



Source apportionment of PM_{2.5} and sulfate formation during the COVID-19 lockdown in a coastal city of southeast China[☆]

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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

PM_{2.5}
Source apportionment
Transition-metal ion catalyzed oxidation
Sulfate
COVID-19

ABSTRACT

Revealing the changes in chemical compositions and sources of PM_{2.5} is important for understanding aerosol chemistry and emission control strategies. High time-resolved characterization of water-soluble inorganic ions, elements, organic carbon (OC), and elemental carbon (EC) in PM_{2.5} was conducted in a coastal city of southeast China during the COVID-19 pandemic. The results showed that the average concentration of PM_{2.5} during the city lockdown (CLD) decreased from 46.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 24.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, lower than the same period in 2019 (PM_{2.5}: 37.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$). Concentrations of other air pollutants, such as SO₂, NO₂, PM₁₀, OC, EC, and BC, were also decreased by 27.3%–67.8% during the CLD, whereas O₃ increased by 28.1%. Although SO₂ decreased from 4.94 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 1.59 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ during the CLD, the concentration of SO₄²⁻ (6.63 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) was comparable to that (5.47 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) during the non-lockdown period, which were attributed to the increase (16.0%) of sulfate oxidation rate (SOR). O_x (O₃+NO₂) was positively correlated with SO₄²⁻, suggesting the impacts of photochemical oxidation. A good correlation ($R^2 = 0.557$) of SO₄²⁻ and Fe and Mn was found, indicating the transition-metal ion catalyzed oxidation. Based on positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis, the contribution of secondary formation to PM_{2.5} increased during the epidemic period, consisting with the increase of secondary organic carbon (SOC), while other primary sources including traffic, dust, and industry significantly decreased by 9%, 8.5%, and 8%, respectively. This study highlighted the comprehensive and nonlinear response of chemical compositions and formation mechanisms of PM_{2.5} to anthropogenic emissions control under relatively clean conditions.

1. Introduction

The multi-phase chemistry of fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) has attracted atmospheric scientists because it affects human health and climate change by triggering urban haze pollution and radiative forcing (Su et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2020a). Due to association with aerosol precursor emissions, atmospheric chemistry, and meteorology, the formation mechanism of PM_{2.5} is still complex (Ding et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2020b; Liu et al., 2019a; Wang et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2019).

Some studies have reported that the formation of secondary sulfate include the gas-phase oxidation by OH radical and the aqueous oxidation by H₂O₂, O₃, organic peroxides, and transition metal ions (TMI) catalyzed O₂ (Harris et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020a; Wang et al., 2021). However, the formation and contribution of secondary sulfate to haze episodes in urban areas is not fully understood.

An outbreak of a novel coronavirus disease (COVID-19) in December 2019, China firstly implemented a national emergency response,

[☆] This paper has been recommended for acceptance by Da Chen.

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including suspending public transport and banning public gatherings, and then other countries further tighten social distancing measures (Kraemer et al., 2020; Saraswat and Saraswat, 2020; Tian et al., 2020). This provides a good opportunity to evaluate the responses of PM_{2.5} formation to a dramatic emission reduction of its precursors (Chen et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020a; Pei et al., 2020; Stratoulas and Nuthammachot, 2020). Until now, many studies have reported that air quality has been improved significantly during the city lockdown (CLD) period (Colli-vignarelli et al., 2020; He et al., 2020; Miyazaki et al., 2020; Rodriguez-Urrego and Rodriguez-Urrego, 2020; Sharma et al., 2020; Zangari et al., 2020). In contrast, haze pollution driven by the increase of atmospheric oxidizing ability still occurs, due to unfavorable meteorological conditions (Chang et al., 2020; Le et al., 2020). Therefore, there is a need to deeply understand the formation mechanism of PM_{2.5} and its response to the reduction of precursors during the CLD period (Sun et al., 2020; Zheng et al., 2020b).

Affected by seasonal monsoon and aerosol precursor emissions from intense human activities, coastal cities in the southeast of China have experienced occasional air pollution in recent years (Liu et al., 2020b; Wu et al., 2020). Our previous studies mainly focused on the pollution characteristics and sources of PM_{2.5} in this region (Liu et al., 2020b; Wu et al., 2019; Xu et al., 2018). The COVID-19 outbreak led to anthropogenic emission reductions including traffic, industry and resident life around the country (Jia et al., 2020; Singh et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020). Hence, it offered a unique opportunity to study the interactions among aerosol precursor reduction, heterogeneous chemistry, and meteorology. The objective of this study is to better understand the sources and formation mechanisms of PM_{2.5} during the COVID-19 lockdown in coastal areas. Therefore, we set out to (1) characterize the variations of criteria air pollutants concentrations before, during, and after the CLD period; (2) qualify different source contributions to PM_{2.5} using the positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis; (3) explore the formation mechanism of SO₄²⁻ for emissions control in coastal city.

2. Methods and materials

2.1. Study area

The monitoring site (Institute of Urban Environment, Chinese Academy of Sciences in Xiamen, a coastal city of southeast China, 118.06° E, 24.61° N) is located on the interface between land and the sea. The air-monitoring supersite is setup on the rooftop of one building, which is surrounded by residential buildings, educational institutions, commercial zone, and freeways. There is no industrial source nearby, and the site is representative of an urban environment. Downtown in Xiamen with densely populated and traffic jams was located in the south of IUE. Criteria air pollutants, chemical compositions in PM_{2.5}, and meteorological parameters were continuously measured online before (from Jan 6 to Jan 23), during (from Jan 24 to Feb 10), and after (from Feb 11 to Feb 26) the city lockdown (CLD) in 2020.

