

Responses to Referee #1:

This manuscript discussed chemical composition and source apportionment of PM_{2.5} in three northern Chinese cities based on high-time-resolution monitoring equipment. Furthermore, the authors qualitatively explored the mechanisms of secondary aerosols formation. And the authors also compared the changes in the chemical composition and sources of PM_{2.5} in the three pilot cities over past decades. At the end of the article, the authors provided policy recommendations for sustained air quality improvement in the future. In general, this article provides valuable data for local governments to develop scientific pollution control strategies. I recommend this article for publication on Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics. However, some issues should be addressed before the publication.

Response: We kindly appreciate the reviewer to providing those valuable comments and suggestions to our paper. We have carefully revised the relevant contents. We do believe that the revised manuscript has been significantly improved after the revision. The point-to-point responses to each comment are provided in blue, and the revised content is underlined in italics. Attached please also find the marked-up manuscript with tracked changes in the revised manuscript.

Major comments:

Comments (1): In Text S1 from supplement, the error fraction of all chemical species was used to 10% for calculation of uncertainty dataset inputted receptor model. Is it reasonable to choose the same error fraction for different instruments?

Response: Thank you for pointing out this problem. The error fraction value was normally calculated by parallel sample analysis, which can be achieved from off-line experiments. However, our campaigns were conducted by online instruments, the parallel test cannot be conducted due to limitation of instruments. For high time- resolution source apportionment, the value of error fraction was set from 0.05-0.5 (Yang et al., 2022). And the 10% for all species was been widely used to calculate the uncertainty dataset for source apportionment by receptor model in previous several studies (Liu et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2018; Rai et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Tian et al., 2022), and those all did not impact the interpretability of the source identification. Therefore, the 10% for error fraction was chosen to calculate the uncertainty data set in this study.

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Comments (2): In Sect3.2, the secondary sources from three cities were resolved by HERM model. And one factor named secondary nitrate plus sulfate was identified in Xi'an and Shijiazhuang (Fig. S6 and S7), but two factors named secondary nitrate and secondary sulfate were identified in Beijing (Fig. S8). What causes such differences in sources identification among cities? Moreover, the secondary sources were characterized by high EV values for SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and those three species are inorganic aerosols. Secondary organic aerosols (SOA) were not identified in this study, dose SOA was ignored in this study?

Response: (a) Thank you for pointing out this out. The factor number for optimal solution of receptor model was depended on characteristics of data set inputted model (Chen et al., 2010). So, it is not unusual for the number of factors to vary in different cities. Although two factors about secondary source were identified in Beijing, the source characteristics reflected by these two factors together are equivalent those reflected by one factor in Xi'an and Shijiazhuang. And we also point out this in manuscript (see section 3.2).

(b) Due to lack of critical tracers of SOA in this study, the sources of SOA cannot be individually resolved by receptor model. In this study, the secondary sources were mainly characterized by high EV values for inorganic aerosols such as SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, but the medium EV values for OA (16~29%) were also presented on secondary sources in three pilot cities. This means that the SOA maybe mixed in with the factors of secondary sources. To

verify this, we estimated the SOA concentrations using a BC-tracer method (Wang et al., 2019) and then compared the results with those based on source apportionment. The formula of SOA calculation based on BC-tracer method was shown as follow:

$$[\text{SOA}]_{\text{BC-tracer}} = [\text{OA}] - (\text{OA/BC})_{\text{pri}} \times [\text{BC}] \quad (\text{R-1})$$

where [] means mass concentration, $(\text{OA/BC})_{\text{pri}}$ is the ratio of [OA] to [BC] in primary emission. The $(\text{OA/BC})_{\text{pri}}$ ratios vary among sources, therefore, a minimum R squared (MRS) method was used to derive appropriate $(\text{OA/BC})_{\text{pri}}$ values for three pilot cities. In previous studies (Srivastava et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019), MRS method has been used to calculate the concentration of secondary organic carbon and brown carbon. Detailed information on the method and a validation of this approach can be found in Wang et al. (2019).

In addition, according to source apportionment results, SOA concentration can also be estimated as follows based on EV values of OA from secondary source factors

$$[\text{SOA}]_{\text{source apportionment}} = [\text{OA}] \times \text{EV}_{\text{OA}} \quad (\text{R-2})$$

where EV_{OA} represents the EV values of OA in secondary source factors resolved by the HERM model.

As shown in Fig. R1, the $(\text{OA/BC})_{\text{pri}}$ ratios were determined as 4.73 for Xi'an, 3.12 for Shijiazhuang and 7.6 for Beijing, respectively. Furthermore, the concentrations of SOA from three pilot cities were shown in Table R1 based on two different methods. As we can see, the SOA concentrations estimated by EV values of OA are close to that by the BC-tracer method for three pilot cities. This indicates that SOA was mixed in secondary source factors.

To avoid unnecessary misunderstanding to the readers, we re-named the source of secondary nitrate plus sulfate as secondary formation source, secondary nitrate as secondary nitrate plus OA, and secondary sulfate as secondary sulfate plus OA, respectively in the revised manuscript.

The main changes about identification of secondary source were revised as follows:

“The secondary sources resolved by HERM are different among the three cities. In Xi'an and Shijiazhuang, this factor are characterized by high EV values for SO_4^{2-} (62–75%), NO_3^- (55–53%), NH_4^+ (60–56%) and a medium EV value for OA (23–29%), which showed good correlations with SO_4^{2-} ($R^2 = 0.85\text{--}0.90$) and NO_3^- ($R^2 = 0.85\text{--}0.92$) (Dai et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2022). In addition, the OA concentration in this factor was calculated by the EV value of OA, which was close to the secondary OA (SOA) concentration estimated by the BC-tracer method (see Text S3 and Table S6). This means that SOA was mixed in this factor, therefore, this factor was identified as secondary formation source. In Beijing, two secondary sources were resolved. The first one was characterized by high EV value for NO_3^- (58%), NH_4^+ (42%) and medium

values for OA (21%), another one was characterized by high EV value for SO_4^{2-} (58%), and medium values for OA (16%), NH_4^+ (30%). The OA concentration in those two factors was also comparable to that estimated by BC-trace method (see Text S3). So, those two sources were identified as secondary nitrate plus OA and secondary sulfate plus OA, respectively. The combination of secondary nitrate plus OA and secondary sulfate plus OA is equivalent to the secondary formation source for next discussion.” (Page 10 Line 270–283)

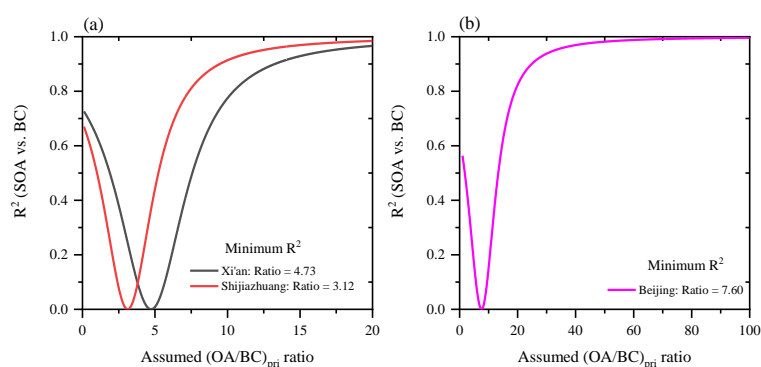


Figure R1. Coefficients of determination (R^2) for SOA versus BC mass concentration plotted against assumed ratios for OA to BC in primary emissions ($(\text{OA}/\text{BC})_{\text{pri}}$).

Table R1 Average concentrations of SOA in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing during sampling periods estimated by BC-tracer method and source apportionment results ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)

SOA	Xi'an	Shijiazhuang	Beijing
SOA_BC-tracer	5.1 ± 5.8	4.2 ± 4.4	8.0 ± 9.0
SOA_source apportionment	6.0 ± 4.1	4.6 ± 2.8	8.2 ± 6.7

References:

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Comments (3): In Sect3.3, the authors explored the potential function of aqueous-phase reaction to secondary aerosol formation based on data during nighttime. It should be noted that aqueous-phase reaction may also promote secondary aerosol formation during daytime. I suggest that the authors take the data from daytime hours into account when discussing the role

of the aqueous-phase reaction.

Response: Thanks for reviewer’s wonderful suggestion. We investigated the correlations of secondary formation source/ Δ CO ration and ALWC based on data during daytime (08:00–17:00 LST). As shown in Fig. R2a-c, the secondary formation source/ Δ CO also showed a significant linear correlation to ALWC ($R^2 = 0.84–0.98$) when $RH < 80\%$, this indicated that the aqueous-phase reaction on the secondary aerosol formation also occurred during the daytime. Therefore, the functions of aqueous-phase reaction to the secondary aerosol formation in three pilot cities were re-evaluated by all data during sampling periods in revised manuscript.

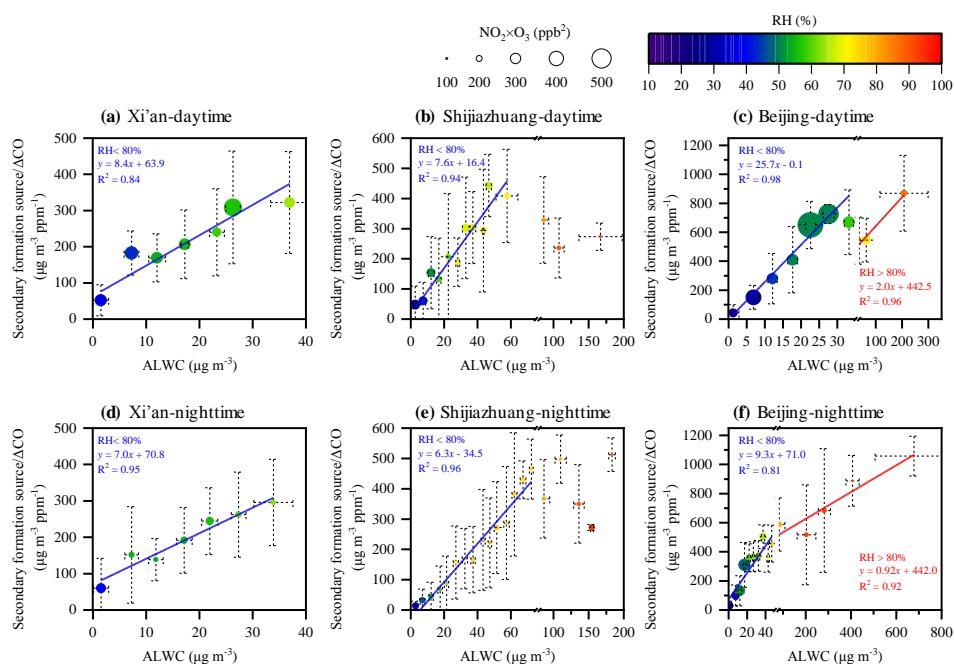


Figure R2. Correlation of secondary formation source/ Δ CO and ALWC during daytime (08:00–17:00 LST, a–c) and nighttime (18:00–7:00 the next day LST, d–f) in Xi’an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing, respectively. The points and error bar represent the mean values and standard deviation values of secondary formation source / Δ CO and ALWC in each bin. In Xi’an, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). In Shijiazhuang, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when ALWC ranged from 0 to $75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 75 to $200 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to limitations in data. In Beijing, during daytime, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when ALWC ranged from 0 to $40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 40 to $450 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to limitations in data. During nighttime, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when ALWC ranged from 0 to $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 50 to $900 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to limitations in data.

In the revised manuscript, Figure 4 was replaced by Figure R3.

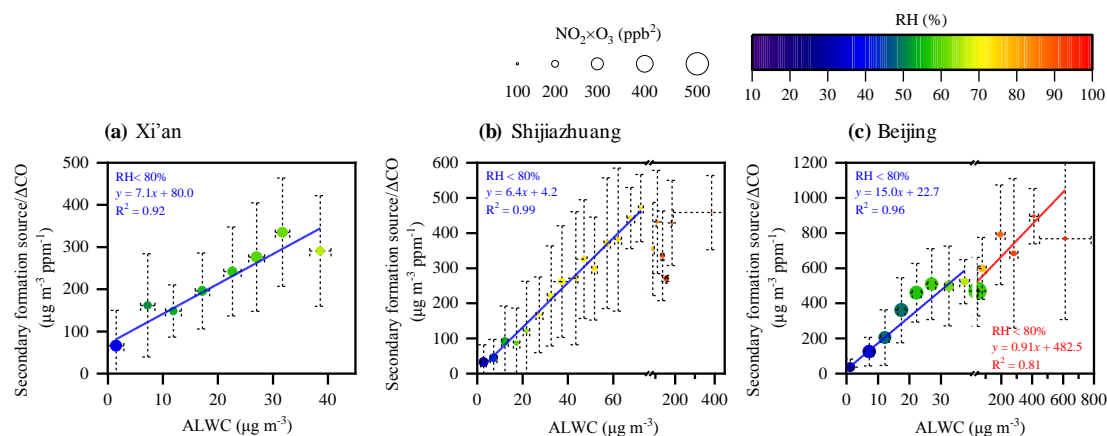


Figure R3. Correlation of secondary formation source/ Δ CO and ALWC during sampling periods in (a) Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing, respectively. The points and error bar represent the mean values and standard deviation values of secondary formation source / Δ CO and ALWC in each bin. In Xi'an, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Δ ALWC = $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). In Shijiazhuang, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Δ ALWC = $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when ALWC ranged from 0 to $75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Δ ALWC = $25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 75 to $200 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to limitations in data. In Beijing, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Δ ALWC = $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when ALWC ranged from 0 to $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Δ ALWC = $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 50 to $900 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to limitations in data.

The relevant contents in section 3.3 were revised as follows:

“The aqueous-phase reaction is another important pathway for secondary aerosol formation in the atmosphere (Wang et al., 2018; Xue et al., 2014). ALWC is considered an indicator of an aqueous-phase reaction (Ervens et al., 2011). Considering that the aqueous-phase reaction occurs both during the daytime and nighttime characterized by good correlations between secondary formation source/ Δ CO and ALWC ($R^2 = 0.81$ – 0.98 , Fig. S14). The correlations of secondary formation source/ Δ CO ratio and ALWC during all sampling periods were re-established in three pilot cities to assess the implications of aqueous-phase chemistry for secondary aerosol production. As shown in Fig. 4, the secondary formation source/ Δ CO showed a significant linear correlation to ALWC ($R^2 = 0.92$ – 0.99) when $RH < 80\%$, indicating an obvious effect of aqueous-phase reaction on the secondary aerosol formation during the sampling periods. However, when $RH > 80\%$, the secondary formation source/ Δ CO showed no notable increase with ALWC in Shijiazhuang (Fig. 4b), whereas a tiny increase with ALWC in Beijing (Fig. 4c). The higher ALWC at $RH > 80\%$ probably inhibits secondary aerosol formation due to the decrease in aerosol acidity (Huang et al., 2019; Meng et al., 2014). Khan et al. (2008) found that NO_3 radicals can rapidly generate from the reaction between NO_2 and O_3 with unsaturated organic species during nighttime. The value of $\text{O}_3 \times \text{NO}_2$ can thus represent its production reaction rate or be used as a proxy for the NO_3 radical. The highest NO_3 radical production rate was found in Beijing, followed by Xi'an and Shijiazhuang, when $RH < 80\%$. This could be used to explain the highest contribution of secondary formation source to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$

in Beijing during the daytime and nighttime (Fig. S13). Moreover, the results showed that both photochemical oxidation and aqueous-phase reaction play more important roles in Beijing, where the primary sources have been better controlled. This reflects that pollution control policies need to be focused on the suppression of secondary formations” (Page 11,12 Line 334–353)

Specific Comments:

Comments (4): line18 & 352: change “progress of” to “process of”

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentences as follows:

“In this study, intensive real-time measurement campaigns were conducted in Xi’an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing to investigate the chemical characteristics and source contributions of PM_{2.5} and explored the formation of heavy pollution for policy implications.” (Page 1 Line 16–18)

“To gain insights into the process of pollution episodes, three typical pollution events were chosen for detailed discussion (i.e., EP2 in Xi’an, EP4 in Shijiazhuang, and EP7 in Beijing) based on the validity and integrity of the data and the representativeness of the selected pollution events.” (Page 14 Line 369–371)

Comments (5): line 22-23: change "but is no longer important contributor...." to "but is no longer an important contributor...."

Response: We have added an indefinite article of to this sentence as follows:

“The contribution of coal combustion to PM_{2.5} is non-negligible in Xi’an and Shijiazhuang but is no longer an important contributor in the capital city of Beijing due to the execution of a strict coal-banning policy.” (Page 1 Line 22–24)

Comments (6): line 27: change “According to source variations, to “According to sources variations,”

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

“According to sources variations, air pollution events that occurred in campaigns were classified into three types: biomass combustion dominated, secondary formation source dominated, and a combination of primary and secondary sources.” (Page 1 Line 27–30)

Comments (7): line 49: change “In perspective of PM2.5 sources” to “In terms of PM2.5 sources”

Response: We have changed “In perspective of PM_{2.5} sources” to “In terms of PM_{2.5} sources” as follows:

“In terms of PM_{2.5} sources, contribution of secondary source increased obviously while contribution of industrial emission and coal combustion decreased due to elimination of industries and enterprises with high pollutant emissions, promotion of desulfurization in industrial facilities, replacement of clean energy, and optimization of industrial and energy structures (Lu et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2022; Tao et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019).” (Page 2 Line 50–54)

Comments (8): line 67: change “Liu et. al (2019)” to “Liu et al. (2019)”

Response: Corrected. (Page 2 Line 68)

Comments (9): line 73: change “should be pointed out previous researches” to “should be pointed out that previous studies”

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

“It should be pointed out that previous researches were mainly focused on individual cities, and those results have some limitations in guiding the improvement of air quality in the entire northern region of China.” (Page 3 Line 73–75)

Comments (10): line 78 & 85-86: change “are located to” to “are located in”

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

“The cities of Beijing and Shijiazhuang are located in the North China Plain, which is one of the most polluted regions in China (Chan and Yao, 2008).” (Page 3 Line 79–80)

“Xi’an is located in the Fenwei Plain, which is a region that suffered from heavy pollution and was designated as a key region for TAPFAP in 2018 (Cao and Cui, 2021).” (Page 3 Line 87–88)

Comments (11): line 237: change “With increasing of the PM_{2.5} mass concentration” to “With increases of the PM_{2.5} mass concentration”

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

“With increases of the PM_{2.5} mass concentration, the fractions of chemical components in Xi’an and Shijiazhuang changed notably.” (Page 9 Line 238–239)

Comments (12): line 431&454: change “atmosphere oxidation capacity” to “atmospheric oxidation capacity”

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentences as follows:

“Therefore, more control measures should focus on weakening the atmospheric oxidation capacity, such as reduction of O₃ formation, to reduce the formation of secondary pollutants which are now identified as the most critical drivers of pollution.” *(Page 16,17 Line 453–456)*

“Furthermore, to weaken the atmospheric oxidation capacity for reducing the contribution of secondary formation source, it is necessary to promote the collaborative control on ozone and particulate matter.” *(Page 17 Line 477–479)*

1 **High-time-resolution chemical composition and source apportionment of PM_{2.5} in northern** 2 **Chinese cities: implications for policy**

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15 **Abstract:** Fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) pollution is still one of China's most important environmental issues,
16 especially in northern cities during wintertime. In this study, intensive real-time measurement campaigns were
17 conducted in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing to investigate the chemical characteristics and source contributions of
18 PM_{2.5} and explored the formation ~~progress~~ of heavy pollution for policy implications. The chemical compositions of
19 PM_{2.5} in three cities were all dominated by organic aerosol (OA) and nitrate (NO₃⁻). Results of source apportionment
20 analyzed by hybrid environmental receptor model (HERM) showed that the ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary
21 formation source contributed higher to PM_{2.5} compared to other primary sources. Biomass burning was the dominant
22 primary source in three pilot cities. The contribution of coal combustion to PM_{2.5} is non-negligible in Xi'an and
23 Shijiazhuang but is no longer an important contributor in the capital city of Beijing due to the execution of a strict
24 coal-banning policy. The potential formation mechanisms of secondary aerosol in three cities were further explored
25 by establishing the correlations between the ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary formation source and aerosol
26 liquid water content (ALWC), and O_x (O₃ + NO₂), respectively. The results showed that photochemical oxidation and
27 aqueous-phase reaction were two important pathways of secondary aerosol formation. According to sources
28 variations, air pollution events that occurred in campaigns were classified into three types: biomass combustion
29 dominated, ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary formation source dominated, and a combination of primary and
30 secondary sources. Additionally, this study compared the changes in chemical composition and source contributions
31 of PM_{2.5} in past decades. The results suggested that the clean energy replacements for rural household should be

32 urgently encouraged to reduce the primary source emissions in northern China, and collaborative control on ozone
33 and particulate matter need to be continuously promoted to weaken the atmosphere oxidation capacity for the sake
34 of reducing secondary aerosol formation.

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}, aerodynamic diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$) is of large concern because of its adverse effects
37 on both natural environment (Kuniyal and Guleria, 2019; Kuo et al., 2013) and human health (Pöschl, 2005; Shen et
38 al., 2021; Zeng and He, 2019). With the soaring economic growth and urbanization in China, PM_{2.5} pollution has
39 been a most serious environmental issue in recent decades (Chan and Yao, 2008; He et al., 2002; Pui et al., 2014;
40 Zhang et al., 2013). The most impressive case is that an extremely severe haze pollution episode occurred in eastern
41 and central China in January 2013 with peak value of PM_{2.5} concentration over $500 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. This month had been
42 reported as the haziest month in the past 60 years in Beijing, China (Wang et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2014). Thereafter,
43 aiming to improve air quality, the China central government ~~implemented~~issued the Air Pollution Prevention and
44 Control Action Plan (APCAP) in September 2013 (http://www.gov.cn/zwggk/2013-09/12/content_2486773.htm, in
45 Chinese), and the Three-year Action Plan to Fight Air Pollution (TAPFAP) in June 2018
46 (http://www.gov.cn/zhengce/content/2018-07/03/content_5303158.htm, in Chinese). With the implementation of
47 strict pollution controls, air quality in northern China has improved significantly over the past decade (Wang et al.,
48 2020a, 2017; Li et al., 2020). Previous studies show that PM_{2.5} concentration decreased notably in past two decades,
49 and the composition of organic aerosol (OA), black carbon (BC) and sulfate (SO₄²⁻) decreased as well, while the
50 ammonium (NH₄⁺) slightly increased and nitrate (NO₃⁻) increased obviously. In ~~perspective terms~~of PM_{2.5} sources,
51 contribution of secondary source increased obviously while contribution of industrial emission and coal combustion
52 decreased due to elimination of industries and enterprises with high pollutant emissions, promotion of desulfurization
53 in industrial facilities, replacement of clean energy, and optimization of industrial and energy structures (Lu et al.,
54 2021; Ma et al., 2022; Tao et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019). However, there is still a significant gap between the PM_{2.5}
55 concentration in northern China and its latest recommendations on air quality guideline ($5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) by the World
56 Health Organization (<https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/345329/9789240034228-eng.pdf>, page 78). In
57 addition, severe PM_{2.5} pollutions still frequently occurred in northern China during wintertime (Guo et al., 2021; Li
58 et al., 2017a, 2021b). To figure out the causes behind the pollutions and further improve ~~furtherly~~ air quality in
59 northern China, it is essential to use online high-time-resolution source apportionment technology to understand the
60 chemical composition and source contribution of PM_{2.5} in those pollution events.

61 Recently, more research on measurements of PM_{2.5} and its source apportionments were conducted using online high-
62 time-resolution technologies (Li et al., 2017c; Wang et al., 2021a; Elser et al., 2015). Compared to traditional offline
63 filter-based approach, online methods characterize the short-time variation of PM_{2.5}. It allows for distinguishing the
64 rapid changes and evolutions of chemical components, and is particularly profitable to gain knowledge on the
65 formations of heavy air pollution or episode events (Liu et al., 2016; Ouyang et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2016; Elser
66 et al., 2015). For instance, Lv et al. (2021) employed a Positive matrix factorization (PMF) model with high-time-
67 resolution online PM_{2.5} data to accurately quantify and distinguish the source distributions in Beijing during two haze
68 episodes in January 2019. Liu et al. (2019) recognized the main drivers of haze event occurred in winter Beijing in
69 2016 according to high-time-resolution source apportionment of PM_{2.5} with multiple models. Furthermore, Wang et
70 al. (2021b) found that vehicle emission contributed most to PM_{2.5} during pollution episodes in downtown Lanzhou
71 based on high-resolution online data source apportionment. Currently, to fully understand and solve heavy pollution
72 events in winter that troubles local governments in northern cities of China (Wang et al., 2022b; Xu et al., 2022; Zhou
73 et al., 2022), more advanced online measurement, and source apportionment is a better choice (Tao et al., 2015). It
74 should be pointed out that previous researches were mainly focused on individual cities, and those results have some
75 limitations in guiding the improvement of air quality in the entire northern region of China. Therefore, it is necessary
76 to conduct comparative research among multiple cities.

