490 nm and 500 nm, which were different from those in the BLD

373 and LD periods. These small peaks were relatively close to the dominant sizes of BC-  
374 fresh and BC-aged particles during LD (**Fig. 6**). This result suggests that a substantial  
375 number of BCc with small sizes (around 500 nm) after the lockdown was lifted in  
376 Yangzhou, owing to the sudden enhancement of primary emissions; on the other hand,  
377 particles with large diameters (>690 nm) may have formed due to the participation of  
378 more trace reactive gases (e.g., NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and VOCs) in continuous aging reactions,  
379 resulting in thicker coatings on the surface of pre-existing particles and therefore a more  
380 clear separation of two-mode sizes during the ALD period than during the other two  
381 periods. This hypothesis was also supported by the increased number fraction of  
382 BCOC-SN during the ALD period (**Fig. 7a**). Similar findings have been reported in the  
383 North China Plain (NCP) and the YRD during cold seasons, where thicker coatings on  
384 secondary aerosols were also observed under lower RH (<70%) (Zhang et al., 2021).  
385 This might be due to that particles with more organics and nitrate can result in earlier  
386 deliquescence and provide aqueous surfaces that facilitate the heterogeneous formation  
387 of secondary species under relatively low RH (Zhang et al., 2021). Among the three  
388 periods, the difference between the mode sizes of BC-aged and BC-fresh particles was  
389 the smallest (10 nm) during the ALD period (**Fig. 6a and b**). This size reduction can be  
390 attributed to the increased BCOC and hydrophobic primary particles after lockdown  
391 (Figure 7). Because the internally mixed BCOC and hydrophobic primary particles may  
392 constrain further growth of secondary BC-SNA particles (Liu et al., 2016; Zhang et al.,  
393 2018), thereby leading to smaller-sized BC-aged particles. Moreover, the differences in  
394 BCc mode sizes between ALD and BLD periods also reveal an interesting fact that the  
395 lockdown effect may not only affect air quality during lockdown but also can influence  
396 the air quality even after lockdown, as the resumed emissions after lockdown may be  
397 subjected to different chemistry from that before lockdown.

398

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

415 N during LD might be attributed to regional transport, similar to that in Shanghai during  
416 2020 winter lockdown (Chang et al., 2020).

417

### 418 3.3 Chemical aging of BCc

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

434

435 **Figure 9** illustrates the diurnal variations of the  $OC/C_n$  and  $SNA/C_n$  ratios along with  
436 the size distribution of BCc during different periods. We observed that both  $OC/C_n$  and  
437  $SNA/C_n$  increased during nighttime and decreased during daytime. These variations  
438 showed the prominent enhancements of nocturnal OM and SNA, which could be  
439 attributed to the accelerated gas-to-particle partitioning and nocturnal secondary  
440 formation of organic/inorganic components under high relative humidity ( $RH > 85\%$ )  
441 and relatively stagnant air mass ( $WS < 3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ ) (**Fig. S5**). It is worth noting that from  
442 BLD to LD and ALD, the intensity of diurnal variations of  $OC/C_n$  and  $SNA/C_n$   
443 increased obviously. This discrepancy can be attributed to several reasons. (i) During  
444 BLD, the frequent precipitations effectively scavenged the particles (Isokääntä et al.,  
445 2022); (ii) In contrast, stronger solar radiation and higher  $O_3$  concentration during LD  
446 promoted photochemical formations of OC and SNA; (iii) After lockdown, more  
447 precursors due to increased local emissions may lead to more production of secondary  
448 components than that during BLD as explained earlier. These results indicate that the  
449 aging process and mixing state of BCc depend strongly on meteorological conditions  
450 as well as emission sources in urban cities.

451

452 As shown in **Fig. 9**, BCc with  $\sim 400 \text{ nm } D_{va}$  exhibited significant diurnal fluctuations in  
453 the  $OC/C_n$  and  $SNA/C_n$  ratios, during LD. There is a noticeable increase in the  
454 proportion of BC-SNA particles during nighttime when RH is relatively high. These  
455 observations suggest that nighttime heterogeneous hydrolysis may be considered a key  
456 mechanism responsible for the formation of BCOC and BC-SNA particles. According

457 to Jacobson (2002), coagulation can be significant between particles with sizes <100nm  
458 and >1 $\mu$ m but insignificant for particles of >300nm, when the total particle number  
459 concentration is higher than  $10^4 \text{ cm}^{-3}$ . During LD, the OC/C<sub>n</sub> and SNA/C<sub>n</sub> ratios of BCc  
460 with ~400 nm D<sub>va</sub> exhibited pronounced diurnal variations (**Fig. 9**) and the number  
461 fraction of BC-SNA increased obviously. Despite the difference between D<sub>va</sub> and  
462 physical diameter, such results imply that chemical reactions should be considered as  
463 the major pathway for BCOC and BC-SNA particles of ~400 nm D<sub>va</sub>, while the large-  
464 sized BC-aged particles (>1  $\mu$ m) may be partially from physical coagulation. The more  
465 significant diurnal fluctuations in the OC/C<sub>n</sub> and SNA/C<sub>n</sub> ratios of BCc particles during  
466 the ALD period, compared to the LD period, can be attributed to increased primary  
467 emissions from resumed society activities, more complex atmospheric chemistry  
468 involving reactive gases, and the reinstatement of typical diurnal emission patterns,  
469 with higher nighttime RH further enhancing secondary aerosol formation.

