



1 **Impacts of meteorology and emission reductions on haze pollution**
2 **during the lockdown in the North China Plain: Insights from six-**
3 **year simulations**

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20 **Abstract.**

21 Haze events across the North China Plain (NCP) during the COVID-19 lockdown have highlighted the
22 complexities of air quality management in the face of reduced human activity. While previous studies
23 have focused primarily on the atmospheric chemistry processes under anomalous weather conditions,
24 interactions between air pollutants, atmospheric chemistry, and their responses to emissions and
25 meteorological factors remain underexplored. Here, we utilized the WRF-Chem model to assess the
26 impact of abrupt emission reductions and meteorological conditions on PM_{2.5} levels across the NCP. By
27 comparing simulations sensitive to meteorological conditions with climatology averaged over 2015–
28 2019 and considering the sudden decrease in anthropogenic emissions due to the lockdown, we
29 identified significant regional disparities. In the Northern NCP (NNCP), adverse meteorological
30 conditions negated the benefits of emission reductions, leading to a net increase in PM_{2.5} levels by 30 to
31 60 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during haze episodes. Conversely, the Southern NCP (SNCP) experienced a decrease in PM_{2.5}
32 levels attributed to favourable meteorological conditions combined with emission reductions, with
33 decreases ranging from 20 to 40 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the same periods. Our results highlight the critical role of
34 meteorological conditions in modulating the effects of emission reductions, particularly in regions like
35 the NNCP, where adverse weather can significantly counteract the benefits of reduced emissions. This
36 study provides valuable insights into the complex interactions between emissions, meteorology, and air
37 quality, underscoring the necessity of integrated approaches that address emissions and atmospheric
38 dynamics.

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41 **1 Introduction**

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

57 The coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic, which has persisted for over 4.5 years,
58 resulted in more than 7 million deaths globally by June 2023(WHO, 2024). In response to the initial
59 outbreak, the Chinese government enforced stringent lockdowns nationwide during the first 2 months of
60 2020 to limit the virus's spread (Le et al., 2020). These measures led to a sharp decline in anthropogenic
61 emissions, particularly from the transportation sector (Liu et al., 2021; Xu et al., 2020). However,
62 during the period from January 21 to February 16 2020, the Northern China Plain (NCP) experienced
63 severe haze pollution, a stark contrast to other regions (Huang et al., 2021; Le et al., 2020; Wang et al.,
64 2021). This unusual event on the NCP, occurring during a time of reduced human activity, provides a
65 unique opportunity to study the complex interactions between atmospheric chemistry and meteorology
66 under these exceptional conditions.

67 Recent research on the haze above event in China has highlighted that the unexpected regional
68 haze formation during the COVID-19 lockdown was largely driven by complex atmospheric chemical



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

84 In this study, we utilized the WRF-Chem model to evaluate the effects of meteorological
85 conditions and abrupt reductions in anthropogenic emissions on PM_{2.5} levels in the NCP. We addressed
86 three key questions by simulating severe air pollution episodes during the COVID-19 lockdown: (1)
87 How do sudden emission reductions affect PM_{2.5} levels under varying meteorological scenarios? (2)
88 What are the key drivers of PM_{2.5} formation and accumulation during these emission reductions? (3)
89 How do meteorological conditions interact with lowered emissions to shape air quality outcomes?
90 Through this analysis, we aim to offer valuable insights into the effectiveness of short-term emission
91 control strategies and to explore the implications of future low-emission scenarios by examining the
92 combined effects of meteorological variations and emission reductions on PM_{2.5} concentrations.



93 **2 Data and methods**

94 **2.1 Data Sets**

95 The North China Plain (NCP) encompasses 11 provinces and municipalities. We defined two
96 regions of interest: the Northern NCP (NNCP) and the Southern NCP (SNCP). The NNCP region
97 generally includes the cities of the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei area, while the SNCP covers most areas south
98 of the BTH region (**Figure 1**).

99 We utilized two types of air quality observations in this study. The first dataset consists of hourly
100 air quality data released by the Ministry of Ecology and Environment of China since 2013. This dataset
101 includes hourly PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂ and CO concentrations from 823 national monitoring sites
102 across 185 cities in the domain. Specifically, the NNCP contains 10 cities with 65 measurement sites,
103 and the SNCP includes 24 cities with 95 sampling sites (**Figure 1**). The second dataset involves
104 chemical compositions such as organic matter, nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium, observed at the Institute
105 of Atmospheric Physics (IAP), Chinese Academy of Sciences in Beijing, China. Detailed descriptions
106 of the methods used to obtain these chemical composition mass concentrations can be found in Sun et al.
107 ([2020](#)).

108 We employed anthropogenic air pollutant emissions data for 2020 from mainland China,
109 estimated using a bottom-up approach based on the near-real-time data ([Zheng et al., 2021](#)). The
110 distributions of primary particles (PM_{2.5}) and gas pollutants (CO, SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, and HCHO) reveal
111 significantly higher emissions in the SNCP and the southern part of the NNCP region (**Figure S1**).
112 These areas, characterized by lower elevations (**Figure 1**), exhibit higher emissions due to dense
113 industrial and economic activities. Conversely, the northern part of the NNCP region, with higher
114 elevations (**Figure 1**), shows relatively lower emissions.

115 The topographic characteristics of the NCP region, with higher elevations in the north and lower
116 elevations in the south, combined with the high air pollutant emission areas in the south, suggest that
117 under continuous southerly wind conditions, air pollutants can be readily transported northwards,
118 potentially leading to severe haze events in the NNCP region.



119 2.2 WRF-Chem model description and configuration

120 We employed a specific version of the WRF-Chem model (Grell et al., 2005), simultaneously
121 simulating gas precursors' emission, transport, mixing, and chemical transformation into particles and
122 aerosols. Additionally, it considers cloud-aerosol interactions to trace the evolution of regional air
123 quality. The model incorporates the CMAQ/Models-3 aerosol module (Binkowski and Roselle, 2003).
124 Furthermore, it includes effects such as organic coating on nitrate formation by suppressing the N₂O₅
125 heterogeneous hydrolysis uptake (Liu et al., 2020b), the reaction of stabilized Criegee Intermediates (sCI)
126 with SO₂ to form sulfate (Mauldin Iii et al., 2012), and a parameterization of sulfate heterogeneous
127 formation from SO₂ involving Fe³⁺ catalyzed and irreversible uptake on aerosol liquid water surfaces
128 (Li et al., 2017). Moreover, the Fast Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible (FTUV) radiation module
129 calculates photolysis rates, and the model considers the interaction between aerosols and clouds (Li et
130 al., 2011; Tie et al., 2003). Further details regarding this specific WRF-Chem model can be found in
131 previous literature (Li et al., 2012). The WRF-Chem model has been utilized in numerous studies to
132 simulate haze events (Feng et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020b; Long et al., 2016), showcasing its proficiency
133 in simulating PM_{2.5} levels in China.

134 We simulated an unexpected air pollution event in the BTH region from January 21 to February
135 16, 2020. This event, characterized by elevated PM_{2.5} levels, occurred despite a sudden reduction in
136 anthropogenic emissions. The simulation domain, centred at (116° E, 38° N), consisted of a grid of 300
137 by 300 points, each spaced at a resolution of 6 km (Figure 1). In our base simulation (BASE), we
138 utilized the anthropogenic air pollutant emission inventory of 2020 (Zheng et al., 2021), along with
139 meteorological initial and boundary conditions from NCEP FNL reanalysis data (Kalnay et al., 2018),
140 alongside chemical initial and boundary conditions interpolated from MOZART 6-hour
141 output (Horowitz et al., 2003). We computed the biogenic emissions online using the Model of
142 Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN). Integrated into the WRF-CHEM model,
143 MEGAN generates net landscape-averaged biogenic emissions from terrestrial ecosystems into the
144 above-canopy atmosphere, which are then used as inputs for further chemistry simulations (Guenther et
145 al., 2006).



