

1 **Impacts of meteorology and emission reductions on haze pollution**
2 **during the lockdown in the North China Plain**

3

4 Lang Liu^{1,2}, Xin Long^{3,*}, Yi Li^{1,2*}, Zengliang Zang^{1,2}, Fengwen Wang⁴, Yan Han³, Zhier Bao³, Yang
5 Chen³, Tian Feng⁵, Jinxin Yang⁶

6

7 ¹College of Meteorology and Oceanography, National University of Defense Technology, Changsha,
8 410073, China

9 ²Key Laboratory of High Impact Weather (special), China Meteorological Administration, Changsha,
10 410073, China

11 ³Research Center for Atmospheric Environment, Chongqing Institute of Green and Intelligent
12 Technology, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Chongqing, 400714, China

13 ⁴Key Laboratory of the Three Gorges Reservoir Region's Eco-Environment, Ministry of Education,
14 College of Environment and Ecology, Chongqing University, Chongqing, 400030, China

15 ⁵Department of Geography & Spatial Information Techniques, Ningbo University, Ningbo, 315211,
16 China

17 ⁶School of Geography and Remote Sensing, Guangzhou University, Guangzhou, 510006, China

18

19 *Correspondence to:* longxin@cigit.ac.cn, liyiqxxy@163.com

20 **Abstract.**

21 Haze events in the North China Plain (NCP) during the COVID-19 lockdown underscore the intricate
22 challenges of air quality management amid reduced human activities. Utilizing the WRF-Chem model,
23 we explored how sharp emission reductions and varying meteorological conditions influenced Fine
24 particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) concentrations across the NCP. Our analysis highlights a marked regional
25 contrast: in the Northern NCP (NNCP), adverse meteorology largely offset emission reductions,
26 resulting in PM_{2.5} increases of 30 to 60 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during haze episodes. Conversely, the Southern NCP
27 (SNCP) benefited from favourable meteorological conditions that lowered PM_{2.5} by 20 to 40 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
28 combined with emission reductions. These findings emphasize the critical role of meteorology in
29 shaping the air quality response to emission changes, particularly in regions like the NNCP, where
30 unfavourable weather patterns can counteract the benefits of emission reductions. Our study provides
31 valuable insights into the complex interplay of emissions, meteorology, and pollutant dynamics,
32 suggesting that adequate air quality strategies must integrate emissions controls and meteorological
33 considerations to address regional variations effectively.

34

35 **1 Introduction**

36 Fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) is a critical issue for both policymakers and the general public
37 due to its widespread presence and adverse impacts on human health(Lelieveld et al., 2018), agriculture
38 productivity(Dong and Wang, 2023), and the Earth's radiation balance (Li et al., 2022; Yang et al.,
39 2021). The formation and accumulation of anthropogenic PM_{2.5} result from a complex interaction of
40 emission sources, atmospheric chemical processes, and meteorological conditions (Le et al., 2020).
41 Beyond significant local primary emissions and secondary chemical formation, stagnant meteorological
42 conditions and regional transport significantly contribute to severe haze pollution events (Feng et al.,
43 2020; Li et al., 2021). Since implementing air quality regulations, China has dramatically reduced
44 anthropogenic emissions, leading to a notable decline in PM_{2.5} levels and overall improvements in air
45 quality (Xiao et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019). For instance, the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) region
46 witnessed a decline in the number of days with severe PM_{2.5} pollution from 122 days in 2013 to 31 days
47 in 2017 (Li et al., 2019). Despite these improvements, severe PM_{2.5} pollution events still occur.
48 Research has demonstrated that adverse meteorological conditions often play a dominant role in
49 influencing PM_{2.5} concentrations in North China (Le et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2020),
50 frequently offsetting the positive effects of emission reductions.

51 The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, which has persisted for over 4.5 years,
52 resulted in more than 7 million deaths globally by June 2023(WHO, 2024). In response to the initial
53 outbreak, the Chinese government enforced stringent lockdowns nationwide during the first 2 months of
54 2020 to limit the virus's spread (Le et al., 2020). These measures led to a sharp decline in anthropogenic
55 emissions, particularly from the transportation sector (Liu et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020a). However,
56 during the period from January 21 to February 16, 2020, the Northern China Plain (NCP) experienced
57 severe haze pollution, a stark contrast to other regions (Huang et al., 2021; Le et al., 2020; Wang et al.,
58 2021). This unusual event on the NCP, occurring during a time of reduced human activity, provides a
59 unique opportunity to study the complex interactions between atmospheric chemistry and meteorology
60 under these exceptional conditions.

61 Recent research on the above haze event in China has highlighted that the unexpected regional
62 haze formation during the COVID-19 lockdown was primarily driven by complex atmospheric

63 chemical processes influenced by both emission reductions and meteorological factors(Ding et al., 2021;
64 Li et al., 2021). Specifically, the sharp decline in NO₂ emissions during the lockdown led to elevated O₃
65 levels and increased night-time formation of NO₃ radicals, which boosted the atmospheric oxidation
66 capacity and promoted the generation of secondary aerosols. Furthermore, anomalously high relative
67 humidity during this period facilitated heterogeneous chemical reactions, further contributing to aerosol
68 formation (Huang et al., 2021; Le et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2022). Once formed, these secondary aerosols
69 were transported to monitoring stations in northern China, exacerbating local pollution levels (Lv et al.,
70 2020). Some studies have emphasized that elevated ambient humidity is crucial in enhancing nitrate
71 aerosols' formation efficiency—a key haze component—by influencing pH levels (Chang et al., 2020;
72 Sun et al., 2020). In addition to these chemical interactions, the aerosol–planetary boundary layer (PBL)
73 feedback mechanism is also believed to have significantly contributed to the haze event (Su et al., 2020).
74 Overall, meteorological conditions influenced the formation, accumulation, and dispersion of PM_{2.5}
75 during this period. However, the precise interactions between air pollutants, atmospheric chemistry, and
76 their responses to emissions and meteorological conditions have not been determined.

77 In this study, we utilized the WRF-Chem model to evaluate the effects of meteorological
78 conditions and abrupt reductions in anthropogenic emissions on PM_{2.5} levels in the NCP. We emphasize
79 the localized differences in how meteorological conditions and emission reductions affect air quality
80 within the North China Plain, specifically between the Northern North China Plain (NNCP) and
81 Southern North China Plain (SNCP). Utilizing the WRF-Chem model, we conducted detailed sensitivity
82 experiments that allowed us to isolate and quantify the individual and combined impacts of emissions
83 and meteorology on air quality, which can deepen the understanding of air quality dynamics in different
84 regional contexts. We addressed three critical questions by simulating severe air pollution episodes
85 during the COVID-19 lockdown: (1) How do sudden emission reductions affect PM_{2.5} levels under
86 varying meteorological scenarios? (2) What are the critical drivers of PM_{2.5} formation and accumulation
87 during these emission reductions? (3) How do meteorological conditions interact with lowered
88 emissions to shape air quality outcomes? Through this analysis, we aim to offer valuable insights into
89 the effectiveness of short-term emission control strategies and to explore the implications of future low-

90 emission scenarios by examining the combined effects of meteorological variations and emission
91 reductions on PM_{2.5} concentrations.

92 **2 Data and methods**

93 **2.1 Data Sets**

94 The NCP encompasses 11 provinces and municipalities. This study focused on two sub-regions:
95 the NNCP and the SNCP. We defined these regions by thoroughly analyzing geographical features,
96 weather conditions, and emission sources. The NNCP, which generally includes the cities in the
97 Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH) area, is surrounded by mountains and elevated terrain to the north and
98 west. These features make it harder for pollutants to disperse, leading to pollutant buildup, especially in
99 winter when stagnant atmospheric conditions dominate (Feng et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019). On the other
100 hand, the SNCP is characterized by lower elevations and broad plains, which help disperse pollutants
101 due to more vital wind patterns and higher planetary boundary layer heights (Huang et al., 2021). The
102 emissions in these two regions also differ significantly. The NNCP is mainly affected by concentrated
103 urban and industrial emissions from the BTH area. At the same time, the SNCP has a broader variety of
104 sources, including industrial and agricultural emissions, creating a more diverse pollutant profile (Zheng
105 et al., 2021). These differences in geography, weather, and emissions provide a basis for studying how
106 meteorological factors and emission reductions affect air quality differently across the NCP (**Figure 1**).
107 By examining these sub-regions separately, we can better understand how air quality interventions vary
108 in effectiveness across different areas.

109 We used two types of air quality data in this study. The first dataset consists of hourly air quality
110 data provided by the Ministry of Ecology and Environment of China, which has been available since
111 2013. This dataset includes hourly PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂, and CO concentrations from 823 national
112 monitoring sites across 185 cities in the study area. Specifically, the NNCP contains 10 cities with 65
113 measurement sites, while the SNCP includes 24 cities with 95 sampling sites (**Figure 1**). The second
114 dataset includes chemical compositions such as organic matter, nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium,
115 collected at the Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP), Chinese Academy of Sciences in Beijing, China

116 (39°58'28" N, 116°22'16" E). Detailed descriptions of the methods used to gather these chemical
117 composition data are available in Sun et al. (2020).

118 We used the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC), developed by Tsinghua
119 University, with 2016 as the base year (<http://meicmodel.org>). This emission inventory includes
120 emissions from power plants, transportation, industry, agriculture, and residential activities, with data
121 available at a monthly time scale and a spatial resolution of 6 km. We updated the MEIC inventory to
122 reflect the total provincial emissions estimated for 2020, using near-real-time estimation (Zheng et al.,
123 2021). While the total emissions for each province were updated, the spatial distribution of emissions
124 within each province still followed the intensity proportions from the 2016 MEIC inventory.
125 Subsequently, we applied a top-down approach to adjust further the emission inventory, iteratively
126 comparing model simulations with observed data to refine the estimates until the simulations closely
127 matched the observations. We validated the final emission inventory using statistical parameters,
128 including normalized mean bias (*NMB*), index of agreement (*IOA*), and correlation coefficient (*r*) (**Text**
129 **S1**). The simulated concentrations were first sampled at each observational site within the region. These
130 site-specific concentrations were then averaged to calculate the regional mean for the NNCP and SNCP,
131 respectively.

132 The spatial distribution of primary particles (PM_{2.5}) and gaseous pollutants (CO, SO₂, NO_x, NH₃,
133 and HCHO) reveals significantly elevated emission levels across both the NNCP and the SNCP,
134 particularly when compared to the less industrialized northwestern regions of the study area (**Figure S1**).
135 These elevated emissions are primarily driven by dense urbanization and significant industrial activity
136 (Zheng et al., 2021). The topographical features of the NCP, with higher elevations in the north and
137 lower elevations in the south (**Figure 1**), along with substantial pollutant emissions from southern
138 regions, indicate that under persistent southerly winds, pollutants are efficiently transported northward.
139 This northward movement exacerbates air quality degradation, contributing to severe haze episodes in
140 the NNCP, intensifying regional air quality challenges, and complicating mitigation efforts (Huang et al.,
141 2021).

142 2.2 WRF-Chem Model Configuration and Experiments

143 We employed a specific version (version 3.5.1) of the WRF-Chem model (Grell et al., 2005). We
144 chose the WRF-Chem model because it can simulate coupled atmospheric processes, including
145 emissions, transport, chemical transformations, and aerosol-cloud interactions. This "online" approach
146 allows for dynamic feedback between meteorological conditions and air pollutants. It is well-suited for
147 assessing the interplay between emission reductions and meteorology on PM_{2.5} concentrations during
148 the COVID-19 lockdown period. The model's ability to simultaneously simulate meteorology and
149 chemistry provides advantages over models that treat these processes separately, ensuring that
150 interactions such as aerosol-radiation and aerosol-cloud effects are effectively captured (Li et al., 2011).