470

471 According to Surdu et al. (2023), condensation involves the direct deposition of gas-  
472 phase molecules onto the surface of particles, driven by the difference between the  
473 condensable gases concentration (C<sub>g</sub>) and its equilibrium particle-phase concentration  
474 (C<sub>eq</sub>), which is negatively affected by RH. In our study, the average RH was relatively  
475 high during all three periods (>75%), but the condensable vapor concentration  
476 decreased during the lockdown period due to strict lockdown measures, making the  
477 difference between C<sub>g</sub> and C<sub>eq</sub> smaller during LD compared to the other two periods.  
478 Additionally, we observed a larger mode peak (600 nm, D<sub>va</sub>) and higher D<sub>aged</sub>/D<sub>fresh</sub>  
479 ratios (1.11) compared to BLD (510 nm, 1.03) and ALD (500 nm, 1.02) (**Fig. 6**).  
480 Therefore, we conclude that condensation was likely inhibited during the LD period.  
481 Instead, the conditions likely favored aqueous-phase and heterogeneous reactions,  
482 which played a more important role in the evident growth of BCc particles, converting  
483 partially coated particles into fully thickly coated BCc during the LD period.

484

### 485 3.4 Source apportionment of BCc during lockdown

486 In addition to local emissions, regional transport plays a significant role in influencing  
487 pollutant levels. The emergent lockdown in Yangzhou led to strict limitation on local  
488 emissions, while surrounding cities were still running as usual. This is supported by **Fig.**  
489 **S6**, which illustrates the PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in Yangzhou and the other five  
490 surrounding YRD cities (e.g., Nanjing, Zhenjiang, Changzhou, Taizhou, and Chuzhou)  
491 during the campaign. High correlations between PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in Yangzhou and  
492 the other five cities were observed across all different periods (**Fig. S6**). These findings  
493 underscore the importance of the regional transport in PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution during the  
494 campaign, providing a unique opportunity to investigate the transmission and source  
495 characteristics of BCc in YRD during summer. Herein, PSCF analysis was applied to  
496 qualitatively simulate the source probability distributions of the specific BCc particle  
497 types (BC-fresh, BC-aged, BCOC, and BC-SNA) during LD.

498

499 As shown in **Fig. 10**, the hotspots of potential sources for the four particle types  
500 exhibited strong agreements with each other and primarily concentrated in the southeast  
501 of Yangzhou, especially along the coast of the Yangtze River, with the WPSCF greater  
502 than 0.6. These hotspot areas also encompassed chemical enterprises, power plants,  
503 petrochemical industrial parks, and the Yangtze River in the YRD. This evidence  
504 suggests that the region of southeast Yangzhou and lower reaches of the Yangtze River  
505 are major source areas for the regionally transported BCc in Yangzhou during lockdown.  
506 Additionally, Luo et al. (2023) reported that regional transport of pollutants can occur  
507 near the surface from upwind areas when the wind speed (WS) exceeds  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ . **Figure**  
508 **S5b** shows that the mean daytime WS was  $3 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , indicating that both BC-fresh and  
509 BC-aged particles, along with trace gases (e.g.,  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ , and VOCs), originating from  
510 the hotspot areas, could be transported effectively to Yangzhou. Additionally, the  
511 average size of BCc remained around 600 nm at daytime (**Fig. S5c**), suggesting that  
512 BCc could undergo continual aging reactions under relatively lower RH, but produce  
513 relatively thinly coated BCc with smaller sizes than those at nighttime (average size of  
514 650 nm). The mean nocturnal WS decreased to  $2 \text{ m s}^{-1}$ , indicating that the regional  
515 atmosphere becomes stagnant (**Fig. S5a, b**). As mentioned earlier and underscored here  
516 again, this stagnant and humid atmospheric condition may promote aqueous or  
517 heterogeneous reactions, likely further leading to the production of more thickly coated  
518 BCc than daytime ones.