2.2. Observation

Hourly mass concentrations of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ were measured by using a tapered element oscillating microbalance (TEOM1405, Thermo Scientific Corp., MA, USA). NO₂, SO₂, and O₃ were monitored using continuous gas analyzers (TEI 42i, 43i, and 49i, Thermo Scientific Corp., MA, USA). Ambient meteorological parameters including relative humidity (RH), temperature (T), wind speed (WS), and wind direction (WD) were obtained by an ultrasonic anemometer (150WX, Airmar, the USA). Water-soluble inorganic ions (WSII) in PM_{2.5} (Cl⁻, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, Na⁺, K⁺, NH₄⁺, Mg²⁺, and Ca²⁺) were hourly measured using a Monitoring device for Aerosols and Gases in ambient Air (MARGA 2080; Metrohm Applikon B.V.; Delft, Netherlands). Simultaneously, organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) in PM_{2.5} were measured using a OC/EC analyzer (model RT-4; Sunset Laboratory Inc.; Tigard, USA)

(Chang et al., 2020). BC was monitored using an Aethalometer (AE31, Magee Scientific, USA) with a PM_{2.5} cut-off inlet. Besides, concentrations of 22 elements (Al, Si, S, Fe, K, Mn, Pb, Ca, Zn, Ba, V, Cu, Ni, As, Cr, Ag, Se, Br, Hg, Sn, Ti, and Sb) were measured by a multi-metal monitor (Xact™ 625; Cooper Environmental Services, L.L.T.; Portland, USA). The method detection limits (MDLs) for these elements are shown in Table S2. To investigate atmospheric new particle growth in the coastal city, a scanning mobility particle sizer (SMPS, model 3938, TSI, Inc., USA) was operated to measure number size distributions of 3–736 nm particles at a time resolution of 5 min. The maintenance/accuracy of all online instruments was validated according to our previous studies (Hu et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2019).

2.3. Positive matrix factorization (PMF) analysis

The PMF 5.0 model was applied to quantify high-time-resolution sources of PM_{2.5} during the pandemic periods. The details of the model analysis were described in our previous studies (Liu et al., 2020b). Briefly, Eq. (1) demonstrates j compound species in the i th sample as the concentration from p independent sources.

$$x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik}f_{kj} + e_{ij} \quad (1)$$

Where e_{ij} is the residual for each species, f_{kj} is the j th species fraction from the k th source, g_{ik} is the species contribution of the k th source to the i th sample, x_{ij} is the j th species concentration measured in the i th sample, and p is the total number of independent sources. Data below the detection limit were held with the associated uncertainty adjusted. The Q (Eq. (2)) based on the uncertainties (μ) was used to evaluate the steadiness of the solution.

$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \left[\frac{x_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik}f_{kj}}{\mu_{ij}} \right]^2 \quad (2)$$

2.4. Backward trajectory analysis

Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) was applied to analyze the air masses before, during and after the CLD. The 72-h backward trajectories at a height of 100 m were run every hour. Cluster analysis was performed and four clusters were determined according to the total spatial variance (TSV). A detailed method of the HYSPLIT analysis can be referred to our previous studies (Liu et al., 2020b; Zhang et al., 2017b).

2.5. Potential source contribution function (PSCF)

The PSCF values were calculated to identify potential source areas contributing to the concentrations of PM_{2.5} and SO₄²⁻ before, during and after the CLD. PSCF values were defined as the conditional probability which was related to the passage of air parcels through the grid cell to the receptor site (Hopke et al., 1995). The zone of concern is divided into $i \times j$ grid cells. The PSCF value is normalized as follows:

$$PSCF_{ij} = m_{ij} / n_{ij} \quad (3)$$

where m_{ij} is the number of endpoints higher than a given threshold for i -th cell and n_{ij} is the total number of endpoints in the i -th cell. In this study, annual average concentrations of PM_{2.5} and SO₄²⁻ were treated as the threshold criteria, and the average number of endpoints per cell n_{ave} was 3 (Zhang et al., 2017b). A weighting function w_{ij} was multiplied with the PSCF values to minimize the uncertainty (Polissar et al., 1999), as follow:

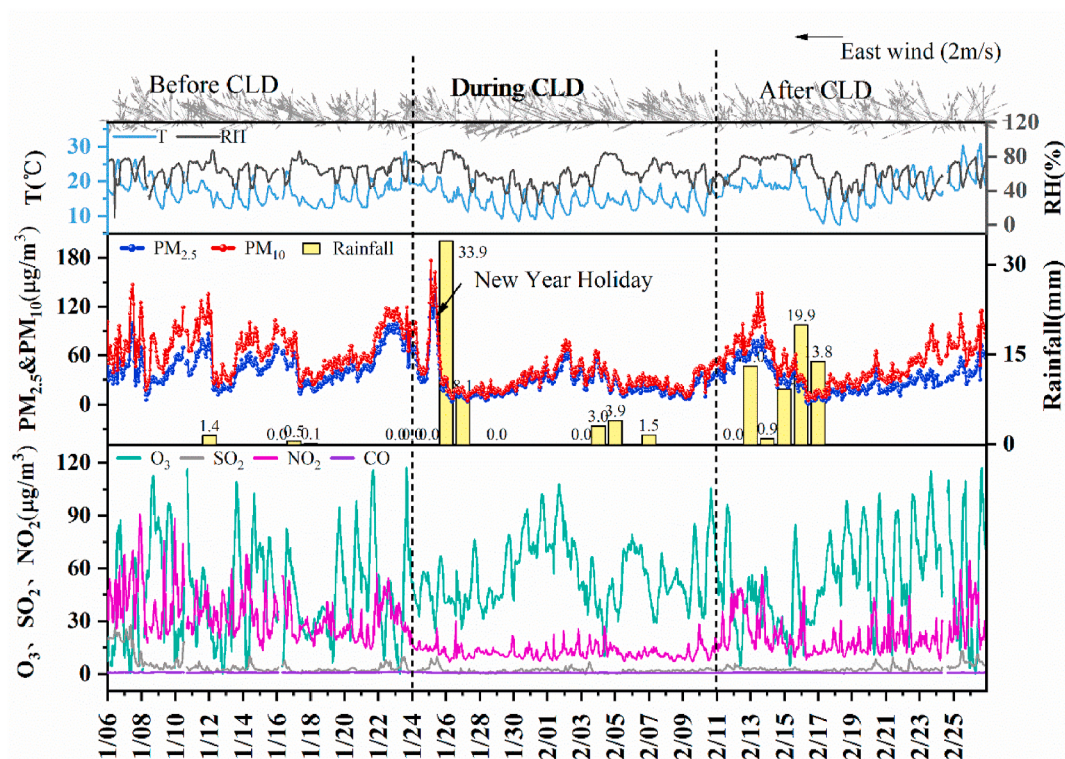


Fig. 1. Time series of criteria air pollutants and meteorological parameters before, during, and after the city lockdown (CLD).

