Responses to Referee #2:

General comments:

Zhang et al. investigate the chemical composition and source apportionment of PM2.5 in three northern Chinses cities to provide suggestions on establishment of efficient policies for air quality continuous improvement in the future. The online instruments including Q-ACSM, AE33 and Xact625 were used to monitor PM_{2.5} chemical components and a new receptor model was used to resolve the sources of PM_{2.5}. Furthermore, the potential formation mechanisms of secondary aerosol and formation progress of heavy pollution were discussed in this paper. Finally, Zhang et al. highlighted the importance of controlling biomass burning and inhibiting generation of secondary aerosol. Overall, this paper provides important insights into the sources and controlling factors of PM2.5 pollution in three northern Chinese cities during winter, those are valuable for developing policy on air quality improvement in near future. I recommend this manuscript be published in ACP. However, some revisions are necessary before the publication of this manuscript.

Response: We thank the reviewer for the helpful comments and providing us the opportunity to revise the manuscript. We have carefully addressed the comments in point-by-point form as shown below. Detailed responses to each of the reviewer's comments are provided in blue, and the revised text is underlined. Attached please also find the marked-up manuscript to track the changes in the revised manuscript.

Major comments:

Comments (1): For source apportionment of $PM_{2.5}$, the secondary source was characterized by high loading of SO42-/NO3-/NH4+, which are inorganic aerosol, and the secondary source in manuscript was identified as secondary sulfate plus nitrate. The contribution of secondary organic aerosol was not reflected in the source apportionment. How did the authors consider this issue?

Response: Thank you for pointing out this. In principle, the contribution of SOA cannot be ignored insource apportionment. However, the source of SOA cannot be individually resolved by receptor model due to lack of critical tracers in this study. It should be noted that the SOA maybe mixed in with the factors of secondary sources in this study. Because the medium EV values for OA (16~29%) were presented on secondary sources in three pilot cities. To verify this, two methods were chosen to estimate the concentration of SOA. For the first one, the concentration of SOA can be estimated by a BC-tracer method (Wang et al., 2019) shown as follow:

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

where [] means mass concentration, (OA/BC)_{pri} is the ratio of [OA] to [BC] in primary emission. The (OA/BC)_{pri} ratios vary among sources, a minimum R squired (MRS) method was used to derive appropriate (OA/BC)_{pri} values for three pilot cities in this study. MRS method has been used to calculated the concertation of secondary organic carbon and brown carbon in previous studies (Srivastava et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2019). Detailed information on the method and a validation of this approach can be found in Wang et al. (2019). According to MRS method, the (OA/BC)_{pri} ratios in this study were determined as 4.73 for Xi'an, 3.12 for Shijiazhuang and 7.6 for Beijing, respectively (Fig. R1).

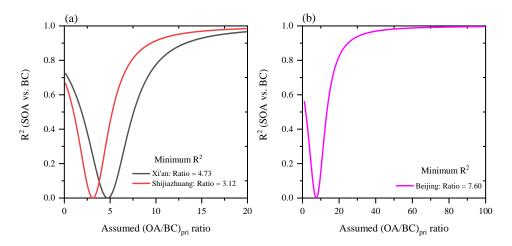


Figure R1. Coefficients of determination (R₂) for SOA versus BC mass concentration plotted against assumed ratios for OA to BC in primary emissions ((OA/BC)_{pri}).

In addition, SOA concentration also can be estimated based on EV values of OA from secondary source factors resolved by HERM model,

 $[SOA]_source apportionment = [OA] \times EV_OA$ (R-2)

where EV_OA represents the EV values of OA in secondary sources factor resolved by HERM model.

The concentrations of SOA from three pilot cities were shown in Table R1 based two different methods. As we can see, the SOA concentrations estimated by EV values of OA are close to that by BC-tracer method for three pilot cities. This indicated SOA was mixed in secondary sources factors.

Table R1 Average concentration SOA in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing during the campaign used BC-tracer and source apportionment method (μ 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

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 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, <u>this factor</u> are characterized by high EV values for SO_4^{2-} (62–75%), NO_3^- (55–53%), NH_4^+ (60–56%) and <u>a medium EV value for OA (23–29%)</u>, which showed good correlations with SO_4^{2-} ($R^2 = 0.85-0.90$) and NO_3^- ($R^2 = 0.85-0.92$) (Dai et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2022). In addition, The OA concentration in this factor was calculated by EV value of OA, which was close to the secondary OA (SOA) concentration estimated by BC-trace 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 is equivalent to the secondary formation source for next discussion." (*Page 10 Line 270–283*)

References:

- Chen, L., Lowenthal, D., Watson, J., Koracin, D., Kumar, N., Knipping, E., Wheeler, N., Craig, K., Reid, S.: Toward effective source apportionment using positive matrix factorization: experiments with simulated PM_{2.5} data. J. Air Waste Manage., 60(1), 43–54, https://doi.org/10.3155/1047-3289.60.1.43, 2010.
- Wang, Q.; Han, Y.; Ye, J.; Liu, S.; Pongpiachan, S.; Zhang, N.; Han, Y.; Tian, J.; Wu, C.; Long, X.; Zhang, Q.; Zhang, W.; Zhao, Z.; Cao, J.: High Contribution of secondary brown carbon to aerosol light absorption in the southeastern margin of Tibetan Plateau. Geophys. Res. Lett. 46, 4962–4970, https://doi.org/10.1029/2019GL082731, 2019.
- Shrivastava, M., Cappa, C., Fan, J., Goldstein, A., Guenther, A., Jimenez, J., Kuang, C., Laskin, A., Martin S., Ng, N., Petaja, T., Pierce, J., Rasch, P., Roldin, P., Senfeld, J., Shiling, J., Smith, J., Thornton, J., Volkamer, R., Wang, J., Worsnop, D., Zaveri, R., Zelenyuk, A., Zhang, Q.: secondary organic aerosol: Implications for global climate forcing. Rev. Geophys., 55, 509–559. https://doi.org/10.1002/2016RG000540, 2017.

Comments (2): In section 3.5, the authors compared the results of $PM_{2.5}$ source apportionment in Beijing in last decades, and those results were all collected from pervious academic studies. In addition, the Beijing Municipal Bureau of Ecology and Environment has also released some official results of $PM_{2.5}$ source apportionment, and the authors can consider adding to those official results in the comparative analysis as well.

Response: Thank you for valuable suggestion. We collected the previous source apportionmentresults of $PM_{2.5}$ in Beijing released by Beijing Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau(BJ-MEEB)inthelastdecade(http://sthjj.beijing.gov.cn/so/s?tab=all&sourceCode=1100000122, in Chinese), and thoseresults were shown in Fig. R2. As shown in Fig. R2, three rounds of $PM_{2.5}$ sourcesapportionment were conducted by BJ-MEEB in last decade.

The sources contributions of coal combustion, industrial source, and fugitive dust to $PM_{2.5}$ has been decreased significantly over the years due to implementation of strict pollution control policies. Similar characteristics of the variation in source contribution were reflected in the comparison of our results with those previous studies. However, the contribution of sources to $PM_{2.5}$ resolved by BJ-MEEB was significantly different to those in our study. The main reasons for this discrepancy include the following:

- The PM_{2.5} source apportionment conducted by BJ-MEEB covered a longer time scale including different seasons. Comparing to our study, our campaigns were focused on wintertime.
- 2) The contribution of secondary sources to PM_{2.5} were allocated to primary sources by BJ-MEEB. This results in a much higher contribution of traffic-related source relative to previous studies. In contrast, this study directly reported the contribution of secondary sources to PM_{2.5}.
- 3) There are differences in the identification and definition of sources in the BJ-MEEB and our study. For instance, biomass burning was identified in this study, but that did not be resolved by BJ-MEEB. What's more, residential source was resolved by BJ-MEEB, but did not appear in our study.

On balance, our source apportionment results and those resolved by BJ-MEEB cannot be directly compared. But there are some common features between the two studies, and this is pointed out in revised manuscript as follow:

"As shown <u>Table S8</u> and Fig. 5d-f, coal combustion decreased remarkably due to the coalrelated policies implementation including the strength of emissions standards for coal-fired power plants, the change of energy sources from coal to natural gas in some industrials, and the coal burning was forbidden in the main urban areas (Shen, 2016; Yang and Teng, 2018). The similar trend was also founded in the results of PM_{2.5} source apportionment in Beijing released by Beijing Municipal Ecology and Environment Bureau (Fig. S19)." (*Page 16 Line* 436–440)

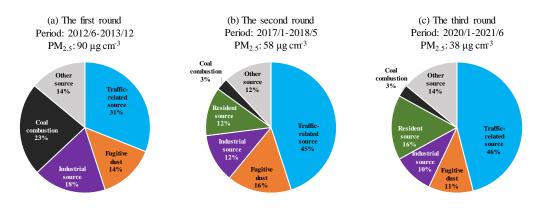


Figure R3. PM_{2.5} sources apportionment in Beijing released by BJ-MEEB in the last decade.

Specific Comments:

Comments (3): line 18: "explore"→ "explored", and delete "progress"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence 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 <u>explored</u> the formation of heavy pollution for policy implications." (*Page 1 Line 16–18*)

Comments (4): line 42-43 : "the China central government implemented the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (APCAP) in September 2013", here change "implemented" to "issue", or change "in September 2013 " to "since September 2013"

Response: We thank to reviewer's suggestion and we have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"Thereafter, aiming to improve air quality, the China central government <u>issued</u> the Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan (APCAP) in September 2013 (http://www.gov.cn/zwgk/2013-09/12/content_2486773.htm, in Chinese), and the Three-year Action Plan to Fight Air Pollution (TAPFAP) in June 2018 (http://www.gov.cn/zhengce/content/2018-07/03/content_5303158.htm, in Chinese)." (*Page 2 Line 42–46*)

Comments (5): line 57 : "improve furtherly" \rightarrow "further improve" Response: Corrected. (*Page 2 Line 58*)

Comments (6): line 85 : change "the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS)" to "China's National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS-II) of 35 μg m-3" **Response:** We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"Its air quality had also improved under the implementation of the Clean Air Plan, whereas its annual $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was still unable to meet the <u>China's</u> National Ambient Air Quality Standards (<u>NAAQS-II) of 35 µg m⁻³</u> until 2021 (Fig. S1)." (*Page 3 Line 85–87*)

Comments (7): line 89 : change "NAAQS" to "NAAQS-II", change "unclear to" to "unclear about"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"And the annual PM_{2.5} concentration in Xi'an could not meet the <u>NAAQS-II</u> until 2021 as well (Fig. S1). Meanwhile, it is still <u>unclear about</u> the actual causes of the pollution, either topography, meteorological conditions, or local emissions (Chen et al., 2021; Tian et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2015, 2022b)." (*Page 3-4 Line 89–92*)

Comments (8): line 233 : "To have a better understanding of " \rightarrow "To better understanding the impact of"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"<u>To better understanding the impact of chemical components</u>, the mass fraction of each component was plotted as a function of the $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration (Fig. 2a–c)." (*Page 9 Line 234–235*)

Comments (9): line 290 : "It should be note that " \rightarrow "It should be noted that " **Response:** Corrected. (*Page 11 Line 301*)

Comments (10): line338: delete "simply" Response: Corrected. (*Page 13 Line 355*)

