# <sup>1</sup> Wintertime trends of fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) in South Korea,

2 2012-2022: response of nitrate and organic components to decreasing

## **3** NO<sub>x</sub> emissions

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Abstract. We analyze 2011-2022 trends in wintertime fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and its 23 composition in South Korea.  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations decreased nationwide by 1.2 µg m<sup>-3</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> after 24 correcting for meteorology. However, Seoul PM<sub>2.5</sub> only declines after 2019 and has shifted toward 25 particulate nitrate  $(pNO_3)$  and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) which have been resistant to decrease. 26 27 Surface nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) trends including weekday versus weekend suggest nighttime formation of the nitrate radical (NO<sub>3</sub>) from the NO<sub>2</sub> + O<sub>3</sub> reaction is a key driver of  $pNO_3^-$  and 28 OA formation. Increasing  $O_3$  as nitrogen oxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions decline has increased NO<sub>3</sub> production 29 promoting  $pNO_3^-$  and SOA formation. As  $NO_x$  emissions in South Korea decrease, we see a crossover 30 from NO<sub>x</sub>-saturated to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited conditions for both NO<sub>3</sub> formation and  $pNO_3$  gas-particle 31 partitioning, explaining the pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> decrease after 2019. Further NO<sub>x</sub> and volatile organic compound 32 (VOC) emissions decreases should reduce  $pNO_3^-$  and SOA. 33

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- Plain language summary. Fine particulate matter  $(PM_{2.5})$  is a severe air pollution problem in South Korea and is worst in winter. Strong local emissions controls and emissions reductions upwind have led
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winter PM<sub>2.5</sub> to decline throughout South Korea. However, PM<sub>2.5</sub> around Seoul (where half the 37 population lives) has been resistant to decrease and only declined after 2019. With an ensemble of 38 surface observations augmented by machine learning, we find that PM<sub>2.5</sub> composition in Seoul has 39 shifted toward two kinds of secondary PM<sub>2.5</sub>, meaning that they are formed in the atmosphere through 40 chemical reactions rather than emitted directly, and that these species are both resistant to decrease. 41 Both species, particulate nitrate  $(pNO_3)$  and secondary organic aerosol (SOA), can be formed by 42 nighttime chemistry. We find that as nitrogen oxide  $(NO_x)$  pollution (largely from combustion) has 43 declined due to emissions controls, this nighttime chemistry accelerates and increases the formation of 44 45  $pNO_3^-$  and SOA. However,  $pNO_3^-$  appears to have begun responding to  $NO_x$  controls after 2019 and we propose a physical driver of this decrease. We argue that further decreases in NO<sub>x</sub> combined with 46 reductions in emissions of volatile organic compounds should drive faster pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> reductions and also 47 48 SOA reductions because the nighttime chemistry may decelerate.

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## 50 Key points.

- Fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) has declined throughout South Korea due to emissions controls 52 but only decreases in Seoul after 2019
- Nighttime nitrate radical chemistry in Seoul accelerated with nitrogen oxide emissions controls,
   increasing nitrate and organic PM<sub>2.5</sub>
- Nitrate radical and nitrate PM<sub>2.5</sub> chemistry are increasingly sensitive to nitrogen oxide emissions
   and its decrease should improve PM<sub>2.5</sub>

## 57 1 Introduction

Fine particulate matter less than 2.5  $\mu$ m in diameter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) is a leading cause of mortality, responsible 58 59 in South Korea for 34,000 annual deaths (Y.-H. Lim et al., 2020; N. R. Kim & Lee, 2024; Oh et al., 2024). PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in South Korea have decreased over the past decade (Pendergrass et al., 60 2022, 2025), driven by domestic pollution controls (Joo, 2018; Ministry of the Environment, 2019) and 61 by reduced transport from China where pollution controls have driven PM<sub>2.5</sub> declines as well (Zhai et 62 al., 2019). However, wintertime PM<sub>2.5</sub> in South Korea remains high and particularly in the Seoul 63 Metropolitan Area (SMA), where over half of the population lives. PM<sub>2.5</sub> is highest in winter and early 64 65 spring because of suppressed vertical mixing, long-range transport, and local emissions (H. Kim et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2024; E. Kim et al., 2025; Kwon et al., 2025). 66