151 Further details regarding the model settings, initial and lateral meteorological and chemical fields,
152 and anthropogenic and biogenic emission inventory(**Table S1**). We used physical schemes of the WRF
153 single-moment(WSM) 6-class graupel microphysical scheme(Hong and Lim, 2006), the Mellor–
154 Yamada–Janjic (MYJ) turbulent kinetic energy planetary boundary layer scheme (Janić, 2001), the
155 unified Noah land-surface model (Chen and Dudhia, 2001) and the Monin-Obukhov surface layer
156 scheme (Janić, 2001). Chemical schemes include the CMAQ/Models-3 aerosol module (Binkowski and
157 Roselle, 2003). Gas-phase reactions of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxide (NO_x)
158 use the Statewide Air Pollution Research Center-version 1999 (SAPRC99) chemical mechanism.
159 Furthermore, it includes effects such as organic coating on nitrate formation by suppressing the N₂O₅
160 heterogeneous hydrolysis uptake(Liu et al., 2020b), the reaction of stabilized Criegee Intermediates (sCI)
161 with SO₂ to form sulfate (Mauldin Iii et al., 2012), and a parameterization of sulfate heterogeneous
162 formation from SO₂ involving Fe³⁺ catalyzed and irreversible uptake on aerosol liquid water surfaces
163 (Li et al., 2017a). The Fast Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible (FTUV) radiation module calculates
164 photolysis rates, and the model considers the interaction between aerosols and clouds (Li et al., 2011;
165 Tie et al., 2003).

166 The simulation domain, centered at (116 °E, 38 °N), consisted of 300 × 300 horizontal grid cells
167 with a 6 km resolution (**Figure 1**). The vertical resolution consisted of 35 levels, extending from the
168 surface to 50 hPa, allowing for a detailed representation of boundary layer processes and pollutant
169 dispersion. The initial and boundary meteorological conditions were derived from the National Centers

170 for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Final (FNL) reanalysis data at a $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ spatial resolution and six-
171 hour temporal intervals (Kalnay et al., 2018). Chemical initial and boundary conditions were
172 interpolated from the CAM-Chem (Community Atmosphere Model with Chemistry) global chemistry
173 model (Danabasoglu et al., 2020). The anthropogenic emissions inventory for 2020 was based on a
174 bottom-up approach, incorporating near-real-time data (Zheng et al., 2021), and biogenic emissions
175 were computed online using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature
176 (MEGAN) (Guenther et al., 2006). For the episode simulations, the spin-up time is 3 days.

177 We designed four groups of numerical experiments described in detail in **Table 1**. The first
178 group is the baseline simulation, referred to as the BASE case, covering the period from January 21 to
179 February 16, 2020. This simulation incorporates actual emissions and meteorological conditions during
180 the COVID-19 lockdown period. The BASE case is characterized by reduced emissions, reflecting the
181 unique environmental dynamics during the lockdown.

182 To quantify the influence of SNCP emissions on $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in NNCP, we also
183 performed an additional sensitivity test (SNCP0) by setting SNCP emissions to zero within the BASE
184 scenario. The other three groups are sensitivity simulations, which include the emission condition-
185 sensitive simulation (EMIS), the meteorology condition-sensitive simulation (METEO), and the
186 combined emission and meteorology condition-sensitive simulation (EMIS_METEO). In the EMIS
187 experiment, we used the anthropogenic emission inventory from the BASE case. Still, we excluded any
188 abrupt decreases associated with anthropogenic emission reductions during the COVID-19 lockdown
189 period in 2020, following the provincial emission reduction ratios provided by Huang et al. (2021)
190 (**Table S2**). In the METEO case, we applied the same emission inventory as the BASE case but with
191 averaged meteorological conditions from 2015 to 2019. These mean meteorological fields were derived
192 by averaging key meteorological variables (**Text S2**). For the EMIS_METEO case, we used the
193 emission inventory from the EMIS case and the mean meteorological conditions from the METEO case.

194 The comparison between the BASE and EMIS cases allowed us to evaluate the impact of sudden
195 reductions in anthropogenic emissions on $PM_{2.5}$ levels. The comparison between the BASE and
196 METEO cases provided a stable reference point by reducing the influence of anomalies or fluctuations
197 in meteorological conditions from any year, enabling a comprehensive evaluation of the effects of

198 meteorological factors on PM_{2.5} levels. Finally, comparing the BASE and EMIS_METEO cases enabled
199 a thorough assessment of the combined impact of emission reductions and meteorological conditions on
200 PM_{2.5} levels. Additionally, we analyzed the coupled effects between emission reductions and
201 meteorological factors using a factor separation approach (Text S3).

202 **3 Results and Discussions**

203 **3.1 Model performance**

204 The temporal consistency between model simulations and observations is assessed using *NMB*
205 and *IOA* (Table 2 and Figures S2 and S3). For PM_{2.5} simulations, the average concentration in the
206 NCP closely matched observations, with an *NMB* of -5.6% and an *IOA* of 0.91 in the NNCP, an *NMB*
207 of -2.1% , and an *IOA* of 0.86 in the SNCP. For gaseous pollutants, such as SO₂, O₃, NO₂, and CO, the
208 model effectively captured their diurnal concentration profiles in the NCP region, with *IOAs* exceeding
209 0.82 in the NNCP and 0.76 in the SNCP. The *NMBs* for these gaseous pollutants also agreed with
210 observations, with *IOAs* remaining below 6% in the NNCP and below 12% in the SNCP.

211 The simulated mass concentrations of PM_{2.5} components, including organic matter, nitrate,
212 sulfate, and ammonium, at the IAP monitoring site, also effectively reproduced the temporal profiles of
213 these chemical components, with *IOAs* exceeding 0.81. The model shows good agreement with organic
214 matter and nitrate observations at the IAP observation site, with *NMBs* of 15.0% and -18.9% ,
215 respectively, and *IOAs* exceeding 0.84. However, sulfate is significantly underestimated, with an *NMB*
216 of -37.7% , which may be attributed to the model's incomplete representation of SO₂ oxidation
217 pathways, particularly through heterogeneous chemistry during haze events (Zheng et al., 2015), and the
218 acidic aerosol environment (Guo et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017). Since SO₂, as a precursor of sulfate
219 aerosols, is primarily emitted from point sources, such as power plants or industrial zones, its transport
220 to observation sites is highly sensitive to uncertainties in wind field simulations, leading to substantial
221 fluctuations in simulated SO₂ and resultant sulfate aerosols. This underestimation in sulfate also affects
222 ammonium concentrations (*NMB* = -23.6%) due to its close association with sulfate and nitrate. On a
223 regional scale, the model's good performance in SO₂ simulation (*NMB* = 4.8% in the NNCP) does not

224 entirely explain the sulfate underprediction, particularly near the IAP site, where local SO₂ is
225 underestimated by -12.1% (**Figure S4**). This local discrepancy suggests that WRF-Chem may
226 inadequately capture oxidation processes such as aqueous-phase and metal-catalyzed reactions, leading
227 to sulfate underestimation in urban areas with high pollution levels (Guo et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017;
228 Zheng et al., 2015). While the model effectively reproduces the temporal variability of critical
229 components, the consistent underestimation of sulfate and ammonium indicates the need for further
230 refinements in the representation of SO₂ emissions and associated oxidation pathways (Cheng et al.,
231 2016; Li et al., 2018).

232 The correlation coefficient indicates the spatial consistency of model simulations compared to
233 observations (**Figure 2**). During the episode, stagnant meteorological conditions with weak or calm
234 winds led to unfavorable diffusion of atmospheric pollutants, accumulating and forming heavy haze
235 pollution in the NCP region. The average simulated PM_{2.5} mass concentrations exceeded 100 µg m⁻³ in
236 the SNCP and exceeded 120 µg m⁻³ in the NNCP (**Figure 2a**). These results were consistent with
237 observations, with a correlation coefficient of 0.91 (**Figure 2e**). High O₃ levels exceeding 80 µg m⁻³
238 were simulated over the NNCP region (**Figure 2c**), which indicates an unexpectedly strong atmospheric
239 oxidation capacity due to weakened titration from low NO_x emissions during the period. During the
240 episode, almost all avoidable outdoor human activities and most transportation were prohibited. As a
241 result, the average simulated NO₂ (**Figure 2b**) and SO₂ (**Figure 2d**) mass concentrations remained very
242 low in the urban areas of NCP, with values below 30 µg m⁻³ and 10 µg m⁻³, respectively. The spatial
243 distributions of simulated and observed gaseous pollutants, averaged over the episode, demonstrated
244 strong spatial consistency, with correlation coefficients (*r*) of 0.67 for O₃, 0.86 for SO₂, and 0.77 for
245 NO₂ across the research domain (**Figure 2e, 2f**). This high consistency was also observed in the NNCP
246 and SNCP regions (**Figure S5**), with correlation coefficients for PM_{2.5} and O₃ of 0.98 and 0.71 in the
247 NNCP, and 0.94 and 0.67 in the SNCP. Similarly, the correlation coefficients for SO₂ and NO₂ were
248 0.77 and 0.83 in the NNCP, and 0.89 and 0.82 in the SNCP.

249 The day-to-day variations also show good consistency between the observed and simulated
250 concentrations of PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, O₂, and CO (**Figure 3**). Despite some bias, the WRF-Chem model
251 captures the temporal and spatial variations of PM_{2.5} and gaseous air pollutants in the BTH region,

252 which suggests that the emission inventory and simulated meteorological factors are generally
253 reasonable, providing a reliable basis for further assessment.

254 **3.2 Unexpected haze episodes in the NNCP**

255 The COVID-19 pandemic lockdowns in China, which began in late January 2020, led to a sharp
256 decline in socio-economic activities and a significant reduction in air pollutant emissions (Bao and
257 Zhang, 2020; Liu et al., 2020a; Wang et al., 2020). In the NNCP, provincial emissions of NO_x, SO₂, and
258 PM_{2.5} decreased by 38–45%, 16–26%, and 12–18%, respectively (Huang et al., 2021). Observed
259 concentrations of NO₂ and SO₂ significantly decreased to 30.8 μg m⁻³ and 13.5 μg m⁻³, respectively (Li
260 et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020). Satellite observations from the TROPOMI instrument on Sentinel 5P
261 captured a notable 65% reduction in column-integrated NO₂ over eastern China compared to the same
262 period in 2019 (Bauwens et al., 2020; Shi and Brasseur, 2020).

263 Despite the significant reduction in anthropogenic emissions and lower concentrations of NO₂
264 and SO₂, two unexpected heavy haze episodes occurred in the NNCP. Here, we defined haze events as
265 periods when the daily average PM_{2.5} concentration in the NNCP exceeds 100 μg m⁻³. During the study
266 period, two significant haze episodes were identified: EP1, lasting from January 22 to 29, and EP2,
267 from February 8 to 13. During EP1, the average PM_{2.5} concentration in the NNCP reached 153.4 μg m⁻³,
268 peaking at approximately 185 μg m⁻³, significantly higher than in the SNCP, which peaked at around
269 120 μg m⁻³. In EP2, the average PM_{2.5} concentration in the NNCP reached 132.2 μg m⁻³, peaking at
270 approximately 150 μg m⁻³. No haze was observed in SNNP during EP2, with average PM_{2.5}
271 concentrations of 57.7 μg m⁻³ (**Figure 3**).

272 During EP1, stagnant atmospheric conditions in the NNCP with wind speeds lower than 0.8 m s⁻¹
273 (**Figures 4c, S6b, S6c**), coupled with a low planetary boundary layer height (PBLH) of approximately
274 306 m (ranging from 190 to 454 m) (**Figure S6a**), facilitated the accumulation of pollutants. Under
275 these conditions, PM_{2.5} concentrations (**Figure 3a**) reached peak values of around 150–200 μg m⁻³, and
276 O₃ concentrations (**Figure 3b**) steadily increased, peaking at approximately 90 μg m⁻³. This trend
277 indicates enhanced photochemical activity due to the stagnant conditions. Concurrently, NO₂
278 concentrations (**Figure 3c**) decreased, likely due to its conversion to O₃ and secondary aerosols. The

279 consistently high levels of SO₂ and CO (**Figures 3d and 3e**) further indicated the limited dispersion
280 under static atmospheric conditions. These conditions facilitated photochemical reactions, enhancing
281 secondary pollution formation, as suggested by recent studies on secondary pollution during the
282 COVID-19 lockdown(Huang et al., 2021).