Comments (11): line 340 : "concentration levels of gas pollutants" \rightarrow "the concentration levels of gaseous pollutants"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"As shown in Table 1, meteorological conditions, <u>the concentration levels of gaseous</u> <u>pollutants</u>, chemical compositions, and source contributions of PM_{2.5} during pollution episodes in three pilot cities are summarized." (*Page 13 Line 357–358*)

Comments (12): line342: "the fresh emissions" \rightarrow "fresh emissions" **Response:** Corrected. (*Page 13 Line 359*)

Comments (13): line 343-344: change "The two dominant chemical components in $PM_{2.5}$ during all pollution episode cases were OA and NO_3 -" to "OA and NO3- were two dominant chemical components in $PM_{2.5}$ during all pollution episode cases"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"OA and NO₃⁻ were the two dominant chemical components in PM_{2.5} during all pollution episode cases with fractions of 26–40% and 23–32%, respectively." (*Page 13 Line 360–361*)

Comments (14): line 345: "by the prohibiting of" \rightarrow "because of the prohibiting of"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"Their high abundances could be explained by the significant reduction of SO_2 emissions <u>because of</u> the prohibiting of burning bulk coals and executing the "Coal-to-Natural Gas" policy in recent years (Meng et al., 2022)." (*Page 13 Line 361–363*)

Comments (15): line352: change "To profoundly understand" to "To gain insights into"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"<u>To gain insights into the process</u> 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 (16): line354-355: The sentences of "For the first type of episode represented by EP4 (Fig. S14), a two-stages evolution was distinguished" was awkward, please rewrite. **Response:** We have rewritten the relevant sentence as follows:

"The two-stage evolution was distinguished for EP4 as an example of the first type of episode (Fig. S16)" (*Page 14 Line 371–372*)

Comments (17): line358: "demand" \rightarrow "activities"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"in which the concentrations (fractions) of biomass burning increased from 0.6 μ g m⁻³ (7%) to 36.7 μ g m⁻³ (55%) due to heating <u>activities</u> during nighttime." (*Page 14 Line 375–376*)

Comments (18): line366: "predominant" \rightarrow "the predominant"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"At Stage 1, the PM_{2.5} concentration gradually increased from 11 to 30 μ g m⁻³, as well as NO₂ (from 15 to 59 μ g m⁻³, Fig. <u>S17</u>d) due to the boosts of <u>the predominant</u> contributions of

vehicle emission and biomass burning (Fig. <u>S17</u>g and h). In the meantime, the contribution of coal combustion also slowly increased along with SO₂ (Fig. <u>S17</u>d and h)." (*Page 14 Line 383–386*)

Comments (19): line368: add "in the study period" after "wind speed"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"At Stage 2, under the lowest average wind speed in the study period ($0.7\pm0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$, <u>Fig.</u> <u>S17b</u>), the PM_{2.5} mass concentrations moderately increased from 30 to 91 µg m⁻³ with relatively stable chemical composition and source contribution (<u>Fig. S17f</u> and h)." (*Page 14 Line 386–388*)

Comments (20): line372: "In which" cannot be used at the beginning of a sentence.

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"Furthermore, the greatest increase of sources concentrations (contribution) was secondary formation source from 18.9 μg m⁻³ (48%) to 120.6 μg m⁻³ (80%)." (*Page 14 Line 391–392*)

Comments (21): line376: "while" \rightarrow "in which"

Response: Corrected. (*Page 14 Line 395*)

Comments (22): line 380: "contributed" \rightarrow "attributed"

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"The PM_{2.5} increases can be also <u>attributed</u> to the raise of <u>secondary formation source</u> (25.3 μ g m⁻³) and biomass burning (14.4 μ g m⁻³)." (*Page 14 Line 399–401*)

Comments (23): line383&385 : "with dominant increase of..." \rightarrow "with a dominant increase of ..."

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"At Stage 3, PM_{2.5} mass continuously increased to 139 μ g m⁻³ with <u>a</u> dominant increase of primary sources emission including biomass burning (29.0 μ g m⁻³), vehicle emission (21.5 μ g m⁻³) and coal combustion (16.5 μ g m⁻³) along with the increases of SO₂ and NO₂ as well (Fig. <u>S18</u>d)." (*Page 14 Line 402–405*)

Comments (24): line390: "event" \rightarrow "events"

Response: Corrected. (*Page 15 Line 411*)

Comments (25): line 394 : " plays more important role " \rightarrow " plays a more important role" and "in which" is not appropriate here

Response: We deleted 'in which' and rewritten the relevant sentence as follows:

"What's more, aqueous-phase reaction plays<u>a</u> more important role than photochemical oxidation." (*Page 15 Line 414–415*)

Comments (26): line396: "priority" \rightarrow "the priority" **Response:** Corrected. (*Page 15 Line 417*)

Comments (27): line397: "reducing" \rightarrow "reduce", "precursors" \rightarrow "the precursors" **Response:** Corrected. (*Page 15 Line 418*)

Comments (28): line 405 : change "... This led a decrease of..." to ", which lead a decrease of..."

Response: We have corrected the relevant sentence as follows:

"This could be attributed to the reduction in coal consumption due to clean energy replacement and the increase of vehicle ownership, which lead a decrease of the SO₂ and an increase of NO₂ (Wang et al., 2013)." (*Page 16 Line 425–427*)

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 sulfatesecondary 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 sulfatesecondary formation source and aerosol 26 liquid water content (ALWC), and $O_x (O_3 + NO_2)$, 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 sulfatesecondary 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 $\leq 2.5 \mu m$) 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, PM2.5 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 and central China in January 2013 with peak value of PM_{2.5} concentration over 500 µg m⁻³. This month had been 41 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/zwgk/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., 2020a, 2017; Li et al., 2020). Previous studies show that PM_{2.5} concentration decreased notably in past two decades, 48 and the composition of organic aerosol (OA), black carbon (BC) and sulfate (SO_4^{2-}) decreased as well, while the 49 50 ammonium (NH4⁺) slightly increased and nitrate (NO3⁻) increased obviously. In perspective terms of PM2.5 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 μ g m⁻³) by the World Health Organization (https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/345329/9789240034228-eng.pdf, page 78). In 56 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 hightime-resolution technologies (Li et al., 2017c; Wang et al., 2021a; Elser et al., 2015). Compared to traditional offline 62 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-timeresolution online PM2.5 data to accurately quantify and distinguish the source distributions in Beijing during two haze 67 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 capital of China and its air quality has significantly improved under the implementation of the strictest clean air 81 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 was recognized as one of the most serious air pollution cities worldwide (Liu et al., 2018b; Huang et al., 2019). Its 84 85 air quality had also improved under the implementation of the Clean Air Plan, whereas its annual PM2.5 concentration was still unable to meet the China's National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS-II) of 35 µg m⁻³ until 2021 86 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 PM2.5

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., 2021; Tian et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2015, 2022b). In this study, we conducted intensive real-time observation of 92 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 December 12th 2020 to January 7th 2021 in Xi'an, December 20th 2021 to January 24th 2022 in Shijiazhuang, and 112 January 17th 2021 to February 20th 2021 in Beijing). 113

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 (O-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 µm critical orifice at 0.1 L min⁻¹ and were focused into a narrow beam by an aerodynamic intermediate pressure lens. 122 123 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, Massachusetts, USA) compiled with Igor Pro 6.37 (Wavemetrics, Lake Oswego, OR, USA). The response factors 130 (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, 131 and the relative ionization efficiencies (RIEs) for NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} were set as 8.06 and 0.83 in Xi'an, 5.82 and 0.30 132 in Shijiazhuang, 6.31 and 0.38 in Beijing, respectively. Other RIEs for NO₃⁻, OA, and Cl⁻ were set as default values 133 134 of 1.4, 1.1, and 1.3, respectively (Ng et al., 2011). In addition, the collection efficiency (CE) value of Q-ACSM equipped with a PM_{2.5} lens was recommended as 1 based on laboratory simulation experiments by Xu et al. (2017). 135 136 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**

BC concentration in PM_{2.5} was obtained by an Aethalometer (Model AE33, Magee Scientific Inc., Berkeley, CA, USA) with a 1-minute time resolution. The AE33 monitors the light attenuation of seven wavelengths ($\lambda = 370, 470,$ 525, 590, 660, 880, and 940 nm), and the light attenuation at $\lambda = 880$ nm was used to calculate BC concentration (Wang et al., 2019; Drinovec et al., 2015). Briefly, the ambient air was first sampled on a filter tape inside the instrument through a PM_{2.5} cyclone (SCC-1.829, BGI Inc., USA) at a flowrate of 5 L min⁻¹. The entering particles were divided into two sample spots on the filter through two channels with different follows. Then the light attenuation transmitted through two parallel spots was detected. For quality accuracies of monitoring, the sampled particles were desiccated with a Nafion[®] dryer (MD-700-24F-3; Perma Pure, Inc., Lakewood, NJ, USA) before entering the AE33. Furthermore, a real-time loading effect compensation algorithm based on two spots measurement was used to eliminate the nonlinear loading effects of the Aethalometer. A detailed description of the Model AE33 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, 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 153 154 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, respectively. Finally, Si, K, Ca, Ti, Cr, Mn, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn, As, Se, Ba, and Pb were selected for further analysis. The 156 157 description and detection principles of Xact625 were introduced by Furger et al. (2020) and Rai et al. (2020). In brief, the ambient air stream was firstly sampled on a Teflon filter tape inside the instrument through a PM_{2.5} cyclone inlet 158 at a constant flow rate of 16.7 L min⁻¹, and then the sample was automatically analyzed by nondestructive energy-159 160 dispersive X-ray fluorescence (XRF) to determine the mass of the species. For quality control and assurance, the Xact625 performed automatic internal quality control by testing the Pd rod every hour to ensure the stability of the 161 162 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 sampling periods, the concentration of Pd varies within 3 standard deviations (Fig. S3), illustrating the reliable and 164 165 stable performance of the Xact625.

