
Continuous ground-based aerosol Lidar observation during seasonal pollution events at Wuxi, China

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13 **Abstract:**

14 Haze pollution has long been a significant research topic and challenge in China,
15 with adverse effects on air quality, agricultural production, as well as human health. In
16 coupling with ground-based Lidar measurements, air quality observation,
17 meteorological data, and backward trajectories model, two typical haze events at
18 Wuxi, China are analyzed respectively, depicting summer and winter scenarios.
19 Results indicate that the winter haze pollution is a compound pollution process mainly
20 affected by calm winds that induce pollution accumulation near the surface. In the
21 summer case, with the exception of influence from PM_{2.5} concentrations, ozone is the
22 main pollutant and regional transport is also a significant influencing factor. Both
23 events are marked by enhanced PM_{2.5} concentrations, driven by anthropogenic
24 emissions of pollutants such as vehicle exhaust and factory fumes. Meteorological
25 factors such as wind speed/direction and relative humidity are also contributed. These
26 results indicate how the vertical profile offered by routine regional Lidar monitoring
27 helps aid in understanding local variability and trends, which may be adapted for
28 developing abatement strategies that improve air quality.

29

30 **Key words:** Aerosol; Backward trajectory; Ground-based Lidar; Haze.

31

32 **1. Introduction**

33 Atmospheric aerosols are an important part of the earth-atmosphere-maritime
34 system. They affect the climate through three primary components: (i) direct
35 scattering or absorption on short-wave and long-wave radiation, namely direct
36 radiative forcing; (ii) varying aerosol concentrations change the characteristics of
37 clouds: perturbed numbers of aerosol particles acting as cloud condensation nuclei
38 influence the number of the cloud particles per unit volume, which can also impact
39 effective cloud droplet radii, cloud shortwave reflectance, and cloud lifetime, known
40 as indirect radiative forcing; (iii) aerosols can also change various atmospheric
41 chemical processes, affect the concentration and distribution of greenhouse gases, and
42 thus impact climate (Kaufman et al., 1997). Aerosol radiation forcing remains a key
43 factor driving current uncertainties relating to manifestations of climate change (IPCC,
44 2013).

45 With the recent acceleration of industrialization and urbanization processes in
46 China, rapid economic development and expansion has caused environmental
47 problems to become more apparent. Continuous emissions of greenhouse gases
48 enhance global warming through positive feedback, inducing long-term changes in
49 each part of the climate system that will increase the possibility of serious, widespread
50 and irreversible impact on human and ecological system (IPCC, 2014). The growth
51 and relevance of satellite and ground-based remote sensing observations of regional
52 and urban aerosols in the most susceptible regions of China has led to a rapid
53 characterization of chemical and physical aerosol properties there (e.g., Zhang et al.,

54 2015; Qin et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2016), allowing for the research community to
55 quickly devise strategies that help urban officials design strategies that mitigate
56 hazardous conditions (Wong et al., 2015; Xiao et al., 2015).

57 Light Detection and Ranging (Lidar) is an effective and reliable method to
58 monitor and profile geometric and optical properties of aerosols and clouds. Lidar
59 instruments are predominantly used for profiling the structure of aerosol particles
60 throughout the troposphere, either from ground (e.g., Livingston et al., 1999;
61 Campbell et al., 2001) or satellite (Spinhirne et al., 2005; Winker et al., 2010).
62 Commercial and prototype Lidars are currently deployed in global federated network
63 for aerosol and cloud measurement activities such as the Micro Pulse Lidar Network
64 (MPLNET) (Welton et al., 2001), the European Aerosol Research Lidar Network
65 (EARLINET, Matthias et al., 2004; Pappalardo et al., 2014), and the Asian Dust
66 Network (ADNET, Murayama et al., 2001). Coupled with the sun photometers
67 operated by the AErosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET), synergistic observations
68 based on ground-based profiling and column-integrated optical property
69 measurements have provided the community with an example paradigm for how
70 routine monitoring and long-term climatological evaluation of aerosol properties is
71 possible. Further, these observations provide critical ground verification for aerosol
72 satellite-observing missions (e.g., Fromm et al., 2015).