519

#### 520 **4. Conclusions and implications**

521 During the summer of 2021, the COVID-19 lockdown imposed in Yangzhou resulted  
522 in a significant decrease in anthropogenic emissions from traffic and manufacturing  
523 sectors. To examine the effects of this lockdown, we utilized spaceborne observations,  
524 ground-based measurements, and particularly SPA-MS analysis to explore the  
525 variations, aging characteristics, and sources of BCc in the YRD. We showed that the  
526 strict emission controls effectively reduced local gaseous pollutants. However, the  
527 decline in  $\text{NO}_x$  (-39%) and TVOC (-14%) levels might on the other hand result in  
528 increased  $\text{O}_3$  (28%), leading to a rise in BC-aged particles and a slight elevation in  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
529 levels during the lockdown. Our results revealed a strong non-linear response of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$   
530 and  $\text{O}_3$  to the gaseous precursors.

531

532 The SPA-MS analysis results further demonstrate significant enhancement of OM and  
533 SNA coating species on BC-fresh particles, owing to gas-to-particle partitioning and  
534 nocturnal multiphase chemistry. Consequently, we observed a higher fraction of BC-  
535 aged particles (73%) during the lockdown due to enhanced oxidizing capacity and high  
536 relative humidity ( $\text{RH} > 85\%$ ). The BC-fresh particles tended to mix with SNA under  
537 high RH conditions, while high TVOC levels were accompanied by BCOC formation.  
538 However, BCOC particles generally exhibited smaller sizes compared to BC-SNA  
539 particles. Moreover, we propose that aqueous or heterogeneous reactions might be  
540 important to generate BCOC and BC-SNA particles, especially ones with 400 nm  $D_{va}$ ,

541 while coagulation might play a more prominent role in larger BC-aged particles. The  
542 aging process during LD promoted the conversion of partly coated particles to totally  
543 coated ones, with larger diameters (600 nm) and thicker coatings.

544

545 It should be noted that the observed average  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration during the lockdown  
546 in Yangzhou was  $20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , which still significantly exceeds the WHO's air quality  
547 guideline of  $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . Our research underscores the crucial role of BCc, which  
548 constitutes a significant portion of  $PM_{2.5}$ , in particulate matter pollution. These particles  
549 originate from diverse combustion sources and their behavior is intricately influenced  
550 by complex chemistry, regional transport, and meteorological factors. Mere reductions  
551 in local primary emissions from traffic and manufacturing sectors exhibit limited  
552 efficacy in air quality improvement. Therefore, effective air quality remediation  
553 strategies necessitate nuanced control of BCc alongside broader emission reduction  
554 efforts. We suggest a more comprehensive regulation of precursor gases from multiple  
555 sectors, a wide-ranging joint regulation approach as well as proper consideration of the  
556 chemistry, to develop an effective strategy for air quality improvement.

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

559

560 **Author contributions.** XG, JW, and YD designed the research. YD, HW, and SC  
561 conducted the field measurements. YD, HW, JW, and SC analyzed the data. XG, JW,  
562 HL, YW, YZ, and EA reviewed the paper and provided useful suggestions. YD, JW,  
563 and XG wrote the first draft of the paper. All people were involved in the discussion of  
564 the results.