283 In contrast, during EP2, the concentrations of PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂, and CO (**Figure 3**) exhibited
284 bell-shaped styles fluctuating pattern, performing with the simultaneous increase and decrease of
285 various pollutants. These fluctuating patterns indicate dynamic atmospheric conditions with significant
286 air pollutant transport and mixing processes. The northward speeds of about 4.1 m s⁻¹ in the SNCP
287 facilitated the transport of air pollutants from the SNCP to the NNCP(**Figures 4d, S6b**). Simultaneously,
288 stagnant atmospheric conditions in the NNCP with wind speeds lower than 0.5 m s⁻¹, corresponding
289 with low PBLH of 306 m (ranging from 209 to 458 m) (**Figure S6a**), facilitated the accumulation of
290 pollutants in the NNCP.

291 Overall, the contrasting atmospheric conditions during EP1 and EP2 underscore the complex
292 interplay of meteorological factors and their significant impact on pollutant levels in the NNCP. The
293 stagnant conditions during EP1 led to significant pollutant accumulation and secondary pollution
294 formation, while the dynamic conditions during EP2 highlighted the role of regional pollutant transport
295 in exacerbating haze episodes. These findings emphasize the need to consider local and regional
296 atmospheric processes in air quality management strategies.

297 Reducing anthropogenic emissions has been a primary factor in decreasing PM_{2.5} pollution in
298 China(Bao and Zhang, 2020; Liu et al., 2020a). However, these haze episodes in NNCP during the
299 COVID-19 lockdown challenge the relationship between human activities and air quality. These
300 unexpected haze episodes underscore the complexity of air quality dynamics, suggesting that factors
301 such as meteorological conditions, secondary pollutant formation, regional transport, and non-industrial
302 sources also significantly impact air quality (Huang et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2020a; Shi and Brasseur,
303 2020). Future air quality management strategies must incorporate these multifaceted interactions for
304 more effective pollution control.

305 3.3 Meteorological conditions increase PM_{2.5} in NNCP and decrease it in SNCP

306 Meteorological factors significantly influenced PM_{2.5} concentrations during the study period, as
307 illustrated by the pattern comparisons between the "BASE" and "METEO" simulations (**Figure 5a**).
308 Changes in PM_{2.5} concentrations ranged from decreases of up to 50 µg m⁻³ to increases exceeding 100
309 µg m⁻³, revealing an apparent north-south disparity. In the NNCP, meteorological conditions led to
310 significant increases in PM_{2.5} concentrations, particularly in the northern regions, where levels rose by
311 50 to 100 µg m⁻³. In contrast, the SNCP, especially the western parts, experienced a decrease in PM_{2.5}
312 levels by 30 to 50 µg m⁻³, reflecting the more favorable meteorological conditions that facilitated
313 pollutant dispersion.

314 During haze episodes (EP1 and EP2), meteorological conditions had an even more pronounced
315 effect. In EP1, PM_{2.5} concentrations in the NNCP increased by 30 to 100 µg m⁻³ (**Figure 5c**),
316 particularly in the central NNCP areas near the mountain foothills. Meanwhile, the SNCP benefited
317 from reductions in PM_{2.5} concentrations of 30 to 50 µg m⁻³, suggesting that enhanced pollutant
318 dispersion helped mitigate pollution in the southern region. The impact of meteorology was even more
319 substantial during EP2, with PM_{2.5} increases in the NNCP exceeding 100 µg m⁻³ in some areas, and
320 reaching up to 150 µg m⁻³ in heavily affected regions (**Figure 5d**). Low planetary boundary layer
321 heights (PBLH) and stagnant surface winds drove this increase, particularly in Beijing and its
322 surrounding areas (**Figure S7c, S7d**). Conversely, in the SNCP, reductions in PM_{2.5} concentrations of
323 30 to 50 µg m⁻³ were observed, aided by higher PBLH and stronger northward winds, which enhanced
324 pollutant dispersion. Meanwhile, the comparison between the "SNCP0" simulation (with SNCP
325 emissions set to zero) and the "BASE" case demonstrated a substantial reduction in PM_{2.5}
326 concentrations in the NNCP (**Figure S8**), particularly during EP2. This reduction, ranging from 15 to 30
327 µg m⁻³ in some regions of the NNCP (**Figure S8b**), provides direct evidence that SNCP emissions
328 contribute significantly to PM_{2.5} accumulation in the NNCP via northward transport. This finding
329 underscores the importance of regional transport, facilitated by northward winds, in elevating PM_{2.5}
330 concentrations in the NNCP, especially under meteorological conditions that support pollutant
331 movement from south to north.

332 During non-haze periods, weather conditions still significantly impacted PM_{2.5} levels across the
333 region, though the effect was less intense than haze episodes. In the NNCP, stagnant air and low wind
334 speeds led to PM_{2.5} increases of 10 to 30 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (**Figure 5b**). These weak conditions prevented
335 effective pollutant dispersion, causing pollutants to accumulate, although less than during significant
336 pollution events. This ongoing buildup due to poor weather shows the continued vulnerability of the
337 NNCP to limited ventilation (Feng et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2024). In contrast, in the SNCP, weather
338 conditions helped reduce PM_{2.5} by 10 to 30 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (**Figure 5b**). This improvement was mainly due to
339 higher PBLH (**Figure S7b**) and stronger winds (**Figure 5b**), which promoted pollutant dispersion. The
340 PBLH rose by 100 to 300 meters, allowing pollutants to spread vertically, leading to lower PM_{2.5} levels
341 at the surface. Favorable winds also helped clear pollutants, enhancing the positive effects of
342 meteorology on air quality. Previous studies have shown that regions with better dispersion conditions
343 can achieve more significant air quality improvements, even with similar emissions, due to more
344 efficient pollutant removal (Xu et al., 2020b; Zhang et al., 2021). These regional differences during
345 non-haze periods show the critical role of weather in influencing air quality. In the NNCP, weak
346 atmospheric circulation limited pollutant dispersion, causing moderate PM_{2.5} increases. In contrast, in
347 the SNCP, more dynamic weather conditions promoted pollutant removal, leading to substantial
348 reductions.

349 Regional variations in haze episodes underscore the critical role of elevated near-surface
350 temperature (T2) and relative humidity (RH) in driving secondary aerosol formation (**Figure S9**). In the
351 NNCP, elevated T2 accelerates gas-phase oxidation reactions, converting volatile organic compounds
352 (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) into secondary organic aerosols (SOAs) and nitrate aerosols, thus
353 contributing to increased PM_{2.5} levels despite reduced emissions (Huang et al., 2021; Seinfeld and
354 Pandis, 2016). Similarly, elevated RH facilitates aqueous-phase reactions that convert SO₂ into sulfate
355 on particle surfaces, aided by aerosol liquid water, and this effect is particularly pronounced during haze
356 episodes, where high RH accelerates sulfate formation even with decreased emissions (Le et al., 2020;
357 Wang et al., 2020). The online WRF-Chem model captures these interactions in the SEN_METEO
358 simulation, integrating the effects of T2 and RH into the modeled PM_{2.5} concentrations. Although the
359 study does not isolate each specific chemical pathway, the correlation between elevated T2, RH, and

360 higher PM_{2.5} concentrations aligns with previous research, and underscores the pivotal role of
361 meteorological conditions in secondary aerosol formation. This finding highlights the importance of
362 considering meteorological influences in addition to emission reductions, as unfavorable weather
363 conditions can offset the expected improvements from reduced emissions and sustain elevated PM_{2.5}
364 levels. This understanding is essential for developing effective air pollution control strategies that
365 account for emissions and meteorological variability.

366 These meteorological effects also impact secondary aerosols, including secondary organic
367 aerosols (SOAs) and secondary inorganic aerosols (SIAs), with substantial variability between the
368 NNCP and SNCP regions. In the NNCP, stagnant conditions and reduced boundary layer heights
369 limited pollutant dispersion, contributing to the accumulation of SOAs and SIAs. High humidity further
370 exacerbated the formation of secondary aerosols, resulting in elevated concentrations (**Figure S10**).
371 Conversely, the SNCP benefited from higher PBLH (**Figure S7**) and dynamic wind patterns(**Figure 4a**),
372 which enhanced the dispersion of both primary and secondary aerosols, reducing their concentrations.
373 Due to the very low emissions of biogenic secondary organic aerosol (BSOA) precursors during
374 wintertime(Guenther et al., 2012), the BSOA contribution to PM_{2.5} concentrations is insignificant,
375 averaging less than 2 µg m⁻³ throughout the study period (**Figure S11a**). The average BSOA accounted
376 for less than 2% of total PM_{2.5} mass in the BASE simulations (**Figure S11b**), indicating a minor role for
377 biogenic emissions in shaping wintertime air quality.

378 **3.4 Emission reduction decreases the PM_{2.5} in the NSCP and SNCP**

379 Abrupt decreases in anthropogenic emissions during the COVID-19 lockdown led to significant
380 reductions in PM_{2.5} concentrations across both the NNCP and SNCP (**Figure 6a**). Both regions
381 experienced substantial PM_{2.5} decreases, contributing to improvements in air quality. In addition to the
382 overall PM_{2.5} reductions, emission controls significantly impacted SOAs and SIAs in the NNCP and
383 SNCP (**Figure S10b, 10d**). The reductions in SOAs and SIAs were driven by decreased availability of
384 precursors such as VOCs for SOAs and SO₂ and NO_x for SIAs(Huang et al., 2021).

385 Wintertime ozone production in urban areas of northern China typically occurs in a NO_x-
386 saturated regime, primarily due to a lack of HO_x radicals and limited solar radiation during

387 winter(Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Additionally, reduced fresh NO emissions alleviate ozone
388 titration(Levy et al., 2014). Thus, a reduction in NO_x often leads to increased ozone levels. In the NCP
389 during winter, there is usually an inverse relationship between PM_{2.5} and O₃, attributed to the aerosol
390 radiative effect on ozone photochemistry(Li et al., 2017b; Wu et al., 2020). However, during the
391 COVID-19 lockdown, this inverse relationship disappeared in the NNCP, with ozone concentrations
392 reaching approximately 65.7 μg m⁻³ even when PM_{2.5} levels exceeded 100 μg m⁻³ (**Figure S12**).
393 Significant reductions in NO_x emissions reduced ozone titration, resulting in elevated ozone levels
394 despite higher PM_{2.5} concentrations. This pattern aligns with previous findings that in NO_x-saturated
395 environments, reductions in NO_x can increase ozone levels, with additional effects from aerosol
396 radiative influences and precursor interactions shaping the O₃–PM_{2.5} relationship(Le et al., 2020). These
397 dynamics highlight the importance of considering nonlinear chemical and meteorological factors when
398 assessing air quality responses to emission reductions.

399 During haze episodes (EP1 and EP2), the absolute decrease in PM_{2.5} was considerably greater
400 than during non-haze periods. PM_{2.5} reductions during these episodes generally exceeded 30 to 50 μg
401 m⁻³ (**Figure 6c, 6d**), particularly in areas along the mountain foothills, where contributions surpassed 50
402 μg m⁻³ during EP2 (**Figure 6d**). This considerable decrease underscores the enhanced effectiveness of
403 emission control measures during severe pollution events, highlighting the importance of emission
404 reductions in extreme pollution levels(Zheng et al., 2021).

405 In non-haze periods, the reductions in PM_{2.5} were less pronounced, typically ranging from 5 to
406 30 μg m⁻³ (**Figure 6b**). These results suggest that emissions reductions effectively lowered PM_{2.5}
407 concentrations, but their impact was more moderate under baseline conditions with lower pollution
408 levels. The sensitivity simulations confirm that emission reductions during the lockdown directly
409 contributed to decreased PM_{2.5} levels across regions.