73 Significant progress in the theory and application of Lidar aerosol detection has
74 occurred in China. The Institute of Atmospheric Physics of Chinese Academy of
75 Sciences developed the first atmospheric aerosol detection Lidar system in the

76 mid-1960s. The Institute further developed a Mie-scattering backscatter instrument
77 and large multi-wavelength Lidar for measuring aerosol extinction and atmospheric
78 slant visibility (Zhang, 2007). In 1995, Anhui Institute of Optics and Fine Mechanics
79 (AIOFM) developed a portable dual-wavelength (532 nm and 1064 nm)
80 Mie-scattering Lidar, L300, which was used in the observation with aerosol extinction
81 coefficient, depolarization ratio of dust and clouds, and horizontal visibility (Zhou et
82 al., 1998). The Ocean University of China completed the first non-coherent Doppler
83 wind Lidar system in China, featuring the high spectral resolution Lidar technique
84 (HRSL) (Liu et al., 1996, 1997, 1999; Zhang, 2007).

85 In addition, the China Meteorological Administration began building the Chinese
86 Aerosol Observation Network (CAeroNet) in 2002, establishing twenty observing
87 stations mainly in the dust source regions to the north and west near the primary
88 deserts. Chemical and particle aerosol air monitoring data, including SO₂, NO_x, CO,
89 PM₁₀ concentrations, have been collected in China since 2000. Other air quality
90 parameters, such as PM_{2.5}, have been monitored in China since approximately 2012.
91 The Chinese government released data from 367 stations in 2015. CAeroNet also uses
92 CIMEL sun photometers (Model CE318 - II) for atmospheric aerosol
93 column-integrated monitoring (Yan et al., 2006). The Institute of Atmospheric Physics
94 (IAP) at the Chinese Academy of Sciences (CAS) established the Chinese Sun
95 Hazemeter Network (CSHNET) in August 2004 (Xin et al., 2007), based on the
96 measurements of column-integrated aerosol optical thickness. These observations
97 better describe the temporal and spatial distribution of atmospheric aerosol optical

98 properties in China (Wang et al., 2007). However, due to the sparse geographical
99 locations of these stations, as well as their ground-based observations, the vertical
100 distribution, formation, sources and trends of aerosols are difficult to analyze.

101 This paper introduces continuous aerosol monitoring observations from Lidar at
102 Wuxi, China (30°30'N, 120°21'E). Observations similar to that collected by
103 MPLNET are made there with an autonomous Lidar-D-2000, developed by Wuxi
104 CAS Photonics Co., Ltd. Observations began in 2012 and are collected in a relatively
105 continuous manner. Here, we describe two case studies investigated using these data,
106 combining measurement profiles of aerosol extinction estimated from the Lidar with
107 backscatter depolarization measurements that help estimate those aerosol types
108 present. These data are paired with a series of chemical and particle sampling
109 measurements of surface-based aerosols as well as surface meteorology. We further
110 analyze air mass backward trajectories so as to analyze the pollution trajectories and
111 likely sources. Our goal is to conceptualize how Lidar measurements, and in
112 particular continuous network-based Lidar profiling, can be adapted to in order to
113 help better understand aerosol formation and transport mechanisms, as well as the
114 physical and optical characteristics of regional aerosols, in China.