565

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568

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571

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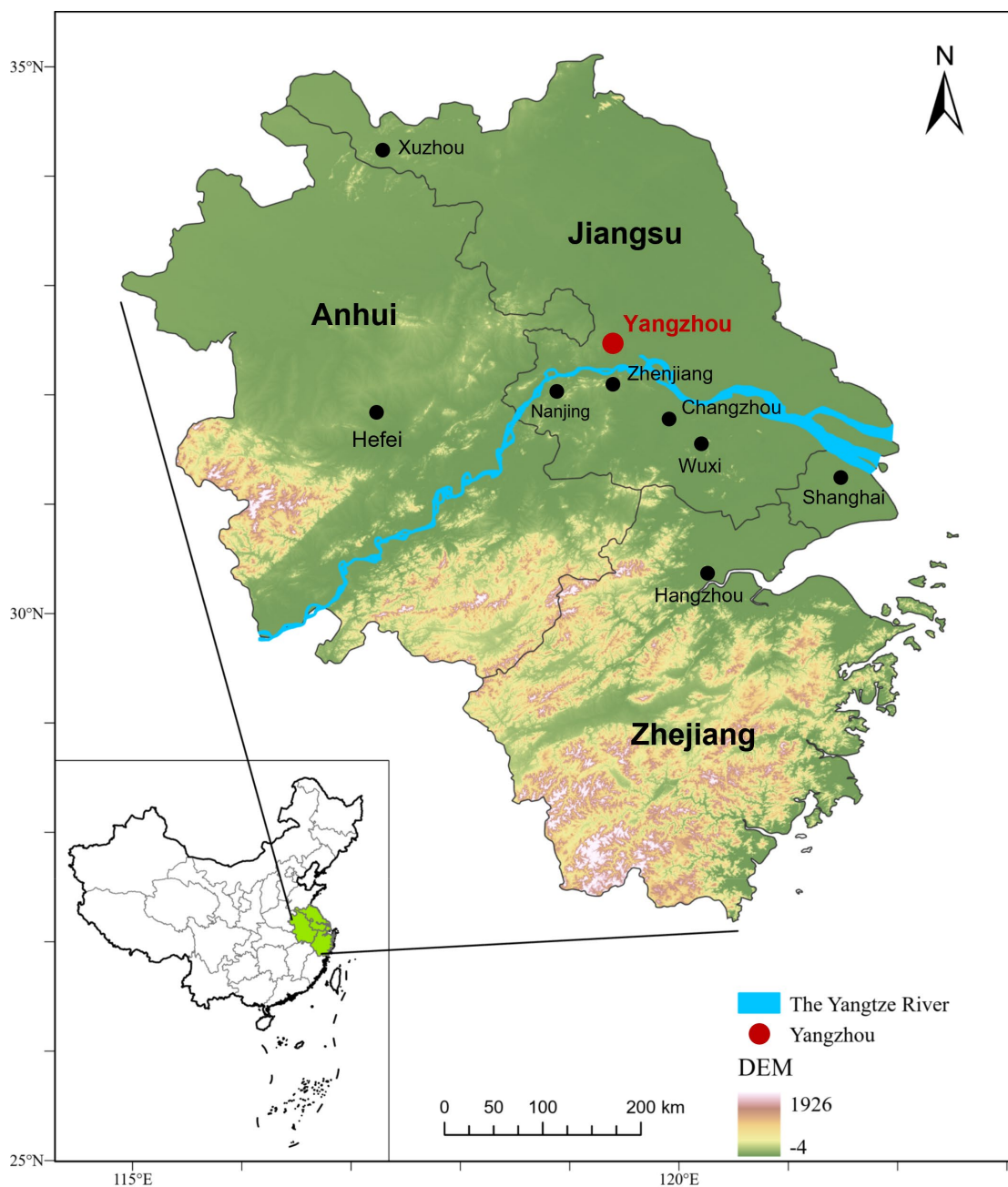
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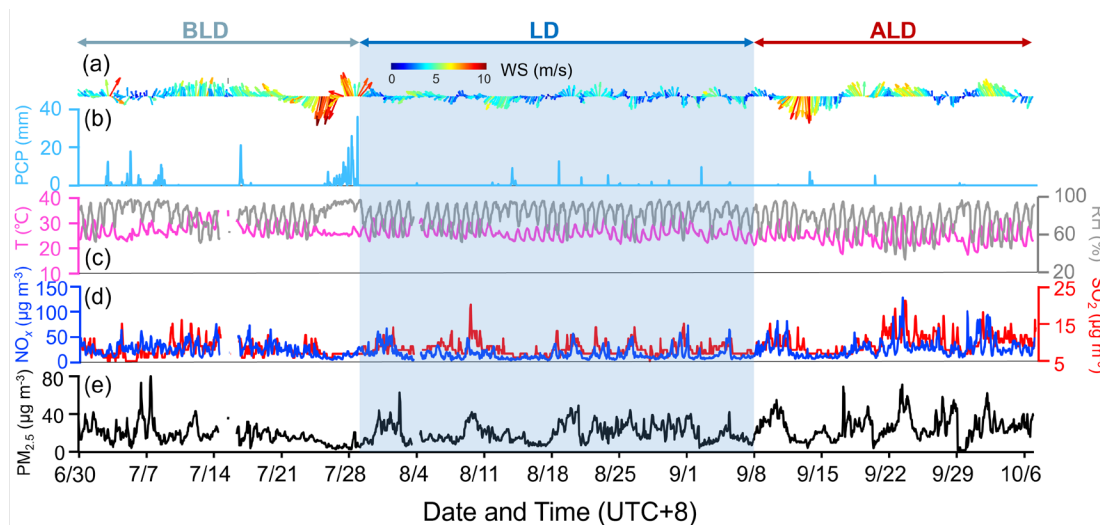
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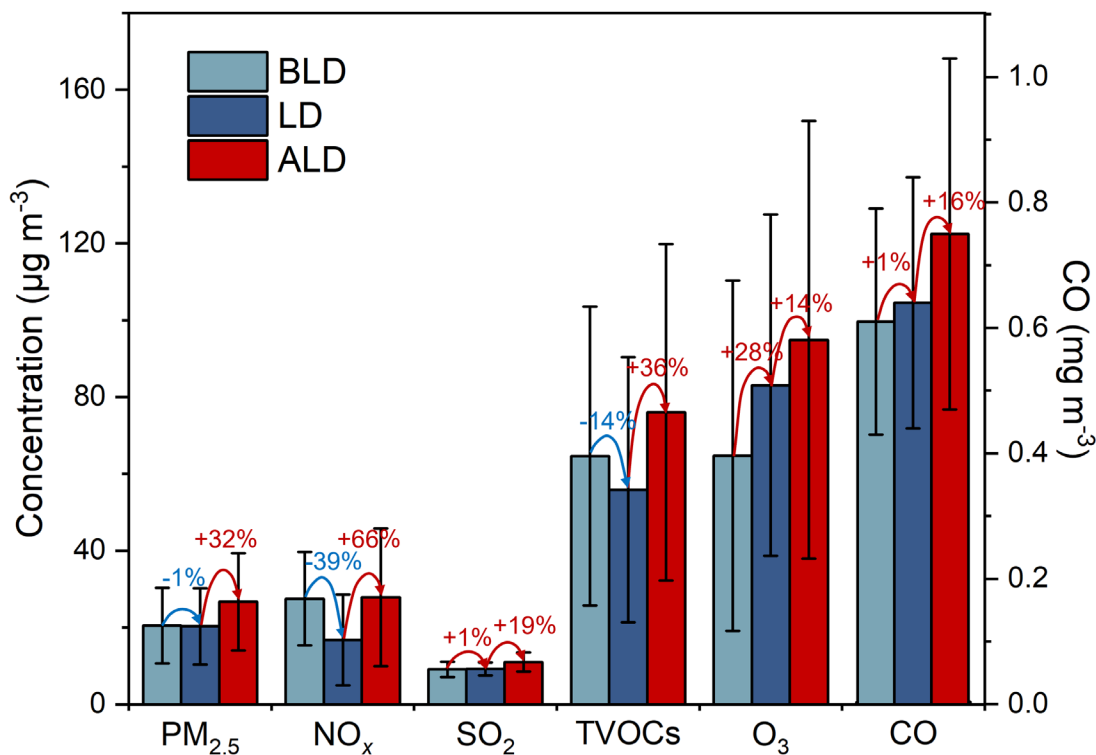
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 965 **Figure 1.** Geographical overview of the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) Region in China,