77 Considering the differences in geographical location, population, economy, industrial/energy structure, air quality,
78 and depth of air pollution control measures among different cities, three cities in northern China including Beijing,
79 Shijiazhuang and Xi'an were chosen as pilot research subjects. The cities of Beijing and Shijiazhuang are located ~~to~~
80 in the North China Plain, which is one of the most polluted regions in China (Chan and Yao, 2008). Beijing is the
81 capital of China and its air quality has significantly improved under the implementation of the strictest clean air
82 policy since 2013 (Li et al., 2021a; Pang et al., 2021; Vu et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). However, the city was still
83 plagued by pollution events in wintertime (Wang et al., 2020b; Yang et al., 2022c; Zhou et al., 2022). Shijiazhuang
84 was recognized as one of the most serious air pollution cities worldwide (Liu et al., 2018b; Huang et al., 2019). Its
85 air quality had also improved under the implementation of the Clean Air Plan, whereas its annual PM_{2.5} concentration
86 was still unable to meet the China's National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS-II) of 35 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ until 2021
87 (Fig. S1). Xi'an is located ~~to~~in the Fenwei Plain, which is a region that suffered from heavy pollution and was
88 designated as a key region for TAPFAP in 2018 (Cao and Cui, 2021). Compared with Beijing and Shijiazhuang, high-
89 intensity air pollution controls in Xi'an started late due to a lack of financial support. And the annual PM_{2.5}

90 concentration in Xi'an could not meet the NAAQS-II until 2021 as well (Fig. S1). Meanwhile, it is still unclear ~~to~~
91 about the actual causes of the pollution, either topography, meteorological conditions, or local emissions (Chen et al.,
92 2021; Tian et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2015, 2022b). In this study, we conducted intensive real-time observation of
93 PM_{2.5} chemical components in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing during wintertime. The objectives are 1) to determine
94 the characteristics of PM_{2.5} and its chemical components in the three typical northern China cities during wintertime;
95 2) to quantify the source contribution and explore the potential formation mechanism of secondary aerosols; 3) to
96 explore the unique causes of heavy pollution events in different cities; and 4) to provide suggestions on establishment
97 of efficient policies for air quality continuous improvement. This study provides scientific guidance for developing
98 policy on air quality improvement for northern China cities.

99 **2. Methods**

100 **2.1 Sampling sites and periods**

101 In this study, intensive online measurements of PM_{2.5} were conducted at three pilot cities of Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and
102 Beijing during wintertime (Fig. 1). The sampling sites in Xi'an and Beijing are located at two Chinese Academy of
103 Sciences (CAS) stations. The one in Xi'an is the Guanzhong Plain Ecological Environment Change and
104 Comprehensive Treatment National Observation and Research Station, Institute of Earth Environment (IEE)
105 (34.24°N, 108.87°E), and another one in Beijing is Tower Branch of the Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP)
106 (39.98°N, 116.39°E). Both two sites are surrounded by commercial and residential buildings without intense
107 industrial emissions nearby. Previous studies indicated that these two sites were influenced by biomass and coal
108 burning for heating and cooking during wintertime as well as usual local traffic emissions (Tian et al., 2021; Xu et
109 al., 2021). The sampling site in Shijiazhuang is situated in the courtyard of Hebei Sailhero Environmental Protection
110 High-tech Co., Ltd. (38.04°N, 114.65°E), which is surrounded by pharmaceutical and machine-building industries
111 and close to the streets. The intensive campaigns were continuously conducted for ~1 month in each city (i.e., 12
112 December 12th 2020 to January 7th 2021 in Xi'an, December 20th 2021 to January 24th 2022 in Shijiazhuang, and
113 January 17th 2021 to February 20th 2021 in Beijing).

114 **2.2 Online measurements of PM_{2.5} chemical components**

115 **2.2.1 Organic aerosol and inorganic ions**

116 Concentrations of OA, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, ammonium (NH₄⁺), and chloride (Cl⁻) in PM_{2.5} at a 15-minute time resolution

117 were monitored by a quadrupole aerosol chemical speciation monitor (Q-ACSM, Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica,
118 Massachusetts, USA) equipped with a PM_{2.5} lens. The detailed operational principles and calibration method of the
119 Q-ACSM are described elsewhere (Ng et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2017). First, the sampled ambient air stream passed
120 through a PM₁₀ impactor inlet and a Nafion[®] dryer (MD-700-24F-3; Perma Pure, Inc., Lakewood, NJ, USA) with a
121 flowrate of 5 L min⁻¹ before entering the Q-ACSM chamber. Then, the pre-treatment particles passed through a 100
122 μm critical orifice at 0.1 L min⁻¹ and were focused into a narrow beam by an aerodynamic intermediate pressure lens.
123 The focused particle beam was flash vaporized by a capture vaporizer (CV) at ~600 °C. The vaporized compounds
124 were then ionized by an electron impactor (EI) ionization source at 70 eV and subsequently analyzed by the
125 quadrupole mass spectrometer.

126 Based on calibration system consists of an atomizer (Model 9302, TSI Inc., Shoreview, MN, USA), a differential
127 mobility analyzer (DMA, TSI model 3080, TSI Inc.), and a condensation particle counter (CPC, TSI model 3772,
128 TSI Inc.), ammonium nitrate (NH₄NO₃) and ammonium sulfate ((NH₄)₂SO₄) aerosol were used for calibration. The
129 raw data of Q-ACSM were analyzed by the ACSM local tool (V1.5.3.5, Aerodyne Research Inc., Billerica,
130 Massachusetts, USA) compiled with Igor Pro 6.37 (Wavemetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA). The response factors
131 (RFs) for NO₃⁻ in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing were set as 2.03×10⁻¹¹, and 5.9×10⁻¹¹, 2.20×10⁻¹¹, respectively,
132 and the relative ionization efficiencies (RIEs) for NH₄⁺ and SO₄²⁻ were set as 8.06 and 0.83 in Xi'an, 5.82 and 0.30
133 in Shijiazhuang, 6.31 and 0.38 in Beijing, respectively. Other RIEs for NO₃⁻, OA, and Cl⁻ were set as default values
134 of 1.4, 1.1, and 1.3, respectively (Ng et al., 2011). In addition, the collection efficiency (CE) value of Q-ACSM
135 equipped with a PM_{2.5} lens was recommended as 1 based on laboratory simulation experiments by Xu et al. (2017).
136 Finally, the chemical components monitored by Q-ACSM was corrected by the results of offline filter sampling
137 experiments during the same periods (Fig. S2).

138 **2.2.2 Black carbon**

139 BC concentration in PM_{2.5} was obtained by an Aethalometer (Model AE33, Magee Scientific Inc., Berkeley, CA,
140 USA) with a 1-minute time resolution. The AE33 monitors the light attenuation of seven wavelengths (λ = 370, 470,
141 525, 590, 660, 880, and 940 nm), and the light attenuation at λ = 880 nm was used to calculate BC concentration
142 (Wang et al., 2019; Drinovec et al., 2015). Briefly, the ambient air was first sampled on a filter tape inside the
143 instrument through a PM_{2.5} cyclone (SCC-1.829, BGI Inc., USA) at a flowrate of 5 L min⁻¹. The entering particles
144 were divided into two sample spots on the filter through two channels with different follows. Then the light

145 attenuation transmitted through two parallel spots was detected. For quality accuracies of monitoring, the sampled
146 particles were desiccated with a Nafion[®] dryer (MD-700-24F-3; Perma Pure, Inc., Lakewood, NJ, USA) before
147 entering the AE33. Furthermore, a real-time loading effect compensation algorithm based on two spots measurement
148 was used to eliminate the nonlinear loading effects of the Aethalometer. A detailed description of the Model AE33
149 principle can be found in Drinovec et al. (2015).

150 **2.2.3 Elements**

151 Twenty-four elements, including Si, K, Ca, V, Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni, Cu, Zn, Ga, As, Se, Ag, Cd, Sn, Ba, Au, Hg, Th,
152 Pb, and Pd in PM_{2.5}, were analyzed by a Xact625 Ambient Metals Monitor (Cooper Environmental Services, Tigard,
153 Oregon, USA) with a 1-hour time resolution. Si, K, Ca, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Ba, and Pb were selected for
154 further analysis in Xi'an and Beijing, while other elements were excluded due to most of their concentration below
155 the method detection limit. In Shijiazhuang, S, Cl, and Ti were analyzed by replacement of Ga, Ag and Au,
156 respectively. Finally, Si, K, Ca, Ti, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Ba, and Pb were selected for further analysis. The
157 description and detection principles of Xact625 were introduced by Furger et al. (2020) and Rai et al. (2020). In brief,
158 the ambient air stream was firstly sampled on a Teflon filter tape inside the instrument through a PM_{2.5} cyclone inlet
159 at a constant flow rate of 16.7 L min⁻¹, and then the sample was automatically analyzed by nondestructive energy-
160 dispersive X-ray fluorescence (XRF) to determine the mass of the species. For quality control and assurance, the
161 Xact625 performed automatic internal quality control by testing the Pd rod every hour to ensure the stability of the
162 instrument. Energy calibration was performed daily from 00:00 to 00:15 and a range calibration from 00:15 to 00:30
163 local standard time (LST) to monitor any possible shift and instability of the XRF (Liu et al., 2019). During our
164 sampling periods, the concentration of Pd varies within 3 standard deviations (Fig. S3), illustrating the reliable and
165 stable performance of the Xact625.

166 **2.2.4 Complementary data**

167 Online hourly concentrations of PM_{2.5} and gas pollutants (i.e., NO_x, NO₂, CO, SO₂, and O₃) were acquired from the
168 National Air Quality Monitoring Station (<https://air.cnemc.cn:18007/>). Meteorological parameters, including wind
169 speed (WS), wind direction (WD), relative humidity (RH), and temperature (T) were obtained from National
170 Meteorological Station (<http://data.cma.cn/>). The detailed information for complementary data was listed in Table S1.

171 **2.3 Data analysis**

172 2.3.1 PM_{2.5} mass reconstruction

173 Chemical closure was utilized to assess whether chemical compositions can be representative of PM_{2.5}. The sum of
174 OA, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, Cl⁻, BC, mineral dust (MD), and trace elements (TE) was considered as the reconstructed
175 PM_{2.5}, where MD and TE were calculated as follows (Chow et al., 2015).

$$176 [\text{MD}] = 2.20 \times [\text{Al}] + 2.49 \times [\text{Si}] + 1.63 \times [\text{Ca}] + 2.42 \times [\text{Fe}] + 1.94 \times [\text{Ti}] \quad (1)$$

$$177 [\text{TE}] = [\text{K}] + [\text{Cr}] + [\text{Mn}] + [\text{Ni}] + [\text{Cu}] + [\text{Zn}] + [\text{As}] + [\text{Se}] + [\text{Ba}] + [\text{Pb}] \quad (2)$$

178 where [] represents the chemical species concentration; [Al] and [Ti] were calculated by the concentration of Ca
179 ([Al] = 4.3 × [Ca] and [Ti] = 0.25 × [Ca]) (Wei et al., 1991). Good correlations between online and reconstructed PM_{2.5}
180 mass (slope = 0.87–1.10, R² = 0.82–0.93) in three pilot cities (Fig. S4) indicated that our measurements could detect
181 major components of PM_{2.5}. The PM_{2.5} concentration used in the following discussion referred to the reconstructed
182 PM_{2.5} concentration.

183 2.3.2 Hybrid environment receptor model

184 Source apportionment of PM_{2.5} was analyzed with a bilinear model named the hybrid environment receptor model
185 (HERM). HERM is developed by the IEECAS and the University of Nevada, Las Vegas (Chen and Cao, 2018). Like
186 other receptor models, the speciation of pollutants at a receptor site can be separated into emission sources and the
187 chemical compositions of the sources. To solve the mass balance of PM_{2.5}, the bilinear HERM in matrix notation is
188 defined as follows

$$189 C_{mn} = \sum_{i=1}^I F_{mi} G_{in} + Q_{mn} \quad (3)$$

190 where C_{mn} is the measured concentration of chemical species m during time n ; F_{mi} is the source profile, that is the
191 fractional quantity of species m in source i emission; G_{in} represents the contribution of source i during time n ; and
192 Q_{mn} is the model residual for species m concentration measured during time n . Based on an iterative conjugate
193 gradient algorithm, the HERM solves G_{in} and unknown F_{mi} by minimizing the Q_{mn} , which is defined as follows.

$$194 Q_{mn} = \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(C_{mn} - \sum_{i=1}^I F_{mi} G_{in})^2}{\sigma_{C_{mn}}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^I (\sigma_{F_{mi}}^2 G_{in}^2 + \delta_{mi} \sigma_{C_{mn}}^2)} \quad (4)$$

195 where M , N , and I are the number of samples, chemical species, and sources, respectively; $\sigma_{F_{mi}}$ represents the error
196 in the variability in the constrained factor profile. δ_{mi} was set to 0 or 1 depending on whether the i^{th} factor profile
197 is constrained or unconstrained, respectively.

198 The HERM input data included the concentration and uncertainty data of chemical species. 19 chemical species in

199 Xi'an and Shijiazhuang and 20 chemical species in Beijing were selected for source apportionment, respectively.
200 Details of selected chemical species and its uncertainty calculation was described in Text S1 in the Supplement. A
201 range from two to ten factors solutions was investigated by HERM with completely unconstrained factor profiles to
202 search for optimal solutions. The detailed diagnostics can be seen in Text S2 in the Supplement. A six-factor solution
203 for Xi'an and Shijiazhuang and an eight-factor solution for Beijing were found to be the optimal solution based on
204 multiple criteria including 1) variations in Q/Q_{exp} which can be used to choose the optimal number of resolved factors,
205 2) physical meaningfulness of distinct factor profiles and explained variation (EV) values of variables, 3) good
206 correlations between sources contribution and external and internal tracers, and 4) agreement between the measured
207 and modeled $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass. More detailed information on the final selected factor profiles and contributions is presented
208 in Sect. 3.2.

209 **2.3.3 Aerosol liquid water content**

210 Aerosol liquid water content (ALWC) was calculated by ISORROPIA-II thermodynamic equilibrium model
211 (<http://isorrophia.eas.gatech.edu/>) based on data of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ chemical species (including NO_3^- , SO_4^{2-} , NH_4^+ , and Cl^-) and
212 meteorological parameters including relative humidity (RH) and temperature (T), more model information can be
213 found in Fountoukis and Nenes (2007). It should be noted that the ISORROPIA-II model does not consider the
214 contribution of the organic, as inorganic aerosols are the most hygroscopic species and dominant contributor to
215 ALWC (Huang et al., 2020).

216 **3. Results and discussion**

217 **3.1 –Characteristics of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and its chemical components**

218 Figure 1 illustrates the mass composition of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in three pilot cities during the sampling periods, and their
219 concentrations levels are summarized in Table S4. The average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in Xi'an, Beijing, and
220 Shijiazhuang were $77 \pm 47 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $64 \pm 57 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $60 \pm 39 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, respectively. It is noted that the average $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
221 concentrations in Xi'an, Beijing, and Shijiazhuang did not meet the second level of the NAAQS, indicating that it is
222 necessary to establish more particular and efficient pollution reduction measures. As shown in Fig. 1, the chemical
223 compositions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were similar in Beijing and Shijiazhuang (Fig. 1b and c) which was mainly composed of OA
224 (26.9–34.2%), followed by NO_3^- (23.6–26.5%), SO_4^{2-} (11.8–15.0%), NH_4^+ (11.8–14.8%), MD (7.4–10.1%), BC (2.9–
225 6.5%), and Cl^- (1.1–4.8%). However, in Xi'an, MD contributed in comparison more to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ (17.3%), while SO_4^{2-}

226 had a smaller contribution (6.8%). This could be explained by more construction activities and MD transport from
227 the Loess Plateau to Xi'an (Long et al., 2016; Yan et al., 2015). Meanwhile, the lowest sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR)
228 was observed in Xi'an (0.18 ± 0.08 , see Table S5), indicating weak efficiency of the second generation of SO_4^{2-} . The
229 sum of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- and NH_4^+ accounted for 39.0–53.0% of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in three pilot cities, highlighting the importance of
230 the secondary inorganic components in northern China. In addition, the fractions of BC, Cl^- , and TE in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were
231 lower in Beijing than those in the other two cities, which can be explained by the stricter local control policies on
232 solid fuels combustion and tightening the industrial emission standards in and near the capital city of China (Li et al.,
233 2021a; Pang et al., 2021).

234 To ~~have a~~ better understanding of the impact of the chemical components, the mass fraction of each component was
235 plotted as a function of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass concentration (Fig. 2a–c). The two dominant components of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were OA
236 (25.7–38.0%) and MD (19.9–37.1%) while the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations were below $40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. The fraction of OA in
237 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was the highest in Shijiazhuang and Beijing, while MD contributed most to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ in Xi'an. This is potentially
238 related to more emissions and higher backgrounds of local dust. With ~~increasing~~ increases of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mass
239 concentration, the fractions of chemical components in Xi'an and Shijiazhuang changed notably. The fractions of OA
240 and NO_3^- increased the most and reached the peaks of 40.1% and 28.7%, respectively, when the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration
241 reached $\sim 196 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Xi'an. On the contrary, NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} were two dominant drivers of increasing $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
242 concentrations in Shijiazhuang, showing peak contributions of 32.5% and 18.7%, respectively, when the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
243 concentration was over $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Compared to Xi'an and Shijiazhuang, Beijing had relatively stable fractions of
244 each chemical component with increasing $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations. Particularly, the fractions of OA and NO_3^-
245 contributed dominantly with averages of $33.3 \pm 3.0\%$ and $25.3 \pm 2.5\%$, respectively, when the $\text{PM}_{2.5} > 40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

246 3.2 Source apportionment of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$

247 Six potential sources, including biomass burning, fugitive dust, industrial emission, coal combustion, vehicle
248 emission, and ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~ secondary formation source, were resolved by the HERM analysis. In
249 Beijing, ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~ secondary formation source was furtherly divided into secondary nitrate plus
250 OA and secondary sulfate plus OA. A special pollution source of firework was separated due to the Chinese Spring
251 Festival (from New Year's Eve to January 3rd in the lunar calendar). Figures S6–S8 present the sources profiles and
252 contributions in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing, respectively. Biomass burning features high Explained Variation
253 (EV) for the two tracers Cl^- (33–58%) and K (30–44%) in the three cities (Ni et al., 2017; Zhao et al., 2021). The

254 fugitive dust is characterized by high EV values for Si (60–90%) and Ca (34–54%), which are the dominant chemical
255 species in the fugitive dust profiles in northern China (Shen et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2006). The fractions of industrial
256 emission vary among the cities, showing high EV for Ni (55% and 87%) and Cr (25% and 70%) in Xi'an and
257 Shijiazhuang, and high EV for Cr (26%), Mn (40%), and Pb (27%) in Beijing. Ni is possibly emitted from the
258 semiconductor industry (Simka et al., 2005). Cr, Mn, and Pb could originate from the steel manufacturing and
259 incinerator fly ash (Duan and Tan, 2013; Ledoux et al., 2017). Coal combustion is characterized by high EV values
260 for As (38–75%), Se (40–50%), and Pb (31–57%). These elements are enriched in coals, which are reliable indicators
261 of coal combustion (Tian et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2012). The vehicle non-exhaust emissions could be identified by the
262 elements Ba, Cu, Ca, Fe, and Mn. Cu and Ba can be released from brake and tire wear of vehicles (Adachi and
263 Tainosho, 2004; Thorpe and Harrison, 2008). Moreover, Fe and Mn could be emitted from the combustion of
264 lubricating oil and fuel additives (Ålander et al., 2005; Lewis et al., 2003). Relatively high EV values for Ba (68%),
265 Cu (36%), and Ca (35%) are seen in Xi'an, significantly high EV values of Mn (68%), Fe (65%), Cu (53%), and Ba
266 (80%) are characterized in Shijiazhuang and relatively high EV values of Fe (34%) and Cu (39%) are featured in
267 Beijing, respectively. Moreover, moderate EV values for BC (18–27%) and OA (13–22%) are commonly regarded
268 as contributions of vehicles engine exhaust, while the temporal variations of VE are well correlated with gaseous
269 NO_x or NO₂ in three cities ($R^2 = 0.45\text{--}0.78$), which is the good tracer of traffic-related emissions (Huang et al., 2017;
270 Li et al., 2017b). The secondary sources resolved by HERM are different among the three cities. In Xi'an and
271 Shijiazhuang, ~~the source of secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~this factor are characterized by high EV values for SO₄²⁻
272 (62–75%), NO₃⁻ (55–53%), NH₄⁺ (60–56%) and a medium EV value for OA (23–29%), which showed good
273 correlations with SO₄²⁻ ($R^2 = 0.85\text{--}0.90$) and NO₃⁻ ($R^2 = 0.85\text{--}0.92$) (Dai et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2022). In addition,
274 The OA concentration in this factor was calculated by EV value of OA, which was close to the secondary OA (SOA)
275 concentration estimated by BC-trace method (see Text S3 and Table S6). This means that SOA was mixed in this
276 factor, therefore, this factor was identified as secondary formation source. In Beijing, two secondary sources were
277 resolved. The first one was characterized by high EV value for NO₃⁻(58%), NH₄⁺ (42%) and medium values for OA
278 (21%), another one was characterized by high EV value for SO₄²⁻(58%), and medium values for OA (16%), NH₄⁺
279 (30%). The OA concentration in those two factors was also comparable to that estimated by BC-trace method (see
280 Text S3). So, those two sources were identified as secondary nitrate plus OA and secondary sulfate plus OA~~the~~
281 ~~secondary sources of nitrate and sulfate show high EV values of 58% and 65%, respectively.~~ The combination of
282 secondary nitrate plus OA and secondary sulfate plus OA~~secondary nitrate and secondary sulfate~~ is equivalent to the
283 secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source~~ for next discussion. Additionally, the source of firework

284 emission is characterized by high EV values of Ba (83%), Cu (45%), and K (38%), which are recognized as common
285 indication in fireworks (Rai et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2014).

286 The modeled PM_{2.5} mass was well correlated with the reconstructed PM_{2.5} mass ($R^2 = 0.99$, slope = 0.90–1.01, Fig.
287 [S9S10](#)) in three pilot cities, indicating the established models are reasonable. As shown in Fig. 1d and e, the
288 contributions of primary sources (i.e., the sum of biomass burning, fugitive dust, industrial emission, coal combustion,
289 and vehicle emission) in PM_{2.5} were significantly higher than those of the ~~source of secondary nitrate plus~~
290 ~~sulfate~~[secondary formation source](#) in Xi'an and Shijiazhuang, indicating the PM_{2.5} in these two cities are mainly
291 influenced by the primary source emissions during wintertime. Particularly, biomass burning and coal combustion
292 were two dominant contributors to PM_{2.5} with contributions of 24.6% and 15.1%, respectively, in Xi'an; and 24.4%
293 and 16.0%, respectively, in Shijiazhuang. These suggest that controls of solid fuel combustion are critical to reducing
294 PM_{2.5} pollution in these cities. In contrast, the contribution of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~[secondary formation](#)
295 ~~source~~ to PM_{2.5} in Beijing was highly dominant (> 50%), potentially attributed to strict control of primary emissions
296 under the execution of a series of pollution control policies (Lv et al., 2016; Pang et al., 2021), and more regional
297 transportation of secondary pollutants (Liu et al., 2019; Wang and Zhao, 2018). Among the primary sources, the
298 contributions of biomass burning and vehicle emission were only 18.4% and 11.3%, respectively, further reflecting
299 the benefits of reductions of all primary emissions. Due to the Chinese Spring Festival, the contribution of firework
300 (7.9%) to PM_{2.5} ranked second in primary sources (Fig. [S10S11](#)). Which indicates more refined control schemes need
301 to be encouraged to deal with such special event in the future. It should be noted that contribution of fugitive dust
302 was all lower than fraction of mineral dust in the three pilot cities (Fig. 1). This is because fugitive dust defined here
303 mainly refers road and construction dust emission. While mineral dust represents material assumed oxides of mineral
304 elements such as Al, Si, Ca, Ti and Fe (Chow et al., 2015). These mineral elements in PM_{2.5} comes from more
305 emission sectors including industry, crust, and transportation, construction, combustion (Liu et al., 2018a; Lu et al.,
306 2014; Pant and Harrison, 2013; Shen et al., 2016).

307 Figures 2d–f shows variations of source contribution with increases in PM_{2.5} mass concentrations in three pilot cities.
308 The most two dominant sources were ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~[secondary formation source](#) (32.1%) and fugitive
309 dust (31.4%) in Xi'an, coal combustion (24.9%) and vehicle emission (21.3%) in Shijiazhuang, and ~~secondary nitrate~~
310 ~~plus sulfate~~[secondary formation source](#) (24.3%) and fugitive dust (23.8%) in Beijing, when the PM_{2.5} mass
311 concentration <40 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. In Xi'an, when the PM_{2.5} mass concentrations exceeded 180 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, the contribution of

312 biomass burning raised mostly and reached the peak of 38.4%, demonstrating that biomass burning plays an important
313 role in worsening of air quality in Xi'an. On the contrary, the contributions of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary
314 formation source increased mostly in comparison to other sources in Shijiazhuang and Beijing, indicating the PM_{2.5}
315 pollution was mainly dominated by the secondary aerosol formations during the wintertime. And the peak
316 contributions of secondary nitrate and sulfate were 66.5% and 74.7% while the PM_{2.5} mass concentration increased
317 to 113 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 223 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Shijiazhuang and Beijing, respectively.

318 3.3 Formation of secondary aerosols

319 Using the high-time-resolution data, we further explored the possible formation mechanisms of ~~secondary nitrate~~
320 ~~plus sulfates~~secondary formation source. The concentration of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary formation
321 source is standardized by dividing background corrected CO (ΔCO) to ~~weaken~~ impact of planetary boundary layer
322 height (PBLH) (DeCarlo et al., 2010). In this study, ΔCO is defined as the 1.25th percentile of CO concentration
323 during the campaign, which are 0.17, 0.15, and 0.16 ppm in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing, respectively. O_x (NO_2
324 + O_3) is an indicator of the photochemical oxidation degree (Wood et al., 2010). The function between ~~secondary~~
325 ~~nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary formation source/ ΔCO ratio and O_x during the daytime (i.e., 08:00–17:00 LST) (Fig.
326 ~~S11~~S12) was plotted to explain the effect of photochemical oxidations in three pilot cities. As shown in Fig. 3, good
327 linear correlations of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary formation source/ ΔCO and O_x ($R^2 = 0.83\text{--}0.99$) suggest
328 that photochemical oxidations play an important role in the formation of secondary aerosol during the daytime.
329 Compared to the low-level O_x , formation of secondary aerosol significantly enhanced at high-level O_x (>50 ppb) in
330 Xi'an and Beijing, characterized by larger slopes of 17.2 and 38.9, respectively (Fig. 3a and c). Furthermore, the
331 highest atmospheric oxidation capacity was found in Beijing, inferring by the highest fraction of O_3 to O_x . This is
332 consistent with the highest contribution of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary formation source to PM_{2.5} in
333 Beijing during the daytime (Fig. ~~S12a~~S13a–c).