146 We also conducted two sensitivity simulations to investigate the impacts of emission decreases
147 and meteorological variations on PM_{2.5} levels (**Table 1**). The first simulation, called emission condition-
148 sensitive simulation (SEN_EMIS), utilized the emission inventory from the BASE case but excluded
149 any abrupt decreases (**Table S1 and Figure S2**) in anthropogenic emissions resulting from the
150 lockdown ([Huang et al., 2021](#)), which allowed us to evaluate the comprehensive impact of sudden
151 reductions in anthropogenic emissions on PM_{2.5} levels. The second simulation, meteorology condition-
152 sensitive simulation (SEN_METEO), averaged the climatology of NCEP FNL reanalysis data covering
153 the period from 2015 to 2019 to represent varying meteorological initial and boundary conditions. By
154 incorporating data from meteorological variations over multiple years, this approach provided a more
155 stable reference point, thereby reducing the potential impact of anomalies or fluctuations in any single
156 year's data, which allowed us to assess the comprehensive effect of meteorological factors on PM_{2.5}
157 levels.

158 **3 Results and Discussions**

159 **3.1 Model performance**

160 We assessed the model performance using several statistical parameters, including normalized
161 mean bias (*NMB*), index of agreement (*IOA*), and correlation coefficient (*r*), to compare simulations
162 against observational data. The evaluated variables encompass air pollutants such as PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂,
163 SO₂, and CO concentrations within the NNCP and SNCP regions. PM_{2.5} components, including
164 organic, nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium, are also assessed at the IAP monitoring site. These statistical
165 metrics provide a quantitative measure of how well the model reproduces the observed data, offering
166 insights into its accuracy and reliability in simulating the atmospheric conditions and pollutant levels
167 during the specified period.

$$168 \quad NMB = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - O_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^N O_i} \quad (1)$$

$$169 \quad IOA = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - O_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^N (|P_i - \bar{P}| + |O_i - \bar{O}|)^2} \quad (2)$$



170
$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - \bar{P})(O_i - \bar{O})}{[\sum_{i=1}^N (P_i - \bar{P})^2 \sum_{i=1}^N (O_i - \bar{O})^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}} \quad (3)$$

171 where P_i and O_i represent the calculated and observed variables, respectively. N stands for the total
172 number of predictions for comparison, and \bar{O} and \bar{P} denote the average observations and simulations,
173 respectively. The IOA ranges from 0 to 1, where a value of 1 indicates perfect agreement between the
174 predictions and observations. The r ranges from -1 to 1, 1 indicating perfect spatial consistency between
175 the observations and predictions.

176 The temporal consistency between model simulations and observations is assessed using NMB
177 and IOA (**Table 2 and Figures S3 and S4**). For $PM_{2.5}$ simulations, the average concentration in the
178 NCP closely matched observations, with an NMB of -5.6% and an IOA of 0.91 in the NNCP, and an
179 NMB of -2.1% and an IOA of 0.86 in the SNCP. For gaseous pollutants, such as SO_2 , O_3 , NO_2 , and CO ,
180 the model effectively captured their diurnal concentration profiles in the NCP region, with $IOAs$
181 exceeding 0.82 in the NNCP and 0.76 in the SNCP. The $NMBs$ for these gaseous pollutants also showed
182 good agreement with observations, with $IOAs$ remaining below 6% in the NNCP and below 12% in the
183 SNCP. The simulated mass concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ components, including organic matter, nitrate,
184 sulfate, and ammonium, at the IAP monitoring site, also effectively reproduced their temporal profiles
185 of these chemical components, with $IOAs$ exceeding 0.81. The model generally shows good agreement
186 with observations for organic matter and nitrate, with $NMBs$ of 15.0% and -18.9% , respectively, and
187 $IOAs$ exceeding 0.84. However, sulfate is significantly underestimated, with an NMB of -37.7% , which
188 may be attributed to the model's incomplete representation of SO_2 oxidation pathways, particularly
189 through heterogeneous chemistry during haze events ([Zheng et al., 2015](#)), and the acidic aerosol
190 environment ([Guo et al., 2017](#); [Liu et al., 2017](#)). Considering that SO_2 , as the precursor of sulfate
191 aerosols, is primarily emitted from point sources, such as power plants or industrial zones, the transport
192 of SO_2 from these sources to the observation site is more sensitive to uncertainties in wind field
193 simulation, causing significant fluctuations of SO_2 and the resultant simulated sulfate aerosols. This
194 underestimation of sulfate also impacts ammonium concentrations ($NMB = -23.6\%$), as ammonium is
195 closely associated with sulfate and nitrate. Overall, while the model effectively captures the temporal
196 variability of these components, the discrepancies in sulfate and ammonium suggest that further



197 improvements are needed, particularly in the representation of SO₂ emissions and associated chemical
198 processes (Cheng et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018).

199 The correlation coefficient indicates the spatial consistency of model simulations compared to
200 observations (Figure 2). During the episode, stagnant meteorological conditions with weak or calm
201 winds led to unfavourable diffusion of atmospheric pollutants, accumulating and forming heavy haze
202 pollution in the NCP region. The average simulated PM_{2.5} mass concentrations exceeded 100 µg m⁻³ in
203 the SNCP and exceeded 120 µg m⁻³ in the NNCP (Figure 2a). These results were consistent with
204 observations, with a correlation coefficient 0.91 (Figure 2e). High O₃ levels exceeding 80 µg m⁻³ were
205 simulated over the NNCP region (Figure 2c), which indicates an unexpectedly strong atmospheric
206 oxidation capacity due to weakened titration from low NO_x emissions during the period. During the
207 episode, almost all avoidable outdoor human activities and most transportation were prohibited. As a
208 result, the average simulated NO₂ (Figure 2b) and SO₂ (Figure 2d) mass concentrations remained very
209 low in the urban areas of NCP, with values below 30 µg m⁻³ and 10 µg m⁻³, respectively. The spatial
210 distributions of simulated and observed gaseous pollutants, averaged over the episode, also showed high
211 spatial consistency, with correlation coefficients of 0.67 for O₃, 0.86 for SO₂, and 0.77 for NO₂ (Figure
212 2e, 2f).

213 The day-to-day variations also show good consistency between the observed and simulated
214 concentrations of PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, O₂, and CO (Figure 3). Despite some bias, the WRF-Chem model
215 captures the temporal and spatial variations of PM_{2.5} and gaseous air pollutants in the BTH region,
216 which suggests that the emission inventory and simulated meteorological factors are generally
217 reasonable, providing a reliable basis for further assessment.

218 3.2 Unexpected haze episodes in the NNCP

219 The COVID-19 pandemic lockdowns in China, which began in late January 2020, led to a sharp
220 decline in socio-economic activities and a significant reduction in air pollutant emissions (Bao and
221 Zhang, 2020; Liu et al., 2020a; Wang et al., 2020). In the NNCP, provincial emissions of NO_x, SO₂, and
222 PM_{2.5} decreased by 38-45%, 16-26%, and 12-18%, respectively (Huang et al., 2021). Observed
223 concentrations of NO₂ and SO₂ significantly decreased to 30.8 µg m⁻³ and 13.5 µg m⁻³, respectively (Li



224 [et al., 2020](#); [Zhao et al., 2020](#)). Satellite observations from the TROPOMI instrument on Sentinel 5P
225 captured a notable 65% reduction in column-integrated NO₂ over eastern China compared to the same
226 period in 2019([Bauwens et al., 2020](#); [Shi and Brasseur, 2020](#)).

227 Despite the marked reduction in anthropogenic emissions and lower concentrations of NO₂ and
228 SO₂, two unexpected heavy haze episodes, EP1 and EP2, occurred in the NNCP, respectively. During
229 EP1, the average PM_{2.5} concentration in the NNCP reached 153.4 μg m⁻³, peaking at approximately 185
230 μg m⁻³, significantly higher than in the SNCP, which peaked at around 120 μg m⁻³. In EP2, the average
231 PM_{2.5} concentration in the NNCP reached 132.2 μg m⁻³, peaking at approximately 150 μg m⁻³. No haze
232 was observed in SNNP during EP2, with average PM_{2.5} concentrations of 57.7 μg m⁻³ (**Figure 3**).