966 depicting the major cities within the YRD and the sampling site located in Yangzhou.  
 967 The color gradient from green to white indicates varying altitudes across the region  
 968 (Maps were generated by using ArcGIS Pro).



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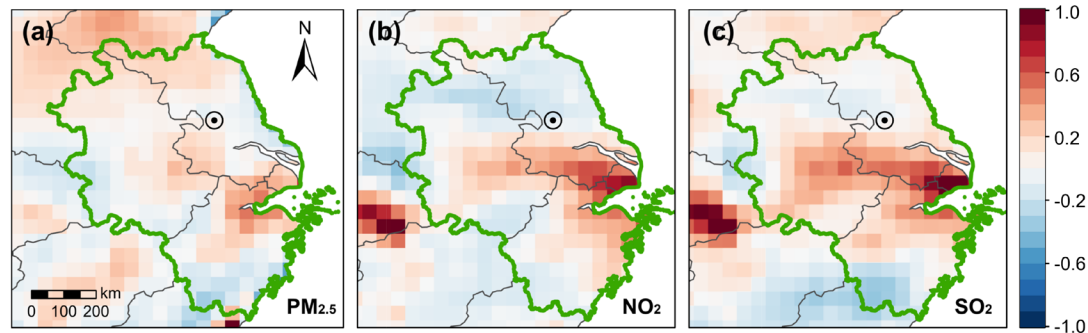
970 **Figure 2.** Temporal variations of (a) wind direction (WD) and wind speed (WS), (b)  
 971 precipitation (PCP), (c) temperature (T) and relative humidity (RH), (d) concentrations  
 972 of NO<sub>x</sub> and SO<sub>2</sub>, and (e) mass loading of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. The grey, blue, and red arrow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