334 The aqueous-phase reaction is another important pathway for secondary aerosol formation in the atmosphere (Wang
335 et al., 2018; Xue et al., 2014). ALWC is considered an indicator of an aqueous-phase reaction (Ervens et al., 2011).
336 ~~Considering that the aqueous-phase reaction occurs both during the daytime and nighttime characterized by good~~
337 ~~correlations between secondary formation source/ ΔCO and ALWC ($R^2 = 0.81\text{--}0.98$, Fig. S14).~~ The correlations of
338 ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfates~~secondary formation source/ ΔCO ratio and ALWC during ~~nighttime all sampling~~
339 ~~periods (18:00–07:00 the next day LST, Fig. S11)~~ were ~~re~~-established in three pilot cities to assess the implications

340 of aqueous-phase chemistry for secondary aerosol production. As shown in Fig. 4, The secondary formation
341 source nitrate plus sulfate/ΔCO showed a significant linear correlation to ALWC ($R^2 = 0.8192-0.9599$) when RH <
342 80% (Fig. 4), indicating an obvious effect of aqueous-phase reaction on the secondary aerosol formation during the
343 nighttime sampling periods. However, when RH >80%, the secondary formation source nitrate plus sulfate/ΔCO
344 showed no notable increase with ALWC in Shijiazhuang (Fig. 4b), whereas a tiny increase with ALWC in Beijing
345 (Fig. 4c). The higher ALWC at RH > 80% probably inhibits secondary aerosol formation due to the decrease in
346 aerosol acidity (Huang et al., 2019; Meng et al., 2014). Khan et al. (2008) found that NO₃ radicals can rapidly generate
347 from the reaction between NO₂ and O₃ with unsaturated organic species during nighttime. The value of O₃×NO₂ can
348 thus represent its production reaction rate or be used as a proxy for the NO₃ radical. The highest NO₃ radical
349 production rate was found in Beijing, followed by Xi'an and Shijiazhuang, when RH<80%. This could be used to
350 explain the highest contribution of secondary formation source nitrate plus sulfate to PM_{2.5} in Beijing during the
351 daytime and nighttime (Fig. S123d-f). Moreover, the results showed that both photochemical oxidation and aqueous-
352 phase reaction play more important roles in Beijing, where the primary sources have been better controlled. This
353 reflects that pollution control policies need to be focused on the suppression of secondary formations.

354 3.4 Elaborations of different episode cases

355 During the sampling periods, the concentration of PM_{2.5} and its chemical components simply accumulated within a
356 short period in a few cases (Fig. S13a-S15a-c). We define such a rapid rise in PM_{2.5} mass concentration as a pollution
357 episode. As shown in Table 1, meteorological conditions, the concentration levels of gaseous pollutants, chemical
358 compositions, and source contributions of PM_{2.5} during pollution episodes in three pilot cities are summarized. The
359 episodes were accompanied by low wind speed (< 2 m s⁻¹), leading to weak dispersions of the fresh emissions and
360 accumulated pollutants (Chen et al., 2020b). OA and NO₃⁻ were The the two dominant chemical components in PM_{2.5}
361 during all pollution episode cases were OA and NO₃⁻; with fractions of 26–40% and 23–32%, respectively. Their high
362 abundances could be explained by the significant reduction of SO₂ emissions by because of the prohibiting of burning
363 bulk coals and executing the “Coal-to-Natural Gas” policy in recent years (Meng et al., 2022). In this study, eight
364 pollution episodes (donated as EP1-EP8) were classified into three types: The first type was dominated by biomass
365 burning (30–40%) (EP1, EP4, and EP8). The second type was dominated by secondary nitrate plus sulfate secondary
366 formation source (61–70%) (EP5, EP6, and EP7). The two remaining pollution episodes were mutually contributed
367 by both primary and secondary sources (EP2 and EP3), in which secondary nitrate plus sulfate secondary formation
368 source (34–39%) and biomass burning (23–24%) were the two dominant contributors to PM_{2.5}.

369 To ~~profoundly understand~~gain insights into the ~~progress~~process of pollution episodes, three typical pollution events
370 were chosen for detailed discussion (i.e., EP2 in Xi'an, EP4 in Shijiazhuang, and EP7 in Beijing) based on the validity
371 and integrity of the data and the representativeness of the selected pollution events. The two-stage evolution was
372 distinguished for EP4 as an example of the first type of episode (Fig. S16). ~~For the first type of episode represented~~
373 ~~by EP4 (Fig. S14), a two-stages evolution was distinguished.~~ At Stage 1, the PM_{2.5} mass concentrations rapidly
374 increased from 7 to 82 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ under stable weather conditions inferring by low wind speed ($1.8\pm 0.8\text{ m s}^{-1}$, Fig.
375 ~~S14b~~S16b), in which the concentrations (fractions) of biomass burning increased from 0.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (7%) to 36.7 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
376 (55%) due to heating ~~demand~~activities during nighttime. Meanwhile, the chemical composition was relatively
377 stable and dominated by OA ($31\pm 5\%$) and NO_3^- ($21\pm 5\%$). At Stage 2, the PM_{2.5} mass concentration continuously
378 increased to 105 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in a few hours along with the most notable abundance of the source of ~~secondary nitrate plus~~
379 ~~sulfate~~secondary formation source, which concentration (contribution) rapidly increased from 2.3 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (4%) to
380 54.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (52%) (Fig. ~~S14g~~S16g and h). This is due to the aqueous-phase reactions effect inferring by the rapid
381 increase in ALWC (from 16 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 78 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, Fig. ~~S14e~~S16c) and RH (from 51% to 79%, Fig. ~~S14a~~S16a).

382 In contrast, a three-stages evolution was discriminated for the second type of episode, using EP7 as an example (Fig.
383 ~~S15~~S17). At Stage 1, the PM_{2.5} concentration gradually increased from 11 to 30 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, as well as NO_2 (from 15 to
384 59 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, Fig. ~~S15d~~S17d) due to the boosts of the predominant contributions of vehicle emission and biomass
385 burning (Fig. ~~S15g~~S17g and h). In the meantime, the contribution of coal combustion also slowly increased along
386 with SO_2 (Fig. ~~S15d~~S17d and h). At Stage 2, under the lowest average wind speed in the study period ($0.7\pm 0.4\text{ m s}^{-1}$, Fig. ~~S15b~~S17b),
387 the PM_{2.5} mass concentrations moderately increased from 30 to 91 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ with relatively stable
388 chemical composition and source contribution (Fig. ~~S15f~~S17f and h). Compared to Stage 1, the fractions of NO_3^-
389 increased mostly from $9\pm 3\%$ to $23\pm 3\%$, this is probably influenced by photochemical oxidations inferring by relative
390 high O_x and NO_2 concentration (Fig. ~~S15e~~S17c and d). At Stage 3, the PM_{2.5} mass concentration rapidly rose to 142
391 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and then remained stable. Furthermore, the ~~In which~~ greatest increase of sources ~~the~~ concentrations
392 ~~(fractions~~contribution) ~~of~~ was ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source increased mostly from 18.9
393 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (48%) to 120.6 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (80%). This might be due to the occurrence of an aqueous-phase reaction, which was
394 indicated by the elevation of RH and ALWC (Fig. ~~S15a~~S17a and c).

395 Figure S16 illustrates the third type of episode using EP2 as an example, while in which a four-stages evolution was
396 resolved. At Stage 1, the PM_{2.5} mass concentration ($14\pm 3\text{ }\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) was relatively low and dominated by the

397 contributions of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source ($43\pm 17\%$) and fugitive dust ($24\pm 8\%$), as
398 well as MD ($28\pm 7\%$) and OA ($26\pm 7\%$). At Stage 2, the $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations promptly increased from 21 to 82
399 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with the two dominant chemical components of OA ($21.7 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and NO_3^- ($17.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The $PM_{2.5}$ increases
400 can be also ~~contributed attributed~~ to the raise of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source ($25.3 \mu\text{g}$
401 m^{-3}) and biomass burning ($14.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). The enhancement of secondary aerosol was probably generated through the
402 aqueous-phase reaction evidenced by the increase of ALWC and NO_2 (Fig. ~~S16e~~S18c and d). At Stage 3, $PM_{2.5}$ mass
403 continuously increased to $139 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ with a dominant increase of primary sources emission including biomass
404 burning ($29.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), vehicle emission ($21.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) and coal combustion ($16.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) along with the increases of
405 SO_2 and NO_2 as well (Fig. ~~S16~~S18d). The three primary sources contributed $>60\%$ of the total resolved sources.
406 Meanwhile, the ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source also increased slowly through aqueous-
407 phase reaction inferring by increase of ALWC (Fig. ~~S16e~~S18c). At the final Stage 4, the $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration
408 maintained relatively stable with an average of $142\pm 11 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, dominated by ~~sources of secondary nitrate plus~~
409 ~~sulfate~~secondary formation source ($34\pm 6\%$) and biomass burning ($28\pm 6\%$); and chemical components of OA ($36\pm 4\%$)
410 and NO_3^- ($25\pm 1\%$).

411 In summary, the pollution events occurred in Xi'an was mainly derived by stronger emissions of primary sources
412 under adverse meteorological conditions, even though the aqueous-phase reaction also contribute to secondary
413 aerosol formation. In contrast, pollution events occurred in Shijiazhuang and Beijing were mainly influenced by
414 formation of secondary aerosols through both of aqueous-phase reaction and photochemical oxidation. What's more,
415 ~~in which~~ aqueous-phase reaction plays a more important role than photochemical oxidation. Hence, to further
416 improve the air quality in the north of China, primary source emissions should be prioritized for control in the
417 northwest region, with a focus on biomass burning and coal combustion. In the North China Plain, the priority should
418 be given to reducing emissions of the precursors from secondary sources, with a focus on NO_x and volatile organic
419 compounds (VOCs).

420 3.5 Policy implications

421 In past decades, the air quality in China improved notably under the implementation of air pollution control policies
422 including APCAP and TAPFAP. The $PM_{2.5}$ mass in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang and Beijing were the lowest during campaigns
423 compared with those in last decades (Table ~~S6~~S7). The variations of the chemical composition and the source
424 contribution of $PM_{2.5}$ in the three pilot cities are displayed in Fig. 5. As shown, the dominant chemical components

425 of PM_{2.5} changed from OA and SO₄²⁻, to OA and NO₃⁻ (Fig. 5a–c). This could be attributed to the reduction in coal
426 consumption due to clean energy replacement and the increase of vehicle ownership, ~~which~~ ~~This~~ ~~lead~~ a decrease of
427 the SO₂ and an increase of NO₂ (Wang et al., 2013). Since the atmospheric oxidation reaction (i.e., aqueous-phase
428 reaction and photochemical oxidation) of the precursors (i.e., NO₂, VOCs) is the primary source for the OA and NO₃⁻
429 in the atmosphere (Feng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2022; Tao et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2022b; Ziemann and Atkinson,
430 2012), and it is impossible to avoid, thus, the precursors of OA and NO₃⁻ should be reduced from the combustion and
431 transportation sectors (Fermo et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2021c; Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, the
432 fraction of NH₄⁺ in PM_{2.5} increased with an alarming rate. This is coincidentally in a similar trend of NH₃. Studies
433 have reported that controls of NH₄⁺ is more effective than that of NO_x in the reduction of PM_{2.5} mass concentrations
434 (Gu et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2022). Therefore, collaborative control measures for the emissions of precursors
435 including NO_x, VOCs, and NH₃ are necessary.

436 As shown Table ~~S7~~–~~S8~~ and Fig. 5d–f, coal combustion decreased remarkably due to the coal-related policies
437 implementation including the strength of emissions standards for coal-fired power plants, the change of energy
438 sources from coal to natural gas in some industrials, and the coal burning was forbidden in the main urban areas
439 (Shen, 2016; Yang and Teng, 2018). The similar trend was also founded in the results of PM_{2.5} source apportionment
440 in Beijing released by Beijing Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau (Fig. S19). Meanwhile, the
441 contribution of industrial emission and vehicle emission decreased slightly because of the improvement of industrial
442 emission standards (He et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020a) and the traffic-related policy implementation such as the
443 strength of vehicle emission standards, improvement of fuel quality, and elimination of high-emission-vehicles. This
444 resulted in the reduction of the precursor gases and PM_{2.5} from vehicles (Feng et al., 2021; Fontaras et al., 2012; Jin
445 et al., 2012). However, the emission of biomass burning did not show a significant reduction in recent years, and its
446 contribution increased from 9% in 2014 to 25% in 2020 (Xi'an), from 3% in 2015 to 24% in 2022 (Shijiazhuang),
447 and from 6% in 2013 to 18% in 2021 (Beijing) (Fig. 5d–f). This is likely because biomass burning is an open source,
448 which makes it more difficult to control compare with other primary sources. Biomass used for residential heating in
449 rural areas is still frequently occurred (Ren, 2021; Tian et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022a; Zhang et al., 2017). Hence,
450 the clean energy revolution should be promoted urgently especially in the entire regions in northwest China. Moreover,
451 the contributions of secondary formation sources increased, it is potentially explained by the high reduction rate of
452 primary emissions and the improvement of atmospheric oxidation capacity (Chen et al., 2020a; Feng et al., 2020).
453 Therefore, more control measures should focus on weakening the ~~atmosphere~~atmospheric oxidation capacity, such

454 as reduction of O₃ formation, to reduce the formation of secondary pollutants which are now identified as the most
455 critical drivers of pollution. Considering those factors, it is also important to promote the mitigation of *both* PM_{2.5}
456 and O₃.

457 **4. Conclusion**

458 The intensive real-time measurement campaigns about PM_{2.5} chemical components were conducted in Xi'an,
459 Shijiazhuang, and Beijing during the wintertime respectively. Chemical compositions of PM_{2.5} in the three cities were
460 all dominated by OA (26.9–34.2%) and NO₃⁻ (23.6–26.5%). Six sources of PM_{2.5} in Xi'an and Shijiazhuang were
461 resolved by HERM and their contributions were similar, with a descending order of ~~secondary nitrate plus~~
462 ~~sulfate~~secondary formation source (32.2–37.6%), biomass burning (24.4–24.6 %), coal combustion (15.1–16.0%),
463 vehicle emission (12.2–12.5 %), industrial emission (5.5–7.7%) and fugitive dust (4.4–7.8%). However, the
464 secondary nitrate (29.0%) and the secondary sulfate (23.0%) were separately resolved and relatively more important
465 in Beijing. In addition, the contribution of firework (7.9%) to PM_{2.5} was found during the Chinese Spring Festival.

466 The possible formation mechanism of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source in three pilot cities
467 was explored. The results showed that secondary aerosols were generated by both photochemical oxidation and
468 aqueous-phase reaction. Meanwhile, the formation rate of secondary aerosols in Beijing was higher than that in Xi'an
469 and Shijiazhuang. Furthermore, the eight pollution episodes within the sampling periods were categorized three types
470 and characterized respectively. The dominant chemical compositions of PM_{2.5} were OA (26–40%) and NO₃⁻ (23–
471 32%) during all pollution episodes. Furthermore, ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source and
472 biomass burning were two major drivers of the pollution.

473 The dominant chemical components of PM_{2.5} in pilot cities have changed from OA and SO₄²⁻ to OA and NO₃⁻ under
474 the implementation of a clean air plan in past decades. This indicates that reduction of precursors including NO₂ and
475 VOCs should be a key task in the future. In addition, the contribution of biomass burning increased, especially in
476 Xi'an. This indicates that clean energy for heating activities in rural areas in northwest China is still insufficient.
477 Furthermore, to weaken the ~~atmosphere~~atmospheric oxidation capacity for reducing the contribution of ~~secondary~~
478 ~~nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source, it is necessary to promote the collaborative control on ozone and
479 particulate matter.

480 *Data availability.* Data used to support the findings in this study are archived at the Institute of Earth Environment,

481 Chinese Academy of Sciences, and are publicly available at <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.73367448106655>.

482 *Competing interest.* The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

483 *Author contributions.* QW, YH, JC designed the campaigns. WR and YZ conducted the field measurements. YZ, JT,
484 HL, LQ and TC performed data analysis and interpretation. MM, KRD, JGS and ASHP were involved supervision
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870 **Table 1.** Meteorological conditions, gas pollutants, chemical composition, and source contribution of PM_{2.5} during
 871 pollution episodes in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing

Parameters	Xi'an		Shijiazhuang			Beijing		
	EP1	EP2	EP3	EP4	EP5	EP6	EP7	EP8
T (°C)	4.9 ± 2.6	1.5 ± 3.5	0.4 ± 3.4	-0.2 ± 3.3	-2.7 ± 3.3	0.3 ± 3.2	-1.6 ± 3.3	5.1 ± 3.6
RH (%)	52 ± 10	45 ± 10	61 ± 15	40 ± 13	75 ± 11	57 ± 19	45 ± 24	36 ± 10
WS (m s ⁻¹)	0.5 ± 0.2	0.7 ± 0.3	1.4 ± 0.6	1.9 ± 0.8	1.4 ± 0.7	1.0 ± 0.6	1.1 ± 0.6	1.0 ± 0.6
Dominant WD ^a	WSW, WNW	WSW	NNW	NNW	NNW	NNE	NNW, NNE	NNE, ENE
CO (mg m ⁻³)	1.39 ± 0.40	1.15 ± 0.56	1.47 ± 0.62	0.60 ± 0.30	0.43 ± 0.33	1.04 ± 0.56	0.81 ± 0.32	1.00 ± 0.55
SO ₂ (µg m ⁻³)	15 ± 3	15 ± 5	9 ± 4	8 ± 4	3 ± 1	6 ± 5	4 ± 3	6 ± 4
NO ₂ (µg m ⁻³)	74 ± 22	63 ± 32	63 ± 14	47 ± 21	27 ± 11	54 ± 22	46 ± 17	42 ± 21
O _x (ppm)	47 ± 8	42 ± 10	36 ± 7	32 ± 6	27 ± 3	36 ± 6	33 ± 4	43 ± 9
ALWC (µg m ⁻³)	15 ± 11	8 ± 8	42 ± 37	12 ± 11	59 ± 448	28 ± 47	23 ± 8	11 ± 13
Dominant	OA (38%)	OA (34%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (27%)	OA (30%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (32%)	OA (32%)	OA (32%)	OA (40%)
Chemical composition	NO ₃ ⁻ (24%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (24%)	OA (26%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (23%)	OA (26%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (26%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (26%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (23%)
Dominant source contribution ^b	BB (30%)	SF (34%)	SF (39%)	BB (40%)	SF (70%)	SF (62%)	SF (61%)	BB (38%)
	SF (25%)	BB (24%)	BB (23%)	CC (16%)	BB (16%)	BB (13%)	BB (14%)	SF (27%)
	CC (17%)	VE (16%)	CC (16%)	VE (16%)				VE (15%)

872 ^a WSW : west-southwest; WNW : west-northwest; NNW : north-northwest; NNE : north-northeast; ENE : East-northeast

873 ^b BB: biomass burning; ~~SNp~~ SSF: secondary nitrate plus sulfates secondary formation source; CC: coal combustion; VE:
 874 vehicle emission

875

876 **Figure captions:**

877 **Figure 1.** Chemical composition and source apportionment results of PM_{2.5} in three pilot cities of northern China
878 during the sampling period.

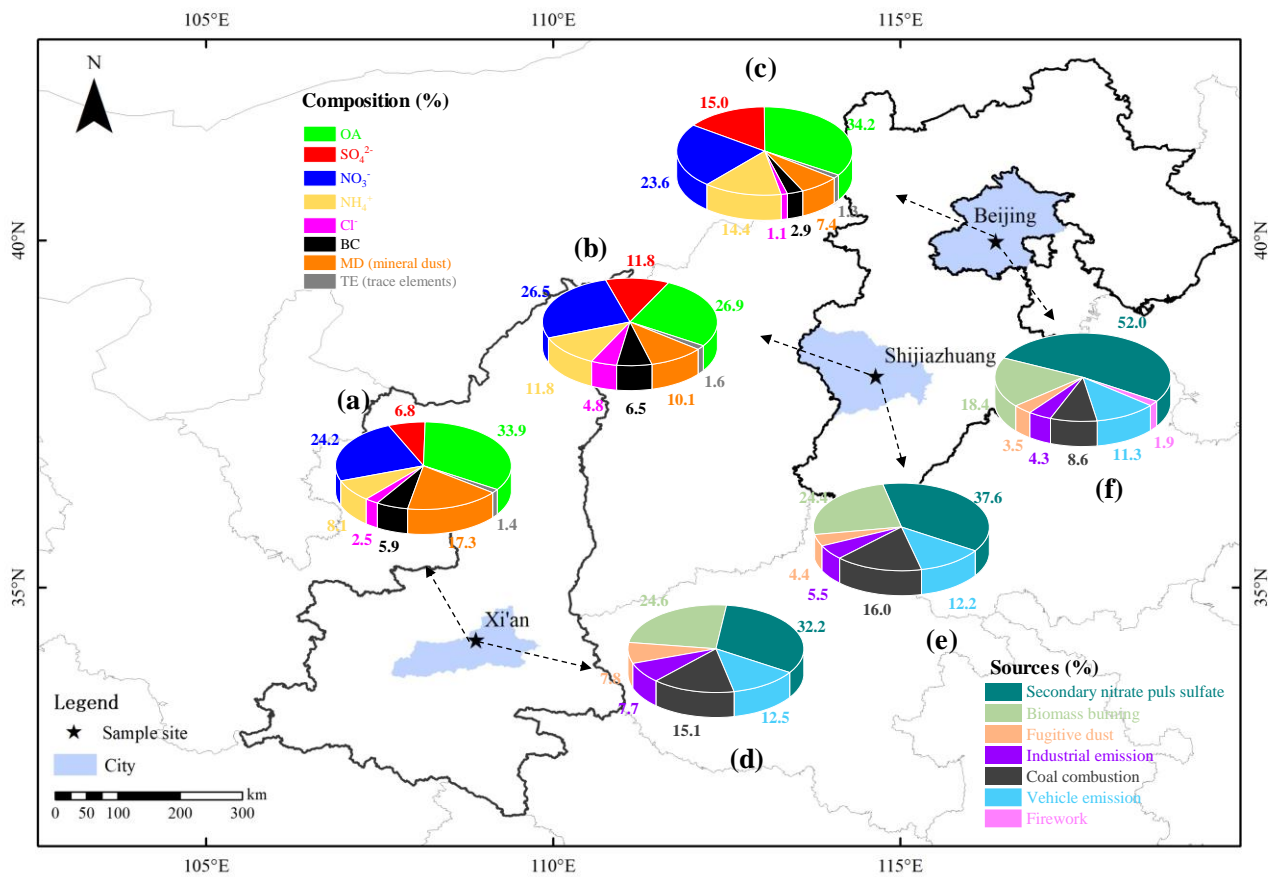
879 **Figure 2.** Mass fractions of chemical components (a-c) and sources contribution (d-f) with reconstructed PM_{2.5}
880 concentration in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing.

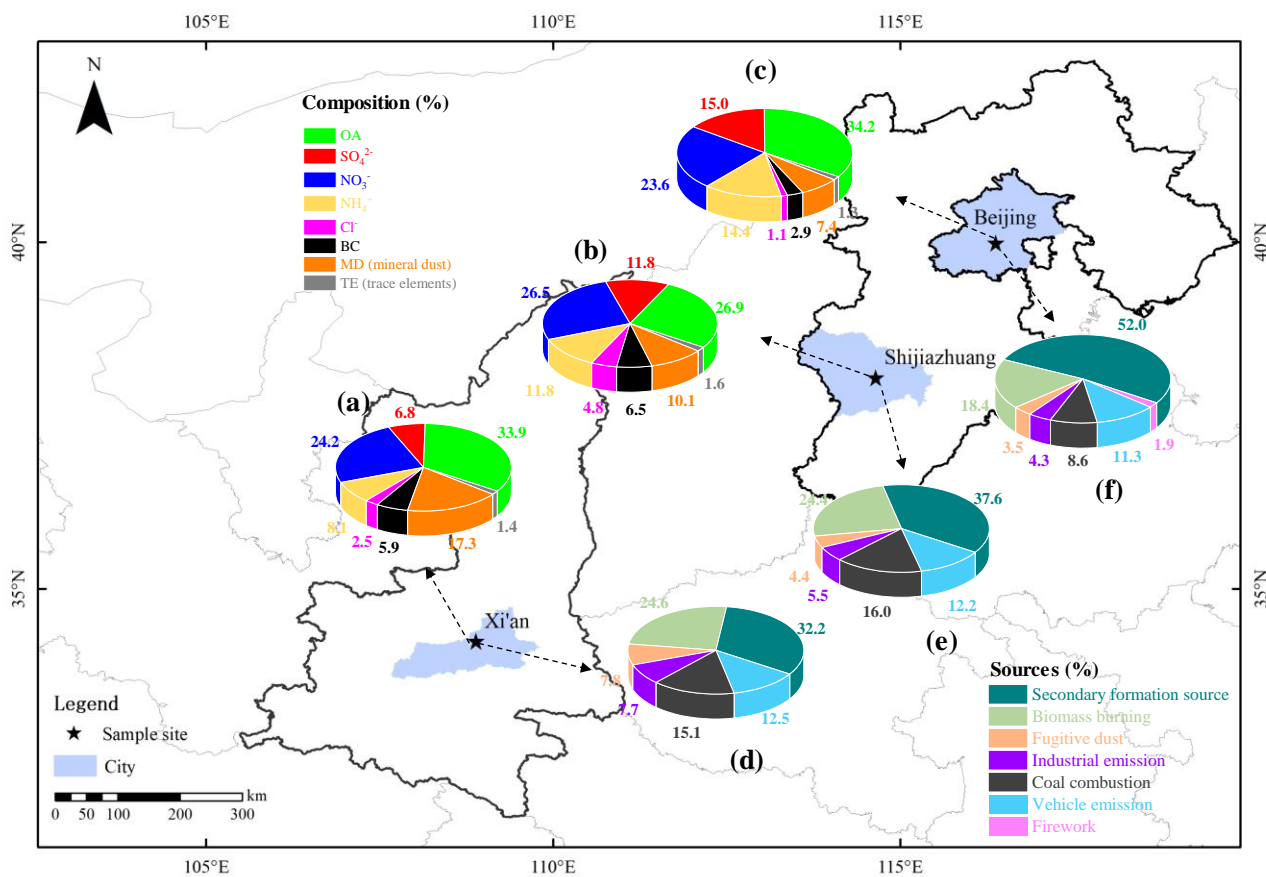
881 **Figure 3.** Correlations of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source/ΔCO and O_x mixing ratio in (a)
882 Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing. Each point and its error bar represent the mean and standard deviation in
883 each bin (ΔO_x = 5 ppb).

