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1 Rapid improvement in air quality due to aerosol- 2 pollution control during 2012-2018: an evidence 3 observed in Kunshan in the Yangtze River Delta, China

4

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12

13 Abstract

14 China's severe air pollution was widely concerned in the past decade. A rigorous emission
15 control has been implemented by the Chinese government since 2013. It is essential to
16 evaluate changes of air pollutants to understand effectiveness of present air-pollution
17 control on improving air quality. Here, we investigate temporal trends of air pollutants,
18 including PM_{2.5}, SO₂, NO₂ and O₃, observed at 12 sites over the Kunshan area in the Yangtze
19 River Delta region during 2012-2018 using Mann-Kendall statistical test. Overall, significant
20 reduction trends of monthly PM_{2.5} (-7.4% yr⁻¹) were observed, together with reduction in the
21 PM_{2.5} to CO ratio (-5.8% yr⁻¹), an indicator of secondary aerosol production. Secondary
22 aerosol precursors, SO₂ (-10.3% yr⁻¹) and NO₂ (-4.4% yr⁻¹) also presented statistically
23 significant reduction trends. These results reflect the consequence of emission control that
24 leads to substantial reduction in the bulk PM_{2.5} concentration, as well as secondary aerosols
25 likely formed from SO₂ and NO₂. However, O₃ had statistically significant increase trend (+3.4%
26 yr⁻¹) during 2014 – 2018. Limited formation of O₃ under high PM_{2.5} and NO₂ concentrations

27 condition was found at daytime in summer, which might reflect one of the reasons causing
28 the increase trend of O₃ under the current reduction scenario of PM_{2.5} and NO₂. Potential
29 source contribution function analysis demonstrated that the transport from the regions
30 located to northwest of Kunshan could contribute to high concentrations of PM_{2.5} in all
31 seasons, while the south and southeast could be the high potential as source areas for O₃.

32

33 **Keywords:** Air quality, PM_{2.5}, O₃, trend, geographic origins, Yangtze River Delta

34

35 **1. Introduction**

36 Rapid industrialization and urbanization have been widely known as a key reason
37 leading to air pollution, especially in developing countries. Air pollutants compose of various
38 gases and particulate matter. Globally, fine aerosol particles (PM_{2.5}, with the aerodynamic
39 diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$) and ozone (O₃) are the major air pollutants in the present atmosphere.
40 Both of them, PM_{2.5} and O₃, have adverse health risks that can also result in human
41 premature death (Shiraiwa et al., 2017;Dockery et al., 1996;Knowlton et al., 2004). As one of
42 the largest developing countries in the world, China has experienced fast-developing
43 economy and urbanization during the past decades, especially in the eastern China regions,
44 like the Yangtze River Delta. However, this obviously brings a serious consequence being air
45 pollution issues, such as extreme haze (Huang et al., 2014) and O₃ pollution (Li et al., 2019).

46 During the past decade, characterization of Chinese severe haze pollution and its
47 formation mechanism have been widely studied (Sun et al., 2014;Huang et al., 2014;Guo et
48 al., 2014;Ding et al., 2016;Zhang et al., 2017a;Sun et al., 2016a;Wang et al., 2016b;Cheng et
49 al., 2016). As indicated by their findings, rapid formation of anthropogenic secondary fine
50 aerosols over a regional scale is a dominated factor for the haze event formation under
51 stagnant meteorological conditions. In the atmosphere, secondary fine aerosols are formed
52 via the oxidation of their gaseous precursors, e.g., sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen oxides (NO_x),
53 ammonia (NH₃) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs). To control haze formation and to
54 further improve air quality, it is therefore necessary to reduce the budget of those aerosol
55 precursors in the atmosphere (Cheng et al., 2019;Zhai et al., 2019). Several mankind
56 emission source sectors, such as power plants, industry, transportation, agriculture, solvent
57 use, residential activities, contribute to those aerosol precursors in China (Zheng et al., 2018).
58 Since 2013, the China's Clean Air Action has been implemented to reduce emissions of air
59 pollutants from these source sectors. As reported by Zheng et al. (2018), such emission
60 control measure has successfully reduced some air pollutants, including SO₂ and NO_x by 59%
61 and 21%, respectively, during 2013-2017. However, VOCs and NH₃ emissions were not
62 expected to be reduced, and therefore remained stable for NH₃ and even increased for the
63 VOCs during 2010-2017 (Zheng et al., 2018). Although the anthropogenic source emissions
64 during recent years have been characterized in China, understanding of temporal trends of
65 surface concentrations of those air pollutants and their geographic source distributions

66 remains limited. Investigation of long-term trends of those pollutants by ground-based
67 measurements can help to further understand effectiveness and/or feedbacks of the air-
68 pollution control progress on the improvement of air quality.

69 As one of the central cities in one of the core economic zones in eastern China,
70 Kunshan is located in the region closed (around 100 km) to the megacity of Shanghai in the
71 Yangtze River Delta region. Regarding to economic growth, Kunshan, with total area of
72 approximately 900 square kilometers and around 1 million population, has ranked first
73 among the 100 counties and cities for 13 years in China (as reported by Kunshan local
74 chronicles Compilation Committee Office). By this rapid economic growth and the associated
75 intensified urbanization process, the air pollution and other ecological and environmental
76 problems have been increasingly prominent in the Kunshan region, and it has become one of
77 four severe haze pollution zones in China. This fact poses a serious threat to urban
78 development and the mutual restraint between economy and environment, causing wide
79 social concern. In the present work, we quantified the temporal trends of air pollutants using
80 Mann-Kendall test analysis, including $PM_{2.5}$, the $PM_{2.5}$ to CO ratio, SO_2 , NO_2 , and O_3 , based on
81 long-term ground-based measurements during 2012 – 2018 under different environments
82 (including urban and near rural areas). Possible influence of regional and local pollution
83 sources on the trends of those air pollutants was discussed. The potential influence of $PM_{2.5}$
84 changes on O_3 trends was explored. Geographic sources of those air pollutants were
85 investigated using a potential source contribution function method.