115

116 **2. Data and Methods**

117 **2.1 Ground-based Lidar**

118 The Lidar-D-2000 is a dual-wavelength three-channel Mie scattering Lidar. The
119 Lidar operates at two wavelengths (355 nm and 532 nm), with backscatter measured

120 in three channels: 355 nm total, 532 nm parallel-polarized and 532 nm orthogonal.
121 Thus, the 532 nm channels are polarized so as to detect and profile the morphological
122 characteristics of particulate matter (e.g., Sassen 1991; Song et al., 2012). The 355 nm
123 channel, in contrast, is used for analysis of fine particulate matter and ratio
124 measurements relative to the 532 nm channel that help resolve size characteristics.
125 The detection range of Lidar-D-2000 can reach to 30 km, with a standard temporal
126 resolution of one minute, and standard range resolution of 7.5 m.

127 The Lidar backscatter equation is written as

$$129 \quad P_r(r) = P_0 k r^{-2} \beta_T(r) \exp \left\{ -2 \int_0^r \alpha_T(r') dr' \right\} \quad (1)$$

130
131 Here, $P_r(r)$ is the atmospheric backscatter signal at height r , P_0 is the emitted
132 Lidar energy, k is Lidar system constant, $\beta_T(r)$ is total atmospheric backscatter
133 coefficient at 532 nm from both polarized channels, and $\alpha_T(r)$ is the
134 range-integrated atmospheric extinction term. The ratio of $\alpha(r)$ and $\beta_T(r)$ is the
135 so-called ‘*Lidar ratio*’, or extinction-to-backscatter ratio, which represents a practical
136 mean for converting measured backscatter to extinction, since the two unknown terms
137 in (1) cannot be solved directly. The extinction coefficient is estimated using the 532
138 nm parallel channel (Dong et al., 2015). As Lidar-D-2000 is a Mie-backscatter Lidar,
139 outputs for aerosol extinction here are unconstrained and thus estimates, meaning that
140 we apply a static value of the extinction-to-backscatter ratio of 50 sr (assuming urban
141 and mineral mixtures at 532 nm; e.g., Ackerman, 1998) to initiate the retrievals (e.g.,

142 Fernald, 1984). The data have not been cloud-cleared, with such elements referred to
143 in the text to avoid confusion.

144 As a polarization Lidar, the Lidar-D-2000 receives two separate channels: the
145 parallel (with respect to the emitted light) and the perpendicular light. The volume
146 depolarization ratio is defined as the ratio of the total perpendicular to the total
147 parallel-polarized backscatter coefficient at 532 nm channel. It should be noted that
148 the calculations of depolarization ratio were based on relative measurements with
149 assumption of single scattering condition, and no multiple scattering corrections have
150 been applied to the data analyzed here.

151 In December 2013, Yun et al. (2015) used Lidar-D-2000 and an Air Quality
152 Index (AQI) parameter to analyze the formation and characteristics of atmospheric
153 pollutants at Wuxi, China. Wu et al. (2015) combined Lidar-D-2000 and
154 meteorological data to analyze a dust transport event at Wuxi during 9-10 April 2014.
155 Dong et al. (2015) used Lidar-D-2000 to analyze the vertical distribution of
156 atmospheric particulate matter, correlating horizontal and vertical displacement in
157 local winds with pollutant dispersion (Dong et al., 2015). Song et al. (2016)
158 incorporated local convection, humidity and wind speed corrections on the MODerate
159 resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) aerosol optical thickness (AOT)
160 products, finding that there is good correlation between revised MODIS AOT data
161 and Lidar-D-2000-based estimates.

162 **2.2 Location and Observation Period**

163 Lidar-D-2000 is deployed on the roof of the 11th floor, Block C, 200 Linghu

164 Road, Wuxi City, Jiangsu Province (31.5° N, 120.37° E), about 20 m above the
165 ground with no surrounding residential and/or industrial impediments. Observation
166 periods for the two pollution episodes described here are 3-6 December 2013 and
167 11-16 June 2014, respectively. The first event corresponded with a large
168 anthropogenic pollution event that advected the East China region, including Wuxi.
169 Air quality was severely degraded and polluted (Huang et al., 2016). The second
170 event varied in terms of amount of processed pollution, ranging from good air quality
171 to lightly- and then moderately-polluted.