884 **Figure 4.** Correlation of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source/ΔCO and ALWC during ~~winter~~
885 sampling periods in (a) Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing, respectively. The points and error bar represent the
886 mean values and standard deviation values of ~~secondary nitrate plus sulfate~~secondary formation source/ΔCO and
887 ALWC_{O*} in each bin. In Xi'an, each bin is 5 μg m⁻³ (ΔALWC = 5 μg m⁻³). In Shijiazhuang, each bin is 5 μg m⁻³
888 (ΔALWC = 5 μg m⁻³) when ALWC ranged from 0 to 75 μg m⁻³, but 25 μg m⁻³ (ΔALWC = 25 μg m⁻³) for ALWC
889 ranged from 75 to 200 μg m⁻³ due to limitations in data. In Beijing, each bin is 5 μg m⁻³ (ΔALWC = 5 μg m⁻³) when
890 ALWC ranged from 0 to 50 μg m⁻³, but 100 μg m⁻³ (ΔALWC = 100 μg m⁻³) for ALWC ranged from 50 to 900 μg m⁻³
891 ³ due to limitations in data.

892 **Figure 5.** Summary of PM_{2.5} and its composition (a, b, c) and source contribution (d, e, f) in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang,
893 and Beijing in winter in past decades. Where * represents the result of this study. The data and references used for
894 this figure are listed in Table S5 and S7.

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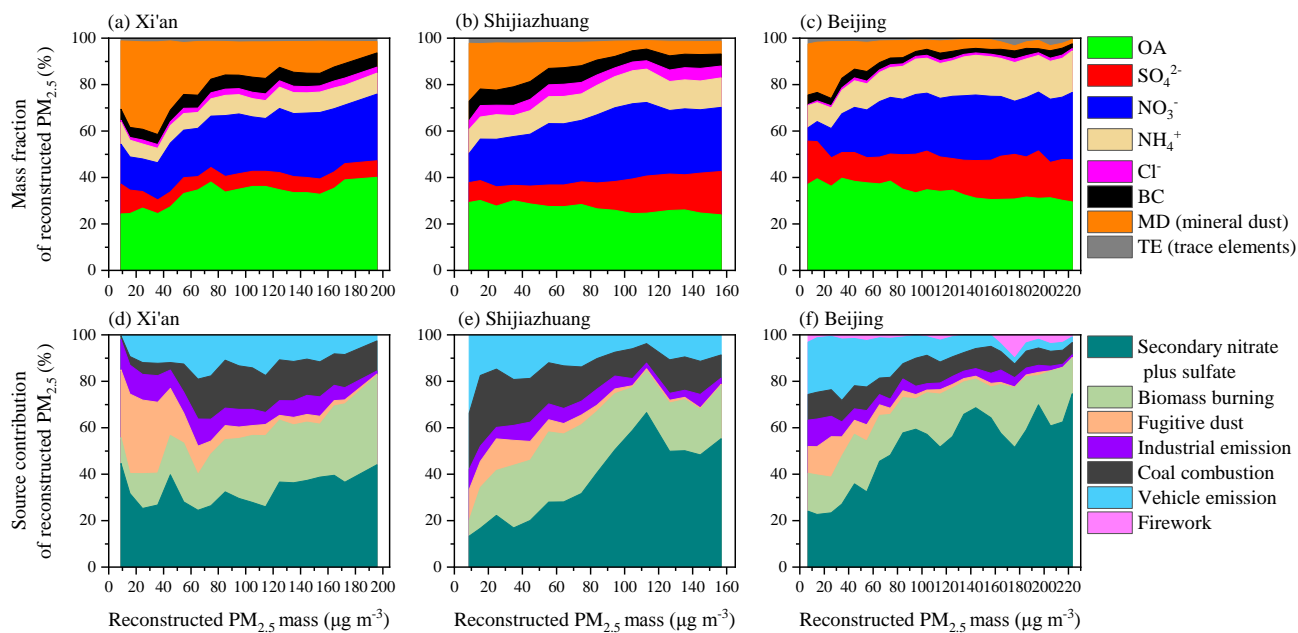




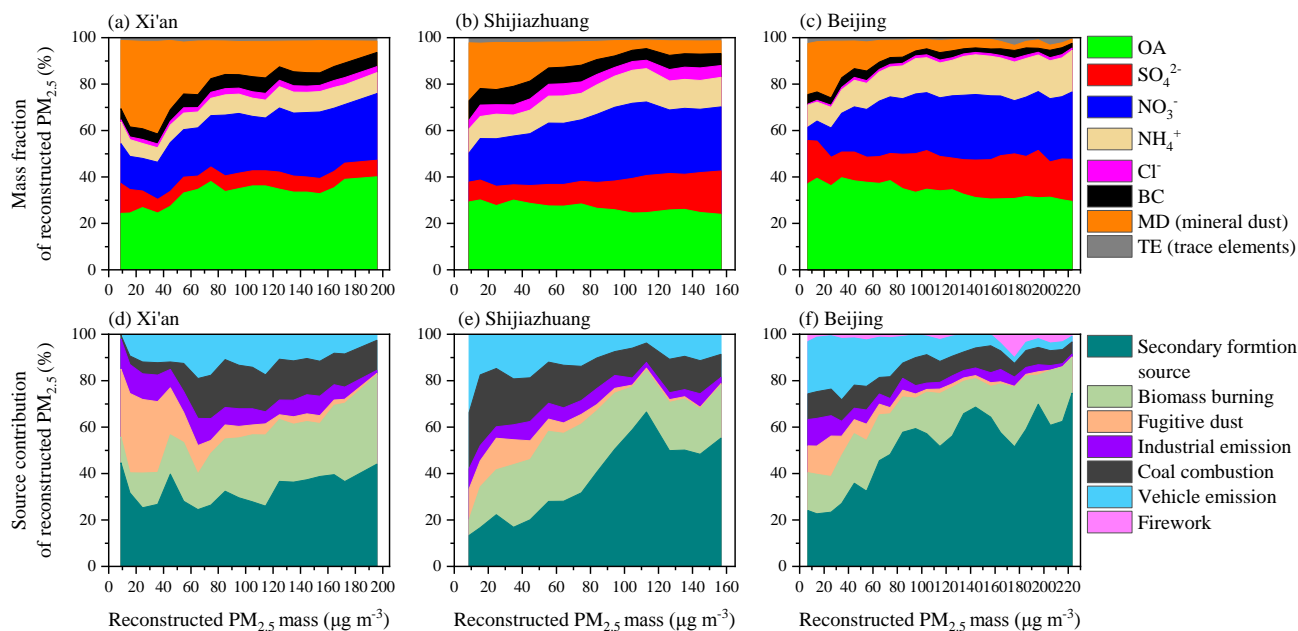
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898 **Figure 1.** Chemical composition and source apportionment results of PM_{2.5} in three pilot cities of northern China
 899 during the sampling period.

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903 **Figure 2.** Mass fractions of chemical components (a-c) and sources contribution (d-f) with reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$
 904 concentration in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing.

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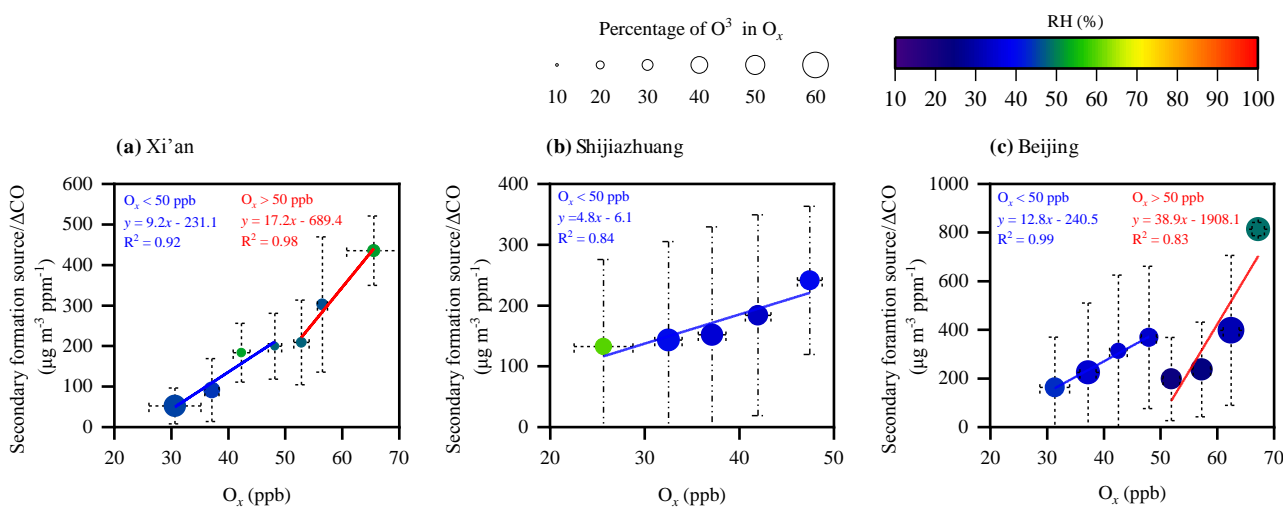
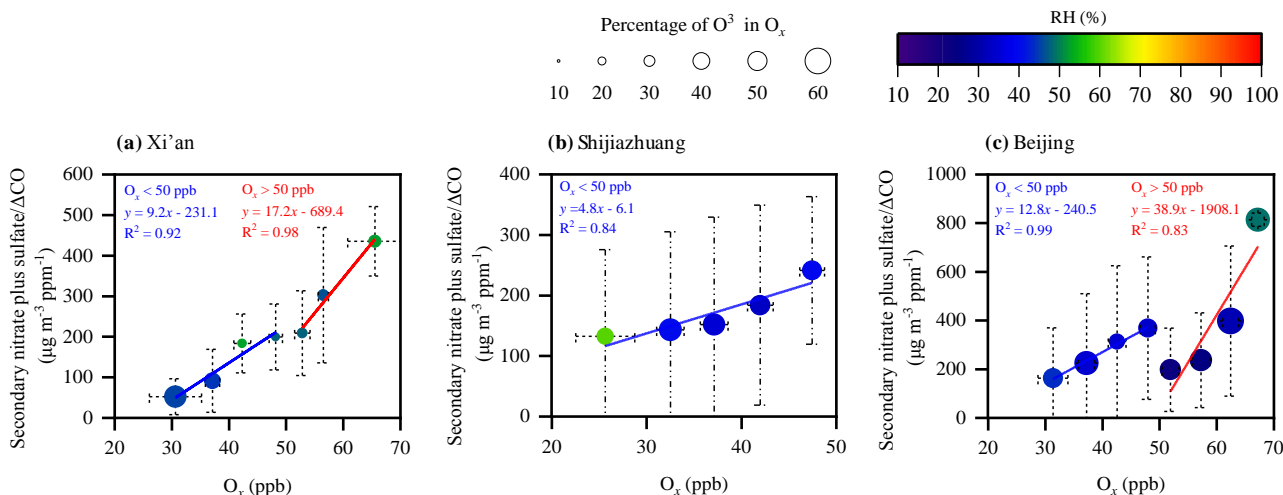
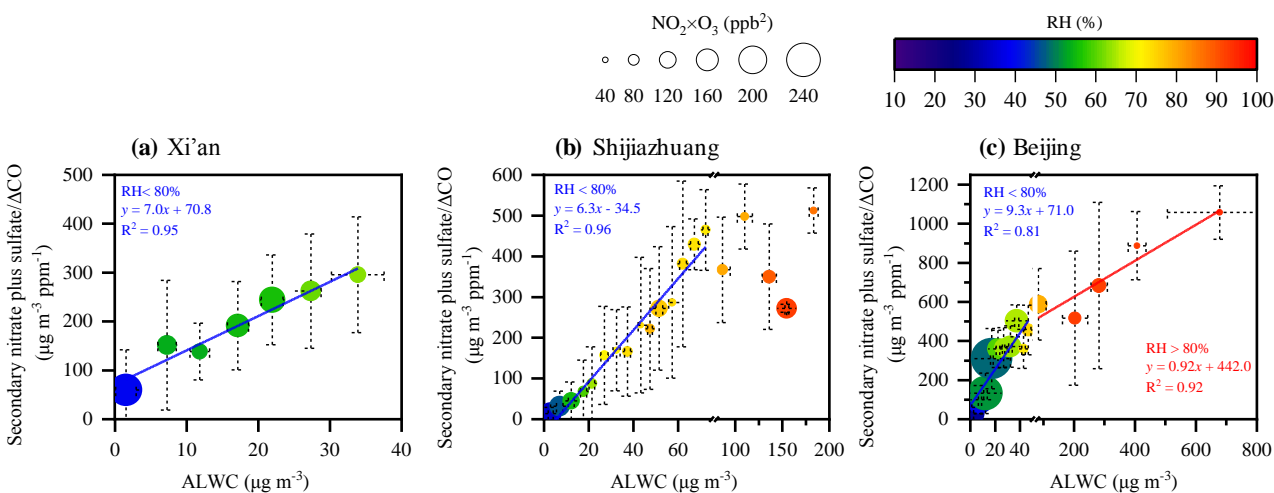
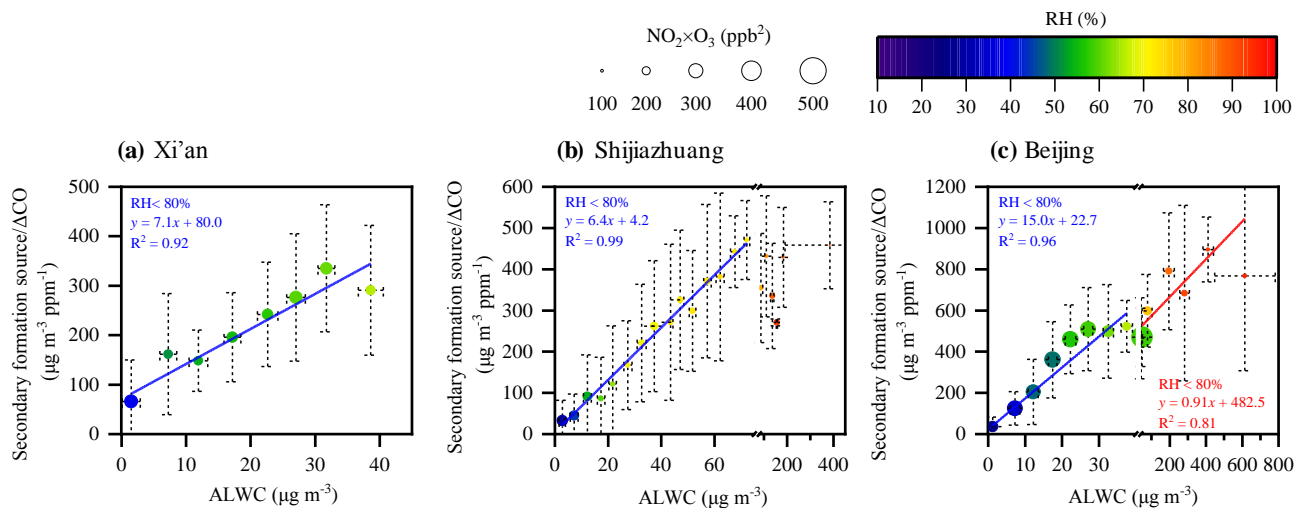


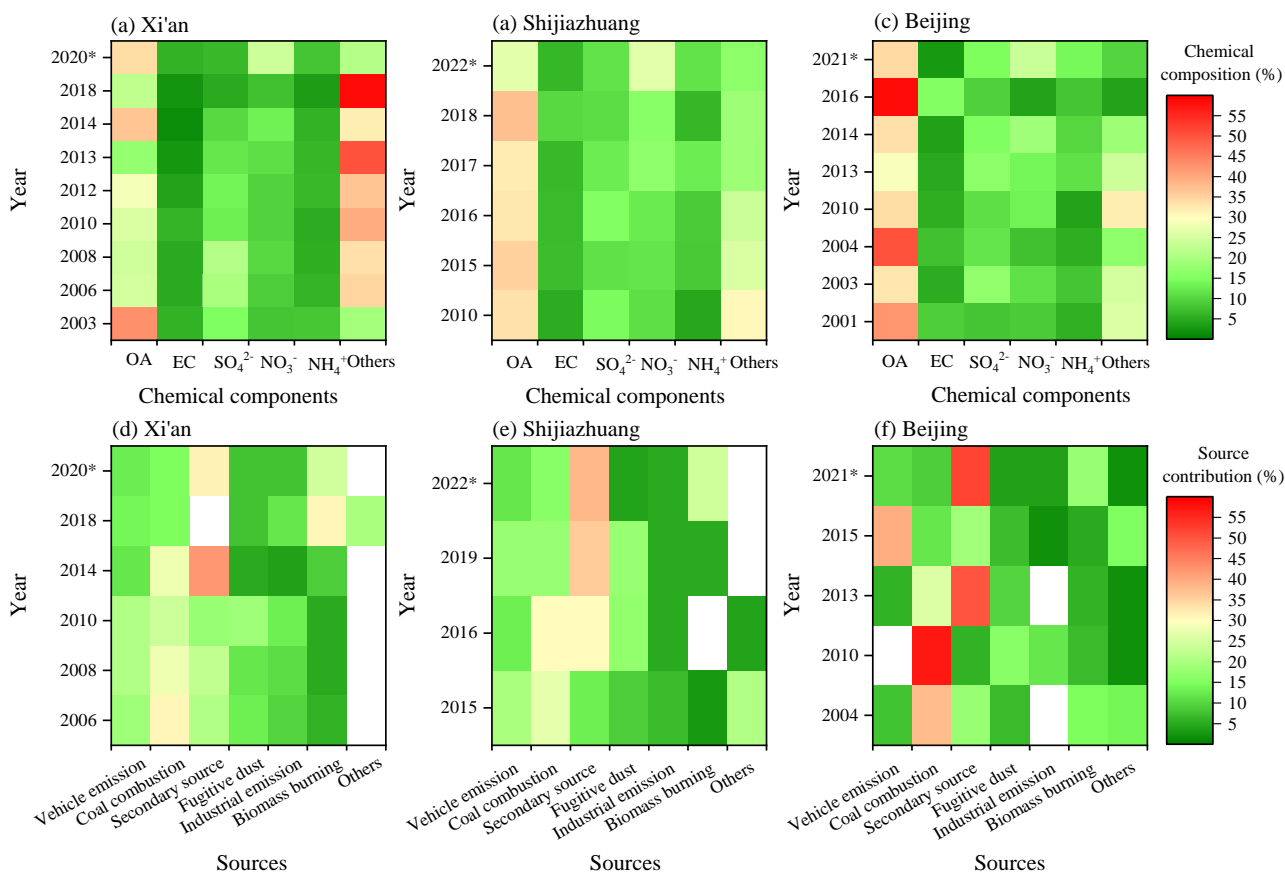
Figure 3. Correlations of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source/ΔCO and O_x mixing ratio in (a) Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing. Each point and its error bar represent the mean and standard deviation in each bin (ΔO_x = 5 ppb).



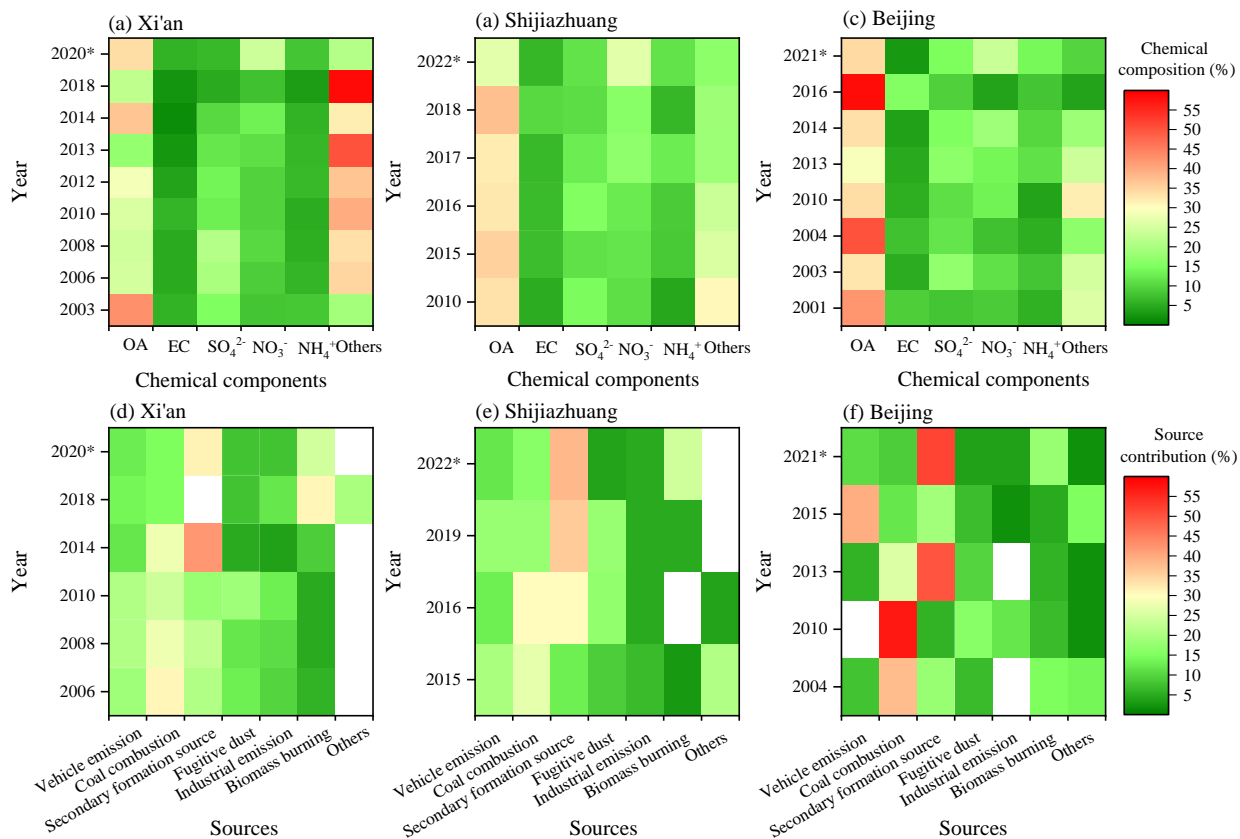


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914 **Figure 4.** Correlation of secondary nitrate plus sulfate secondary formation source/ΔCO and ALWC during winter
 915 sampling periods in (a) Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing, respectively. The points and error bar represent the
 916 mean values and standard deviation values of secondary nitrate plus sulfate secondary formation source/ΔCO and
 917 ALWC in each bin. In Xi'an, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). In Shijiazhuang, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
 918 ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when ALWC ranged from 0 to $75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC
 919 ranged from 75 to $200 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to limitations in data. In Beijing, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)
 920 ALWC ranged from 0 to $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 50 to $900 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
 921 3 due to limitations in data.



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924 **Figure 5.** Summary of PM_{2.5} and its composition (a, b, c) and source contribution (d, e, f) in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang,
 925 and Beijing in winter in past decades. Where * represents the result of this study, and the empty white area means no
 926 data. The data and references used for this figure are listed in Table [S6-S7](#) and [S7-S8](#).

927

1 ***Supplement of***

2 **High-time-resolution chemical composition and source apportionment of PM_{2.5} in northern Chinese cities:**
3 **implications for policy**

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5 Ran^{1,2}, Yele Sun⁶, Huikun Liu^{1,2,4}, Renjian Zhang⁶, Yunfei Wu⁶, Tianqu Cui⁵, Kaspar Rudolf Daellenbach⁵, Jay Gates
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16 **Text S1. Selction of inputted HERM chemical species and its uncertainty calculation**

17 Considering the validity and credibility of monitoring data, chemical species including OA, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺,
18 Cl⁻, and BC were all selected to input HERM model for three pilot cities. For inorganic elements, Si, K, Ca, Cr, Mn,
19 Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Ba, and Pb in Xi'an and Beijing, and Si, K, Ca, Ti, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Ba, and
20 Pb in Shijiazhuang were selected for source apportionment, respectively.