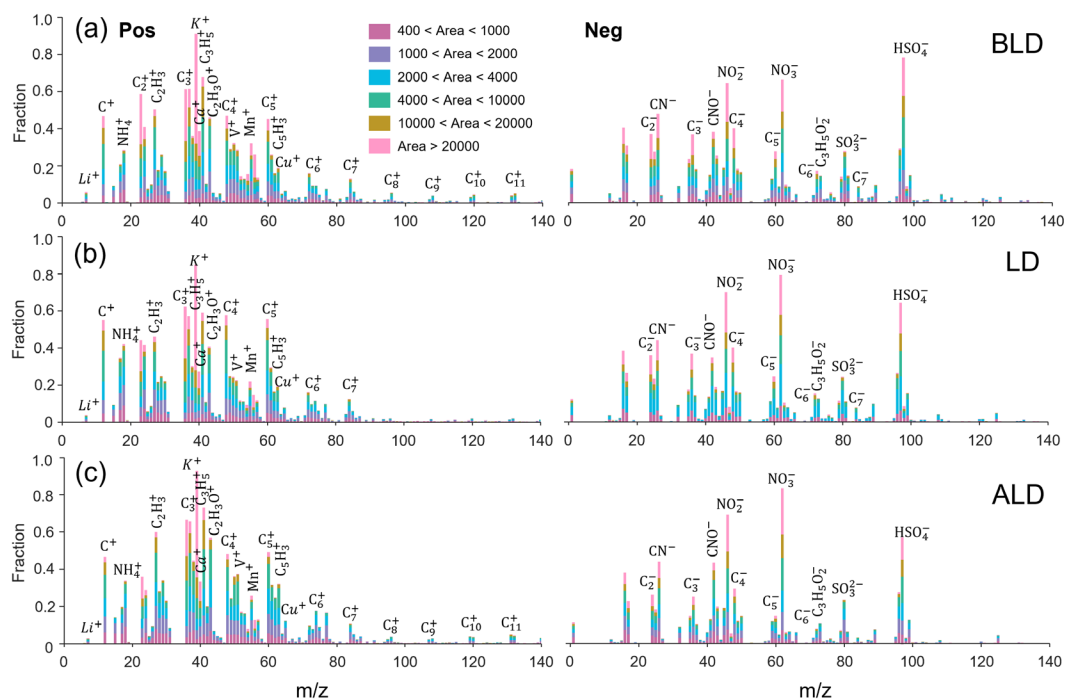
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976 **Figure 3.** Ground-based observations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, CO, and TVOC

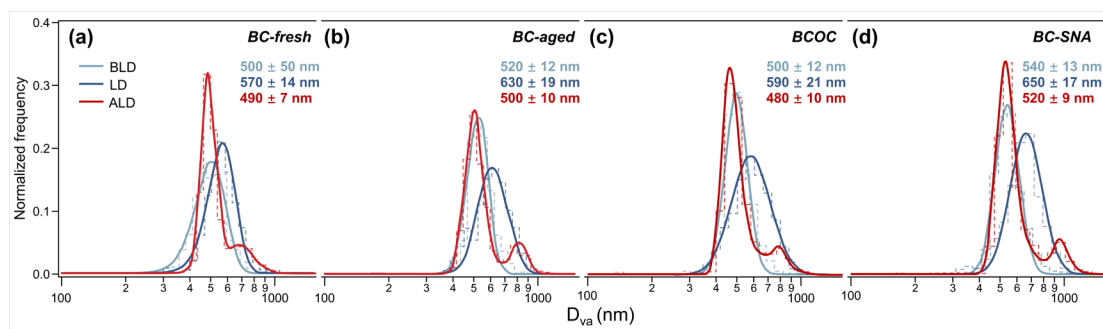
977 concentrations in Yangzhou. The figure compares the averages during the BLD (grey),  
 978 LD (blue), and ALD (red) periods. Error bars indicate SDs over different lockdown  
 979 periods.  
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 982 **Figure 4.** The fractional changes (i.e.,  $(LD - BLD)/BLD$ ) of (a)  $PM_{2.5}$ , (b)  $NO_2$ , and (c)  
 983  $SO_2$  between BLD and LD periods based on spaceborne measurement. The circle  
 984 symbols in the maps indicate the location of Yangzhou, and the green region represents  
 985 the YRD.