233 During EP1, stagnant atmospheric conditions in the NNCP with wind speeds lower than 0.8 m s⁻¹
234 (**Figures 4c, S5b, S5c**), coupled with a low planetary boundary layer height (PBLH) of approximately
235 306 m (ranging from 190 to 454 m) (**Figure S5a**), facilitated the accumulation of pollutants. Under
236 these conditions, PM_{2.5} concentrations (**Figure 3a**) reached peak values of around 150-200 μg m⁻³, and
237 O₃ concentrations (**Figure 3b**) steadily increased, peaking at approximately 90 μg m⁻³. This trend
238 indicates enhanced photochemical activity due to the stagnant conditions. Concurrently, NO₂
239 concentrations (**Figure 3c**) decreased, likely due to its conversion to O₃ and secondary aerosols. The
240 consistently high levels of SO₂ and CO (**Figures 3d and 3e**) further indicated the limited dispersion
241 under static atmospheric conditions. These conditions facilitated photochemical reactions, enhancing
242 secondary pollution formation, as suggested by recent studies on secondary pollution during the
243 COVID-19 lockdown([Huang et al., 2021](#)).

244 In contrast, during EP2, the concentrations of PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂, and CO (**Figure 2**) exhibited
245 "∩" style fluctuating pattern, performing with the simultaneous increase and decrease of various
246 pollutants. These fluctuating patterns indicate dynamic atmospheric conditions with significant air
247 pollutant transport and mixing processes (**Figures 3d, S5b, S5c**). The northward speeds of about 4.1 m
248 s⁻¹ in the SNCP facilitated the transport of air pollutants from the SNCP to the NNCP. Simultaneously,
249 stagnant atmospheric conditions in the NNCP with wind speeds lower than 0.5 m s⁻¹, corresponding
250 with low PBLH of 306 m (ranging from 209 to 458 m) (**Figure S5a**), facilitated the accumulation of
251 pollutants in the NNCP.



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

258 Reducing anthropogenic emissions has been a primary factor in decreasing PM_{2.5} pollution in
259 China (Bao and Zhang, 2020; Liu et al., 2020a). However, these haze episodes in NNCP during the
260 COVID-19 lockdown challenge the relationship between human activities and air quality. These
261 unexpected haze episodes underscore the complexity of air quality dynamics, suggesting that factors
262 such as meteorological conditions, secondary pollutant formation, regional transport, and non-industrial
263 sources also significantly impact air quality (Huang et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2020a; Shi and Brasseur,
264 2020). Future air quality management strategies must incorporate these multifaceted interactions for
265 more effective pollution control.

266 3.3 Meteorological conditions increase the PM_{2.5} in NNCP and decrease in SNCP

267 Meteorological factors significantly influence PM_{2.5} concentrations throughout the study period
268 (Figure 5a). PM_{2.5} levels varied from -50 to 100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, exhibiting a distinct north-south disparity. In
269 the NNCP, meteorological conditions lead to a notable increase in PM_{2.5} levels, especially in the
270 northern part, where concentrations exceed 50 to 100 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Conversely, the southern regions,
271 particularly the western part of the SNCP, experienced a decrease in PM_{2.5} levels, ranging from 30 to 50
272 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. During haze episodes (EP1 and EP2), meteorological conditions induced a more significant
273 absolute decrease in PM_{2.5} in the NNCP compared to non-haze periods, with reductions of 5 to 30 μg
274 m^{-3} (Figure 5b). These findings suggest that meteorological conditions were critical in exacerbating
275 PM_{2.5} pollution in the NNCP while mitigating it in the SNCP.

276 During the EP1 haze episode of January 22 to 29, 2020 (Figure 5c), meteorology conditions
277 significantly increased PM_{2.5} concentrations in the NNCP while decreasing them in the SNCP. During
278 this period, the NNCP experienced stagnant surface winds (Figure 4c), and the lower PBLH in the



279 SEN_METEO case, which decreased by approximately 50 to 300 m on average compared to the BASE
280 case (**Figure 6c**), deteriorated the dispersion of pollutants and further enhanced pollutant accumulation
281 in the NNCP. In particular, in Beijing and surrounding areas, NO₂ concentrations showed a decreasing
282 trend, likely due to its conversion to O₃ and secondary aerosols, combined with increased eastern winds,
283 facilitated the accumulation of PM_{2.5} in the northern NNCP, with period-average PM_{2.5} increases
284 exceeding 100 μg m⁻³ (**Figure 5c**). In contrast, the SNCP experienced a reduction in PM_{2.5} levels with
285 30 to 50 μg m⁻³ (**Figure 5c**), possibly due to an increase in regional period-average PBLH by 50 to 300
286 m within the NNCP (**Figure 5c**), enhancing pollutant dispersion and dilution.

287 The effects of meteorology on PM_{2.5} levels were more pronounced during EP2 compared to EP1
288 (**Figure 5c, 5d**). During the EP2 haze episode from February 8 to 13, 2020, meteorological conditions
289 significantly exacerbated haze events in the NNCP while reducing PM_{2.5} levels in the SNCP (**Figure**
290 **5d**). In the SEN_METEO case, the PBLH decreased by approximately 100 to 400 m on average in the
291 NNCP, a larger drop than during EP1 (**Figure 6c, 6d**). Meanwhile, period-average northward wind
292 speeds increased by about 3.0 to 5.0 m s⁻¹ in the SNCP (**Figure 5d**), leading to continuous northward
293 transport of PM_{2.5} and its accumulation in the NNCP due to the blocking effects of the sudden rise in
294 terrain (**Figure 1**). This process resulted in significant PM_{2.5} increases, with large areas experiencing
295 increases exceeding 100 to 200 μg m⁻³ in the NNCP. Conversely, the rise in PBLH and enhanced
296 northward winds in the SNCP facilitated pollutant dispersion and dilution, resulting in a PM_{2.5} decrease
297 exceeding 30 to 50 μg m⁻³ in large areas of the SNCP (**Figure 5d**). The EP2 haze period highlighted the
298 dominant role of atmospheric transport and mixing processes in exacerbating pollution, characterized by
299 more dynamic atmospheric conditions, leading to simultaneous increases and decreases in various
300 pollutant concentrations (**Figure 2**).

301 The near-surface temperature (T₂) and relative humidity (RH) in the SEN_METEO case were
302 higher than those in the BASE case, with the increase being more pronounced during the haze episodes
303 of EP1 and EP2 (**Figures S6 and S7**). Elevated T₂ can enhance atmospheric chemical reaction rates,
304 subsequently facilitating the formation of secondary aerosols. Additionally, higher RH provides a
305 favourable interface on aerosol surfaces, promoting heterogeneous reactions of particles. Previous
306 studies have highlighted that abnormal meteorological conditions, characterized by higher T₂ and RH



307 rather than emission reductions, dominated air pollution and enhanced secondary aerosol formation
308 during the study period (Kong et al., 2023; Le et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2022).

309 **3.4 Emission reduction decreases the PM_{2.5} in the NSCP and SNCP**

310 Abrupt decreases in anthropogenic emissions resulting from the lockdown period have
311 significantly decreased PM_{2.5} concentrations in the NSCP and SNCP (Figure 7). Both regions
312 experienced substantial PM_{2.5} reductions, leading to notable pollution alleviation. During haze episodes
313 (EP1 and EP2), the absolute decrease in PM_{2.5} was significantly higher than during non-haze periods.
314 Specifically, PM_{2.5} reductions during haze episodes generally exceeded 30 to 50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, compared to 5
315 to 30 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during non-haze episodes (Figure 7b, 7c, 7d). This discrepancy underscores the enhanced
316 effectiveness of emission control measures during these critical times.

317 In EP1, the reduction in PM_{2.5} concentrations was amplified by low PBLH in the NNCP region.
318 This meteorological condition intensified the effects of emission reductions, resulting in a more
319 pronounced decrease in PM_{2.5} levels ranging from 30 to 50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Figure 7c). The wintertime O₃
320 production in urban areas of China operates in a NO_x-saturated regime (NO_x = NO + NO₂) due to the
321 lack of HO_x radicals (Le et al., 2020; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Reductions in NO emissions alleviate
322 the daytime O₃ titration (Levy et al., 2014; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016), leading to enhanced O₃ levels.
323 Consequently, the O₃ enhancement in the NNCP during EP1 is primarily caused by the remarkable
324 reductions of NO_x. Previous studies, such as Huang et al. (2021), have emphasized that emission
325 reductions can lead to unexpected air pollution by increasing secondary pollutants through enhanced
326 atmospheric oxidation. Reductions in NO_x emissions weaken ozone titration, leading to higher O₃
327 concentrations (Chang et al., 2020; Le et al., 2020; Lv et al., 2020; Shi and Brasseur, 2020).