PM<sub>2.5</sub> can be emitted directly (primary) or can be formed in the atmosphere following oxidation 67 of precursor gases (secondary). PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentrations have been monitored hourly by the AirKorea 68 surface network beginning in 2015, while oxidants including nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) and ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) 69 have been monitored since 2001.  $PM_{25}$  speciation has also been measured at six supersites since 2015 70 (Kumar et al., 2021; NIER, 2022). The data show rapid decrease of black carbon (BC) and sulfate 71  $(SO_4^{2-})$  PM<sub>2.5</sub> components, while particulate nitrate (pNO<sub>3</sub>) and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) 72 contribute an increasing fraction of PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass (Y. Kim et al., 2020; Lee et al., 2024). The decreases of 73 BC and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> are consistent with decreasing primary emission from fuel combustion and decreasing 74 emission of sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) (E. Kim et al., 2025). pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and SOA originate from emissions of 75

nitrogen oxides  $(NO_x)$  and volatile organic compounds (VOCs), respectively.  $NO_x$  emissions in South Korea (mainly from fuel combustion) decreased by 30% over the 2015-2023 period while VOC emissions have been flat (Oak et al., 2025).

 $pNO_3$  in South Korea has not responded to the decrease of  $NO_x$  emissions and is now a major 79 component of extreme winter haze events in the SMA (Bae et al., 2020; B.-U. Kim et al., 2017; S. Lim 80 et al., 2022; J. Park et al., 2022). Formation of pNO<sub>3</sub> requires alkalinity (largely from ammonia, NH<sub>3</sub>) 81 beyond that needed to neutralize  $SO_4^{2-}$ . In the absence of alkalinity, pNO<sub>3</sub> partitions to the gas phase as 82 nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>). NH<sub>3</sub> is mainly emitted by agriculture, with a small urban source from vehicles (T. 83 Park et al., 2023). pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> formation in South Korea was limited in the past by the supply of NH<sub>3</sub> (Dang 84 et al., 2023, 2024) but is now increasingly limited by the supply of  $NO_x$  as  $NO_x$  emissions have 85 decreased (Oak et al., 2025). The decrease of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions has increased wintertime ozone (Colombi 86 87 et al., 2023), which would promote nighttime formation of  $pNO_3^{-1}$  by way of the nitrate radical (NO<sub>3</sub>) (Shah et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2024). Oxidation of VOCs to form SOA would also be enhanced by the 88 increase of  $O_3$  and  $NO_3$  (Hu et al., 2023; Ng et al., 2017; H. Wang et al., 2023). 89

Here we analyze 2012-2022 trends in wintertime  $PM_{2.5}$  and its composition in South Korea using a combination of data sources from surface networks, supersites, and satellites, augmented by machine learning. We examine trends in oxidants as drivers of  $pNO_3^-$  and SOA trends and draw implications for future pollution control priorities.

### 94 2 Data and methods

We use hourly 2015-22 PM<sub>2.5</sub> and 2012-22 NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> data from the AirKorea surface network 95 (https://www.airkorea.or.kr/). We supplement the national network data with 2012-2014 hourly PM25 96 97 data collected at 25 sites in the city of Seoul by the Seoul Research Institute of Public Health and Environment (NIER, 2022). Outside of Seoul between 2012 and 2014, we use the synthetic PM<sub>2.5</sub> 98 network produced by Pendergrass et al. (2025) with a random forest (RF) algorithm trained on 99 AirKorea measurements available for related pollutants including  $PM_{10}$ . We also use a daily continuous 100 PM<sub>2.5</sub> product produced using aerosol optical depth (AOD) data from the GOCI geostationary satellite 101 102 (Pendergrass et al., 2025).

PM<sub>2.5</sub> composition measurements are sparse in South Korea. We obtain SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>, pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>, 103 organic carbon (OC), and BC data from an ambient ion monitor at the Seoul supersite (37.62°N, 104 126.93°E) managed by the National Institute for Environmental Research (NIER). We obtain inorganic 105 particle-phase  $(SO_4^{2^-}, pNO_3^{-}, and NH_4^{+})$  and gas-phase (HNO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub>) components from the 106 Kanghwa site (37.71°N, 126.27°E) of the Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia (EANET). 107 Kanghwa is an agricultural island northwest of Seoul. We analyze diurnal variability in PM1 108 109 composition data from an aerosol mass spectrometer deployed in 2016-2018 at the Korea Institute of Science and Technology (KIST) in northeast Seoul (37.60°N, 127.05°E) (H. Kim et al., 2017). 110