86

87 2. Data and methods

88 2.1 Air pollutants dataset

89 Hourly data of air pollutants, including PM_{2.5}, O₃, NO₂, SO₂, and CO, were obtained from the
90 online air quality monitoring network of Kunshan. There are 12 stations involved in this
91 database, including 2 urban, 5 near rural, 3 town and 2 industrial sites, which has been
92 summarized in Table S1. A meteorological parameter (i.e., wind speed) was obtained from a
93 meteorological observation station in Kunshan.

94

95 2.2 Trend analysis

96 The Mann-Kendall statistical test (Mann, 1945), a non-parametric test, has been
97 commonly used in time series analysis to identify the trends of observational datasets. In the
98 Mann-Kendall test, the data don't have to meet the normality distribution, because non-
99 parametric test works for all data distributions. This is a major advantage compared to
100 parametric test, such as t test. The seasonal Mann-Kendall test is aiming to test the trend of
101 the data with significant seasonality. In the present work, the trend analysis was performed
102 on monthly mean data sets calculated from all, urban, and near rural sites, during the two
103 periods, i.e., 2012 – 2018 and 2014 -2018, respectively. Before performing the Mann-Kendall
104 test, the seasonality of the monthly data was firstly examined using the Kruskal-Wallis test
105 (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952). If seasonality of the given data is significant (Kruskal-Wallis's $p <$
106 0.05), the seasonal Mann-Kendall test is applied, while the Mann-Kendall test will be applied
107 for the data without significant seasonality (Kruskal-Wallis's $p > 0.05$). The median slope of
108 the trend was calculated using Sen's slope method (Sen, 1968). The magnitude of the trends
109 was presented only for the data with statistically significant trend at 5% significance level
110 (see section 3.1). To examine the response of the China's rigorous air-pollution control (an Air
111 Pollution Action Plan released in September 2013) to the improvement of air quality over a
112 specific region, we compared these trends during the two periods of 2012-2018 and 2014-
113 2018. The Mann-Kendal trend analysis was performed using a R trend package (Pohlert,
114 2018). Finally, the least-squares fitting method was also applied here to compare the Mann-
115 Kendall statistical trend analysis results (see Tables S2-S4).

116

117 **2.3 Potential geographic origins analysis**

118 Potential source contribution function (PSCF) (Polissar, 1999) – a statistical approach
119 – has been widely used to determine possible geographic origins of observed air pollutants.
120 The PSCF describes the relationship between the coordinates of air mass back-trajectories
121 and the ambient concentrations of air pollutants (Fleming et al., 2012). The magnitude of
122 PSCF is defined as the grid-based probability linked to the pollutant origins, which is
123 calculated by the ratio of m_{ij} to n_{ij} . m_{ij} represents the number of trajectory endpoints in a grid
124 cell (i,j) associated with a given pollutant threshold value, and n_{ij} is the total count of
125 trajectory endpoints. Therefore, the PSCF analysis allows us to understand the high potential
126 source region that contributes the high concentration of air pollutants at the receptor site. To
127 minimize a limitation of PSCF caused by a limited number of n_{ij} points in a grid cell, a
128 downweighing function (w_{ij}) was performed here, as described in details by previous studies
129 (Zhang et al., 2019b;Waked et al., 2014). In the present work, the PSCF analysis was
130 performed based on 72-h back trajectory data that was calculated every 1 h using the
131 HYSPLIT model (Draxler and Rolph, 2013) at an ending height of 100 m above ground level
132 (a.g.l.). Global Data Assimilation System (GDAS) files with a $0.2^\circ \times 0.2^\circ$ horizontal resolution
133 were used here for the back-trajectory analysis. The receptor site was setting up at the near
134 center (longitude: $120^\circ 8'$, latitude: $31^\circ 2'$) of Kunshan. The average concentrations of the air
135 pollutants observed from all sampling sites were applied for the PSCF analysis. The threshold
136 value of the ambient concentrations was set up at 75th percentile for the PSCF calculation,
137 which is consistent with many previous studies (e.g., (Sun et al., 2015;Zhang et al., 2017b).
138 All PSCF-related analysis was done here using an Igor-Pro user-friendly toolkit (ZeFir) (Petit et
139 al., 2017).