410 It is important to note that the reductions seen in the EMIS scenario are attributed solely to
411 changes in emissions and do not account for meteorological influences. The meteorological conditions
412 during the study period likely offset some emission-driven improvements, which will be further
413 explored in the combined effects analysis. However, the EMIS results demonstrate the potential

414 effectiveness of emission controls in reducing PM_{2.5}, particularly in regions with high anthropogenic
415 activity.

416 **3.5 Combined and coupled effects of meteorology and emission reduction on PM_{2.5}**

417 The combined and coupled effects of meteorological conditions and emission reductions during
418 the COVID-19 lockdown significantly influenced PM_{2.5} concentrations in the NNCP and SNCP. These
419 effects varied depending on the region and the interaction between meteorological factors and reduced
420 emissions, aligning with findings from similar studies in urban areas during lockdowns that emphasize
421 the role of meteorology in modulating pollution levels (Huang et al., 2021).

422 The results highlight contrasting impacts between the NNCP and SNCP regarding combined
423 effects. In the NNCP, the combined effects of weather conditions and emission reductions led to
424 noticeable increases in PM_{2.5} levels during the study period. These combined effects raised PM_{2.5}
425 concentrations by 10 to 75 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, especially in the northern regions (**Figure 7a**). Even during non-haze
426 periods, this combined influence caused PM_{2.5} to increase by 10 to 40 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (**Figure 7b**). The impact
427 was even more significant during haze episodes. For example, during EP2, PM_{2.5} levels increased by
428 exceeding 100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (**Figure 7d**), showing that adverse weather conditions, like stagnant winds and
429 low boundary layer heights, negated the benefits of emission reductions. In the SNCP, the combined
430 effects led to significant decreases in PM_{2.5} levels. Throughout the study period, PM_{2.5} concentrations
431 dropped by 30 to 100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (**Figure 7a**). The positive impact of emission reductions was most
432 apparent during haze episodes, where the combined effects during EP2 led to reductions exceeding 100
433 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in some areas (**Figure 7d**).

434 The factor separation analysis provided critical insights into the combined effects of emissions
435 and meteorology (**Figure S13**). During non-haze periods(**Figure S13b**), the coupled effects contributed
436 to a PM_{2.5} increase of 5 to 10 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the NNCP. Still, they increased to 10 to 50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during haze
437 episodes, particularly during EP2 (**Figure S13d**). This indicates that unfavorable meteorological
438 conditions limited the effectiveness of emission reductions in the NNCP. As a result, emission
439 reductions, though beneficial, were insufficient to improve air quality significantly under these
440 conditions. This finding aligns with previous studies showing that areas with adverse weather

441 conditions often struggle to improve air quality despite emission reductions (Feng et al., 2021). Such
442 conditions hinder pollutant dispersion, making it difficult for emission reductions to decrease PM_{2.5}
443 concentrations significantly (Zheng et al., 2021).

444 In contrast, the SNCP exhibited more vital coupled effects between meteorology and emission
445 reductions. During haze episodes, this interaction led to an additional 10 to 50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ reduction in PM_{2.5}
446 levels (**Figure S13c, S13d**). The coupled effects between favorable meteorological conditions and
447 reduced emissions greatly enhanced PM_{2.5} decreases, especially during the EP2 haze episode. This more
448 substantial interaction in the SNCP highlights how favorable meteorology can amplify the impact of
449 emission reductions, leading to more vital improvements in air quality. Previous research has shown
450 that when meteorology supports pollutant dispersion, the benefits of emission reductions are maximized,
451 resulting in significant decreases in pollutant concentrations (Xu et al., 2020b; Zhang et al., 2021).

452 The station-averaged regional contributions also reveal differences between the NNCP and
453 SNCP during the COVID-19 lockdown (**Figure 8**). In the NNCP, adverse meteorological conditions
454 dominated, driving significant PM_{2.5} increases of 60 to 90 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during haze episodes. In comparison,
455 emission reductions contributed more modest decreases of 20 to 40 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Coupled effects added only
456 10 to 15 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in reductions, insufficient to offset the impact of poor weather (**Figure 8a**). Conversely,
457 in the SNCP, emission reductions had a more substantial effect, with PM_{2.5} levels decreasing by 30 to
458 50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during haze episodes, as meteorology and emissions worked synergistically. Coupled effects
459 in the SNCP contributed an additional 15 to 20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in reductions, highlighting a more vital
460 interaction between favorable meteorology and emissions controls (**Figure 8b**). Daily contributions
461 support these trends, with the NNCP seeing persistent increases, while the SNCP experienced consistent
462 reductions, especially during EP2, where daily decreases ranged from 40 to 60 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (**Figure S14**).

463 **4 Conclusions**

464 This study highlights the significant but regionally variable impacts of meteorological conditions
465 and emission reductions on PM_{2.5} levels across the NCP during the COVID-19 lockdown. In the NNCP,
466 adverse meteorological conditions, characterized by cold, stagnant, and humid air masses, often
467 outweighed the benefits of emission reductions, leading to increased PM_{2.5} concentrations, especially

468 during haze episodes. Conversely, in the SNCP, warmer air masses and more favourable meteorological
469 conditions enhanced the effectiveness of emission reductions, resulting in decreased PM_{2.5} levels.

470 Previous studies have primarily focused on the overall impacts of meteorological conditions and
471 emission reductions on air quality across the North China Plain and even nationwide. We emphasize the
472 localized differences in how meteorological conditions and emission reductions affect air quality within
473 the North China Plain, specifically between the NNCP and SNCP. Our findings underscore the critical
474 role that meteorological conditions play in modulating the effects of emission reductions. The
475 combination of unfavourable meteorological factors and emission reductions in the NNCP led to overall
476 increases in PM_{2.5} levels, with significant increases during haze episodes. Meanwhile, in the SNCP,
477 meteorological conditions and emission reductions consistently contributed to lower PM_{2.5}
478 concentrations.

479 These results emphasize the necessity of integrated air quality management strategies for
480 emission sources and atmospheric dynamics. By understanding the spatial and temporal variations in
481 PM_{2.5} in response to different meteorological conditions, policymakers can design more effective
482 pollution control measures, particularly during critical pollution episodes. This study provides valuable
483 insights into the complex interactions between emissions, meteorology, and air quality, highlighting the
484 need for comprehensive approaches to improve air quality in the NCP.

485 ***Data availability***

486 The code and data used in this study are from Lang Liu (liulang@ieecas.cn) and Xin Long
487 (longxin@cigit.ac.cn).

488 ***Competing interests***

489 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

490 ***Author contribution***

491 LL and XL designed the research and wrote the manuscript. YL, ZZ, FW, YY, ZB, TF, and JY
492 contributed to interpreting the results. All the authors provided critical feedback and helped to improve
493 the manuscript.

494

495 ***Acknowledgments***

496 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (grant no. 42007206,
497 and U23A2030), the Science and Technology Innovation Program of Hunan Province (2024RC3129),
498 the Fund and Program of National University of Defense Technology (202301-YJRC-ZZ-002, ZK23-
499 52), and the Open Fund of the State Key Laboratory of Loess and Quaternary Geology (grant no.
500 SKLLQG2219). The authors also thank Tsinghua University for compiling and sharing the MEIC.

501 **References**

- 502 WHO (World Health Organisation): COVID-19 deaths, WHO COVID-19 Dashboard, World Health Organisation,;
503 <https://data.who.int/dashboards/covid19/deaths?n=o>, last access: August 25, 2024.
- 504 Bao, R. and Zhang, A.: Does lockdown reduce air pollution? Evidence from 44 cities in northern China, *Sci. Total*
505 *Environ.*, 731, 139052, 2020.
- 506 Bauwens, M., Compennolle, S., Stavrakou, T., Müller, J.-F., Van Gent, J., Eskes, H., Levelt, P. F., Van Der A, R.,
507 Veefkind, J. P., and Vlietinck, J.: Impact of coronavirus outbreak on NO₂ pollution assessed using TROPOMI
508 and OMI observations, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 47, e2020GL087978, 2020.
- 509 Binkowski, F. S. and Roselle, S. J.: Models-3 community multiscale air quality (CMAQ) model aerosol component 1.
510 Model description, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmospheres*, 108, 2003.
- 511 Chang, Y., Huang, R.-J., Ge, X., Huang, X., Hu, J., Duan, Y., Zou, Z., Liu, X., and Lehmann, M. F.: Puzzling haze
512 events in China during the coronavirus (COVID-19) shutdown, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 47, e2020GL088533, 2020.
- 513 Chen, F. and Dudhia, J.: Coupling an advanced land surface–hydrology model with the Penn State–NCAR MM5
514 modeling system. Part II: Preliminary model validation, *Mon. Weather Rev.*, 129, 587–604, 2001.

515 Cheng, Y., Zheng, G., Wei, C., Mu, Q., Zheng, B., Wang, Z., Gao, M., Zhang, Q., He, K., and Carmichael, G.:
516 Reactive nitrogen chemistry in aerosol water as a source of sulfate during haze events in China, *Sci. Adv.*, 2,
517 e1601530, 2016.

518 Danabasoglu, G., Lamarque, J. -F., Bacmeister, J., Bailey, D. A., DuVivier, A. K., Edwards, J., Emmons, L. K.,
519 Fasullo, J., Garcia, R., Gettelman, A., Hannay, C., Holland, M. M., Large, W. G., Lauritzen, P. H., Lawrence, D.
520 M., Lenaerts, J. T. M., Lindsay, K., Lipscomb, W. H., Mills, M. J., Neale, R., Oleson, K. W., Otto-Bliesner, B.,
521 Phillips, A. S., Sacks, W., Tilmes, S., Van Kampenhout, L., Vertenstein, M., Bertini, A., Dennis, J., Deser, C.,
522 Fischer, C., Fox-Kemper, B., Kay, J. E., Kinnison, D., Kushner, P. J., Larson, V. E., Long, M. C., Mickelson, S.,
523 Moore, J. K., Nienhouse, E., Polvani, L., Rasch, P. J., and Strand, W. G.: The Community Earth System Model
524 Version 2 (CESM2), *J. Adv. Model. Earth Syst.*, 12, e2019MS001916, <https://doi.org/10.1029/2019MS001916>,
525 2020.

526 Ding, J., Dai, Q., Li, Y., Han, S., Zhang, Y., and Feng, Y.: Impact of meteorological condition changes on air quality
527 and particulate chemical composition during the COVID-19 lockdown, *J. Environ. Sci.*, 109, 45–56, 2021.

528 Dong, D. and Wang, J.: Air pollution as a substantial threat to the improvement of agricultural total factor productivity:
529 Global evidence, *Environ. Int.*, 173, 107842, 2023.

530 Feng, J., Liao, H., Li, Y., Zhang, Z., and Tang, Y.: Long-term trends and variations in haze-related weather conditions
531 in north China during 1980–2018 based on emission-weighted stagnation intensity, *Atmos. Environ.*, 240,
532 117830, 2020.

533 Feng, T., Zhao, S., Bei, N., Liu, S., and Li, G.: Increasing atmospheric oxidizing capacity weakens emission mitigation
534 effort in Beijing during autumn haze events, *Chemosphere*, 281, 130855, 2021.

535 Grell, G. A., Peckham, S. E., Schmitz, R., McKeen, S. A., Frost, G., Skamarock, W. C., and Eder, B.: Fully coupled
536 "online" chemistry within the WRF model, *Atmos. Environ.*, 39, 6957–6975, 2005.

537 Guenther, A., Karl, T., Harley, P., Wiedinmyer, C., Palmer, P. I., and Geron, C.: Estimates of global terrestrial
538 isoprene emissions using MEGAN (Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature), *Atmospheric*
539 *Chem. Phys.*, 6, 3181–3210, 2006.

540 Guenther, A. B., Jiang, X., Heald, C. L., Sakulyanontvittaya, T., Duhl, T. any, Emmons, L. K., and Wang, X.: The
541 Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature version 2.1 (MEGAN2. 1): an extended and updated
542 framework for modeling biogenic emissions, *Geosci. Model Dev.*, 5, 1471–1492, 2012.