166 **2.2.4 Complementary data**

Online hourly concentrations of PM_{2.5} and gas pollutants (i.e., NO_x, NO₂, CO, SO₂, and O₃) were acquired from the National Air Quality Monitoring Station (<u>https://air.cnemc.cn:18007/</u>). Meteorological parameters, including wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), relative humidity (RH), and temperature (T) were obtained from National Meteorological Station (<u>http://data.cma.cn/</u>). 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
$$[MD] = 2.20 \times [AI] + 2.49 \times [Si] + 1.63 \times [Ca] + 2.42 \times [Fe] + 1.94 \times [Ti]$$
 (1)

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

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

183 **2.3.2 Hybrid environment receptor model**

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

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

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

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

where *M*, *N*, and *I* are the number of samples, chemical species, and sources, respectively; $\sigma_{F_{mi}}$ represents the error in the variability in the constrained factor profile. δ_{mi} was set to 0 or 1 depending on whether the *i*th factor profile 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. Details of selected chemical species and its uncertainty calculation was described in Text S1 in the Supplement. A 200 201 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 for Xi'an and Shijiazhuang and an eight-factor solution for Beijing were found to be the optimal solution based on 203 204 multiple criteria including 1) variations in Q/Q_{exp} which can be used to choose the optimal number of resolved factors, 2) physical meaningfulness of distinct factor profiles and explained variation (EV) values of variables, 3) good 205 206 correlations between sources contribution and external and internal tracers, and 4) agreement between the measured 207 and modeled PM2.5 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

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

216 **3. Results and discussion**

217 **3.1** – Characteristics of PM_{2.5} and its chemical components

218 Figure 1 illustrates the mass composition of PM_{2.5} in three pilot cities during the sampling periods, and their concentrations levels are summarized in Table S4. The average PM2.5 concentrations in Xi'an, Beijing, and 219 Shijiazhuang were $77\pm47 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$, $64\pm57 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$, and $60\pm39 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$, respectively. It is noted that the average PM_{2.5} 220 221 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 compositions of PM2.5 were similar in Beijing and Shijiazhuang (Fig. 1b and c) which was mainly composed of OA 223 (26.9–34.2%), followed by NO₃⁻ (23.6–26.5%), SO₄²⁻ (11.8–15.0%), NH₄⁺ (11.8–14.8%), MD (7.4–10.1%), BC (2.9– 224 6.5%), and Cl⁻ (1.1–4.8%). However, in Xi'an, MD contributed in comparison more to PM_{2.5} (17.3%), while SO₄²⁻ 225

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 \pm 0.08, see Table S5), indicating weak efficiency of the second generation of SO₄²⁻. The sum of SO4²⁻, NO3⁻, and NH4⁺ accounted for 39.0–53.0% of PM_{2.5} in three pilot cities, highlighting the importance of 229 230 the secondary inorganic components in northern China. In addition, the fractions of BC, Cl⁻, and TE in 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 solid fuels combustion and tightening the industrial emission standards in and near the capital city of China (Li et al., 232 233 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 PM2.5 mass concentration (Fig. 2a-c). The two dominant components of PM2.5 were OA 236 (25.7-38.0%) and MD (19.9-37.1%) while the PM_{2.5} concentrations were below 40 µg m⁻³. The faction of OA in 237 PM_{2.5} was the highest in Shijiazhuang and Beijing, while MD contributed most to 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 PM2.5 mass 239 concentration, the fractions of chemical components in Xi'an and Shijiazhuang changed notably. The factions of OA 240 and NO_3^- increased the most and reached the peaks of 40.1% and 28.7%, respectively, when the PM_{2.5} concentration reached ~196 µg m⁻³ in Xi'an. On the contrary, NO3⁻ and SO4²⁻ were two dominant drivers of increasing PM_{2.5} 241 concentrations in Shijiazhuang, showing peak contributions of 32.5% and 18.7%, respectively, when the PM_{2.5} 242 243 concentration was over 100 µg m⁻³. Compared to Xi'an and Shijiazhuang, Beijing had relatively stable fractions of 244 each chemical component with increasing $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. Particularly, the fractions of OA and NO_3^- 245 contributed dominantly with averages of $33.3\pm3.0\%$ and $25.3\pm2.5\%$, respectively, when the PM_{2.5} > 40 µg m⁻³.

246 **3.2 Source apportionment of PM_{2.5}**

Six potential sources, including biomass burning, fugitive dust, industrial emission, coal combustion, vehicle emission, and secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source, were resolved by the HERM analysis. In Beijing, secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source was furtherly divided into secondary nitrate plus OA and secondary sulfate plus OA. A special pollution source of firework was separated due to the Chinese Spring Festival (from New Year's Eve to January 3rd in the lunar calendar). Figures S6–S8 present the sources profiles and contributions in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing, respectively. Biomass burning features high Explained Variation (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 Shijiazhang 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 NO_2 in three cities ($R^2 = 0.45-0.78$), 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%), NO ₃ ⁻ (55-53%), NH ₄ ⁺ (60-56%) and a medium EV value for OA (23-29%), which showed good
273	correlations with SO_4^{2-} (R ² = 0.85–0.90) and NO_3^{-} (R ² = 0.85–0.92) (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 $NO_3^{-}(58\%)$, NH_4^{+} (42%) and medium values for OA
278	(21%), another one was characterized by high EV value for $SO_4^{2-}(58\%)$, and medium values for OA (16%), NH_4^{\pm}
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 OAthe
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 sulfatesecondary formation source for next discussion. Additionally, the source of firework

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

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. 286 287 <u>\$9\$10</u>) 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 PM2.5 were significantly higher than those of the source of secondary nitrate plus 290 sulfatesecondary formation source in Xi'an and Shijiazhuang, indicating the PM2.5 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 PM2.5 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 PM2.5 pollution in these cities. In contrast, the contribution of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary 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. <u>\$10\$11</u>). 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 elements such as Al, Si, Ca, Ti and Fe (Chow et al., 2015). These mineral elements in PM2.5 comes from more 304 305 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 sulfatesecondary formation source (32.1%) and fugitive

dust (31.4%) in Xi'an, coal combustion (24.9%) and vehicle emission (21.3%) in Shijiazhuang, and secondary nitrate

- 310 plus sulfatesecondary formation source (24.3%) and fugitive dust (23.8%) in Beijing, when the PM_{2.5} mass
- 311 concentration <40 μ g m⁻³. In Xi'an, when the PM_{2.5} mass concentrations exceeded 180 μ g m⁻³, the contribution of

biomass burning raised mostly and reached the peak of 38.4%, demonstrating that biomass burning plays an important role in worsening of air quality in Xi'an. On the contrary, the contributions of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source increased mostly in comparison to other sources in Shijiazhuang and Beijing, indicating the $PM_{2.5}$ pollution was mainly dominated by the secondary aerosol formations during the wintertime. And the peak contributions of secondary nitrate and sulfate were 66.5% and 74,7% while the $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentration increased to 113 µg m⁻³ and 223 µg 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 sulfatesecondary formation source. The concentration of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation 321 <u>source</u> is standardized by dividing background corrected CO (Δ CO) to –weaken impact of planetary boundary layer height (PBLH) (DeCarlo et al., 2010). In this study, ∆CO is defined as the 1.25th percentile of CO concentration 322 323 during the campaign, which are 0.17, 0.15, and 0.16 ppm in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing, respectively. O_x (NO₂ 324 $+ O_3$) is an indicator of the photochemical oxidation degree (Wood et al., 2010). The function between secondary 325 nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source/ ΔCO ratio and O_x during the daytime (i.e., 08:00-17:00 LST) (Fig. 326 S11S12) 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 sulfatesecondary formation source/ Δ CO and O_x (R² = 0.83–0.99) 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 highest atmospheric oxidation capacity was found in Beijing, inferring by the highest fraction of O₃ to O_x. This is 331 332 consistent with the highest contribution of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source to PM25 in 333 Beijing during the daytime (Fig. S12aS13a-c).

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 (R² = 0.81-0.98, Fig. S14). The correlations of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source/ Δ CO ratio and ALWC during nighttime-all sampling 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-the secondary formation sourcenitrate plus sulfate/ Δ CO showed a significant linear correlation to ALWC (R² = 0.8192-0.9599) when RH < 341 342 80% (Fig. 4), indicating an obvious effect of aqueous-phase reaction on the secondary aerosol formation during the nighttimesampling periods. However, when RH >80%, the secondary formation sourcenitrate plus sulfate/ ΔCO 343 344 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 345 aerosol acidity (Huang et al., 2019; Meng et al., 2014). Khan et al. (2008) found that NO3 radicals can rapidly generate 346 347 from the reaction between NO₂ and O₃ with unsaturated organic species during nighttime. The value of $O_3 \times NO_2$ 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 sourcenitrate plus sulfate to PM2.5 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. $\frac{813aS15a}{c}$). 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 two dominant chemical components in PM_{2.5} 361 during all pollution episode cases were OA and NO_{3-7} 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 sulfatesecondary 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 understandgain 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 μ g m⁻³ under stable weather conditions inferring by low wind speed (1.8±0.8 m s⁻¹, Fig. 375 S14bS16b), in which the concentrations (fractions) of biomass burning increased from 0.6 µg m⁻³ (7%) to 36.7 µg m⁻¹ 376 ³ (55%) due to heating demand-activities during nighttime. Meanwhile, the chemical composition was relatively 377 stable and dominated by OA ($31\pm5\%$) and NO₃ ($21\pm5\%$). At Stage 2, the PM_{2.5} mass concentration continuously 378 increased to 105 µg m⁻³ in a few hours along with the most notable abundance of the source of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source, which concentration (contribution) rapidly increased from 2.3 µg m⁻³ (4%) to 379 380 54.4 µg m⁻³ (52%) (Fig. S14g S16g and h). This is due to the aqueous-phase reactions effect inferring by the rapid increase in ALWC (from 16 µg m⁻³ to 78 µg m⁻³, Fig. S14eS16c) and RH (from 51% to 79%, Fig. S14aS16a). 381

382 In contrast, a three-stages evolution was discriminated for the second type of episode, using EP7 as an example (Fig. S15S17). At Stage 1, the PM_{2.5} concentration gradually increased from 11 to 30 μ g m⁻³, as well as NO₂ (from 15 to 383 384 59 µg m⁻³, Fig. S15dS17d) due to the boosts of the predominant contributions of vehicle emission and biomass burning (Fig. <u>S15g-S17g</u> and h). In the meantime, the contribution of coal combustion also slowly increased along 385 386 with SO₂ (Fig. S15d-S17d and h). At Stage 2, under the lowest average wind speed in the study period (0.7±0.4 m s⁻ ¹, Fig. <u>S15bS17b</u>), the PM_{2.5} mass concentrations moderately increased from 30 to 91 µg m⁻³ with relatively stable 387 388 chemical composition and source contribution (Fig. S15f-S17f and h). Compared to Stage 1, the fractions of NO₃⁻ 389 increased mostly from $9\pm3\%$ to $23\pm3\%$, this is probably influenced by photochemical oxidations inferring by relative 390 high O_x and NO₂ concentration (Fig. S15c S17c and d). At Stage 3, the PM_{2.5} mass concentration rapidly rose to 142 391 µg m⁻³ and then remained stable. Furthermore, the In which greatest increase of sources the concentrations 392 (fractionscontribution) of was secondary nitrate plus sulfate secondary formation source increased mostly from 18.9 μg m⁻³ (48%) to 120.6 μg m⁻³ (80%). This might be due to the occurrence of an aqueous-phase reaction, which was 393 394 indicated by the elevation of RH and ALWC (Fig. S15a-S17a and c).

Figure S16 illustrates the third type of episode using EP2 as an example, while in which a four-stages evolution was resolved. At Stage 1, the PM_{2.5} mass concentration $(14\pm3 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ was relatively low and dominated by the

397 contributions of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source $(43\pm17\%)$ and fugitive dust $(24\pm8\%)$, as 398 well as MD (28±7%) and OA (26±7%). At Stage 2, the PM2.5 mass concentrations promptly increased from 21 to 82 399 μ g m⁻³, with the two dominant chemical components of OA (21.7 μ g m⁻³) and NO₃⁻ (17.1 μ g m⁻³). The PM_{2.5} increases 400 can be also contributed attributed to the raise of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source (25.3 µg 401 m⁻³) and biomass burning (14.4 µg m⁻³). The enhancement of secondary aerosol was probably generated through the 402 aqueous-phase reaction evidenced by the increase of ALWC and NO2 (Fig. S16e-S18c and d). At Stage 3, PM2.5 mass continuously increased to 139 µg m⁻³ with <u>a</u> dominant increase of primary sources emission including biomass 403 burning (29.0 µg m⁻³), vehicle emission (21.5 µg m⁻³) and coal combustion (16.5 µg m⁻³) along with the increases of 404 SO_2 and NO_2 as well (Fig. <u>S16-S18d</u>). The three primary sources contributed >60% of the total resolved sources. 405 Meanwhile, the secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source also increased slowly through aqueous-406 407 phase reaction inferring by increase of ALWC (Fig. S16eS18c). At the final Stage 4, the PM2.5 mass concentration 408 maintained relatively stable with an average of 142±11 µg m⁻³, dominated by sources of secondary nitrate plus 409 sulfatesecondary formation source $(34\pm6\%)$ and biomass burning $(28\pm6\%)$; and chemical components of OA $(36\pm4\%)$ 410 and NO_3^- (25±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 reduceing emissions of the precursors from secondary sources, with a focus on NO_x and volatile organic 419 compounds (VOCs).