140

141 3. Results and discussion

142 3.1 Trends and variations of major air pollutants

143 In China, the air-pollution control policies have been implemented by the Chinese
144 government since 2010 (Zheng et al., 2018), while a new cleaner air action – so-called
145 national “Ten Measures” – has been implemented to further improve the air quality since
146 end of 2013 (Zhang et al., 2019a). Within such new clean air policies, the national emission
147 standards have been applied for emission control linking to different source sectors (Zheng et
148 al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019a). For instance, the national standards GB 29620-2013, GB 4915-
149 2013, and GB 13271-2014, were implemented to reduce some industrial sectors, i.e., Brick,
150 Cement, and industrial boiler, respectively (Zheng et al., 2018). Instead of the Euro 3
151 standard, the Euro 4 standard was applied for diesel vehicle of transportation sector (Zheng
152 et al., 2018). As a consequence of the 2013 cleaner air action, better air quality is logically
153 expected, however ground-based measurements are needed to directly evaluate those
154 pollution control policies. Figure 1 presents the trends in surface concentrations of PM_{2.5}, SO₂,
155 NO₂, and O₃, as well as the ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO measured at all sampling sites. As a result of
156 Fig. 1a and Fig. S1a, PM_{2.5} observed at all sampling sites (including urban, near rural, town,
157 and industry areas), have an excellent consistency, suggesting the comparable surface mass
158 concentrations of fine aerosols over the Kunshan region. During the both periods, i.e., 2012-
159 2018 and 2014-2018, PM_{2.5} exhibits statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) decreasing trends within
160 90 % confidence interval. For the average values calculated from all sites’ observations, it can
161 be noted that the change ratio (-8.2 \% yr^{-1}) during 2014 – 2018 is higher than that of -7.4 \%
162 yr^{-1} during the whole period. Reduction in primary emissions of PM_{2.5}, by those mitigation
163 measures (especially strength industrial emission standards) (Zheng et al., 2018; Zhang et al.,
164 2019a), can partly explain the reduction trend of primary fractions of PM_{2.5} observed in
165 ambient air (Figure 1a). In fact, the reduction in total PM_{2.5} can be overall due to reductions
166 in both, primary and secondary aerosol fractions. To further explore the trends associated
167 with secondary production of PM_{2.5}, an inert combustion tracer (CO) was applied to
168 normalize the PM_{2.5} mass concentrations (i.e., the PM_{2.5}-to-CO ratio) to minimize influence of
169 primary combustion emissions (e.g., gasoline vehicles, coal combustion and biofuel burning)
170 and meteorological dilution effect (de Gouw, 2005; Zhang and Cao, 2015; Hu et al., 2013; Sun

171 et al., 2016b). As Fig. 1b shows, the $PM_{2.5}$ -to-CO ratios calculated with all sites datasets
172 present significant decreasing trends for the both periods, which is roughly consistent with
173 the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations trends (Fig. 1a). These results could confirm that the significant
174 reduction in $PM_{2.5}$ observed at a city level can be partly explained by the reduction of
175 secondary production in $PM_{2.5}$. Those results reflect a fact of the enhanced role of the more
176 rigorous air-pollution control in the reduction of fine aerosols in the atmosphere during the
177 recent past years (Zheng et al., 2018), especially in the Yangtze River Delta region (Zhai et al.,
178 2019).

179 Resulting in the reduction in secondary $PM_{2.5}$ fractions, another evidence of
180 significant decreasing trends of SO_2 and NO_2 – gas-phase precursors of secondary inorganic
181 aerosols – have been observed accordingly, as indicated by the results of Figs 1 c and d. It
182 should be noted that the reduction ratios in the average SO_2 concentration (10.3 and 11.0 %
183 yr^{-1} during 2012-2018 and 2014-2018, respectively) over all sites are approximately two
184 times higher than those of the NO_2 (-4.4 and -5.8 % yr^{-1}). The features of SO_2 and NO_2 trends
185 observed here are comparable to their emission trends for larger spatial scales on average,
186 especially over mid-eastern China regions (Zheng et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019a). This may
187 suggest that reduction in ambient SO_2 and NO_2 in a smaller region can be associated with
188 those emission control policies over larger-regional scales. As reported by Zhang et al.
189 (2019a), strength industrial emission standards are the largest contributor among some
190 mitigation measures, including phase out small and polluting factories, phase out outdated
191 industrial capacities, upgrades on industrial boilers, Promote clean fuels in the residential
192 sector, and strengthen vehicle emission standards, to the reduction of air pollutants (i.e., SO_2
193 and NO_2 , as well as $PM_{2.5}$) by the pollution control measures during the 2013-2017. Thus,
194 reduction in SO_2 and NO_2 in Kunshan region can be made associated with those pollution
195 control policies. Figures 2 a1 and b1 describe the relationship between the $PM_{2.5}$ to CO ratio
196 and NO_2 and SO_2 observed in urban and near rural sites, which is characterized by higher
197 ratio values associated with higher concentrations of both gaseous precursors. This implies
198 that the high secondary $PM_{2.5}$ production in Kunshan could be partly explained by enhanced
199 secondary inorganic aerosol formation from SO_2 and NO_2 chemistry in both urban and near-
200 rural environments (Xie et al., 2015; Cheng et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016a; Sun et al., 2016b).
201 As shown in Figs. 2 a2 and b2, the ratios of NO_2 to SO_2 have increasing trends at both urban

202 and near-rural sites over recent years, suggesting an implication that NO₂-related aerosol
203 chemistry might play a more important role in PM_{2.5} pollution in the present and even future
204 atmosphere. Interestingly, a higher ratio of NO₂ to SO₂ is observed at urban sites compared
205 to that observed at near-rural sites (Figure 2), which is likely due to larger influence of
206 transportation sectors on ambient NO₂ concentrations in urban environment. As presented
207 in Figure 1d, there is no significant trend at 5% significance level for the mass concentration
208 of NO₂ in urban environments, while significant decreasing trends are observed in near-rural
209 environments during both periods, 2012-2018 and 2014-2018. This reflects that a more
210 substantial influence of local emissions (e.g., traffic) on the ambient NO₂ burden in urban
211 environments rather than in near-rural environments. Moreover, the similar reduction rates
212 (-7.8 % yr⁻¹ versus -7.2 yr⁻¹) for near-rural sites during the two periods suggest a less effective
213 emission control strategy by the new mitigation measures for the ambient NO₂ pollution
214 control. As illustrated by Fig. S1d, the average mass concentration of NO₂ observed at urban
215 sites is higher than that at near rural sites through the whole year, highlighting larger
216 emissions of NO₂ in urban environments due to more intensive traffic emissions (i.e.,
217 transportation sector). Overall, these results above highlight the more effective control in
218 SO₂ in the ambient air – mainly from industrial combustion sources – rather than NO₂ that is
219 from transportation sources under the recent emission control policies (Zheng et al., 2018).
220 Such feedback of the lack effectiveness of reduction in NO₂ to its corresponding secondary
221 particulate production budget has been also observed by a very recent study, indicating a
222 less change ratio of nitrate compared to sulfate during recent years in Nanjing (Ding et al.,
223 2019).