328 During EP2, persistent northward pollution transport further highlighted the impact of emission
329 reductions on the NNCP. The combined effects of local emission reductions and decreased atmospheric
330 transport from the upwind SNCP region led to significant PM_{2.5} decreases, particularly in areas along
331 the mountain foothills where contributions exceeded 50 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Figure 7d). The results underscore the
332 critical role of emission reductions in mitigating PM_{2.5} pollution. During EP2 haze episodes, reductions
333 lowered local PM_{2.5} concentrations. They influenced regional pollutant transport patterns, highlighting



334 the necessity for coordinated emission control strategies across regions to maximize the reduction of
335 $PM_{2.5}$ levels, especially under adverse meteorological conditions.

336 **3.5 Combined effects of meteorology and emission reduction on $PM_{2.5}$**

337 In the NNCP, meteorological conditions contributed to an increase in $PM_{2.5}$ levels (**Figure 6**). At
338 the same time, emission reduction efforts decreased the $PM_{2.5}$ levels (**Figure 7**). The adverse impact of
339 meteorological conditions often outweighs the benefits of emission reductions (**Figures 8 and 9a**).
340 Specifically, during the entire simulation period, non-haze episode, EP1, and EP2, meteorological
341 conditions caused regional $PM_{2.5}$ increases of $48.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $11.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $59.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $108.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
342 respectively. In contrast, emission reductions led to regional $PM_{2.5}$ decreases of $28.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, $14.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
343 $31.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $52.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ for the same periods. Consequently, the combined effects of deteriorating
344 meteorological conditions and emission reductions resulted in an overall increase of approximately 20
345 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in $PM_{2.5}$ during the entire period in the NNCP, with more significant increases of 30 to $60 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
346 during EP1 and EP2, while during non-haze episodes, $PM_{2.5}$ slightly decreased by $\sim 3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

347 In contrast, the SNCP experienced a decrease in $PM_{2.5}$ due to both meteorological conditions and
348 emission reductions (**Figure 8 and 9b**). During the entire period, non-haze period, EP1 and EP2,
349 emission reductions caused $PM_{2.5}$ to decrease by 20 to $30 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, while meteorological conditions led to
350 decreases of 5 to $20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

351 Overall, meteorological conditions tend to increase $PM_{2.5}$ in the NNCP and decrease it in the
352 SNCP, while emission reductions consistently reduce $PM_{2.5}$ in both regions (**Figure S8**). Considering
353 the combined effects of adverse meteorological conditions and mitigating emission reductions, $PM_{2.5}$
354 levels increased in the NNCP during the entire simulation period, particularly during EP1 and EP2, with
355 regional episode-average $PM_{2.5}$ increases by 30 to $60 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. Conversely, the SNCP exhibited a
356 decrease in $PM_{2.5}$, ranging from approximately 20 to $40 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

357 **4 Conclusions**

358 This study highlights the significant but regionally variable impacts of meteorological conditions
359 and emission reductions on $PM_{2.5}$ levels across the NCP during the COVID-19 lockdown. In the NNCP,



360 adverse meteorological conditions, characterized by cold, stagnant, and humid air masses, often
361 outweighed the benefits of emission reductions, leading to increased PM_{2.5} concentrations, especially
362 during haze episodes. Conversely, in the SNCP, warmer air masses and more favourable meteorological
363 conditions enhanced the effectiveness of emission reductions, resulting in decreased PM_{2.5} levels.

364 Our findings underscore the critical role that meteorological conditions play in modulating the
365 effects of emission reductions. The combination of unfavourable meteorological factors and emission
366 reductions in the NNCP led to overall increases in PM_{2.5} levels, with significant increases during haze
367 episodes. Meanwhile, in the SNCP, meteorological conditions and emission reductions consistently
368 contributed to lower PM_{2.5} concentrations.

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

375 ***Data availability***

376 The code and data used in this study are from Xin Long (longxin@cigit.ac.cn).

377 ***Competing interests***

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

379 ***Author contribution***

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

382



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512 2015, 2015.
- 513



514 **Figure Captions**

515

516 **Figure 1.** The simulation domain in WRF-Chem, including topography. Circles represent the locations of cities
517 with ambient air quality monitoring sites, and the size of each circle corresponds to the number of monitoring
518 sites in that city. The regions of interest, NNCP (Northern North China Plain) and SNCP (Southern North China
519 Plain), are highlighted.

520 **Figure 2.** The pattern comparisons between average observations and simulations for (a) $PM_{2.5}$, (b) SO_2 , (c) O_3 , and (d) NO_2 ,
521 along with the simulated surface wind fields during the period. Additionally, statistical comparisons are presented for (e)
522 $PM_{2.5}$ and O_3 , and (f) SO_2 and NO_2 , along with their correlation coefficients (r).

523 **Figure 3.** Observed (solid lines) and simulated (dashed lines) day-to-day variations in surface $PM_{2.5}$, O_3 , NO_2 , SO_2 , and
524 CO levels in the NNCP (red lines) and SNCP (blue lines) from January 21 to February 15, 2020. The daily
525 concentrations of the pollutants were calculated from the 24-hour averages, except for O_3 , which was calculated from
526 the 10:00 to 17:00 averages. Two haze episodes occurred during the study period: EP1 from January 22 to 29, and EP2
527 from February 8 to 13.

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

530 **Figure 5.** The pattern comparisons between the "BASE" and "SEN_METEO" simulations. The color gradient represents
531 $PM_{2.5}$ changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2
532 haze period, along with the simulated surface wind fields.

533 **Figure 6.** The pattern comparisons between the "BASE" and "SEN_METEO" simulations. The color gradient represents
534 PBLH changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2
535 haze period.

536 **Figure 7.** The pattern comparisons between the "BASE" and "SEN_EMIS" simulations. The color gradient represents $PM_{2.5}$
537 changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2 haze
538 period.

539 **Figure 8.** Comparisons of $PM_{2.5}$ changes combining the impacts of "SEN_METEO" and "SEN_EMIS" cases. The color
540 gradient represents $PM_{2.5}$ changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period,
541 and (d) the EP2 haze period.

542 **Figure 9.** Regional contributions to $PM_{2.5}$ averaged in (a) the NNCP and (b) the SNCP during the entire period, non-haze
543 period, EP1, and EP2. The contributions include meteorological conditions (METEO), abrupt decreases in anthropogenic
544 emissions (EMIS), and combined effects of METEO and EMIS (Combined).

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546



547 **Table Captions**

548

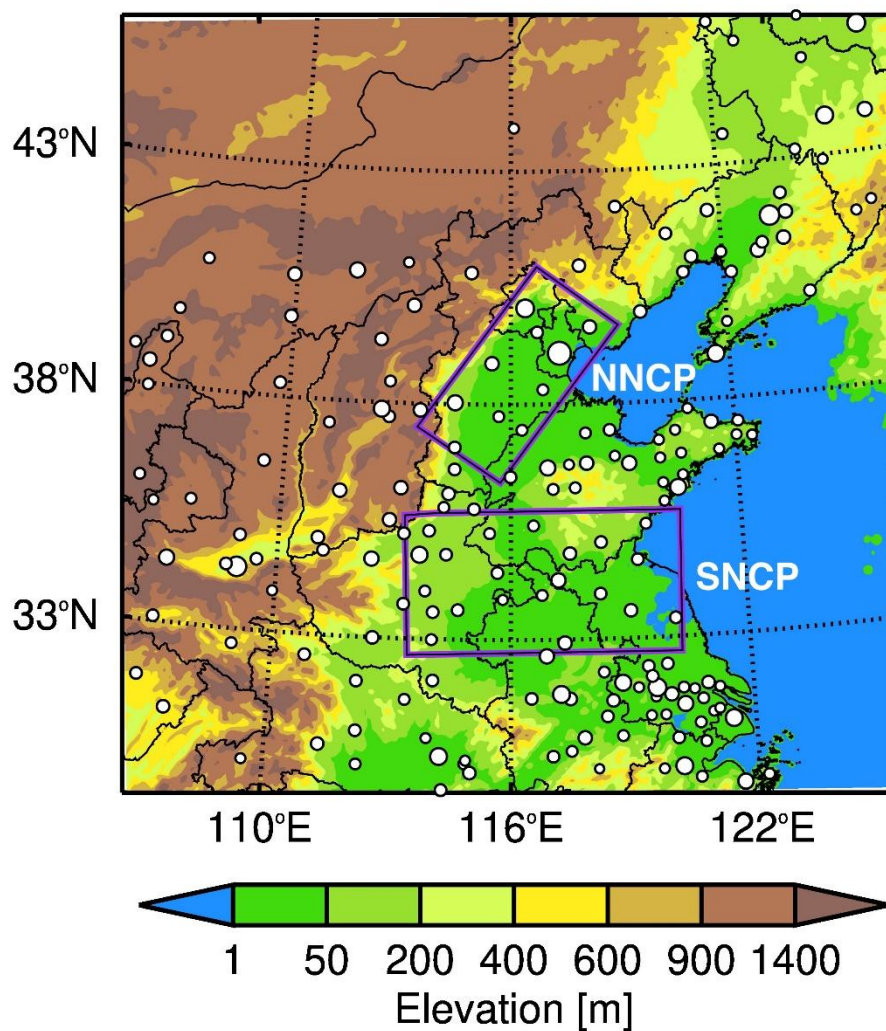
549 **Table 1** Configurations of simulation cases in this study