172 Aerosol conditions during the December event were influenced by anthropogenic
173 pollution, like vehicle emissions and industrial exhaust, with the primary contribution
174 being observed at the surface as $PM_{2.5}$. Unlike winter, local air pollution during
175 summer is mainly comprised of high O_3 concentrations from photochemical
176 processing, that converting NO_x and VOCs from vehicle emissions and industrial
177 exhaust into O_3 . (Geng et al., 2008; Geng et al., 2009). Accordingly, and after
178 factoring in local synoptic meteorological conditions during each period, the summer
179 event was a significant and prolonged pollution episode, compared with a relatively
180 short period during winter corresponding with broad-scale subsidence between
181 continental frontal boundaries. These two events are highly representative, however,
182 providing a comprehensive overview of air pollution events at Wuxi and the value
183 added to post-event studies by Lidar profiling.

184

185 **2.3 HYSPLIT Trajectory Model**

186 The U.S. National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) HYSPLIT
187 air mass trajectory model makes use of the four-dimensional data in meteorological
188 fields to simulate the transport, diffusion, and deposition processes (Draxler & Rolph,
189 2003). HYSPLIT can be applied to simulate transmission paths of pollutants, and has
190 been widely used in the research of atmospheric pollutant transport (e.g., Brankov et
191 al., 1998; Klemm et al., 1998; Campbell et al., 2003; Kato et al., 2004; Kindap et al.,
192 2006; Wong et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016). The model is applied similarly here,
193 serving as context for understanding regional and potentially long-scale transport of
194 aerosols to Wuxi from which to interpret surface and Lidar profile aerosol
195 observations.

196

197 **2.4 Air Quality Data and Meteorological Data in China**

198 AQI as well as PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀, from December 2013 to December 2014,
199 provided by the China's Air Quality Online Monitoring Analysis Platform
200 (<http://www.aqistudy.cn/historydata/>) were analyzed. AQI is a non-dimensional index
201 to quantitatively describe the air quality status. The major pollutants in regional air
202 quality assessment are fine particulate matter, respirable particulate matter (PM with
203 particle sizes less than or equal to 10 microns diameter), sulfur dioxide, nitrogen
204 dioxide, ozone and carbon monoxide. When AQI is 0-50, the air quality is considered
205 excellent; AQI is 51-100, the air quality is considered good; AQI is 101-150, the air
206 quality is considered lightly polluted; AQI is 151-200, the air quality is considered

207 moderately polluted; AQI is 201-300, the air quality is considered heavily polluted;
208 AQI is larger than 300, the air quality is severely polluted (Ministry of environmental
209 protection of the people's Republic of China, 2012).

210 Corresponding meteorological data, including daily relative humidity and wind
211 speed in hourly increments for December 2013 to December 2014, were measured
212 and collected by the Wuxi Environmental Protection Station.

213

214 **3. Case Studies**

215 Figure 2 shows the temporal distribution of different air quality conditions in
216 Wuxi city for December 2013 to December 2014. The average AQI during this period
217 is 108, generally defined as lightly-polluted air quality. During 2014, there were 217
218 days with good and excellent air quality, or around 60 percent of the year. Polluted
219 days mainly occurred during winter and early summer. Pollution was most serious
220 from 16 to 20 January 2014, with an average AQI near 138. There were six months
221 (January, May, June, July, November and December) in 2014 that were defined as
222 lightly polluted, with other months generally defined as good. The winter of
223 2013-2014 experienced the most serious air pollution conditions compared with other
224 seasons in 2014. The two cases studies below represent, as defined above, typical
225 heavily-polluted events with extreme AQI.