Table 1

Concentration of PM_{2.5} and its components ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), criteria air pollutants and meteorological parameters before, during and after the city lockdown (CLD).

	Before CLD	During CLD	After CLD	Fireworks
PM _{2.5}	46.2 ± 20.9	24.4 ± 13.7	32.4 ± 17.9	77.4 ± 40.4
PM ₁₀	68.9 ± 27.1	31.6 ± 16.7	52.0 ± 26.2	92.0 ± 44.5
O ₃	44.4 ± 28.3	56.8 ± 18.7	53.7 ± 26.5	48.0 ± 12.2
CO	0.77 ± 0.15	0.56 ± 0.11	0.59 ± 0.14	0.67 ± 0.10
SO ₂	4.94 ± 5.71	1.59 ± 0.97	3.13 ± 1.95	5.06 ± 2.21
NO ₂	34.2 ± 13.5	12.2 ± 3.55	22.3 ± 11.1	14.6 ± 3.10
BC	1.74 ± 0.86	0.80 ± 0.44	1.15 ± 0.60	1.01 ± 0.23
OC	11.34 ± 3.84	6.10 ± 3.21	6.54 ± 2.17	9.66 ± 4.24
EC	1.80 ± 0.91	0.90 ± 0.70	1.20 ± 0.50	0.97 ± 0.33
SO ₄ ²⁻	6.63 ± 2.94	5.47 ± 2.94	4.79 ± 2.74	15.35 ± 9.33
NO ₃ ⁻	11.93 ± 6.78	4.17 ± 3.44	6.97 ± 5.29	6.88 ± 1.88
NH ₄ ⁺	5.58 ± 3.03	2.58 ± 1.87	3.57 ± 2.64	2.34 ± 0.50
Na ⁺	0.10 ± 0.09	0.04 ± 0.06	0.11 ± 0.15	0.17 ± 0.06
K ⁺	0.20 ± 0.85	0.23 ± 0.39	0.10 ± 0.11	11.21 ± 8.55
Mg ²⁺	0.01 ± 0.02	0.04 ± 0.07	0.01 ± 0.01	1.79 ± 1.32
Ca ²⁺	0.07 ± 0.08	0.02 ± 0.04	0.03 ± 0.06	0.02 ± 0.03
SIA	23.0 ± 14.4	12.70 ± 8.58	15.1 ± 11.4	44.9 ± 25.9
NO ₃ ⁻ /SO ₄ ²⁻	1.80 ± 0.64	0.79 ± 0.39	1.43 ± 0.77	0.62 ± 0.32
NOR	0.21 ± 0.09	0.19 ± 0.10	0.18 ± 0.11	0.26 ± 0.05
SOR	0.69 ± 0.19	0.80 ± 0.10	0.65 ± 0.13	0.77 ± 0.07
PM _{2.5} /PM ₁₀	0.66 ± 0.09	0.77 ± 0.11	0.62 ± 0.12	0.82 ± 0.06
T(°C)	16.88 ± 3.40	14.67 ± 2.87	17.71 ± 4.56	18.70 ± 1.50
RH(%)	63.8 ± 10.6	60.3 ± 13.9	61.2 ± 14.6	68.3 ± 4.32
P(kPa)	100.9 ± 0.24	101.1 ± 0.33	101.1 ± 0.48	100.9 ± 0.17
WS(m/s)	1.42 ± 0.68	1.62 ± 0.79	1.30 ± 0.74	1.09 ± 0.29

$$w_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1.00 & n_{ij} > 3n_{ave} \\ 0.70 & 1.5n_{ave} < n_{ij} \leq 3n_{ave} \\ 0.42 & n_{ave} \leq n_{ij} \leq 1.5n_{ave} \\ 0.17 & n_{ij} \leq n_{ave} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

3. Results and discussions

3.1. Overview of criteria air pollutants

Time series of criteria air pollutants and meteorological factors before, during, and after the city lockdown (CLD) are shown in Fig. 1. The mean concentrations of PM_{2.5} during the CLD decreased from 46.2 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to 24.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and then back to 32.4 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ after the CLD (Table 1). The concentrations of other air pollutants, such as SO₂, NO₂, PM₁₀, OC, EC, and BC, also showed a decreasing trend (by 27.3%–67.8%) during the CLD, whereas only O₃ increased (by 28.1%). In contrast, the concentrations of SO₂, PM₁, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, and CO during the same periods in 2018 and 2019 were not significantly changed (Table S2). The little peak of NO₂ concentrations during the CLD was attributed to the impact of stationary combustion sources such as the coal-fired power plant, and the concentration of secondary components (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺) in PM_{2.5} occasionally increased, especially in a relatively stable atmospheric condition. For the CLD, the temporal pattern of air pollutants was consistent with the fact that the emissions from anthropogenic activities were reduced. Similar results have been reported in other cities such as Beijing, Shanghai, and Wuhan (He et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020b). After the outbreak of COVID-19, the local government has taken unprecedented control measures, including restricting transportation and public gathering (Kraemer et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2020). Satellite observations also showed reduced NO₂ emissions over Chinese cities, ranging from 11% to 69% (Bauwens et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2020a). Wuhan was the first city in China to adopt the lockdown measures, which improved the air quality accordingly (Zheng et al., 2020b). Meanwhile, the increased contribution of combustion and secondary organic aerosol to PM_{2.5} was reported (Zheng et al., 2020b; Huang et al., 2020a). Therefore, the response of the sources and