21 The uncertainty data of chemical species inputting HERM was calculated according to the recommendation in
22 the PMF5.0 user guideline. If the measured chemical species concentration is greater than the minimum detection
23 limit (MDL) provided, the uncertainty (Unc) calculation is based following equation:

$$24 \text{Unc}_i = \sqrt{(C_i \times E_i)^2 + (0.5 \times \text{MDL}_i)^2} \quad (1)$$

25 where C_i represents measured concertation for species i , E_i represents error fraction of species i . For online
26 measured data, the error fraction was recommended to use 10% (Rai et al., 2020). If the measured concentration is
27 less than or equal to the MDL provided, the Unc is calculated as the following equation:

$$28 \text{Unc} = \frac{5}{6} \times \text{MDL} \quad (2)$$

29

30 **Text S2 Diagnostics of HERM solutions**

31 In this study, factors numbering from two to ten were selected and run in the HERM software. Each factor
32 solution was run thirty times with completely unconstrained profiles to explore the possible sources. The optimal
33 factor number solution was determined by examining the ratio of Q and expected Q (Q_{exp}). The Q_{exp} in HERM was
34 equal to (samples × species – factors × (samples + species) + the number of constrained source profiles). As shown
35 in Fig. S5, the value of Q/Q_{exp} decreased with the increase of the factor number, which suggests increasing the factor
36 number could lead to a better explanation of the variance by HERM. However, the utility of increasing factors
37 declined with the number of factors. Too many factors could cause splitting profiles, although the Q/Q_{exp} may be
38 desirable (Liu et al., 2021; Salameh et al., 2018, 2016). Thus, the drops of Q/Q_{exp} ($\Delta Q/Q_{\text{exp}}$) were subsequently
39 evaluated to choose the optimal solution factor number. As shown in Table S2, when the number of factors increases
40 to more than six in Xi'an, the value of $\Delta Q/Q_{\text{exp}}$ shows a relatively stable change trend. A six-factor solution is
41 preferable because $\Delta Q/Q_{\text{exp}}$ between the five-solution and six-solution is smaller than that between the six-solution
42 and seven-solution (Liu et al., 2021). In addition, secondary nitrate plus sulfate formation source and biomass burning
43 were mixed when the factor number was five, and vehicle emission was split into two profiles when the factor number

44 was seven (Table S3). Therefore, the six-factor solution was determined as the optimal HERM solution for Xi'an.
45 Similar criterias were used for Shijiazhuang and Beijing, six-factor and eight-factor solutions were determined as
46 optimal HERM solutions, respectively.

47

48 **Text S3 Estimation of secondary organic aerosol (SOA).**

49 Due to lack of critical tracers of SOA, the sources of SOA cannot be individually resolved by receptor model.
50 In this study, the secondary sources were mainly characterized by high EV values for inorganic
51 aerosols such as SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , NH_4^+ , but the medium EV values for OA (16~29%) were also presented on
52 secondary sources in three pilot cities. This means that the SOA maybe mixed in with the factors of secondary
53 sources. To verify this, the SOA concentrations we estimated by using a BC-tracer method (Wang et al., 2019)
54 and then compared the results with those based on source apportionment. The SOA calculation by BC-tracer
55 method was calculated as follow:

$$56 \quad [\text{SOA}]_{\text{BC-tracer}} = [\text{OA}] - (\text{OA}/\text{BC})_{\text{pri}} \times [\text{BC}] \quad (\text{S-1})$$

57 where [] means mass concentration, $(\text{OA}/\text{BC})_{\text{pri}}$ is the ratio of [OA] to [BC] in primary emission. The
58 $(\text{OA}/\text{BC})_{\text{pri}}$ ratios vary among sources, therefore, a minimum R squared (MRS) method was used to derive
59 appropriate $(\text{OA}/\text{BC})_{\text{pri}}$ values for three pilot cities. In previous studies (Srivastava et al., 2018; Wang et al.,
60 2019), MRS method has been used to calculated the concertation of secondary organic carbon and brown carbon.
61 More detailed information on the method and a validation of this approach can be found in Wang et al. (2019).

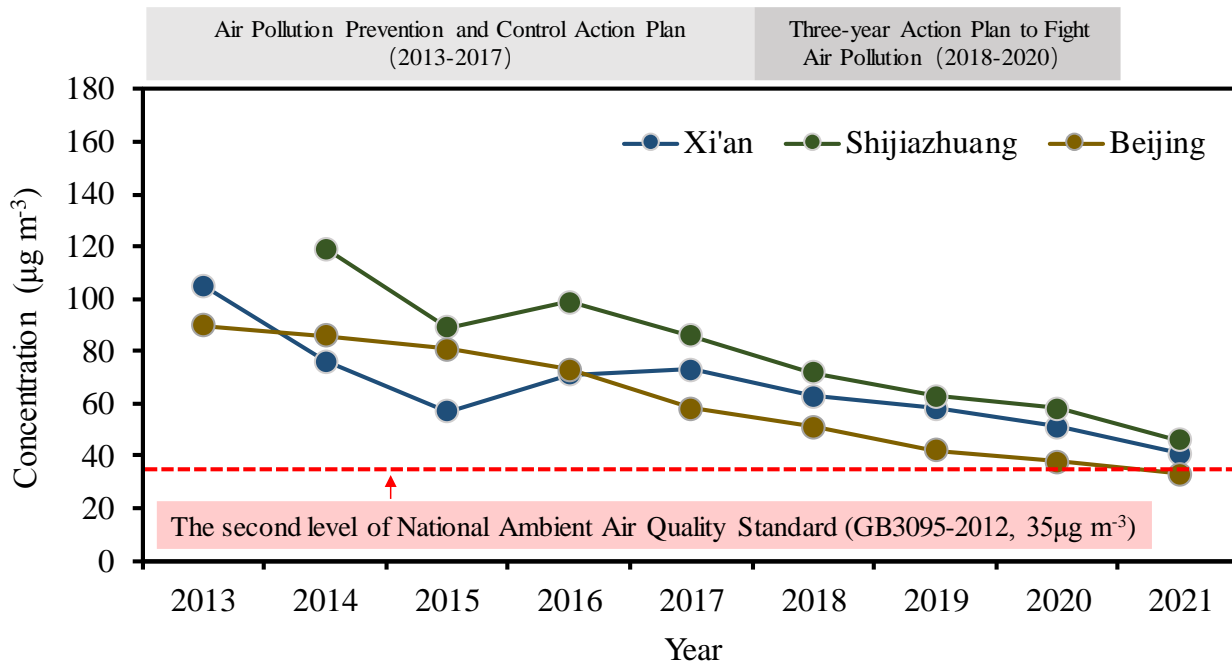
62 In addition, according to results of receptor model, SOA concentration can also be estimated as follow
63 based on EV values of OA from secondary source factors.

$$64 \quad [\text{SOA}]_{\text{source apportionment}} = [\text{OA}] \times \text{EV}_{\text{OA}} \quad (\text{S-2})$$

65 where EV_{OA} represents the EV values of OA in secondary sources factors resolved by HERM model.

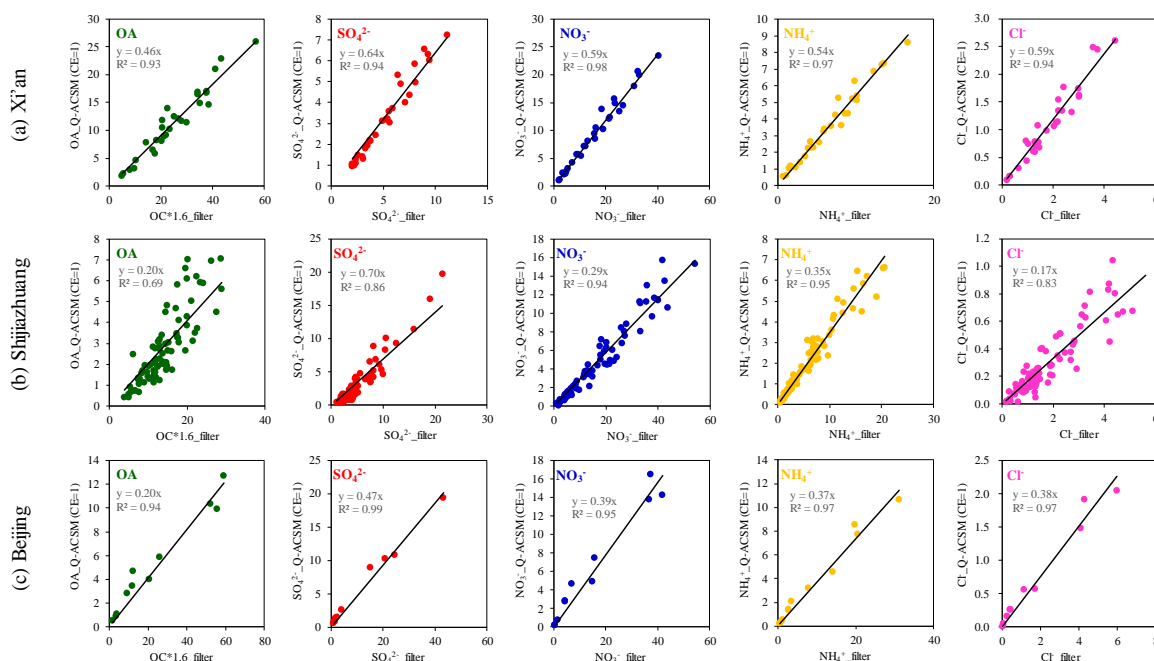
66 As shown in Fig. S9, the $(\text{OA}/\text{BC})_{\text{pri}}$ ratios were determined as 4.73 for Xi'an, 3.12 for Shijiazhuang and
67 7.6 for Beijing, respectively. Furthermore, the concentrations of SOA from three pilot cities were shown in
68 Table R1 based two different methods. As we can see, the SOA concentrations estimated by EV values of OA
69 are close to that by BC-tracer method for three pilot cities. This indicated SOA was mixed in secondary sources
70 factors.

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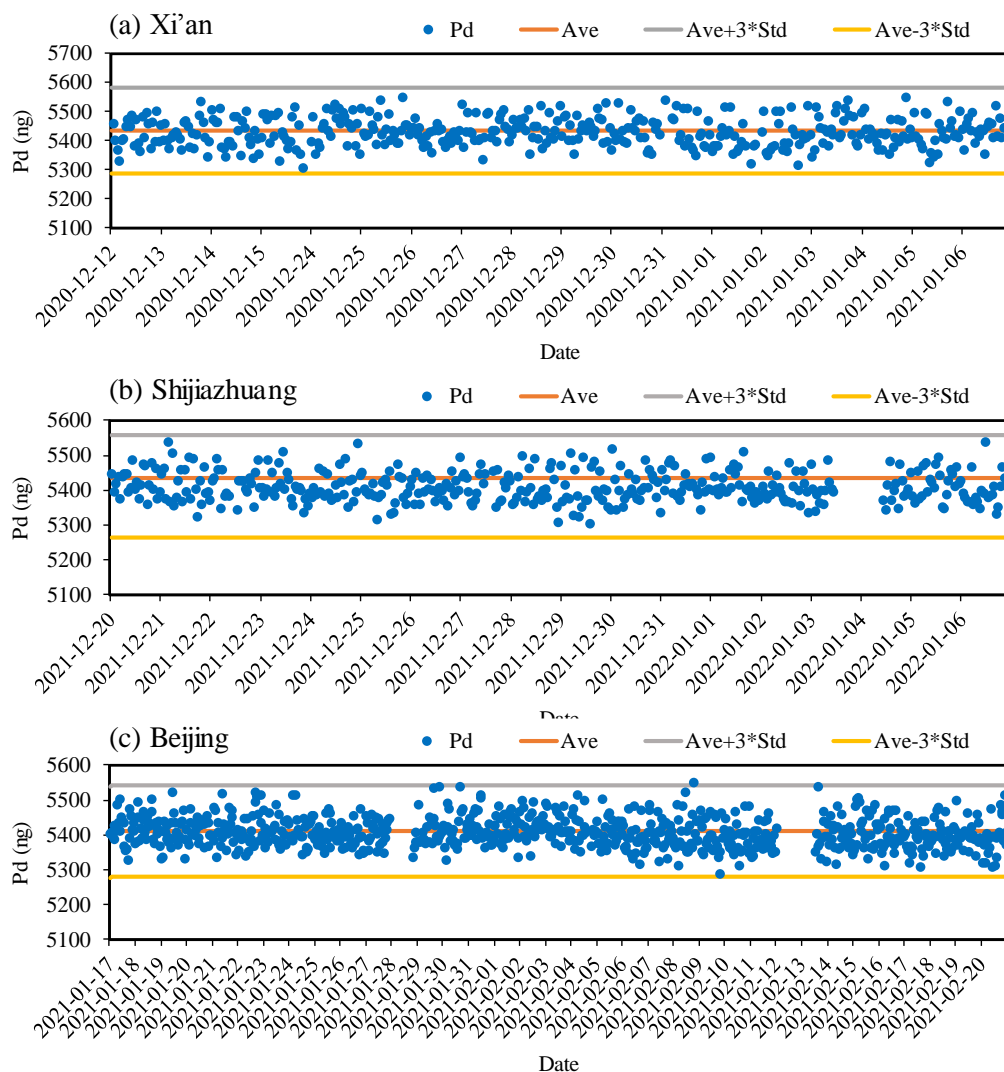
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Figure S1. Annual average concentration of PM_{2.5} from 2013 to 2021 in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing. (The data are from the website of the local Ecological Environment Bureau, Xi'an: <http://xaepb.xa.gov.cn/>, Shijiazhuang: <https://sthjj.sjz.gov.cn/>, Beijing: <http://sthjj.beijing.gov.cn/>). The red dotted line represents the second level of the National Ambient Air Quality Standard (GB3095-2012, 35 µg m⁻³)



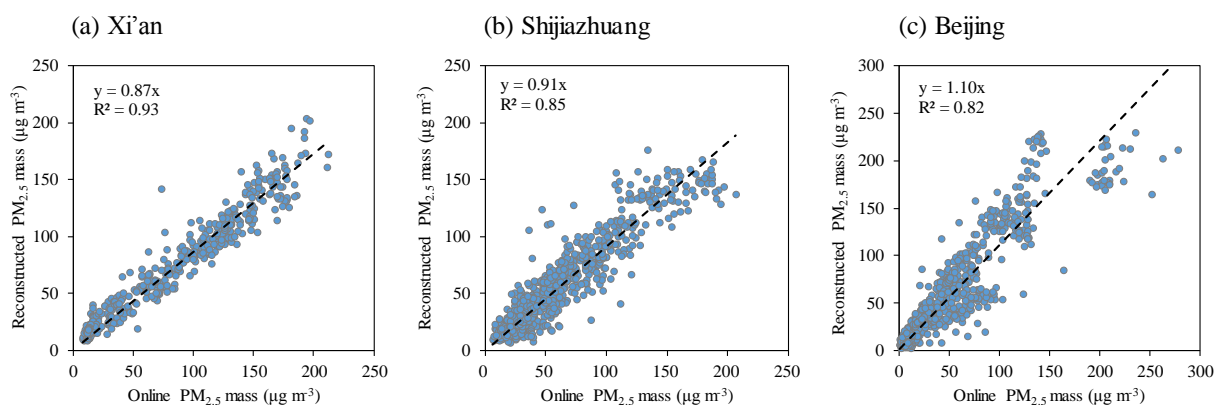
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Figure S2. Correction of chemical components measured by Q-ACSM in different cities. During the campaigns, offline filter samples were simultaneously sampled for the correction. In summary, 29 offline samples in Xi'an, 83 offline samples in Shijiazhuang, and 10 offline samples in Beijing were sampled respectively.



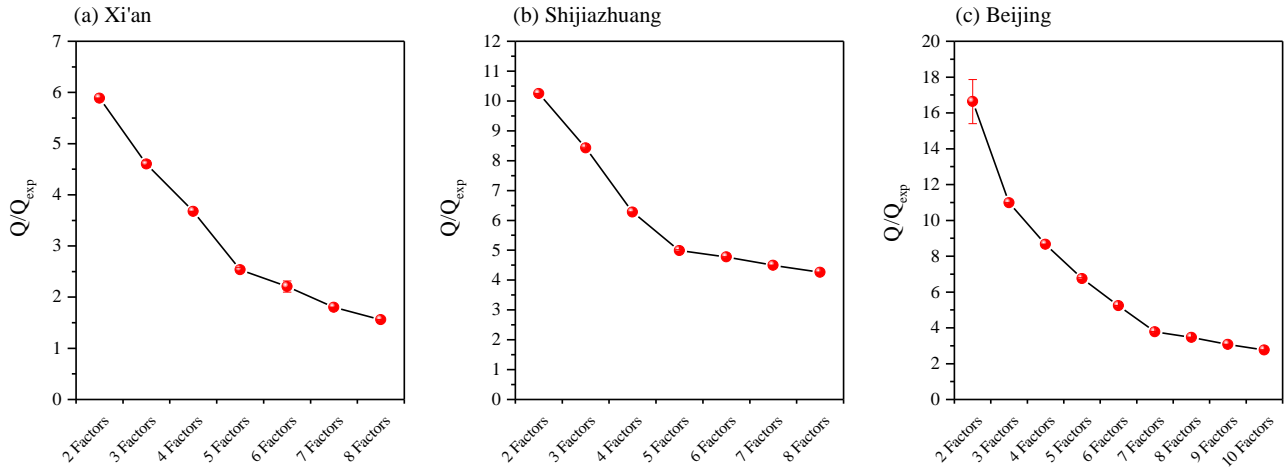
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83 **Figure S3.** Concentration of the internal standard element (Pd) of Xact625 during sampling periods in (a) Xi'an,
 84 (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing.



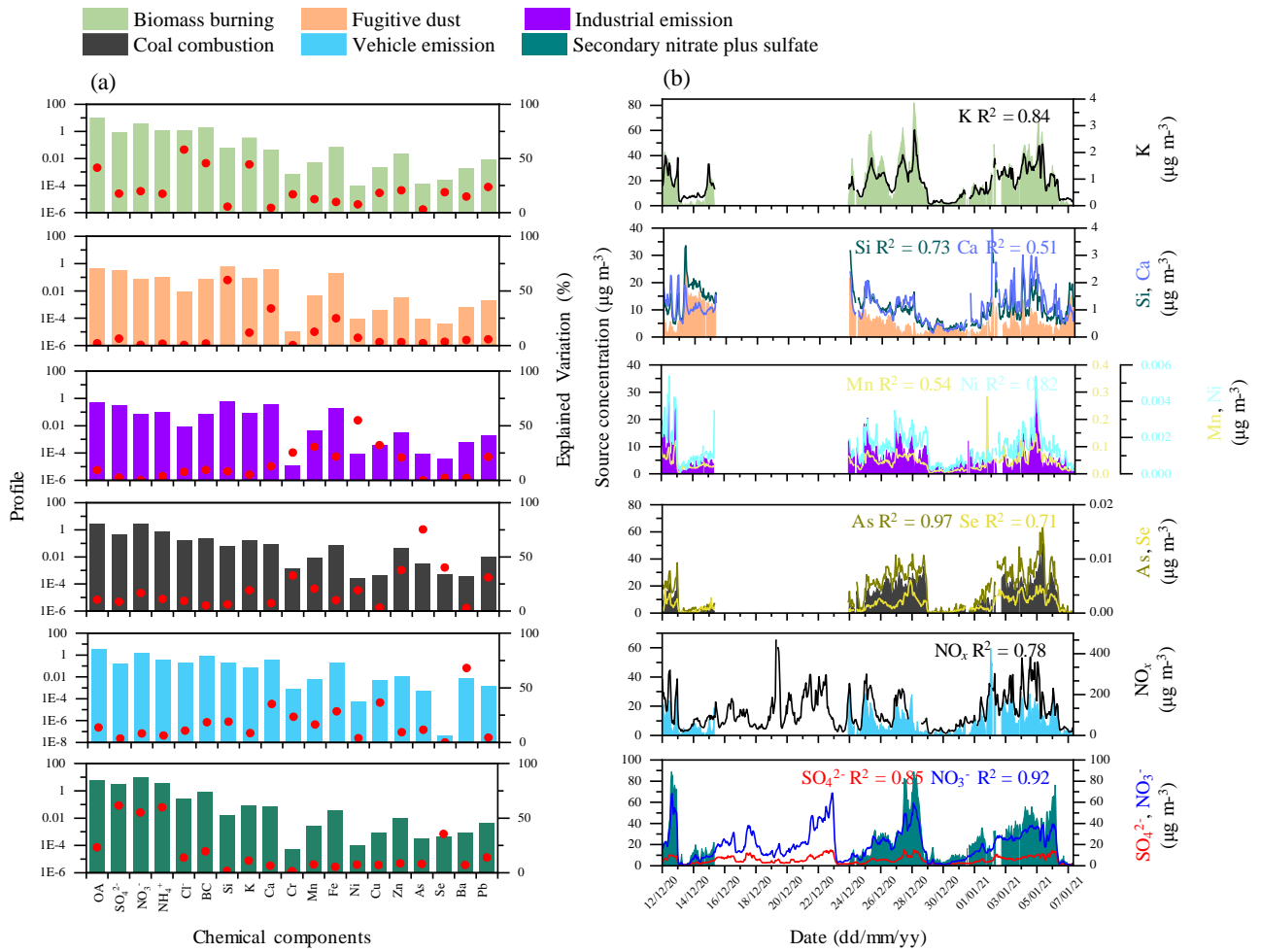
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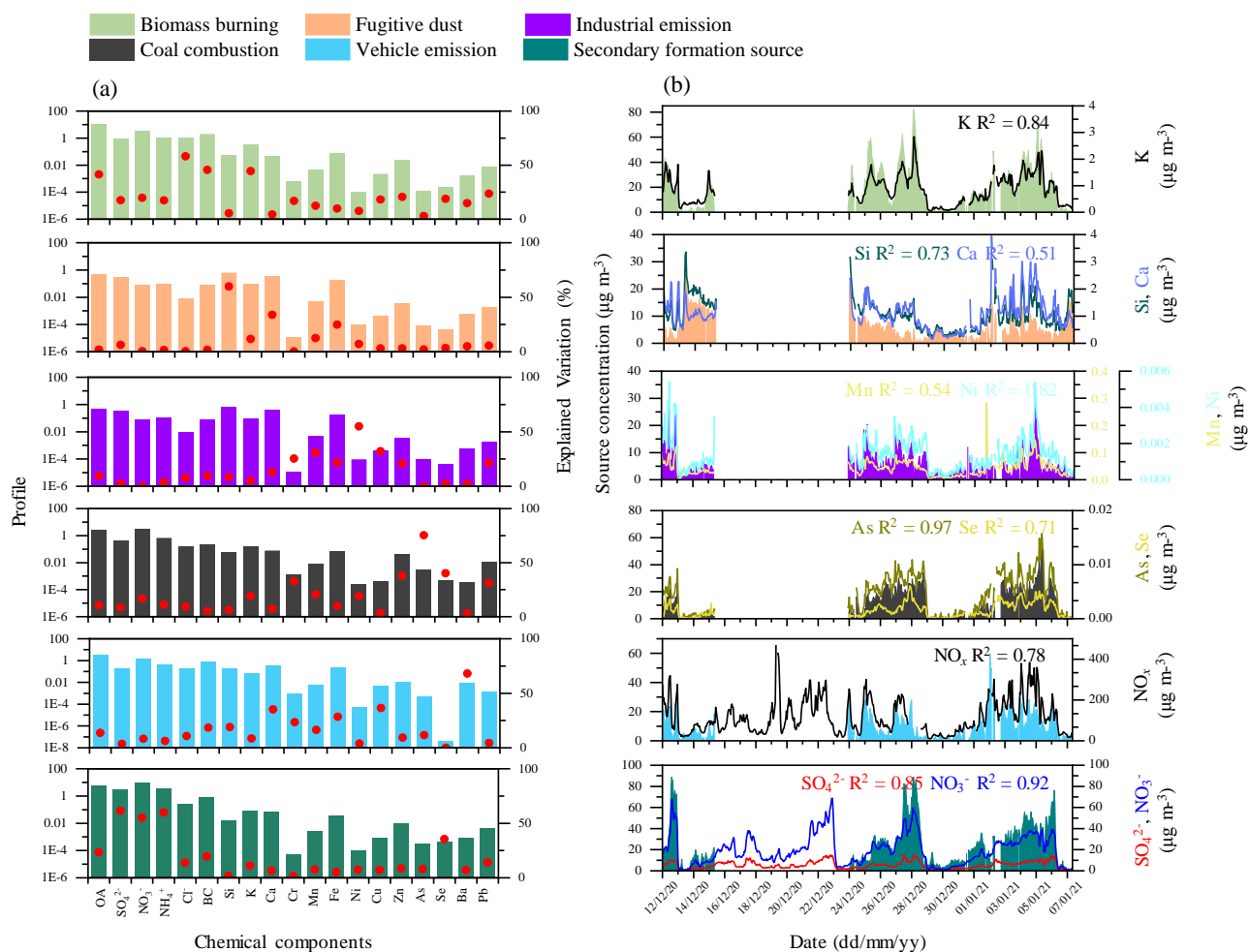
86 **Figure S4.** Correlation of online and reconstructed PM_{2.5} concentration in (a) Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing
 87 during the campaigns. The online PM_{2.5} mass data in the X axis from national monitor stations near sampling sites.