226 Figure 3 shows the annual, June and December monthly-averaged climatological
227 profile values for 532 nm aerosol extinction coefficient (km^{-1}) and volume
228 depolarization ratio derived at $5^\circ \times 5^\circ$ resolution centered at 22.5°N and 122.5°E

229 from 2006 to 2015 Cloud-Aerosol Lidar with Orthogonal Polarization (CALIOP)
230 satellite based observations. The methods used to solve these profiles from available
231 Level 2 Aerosol Profile products are described in Campbell et al. (2012). These
232 profiles are shown as context for the events derived from Lidar-D-2000 measurements
233 shown in each of the case studies below.

234

235 **3.1 3rd – 6th December 2013**

236 The first case study occurred during winter, featuring the high daily air quality
237 indices. No rainfall occurred during the episode, meaning little in the way of
238 synoptic/mesoscale mixing and/or particle fallout driven through precipitation and
239 washout. Figure 4(a) shows the temporal variation of ground-based AQI during the
240 event. Air quality was heavily or severely-polluted through the entire period. Shown
241 in Figure 5 are Lidar-D-2000 profiles of 532 nm aerosol extinction coefficient
242 estimates and volume depolarization ratio. Much of the aerosol structure is confined
243 near the surface, suggesting little in the way of external pollutant transport during the
244 episode. Therefore, we characterize this event as representing local pollution.

245 On 3rd December, near-surface extinction was approaching climatology while
246 depolarization was relatively high, indicating the likely dominance of relative
247 non-spherical particles. Wind speeds were low, resulting in a likely low dispersion
248 rate. Relative humidity was general relatively low through the period, excepting for an
249 obvious increase in the morning of 5th of December. The densest pollution occurred
250 on both the 4th and 5th/6th, with extinction values near the surface approaching 1.0

251 km^{-1} , which was well above the CALIOP climatological values. From Figure 3,
252 increases and/or decreases of NO_2 exhibit a similar pattern as $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} ,
253 indicating contaminating gases likely undergoing conversion to pollutant particles.

254 Throughout the episode, NO_2 , $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} exceeded urban air quality
255 standards of China Technical Regulation on Ambient AQI. $\text{PM}_{2.5}/\text{PM}_{10}$ was about 0.8
256 during this period. $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, PM_{10} , and NO_2 began increasing in correlation with aerosol
257 extinction late on 4th December. Relative humidity (Figure 4 (d)) increased overnight
258 with radiational cooling, while $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, PM_{10} , and NO_2 all decreased but still remained
259 at high concentrations (Figure 4 (b) and (c)). In the morning of 5th December, the
260 extinction coefficient maintains certainly high, though $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and PM_{10} decreased
261 lightly. This portion of the period corresponded with higher relative humidity, greater
262 than 80%. It is known that both high aerosols and relative humidity can increase
263 extinction coefficient. Zhang et al. (2015) found that the visibility was exponentially
264 decreased with the increase of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations when RH was less than 80%.
265 However, when RH was higher than 80%, the relationship was no longer following
266 the exponentially decreasing trend, and the visibility maintained in very low values,
267 even with low $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations. Hence, hygroscopic growth was expected to
268 increase extinction coefficient. On the other hand, with low and moderate wind speeds,
269 the air mass was relatively stagnant with little means for dispersion. By the time of the
270 second pulse occurring on 5th and 6th December, depolarization dropped significantly,
271 indicating a shift to mostly spherical particles, in spite of relatively stable $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, PM_{10}
272 and chemical concentrations. The Lidar depicts the clear shift in the aerosol physics

273 near the surface that the samplers could not.

274 The depolarization ratio was high (0.3) near 2.0 km altitude as 6th December
275 began, with corresponding extinction depicting a sustained layer there on both 5th and
276 6th December. Using HYSPLIT, we calculated a 72-hr back trajectory ending near the
277 site at 1.0, 1.5 and 2.0 km, with the results shown in Figure 6. The trajectories show
278 that the air mass origins were mostly similar among all levels, with the air advecting
279 from northwest to southeast.