224 For O₃ (see Fig. 1e and Table S2-S4), there is no statistically significant trend ($p > 0.05$)
225 for the period 2012-2018. Interestingly, there is a tendency for increasing O₃ concentrations
226 (+3.4 % yr⁻¹, $p < 0.05$) during 2014-2018. This indicates that the improvement in air quality in
227 Kunshan is driven by reduction of the fine particles levels, while O₃ pollution becomes a
228 more serious role in air pollution under the emission control strategies of China's clean air
229 actions since 2013 (Zheng et al., 2018). O₃ is a secondary pollutant produced from
230 photochemical oxidation of its precursors, i.e., volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and
231 nitrogen oxides (NO_x = NO + NO₂). Thus, the increasing trend in O₃ could be probably linked
232 to feedbacks of the current air-pollution emission control, which will be further discussed in

233 section 3.2.

234 Since different sampling sites may present different environment features with, for
235 instance, different source distributions. More intense local emissions (e.g., traffic and
236 cooking) occur in urban region rather than in rural area. To further understand influence
237 urban emissions on air quality, we compared the trends of air pollutants between urban and
238 rural. Overall, the reduction ratios of $PM_{2.5}$ observed at near rural areas are generally higher
239 than at urban areas for both periods (Fig. 1a). There is no statistically significant trend in the
240 ratio of $PM_{2.5}$ to CO (Fig. 1b) and NO_2 (Fig. 1d) for urban areas during the two periods.
241 However, significant trends of NO_2 calculated from rural sites are observed during the two
242 periods, the reduction ratios of which are higher than them for all sites. These results
243 confirm the strong influence of local combustion source emissions on the trend variation at
244 urban sites. Therefore, the less change in $PM_{2.5}$ in urban region could be linked to the more
245 important impact of local primary emissions (i.e., traffic source) at urban sites rather than in
246 the rural areas, which is actually comparable to limited change in $PM_{2.5}$ emitted from
247 transportation sector during recent years (Zheng et al., 2018). The ratio of $PM_{2.5}$ to CO has
248 significant decreasing trends for the both periods (Fig. 1b), which is consistent with the
249 trends of O_3 with a higher change ratio at rural sites than in urban areas during the period of
250 2014-2018. This reflects that the ambient $PM_{2.5}$ composition in rural areas in Kunshan could
251 be dominated by regional productions of secondary aerosols that are more sensitive to the
252 regional-scale emission reduction control. SO_2 also presents decreasing concentrations with
253 significant trend for both urban and rural areas, along with similar reduction ratios,
254 suggesting a regional pollution characterization of SO_2 in Kunshan but with the lack influence
255 of local sources emission.

256 Figure S2 illustrates comparison of diurnal cycles of air pollutants at different wind
257 speed conditions (i.e., high and low WS, respectively) during the periods representing the
258 beginning and end of the sampling years (i.e., 2012-2014 and 2016-2018, respectively). The
259 thresholds to classify the high and low WS conditions are the average values of wind speed
260 during nighttime in each season. The hourly data of air pollutants observed at all sampling
261 sites were applied in this analysis. The objective of such data analysis is to roughly explore
262 influence of regional- and local-dominated sources on air pollutants, which is similar as a
263 previous study (Chambers et al., 2019). Regional and local pollution sources may be generally

264 associated with the high and low WS conditions, respectively. As presented in Fig. 3, the
265 mass concentrations of air pollutants (including SO₂, NO₂ and PM_{2.5}) during 2012-2014 at
266 both high and low WS conditions are higher than those during 2016-2018. Annual mean
267 concentration of those pollutants at the two WS conditions have decreasing trends in each
268 season, as illustrated by the results of Figure S3. Those results suggest that reduction in
269 those pollutants in ambient air can be associated with both, local and regional emission
270 control measures (Zheng et al., 2018;Zhang et al., 2019a). The diurnal cycles of SO₂ is
271 characterized by a high peak in early morning in each season during 2012-2014 and 2016-
272 2018 (Fig. S2a), which could be partly explained by enhanced anthropogenic emissions. NO₂
273 exhibits typical diurnal variations with two peaks at rush hours in early morning and evening
274 (Fig. S2b) due to major influence of local traffic emissions. O₃ shows distinct diurnal cycles
275 with maximum loadings at around noon in each season (Fig. S2c), because of strong solar
276 radiation and significant photochemical production of O₃ during daytime.

277 As shown in Fig. S2d, PM_{2.5} presents more complex diurnal patterns under different
278 wind speed conditions in different seasons, since these variations are driven by very different
279 compositions, sources, and evolution processes of PM_{2.5} in different seasons, as well as
280 meteorological conditions (Sun et al., 2015;Zhang et al., 2015b;Cheng et al., 2019). The
281 concentration of PM_{2.5} at the low WS condition is higher than that at the high WS condition
282 (Figs. S2d and S3c), which could be explained by local primary emissions and enhanced
283 secondary aerosol productions, as well as less impact of atmospheric dilution at near-
284 stagnant meteorological conditions on loadings of atmospheric aerosols. The ratio of PM_{2.5} to
285 CO at the low WS condition is also higher than that at the high WS condition in different
286 periods and seasons (Fig. S3d), which may further support enhanced secondary fine aerosol
287 formation at the low WS conditions. This can be also supported by higher SO₂ and NO₂– gas-
288 phase precursors of secondary inorganic PM_{2.5} that accounts for a large fraction of PM_{2.5}
289 mass in the Yangtze River delta (Huang et al., 2012;Zhang et al., 2015c;Zhang et al.,
290 2015b;Zhang et al., 2017a) – at the low WS conditions (Fig. S3a and S3b). Those results are
291 also consistent with previous findings that formation of haze pollution events occurs more
292 frequently under stagnant meteorological conditions in the eastern China regions (Sun et al.,
293 2016a;Sun et al., 2014;Ding et al., 2016;Zhang et al., 2017a). As shown in Fig. S3, the mass
294 concentration of PM_{2.5} and the ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO display decreasing trends at both low and

295 high WS conditions in each season, suggesting positive influence of regional and local
296 pollution controls on reduction in ambient PM_{2.5} in the Kunshan region. The detailed reasons
297 leading to these variations can be further investigated with aerosol chemical speciation
298 measurements and source apportionment, which however were not achieved by the present
299 study.