543 Guo, H., Liu, J., Froyd, K. D., Roberts, J. M., Veres, P. R., Hayes, P. L., Jimenez, J. L., Nenes, A., and Weber, R. J.:
544 Fine particle pH and gas–particle phase partitioning of inorganic species in Pasadena, California, during the
545 2010 CalNex campaign, *Atmospheric Chem. Phys.*, 17, 5703–5719, 2017.

546 Hong, S.-Y. and Lim, J.-O. J.: The WRF single-moment 6-class microphysics scheme (WSM6), *Asia-Pac. J.*
547 *Atmospheric Sci.*, 42, 129–151, 2006.

548 Huang, X., Ding, A., Gao, J., Zheng, B., Zhou, D., Qi, X., Tang, R., Wang, J., Ren, C., Nie, W., Chi, X., Xu, Z., Chen,
549 L., Li, Y., Che, F., Pang, N., Wang, H., Tong, D., Qin, W., Cheng, W., Liu, W., Fu, Q., Liu, B., Chai, F., Davis,
550 S. J., Zhang, Q., and He, K.: Enhanced secondary pollution offset reduction of primary emissions during
551 COVID-19 lockdown in China, *Natl. Sci. Rev.*, 8, nwaa137, <https://doi.org/10.1093/nsr/nwaa137>, 2021.

552 Janić, Z. I.: Nonsingular implementation of the Mellor-Yamada level 2.5 scheme in the NCEP Meso model, 2001.

553 Kalnay, E., Kanamitsu, M., Kistler, R., Collins, W., Deaven, D., Gandin, L., Iredell, M., Saha, S., White, G., and
554 Woollen, J.: The NCEP/NCAR 40-year reanalysis project, in: *Renewable energy*, Routledge, Vol1_146-
555 Vol1_194, 2018.

556 Le, T., Wang, Y., Liu, L., Yang, J., Yung, Y. L., Li, G., and Seinfeld, J. H.: Unexpected air pollution with marked
557 emission reductions during the COVID-19 outbreak in China, *Science*, 369, 702–706, 2020.

558 Lelieveld, J., Haines, A., and Pozzer, A.: Age-dependent health risk from ambient air pollution: a modelling and data
559 analysis of childhood mortality in middle-income and low-income countries, *Lancet Planet. Health*, 2, e292–
560 e300, 2018.

561 Levy, I., Mihele, C., Lu, G., Narayan, J., and Brook, J. R.: Evaluating multipollutant exposure and urban air quality:
562 pollutant interrelationships, neighborhood variability, and nitrogen dioxide as a proxy pollutant, *Environ.*
563 *Health Perspect.*, 122, 65–72, 2014.

564 Li, G., Bei, N., Tie, X., and Molina, L. T.: Aerosol effects on the photochemistry in Mexico City during MCMA-
565 2006/MILAGRO campaign, *Atmospheric Chem. Phys.*, 11, 5169–5182, 2011.

566 Li, G., Bei, N., Cao, J., Huang, R., Wu, J., Feng, T., Wang, Y., Liu, S., Zhang, Q., and Tie, X.: A possible pathway for
567 rapid growth of sulfate during haze days in China, *Atmospheric Chem. Phys.*, 17, 3301–3316, 2017a.

568 Li, G., Bei, N., Cao, J., Wu, J., Long, X., Feng, T., Dai, W., Liu, S., Zhang, Q., and Tie, X.: Widespread and persistent
569 ozone pollution in eastern China during the non-winter season of 2015: observations and source attributions,
570 *Atmospheric Chem. Phys.*, 17, 2759–2774, 2017b.

571 Li, J., Liao, H., Hu, J., and Li, N.: Severe particulate pollution days in China during 2013–2018 and the associated
572 typical weather patterns in Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei and the Yangtze River Delta regions, *Environ. Pollut.*, 248,
573 74–81, 2019.

574 Li, J., Gao, W., Cao, L., He, L., Zhang, X., Yan, Y., Mao, J., Xin, J., Wang, L., and Tang, G.: Effects of different
575 stagnant meteorological conditions on aerosol chemistry and regional transport changes in Beijing, China,
576 *Atmos. Environ.*, 258, 118483, 2021.

577 Li, J., Carlson, B. E., Yung, Y. L., Lv, D., Hansen, J., Penner, J. E., Liao, H., Ramaswamy, V., Kahn, R. A., and Zhang,
578 P.: Scattering and absorbing aerosols in the climate system, *Nat. Rev. Earth Environ.*, 3, 363–379, 2022.

579 Li, L., Hoffmann, M. R., and Colussi, A. J.: Role of nitrogen dioxide in the production of sulfate during Chinese haze-
580 aerosol episodes, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 52, 2686–2693, 2018.

581 Li, L., Li, Q., Huang, L., Wang, Q., Zhu, A., Xu, J., Liu, Z., Li, H., Shi, L., and Li, R.: Air quality changes during the
582 COVID-19 lockdown over the Yangtze River Delta Region: An insight into the impact of human activity
583 pattern changes on air pollution variation, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 732, 139282, 2020.

584 Liu, F., Page, A., Strode, S. A., Yoshida, Y., Choi, S., Zheng, B., Lamsal, L. N., Li, C., Krotkov, N. A., and Eskes, H.:
585 Abrupt decline in tropospheric nitrogen dioxide over China after the outbreak of COVID-19, *Sci. Adv.*, 6,
586 eabc2992, 2020a.

587 Liu, L., Bei, N., Hu, B., Wu, J., Liu, S., Li, X., Wang, R., Liu, Z., Shen, Z., and Li, G.: Wintertime nitrate formation
588 pathways in the north China plain: Importance of N₂O₅ heterogeneous hydrolysis, *Environ. Pollut.*, 266,
589 115287, 2020b.

590 Liu, M., Song, Y., Zhou, T., Xu, Z., Yan, C., Zheng, M., Wu, Z., Hu, M., Wu, Y., and Zhu, T.: Fine particle pH during
591 severe haze episodes in northern China, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 44, 5213–5221, 2017.

592 Liu, Y., Wang, T., Stavrou, T., Elguindi, N., Doumbia, T., Granier, C., Bouarar, I., Gaubert, B., and Brasseur, G. P.:
593 Diverse response of surface ozone to COVID-19 lockdown in China, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 789, 147739, 2021.

594 Lv, Z., Wang, X., Deng, F., Ying, Q., Archibald, A. T., Jones, R. L., Ding, Y., Cheng, Y., Fu, M., and Liu, Y.: Source-
595 receptor relationship revealed by the halted traffic and aggravated haze in Beijing during the COVID-19
596 lockdown, *Environ. Sci. Technol.*, 54, 15660–15670, 2020.

597 Ma, T., Duan, F., Ma, Y., Zhang, Q., Xu, Y., Li, W., Zhu, L., and He, K.: Unbalanced emission reductions and adverse
598 meteorological conditions facilitate the formation of secondary pollutants during the COVID-19 lockdown in
599 Beijing, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 838, 155970, 2022.

600 Mauldin Iii, R. L., Berndt, T., Sipilä, M., Paasonen, P., Petäjä, T., Kim, S., Kurtén, T., Stratmann, F., Kerminen, V.-M.,
601 and Kulmala, M.: A new atmospherically relevant oxidant of sulphur dioxide, *Nature*, 488, 193–196, 2012.

602 Seinfeld, J. H. and Pandis, S. N.: *Atmospheric chemistry and physics: from air pollution to climate change*, John Wiley
603 & Sons, 2016.

604 Shen, F., Hegglin, M. I., and Yuan, Y.: Impact of weather patterns and meteorological factors on PM 2.5 and O₃
605 responses to the COVID-19 lockdown in China, *Atmospheric Chem. Phys.*, 24, 6539–6553, 2024.

606 Shi, X. and Brasseur, G. P.: The response in air quality to the reduction of Chinese economic activities during the
607 COVID-19 outbreak, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 47, e2020GL088070, 2020.

- 608 Su, T., Li, Z., Zheng, Y., Luan, Q., and Guo, J.: Abnormally Shallow Boundary Layer Associated With Severe Air
609 Pollution During the COVID-19 Lockdown in China, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 47, e2020GL090041,
610 <https://doi.org/10.1029/2020GL090041>, 2020.
- 611 Sun, Y., Lei, L., Zhou, W., Chen, C., He, Y., Sun, J., Li, Z., Xu, W., Wang, Q., and Ji, D.: A chemical cocktail during
612 the COVID-19 outbreak in Beijing, China: Insights from six-year aerosol particle composition measurements
613 during the Chinese New Year holiday, *Sci. Total Environ.*, 742, 140739, 2020.
- 614 Tie, X., Madronich, S., Walters, S., Zhang, R., Rasch, P., and Collins, W.: Effect of clouds on photolysis and oxidants
615 in the troposphere, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmospheres*, 108, 2003.
- 616 Wang, C., Horby, P. W., Hayden, F. G., and Gao, G. F.: A novel coronavirus outbreak of global health concern, *The*
617 *lancet*, 395, 470–473, 2020.
- 618 Wang, J., Lei, Y., Chen, Y., Wu, Y., Ge, X., Shen, F., Zhang, J., Ye, J., Nie, D., and Zhao, X.: Comparison of air
619 pollutants and their health effects in two developed regions in China during the COVID-19 pandemic, *J.*
620 *Environ. Manage.*, 287, 112296, 2021.
- 621 Wu, J., Bei, N., Hu, B., Liu, S., Wang, Y., Shen, Z., Li, X., Liu, L., Wang, R., Liu, Z., Cao, J., Tie, X., Molina, L. T.,
622 and Li, G.: Aerosol–photolysis interaction reduces particulate matter during wintertime haze events, *Proc. Natl.*
623 *Acad. Sci.*, 117, 9755–9761, <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1916775117>, 2020.
- 624 Xiao, Q., Geng, G., Liang, F., Wang, X., Lv, Z., Lei, Y., Huang, X., Zhang, Q., Liu, Y., and He, K.: Changes in spatial
625 patterns of PM_{2.5} pollution in China 2000–2018: Impact of clean air policies, *Environ. Int.*, 141, 105776, 2020.
- 626 Xu, J., Ge, X., Zhang, X., Zhao, W., Zhang, R., and Zhang, Y.: COVID-19 impact on the concentration and
627 composition of submicron particulate matter in a typical city of Northwest China, *Geophys. Res. Lett.*, 47,
628 e2020GL089035, 2020a.
- 629 Xu, Y., Xue, W., Lei, Y., Huang, Q., Zhao, Y., Cheng, S., Ren, Z., and Wang, J.: Spatiotemporal variation in the
630 impact of meteorological conditions on PM_{2.5} pollution in China from 2000 to 2017, *Atmos. Environ.*, 223,
631 117215, 2020b.
- 632 Yan, F., Su, H., Cheng, Y., Huang, R., Liao, H., Yang, T., Zhu, Y., Zhang, S., Sheng, L., and Kou, W.: Frequent haze
633 events associated with transport and stagnation over the corridor between the North China Plain and Yangtze
634 River Delta, *Atmospheric Chem. Phys.*, 24, 2365–2376, 2024.
- 635 Yang, G., Ren, G., Zhang, P., Xue, X., Tysa, S. K., Jia, W., Qin, Y., Zheng, X., and Zhang, S.: PM_{2.5} influence on
636 urban heat island (UHI) effect in Beijing and the possible mechanisms, *J. Geophys. Res. Atmospheres*, 126,
637 e2021JD035227, 2021.
- 638 Zhang, Q., Zheng, Y., Tong, D., Shao, M., Wang, S., Zhang, Y., Xu, X., Wang, J., He, H., and Liu, W.: Drivers of
639 improved PM_{2.5} air quality in China from 2013 to 2017, *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci.*, 116, 24463–24469, 2019.