Meteorology plays a substantial role in controlling interannual variability in  $PM_{2.5}$  (Koo et al., 2020; Jeong et al., 2024). To remove meteorological influence and thus capture the long-term trend in PM<sub>2.5</sub> due to emission changes, we use multi-linear regression (MLR) to relate AirKorea and synthetic PM<sub>2.5</sub> network data to meteorological fields from the ECMWF hourly 9×9 km<sup>2</sup> resolution ERA5-Land

replay of the ERA5 global reanalysis and hourly 30×30 km<sup>2</sup> from ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020; Muñoz-115 116 Sabater et al., 2021). To increase statistical robustness, we only use sites with continuous 2011-22 records and average the data on a 0.25°×0.3125° grid (Shen et al., 2017; Tai et al., 2010; Zhai et al., 117 2019). Predictor meteorological variables in the MLR include boundary layer height, mean sea-level 118 pressure, precipitation, 2 m temperature, 10 m wind speed, 2 m relative humidity (RH), and 850 hPa 119 meridional wind velocity, which have been identified in previous studies to correlate with PM<sub>2.5</sub> in the 120 region (Leung et al., 2018; Pendergrass et al., 2019; Zhai et al., 2019). To construct our MLR model, we 121 follow the methodology of Zhai et al. (2019) by deseasonalizing and detrending input datasets and then 122 123 fitting the MLR to the  $PM_{25}$  observations. We determine the best model for each grid cell by finding the MLR fit with at most three meteorological variables that has the highest Akaike Information Criterion 124 (AIC) value (Akaike, 1974). We then subtract the prediction from the observed  $PM_{2.5}$  and use the 125 residual to obtain emission-driven trends (Zhai et al., 2019). The Pearson's correlation coefficient of the 126 MLR model with 24-h PM<sub>2.5</sub> observations in 0.25°×0.3125° grid cells ranges between 0.41 and 0.72 127 with a median value of 0.60, in line with previous studies (Tai et al., 2010; Zhai et al., 2019). 128

## 129 3 Results and discussion

Figure 1 shows mean DJF PM<sub>2.5</sub> in South Korea in 2012 and 2022, together with emission-driven 130 trends. Emission changes have driven a 1.2  $\mu$ g m<sup>-3</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> decrease in DJF PM<sub>2.5</sub> that is spatially consistent 131 across the country. Although emissions of precursor species SO2 and NOx have declined steadily and 132 nationwide throughout the study period (Oak et al., 2025), DJF emission-driven PM<sub>2.5</sub> trends in Seoul 133 showed an increase in the 2015-2019 period before dropping in 2020 and remaining low afterwards 134 (Figure 1e). This 2015-2019 increase is confined to the SMA (Pendergrass et al., 2022) and is most 135 pronounced on weekend nights (Figure 1d). The impact of COVID-19 lockdowns is not manifest in the 136 137 overall PM<sub>2.5</sub> trends (Pendergrass et al., 2025).

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139 Figure 1: DJF PM<sub>2.5</sub> and trends in South Korea. Panels (a) and (b) show DJF mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> at AirKorea 140 surface stations in (a) 2012 and (b) 2022. PM<sub>2.5</sub> monitoring at these stations started in 2015, and data for 141 2012 is from a synthetic PM<sub>2.5</sub> network produced using a random forest (RF) algorithm applied to the 142 station data including PM<sub>10</sub> (Pendergrass et al., 2025). Panel (c) shows the DJF emission-driven trend in 143  $PM_{2.5}$  after removing meteorological influence with a multi-linear regression (MLR) fit. Panel (d) 144 shows observed DJF PM<sub>2.5</sub> averaged over 25 sites in the city of Seoul, disaggregated into daytime (8-18 145 LT) and nighttime (22-5 LT) for weekdays and weekends. Panel (e) shows the emission-driven PM<sub>2.5</sub> 146 timeseries (residual from the meteorological MLR model) for the Seoul 0.25°×0.3125° grid cell 147 (centered at 37.5°N.127.0°E) and averaging data from 37 sites. 148

In the 2015-2019 period, reductions in  $SO_4^{2-}$  in Seoul were more than compensated by 150 increasing pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Figure 2, top panel), but pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> grew faster than simple acid substitution for  $SO_4^{2^-}$ . 151 The Kangwha data show that the fraction of total nitrate  $(NO_3^T \equiv HNO_3 + pNO_3)$  in the particle phase 152 increased from 85% to 95% between 2013 and 2019 (Figure 2, bottom panel). The pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> fraction 153 remained above 92% after 2019 when Seoul pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> begins to decline. The NH<sub>3</sub>/NO<sub>2</sub> satellite indicator 154 (Dang et al., 2023, 2024) shows that pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> sensitivity shifted from a NH<sub>3</sub>-limited to a NO<sub>x</sub>-limited 155 regime around 2019 (Oak et al., 2025), consistent with a high pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>/NO<sub>3</sub><sup>T</sup> fraction. OC has both 156 primary and secondary (SOA) components (Brewer et al., 2023), did not decrease over the 2015-2022 157 period, and by 2022 comprised a similar fraction of  $PM_{2.5}$  as  $pNO_3^-$  (Figure 2, middle panel), while BC 158