300

301 **3.3 Relationship between PM_{2.5} and O₃ in summer**

302 The increasing trends of O₃ have been discussed in the section above. As shown in Fig.
303 1e, the significant enhancement of O₃ concentrations are observed during summertime in
304 each year, indicative of more health risk of O₃ occurring in summer in the recent years. We
305 therefore further investigated the possible reasons increasing O₃ in summer and whether
306 this increase is linked to the PM_{2.5} concentration variations and its precursors reductions
307 during the recent years.

308 Figure 3 shows the relation between O₃ and PM_{2.5} at different NO₂ concentrations
309 conditions at daytime in summer. It can be clearly seen that there is a positive relationship
310 between O₃ against PM_{2.5} at lower NO₂ levels (< around 20 – 30 µg m⁻³). This suggests that
311 the photochemical chemistry can account for increases in the summertime PM_{2.5} production
312 to a certain extent. However, O₃ presents very limited change in concentrations as increase
313 of PM_{2.5} at higher NO₂ levels (> around 30 µg m⁻³) (see Figs. 3 and S4). This describes a
314 phenomenon of limited formation of O₃ under higher NO₂ conditions, which might suggest
315 that reduction in NO_x concentrations could be one of the reasons leading to increase of O₃
316 production. In fact, several recent previous studies have also found such a possible reason
317 based on field measurements (Xu et al., 2019) and modeling simulations (Li et al., 2019).
318 Furthermore, Xu et al. (2019) suggested that O₃ production was in a VOC-limited regime in
319 the downtown and sub-urban areas in Shanghai –near our study area. Modeling results
320 achieved by a chemical transport model (GEOS-Chem) simulation also suggested that O₃
321 production in megacity cluster in the Yangtze River Delta was VOC-limited (Li et al., 2019).

322 The presence of aerosol particles can influence photochemical reactions in the
323 atmosphere (Li et al., 2019), since complex aerosol chemistry could act as a sink of

324 atmospheric oxidants, e.g., OH radical, hydrogen peroxide (H_2O_2), and O_3 (Fu et al., 2019). In
325 the atmosphere, these oxidants can react with aerosol precursors (e.g., SO_2 , NO_2 and VOCs)
326 to form secondary aerosol particles (Zhang et al., 2015a), and thus these oxidants are
327 depleted via such aerosol formation processes. As Fig. 3 shows, the higher ratio of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ to
328 CO – an indicator of secondary aerosol production – is observed corresponding to the high
329 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations for the scenario of the O_3 versus $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ under high NO_2 concentrations
330 levels. This result could theoretically suggests that changes in ambient concentrations of
331 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and its precursors have considerable influence on O_3 concentrations levels (Li et al.,
332 2019;Fu et al., 2019). As indicated by Li et al. (2019), rapid reduction in surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
333 concentrations could result in a slowing down sink of hydroperoxy (HO_2) radicals and thereby
334 increase in O_3 production. Hence, our observational results could be partly explained by such
335 a mechanism leading to the increasing trend of O_3 observed during the recent years (Li et al.,
336 2019).

337

338 **3.4 Geographic sources**

339 Figure 4 shows the seasonal characterization of the potential source areas for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$,
340 the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ to CO ratio, SO_2 and NO_2 . As shown in Fig. 4a, $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ shows a similar source region
341 characterized by a high PSCF band along Hengshui-Xuzhou-Hefei-Nanjing-Shanghai in all
342 seasons. These results are generally consistent with the high potential source areas of the
343 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ to CO ratio (Fig. 4b), suggesting that regional transport of secondary aerosol
344 productions from the northwest may play a dominant role in formation of severe winter haze
345 pollution in Kunshan. Besides of that, the contribution from local areas near Kunshan to the
346 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ pollution cannot be ignored in each season (Fig. 4a). Meanwhile, a similar potential
347 source area for SO_2 is also observed in winter, spring and fall, as indicated by Fig. 4c, which is
348 characterized by a broader band and even longer regional transport pathways up to Hebei
349 Province, one of the most polluted regions in China caused by intense emissions of coal
350 combustion (Wang et al., 2018;Koukouli et al., 2018;Tian et al., 2010). In summer, high PSCF
351 region of SO_2 is mainly dominated by local scale (Fig. 4c), which is similar as the PSCF
352 distributions for NO_2 (Fig. 4d), as well as the ratio of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ to CO with higher PSCF values over
353 the Yangtze River Delta region (Fig. 4a). These results indicate the importance of local

354 sources emissions for PM_{2.5} pollution in summer. Compared to SO₂ in other seasons (i.e.,
355 winter, spring, and fall), a relative narrow source area located at northwest and southwest
356 and is observed for NO₂ (Fig. 4d), which is indicative of a regional transport contribution to
357 NO₂ in addition to local emissions. Those results highlight again the importance of controlling
358 NO₂ and SO₂ emissions over a region scale in reduction of ambient PM_{2.5} burden. According
359 to Fig. S5, showing the year-round PSCF of PM_{2.5}, SO₂, and NO₂, as well as the ratio of PM_{2.5}
360 to CO, all air pollutants in each year show similar PSCF spatial distributions, suggesting a
361 common characteristic of the potential sources in winter every year. Thus, regional transport
362 from these areas (i.e., northwest) and emissions over local-scale regions play an important
363 role in the formation of haze pollution in the region near Shanghai during the whole
364 investigation period 2011 - 2018.