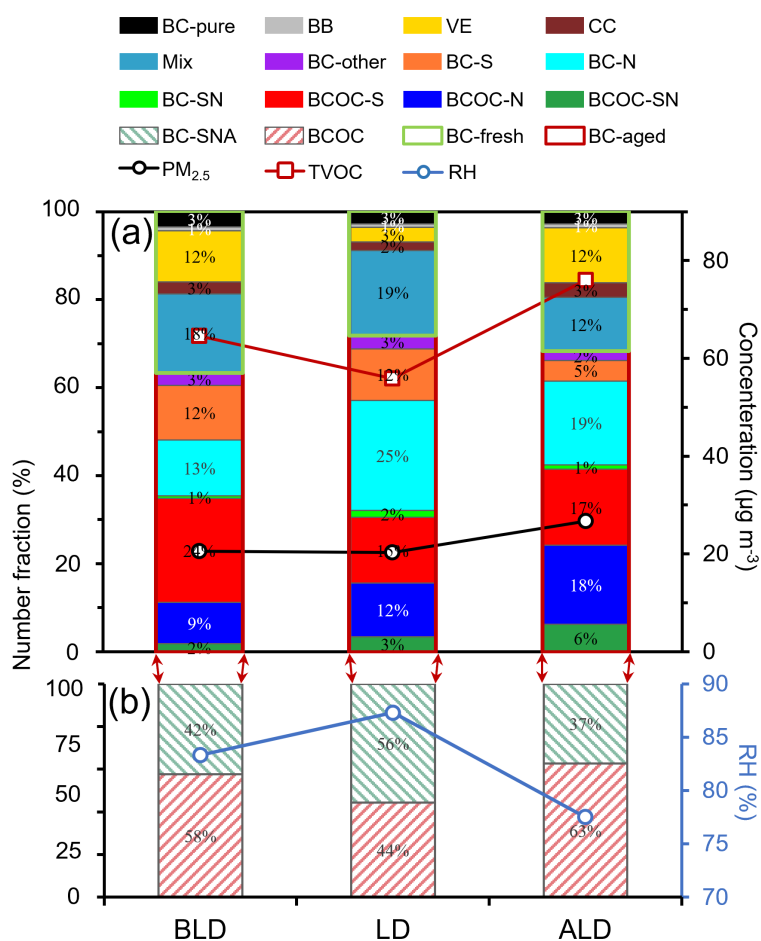


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 987 **Figure 5.** The average positive and negative mass spectra of BCc (a) before the  
 988 lockdown period (BLD), (b) during the lockdown period (LD), and (c)  
 989 after the lockdown period (ALD).  
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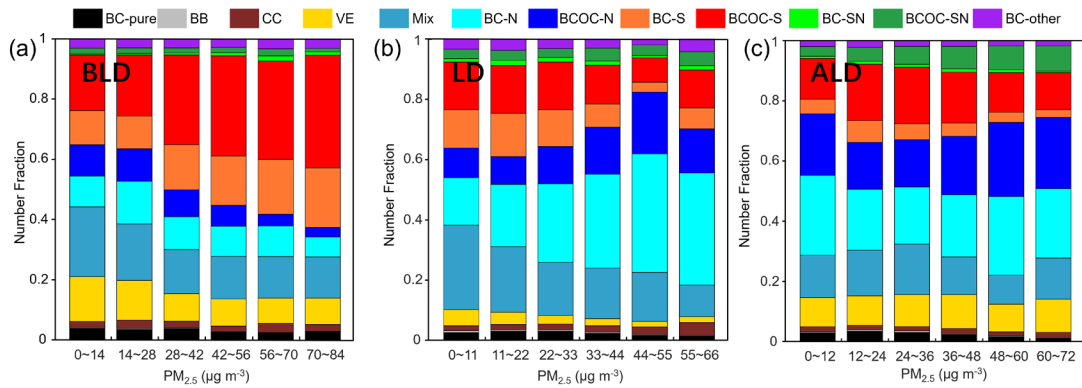
**Figure 6.** Size distribution of different types of BCc during different periods in Yangzhou. **(a)** BC-fresh particles, **(b)** BC-aged particles, **(c)** BCOC particles, and **(d)** BC-SNA particles. The Log-normal distribution was used to fit the unimodal size distribution, and the Lorentz distribution was used to fit the bimodal size distribution. The corresponding mode sizes (with the standard deviations) are also shown.



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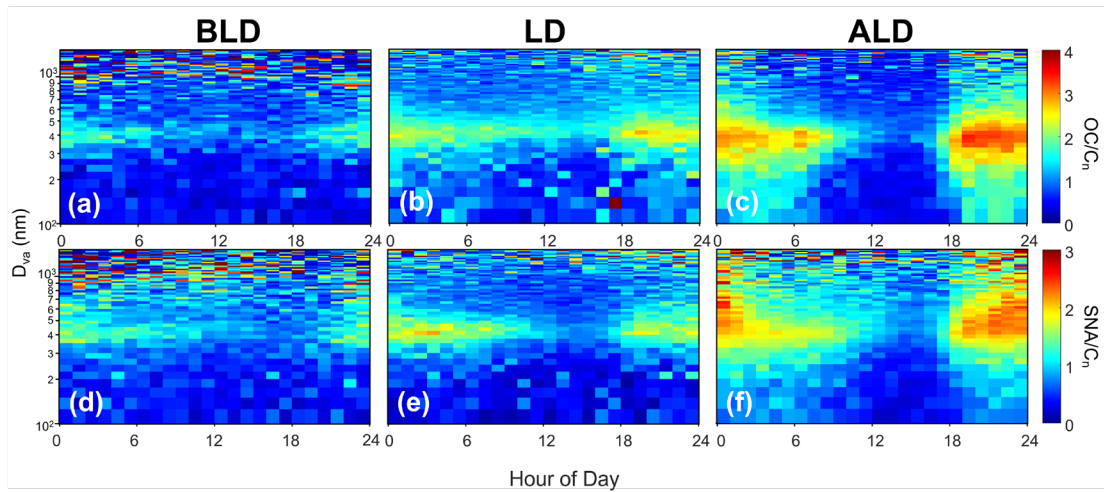
**Figure 7.** Number fractions of BCc. **(a)** The number fractions of different BCc along with the concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and total volatile organic compounds (TVOC). **(b)** The