640 Zhang, S., Zeng, G., Yang, X., Wu, R., and Yin, Z.: Comparison of the influence of two types of cold surge on haze
641 dispersion in eastern China, *Atmospheric Chem. Phys.*, 21, 15185–15197, 2021.

642 Zhao, Y., Zhang, K., Xu, X., Shen, H., Zhu, X., Zhang, Y., Hu, Y., and Shen, G.: Substantial Changes in Nitrogen
643 Dioxide and Ozone after Excluding Meteorological Impacts during the COVID-19 Outbreak in Mainland China,
644 *Environ. Sci. Technol. Lett.*, 7, 402–408, <https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.estlett.0c00304>, 2020.

645 Zheng, B., Zhang, Q., Geng, G., Chen, C., Shi, Q., Cui, M., Lei, Y., and He, K.: Changes in China's anthropogenic
646 emissions and air quality during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, *Earth Syst. Sci. Data*, 13, 2895–2907, 2021.

647 Zheng, G. J., Duan, F. K., Su, H., Ma, Y. L., Cheng, Y., Zheng, B., Zhang, Q., Huang, T., Kimoto, T., Chang, D.,
648 Pöschl, U., Cheng, Y. F., and He, K. B.: Exploring the severe winter haze in Beijing: the impact of synoptic
649 weather, regional transport and heterogeneous reactions, *Atmospheric Chem. Phys.*, 15, 2969–2983,
650 <https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-15-2969-2015>, 2015.

651

652 **Figure Captions**

653 **Figure 1.** The simulation domain in WRF-Chem, including topography. Circles represent the locations of cities with
654 ambient air quality monitoring sites, with circle size reflecting the number of monitoring sites per city. The IAP
655 observation sites are marked with black pentagons. The regions of interest, NNCP (Northern North China Plain) and
656 SNCP (Southern North China Plain), are highlighted.

657 **Figure 2.** The pattern comparisons between average observations and simulations for (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) SO₂, (c) O₃, and (d)
658 NO₂. Additionally, statistical comparisons are presented for (e) PM_{2.5} and O₃, and (f) SO₂ and NO₂, along with their
659 correlation coefficients (*r*).

660 **Figure 3.** Observed (solid lines) and simulated (dashed lines) day-to-day variations in surface PM_{2.5} O₃, NO₂, SO₂, and
661 CO levels in the NNCP (red lines) and SNCP (blue lines) from January 21 to February 15, 2020. The daily
662 concentrations of the pollutants were calculated from the 24-hour averages, except for O₃, which was calculated from
663 the 10:00 to 17:00 averages. Two haze episodes occurred during the study period: EP1 from January 22 to 29, and EP2
664 from February 8 to 13.

665 **Figure 4.** The spatial patterns of near-surface simulated PM_{2.5} averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-
666 haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2 haze period, along with the simulated surface wind fields.

667 **Figure 5.** The pattern comparisons of the "BASE" simulation minus the "METEO" simulation. The color gradient
668 represents PM_{2.5} changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period,
669 and (d) the EP2 haze period, along with the simulated surface wind fields.

670 **Figure 6.** The pattern comparisons of the "BASE" simulation minus the "EMIS" simulation. The color gradient
671 represents PM_{2.5} changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period,
672 and (d) the EP2 haze period.

673 **Figure 7.** The pattern comparisons of the "BASE" simulation minus the "EMIS_METEO" simulation. The color
674 gradient represents coupled effects on PM_{2.5} averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the
675 EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2 haze period.

676 **Figure 8.** Regional contributions to PM_{2.5} averaged in (a) the NNCP and (b) the SNCP during the entire period, non-
677 haze period, EP1, and EP2. The contributions include meteorological conditions (METEO), abrupt anthropogenic
678 emissions (EMIS) decreases, and coupled and combined effects of METEO and EMIS.

679

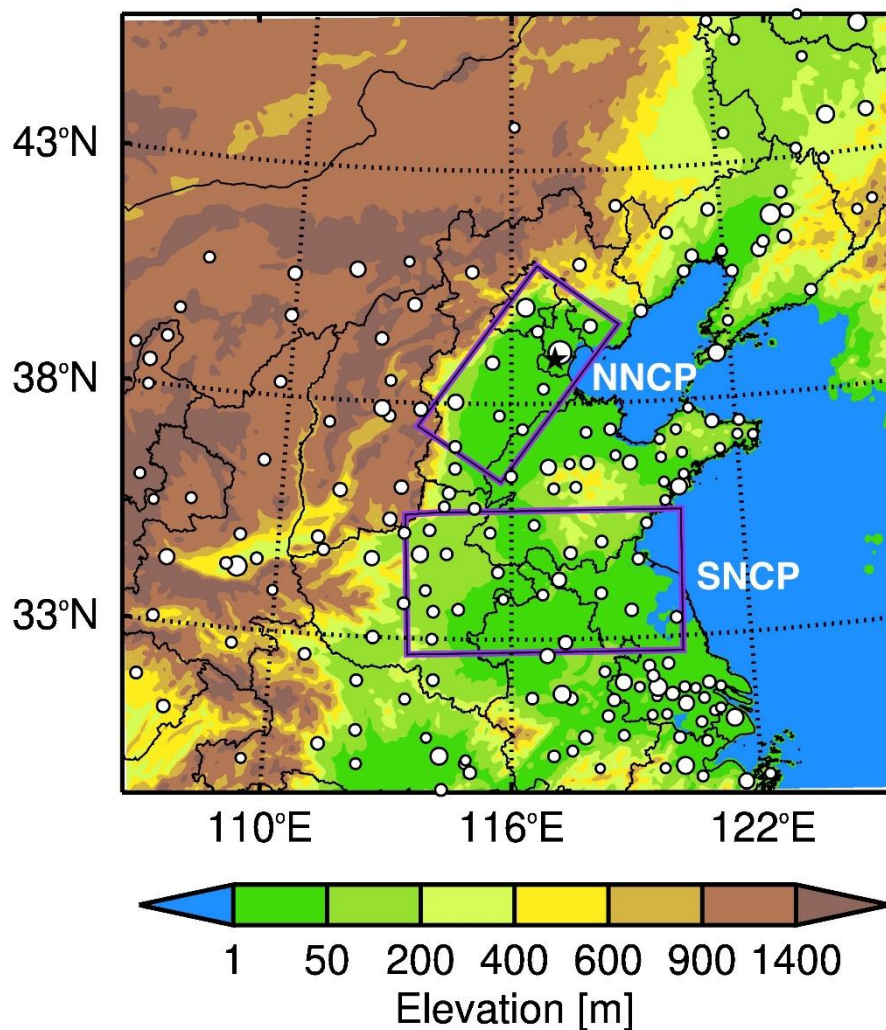
680 **Table Captions**

681 **Table 1** Configurations of simulation cases in this study

682 **Table 2.** The statistical parameters of model performance include temporal assessments of *MB*, and *IOA* in the NNCP and
683 SCNP and at the IAP monitoring site.