365 Figure 5 presents the spatial distributions of PSCF values for O₃ in all seasons, which
366 are overall characterized by high potential source region located in southwestern, southern,
367 and southeastern areas, e.g., Hangzhou-Shanghai. This suggests that air masses origins from
368 these regions could have potentially important impact on O₃ formation observed in the
369 Kunshan region. In the warm months, higher concentrations of O₃ are frequently observed in
370 each year (Fig. 1e). These distinct PSCF regions located in southeastern region could then
371 explain the possible source origins of O₃ episodes occurred in summer and spring. Moreover,
372 the PSCF characteristics of O₃ are comparable among each year, as indicated by the
373 summertime results of Fig. S6. Given that many cities are located in the high potential PSCF
374 of O₃, the transport of air masses from these areas would have a potentially high impact on
375 the formation of O₃ pollution episodes in the region near Shanghai in summer. Therefore, the
376 combination of emissions control of NO_x and VOCs in a regional scale, such as over megacity
377 cluster area, could help to improve the summertime air pollution caused by O₃.

378

379 **4. Conclusion**

380 We conducted a comprehensive analysis in long-term and multi-site dataset of air pollutants
381 (including PM_{2.5} and O₃) observed in Kunshan during the period of 2012-2018. The trends of
382 those air pollutants were calculated using Mann-Kendall statistical test. The monthly PM_{2.5}
383 averaged from all sites data presented statically significant reduction trend (-7.4% per year)

384 during 2012-2018. The ratio of PM_{2.5} to CO also had a significant reduction trend for the
385 averages of all sites, which is consistent with the PM_{2.5}, suggesting the possible reduction of
386 secondary aerosol production during the past several years. This possibility is supported by
387 the significant reduction trend of aerosol precursors, SO₂ (-10.3% per year) and NO₂ (-4.4%
388 per year). Such higher change ratio of SO₂ suggested a more effective emission control
389 strategy for atmospheric SO₂ burden than for NO₂. However, there was no significant trend
390 for NO₂ observed at urban sites, emphasizing the importance of local traffic emissions for the
391 temporal variations of NO₂. Interestingly, O₃ presented significant increase trend (+3.5% per
392 year) during the period of 2014-2018. Enhanced formation of O₃ was observed to be
393 associated with lower PM_{2.5} and NO₂ concentrations during daytime in summer, which
394 implies that the current emission control might provide favorable environment conditions
395 (e.g., low PM_{2.5} loadings) for O₃ formation. The geographic origins of air pollutants were
396 investigated using PSCF analysis, which presented different source regions between PM_{2.5}
397 and O₃ across different seasons. Higher potential source areas for PM_{2.5} were located to the
398 northwest of Kunshan in all seasons, while the south and southeast were the major
399 geographic origins of O₃ especially in spring and summer. Overall, these results demonstrated
400 that improvement of air quality was due to reduction in the concentration level of PM_{2.5},
401 along corresponding reduction in its precursors of SO₂ and NO₂ during the past years.
402 Effective and well balanced controls are needed to further reduce both, ambient PM_{2.5} and
403 O₃ pollution, especially over urban areas.

404

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408 observation data.

409

410 **Conflicts of Interest**

411 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

412

413 **Figure captions**

414

415 **Figure 1.** Monthly trends in (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) PM_{2.5}-to-CO ratio, (c) NO₂, (d) SO₂, and (e) O₃. Two
416 methods (see Tables S2-S4), including Mann-Kendall test and least-squares fitting, have been
417 applied for the time series statistical analysis aiming to quantify the trends over the two
418 periods, i.e., A (2012-2018) and B (2014-2018), respectively. Note that the trend was not
419 further quantified for the data without statistically significant trend according to the Mann-
420 Kendall test.

421

422 **Figure 2.** Daily ratio between NO₂ and SO₂ as a function of (a) the measuring dates and (b)
423 the PM_{2.5} to CO ratio, at urban and near rural sites, respectively.

424

425 **Figure 3.** Relationship between hourly O₃ and PM_{2.5} at different NO₂ concentrations
426 conditions at daytime (10:00 – 17:00) in summer (June-July-August) during 2012-2018. The
427 relationship between O₃ and PM_{2.5} are averaged (square-shaped points) based on the levels
428 of NO₂ concentrations, where error bars indicate standard deviations. Hourly average data
429 points (circle points) are color-scaled by date during the entire period, and size-scaled by the
430 PM_{2.5} to CO ratio.

431

432 **Figure 4.** Seasonal potential source regions of (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) the PM_{2.5} to CO ratio, (c) SO₂, and
433 (d) NO₂, which were achieved from PSCF analysis during wintertime. The cities marked in
434 each panel are Beijing (BJ), Shijiazhuang (SJZ), Weifang (WF), Jinan (JN), Hefei(HF),
435 Xuzhou(XZ), Nanjing(NJ), Shanghai(SH), Hangzhou(HZ), Nanchang(NC), and Wenzhou(WZ),
436 Fuzhou(FZ), Shijiazhuang (SJZ), and Hengshui (HS). The color scales refer to the PSCF values.
437 The point in red in each panel represents the location of this study.

438

439 **Figure 5.** Seasonal potential source regions of O₃: (a) winter; (b) spring; (c) summer; and (d)
440 fall. The cities marked in each panel are same as Figure 5. The color scales refer to the PSCF

441 values. The point in red in each panel represents the location of this study.

442

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Figure 1.