550 **Table 2.** The statistical parameters of model performance include temporal assessments of *MB*, and *IOA* in the NNCP and

551 SCNP and at the IAP monitoring site.



552 **Figure 1**



553

554 **Figure 1.** The simulation domain in WRF-Chem, including topography. Circles represent the locations of cities
555 with ambient air quality monitoring sites, and the size of each circle corresponds to the number of monitoring
556 sites in that city. The regions of interest, NNCP (Northern North China Plain) and SNCP (Southern North China
557 Plain), are highlighted.

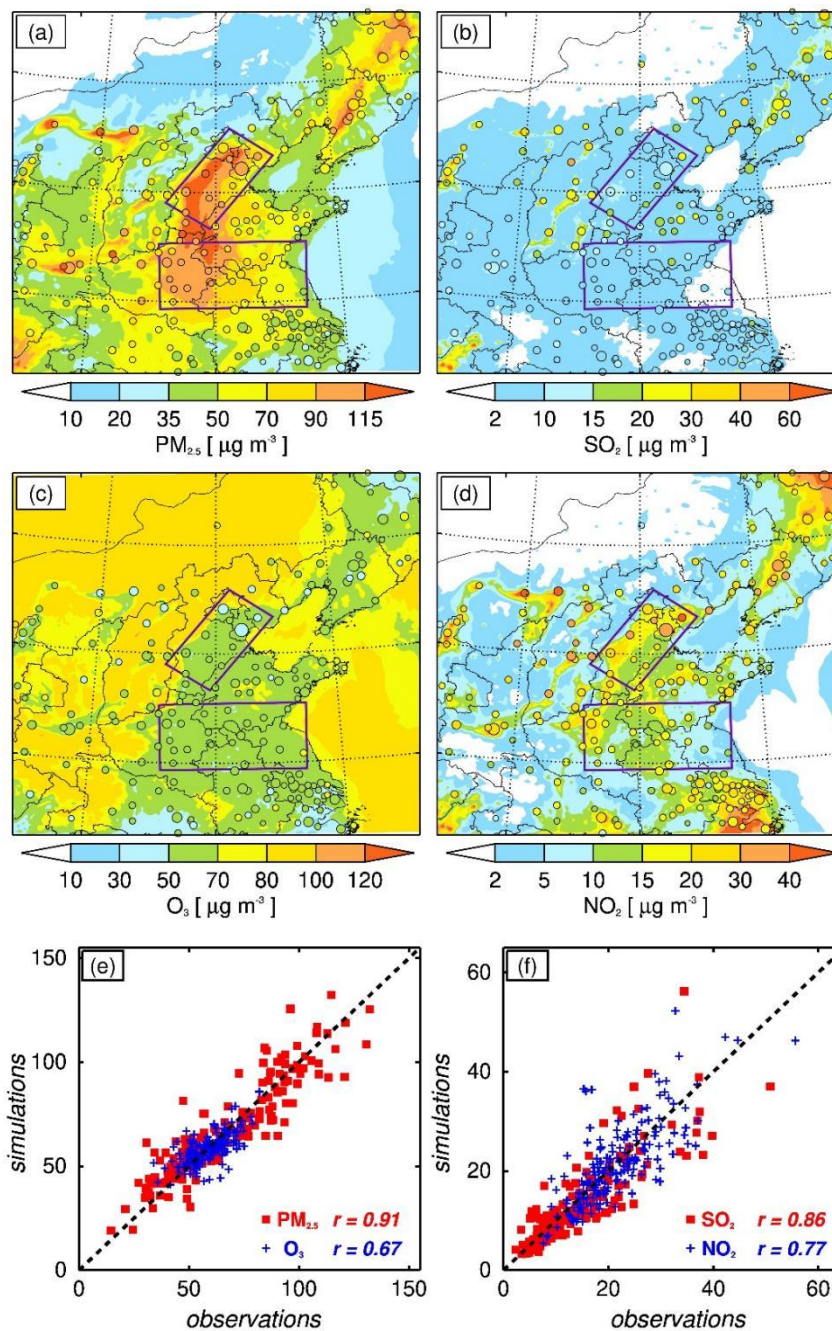
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561 **Figure 2**

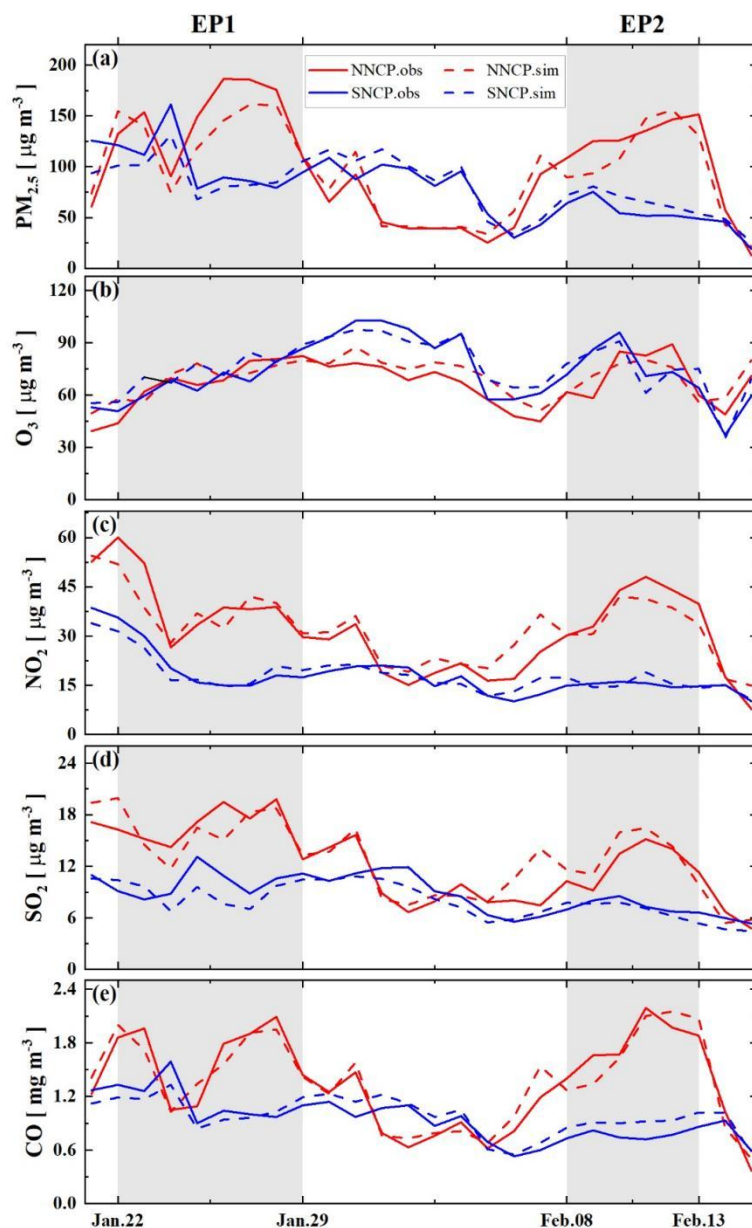


562

563 **Figure 2.** The pattern comparisons between average observations and simulations for (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) SO₂, (c) O₃, and (d) NO₂,
564 along with the simulated surface wind fields during the period. Additionally, statistical comparisons are presented for (e)
565 PM_{2.5} and O₃, and (f) SO₂ and NO₂, along with their correlation coefficients (r).