420 **3.5 Policy implications**

In past decades, the air quality in China improved notably under the implementation of air pollution control policies including APCAP and TAPFAP. The $PM_{2.5}$ mass in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang and Beijing were the lowest during campaigns compared with those in last decades (Table <u>S6S7</u>). The variations of the chemical composition and the source 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 reaction and photochemical oxidation) of the precursors (i.e., NO₂, VOCs) is the primary source for the OA and NO₃⁻ 428 429 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 NO_3^- 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 NH_4^+ 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 implementation including the strength of emissions standards for coal-fired power plants, the change of energy 437 438 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 contribution increased from 9% in 2014 to 25% in 2020 (Xi'an), from 3% in 2015 to 24% in 2022 (Shijiazhuang), 446 447 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

as reduction of O_3 formation, to reduce the formation of secondary pollutants which are now identified as the most critical drivers of pollution. Considering those factors, it is also important to promote the mitigation of *both* PM_{2.5} and O₃.

457 **4.** Conclusion

458 The intensive real-time measurement campaigns about PM2.5 chemical components were conducted in Xi'an, 459 Shijiazhuang, and Beijing during the wintertime respectively. Chemical compositions of PM2.5 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 sulfatesecondary 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.

The possible formation mechanism of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source in three pilot cities was explored. The results showed that secondary aerosols were generated by both photochemical oxidation and aqueous-phase reaction. Meanwhile, the formation rate of secondary aerosols in Beijing was higher than that in Xi'an and Shijiazhuang. Furthermore, the eight pollution episodes within the sampling periods were categorized three types and characterized respectively. The dominant chemical compositions of $PM_{2.5}$ were OA (26–40%) and NO_3^- (23– 32%) during all pollution episodes. Furthermore, secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source and biomass burning were two major derivers of the pollution.

The dominant chemical components of $PM_{2.5}$ in pilot cities have changed from OA and SO_4^{2-} to OA and NO_3^{-} under the implementation of a clean air plan in past decades. This indicates that reduction of precursors including NO_2 and VOCs should be a key task in the future. In addition, the contribution of biomass burning increased, especially in Xi'an. This indicates that clean energy for heating activities in rural areas in northwest China is still insufficient. Furthermore, to weaken the atmosphere atmospheric oxidation capacity for reducing the contribution of secondary nitrate plus sulfatescondary formation source, it is necessary to promote the collaborative control on ozone and 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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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,	WSW	NNW	NNW	NNW	NNE	NNW,	NNE,
	WNW						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
$SO_2(\mu g m^{-3})$	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	NO ₃ ⁻ (24%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (24%)	OA (26%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (23%)	OA (26%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (26%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (26%)	NO ₃ ⁻ (23%)
composition								
Dominant	BB (30%)	SF (34%)	SF (39%)	BB (40%)	SF (70%)	SF (62%)	SF (61%)	BB (38%)
source contribution ^b	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%)

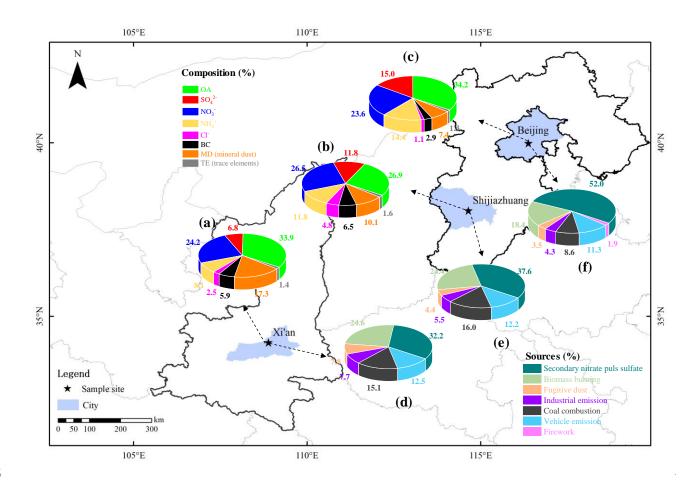
^a WSW : west-southwest; WNW : west-northwest; NNW : north-northwest; NNE : north-northeast; ENE : East-northeast

^b BB: biomass burning; <u>SNpSSF</u>: secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source; CC: coal combustion; VE: vehicle emission

876 Figure captions:

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

- Figure 2. Mass fractions of chemical components (a-c) and sources contribution (d-f) with reconstructed PM_{2.5}
 concentration in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing.
- Figure 3. Correlations of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source/ Δ CO 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 (Δ O_x = 5 ppb).
- 884 Figure 4. Correlation of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary 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 ALWCO_{*} in each bin. In Xi'an, each bin is 5 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 5 μ g m⁻³). In Shijiazhuang, each bin is 5 μ g m⁻³ 887 $(\Delta ALWC = 5 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ when ALWC ranged from 0 to 75 $\mu g \ m^{-3}$, but 25 $\mu g \ m^{-3} \ (\Delta ALWC = 25 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ for ALWC 888 ranged from 75 to 200 µg m⁻³ due to limitations in data. In Beijing, each bin is 5 µg m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 5 µg m⁻³) when 889 ALWC ranged from 0 to 50 μ g m⁻³, but 100 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 100 μ g m⁻³) for ALWC ranged from 50 to 900 μ g m⁻³ 890 ³ due to limitations in data. 891
- Figure 5. Summary of $PM_{2.5}$ and its composition (a, b, c) and source contribution (d, e, f) in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing in winter in past decades. Where * represents the result of this study. The data and references used for this figure are listed in Table S5 and S7.



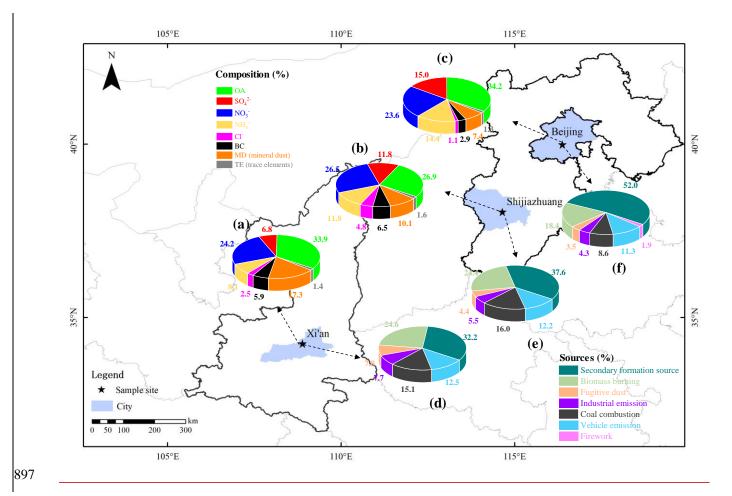


Figure 1. Chemical composition and source apportionment results of $PM_{2.5}$ in three pilot cities of northern China during the sampling period.

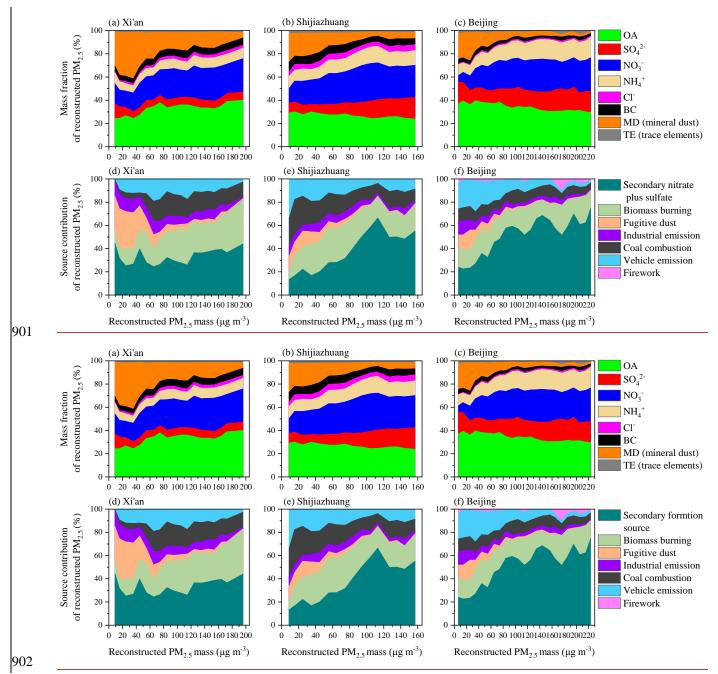


Figure 2. Mass fractions of chemical components (a-c) and sources contribution (d-f) with reconstructed PM_{2.5}
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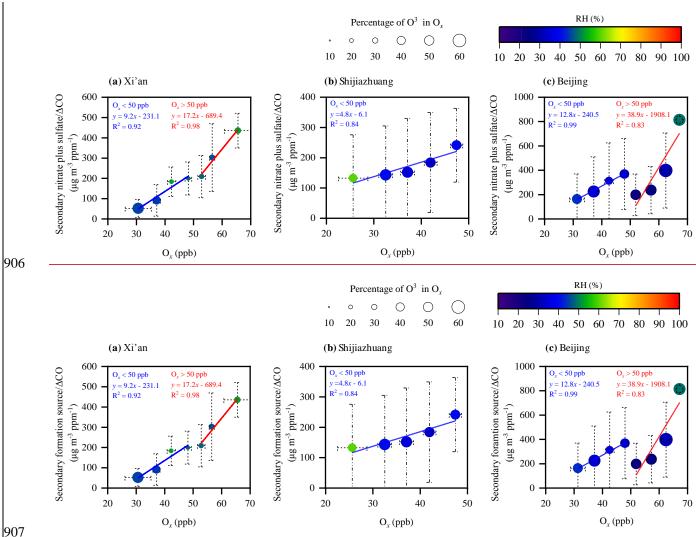
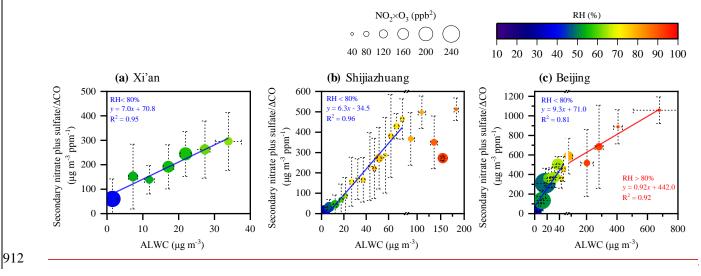
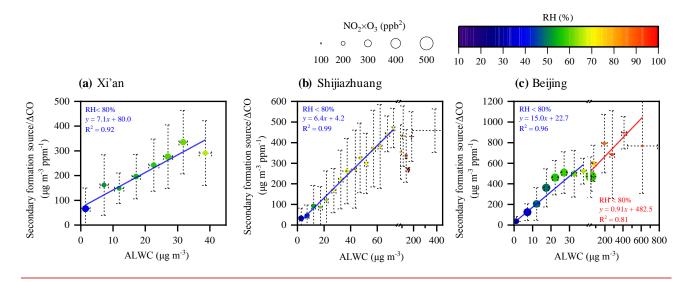


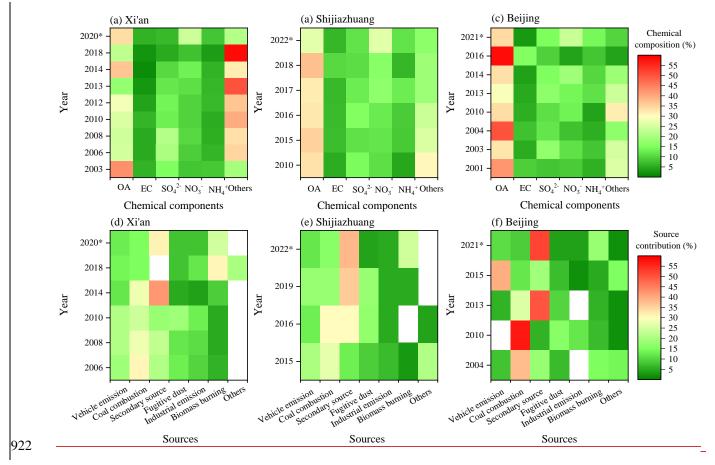
Figure 3. Correlations of secondary nitrate plus sulfate secondary formation source/ Δ CO and O_x mixing ratio in (a) 908 909 Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing. Each point and its error bar represent the mean and standard deviation in 910 each bin ($\Delta O_x = 5$ ppb).