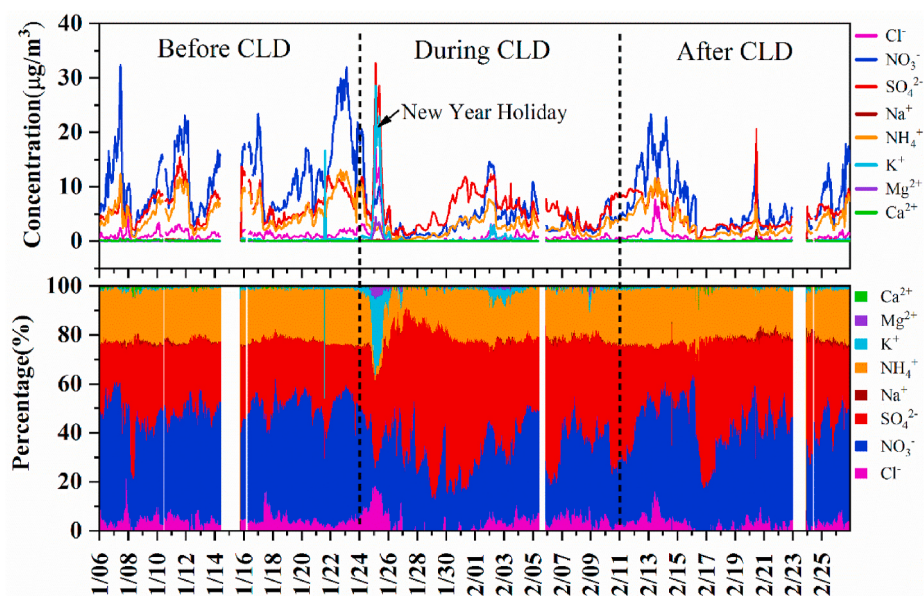


Fig. 2. Concentrations and percentages of water-soluble inorganic ions in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ before, during, and after the city lockdown (CLD).

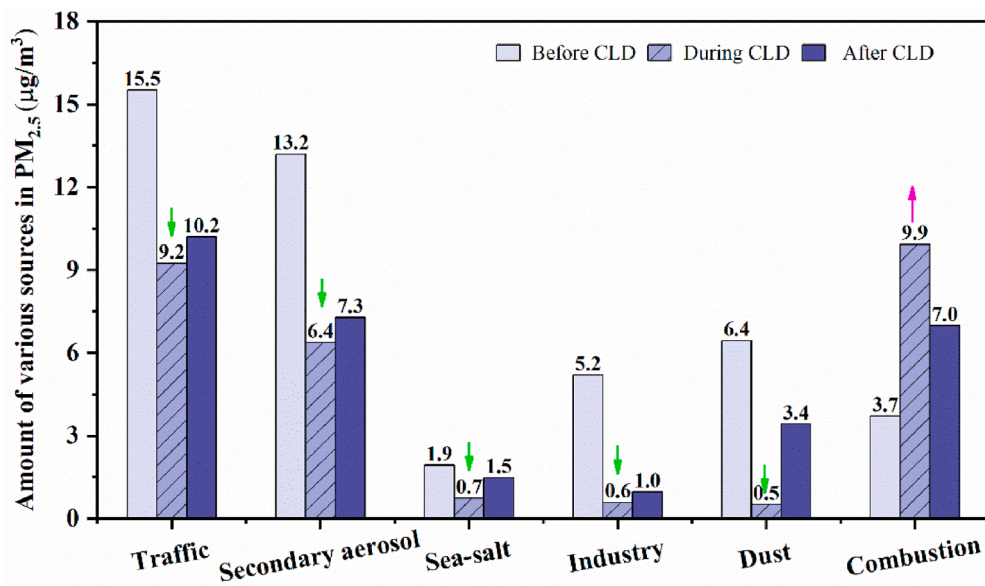
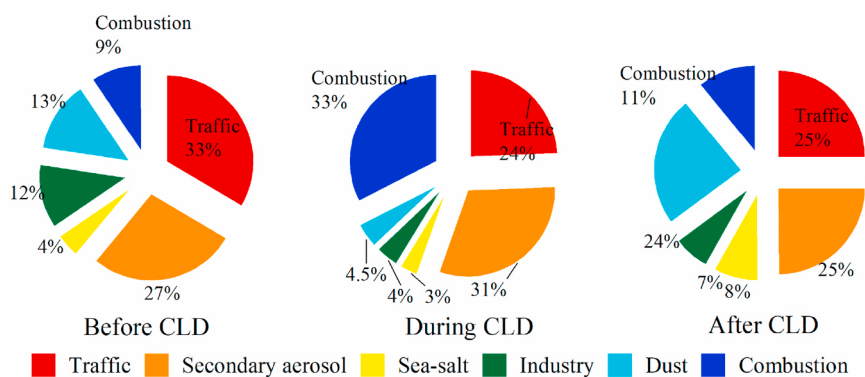


Fig. 3. Source contributions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ based on the PMF model analysis before, during, and after the city lockdown (CLD).

formation of PM_{2.5} to aerosol precursor emissions control would be complex and nonlinear.