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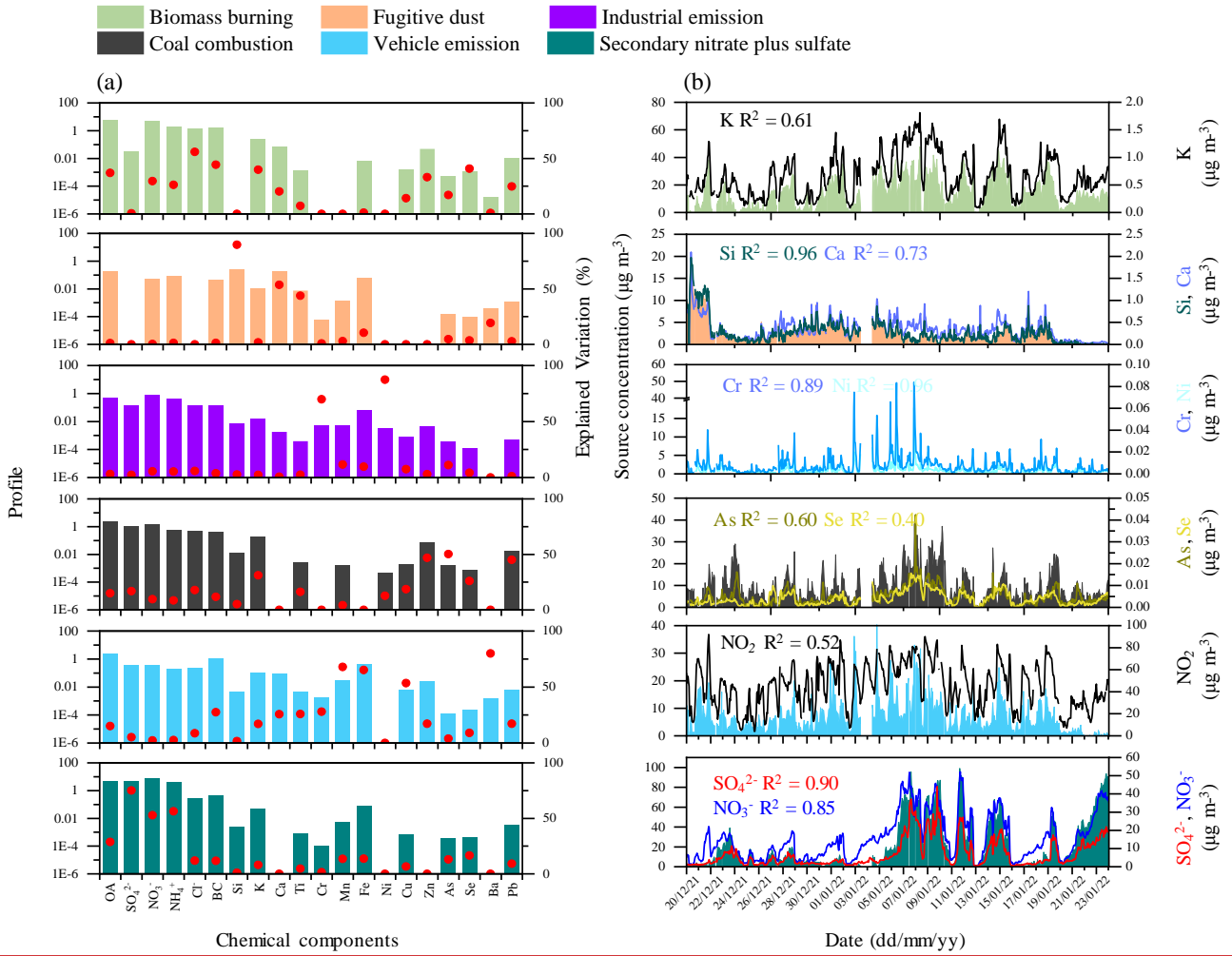
89 **Figure S5.** Values of Q/Q_{exp} for the unconstrained profile solutions with two to ten factors based on thirty runs in (a)
 90 Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing, respectively.

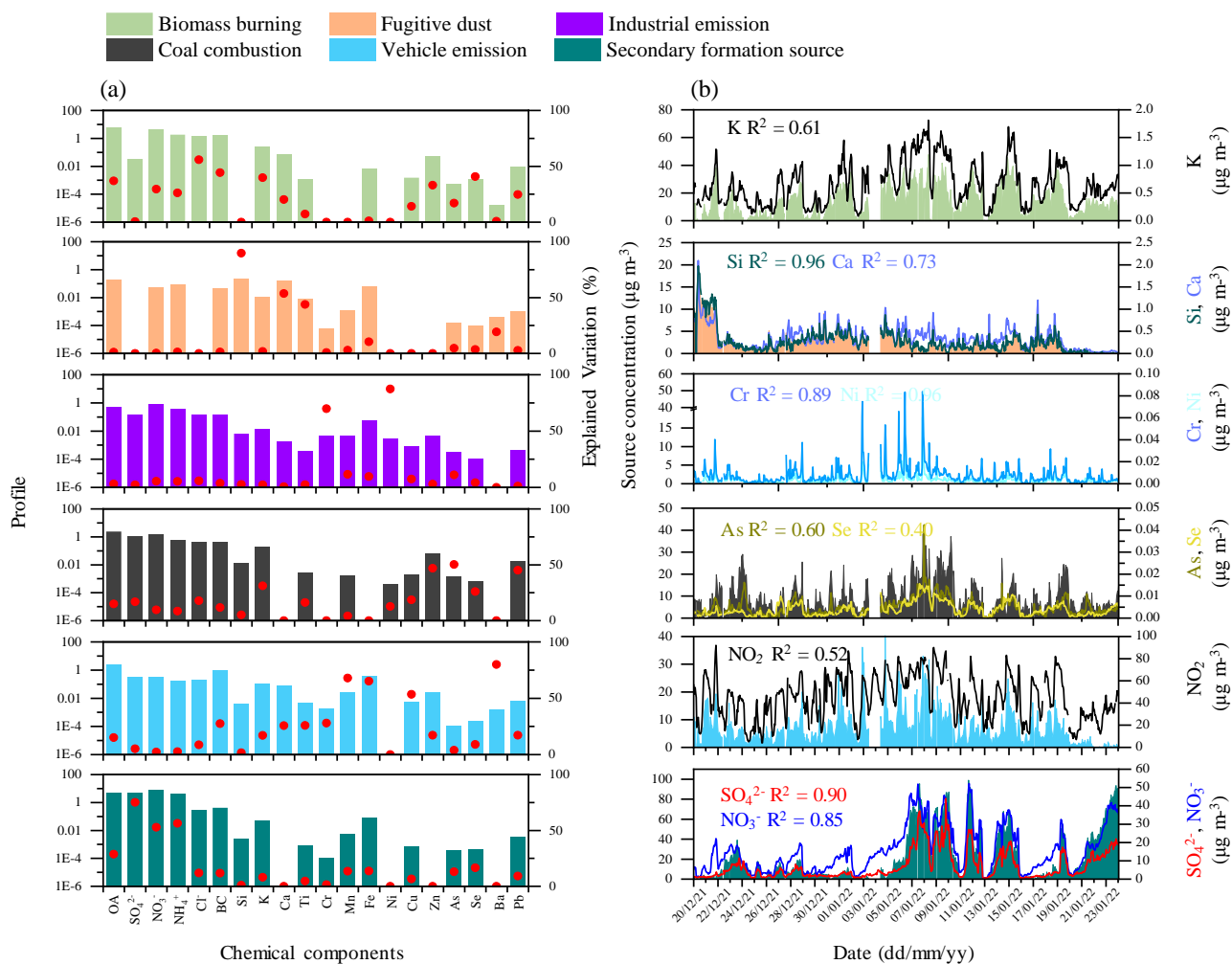




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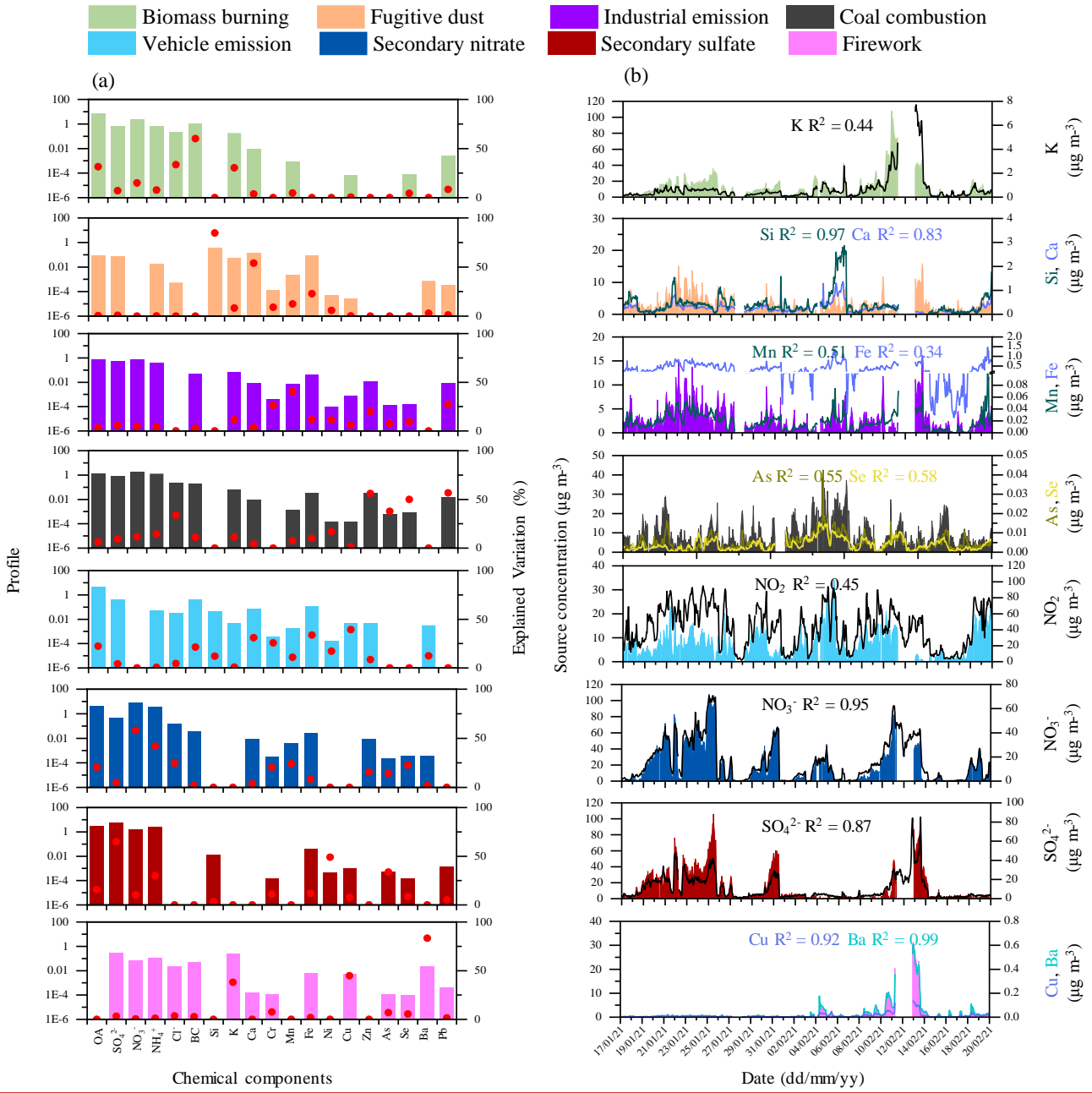
93 **Figure S6.** (a) Sources profiles obtained from HERM with a six-factor solution in Xi'an, the columns in each factor
 94 are the profile that displays the relative relation of the absolute values of variables. The red dot represents the
 95 explained variation (EV) in species for different factors. (b) Time series plots of sources concentration, including
 96 biomass burning, fugitive dust, industrial emission, coal combustion, vehicle emission, and secondary nitrate plus
 97 sulfate formation source. The corresponding time trends of chemical tracers are also shown.

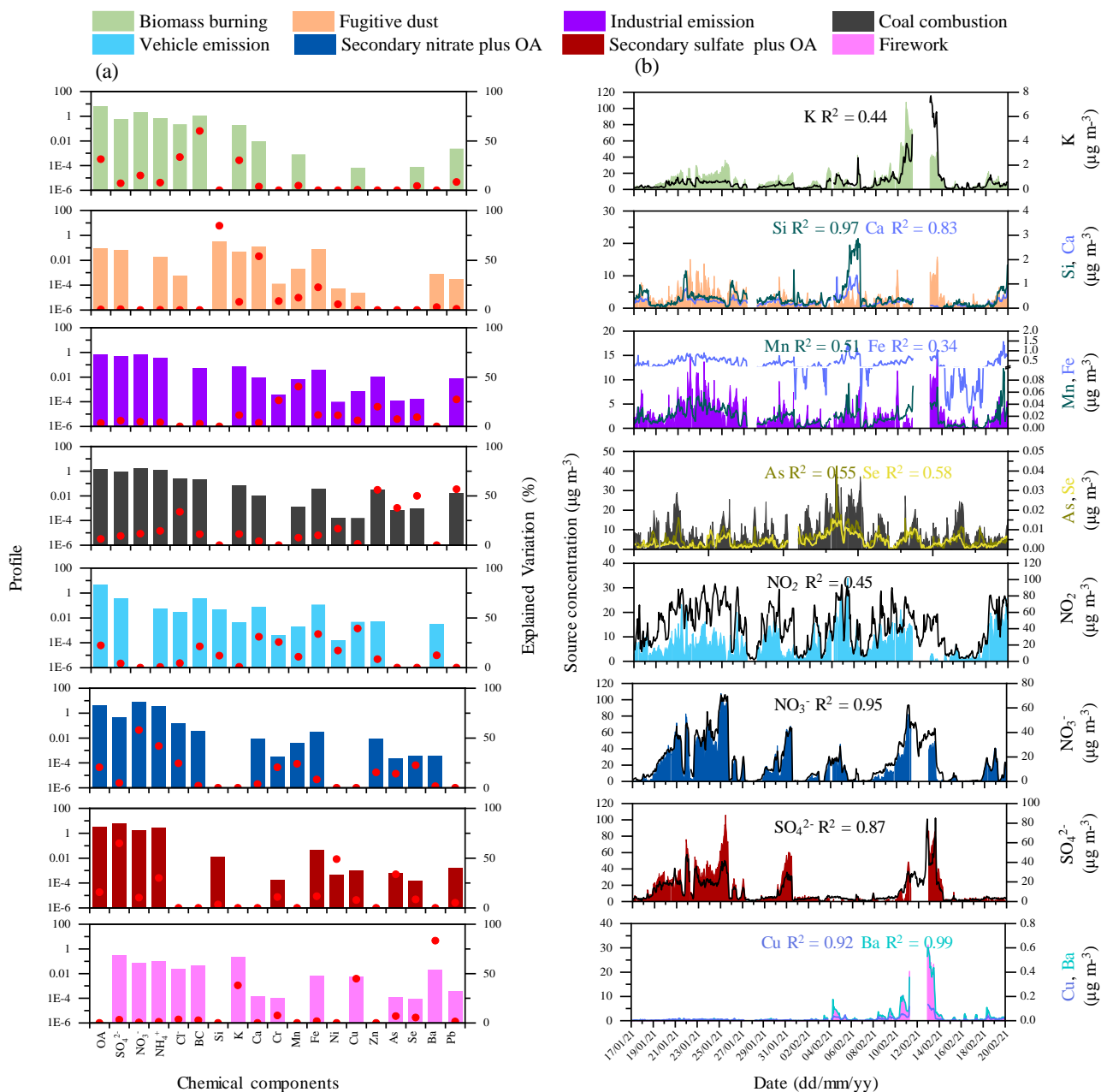




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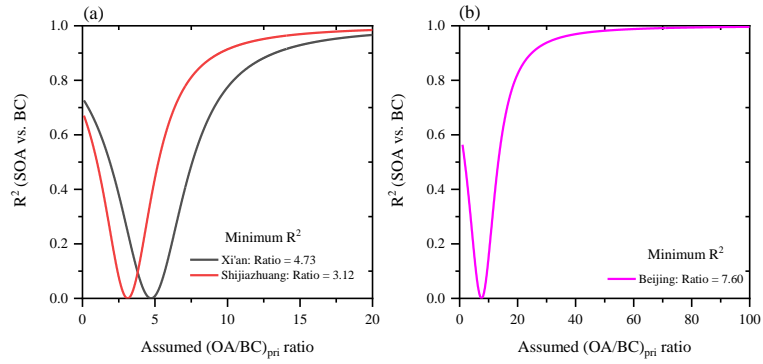
100 **Figure S7.** (a) Sources profiles obtained from HERM with a six-factor solution in Shijiazhuang, the columns in each
 101 factor are the profile that displays the relative relation of the absolute values of variables. The red dot represents the
 102 explained variation (EV) in species for different factors. (b) Time series plots of sources concentration, including
 103 biomass burning, fugitive dust, industrial emission, coal combustion, vehicle emission, and secondary nitrate plus
 104 sulfate formation source. The corresponding time trends of chemical tracers are also shown.





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107 **Figure S8.** (a) Sources profiles obtained from HERM with an eight-factor solution in Beijing, the columns in each
 108 factor are the profile that displays the relative relation of the absolute values of variables. The red dot represents the
 109 explained variation (EV) in species for different factors. (b) Time series plots of sources concentration, including
 110 biomass burning, fugitive dust, industrial emission, coal combustion, vehicle emission, secondary nitrate plus OA,
 111 secondary sulfate plus OA, and firework. The corresponding time trends of chemical tracers are also shown.

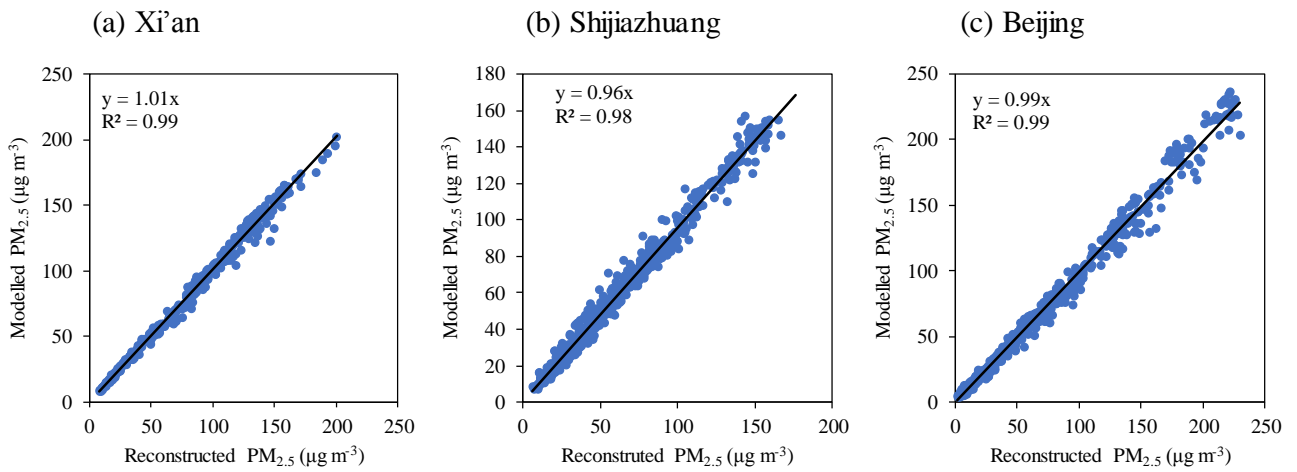


112

113 **Figure S9.** Coefficients of determination (R^2) for SOA versus BC mass concentration plotted against assumed
 114 ratios for OA to BC in primary emissions ($(OA/BC)_{pri}$) in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang and Beijing.

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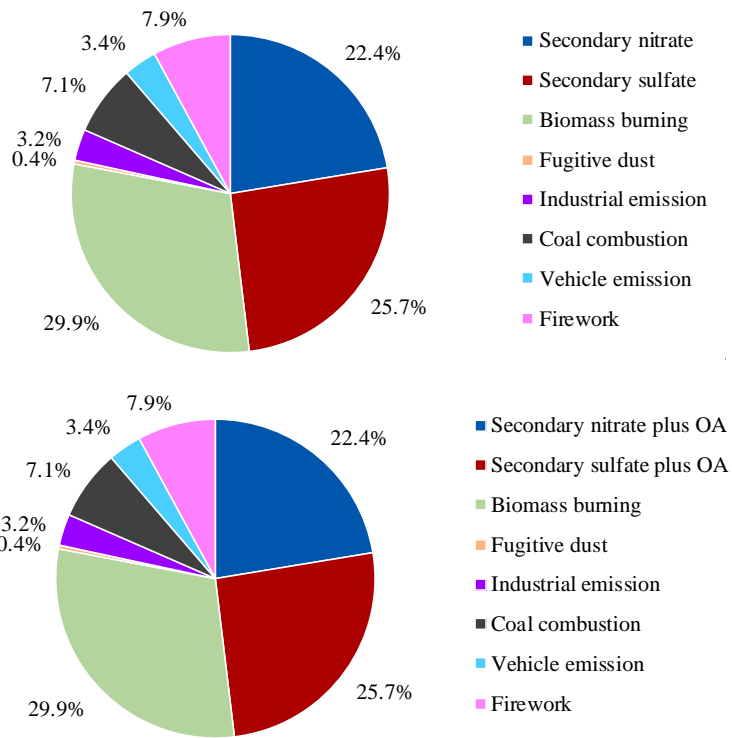
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118 **Figure S9S10.** Correlation between reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ and modeled $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations derived by HERM
 119 in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing with optimal solutions

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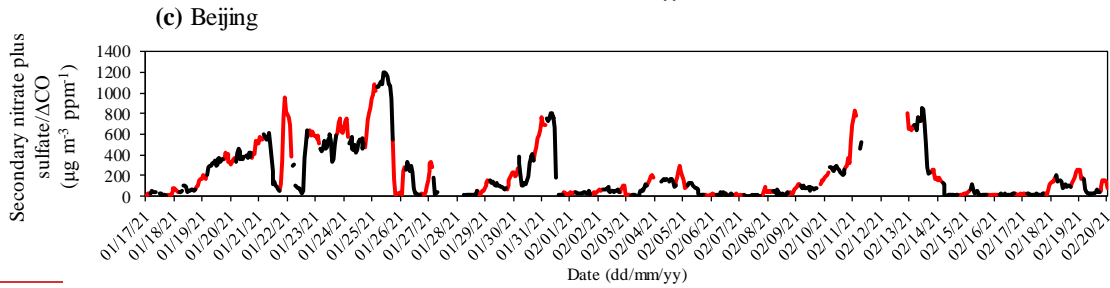
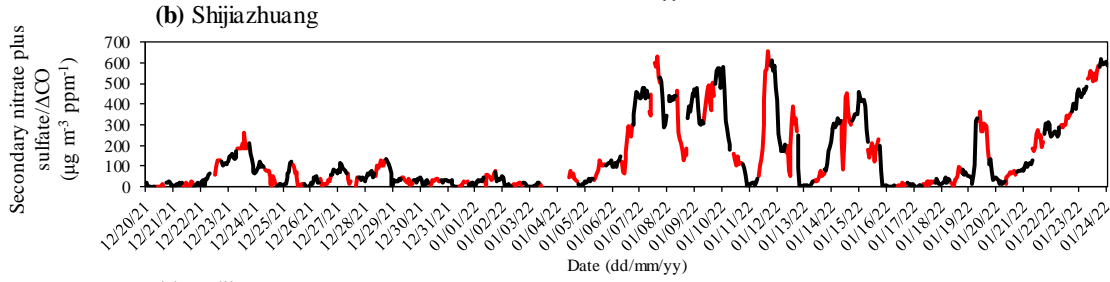
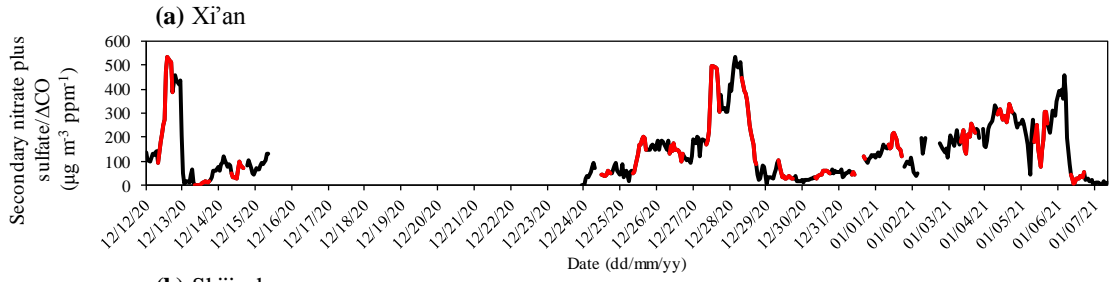
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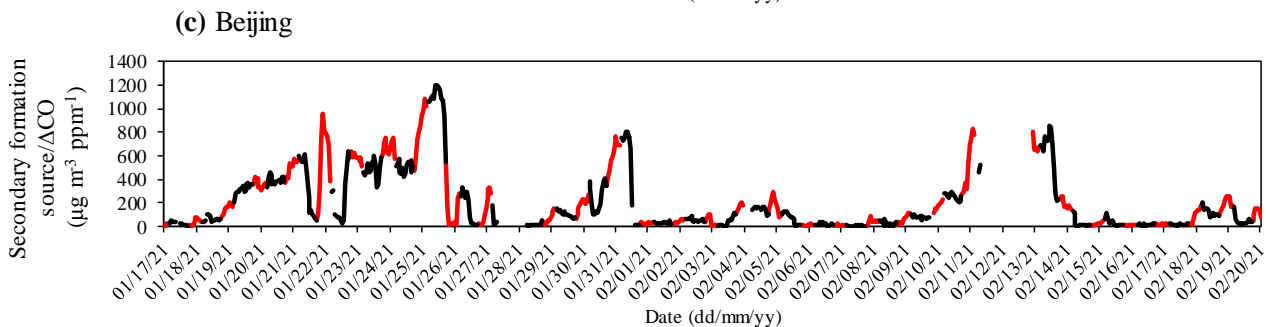
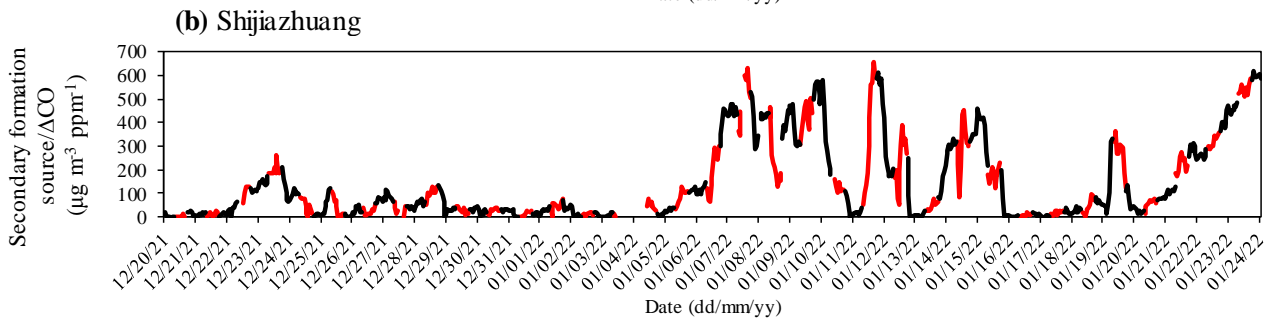
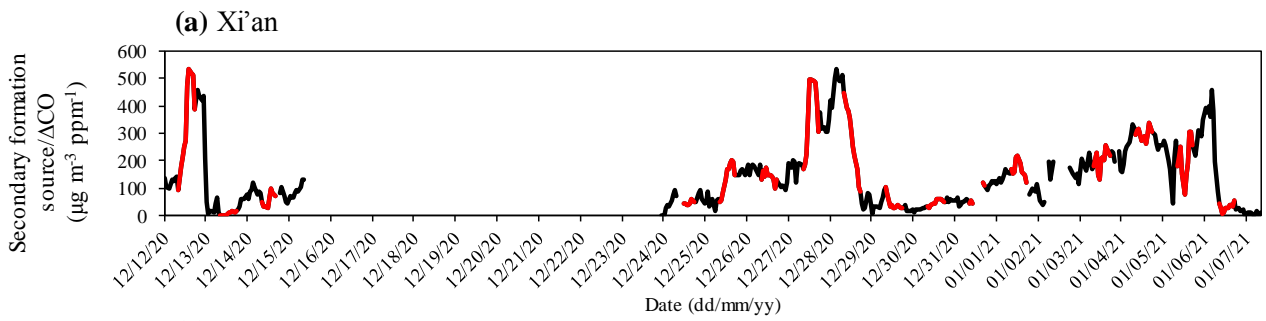
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Figure S10S11. Source contribution of PM_{2.5} during Chinese Spring Festival (from New Year's Eve to January 3rd of the Lunar Calendar) in Beijing