566 **Figure 3**

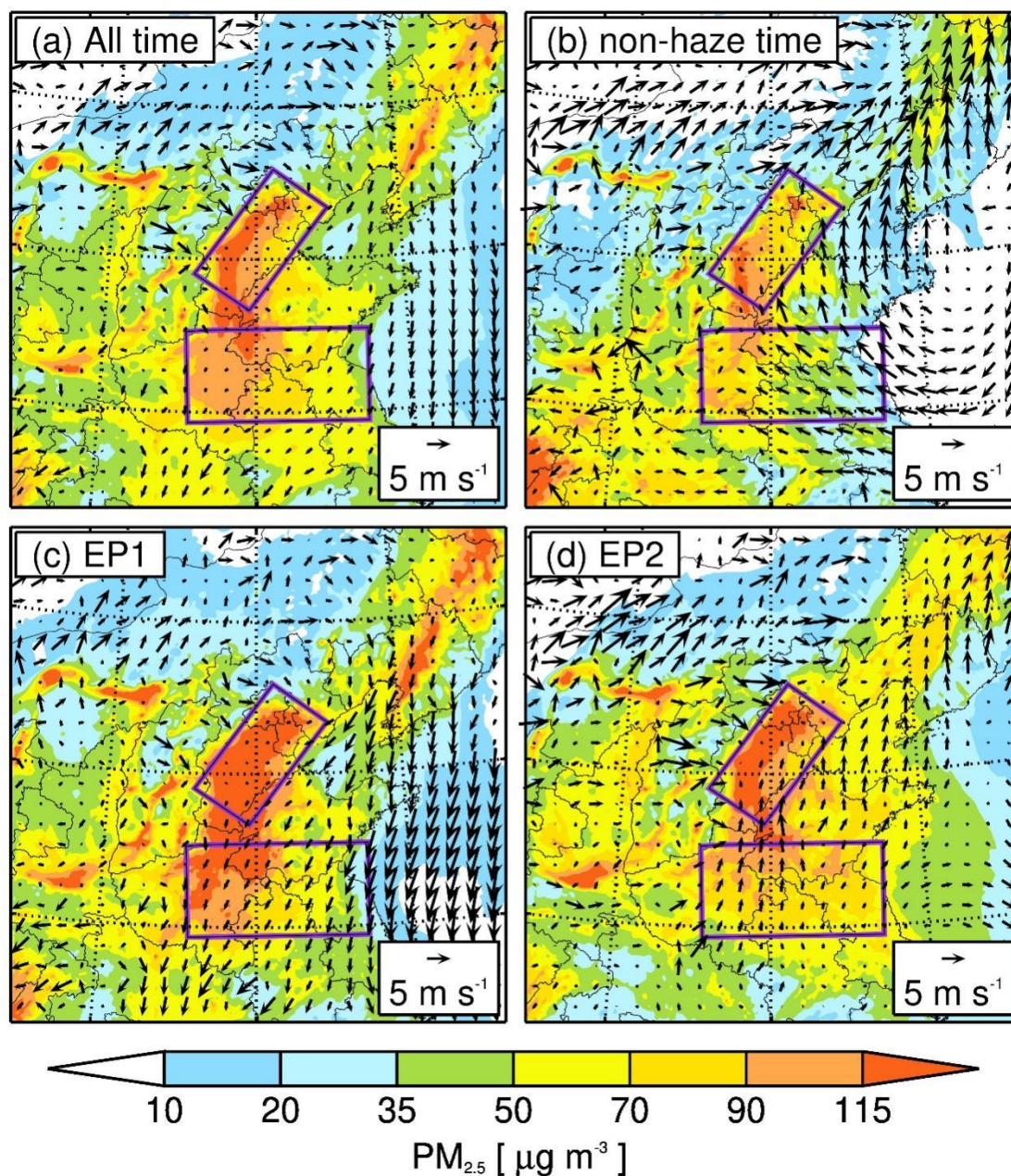


567

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



573 **Figure 4**

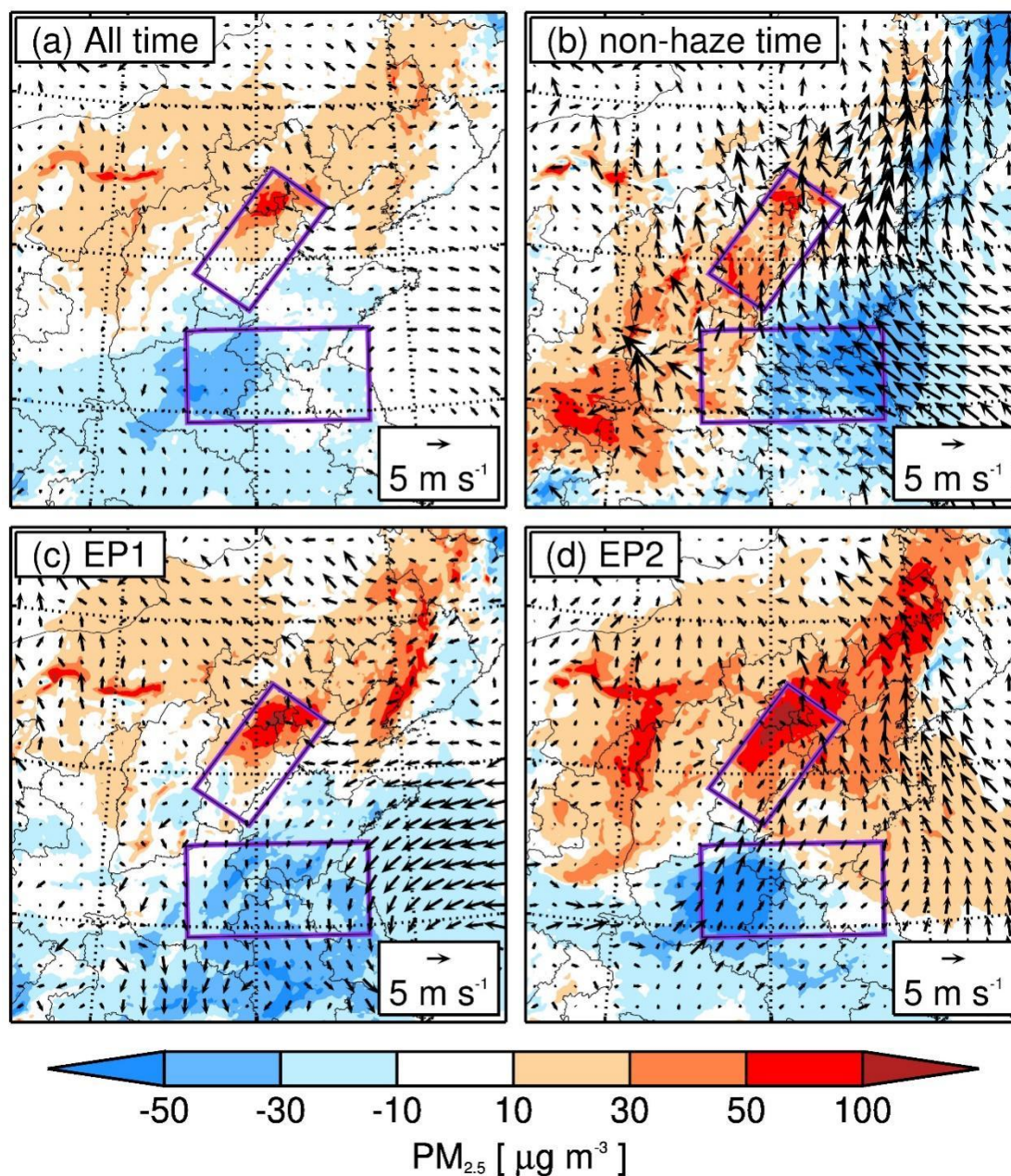


574

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



577 **Figure 5**



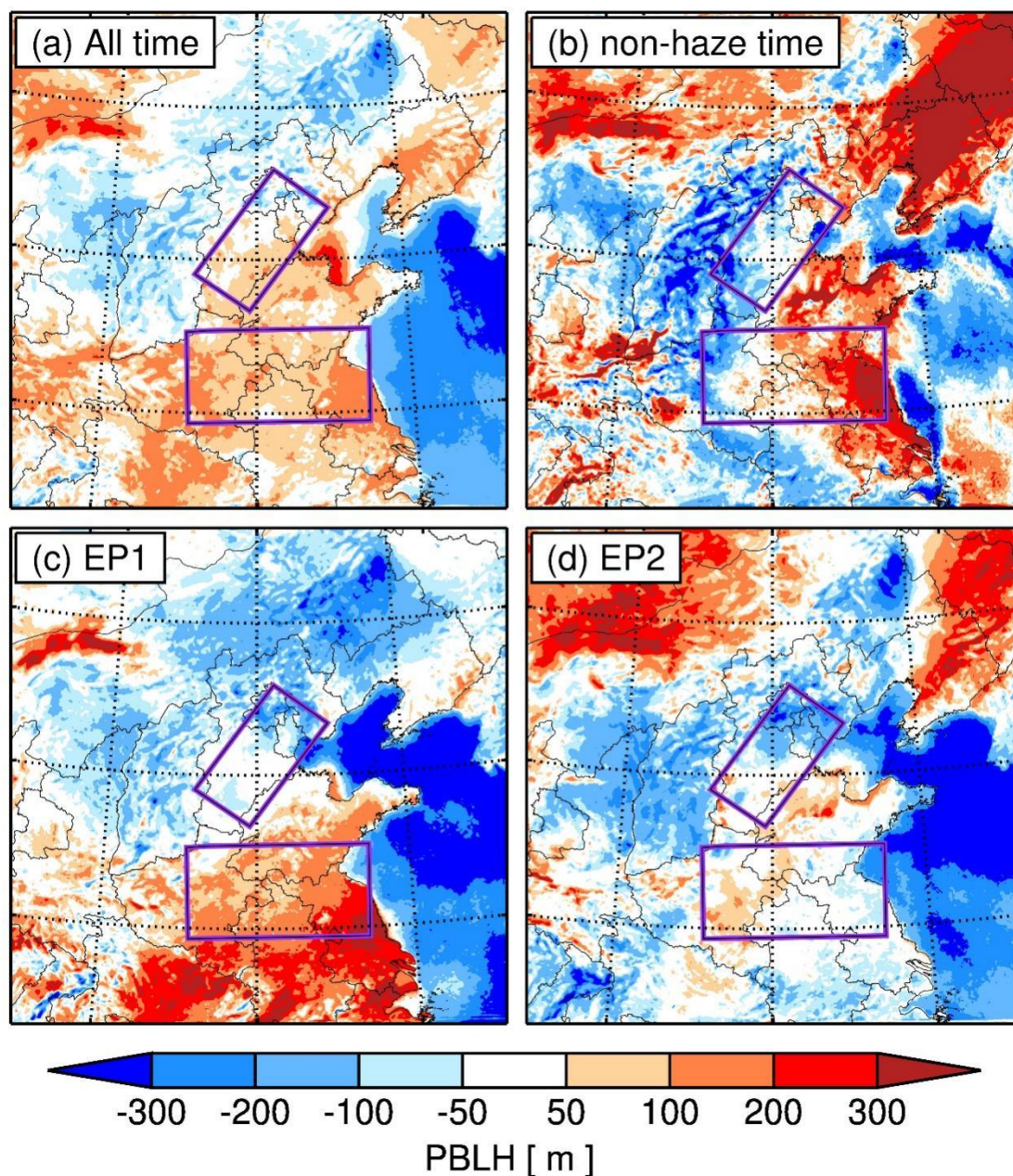
578

579 **Figure 5.** The pattern comparisons between the "BASE" and "SEN_METEO" simulations. The color gradient represents