914 Figure 4. Correlation of secondary nitrate plus sulfatesecondary formation source/ Δ CO 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 ALWCO_{*} in each bin. In Xi'an, each bin is 5 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 5 μ g m⁻³). In Shijiazhuang, each bin is 5 μ g m⁻³ 917 $(\Delta ALWC = 5 \ \mu g \ m^{-3})$ when ALWC ranged from 0 to 75 $\mu g \ m^{-3}$, but 25 $\mu g \ m^{-3}$ ($\Delta ALWC = 25 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) for ALWC 918 919 ranged from 75 to 200 μ g m⁻³ due to limitations in data. In Beijing, each bin is 5 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 5 μ g m⁻³) when ALWC ranged from 0 to 50 μ g m⁻³, but 100 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 100 μ g m⁻³) for ALWC ranged from 50 to 900 μ g m⁻³ 920 921 ³ due to limitations in data.



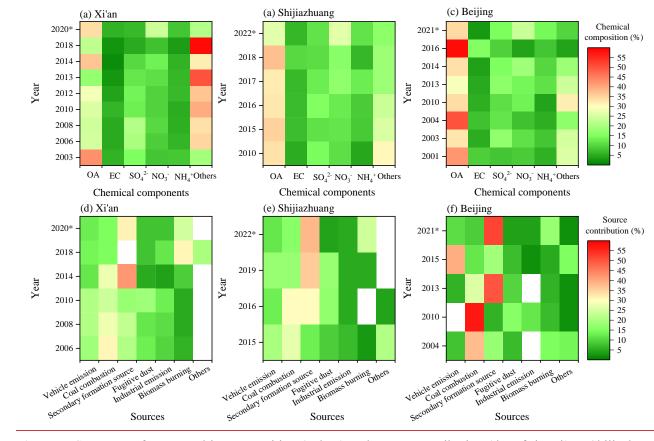


Figure 5. Summary of $PM_{2.5}$ and its composition (a, b, c) and source contribution (d, e, f) in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing in winter in past decades. Where * represents the result of this study, and the empty white area means no data. The data and references used for this figure are listed in Table <u>S6-S7</u> and <u>S7S8</u>.

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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16 Text S1. Selcation of inputted HERM chemical species and its uncertainty calculation

Considering the validity and credibility of monitoring data, chemical species including OA, NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺,
Cl⁻, and BC were all selected to input HERM model for three pilot cities. For inorganic elements, Si, K, Ca, Cr, Mn,
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
Pb in Shijiazhuang were selected for source apportionment, respectively.

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

24
$$Unc_i = \sqrt{(C_i \times E_i)^2 + (0.5 \times MDL_i)^2}$$
 (1)

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

$$28 \quad Unc = \frac{5}{6} \times MDL \tag{2}$$

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 factor number solution was determined by examining the ratio of Q and expected Q (Qexp). The Qexp in HERM was 33 34 equal to (samples \times species – factors \times (samples + species) + the number of constrained source profiles). As shown in Fig. S5, the value of Q/Qexp decreased with the increase of the factor number, which suggests increasing the factor 35 36 number could lead to a better explanation of the variance by HERM. However, the utility of increasing factors declined with the number of factors. Too many factors could cause splitting profiles, although the Q/Qexp may be 37 38 desirable (Liu et al., 2021; Salameh et al., 2018, 2016). Thus, the drops of Q/Qexp ($\Delta Q/Qexp$) 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 $\Delta Q/Q_{exp}$ shows a relatively stable change trend. A six-factor solution is 41 preferable because $\Delta Q/Q_{exp}$ 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, 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 51 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 $[SOA]_{BC-tracer} = [OA] - (OA/BC)_{pri} \times [BC]$ (S-1) 57 where [] means mass concentration, (OA/BC)_{pri} is the ratio of [OA] to [BC] in primary emission. The

58 (OA/BC)_{pri} ratios vary among sources, therefore, a minimum R squired (MRS) method was used to derive 59 appropriate (OA/BC)_{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. $[SOA]_{source apportionment} = [OA] \times EV_{OA}$ 64 (S-2)

- where EV OA represents the EV values of OA in secondary sources factors resolved by HERM model. 65 66 As shown in Fig. S9, the (OA/BC)_{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 67
- 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
- 71

factors.

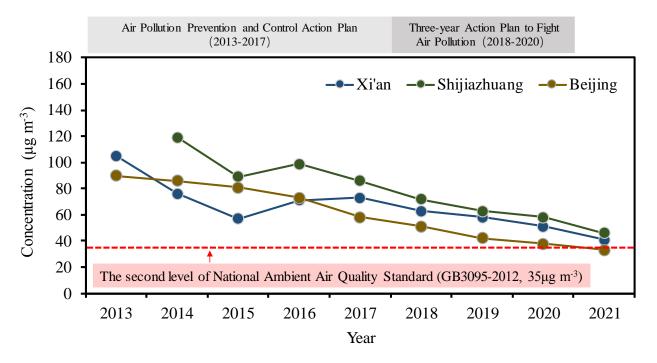


Figure S1. Annual average concentration of PM_{2.5} from 2013 to 2021 in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing. (The data are from the website of the local Ecological Environment Bureau, Xi'an: <u>http://xaepb.xa.gov.cn/</u>, Shijiazhuang:
 <u>https://sthij.sjz.gov.cn/</u>, Beijing: <u>http://sthij.beijing.gov.cn/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

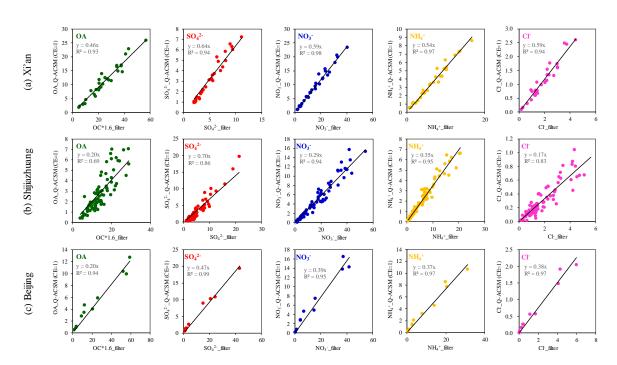


Figure S2. Correction of chemical components measured by Q-ACSM in different cities. During the campaigns, offline filter samples were simultaneously sampled for the correction. In summary, 29 offline samples in Xi'an, 83 offline samples in Shijiazhuang, and 10 offline samples in Beijing were sampled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

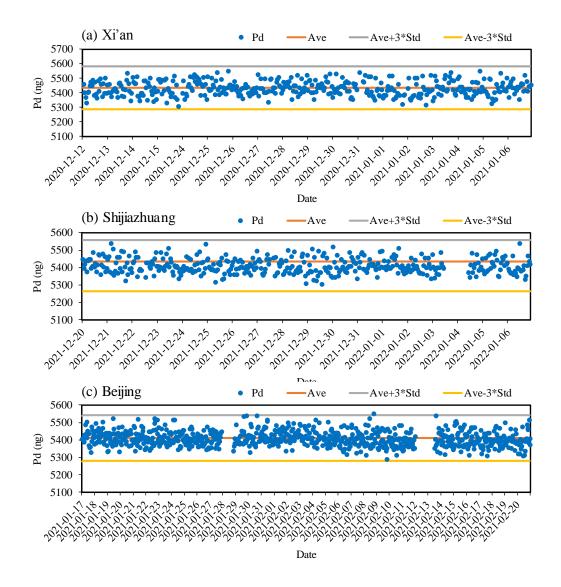


Figure S3. Concentration of the internal standard element (Pd) of Xact625 during sampling periods in (a) Xi'an,
(b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing.

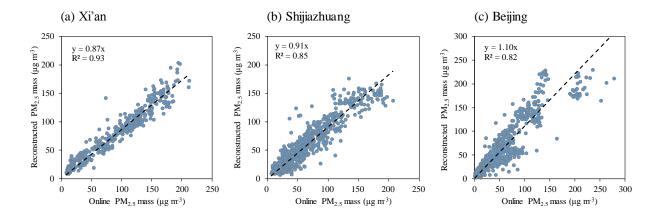


Figure S4. Correlation of online and reconstructed PM_{2.5} concentration in (a) Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing
 during the campaigns. The online PM_{2.5} mass data in the X axis from national monitor stations near sampling sites.