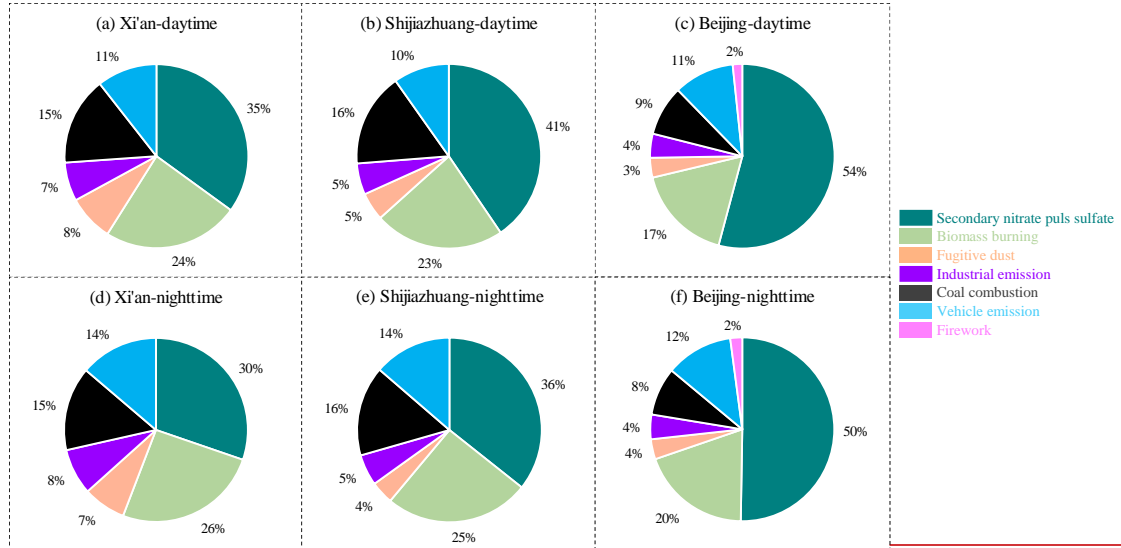
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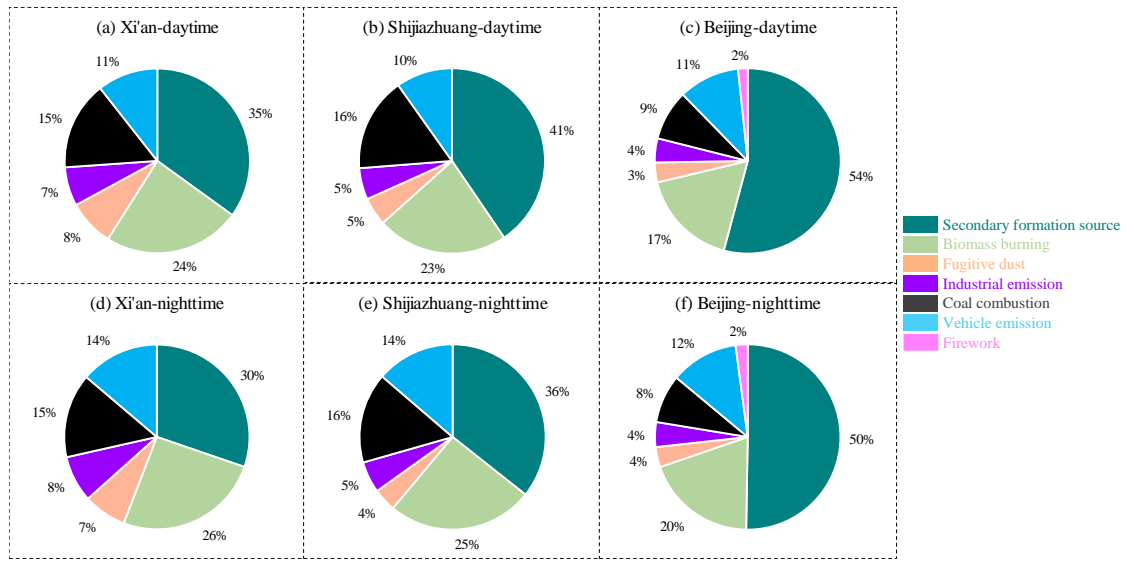
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127 **Figure S12**. Time series plots of secondary ~~nitrate plus sulfate~~ formation source/ Δ CO in (a) Xi'an, (b)
 128 Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing. The red and black lines represent daytime (08:00-17:00 LST) and nighttime
 129 (18:00 - 07:00 the next day LST), respectively.

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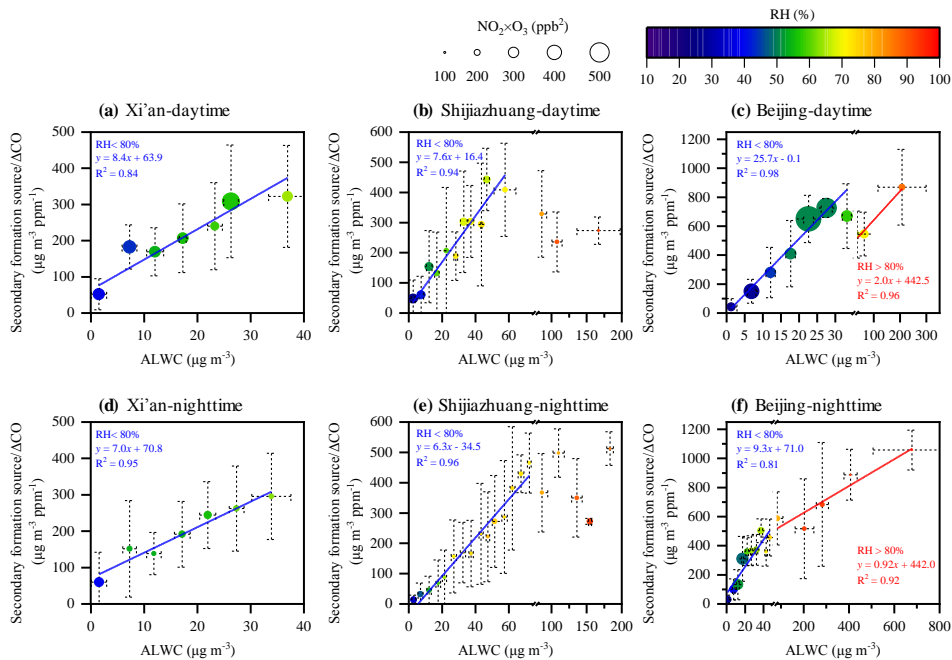


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133 **Figure S13**. Source contribution of PM_{2.5} in three pilot cities during daytime and nighttime, respectively.

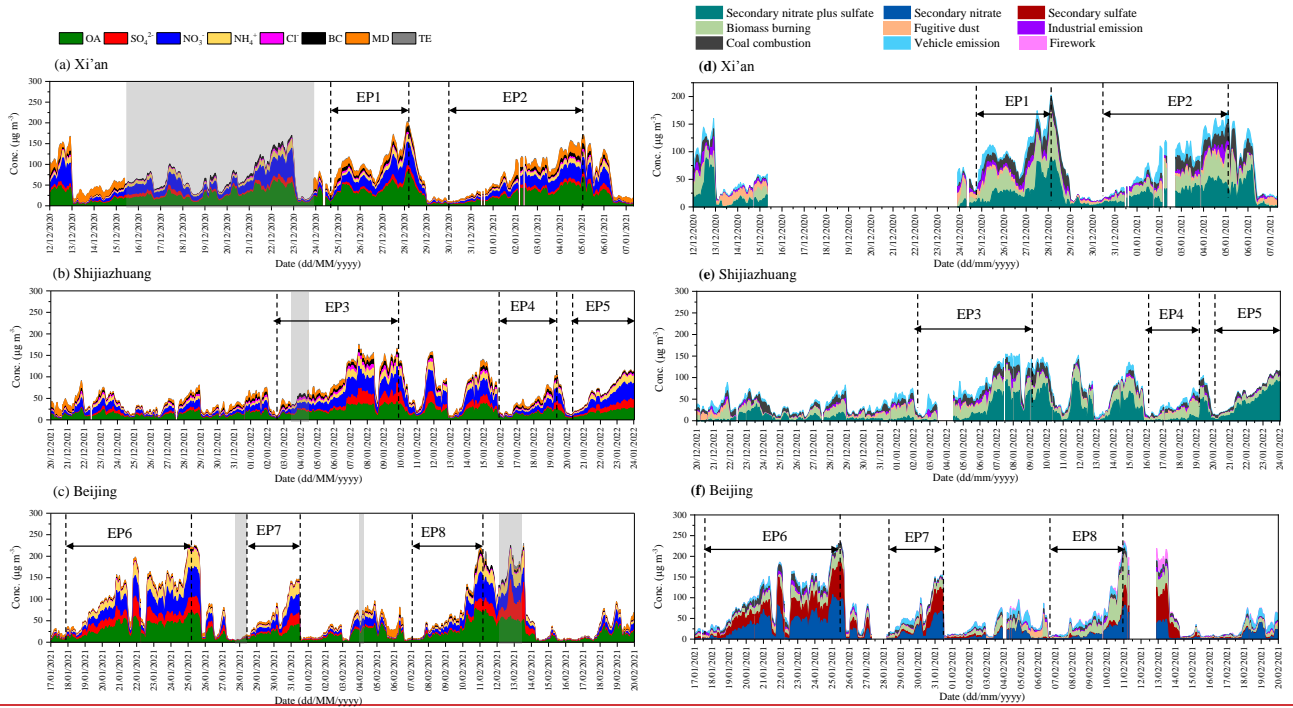


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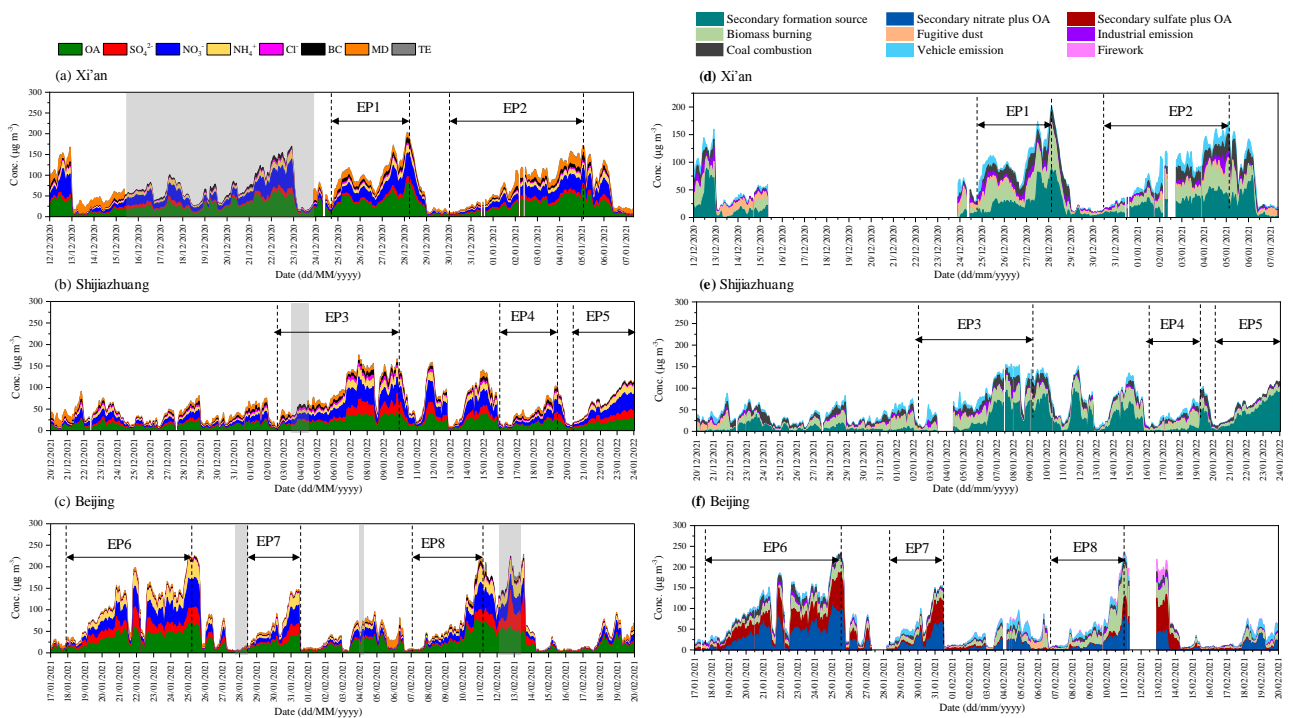
135 **Figure S14.** Correlation of secondary formation source/ ΔCO and ALWC during daytime (08:00–17:00 LST, a–c)
 136 and nighttime (18:00–7:00 the next day LST, d–f) in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing, respectively. The points and
 137 error bar represent the mean values and standard deviation values of secondary formation source / ΔCO and ALWC
 138 in each bin. In Xi'an, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). In Shijiazhuang, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5$
 139 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when ALWC ranged from 0 to $75 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 25 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 75 to
 140 $200 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to limitations in data. In Beijing, during daytime, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when
 141 ALWC ranged from 0 to $40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 40 to $450 \mu\text{m}$
 142 ³ due to limitations in data. During nighttime, each bin is $5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) when ALWC ranged from 0
 143 to $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, but $100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ($\Delta\text{ALWC} = 100 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) for ALWC ranged from 50 to $900 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ due to limitations in
 144 data.

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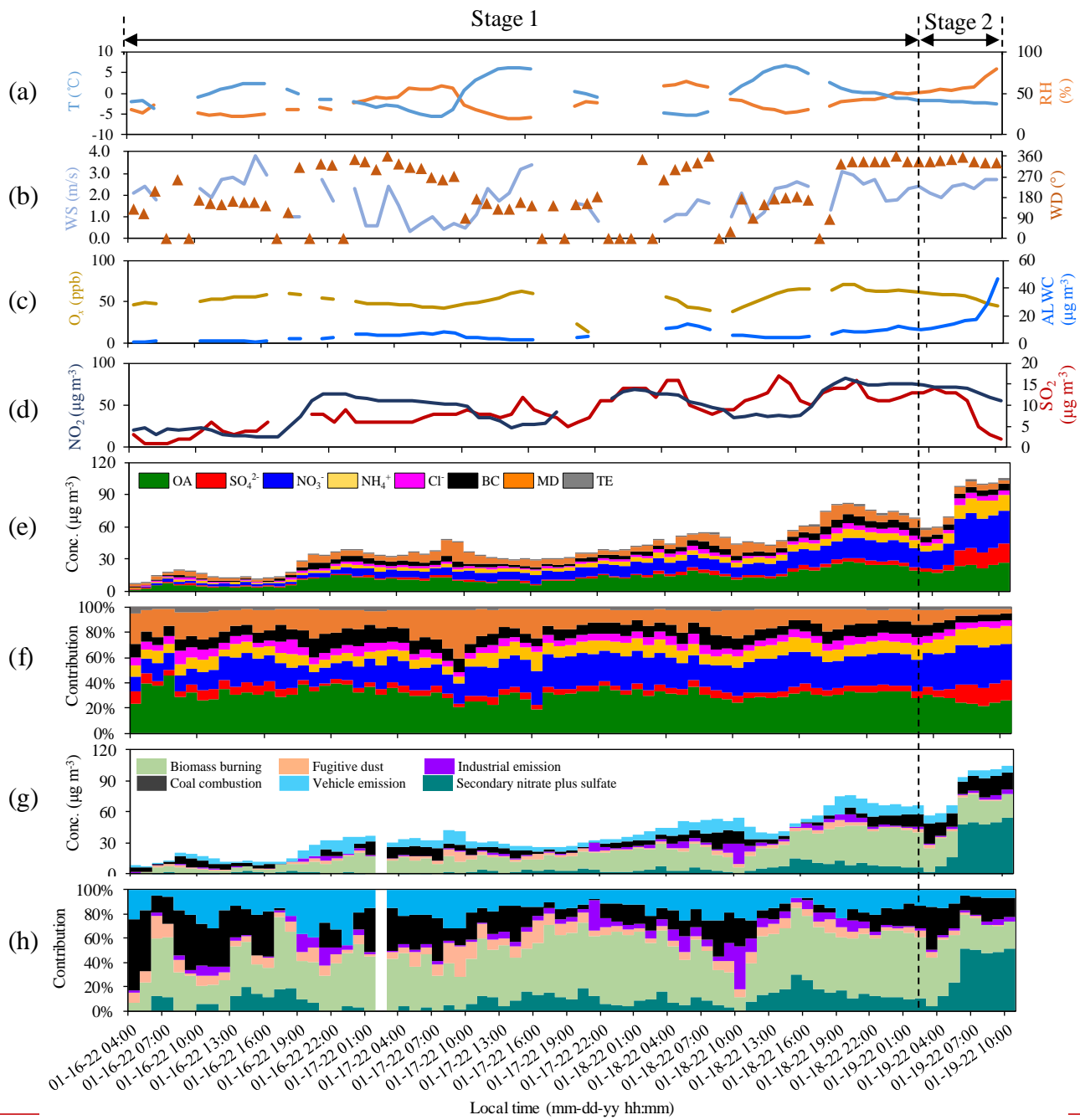
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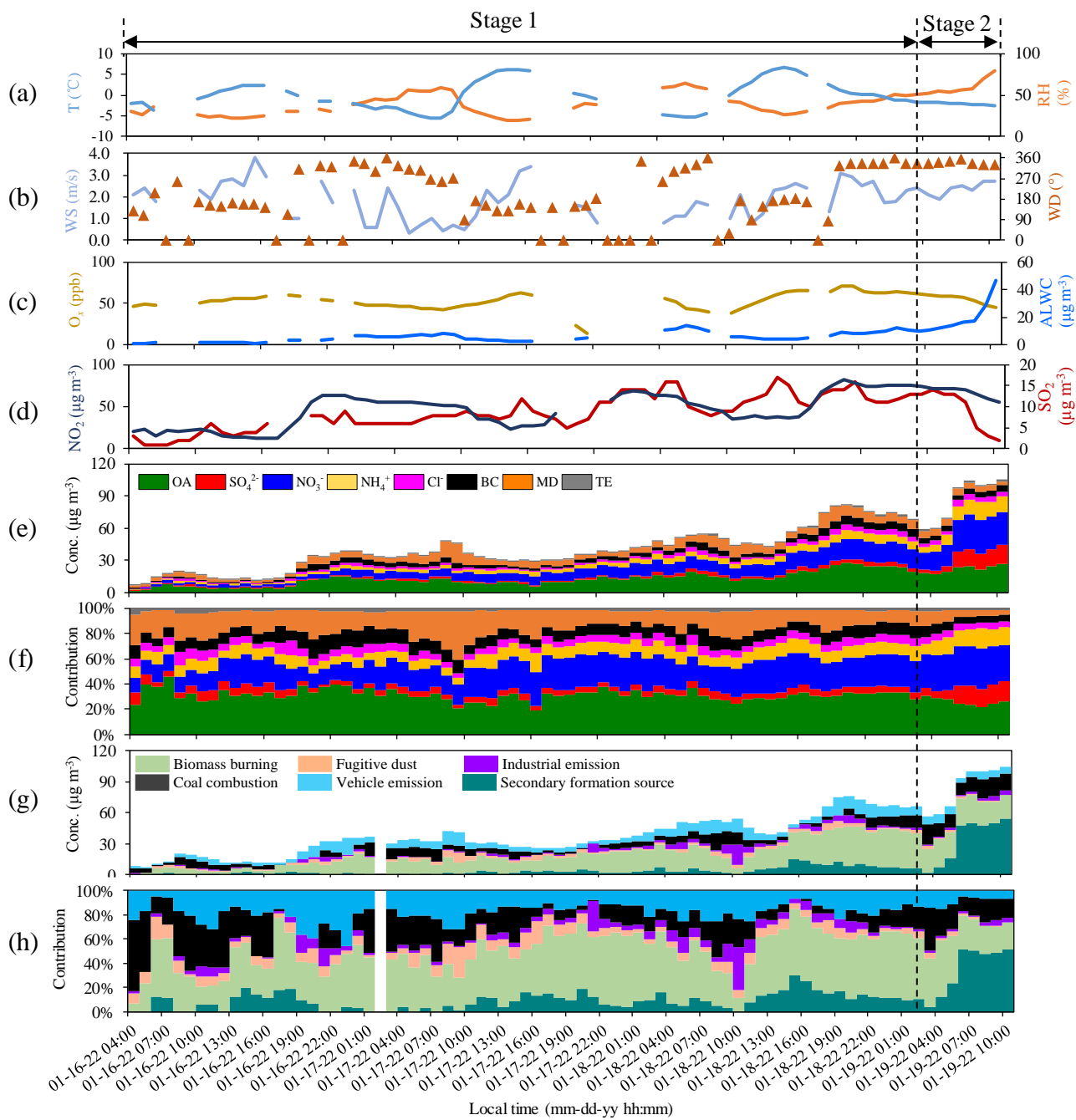


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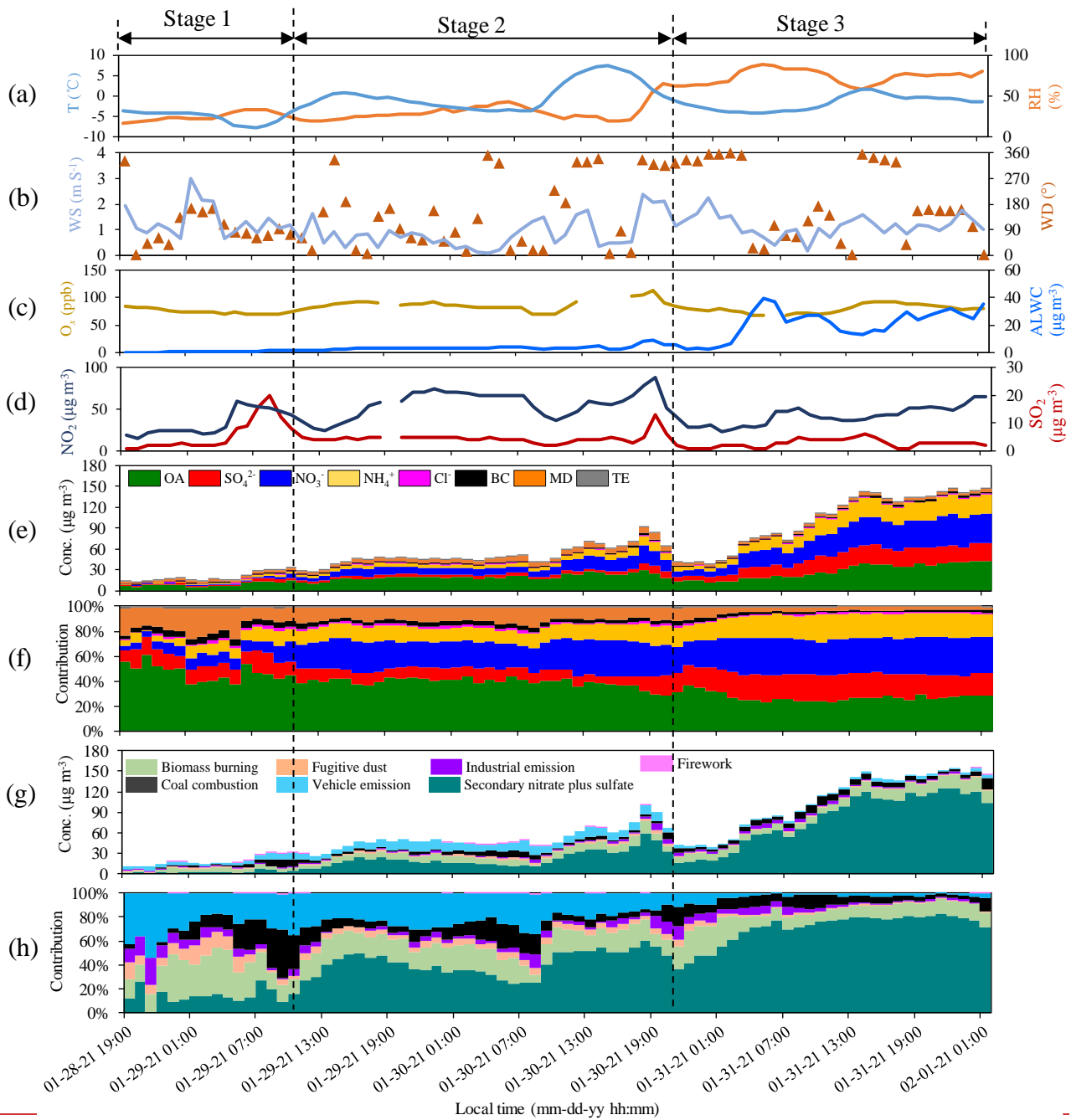
148 **Figure S13S15.** The pollution episodes selection according to temporal variation of PM_{2.5} chemical components (a-
 149 c) and source contribution (d-f) during the campaigns in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing, respectively. The gray
 150 shape parts were lack of MD values due to the out-of-order Xact625, and missing values in the time series owing to
 151 the out-of-order ACSM, AE33, and Xact625 at the same time.