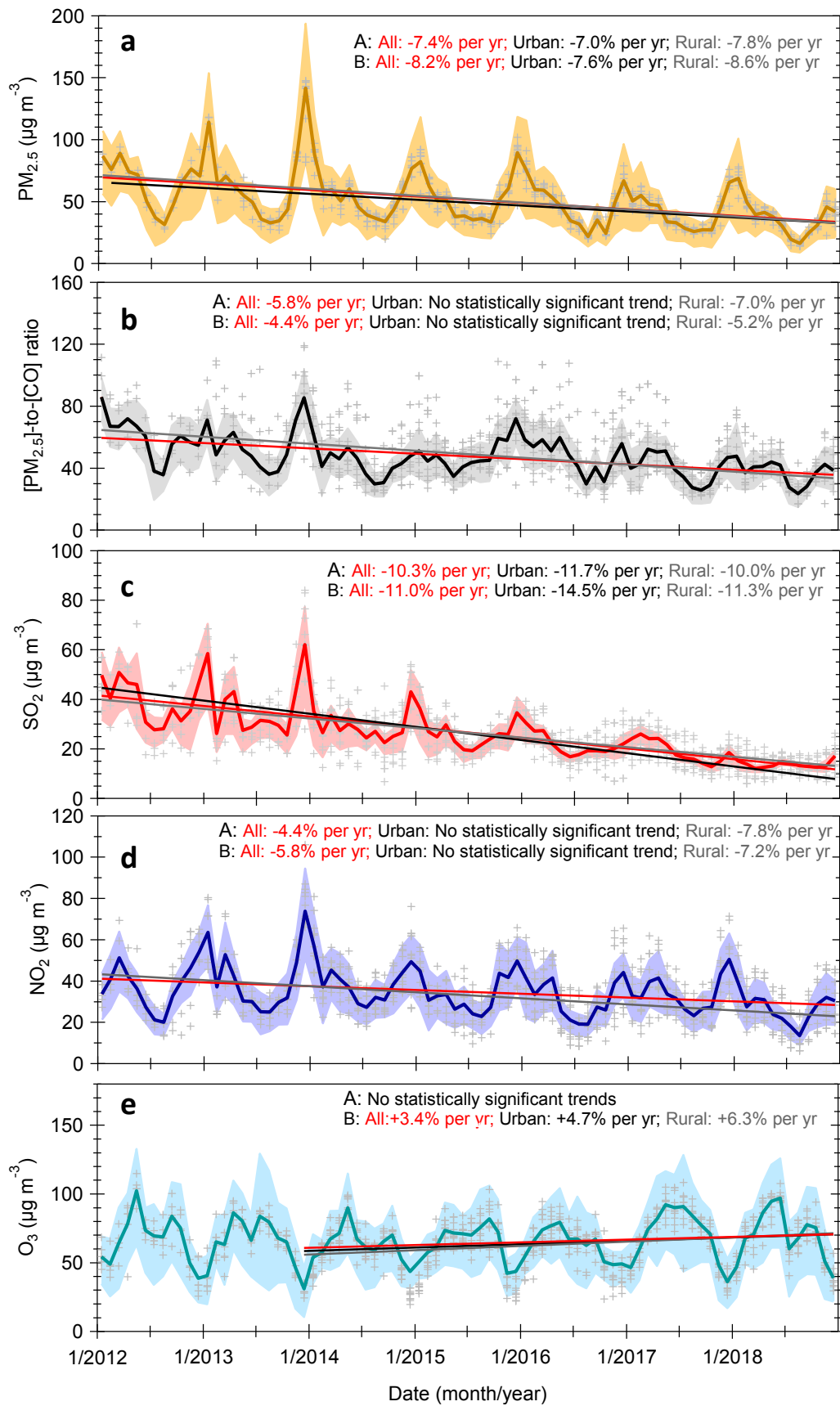


Figure 2.

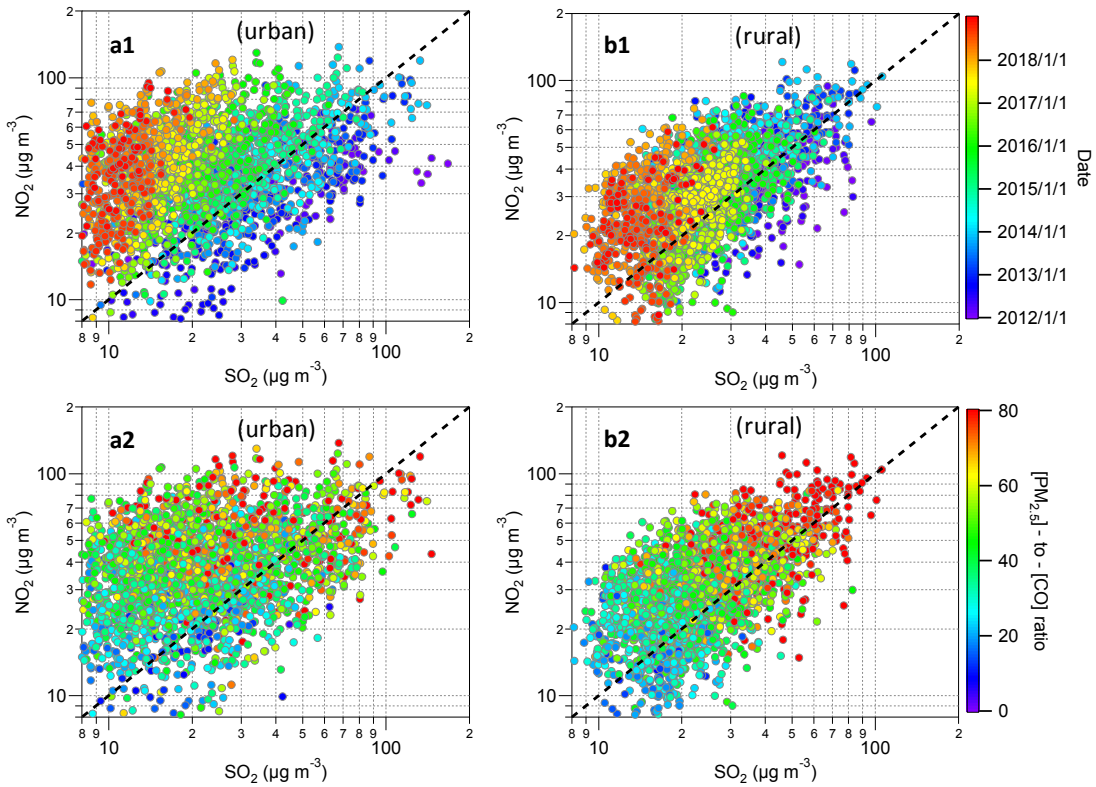


Figure 3.