3.2. Chemical compositions of PM_{2.5}

The concentrations of SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺ before the CLD were $6.63 \pm 2.94 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $11.93 \pm 6.78 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and $5.58 \pm 3.03 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively (Table 1). During the CLD, the concentrations of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ sharply decreased, with an average concentration of $4.17 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $2.58 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and increased to $6.97 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $3.57 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ after the CLD. Time series of water-soluble inorganic ions (WSII) in PM_{2.5} are shown in Fig. 2. The mean concentrations of the total WSII before, during, and after the CLD was $23.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, $12.7 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and $15.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. During the CLD, sulfate was the most abundant species with a proportion of 43.1% of total WSII, followed by ammonium (26.6%) and nitrate (9.7%). However, the percentage of nitrate (41.5%) before the CLD was the biggest, followed by sulfate (28.8%) and ammonium (13.5%).

Organic carbon (OC) and elemental carbon (EC) levels during different periods were demonstrated in Table 1 and Fig. S1. Average OC and EC concentrations were 6.10 ± 3.21 and $0.90 \pm 0.70 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ during the CLD, ~50% lower than those (11.34 ± 3.84 and $1.80 \pm 0.91 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) before the CLD. As shown in Fig. S1, the proportion of SOC was relatively higher than those before and after the CLD, suggesting the influence of secondary formation. In addition, the average OC/EC (7.69 ± 3.16) during the CLD was slightly higher than those before and after the CLD (6.87 ± 1.85 and 6.06 ± 2.75 , respectively).

Fig. S2 shows the variations of metal elements in PM_{2.5} under different periods, based on hourly measurement concentrations. Most of them (including Fe, Ca, Si, Cr, Mn, Zn, Ni, and V) decrease during the CLD. An important explanation is that anthropogenic activities including traffic, industry, and port have little emissions, which was consistent with the reduction of SO₂, NO₂, and CO (Table 1). Previous studies have reported that traffic activities could enhance the concentrations of crustal elements (e.g., Fe, Ca, and Si) in PM_{2.5} (Yu et al., 2019). However, Al did not significantly decrease during the CLD, which was related to contribution combustion sources such as fireworks displays. In addition, the concentrations of V and Ni during the CLD decrease from $0.7 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$ to $0.1 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$ and $3.1 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$ to $0.8 \text{ ng}/\text{m}^3$, respectively (Fig. S2). V and Ni are dominant elements in crude oil and are considered the tracers of ship emissions (Agrawal et al., 2008; Tao et al., 2017). The monitoring site is 10 km north of the Xiamen port, which is one of the top 10 ports in China. The shutdown of port activities during the CLD resulted in the reduction of V and Ni concentration at the monitoring site.

3.3. Sources apportionment of PM_{2.5}

The PMF model was applied to conduct high-time-resolution source apportionment of PM_{2.5}, based on online hourly measurement data. The factor profiles and the contribution of various sources to PM_{2.5} are shown in Fig. 3, Fig. S4, and S5. The contributions of emission sources to PM_{2.5} (except for combustion) significantly decreased during the epidemic period. In factor 1, K⁺, Cl⁻, S, and Ba are dominant and it is identified as combustion sources (Watson et al., 2001). During the CLD, the influence of combustion sources (e.g., biomass burning and coal combustion) significantly increased to 33%, contributing to PM_{2.5} concentrations from $3.7 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to $9.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Firstly, during the cold season, residential daily stir-frying activities for cooking and solid fuel (e.g., crop residues, wood, and coal) burning for heating were dominant in the north of China (Kong et al., 2015; Zheng et al., 2020c). Secondly, the distribution of fire spots during the CLD was more active than those before the CLD (Fig. S6). Biomass burning could enhance the contribution of combustion to PM_{2.5} at the monitoring site through long-range transport. Thirdly, the contribution of combustion source to PM_{2.5} sharply increased from Jan 25, i.e., the Spring Festival in China, as

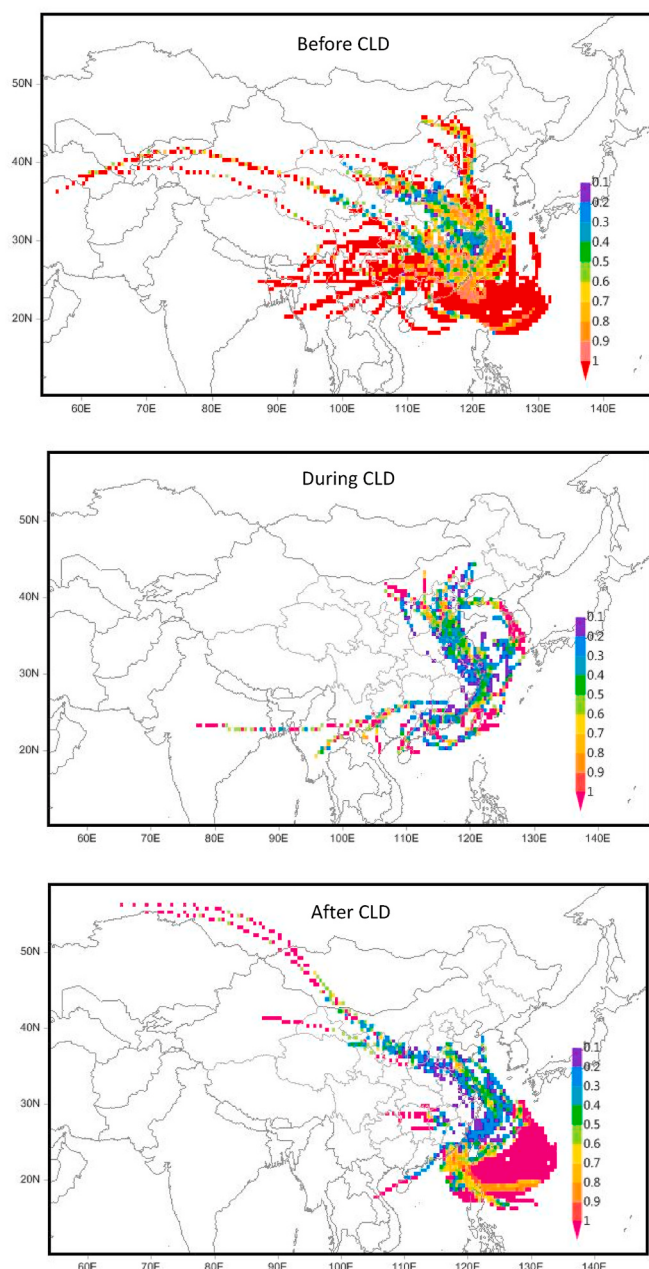


Fig. 4. Spatial distributions of PSCF for PM_{2.5} before, during, and after the city lockdown (CLD).

shown in Fig. S5. The celebration activity, including scattered fireworks displays, was lasted for one week. The effects of fireworks displays during the New Year Holidays on PM_{2.5} and its components and other air pollutants are shown in Table 1 and Fig. S3.