580 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
581 haze period, along with the simulated surface wind fields.

582



583 **Figure 6**



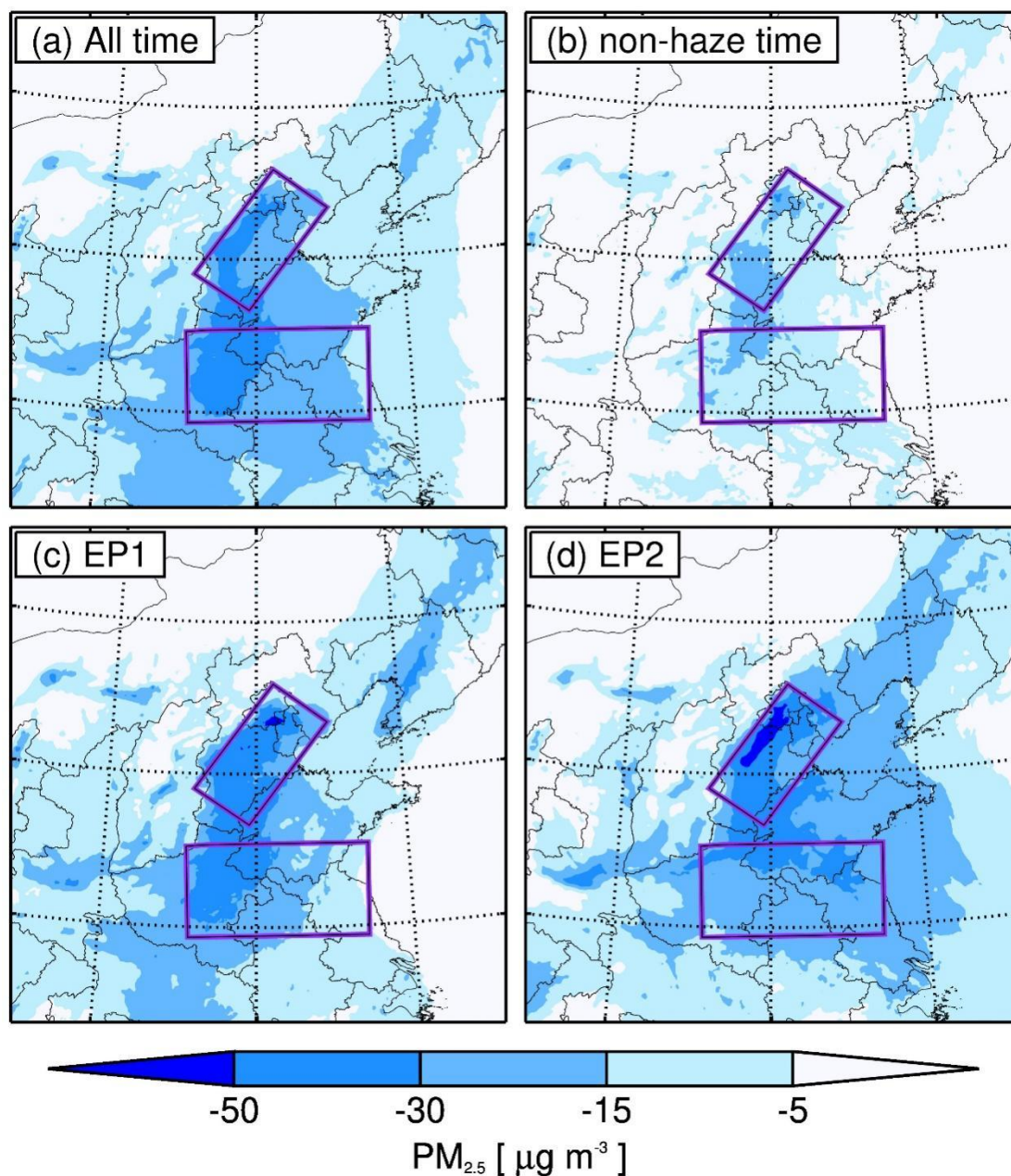
584

585 **Figure 6.** The pattern comparisons between the "BASE" and "SEN_METEO" simulations. The color gradient represents
586 PBLH changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d)
587 haze period.