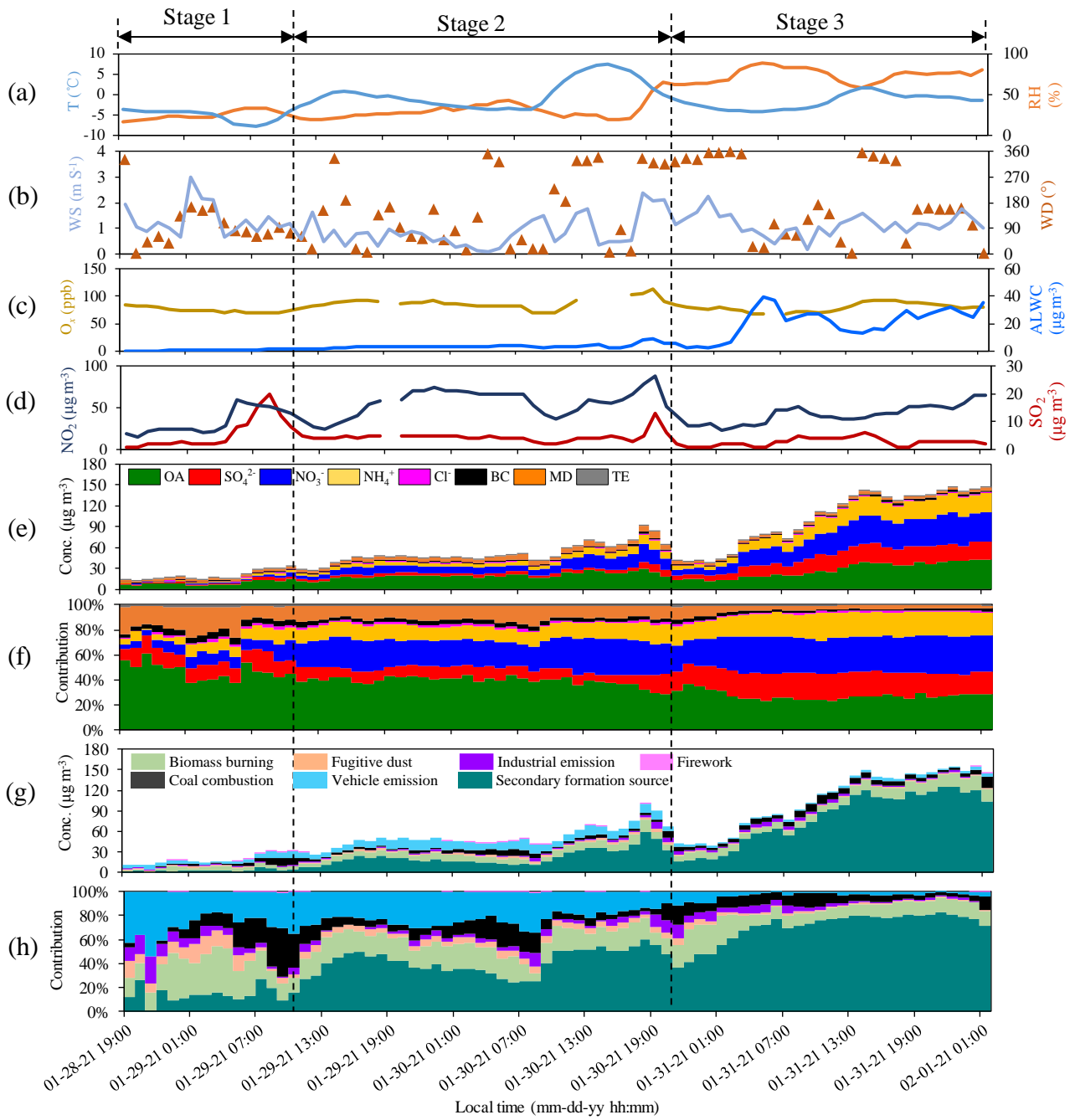




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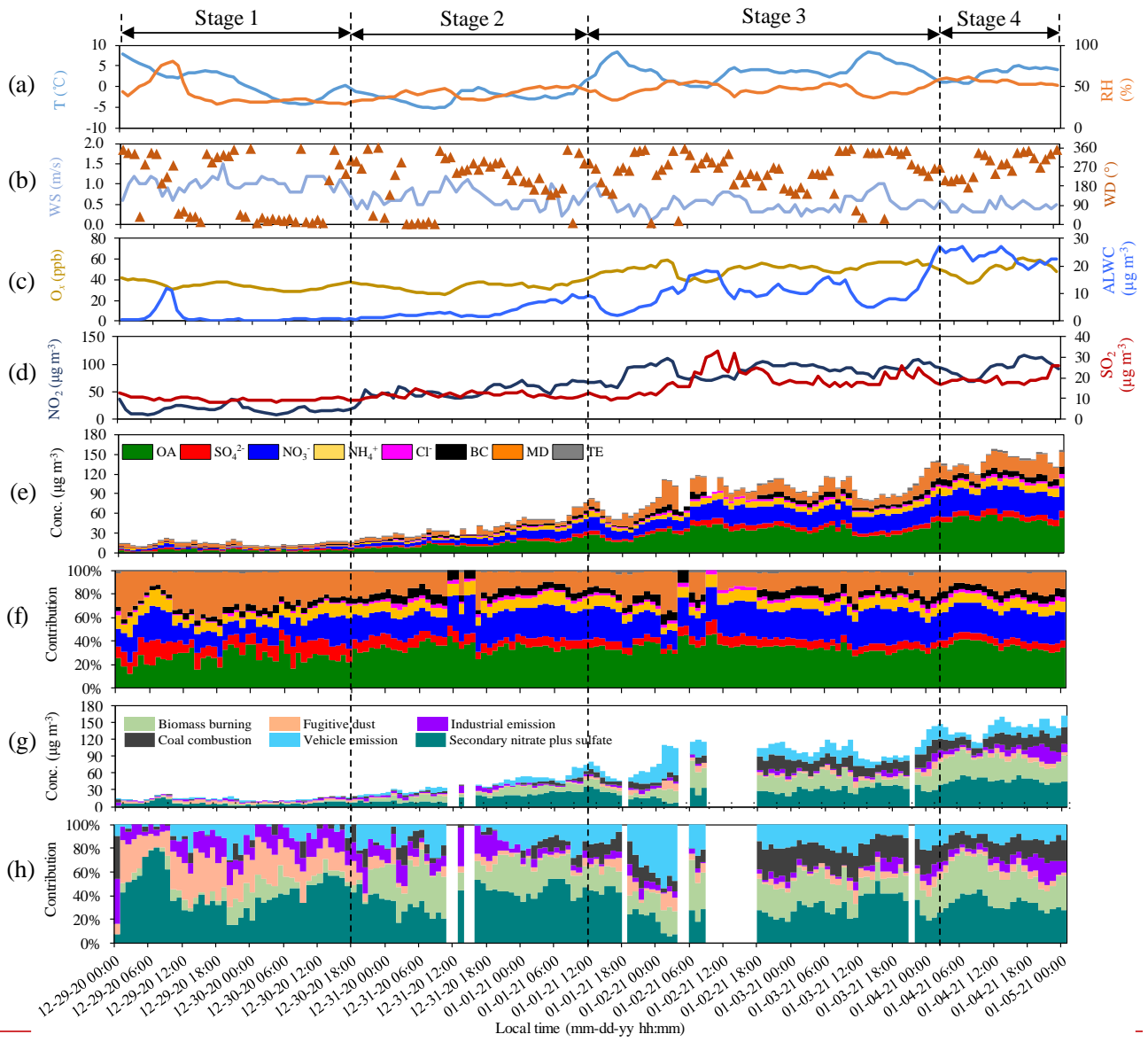
154 **Figure S14.6** Time series of T and RH (a), WS and WD (b), O_x and ALWC (c), NO_2 and SO_2 (d), chemical
 155 components (e,f), and source contribution (g, h) of $PM_{2.5}$ during EP4 in Shijiazhuang.

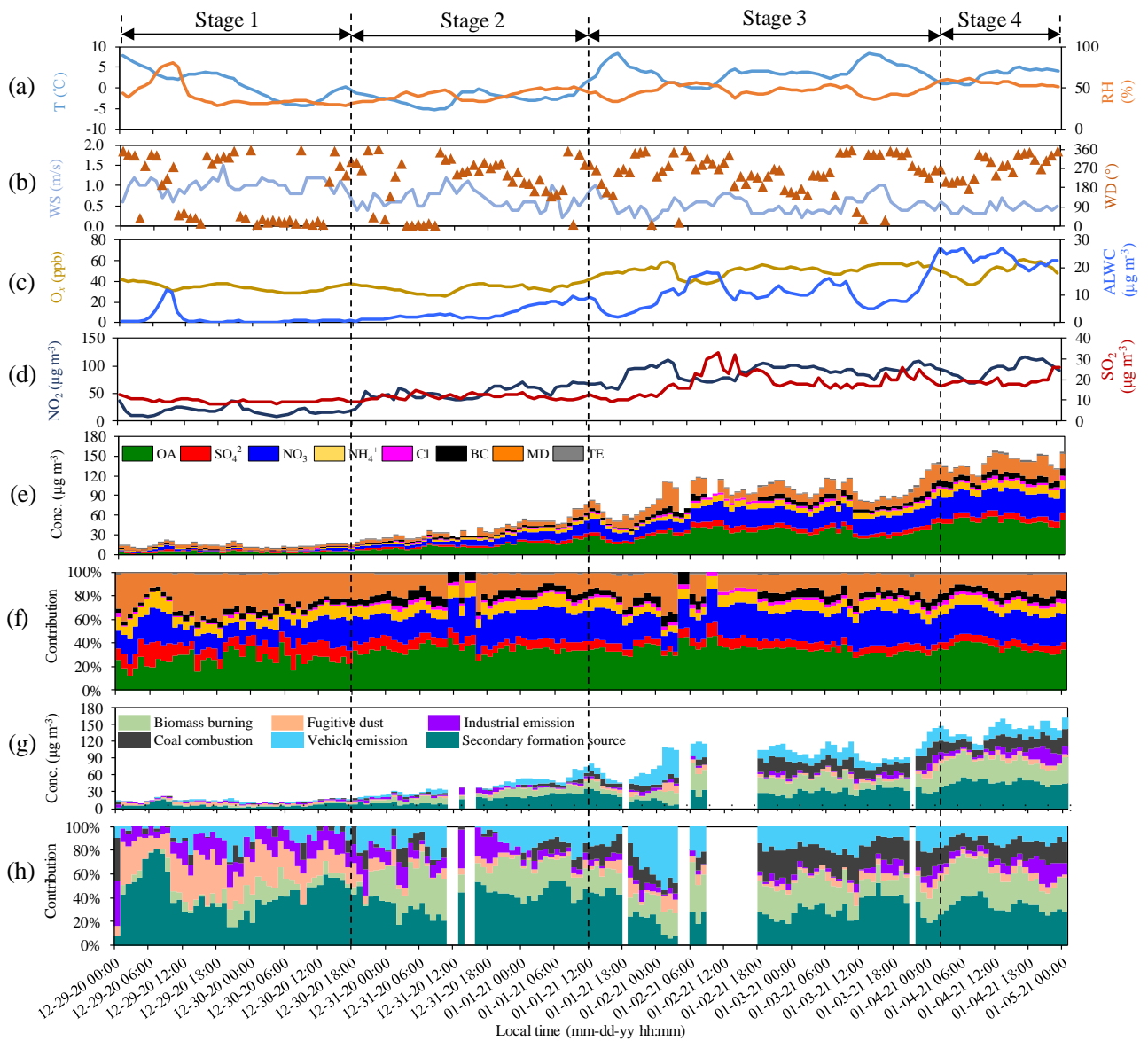




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158 **Figure S15S17.** Time series of T and RH (a), WS and WD (b), O_x and ALWC (c), NO₂ and SO₂ (d), chemical
 159 components (e, f), and source contribution (g, h) of PM_{2.5} during EP7 in Beijing



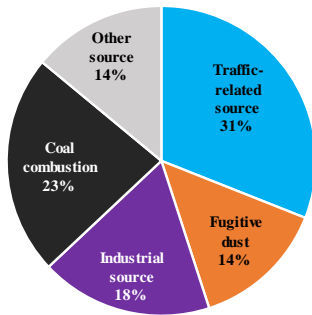


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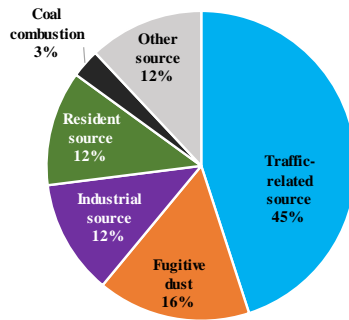
162 **Figure S16S18.** Time series of T and RH (a), WS and WD (b), O_x and ALWC (c), NO₂ and SO₂ (d), chemical
 163 components (e, f), and source contribution (g, h) of PM_{2.5} during EP2 in Xi'an.

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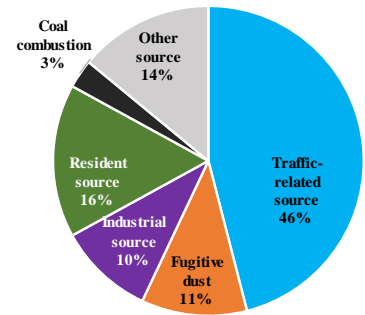
(a) The first round
Period: 2012/6-2013/12
PM_{2.5}: 90 μg cm⁻³



(b) The second round
Period: 2017/1-2018/5
PM_{2.5}: 58 μg cm⁻³



(c) The third round
Period: 2020/1-2021/6
PM_{2.5}: 38 μg cm⁻³



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Figure S19. PM_{2.5} sources apportionment in Beijing released by Beijing Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau in the last decade (<http://sthjj.beijing.gov.cn/so/s?tab=all&sourceCode=1100000122>, in Chinese).

169 **Table S1.** Detailed information on complementary data for sampling sites

Sampling site	National Air Quality Monitoring Station	National Meteorological Station	complementary data
Xi'an	Gaoxinqiqu station, 1.1km from the sampling site	Haidian station, 7.6 km from the sampling site	hourly PM _{2.5} , NO _x , NO ₂ , CO, SO ₂ , O ₃ , WS, WD, T, RH
Shijiazhuang	Gaoxinqu station, 4.2 km from the sampling site	Shijiazhuang station, 23.8 km from the sampling site	hourly PM _{2.5} , NO ₂ , CO, SO ₂ , O ₃ , WS, WD, T, RH
Beijing	ChaoyangAotizhongxin station, 1.2 km from the sampling site	Jinghe station, 21.2 km from the sampling site	hourly PM _{2.5} , NO ₂ , CO, SO ₂ , O ₃ , WS, WD, T, RH

170 Note: WS: wind speed, WD: wind direction, T: temperature, RH: relative humidity.

171

172 **Table S2.** The $\Delta Q/Q_{\text{exp}}$ ^a value with increasing factor number from two to ten of the runs in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and
173 Beijing.

Parameter ^b	$\Delta Q/Q_{\text{exp}}$		
	Xi'an	Shijiazhuang	Beijing
F2-F3	1.3	1.8	5.7
F3-F4	0.9	2.2	2.3
F4-F5	1.1	1.2	1.9
F5-F6	0.4	0.3	1.5
F6-F7	0.3	0.3	1.5
F7-F8	0.2	0.2	0.3
F8-F9			0.4
F9-F10			0.3

174 ^a $\Delta Q/Q_{\text{exp}}$ means the difference of Q/Q_{exp} of two sequent factor numbers.

175 ^b Parameters represent the factor numbers (F) – (F+1).

176

177 **Table S3.** Sources diagnostics with increasing factor numbers from four to ten of the runs in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang,
 178 and Beijing.

Factor number	Sources identification		
	Xi'an	Shijiazhuang	Beijing
4	Secondary nitrate plus sulfate formation source mixed with biomass burning and coal burning mixed with industrial emission	i) Secondary nitrate plus sulfate formation source mixed with primary sources including biomass burning and coal combustion ii) Biomass burning, coal combustion, and vehicle emission was also mixed	i) Secondary sources mixed with primary sources including biomass burning, coal combustion, and vehicle emission ii) Biomass burning and coal combustion was mixed
5	Secondary nitrate plus sulfate formation source mixed with biomass burning	Biomass burning, coal combustion, and vehicle emissions were mixed	Secondary sulfate plus OA mixed with coal combustion and industrial emission; secondary nitrate plus OA mixed with biomass burning
6	Six individual sources were identified	Six individual sources were identified	Secondary sulfate plus OA mixed with coal combustion and secondary nitrate plus OA mixed with industrial emission
7	Vehicle emission was split into two profiles Vehicle emission and industrial	Coal combustion was split into two profiles Vehicle emission and coal combustion	Secondary sulfate plus OA mixed with coal combustion
8	emission was split into two profiles, respectively.	were split into two profiles, respectively.	Eight individual sources were identified
9			Coal combustion was split into two profiles
10			Coal combustion and biomass burning were split into two profiles, respectively.

180 **Table S4.** Average concentrations of reconstructed PM_{2.5} and its chemical species in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing
 181 during the campaign* ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)

Chemical Species	Xi'an	Shijiazhuang	Beijing
Reconstructed PM _{2.5}	77 ± 47	60 ± 39	64 ± 57
OA	25.9 ± 18.0	16.0 ± 9.7	22.1 ± 18.1
SO ₄ ²⁻	5.2 ± 3.4	7.0 ± 7.6	9.6 ± 11.3
NO ₃ ⁻	18.5 ± 14.5	15.8 ± 12.5	15.2 ± 16.7
NH ₄ ⁺	6.2 ± 4.5	7.0 ± 5.5	9.2 ± 10.3
Cl ⁻	1.9 ± 1.5	2.8 ± 2.2	0.7 ± 0.8
BC	4.5 ± 3.2	3.9 ± 2.5	1.9 ± 1.8
MD ^a	13.2 ± 7.0	6.0 ± 4.0	4.8 ± 3.8
TE ^b	1.1 ± 0.7	1.0 ± 0.6	0.9 ± 1.5

182 * Data during Xact625 failure shown in Figure S2 was excluded to calculate average concentration of campaign

183 ^a MD means mineral dust, which is equal to 2.20Al + 2.49Si + 1.63Ca + 2.42Fe + 1.94Ti

184 ^b TE means trace elements which is equal to K + Cr + Mn + Ni + Cu + Zn + As + Se + Ba + Pb

185

186 **Table S5.** The nitrogen oxidation ratio (NOR) and sulfur oxidation ratio (SOR) in Xi'an, Beijing, and Shijiazhuang
 187 during the campaigns^a

Parameters	Xi'an	Shijiazhuang	Beijing
NOR	0.15 ± 0.08	0.20 ± 0.11	0.16 ± 0.12
SOR	0.18 ± 0.08	0.36 ± 0.25	0.48 ± 0.23

188 ^a NOR = $n(\text{NO}_3^-)/(n(\text{NO}_3^-) + n(\text{NO}_2))$; SOR = $n(\text{SO}_4^{2-})/(n(\text{SO}_4^{2-}) + n(\text{SO}_2))$. where $n(\text{NO}_3^-)$, $n(\text{NO}_2)$, $n(\text{SO}_4^{2-})$, and $n(\text{SO}_2)$ are the molar
 189 concentrations of NO₃⁻, NO₂, SO₄²⁻, and SO₂, respectively.

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191 **Table S6.** Average concentrations of SOA in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing during sampling periods estimated by BC-
 192 tracer method and source apportionment results ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$)

SOA	Xi'an	Shijiazhuang	Beijing
SOA _{BC-tracer}	5.1 ± 5.8	4.2 ± 4.4	8.0 ± 9.0
SOA _{source apportionment}	6.0 ± 4.1	4.6 ± 2.8	8.2 ± 6.7

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Table S6S7. The concentration of PM_{2.5} and its main chemical components during wintertime in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing in the last decades.

City	Year	PM _{2.5}	OA ^a	EC	SO ₄ ²⁻	NO ₃ ⁻	NH ₄ ⁺	Others	References
		µg m ⁻³	µg m ⁻³	µg m ⁻³	µg m ⁻³	µg m ⁻³	µg m ⁻³	µg m ⁻³	
Xi'an	2003	356	153.3	21.5	53.8	29.2	29.6	68.9	Cao et al., 2012
	2006	230	57.4	11.4	45.9	20.6	14.2	80.0	Xu et al., 2016
	2008	199	48.3	9.9	42.5	20.8	11.0	66.9	Xu et al., 2016
	2010	233	60.0	14.7	30.6	22.9	12.3	92.8	Xu et al., 2016
	2012	196	56.3	8.2	27.0	19.2	13.3	71.9	Zhang et al., 2015
	2013	263	45.8	7.1	31.7	29.2	17.1	132.5	Niu et al., 2016
	2014	156	57.4	2.5	16.2	20.6	9.4	49.7	Dai et al., 2018
	2018	189	42.1	4.9	9.7	14.5	6.6	111.0	Wang et al., 2022
2020*	77	25.9	4.5	5.2	18.5	6.2	16.2	This study	
Shijiazhuang	2010	227	75.6	12.2	33.2	25.3	10.5	70.2	Zhao et al., 2013
	2015	232	82.0	16.3	26.6	27.4	19.8	59.7	Huang et al., 2017
	2016	193	63.2	13.5	29.5	24.0	17.0	45.8	Liu et al., 2019
	2017	97	31.2	6.5	12.5	16.5	12.5	17.8	Liu et al., 2019
	2018	96	35.8	10.1	10.5	15.3	6.3	18.0	Zhang et al., 2020
	2022*	60	16.0	3.9	7.0	15.8	7.0	9.8	This study
Beijing	2001	122	51.5	11.3	9.9	10.7	7.1	31.5	Duan et al., 2006
	2003	116	38.2	6.2	20.0	13.1	9.4	29.1	Cao et al., 2012
	2004	107	53.8	8.3	12.7	8.3	6.0	17.9	Song et al., 2007
	2010	127	42.9	7.1	14.2	17.1	5.2	40.5	Zhao et al., 2013
	2013	132	38.5	6.4	21.9	18.5	15.1	31.6	Tao et al., 2015
	2014	138	46.4	5.2	21.0	26.0	14.1	25.3	Ma et al., 2017
	2016	130	75.7	20.2	12.3	5.5	10.5	5.3	Xu et al., 2018
	2021*	64	22.1	1.9	9.6	15.2	9.2	6.4	This study

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* study was conducted on online monitoring equipment, and the rest studies were researched on filter sampling experiments.

^a Assumption of OA = 1.6 × OC for the filter-based sampling experiments

199 **Table S7S8.** The concentration of PM_{2.5} and its source contribution during wintertime in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and
 200 Beijing in the last decades.

City	Year	PM _{2.5}	Vehicle	Coal	Secondary	Fugitive	Industrial	Biomass	Others	References
		μg m ⁻³	emission μg m ⁻³	combustion μg m ⁻³	<u>formation</u> source μg m ⁻³	dust μg m ⁻³	emission μg m ⁻³	burning μg m ⁻³	μg m ⁻³	
Xi'an	2006	392	74.5	121.5	82.3	51.0	39.2	23.5		Xu et al., 2016
	2008	199	41.8	55.7	45.8	23.9	21.9	10.0		Xu et al., 2016
	2010	233	48.9	55.9	41.9	44.3	30.3	11.7		Xu et al., 2016
	2014	169	20.3	47.3	71.0	8.5	6.8	15.2		Dai et al., 2020
	2018	189	26.5	28.4		15.1	22.7	58.6	37.8	Wang et al., 2022
	2020*	77	10.0	11.6	24.6	6.2	6.2	19.3		This study
Shijiazhuang	2015	232	46.4	62.6	30.2	20.9	16.2	7.0	48.7	Huang et al., 2017
	2016	181	23.5	54.3	54.3	30.8	9.1		7.2	Liu et al., 2018
	2019	119	21.4	21.4	42.8	21.4	6.0	6.0		Diao et al., 2021
	2022*	60	7.2	9.6	22.8	2.4	3.0	14.4		This study
Beijing	2004	107	8.6	40.7	19.3	7.5		16.1	15.0	Song et al., 2007
	2010	139		79.2	8.3	22.2	16.7	9.7	2.8	Zhang et al., 2013
	2013	159	9.5	41.3	79.5	15.9		9.5	3.2	Huang et al., 2014
	2015	125	48.8	15.0	23.8	8.8	2.5	6.3	18.8	Huang et al., 2017
	2021*	64	7.0	5.8	33.3	2.6	2.6	11.5	1.3	This study

* study was conducted on online monitoring equipment, and the rest studies were researched on filter sampling experiments.

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