1001 number fractions of different types of BC-aged particles along with relative humidity  
 1002 (RH).  
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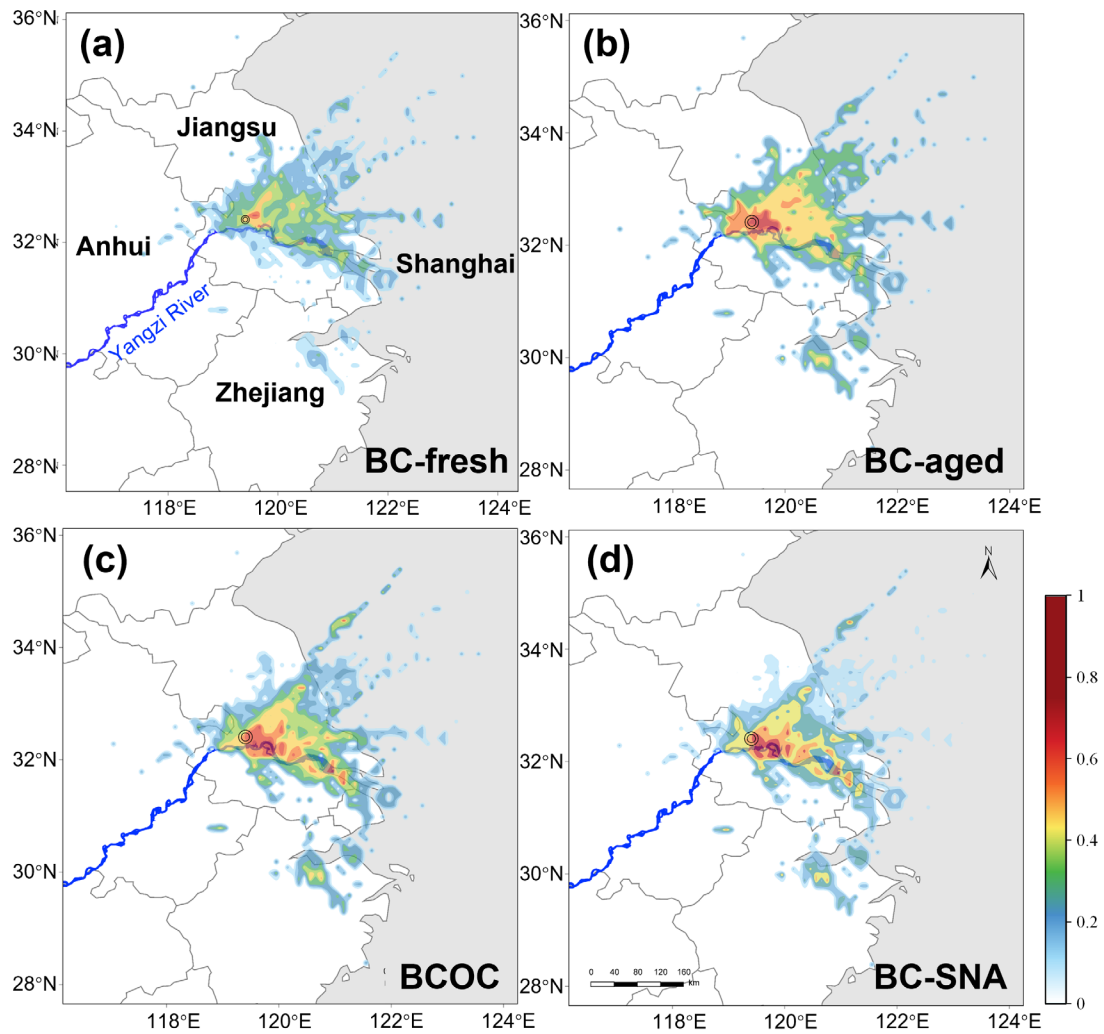
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1005 **Figure 8.** Variations of number fractions of BCc particle types with  $PM_{2.5}$  mass  
 1006 concentrations during (a) the BLD period, (b) LD, and (c) the ALD period.



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1008 **Figure 9.** Diurnal variations of the ratios of OC/Cn and SNA/Cn with a size distribution  
 1009 of BCc during (a, d) BLD, (b, e) LD, and (c, f) ALD.



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1011 **Figure 10.** The PSCF maps for different BCc during LD. **(a)** BC-fresh. **(b)** BC-aged.

1012 **(c)** BCOC. **(d)** BC-SNA.

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