Previous studies had found that construction and road dust was characterized by a high loading of Al, Si, Ca²⁺, Na⁺, Mg²⁺, and Zn (Han et al., 2007; Xu et al., 2018). In this study, the factor of dust (F2) was identified by high contributions of Si, Na⁺, and Zn (Fig. S4). The PMF analysis showed that the contribution of dust to PM_{2.5} sharply decreased from 13% to 4.5% during the CLD (Fig. 3). Factor 3, contributing to the high loading of metal elements (Mn, Zn, Ni, Pb, and As), was characterized by industrial emissions (Belis et al., 2019). The decreased contributions from 12% to 4% during the CLD were mainly attributed to the shutdown of industrial activities. The contributions of industry and dust to PM_{2.5} before the CLD was $5.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and $6.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. The shutdown of factories, and the reduction of road and construction dusts

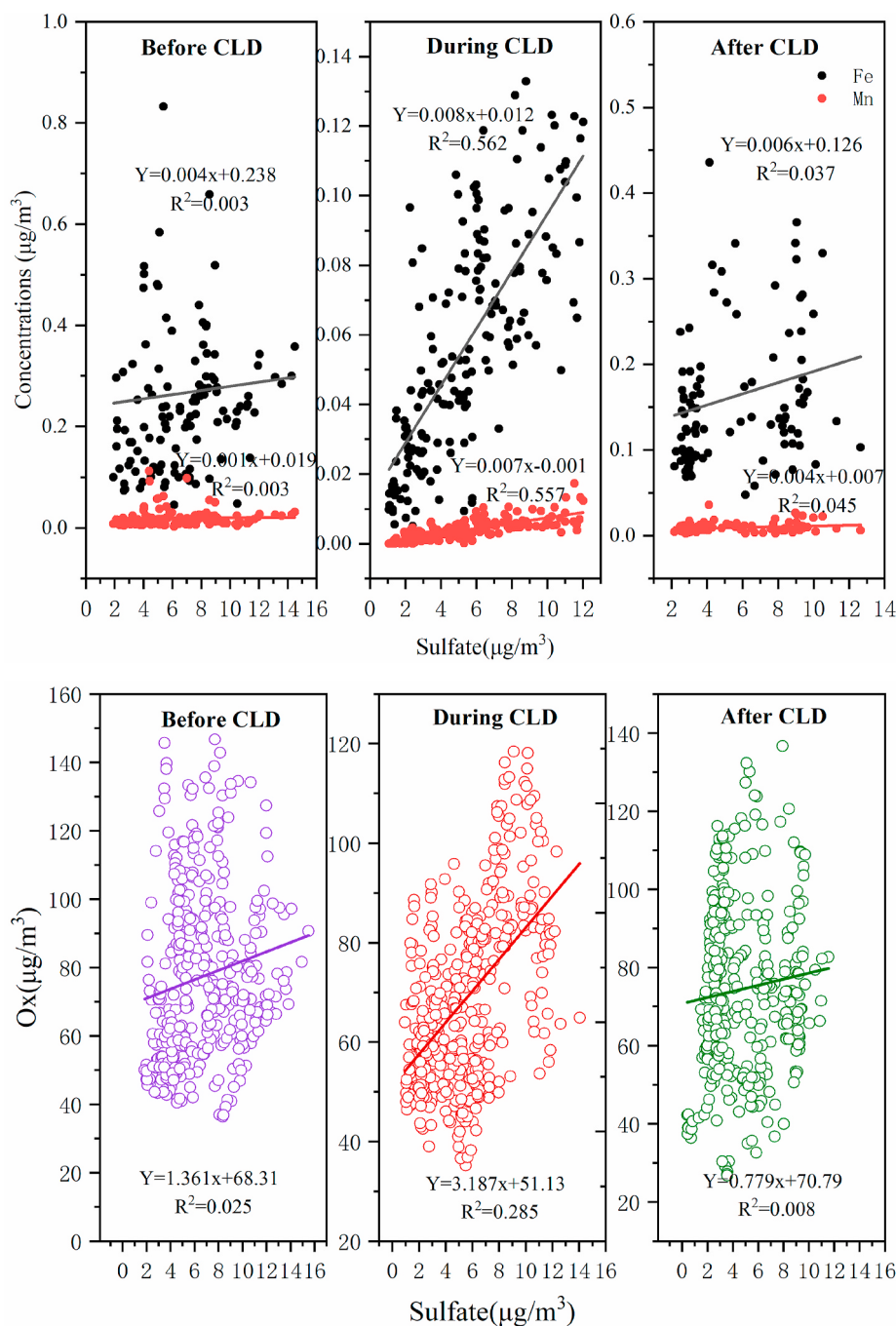


Fig. 5. Linear regression between SO_4^{2-} and Fe, Mn, Ox ($\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2$) under different periods.