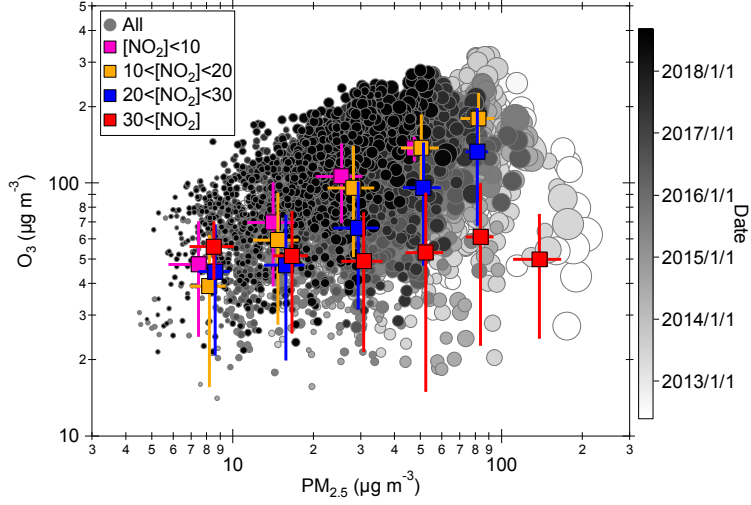


Figure 4.

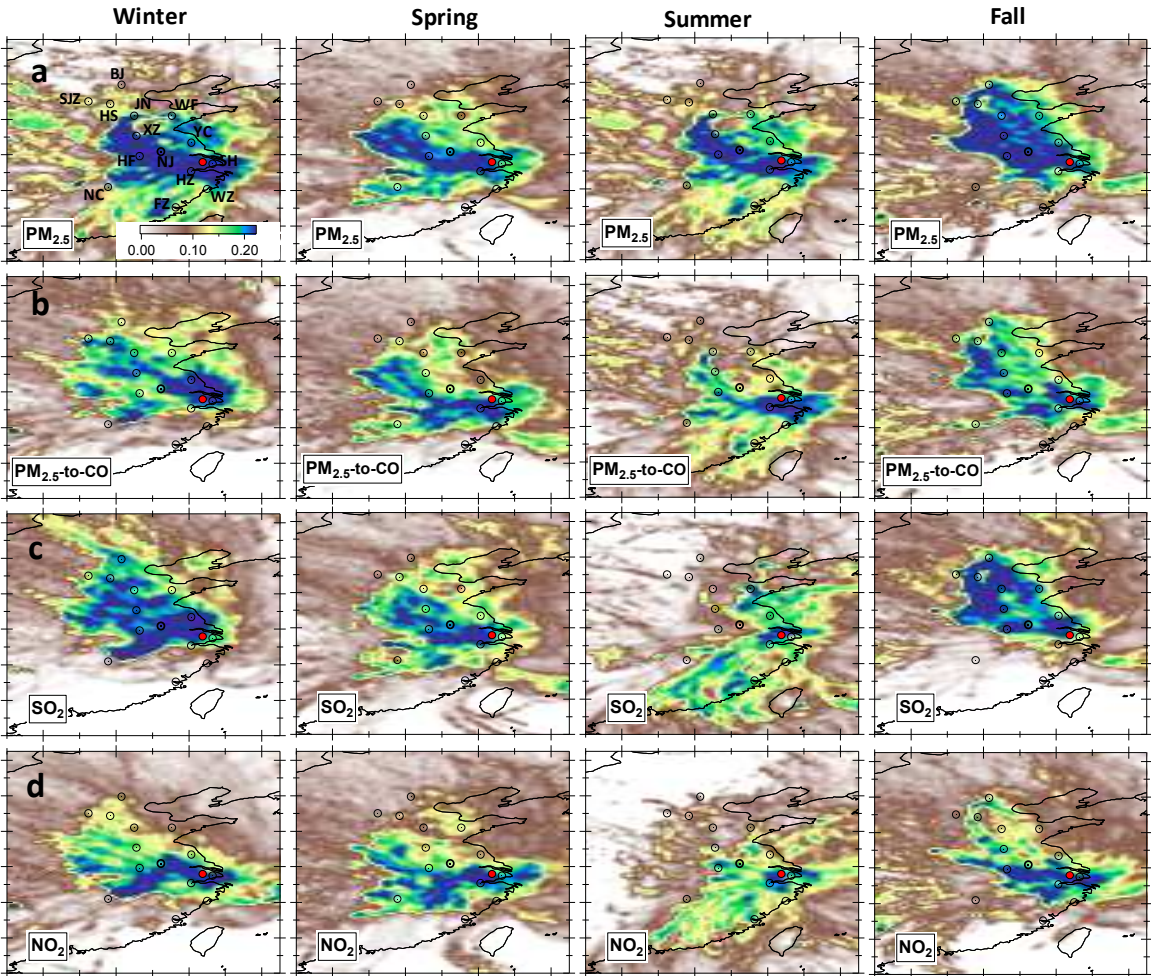


Figure 5.