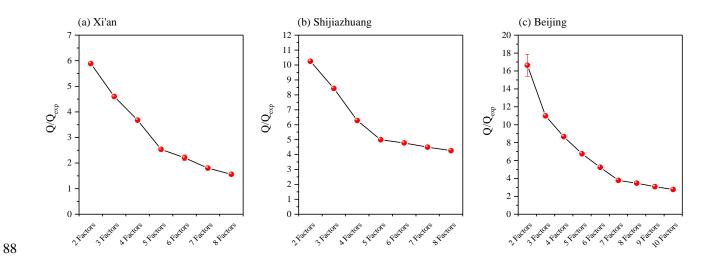
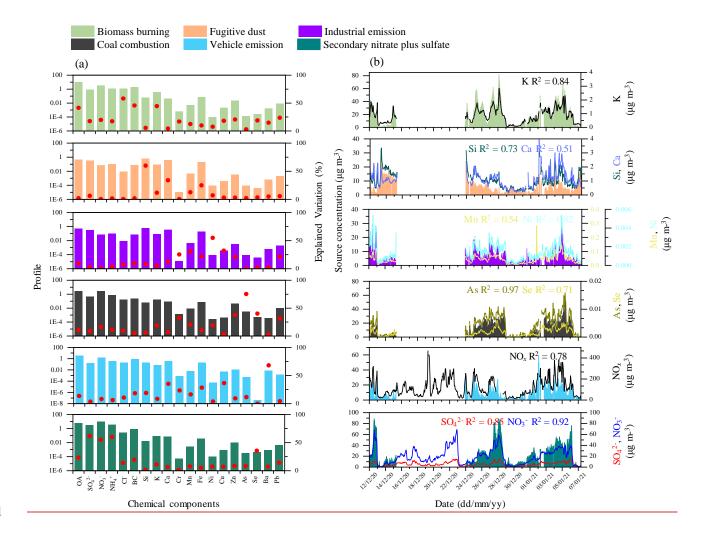
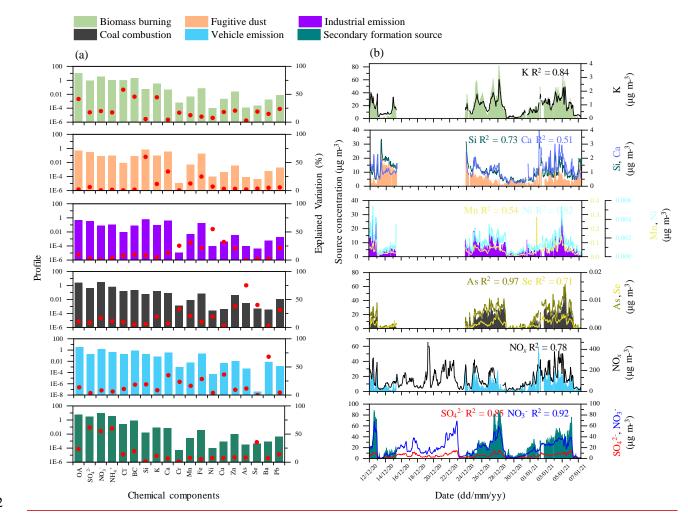


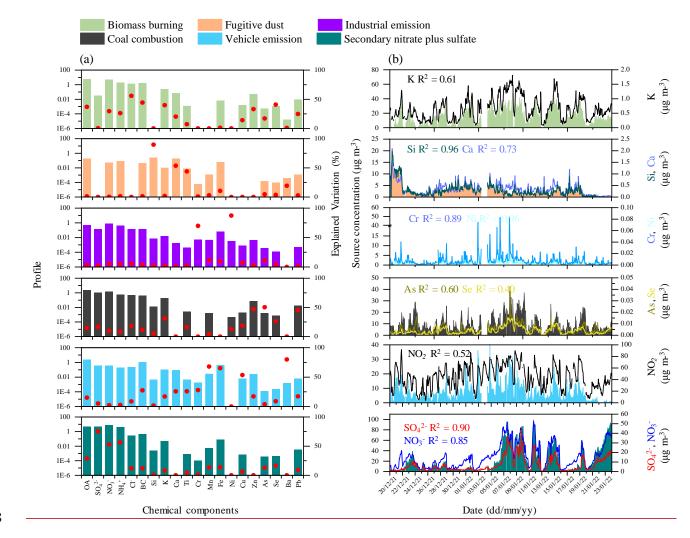
Figure S5. Values of Q/Q_{exp} for the unconstrained profile solutions with two to ten factors based on thirty runs in (a)
Xi'an, (b) Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing, respectively.





92

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 sulfate formation source. The corresponding time trends of chemical tracers are also shown.



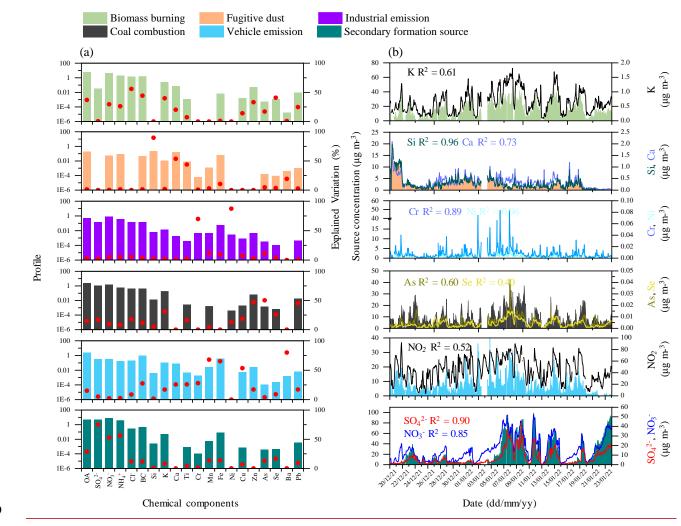
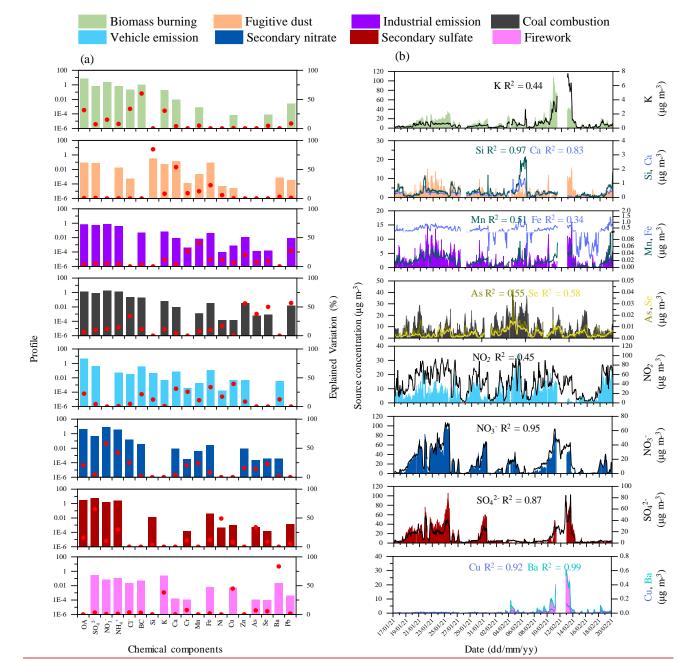


Figure S7. (a) Sources profiles obtained from HERM with a six-factor solution in Shijiazhuang, the columns in each factor are the profile that displays the relative relation of the absolute values of variables. The red dot represents the explained variation (EV) in species for different factors. (b)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



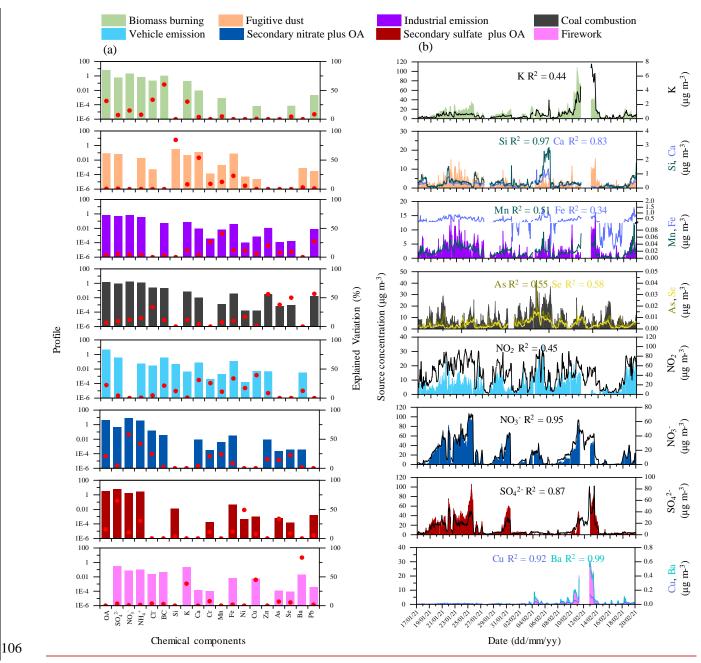
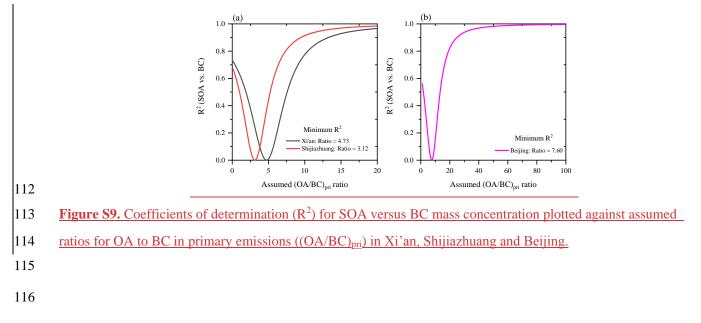


Figure S8. (a) Sources profiles obtained from HERM with an eight-factor solution in Beijing, the columns in each factor are the profile that displays the relative relation of the absolute values of variables. The red dot represents the explained variation (EV) in species for different factors. (b) Time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



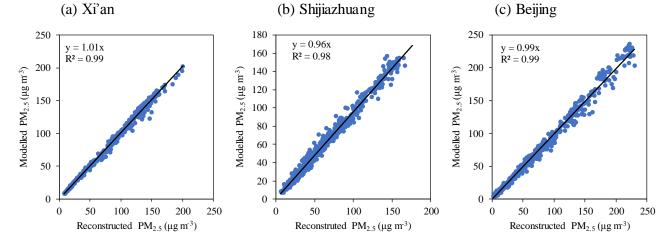


Image: 118Figure \$99510. Correlation between reconstructed PM2.5 and modeled PM2.5 mass concentrations derived by HERM119in Xi'an, Shijiahuznag, and Beijing with optimal solutions

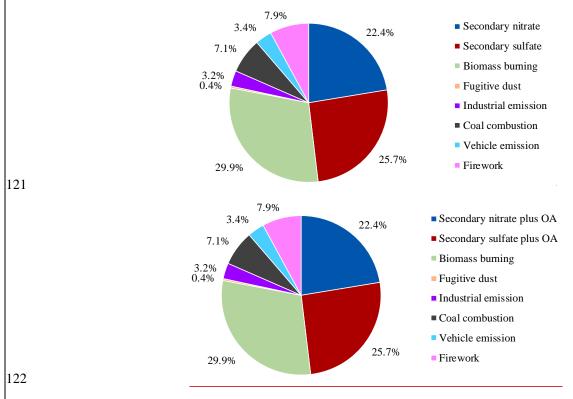


Figure <u>\$10</u><u>\$11</u>. Source contribution of PM_{2.5} during Chinese Spring Festival (from New Year's Eve to January 3rd 124 of the Lunar Calendar) in Beijing

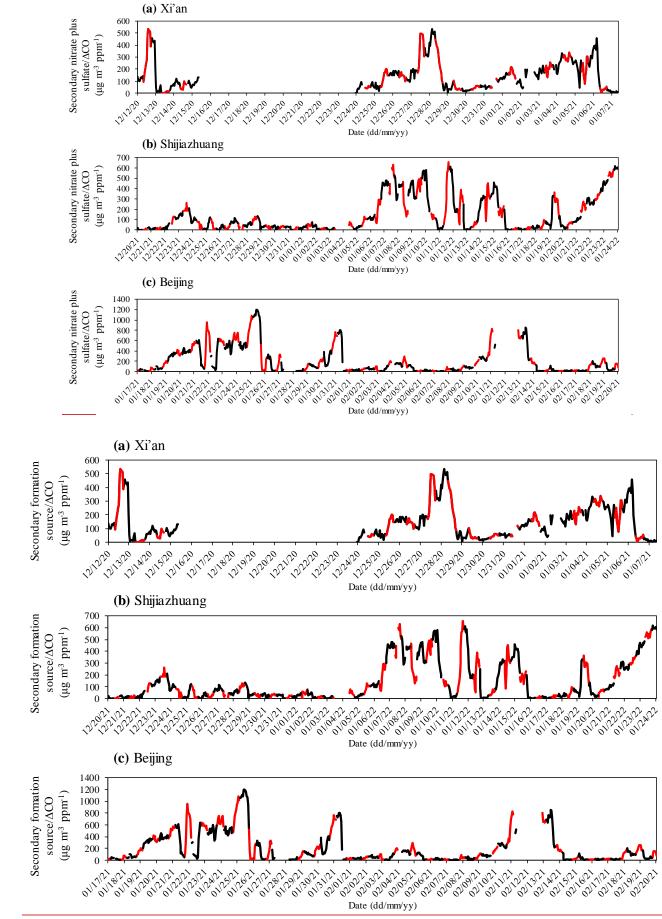


Figure <u>\$11\$12</u>. Time series plots of secondary <u>nitrate plus sulfateformation source</u>/ΔCO in (a) Xi'an, (b)
 Shijiazhuang, and (c) Beijing. The red and black lines represent daytime (08:00-17:00 LST) and nighttime
 (18:00 - 07:00 the next day LST), respectively.