280

281 **3.2 11th – 16th June 2014**

282 A second event occurred in summer, between 11th and 16th June 2014. Conditions
283 were generally stable over the six days, though rain fell around midnight on the 16th
284 and then again later during the day. Figure 7 (a) displays AQI for the period, which
285 indicates that relatively high pollution loading was observed occurred from the 12th
286 through 15th. Good-to-heavy pollution was characterized between the 13th and 15th in
287 surface measurements. Yet, PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ concentrations (Figure 7 (c)) were lower
288 than the previous event.

289 Figure 7 (b) shows the hourly variation of NO₂ and O₃, showing an
290 anti-correlation: as NO₂ decreased, O₃ increased, and these variations mainly occurred
291 around afternoon and evening with increased photochemical production of O₃ from
292 NO₂. NO₂ is mainly produced by automobile exhaust on sunny summer afternoons
293 and early evenings through photochemical reaction, which can further be converted
294 into O₃ (Schauer et al., 1996; Saito, Nagao, & Tanaka, 2002).

295 Wind speeds in the morning and night were low during the event (Figure 7 (d)),
296 but relatively high during midday before the 15th. On the 11th and 12th, average wind
297 speeds were relatively high (>2 m/s), which is favorable for the horizontal diffusion
298 of pollutants. On the morning of 14th June, wind speeds were less than 1.5 m/s,
299 presumably enhancing the accumulation of PM_{2.5} and PM₁₀ that increased to about
300 150 µg/m³ and 250 µg/m³. This easily exceeded the respective national air quality
301 standards of 75 µg/m³ and 150 µg/m³ (Ministry of Environmental Protection of the
302 People's Republic of China, 2012). Meanwhile, the depolarization ratio increased
303 (nearly 0.3) on 14th June, indicating near-surface dust driving local pollution. Relative
304 humidity was relatively low on 14th June, especially near noon (40%). Rain occurring
305 on 16th June would wash the scene out.

306 The 532 nm extinction began increasing from the beginning of the event (Figure
307 8), with values well over background climatology near 0.5 km⁻¹ in two distinct peaks
308 approaching the surface on the 12th and 13th, subsiding thereafter as rainfall
309 commenced on 16th June. This variability was consistent with ozone tendencies,
310 which were consistent, though in a broader sense considering the noise, with AQI.
311 Corresponding 532 nm extinction generally followed the same trend. Depolarization
312 near the surface throughout the event was relatively low, near and slightly below
313 background climatological values, again consistent with relatively small particles and
314 low complexity. Some elevated structure in aerosol transport is evident in Figure 8,
315 particularly on the 11th and 12th, which corresponded with the lesser AQI values
316 observed during the event. The concentration of O₃ exceeded the standard during this

317 period of time ($200 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ per hour), likely due to photochemical reactions that
318 contributed main component of the pollution.

319 Air mass back trajectories (Figure 9) indicate northerly transport, including
320 transects over East China Sea. Its plausible that the air mass was maritime in nature,
321 given the relatively low depolarization values, though the primary transport routes
322 include the major urban anthropogenic sources along the eastern China coastline.
323 Here again, the Lidar data provide unique context relative to the surface observations
324 in distinguishing the potential mixture of pollutant aerosols regionally. The depth of
325 the haze, approaching 2.0 km and the top of the planetary boundary layer on the 13th
326 June, enhances what were potentially hazardous conditions to aviation interests, in
327 addition to surface exposure.

328

329 **4. Discussion**

330 Wuxi is located in the Yangtze River Delta region in the eastern China, which is
331 deemed as one of the seriously polluted regions in China. Different from dust
332 outbreaks that are more frequent in northern China, pollution in this region is
333 primarily caused by anthropogenic emissions associated with the dense cities. Urban
334 industrial emissions and automobile exhaust are primary contributors, while the dense
335 urban agglomeration ensures that the pollution cannot easily be diffused.

336 The two cases in this paper exhibit obvious seasonal characteristics. In winter,
337 depolarization ratio is high from the near-surface to near 1.5 km, which indicates a
338 higher proportion of non-spherical particles that are primarily dust particles.