159 declined substantially. Other contributions to PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass include sea salt, dust, and metals, which show

a decline in the later phase of the record. Dust emissions from construction and road traffic have been

161 decreasing rapidly in South Korea (Zhai et al., 2023).

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Figure 2: Wintertime  $PM_{2.5}$  speciation at the Seoul supersite (37.62°N, 126.93°E) and  $pNO_3^{-7}/NO_3^{-7}$  gasparticle fractionation at the Kanghwa EANET site NW of Seoul (37.71°N, 126.27°E), where  $NO_3^{-7} \equiv HNO_3 + pNO_3^{-7}$  is total (gas + particle) nitrate. Contributions to  $PM_{2.5}$  mass labeled as "Other" include sea salt, dust, and metals. Values are DJF seasonal means.

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The increase of wintertime  $pNO_3^-$  over the 2015-2019 period despite reductions in  $NO_x$  emissions can be explained in part by an increase in nighttime oxidants, which would also explain an increase in SOA. At night,  $pNO_3^-$  mainly forms through  $N_2O_5$  heterogeneous chemistry, as described in the mechanism below.  $NO_x$  emission is mainly as NO, which is oxidized to  $NO_2$  by (R1). Subsequent oxidation of  $NO_2$  by  $O_3$  produces the  $NO_3$  radical, which can either react with  $NO_2$  to form  $pNO_3^-$  via  $N_2O_5$  or with VOCs to form SOA:

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$$NO + O_3 \rightarrow NO_2 + O_2 \tag{R1}$$

$$\mathrm{NO}_2 + \mathrm{O}_3 \to \mathrm{NO}_3 + \mathrm{O}_2 \tag{R2}$$

$$NO_3 + NO_2 + M \rightarrow N_2O_5 + M \tag{R3}$$

$$NO_3 + VOC \rightarrow SOA$$
 (R4)

$$N_2O_5 + H_2O \xrightarrow{\text{aerosol}} 2 \text{ pNO}_3^- \tag{R5}$$

The mechanism operates only at night because  $NO_3$  photolyzes on a time scale of a minute in the daytime.

Figure 3ab shows 2012-2022 trends and diurnal variations of NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in Seoul. Decrease in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions drives a decrease in nighttime NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over the 2012-2022 period but an increase in nighttime O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. When NO<sub>2</sub> is observed to be in excess of 50 ppb, O<sub>3</sub> is titrated by reaction (R1) (Figure 3c) and NO<sub>3</sub> production by reaction (R2) cannot take place. As NO<sub>2</sub> drops to lower concentrations, O<sub>3</sub> increases rapidly which stimulates NO<sub>3</sub> production. We calculate the NO<sub>3</sub> production rate P(NO<sub>3</sub>) from the rate of reaction (R2) (Atkinson et al., 2004; H. Wang et al., 2021, 2023; Y. Wang et al., 2023):

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$$P(NO_3) = k[O_3][NO_2]; \qquad k = 1.4 \times 10^{-13} \exp(-2470/T)$$
(1)

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Plotting  $P(NO_3)$  versus the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations indicates a sharp maximum for 25 ppb NO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 3c). At lower NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations  $P(NO_3)$  is limited by the supply of NO<sub>x</sub>, while at higher NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations it is limited by the supply of O<sub>3</sub>.

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Figure 3: Mean diurnal and nighttime (22-05 LT) trends of oxidants in Seoul in winter (DJF). Values are averages for the 25 AirKorea surface sites in Seoul with continuous 2012-2022 records. Left panels show the average diurnal cycles of (a) NO<sub>2</sub> and (b) O<sub>3</sub> concentrations aggregated for the 2012-2014, 2015-2018, and 2019-2022 periods. Panel (c) shows mean nighttime O<sub>3</sub> concentrations and production rates of the nitrate radical P(NO<sub>3</sub>) binned as a function of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (2 ppb bins). P(NO<sub>3</sub>) is calculated from equation (1). Panel (d) shows 2012-2022 trends of nighttime NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>, concentrations, and P(NO<sub>3</sub>)