684 **Figure 1**

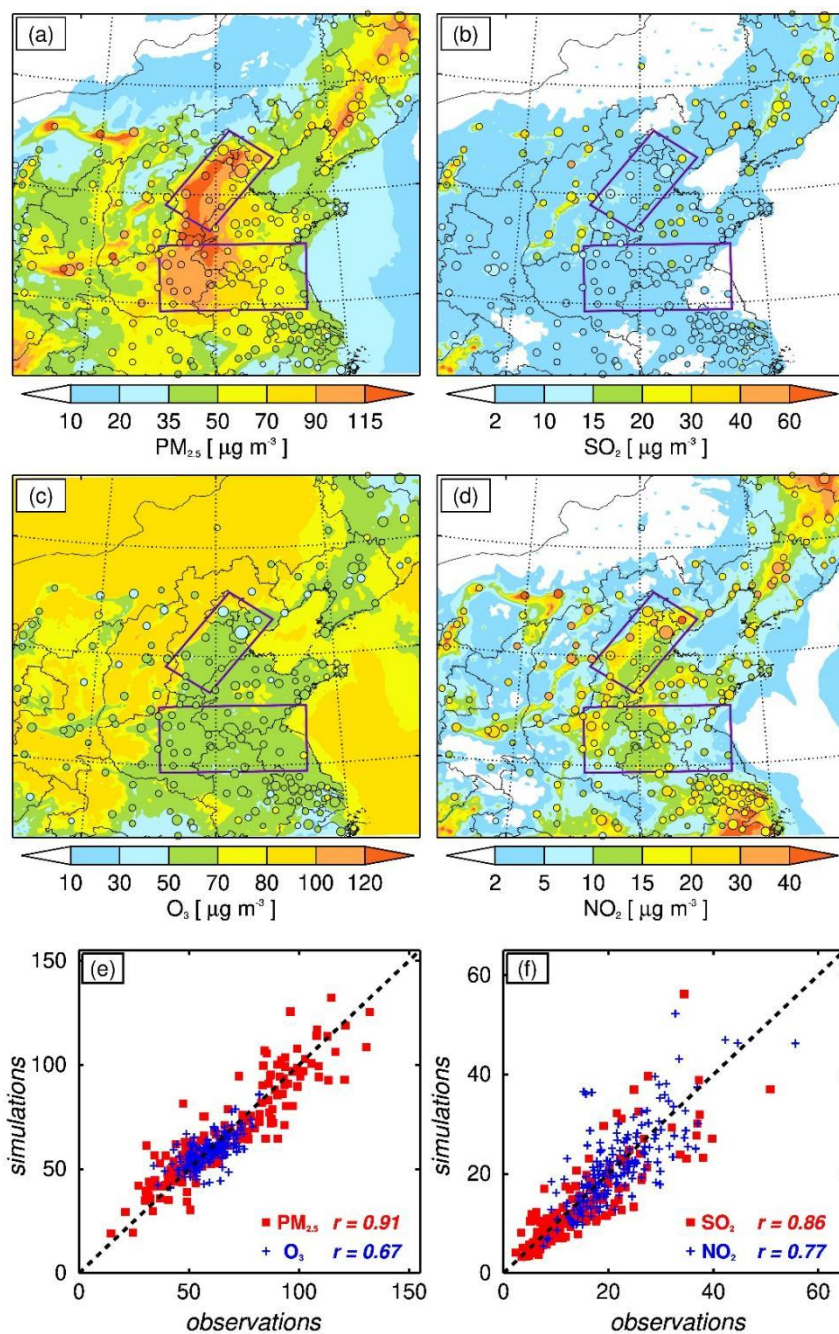
685



686

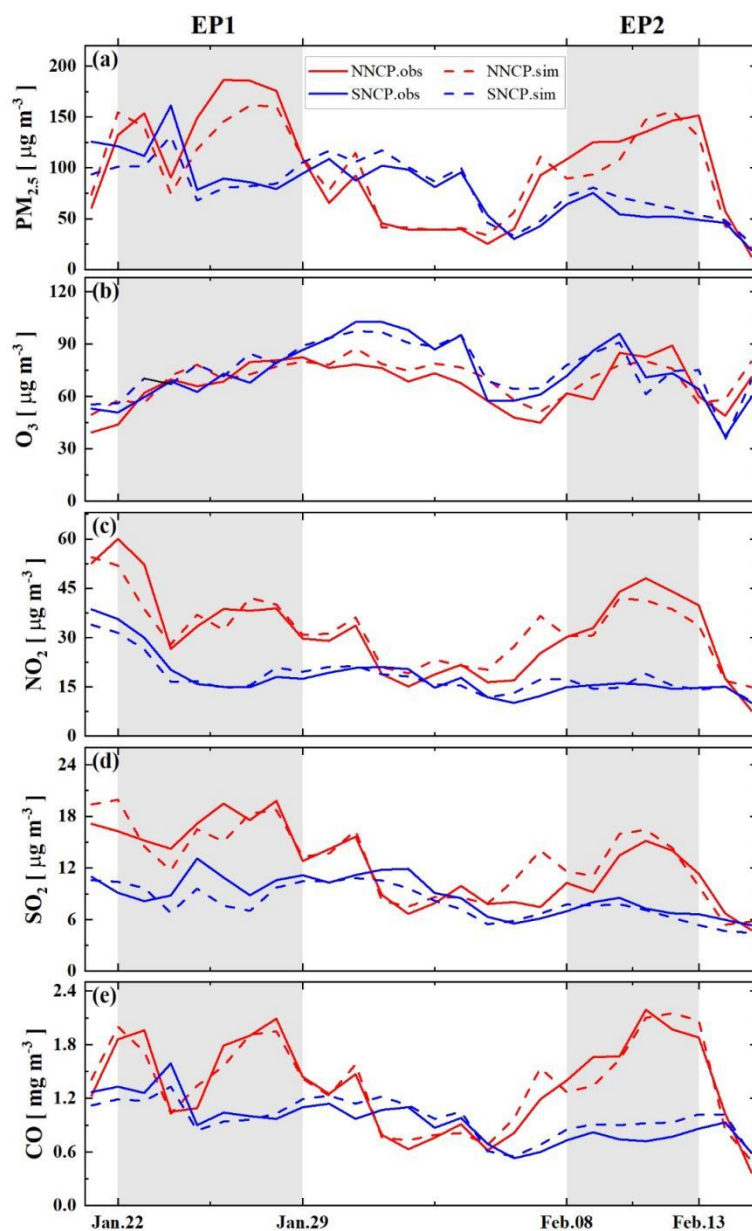
687 **Figure 1.** The simulation domain in WRF-Chem, including topography. Circles represent the locations of cities
688 with ambient air quality monitoring sites, with circle size reflecting the number of monitoring sites per city. The
689 IAP observation sites are marked with black pentagons. The regions of interest, NNCP (Northern North China
690 Plain) and SNCP (Southern North China Plain), are highlighted.

691



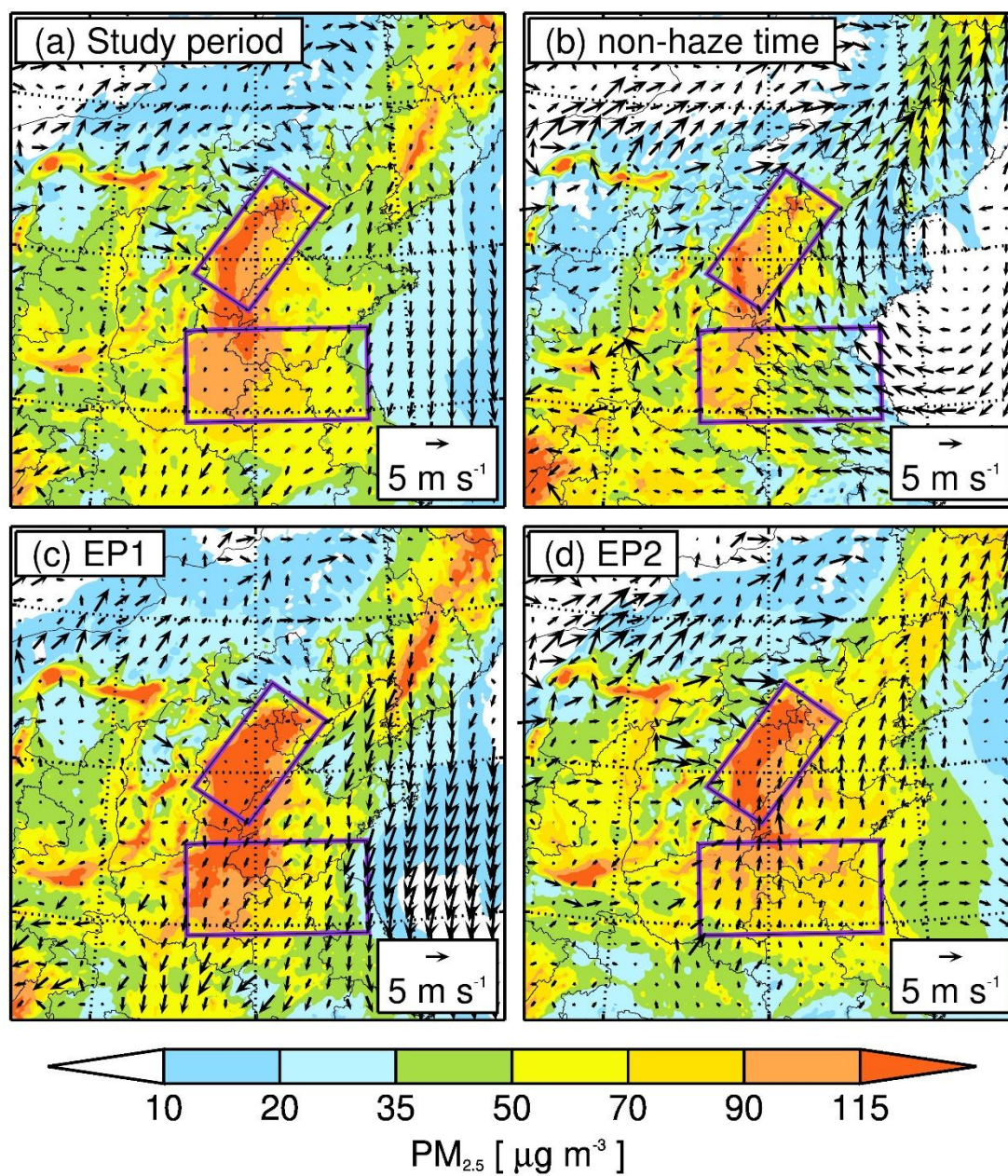
693

694 **Figure 2.** The pattern comparisons between average observations and simulations for (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) SO₂, (c) O₃, and (d) NO₂.695 Additionally, statistical comparisons are presented for (e) PM_{2.5} and O₃, and (f) SO₂ and NO₂, along with their correlation696 coefficients (r).



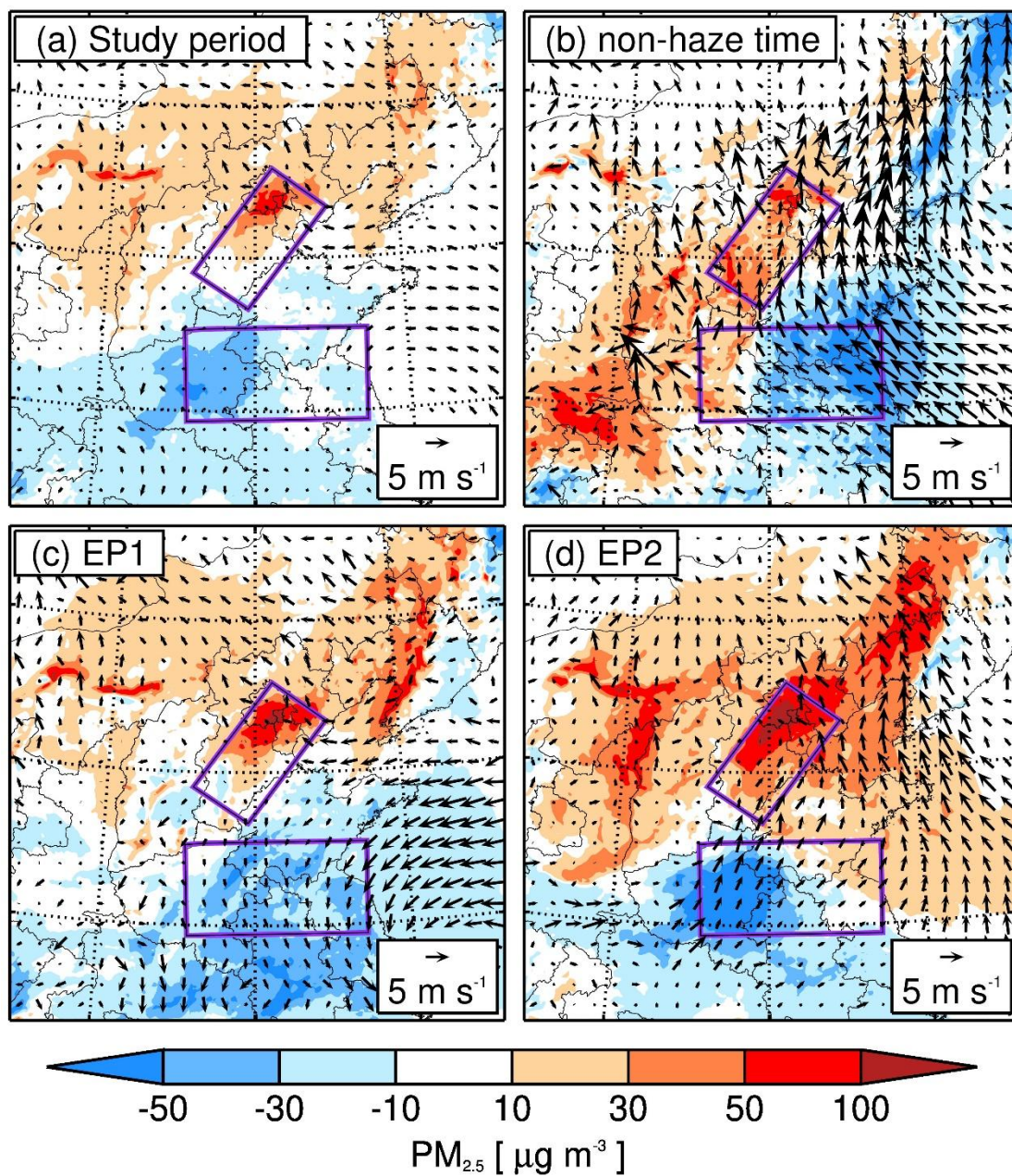
698

699 **Figure 3.** Observed (solid lines) and simulated (dashed lines) day-to-day variations in surface PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂, and
 700 CO levels in the NNCP (red lines) and SNCP (blue lines) from January 21 to February 15, 2020. The daily
 701 concentrations of the pollutants were calculated from the 24-hour averages, except for O₃, which was calculated from
 702 the 10:00 to 17:00 averages. Two haze episodes occurred during the study period: EP1 from January 22 to 29, and EP2
 703 from February 8 to 13.