339 Meanwhile, wind speeds are low in winter, making it difficult to diffuse local
340 pollutants and recycle the air mass. This results in accumulation and the outbreak of
341 severe pollution events. The prevalence of northwest winds in winter advect dust,
342 which aggravates the pollution. Thus, pollution observed at Wuxi during this season
343 with a combination of local pollution and external dust input, and the Lidar profile
344 aids significantly in providing such thorough characterization.

345 The extinction coefficient estimated during the summer case was high from near
346 the surface through and elevated altitude (2 km), with corresponding low
347 depolarization. Summer pollution is mainly the result of by photochemical reactions,
348 primarily that converting NO_2 into O_3 that is driven by vehicle exhaust. Increasing
349 surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and depolarization ratio in 14th June indicated the introduction of dust
350 into the event, again highlighting the role of the Lidar in depicting the elevated nature
351 of the complicating agent. The complex mixture inherent during this event
352 necessitates a broad observing structure be in place to help with characterization, and
353 eventually with urban planning and hazard mitigating strategies.

354

355 **5. Conclusions**

356 Using 532 nm extinction coefficient and depolarization ratio measurements from
357 a continuously-running ground-based commercial Lidar, integrated with ground-based
358 air quality monitoring and surface meteorological data, two typical pollution events
359 are characterized at Wuxi, China from 2013 and 2014. Climatological context from
360 the CALIOP satellite-based Lidar instrument are shown from which to consider the

361 evolving Lidar measurement profiles over each event: one during winter, and another
362 during summer. The causes of these episodes are seasonally-based, wherein the winter
363 haze event conceptualizes typical compound pollution events driven by broad-scale
364 subsidence and relative stability that enhances pollutant accumulation and chemical
365 processing near the surface. During summer, pollutant contributors to a regional haze
366 are PM_{2.5} and ozone. Air mass backward trajectories help in this analysis, depicting
367 favorable transport routes corresponding with each event. The result is an abstract
368 depiction of the value of continuous Lidar monitoring in reconciling the unique
369 surface and shallow-layer aerosol conditions endemic to East Asia and the China
370 coastlines.

371 The observation capabilities and relevance of atmospheric Lidar monitoring, are
372 optimized with synergistic surface air quality and meteorological data. Together, they
373 help analyze the entire pollution process systematically and comprehensively. In
374 unique regions like East Asia, it is necessary to consider many potential mechanisms
375 for urban pollution, combining the potential transport of myriad regional sources with
376 enhanced photolytic chemistry near large anthropogenic centers. Combining these
377 data leads to a more thorough monitoring capability for air quality, which can find a
378 role in preventing air pollutants or at least better advisories for public hazard. Unlike
379 dust transport in the northern China, pollution in the south and east is mainly
380 contaminated by anthropogenic photochemical enhancement. Whereas the region and
381 its scientists have a valuable history in the development of practical Lidar monitoring,
382 there exists little infrastructure or commitment to continuous long-term observation

383 and data dissemination on a scale consistent with projects like the NASA Micro-Pulse
384 Lidar Network.

385 Aerosol extinction coefficient and depolarization ratio can determine the severity
386 of contamination, the evolution of the profile structure through the free troposphere,
387 and whether or not the particles are non-spherical or spherical. Combined with $PM_{2.5}$
388 and PM_{10} concentrations, the composition of pollution particulate matter can be
389 further analyzed. Further application of NO_2 , SO_2 , O_3 and other polluting gases data,
390 and their role in secondary particle formation and haze activation, can help accurately
391 determine the sources and causes of pollution. With the grown ease and practicality in
392 Lidar development and deployment for long-term air quality management, the gains
393 in hazard monitoring for urban planning and mitigation can be significant. In regions
394 with persistent air quality degradation, Lidars can provide a highly synergistic
395 measurement that compliments such strategies.

396

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409

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