have sharply decreased the contribution of these sources. Factor 4, with the highest proportion of Na^+ loading, was related to the influence of sea-salt aerosol (Polissar et al., 1998). The percentages of sea-salt (3–8%) under different periods were relatively constant. Factor 5 was associated with secondary aerosol, with high loads of SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^- , and NH_4^+ . The nitrate oxidation rate (NOR) and its precursor (NO_2) showed a descending trend (Table 1, Fig.S9), implying low fractions of nitrate due to secondary formation. Meanwhile, ammonium concentrations also have a similar pattern decreased from $5.58 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to $2.58 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. However, the sulfate oxidation rate (SOR) showed enhancements during the CLD, and the fractions of sulfate from secondary formation were constant. The percentage of secondary aerosol increased during the CLD, according to the PMF analysis. Le et al. (2020) found that reduced nitrogen oxides caused O_3 enhancement, furthering facilitating secondary

aerosol formation, and resulted in haze episodes in winter under high humidity and stagnant airflow conditions. Factor 6 shows high contributions of EC, OM, and Pb, which are generally indicators of vehicle exhaust (Xu et al., 2018). During the CLD, the restricted vehicle travel resulted in the reduced contribution of traffic to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ from $15.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ to $9.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, although the percentages of traffic slightly decreased.

Spatial distributions of potential sources of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ at the monitoring site are presented in Fig. 4. Before the CLD, significant potential source regions with high PSCF values mainly include the North China Plain, the YRD region, the south and southwest of China, and the southeast China sea. The results indicated the influence of emissions was from urban and industrial areas through long-range transport. Moderate and weak PSCF values were mainly distributed in East and Central China. During the CLD, potential source regions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ with high PSCF values were

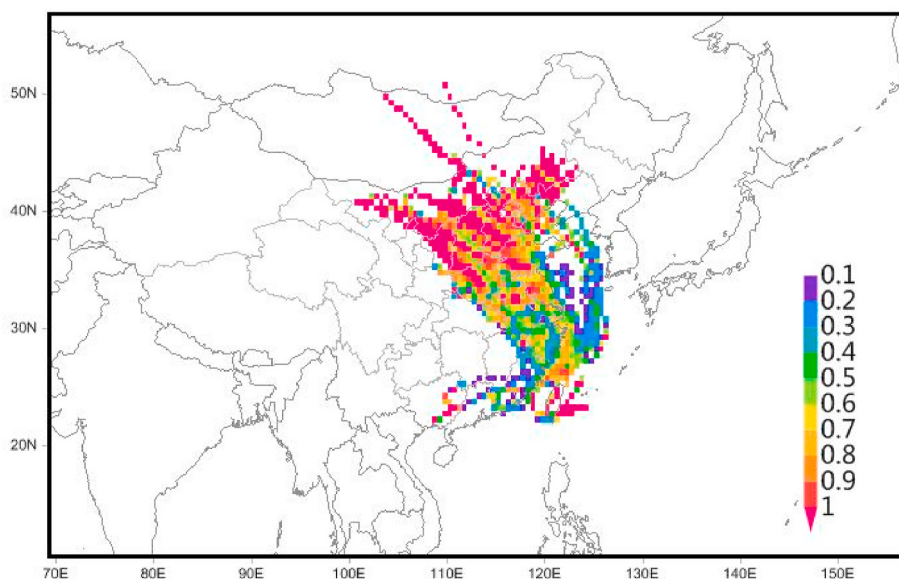


Fig. 6. Spatial distributions of PSCF for SO_4^{2-} during the city lockdown (CLD).

seldom observed. Moreover, the PSCF values from urban and industrial areas decreased. After the CLD, potential source regions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ with moderate and weak PSCF values are primarily affected by Northwest China and the Southeast China Sea. In this stage, factories and public transportation in Fujian province started to reopen, but some regions still have strict epidemic prevention and control.

During the CLD, the 72 h backward trajectory clusters for air mass and the corresponding concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and its components are shown in Fig. S7b. The northerly cluster (Cluster 4) was the most frequent, accounting for 38.5% of total air masses, followed by Cluster 2 (31.1%), Cluster 1 (27.2%), and Cluster 3 (3.2%). Cluster 1 and Cluster 3 represent the surrounding regions and long-range transport originating from western and southwestern of China, respectively. Cluster 2 came from the East China Sea and passed through the densely populated YRD region. The long-range northerly continental cluster (Cluster 4) passed over heavily polluted areas of North and Central China such as Hebei, Shandong, and Anhui provinces. Anthropogenic emissions strongly influenced Cluster 2 and 4, and Cluster 4 had the highest concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and WSII components. Totally, concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and its components from regional transport during the CLD were much lower than those before (Fig. S7a) and after the CLD (Fig. S7c).

3.4. Formation mechanism of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$

As shown in Fig. S8a, NO_3^- was significantly correlated with NH_4^+ ($R^2 = 0.85\text{--}0.92$), suggesting the existential form of NH_4NO_3 (Zhang et al., 2020a, 2020b;). SO_4^{2-} was also correlated with NH_4^+ ($R^2 = 0.71\text{--}0.80$), and the line fit of NH_4^+ and SO_4^{2-} showed a slope of 1.45–2.46 (Fig. S8b), indicating a dominant form of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ (). In this study, sulfate and nitrate were completely neutralized by ammonium (Fig. S8c). However, there is no significant difference in the existing form of SNA in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ before, during and after the CLD.

Although the CLD reduced the emission of SO_2 and NO_2 to the atmosphere, the changes of SO_4^{2-} and NO_3^- concentrations in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ were obviously different. The variations of SOR and NOR under different periods are shown in Fig. S9. It should be noted that SOR (0.80 ± 0.10) during the CLD was the highest, indicating a high oxidation rate of SO_2 . Recent studies found that O_3 , H_2O_2 , OH, and transition-metal-catalyzed (TMI) O_2 triggered the secondary formation of SO_4^{2-} (Wang et al., 2016; Gen et al., 2019; Li et al., 2020). However, the relative importance of these oxidants enhancing the formation of SO_4^{2-} is still debating. According to RH and T (Table 1), there is no significant difference for

meteorological conditions under different pandemic periods. However, O_x was positively correlated with SO_4^{2-} during the CLD (Fig. 5), suggesting the influence of photochemical oxidation. The aqueous phase process of SO_2 oxidation happened much faster, including reactions with O_3 , OH, H_2O_2 , and organic peroxides (Wang et al., 2016; Gen et al., 2019).