705

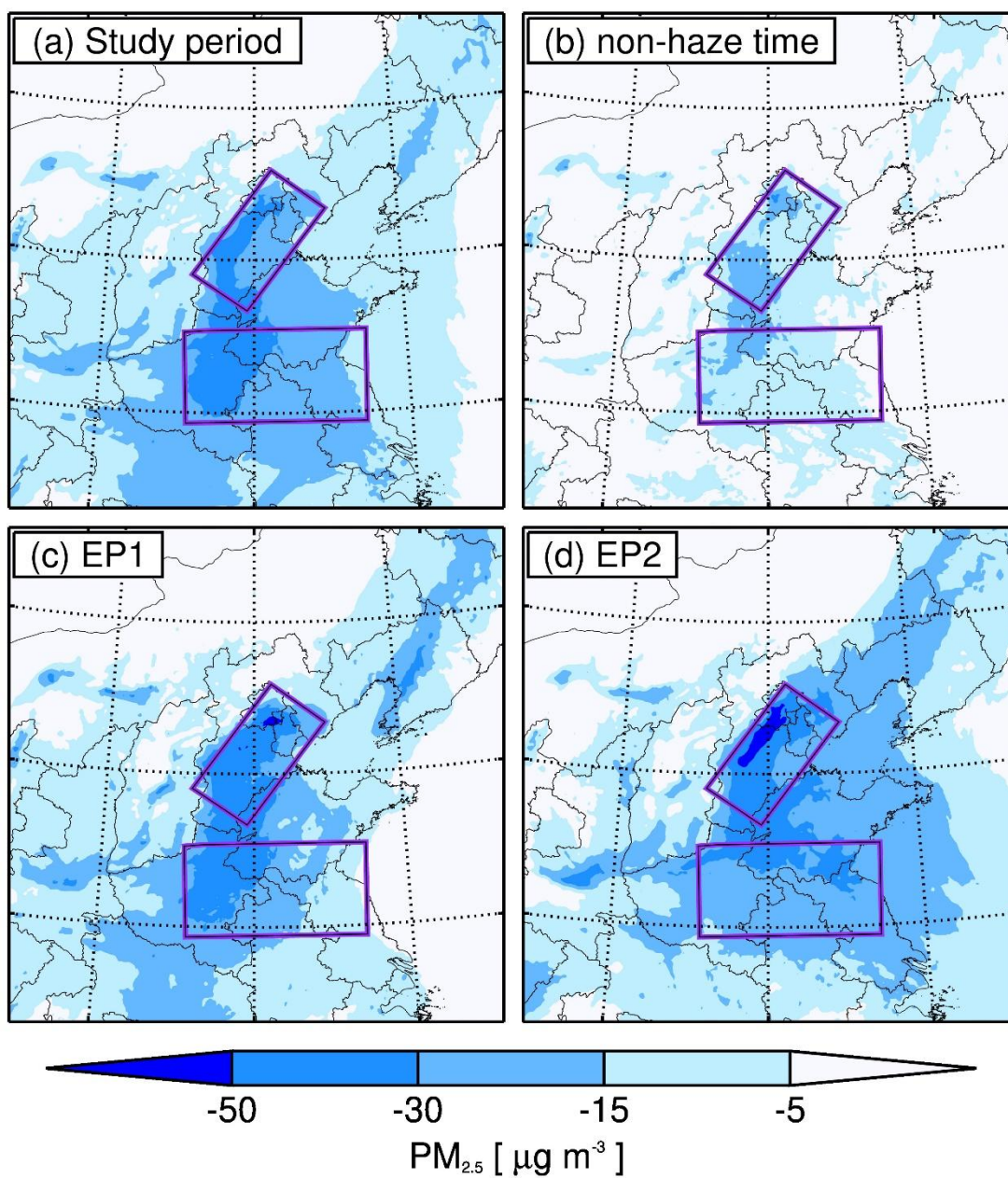
706 **Figure 4.** The spatial patterns of near-surface simulated $PM_{2.5}$ averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze
 707 period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2 haze period, along with the simulated surface wind fields.



709

710 **Figure 5.** The pattern comparisons of the "BASE" simulation minus the "METEO" simulation. The color gradient represents
 711 PM_{2.5} changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2
 712 haze period, along with the simulated surface wind fields.

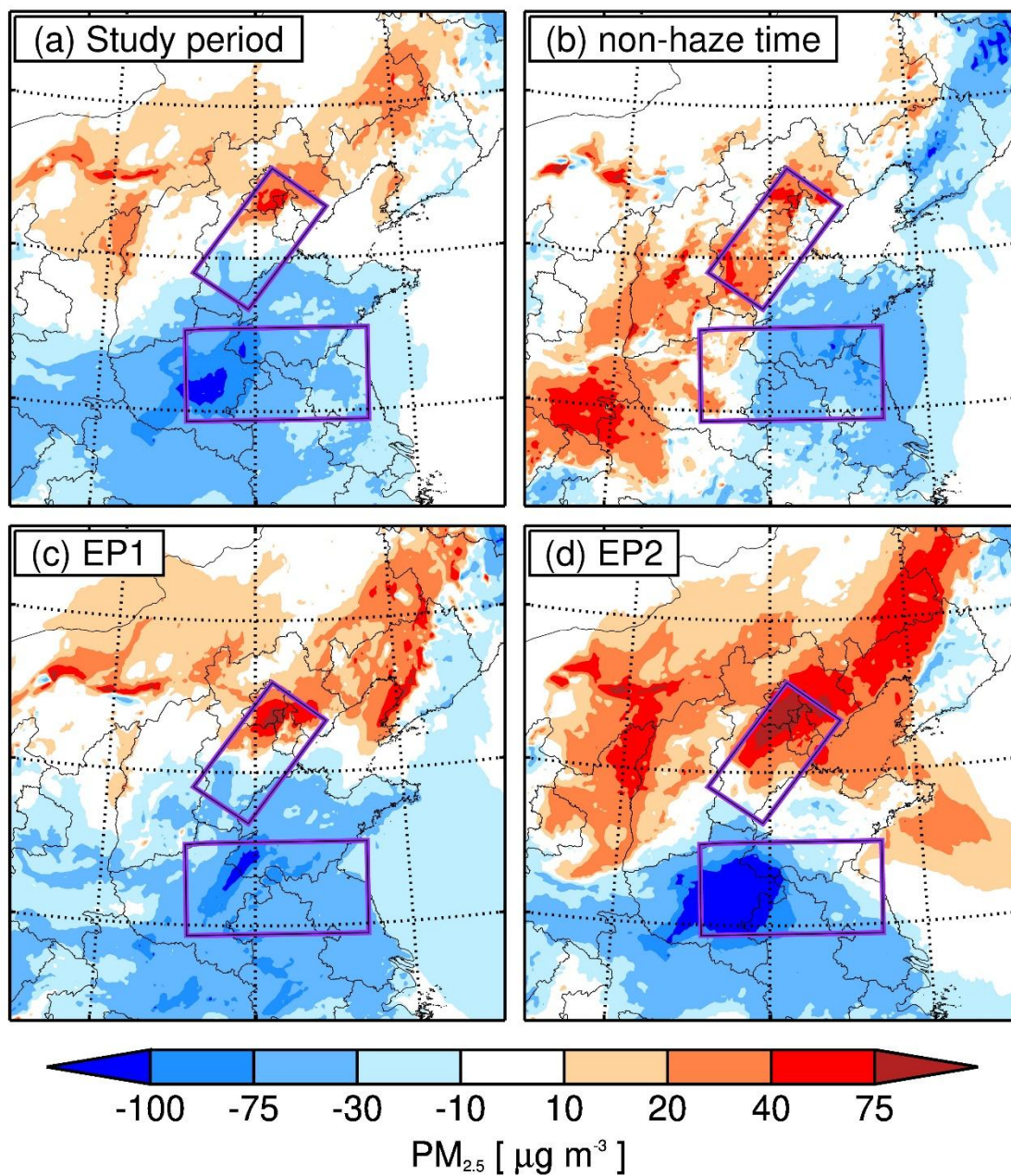
713



715

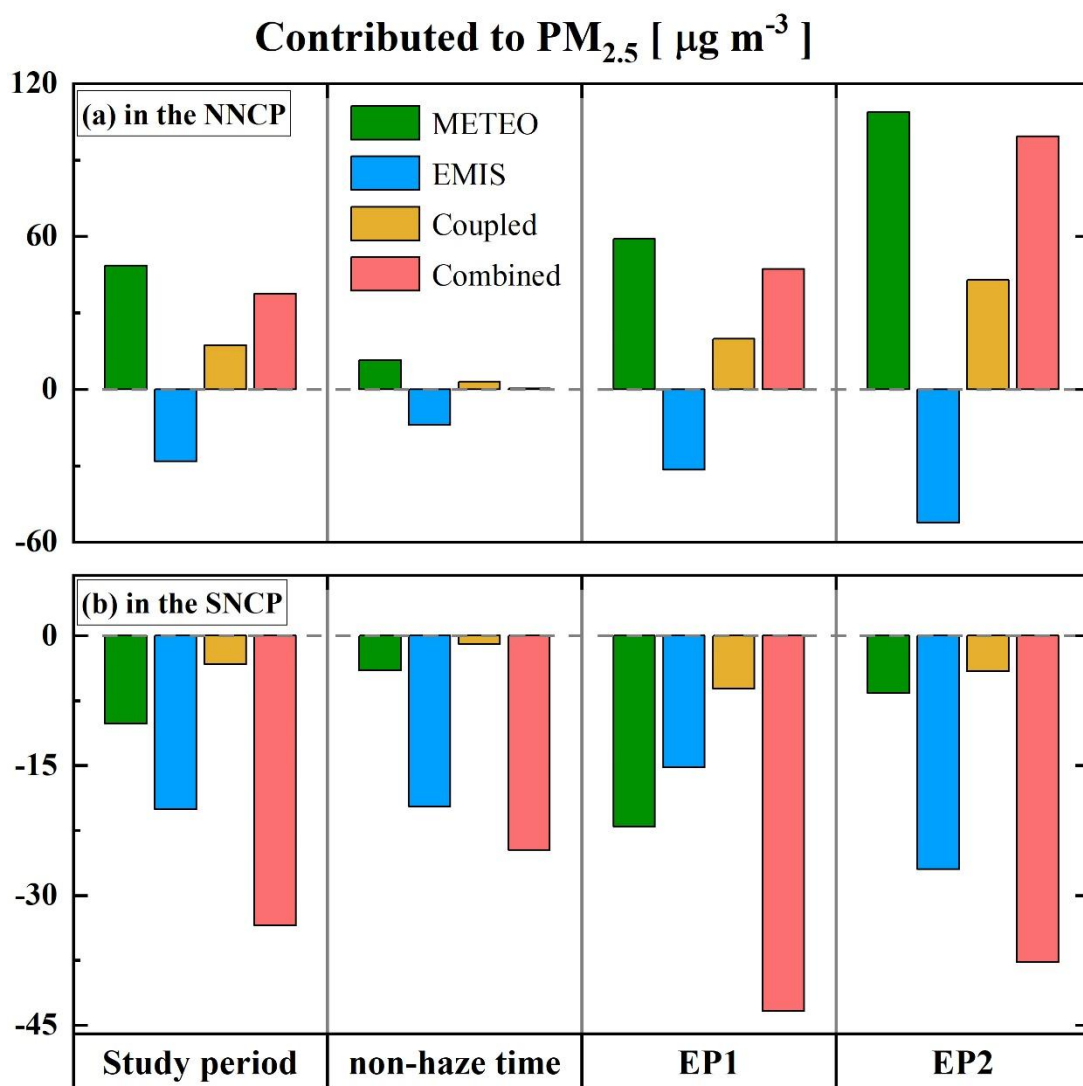
716 **Figure 6.** The pattern comparisons of the "BASE" simulation minus the "EMIS" simulation. The color gradient represents
717 $PM_{2.5}$ changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2
718 haze period.

719



721

722 **Figure 7.** The pattern comparisons of the "BASE" simulation minus the "EMIS_METEO" simulation. The color gradient
723 represents coupled effects on PM_{2.5} averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze
724 period, and (d) the EP2 haze period.



726

727 **Figure 8.** Regional contributions to PM_{2.5} averaged in (a) the NNCP and (b) the SNCP during the entire period, non-haze
 728 period, EP1, and EP2. The contributions include meteorological conditions (METEO), abrupt anthropogenic emissions
 729 (EMIS) decreases, and coupled and combined effects of METEO and EMIS.

730 **Table 1**

731 **Table 1** Configurations of simulation cases in this study

Experiments	Emission inventory	Meteorological field
BASE	2020	2020
SNCP0	2020, but with SNCP emissions set to zero	2020
METEO	2020	Mean over 2015 to 2019
EMIS	2019	2020
EMIS_METEO	2019	Mean over 2015 to 2019

732

733

734 **Table 2**

735 **Table 2.** The statistical parameters of model performance include temporal assessments of *MB*, and *IOA* in the NNCP and
736 SCNP and at the IAP monitoring site.

Statistical parameters	<i>NMB</i>	<i>IOA</i>
In the NNCP region		
PM _{2.5}	-5.6%	0.91
SO ₂	4.8%	0.82
O ₃	4.4%	0.86
NO ₂	2.3%	0.82
CO	1.5%	0.85
In the SNCP region		
PM _{2.5}	-2.1%	0.86
SO ₂	-11.0%	0.76
O ₃	-10.2%	0.88
NO ₂	0.1%	0.87
CO	6.0%	0.79
At the IAP monitoring site		
Organic	15.0%	0.84
Nitrate	-18.9%	0.88
Sulfate	-37.7%	0.81
Ammonium	-23.6%	0.87

737