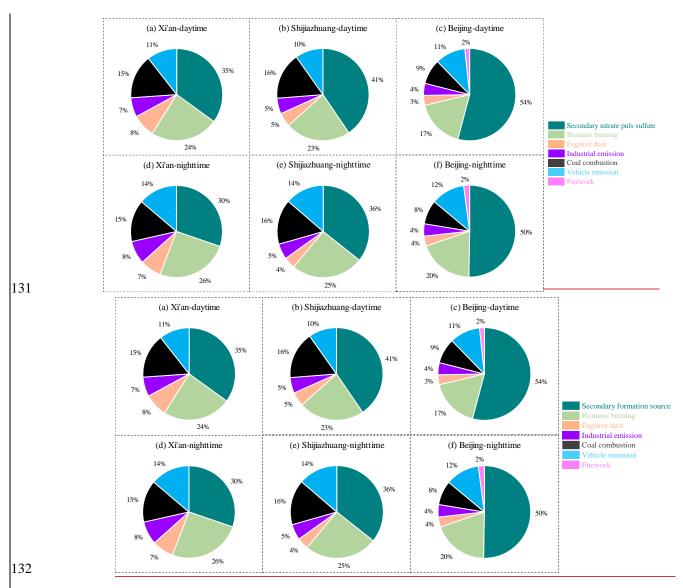
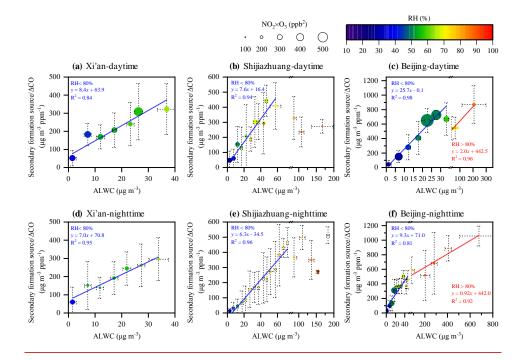


Figure <u>S12S13</u>. Source contribution of PM_{2.5} in three pilot cities during daytime and nighttime, respectively.



134

135 Figure S14. Correlation of secondary formation source/ Δ CO 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 in each bin. In Xi'an, each bin is 5 ug m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 5 ug m⁻³). In Shijiazhuang, each bin is 5 ug m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 5 138 μ g m⁻³) when ALWC ranged from 0 to 75 μ g m⁻³, but 25 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 25 μ g m⁻³) for ALWC ranged from 75 to 139 200 µg m⁻³ due to limitations in data. In Beijing, during daytime, each bin is 5 µg m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 5 µg m⁻³) when 140 ALWC ranged from 0 to 40 μ g m⁻³, but 100 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 100 μ g m⁻³) for ALWC ranged from 40 to 450 μ g m⁻³ 141 142 ³ due to limitations in data. During nighttime, each bin is 5 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 5 μ g m⁻³) when ALWC ranged from 0 to 50 μ g m⁻³, but 100 μ g m⁻³ (Δ ALWC = 100 μ g m⁻³) for ALWC ranged from 50 to 900 μ g m⁻³ due to limitations in 143 144 <u>dat</u>a.

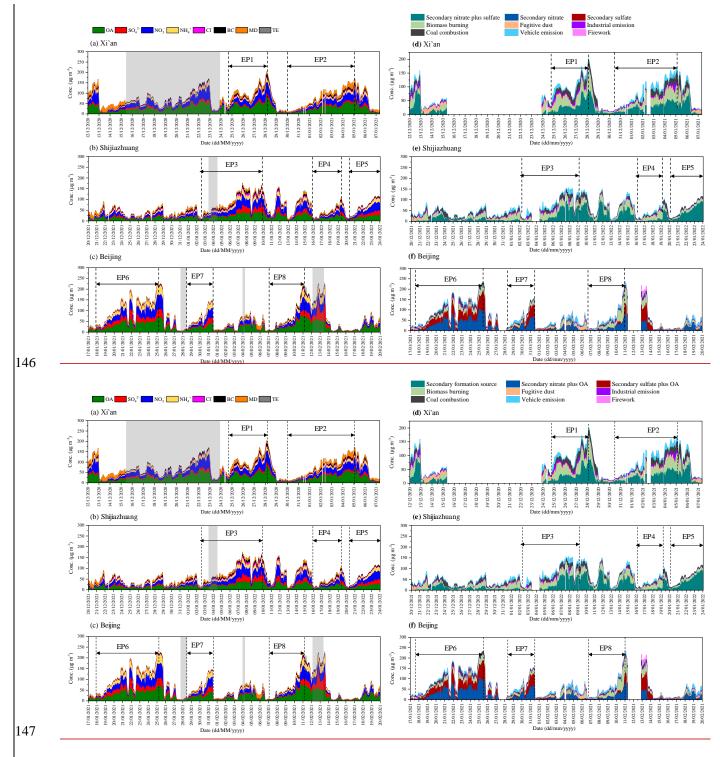
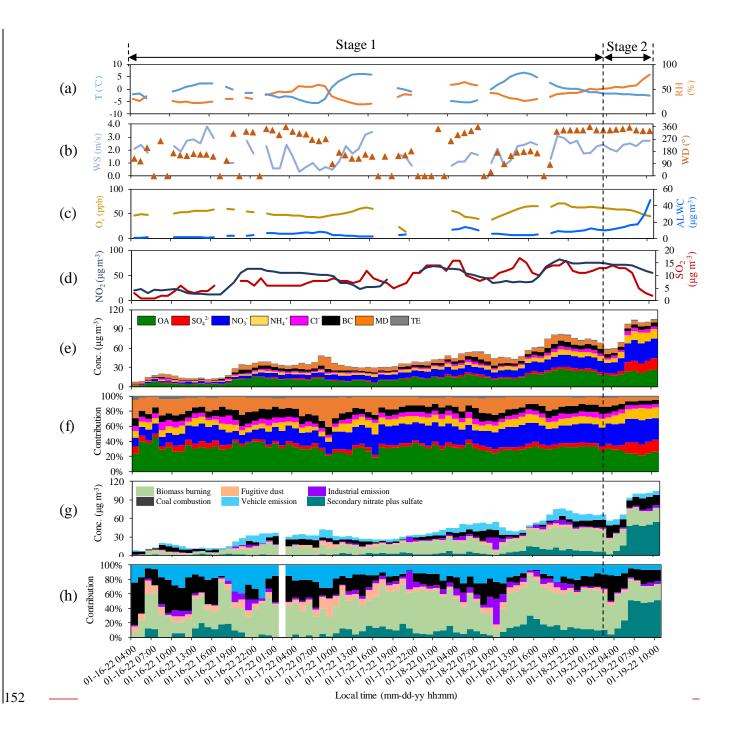


Figure <u>\$13\$15</u>. The pollution episodes selection according to temporal variation of PM_{2.5} chemical components (ac) and source contribution (d-f) during the campaigns in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing, respectively. The gray shape parts were lack of MD values due to the out-of-order Xact625, and missing values in the time series owing to the out-of-order ACSM, AE33, and Xact625 at the same time.





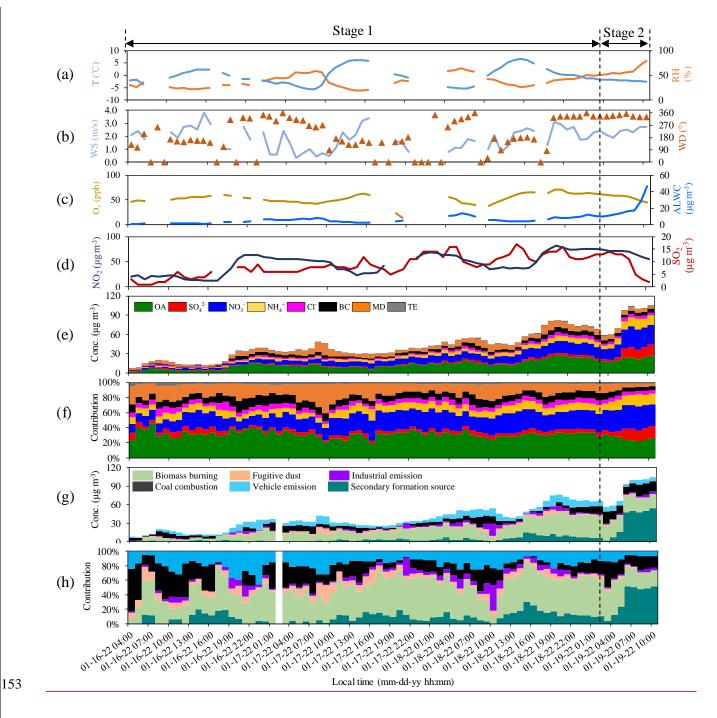
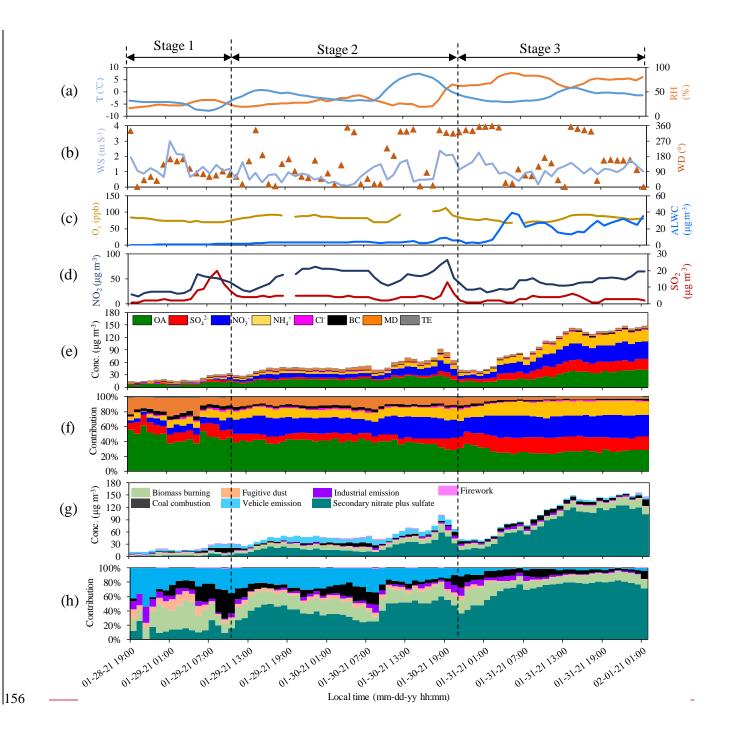


Figure S14.6 Time series of T and RH (a), WS and WD (b), O_x and ALWC (c), NO₂ and SO₂ (d), chemical components (e,f), and source contribution (g, h) of PM_{2.5} during EP4 in Shijiazhuang.