In addition, a good correlation of SO_4^{2-} and Fe and Mn during the CLD was found (Fig. 5). The results showed that the dominance of TMI-catalyzed oxidation for the secondary formation of SO_4^{2-} could be an important pathway under relatively clean conditions. Previous studies had found that SO_2 oxidation catalyzed by transition metals was a dominant in-cloud oxidation pathway (Harris et al., 2013). Li et al. (2020) also reported that TMI played an important role in the rapid formation of sulfate aerosols during haze episodes, contributing to ~50% of total SO_4^{2-} production. Recently, Wang et al. (2021) found that the manganese-catalyzed oxidation of SO_2 during haze events contributed ~70% of the particulate sulfur production, integrating chamber experiments, numerical simulations and in-field observations (Wang et al., 2021). The Mn catalytic reaction rapidly occurred at the aerosol surface layer, and Mn(III) was the intermediate product that could oxidize S(IV) (Wang et al., 2021). Meanwhile, SO_3^- can react with dissolved O_2 to generate SO_5^- radicals, which can oxidize Mn(II) to regenerate Mn(III) (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2016). Therefore, the Mn catalytic redox reaction could continue to produce sulfate while consuming only oxygen and SO_2 , meaning that this reaction would occur even in the low concentration of Mn (Wang et al., 2021). Totally, the sulfate production rate was affected by many factors, including the aerosol surface, the aerosol acidity and ionic strength, and environmental conditions (temperature and relative humidity), along with various mixing ratios of SO_2 , NO_2 and NH_3 (Hung et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021). To evaluate the interaction of sulfate formation and Fe/Mn, we need to calculate the Fe–Mn-catalytic reaction rate under different conditions through chamber experiments. In coastal area, the relative contributions of Fe–Mn-catalytic reaction to secondary formation of SO_4^{2-} should be further studied. In addition, regional transport is also an important factor for enhancing SO_4^{2-} , supported by the PSCF analysis (Fig. 6). As shown in Fig. S7, SO_4^{2-} in the coastal area of southeast China was affected by the long-range sources from urban and industrial areas, including the North China Plain, even during the CLD period.

Figure S10 shows the number size distributions of 7–300 nm particles measured by SMPS during different periods. The average total particle number concentrations of the three-particle modes before the

CLD were 1971 cm^{-3} , 5028 cm^{-3} , and 2372 cm^{-3} , and those during the CLD were 503 cm^{-3} , 1685 cm^{-3} , and 1087 cm^{-3} , respectively. Compared with the pre-epidemic period, the particle number showed a decrease of 74%, 66% and 54%, indicating the influence of anthropogenic emissions. After the CLD, the average total particle number concentrations of the three-particle modes were 1568 cm^{-3} , 2013 cm^{-3} , and 1087 cm^{-3} , respectively. There is evidence for new particle growth before and after the CLD under relatively polluted conditions, yet no continuous and lasting growth from the nucleation-mode particles was observed during the CLD. In addition, the lack of nucleation and particle growth might partly be explained by ambient conditions (e.g., temperature and RH) and concentrations of precursors through local emission and long-range transport.

4. Conclusions

High time resolution characterization and sources apportionment of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ during the COVID-19 pandemic was conducted in a coastal city of southeast China. The average concentrations of various air pollutants, including SO_2 , NO_2 , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, PM_{10} , OC, EC, and BC, obviously decreased by 27.3%–67.8%, whereas only O_3 increased by 28.1%, reflecting the response of air quality and compositions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ to the reduction of anthropogenic emissions. Reduced NO_x concentration during the COVID-19 pandemic resulted in O_3 enhancement due to weak titration, further increasing atmospheric oxidation capacity. Under relatively low SO_2 concentrations ($1.59 \pm 0.97\text{ }\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), SO_4^{2-} in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ was kept in constant, attributed to the increase of SOR enhanced by transition-metal ion catalyzed and photochemical oxidation. During the city lockdown, the contribution of combustion (33%) and secondary aerosol (31%) to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ increased, while other primary sources including traffic (24%), dust (4.5%), and industry sources (4%) significantly decreased. The results were consistent with the increase of residential activities and fireworks displays and suspending transportations. The levels of regional transported $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and its components during the CLD were relatively low, suggesting the reduction of anthropogenic emissions on a national scale. This study facilitates a better understanding of the effects of emissions control on the formation mechanisms of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ under relatively clean condition.

Declaration of competing interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgements

This research was financially supported by the Cultivating Project of Strategic Priority Research Program of Chinese Academy of Sciences (XDPB1903), the foreign cooperation project of Fujian Province (2020I0038), the Xiamen Youth Innovation Fund Project (3502Z20206094), the FJIRSM&IUE Joint Research Fund (RHZX-2019-006), State Key Laboratory of Environmental Chemistry and Ecotoxicology, Research Center for Eco-Environmental Sciences, CAS (KF2020-06) and center for Excellence in Regional Atmospheric Environment project (E01B20201).

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2021.117577>.

Credit statement

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Xinbei: Formal analysis, Writing- Original draft preparation, Data curation. Zheng Ronghua, Ji Xiaoting: Methodology, Resources, Investigation. Xu Lingling, Li Mengren: Software, Validation. Chen Yanting, Wang Hong: Project administration, Visualization. Xiao Hang, Choi Sung-Deuk: Writing- Reviewing and Editing. Chen Jinsheng: Funding acquisition, Writing- Reviewing and Editing.

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