588



589 **Figure 7**



590

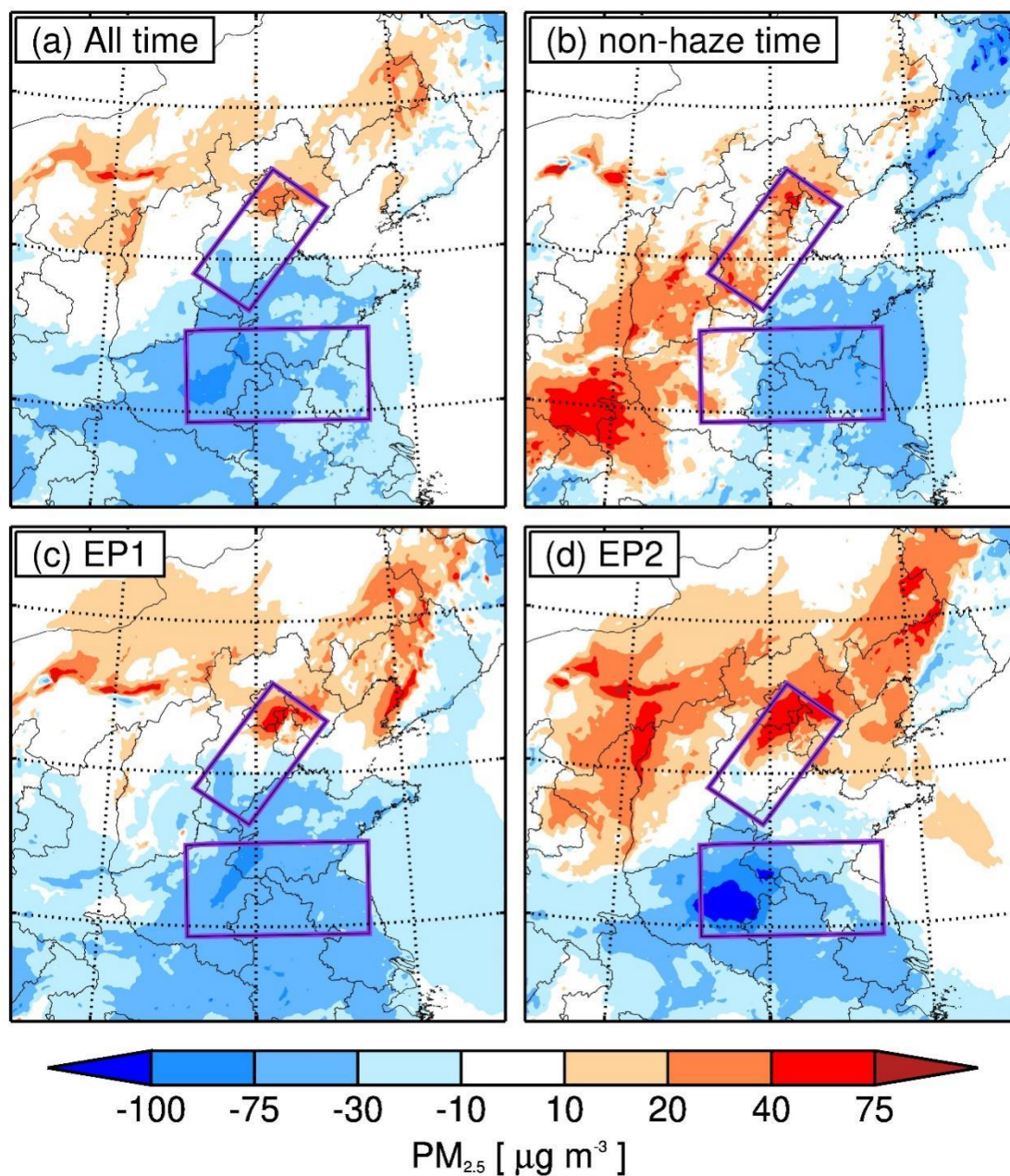
591 **Figure 7.** The pattern comparisons between the "BASE" and "SEN_EMIS" simulations. The color gradient represents $PM_{2.5}$
592 changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period, and (d) the EP2 haze
593 period.

594



595 **Figure 8**

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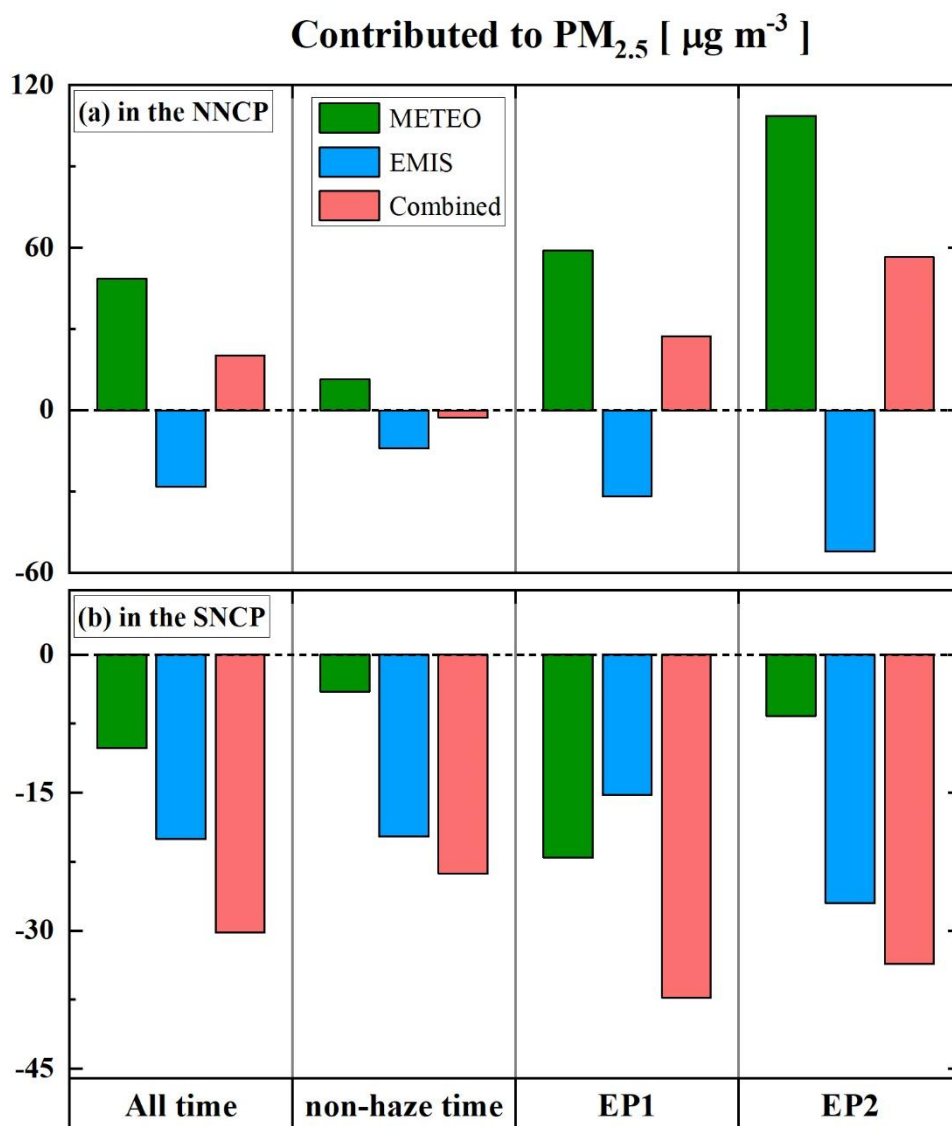


597

598 **Figure 8.** Comparisons of PM_{2.5} changes combining the impacts of "SEN_METEO" and "SEN_EMIS" cases. The color
599 gradient represents PM_{2.5} changes averaged from (a) the entire study period, (b) the non-haze period, (c) the EP1 haze period,
600 and (d) the EP2 haze period.



601 **Figure 9**



602

603 **Figure 9.** Regional contributions to PM_{2.5} averaged in (a) the NNCP and (b) the SNCP during the entire period, non-haze
604 period, EP1, and EP2. The contributions include meteorological conditions (METEO), abrupt decreases in anthropogenic
605 emissions (EMIS), and combined effects of METEO and EMIS (Combined).

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609



610 **Table 1**

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

Experiments	The year of anthropogenic emission inventory	The year of meteorological initial and boundary conditions
BASE	2020	2020
Sen_2015	2020	2015
Sen_2016	2020	2016
Sen_2017	2020	2017
Sen_2018	2020	2018
Sen_2019	2020	2019
SEN_METEO	2020	Average from 2015 to 2019
SEN_EMIS	2019	2020

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614 **Table 2**

615 **Table 2.** The statistical parameters of model performance include temporal assessments of *MB*, and *IOA* in the NNCP and
 616 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

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