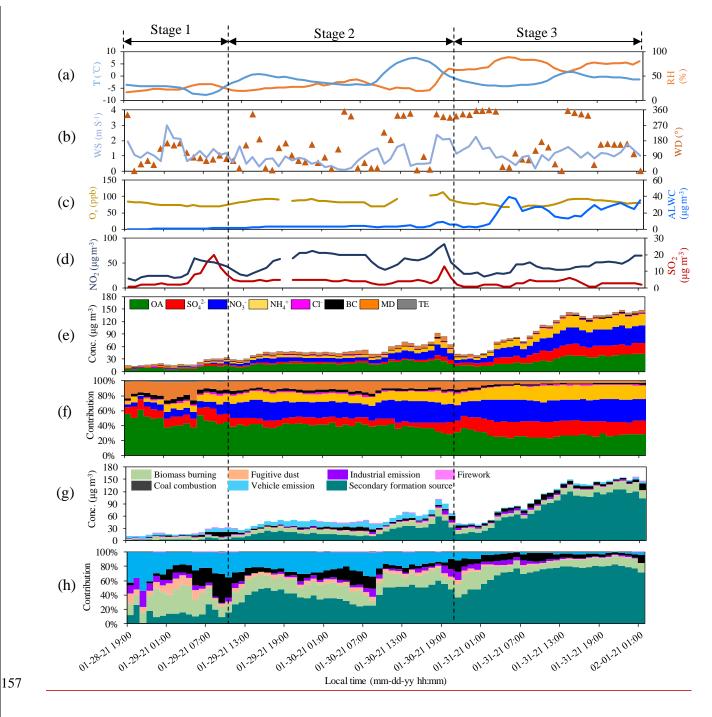
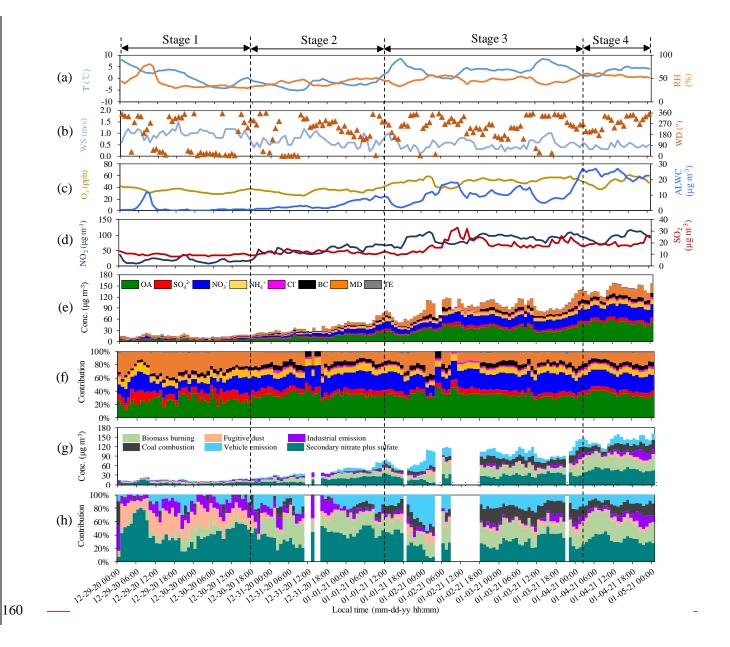


Figure <u>S15S17</u>. Time series of T and RH (a), WS and WD (b), O_x and ALWC (c), NO₂ and SO₂ (d), chemical components (e, f), and source contribution (g, h) of PM_{2.5} during EP7 in Beijing



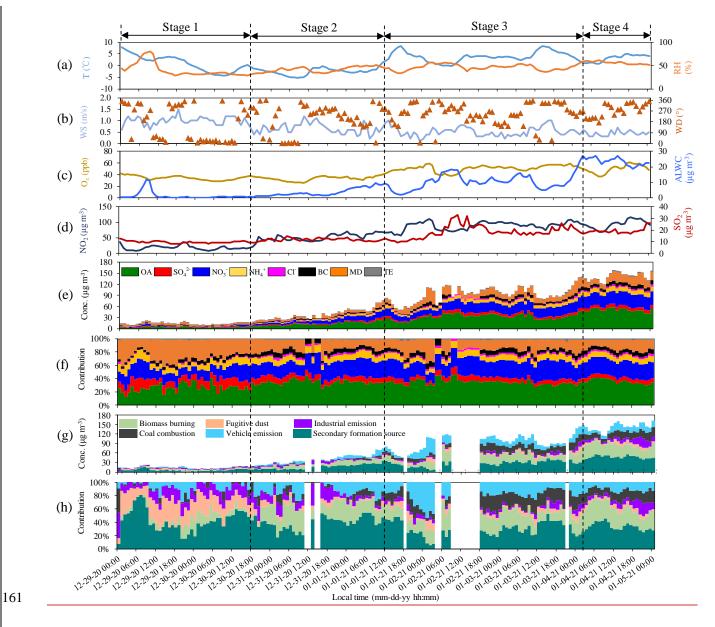
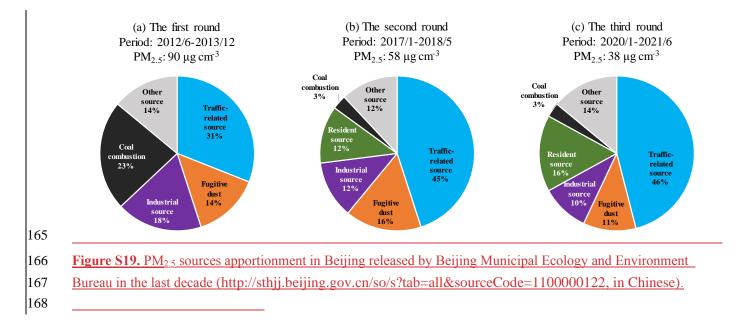


Figure S16S18. Time series of T and RH (a), WS and WD (b), O_x and ALWC (c), NO₂ and SO₂ (d), chemical components (e, f), and source contribution (g, h) of PM_{2.5} during EP2 in Xi'an.



ation	National Meteorological Station	complementary data	
		complementary data	
aoxinxiqu station, 1.1km from the	Haidian station, 7.6 km from the	hourly PM _{2.5} , NO _x , NO ₂ , CO, SO ₂ ,	
mpling site	sampling site	O ₃ , WS, WD, T, RH	
aoxinqu station, 4.2 km from the	Shijiazhuang station, 23.8 km	hourly PM _{2.5} , NO ₂ , CO, SO ₂ , O ₃ ,	
mpling site	from the sampling site	WS, WD, T, RH	
haoyangAotizhongxin station, 1.2	Jinghe station, 21.2 km from the	hourly PM _{2.5} , NO ₂ , CO, SO ₂ , O ₃ ,	
n from the sampling site	sampling site	WS, WD, T, RH	
a r	noxinqu station, 4.2 km from the mpling site naoyangAotizhongxin station, 1.2 n from the sampling site	In ConstructionIn Constructionnoxinqu station, 4.2 km from theShijiazhuang station, 23.8 kmmpling sitefrom the sampling sitenaoyangAotizhongxin station, 1.2Jinghe station, 21.2 km from the	

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

171

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

173 Beijing.

Parameter ^b -	$\Delta \mathbf{Q}/\mathbf{Q}_{exp}$						
rarameter [*]	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				

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

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

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

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

Table S4. Average concentrations of reconstructed PM2.5 and its chemical species in Xi'an, Shijiazhuang, and Beijing

181 during the campaign* (μg m ⁻³)
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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
SO4 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
$\mathrm{NH_{4}^{+}}$	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

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

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

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

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

Parameters	Xi'an	Shijiazhuang	Beijing	
NOR	0.15 ± 0.08	0.20 ± 0.11	0.16 ± 0.12 0.48 ± 0.23	
SOR	0.18 ± 0.08	0.36 ± 0.25		
$a^{-1} NOR = n(NO_{3}^{-})/(n(NO_{3}^{-}) + n(NO_{2})); SOR =$	$n(SO_4^{2-})/(n(SO_4^{2-}) + n(SO_2)).$ w	here n(NO ₃ ⁻), n(NO ₂), n(SO ₄ ²⁻), and n(SO ₂) are the m	
concentrations of NO ₃ ⁻ , NO ₂ , SO ₄ ²⁻ , and SO ₂ ,	respectively.			
Table S6. Average concentrations of SO. tracer method and source apportionment i		<u>Beijing during sampling p</u>	eriods estimated by I	
Table S6. Average concentrations of SO.		<u>Beijing during sampling p</u> <u>Shijiazhuang</u>	eriods estimated by I Beijing	
Table S6. Average concentrations of SO. tracer method and source apportionment r	results (µg m ⁻³)			
Table S6. Average concentrations of SO. tracer method and source apportionment r SOA	results (µg m ⁻³) <u>Xi'an</u>	Shijiazhuang	Beijing	

Table <u>\$6\$7</u>. The concentration of PM_{2.5} and its main chemical components during wintertime in Xi'an,

196

Shijiazhuang, and Beijing in the last decades.

C:t-	Veee	PM _{2.5}	OA ^a	EC	SO4 ²⁻	NO ₃ -	$\mathbf{NH_4^+}$	Others	Defermente
City	Year	μg m ⁻³	References						
	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
Xi'an	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
	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
a	2016	193	63.2	13.5	29.5	24.0	17.0	45.8	Liu et al., 2019
Shijiazhuang	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
	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
D	2010	127	42.9	7.1	14.2	17.1	5.2	40.5	Zhao et al., 2013
Beijing	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

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

198 ^a Assumption of $OA = 1.6 \times OC$ for the filter-based sampling experiments

199 **Table <u>\$758</u>**. 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 emission	Coal combustion	Secondary <u>formation</u> source	Fugitive dust	Industrial emission	Biomass burning	Others	References
		μg m ⁻³	μg m ⁻³	μg m ⁻³	μg m ⁻³	μg m ⁻³	μg m ⁻³	μg m ⁻³	μg m ⁻³	
	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
X'I	2010	233	48.9	55.9	41.9	44.3	30.3	11.7		Xu et al., 2016
Xi'an	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., 202
	2020*	77	10.0	11.6	24.6	6.2	6.2	19.3		This study
	2015	232	46.4	62.6	30.2	20.9	16.2	7.0	48.7	Huang et al., 20
ai i	2016	181	23.5	54.3	54.3	30.8	9.1		7.2	Liu et al., 201
Shijiazhuang	2019	119	21.4	21.4	42.8	21.4	6.0	6.0		Diao et al., 202
	2022*	60	7.2	9.6	22.8	2.4	3.0	14.4		This study
	2004	107	8.6	40.7	19.3	7.5		16.1	15.0	Song et al., 200
	2010	139		79.2	8.3	22.2	16.7	9.7	2.8	Zhang et al., 20
Beijing	2013	159	9.5	41.3	79.5	15.9		9.5	3.2	Huang et al., 20
	2015	125	48.8	15.0	23.8	8.8	2.5	6.3	18.8	Huang et al., 20
	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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