Declining NO<sub>x</sub> emissions has led to decreases in NO<sub>2</sub> with nighttime mean values in Seoul 200 dropping just below 30 ppb by 2022 (Figure 3d). This remains in the regime where decreasing NO<sub>2</sub> 201 202 continues to increase  $P(NO_3)$ , and indeed  $P(NO_3)$  has steadily grown over the 2012-2022 period (Figure 3d). Such growth in  $P(NO_3)$  increases the nighttime production of  $pNO_3$ , SOA, and organonitrates that 203 may hydrolyze to pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (Farmer et al., 2010; Fisher et al., 2016; Kiendler-Scharr et al., 2016; Ng et al., 204 2017; H. Wang et al., 2021, 2023; Y. Wang et al., 2023). As NO<sub>2</sub> declines, growing P(NO<sub>3</sub>) makes 205 206 more NO<sub>3</sub> available to react with VOCs and form SOA (R4), which may explain why OC is not decreasing while pNO<sub>3</sub> is. NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the SMA decline in sync with NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (Oak et 207 al., 2025), and if NO<sub>x</sub> emissions decrease by another 20% they will clear the 25 ppb threshold below 208 209 which  $P(NO_3)$  should decline rapidly to decrease both  $pNO_3^-$  and SOA.

Further evidence of this oxidant limitation is apparent in the difference between weekdays and 210 weekends. O<sub>3</sub> is higher on the weekends than on weekdays over the study period, a result of titration by 211 vehicle NO emissions and VOC-saturated conditions. The PM2.5 data show a weekend effect consistent 212 with the oxidants. Figure 4 shows the DJF 2012-2022 trend in the difference between weekday and 213 weekend PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in South Korea for an AOD-inferred PM<sub>2.5</sub> product (Pendergrass et al. 214 2025) and for direct measurements of PM<sub>2.5</sub> within Seoul. Use of the AOD-inferred PM<sub>2.5</sub> product 215 allows us to go back to before 2015 outside of Seoul. Previous work has observed a weekend effect in 216 Seoul and in some Chinese cities where PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels are higher on weekends than weekdays as would 217 218 be driven by higher oxidant levels (Choi et al., 2022; Y. Wang et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2018). But we find that the opposite in South Korea for the period prior to 2015, with weekdays more polluted by 219 weekends, and with our AOD-inferred PM<sub>2.5</sub> product we also find that the weekend effect transition in 220 221 2015 occurred everywhere in South Korea. Early air pollution controls targeting primary  $PM_{25}$ 222 emissions from vehicles (OC and BC) would have more effect on weekdays than weekends, and indeed the BC fraction of PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Seoul declined from 14% in 2003 to less than 3% by 2017 (Y. Kim et al., 223 224 2020).



Figure 4: Wintertime (DJF) PM<sub>2.5</sub> weekend effect in South Korea.  $\Delta PM_{2.5}$  denotes the difference 226 between mean weekday and weekend PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations. Panels (a) through (c) show maps of 227 228  $\Delta PM_{2.5}$  for (a) 2011-2014, (b) 2015-2018, and (c) 2019-2022, where red (positive  $\Delta PM_{2.5}$ ) indicates that weekdays are more polluted than weekends. PM2.5 concentrations are inferred using machine learning 229 from geostationary satellite AOD data (Pendergrass et al., 2025), except for Seoul (inset) where direct 230 continuous measurements are available from sites through the 2011-2022 period. Panel (d) shows the 231 diurnal variation of  $\Delta PM_{2.5}$  in Seoul for 2011-2014, 2015-2018, and 2019-2022. Panel (e) shows the 232 diurnal cycle of PM<sub>1</sub> composition observed at the KIST site in Seoul for 2016-2018 (H. Kim et al., 233 2017). 234

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Figure 4d shows that the post-2015 weekend effect is most pronounced at night (i.e. weekends are most polluted than weekdays particularly at night) especially after 2019. This means that nighttime production of PM<sub>2.5</sub> has become faster on weekends, consistent with an increase in the secondary

component  $(pNO_3^-, SOA)$  driven by the faster production of NO<sub>3</sub> radicals at night. Figure 4e shows the diurnal cycle of PM<sub>1</sub> observations available for DJF 2016-2018 in Seoul (H. Kim et al., 2017), indicating that organic aerosols and pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> account for the weekend effect and its diurnal cycle.

In summary, we analyzed 2012-2022 trends in wintertime (DJF) PM<sub>2.5</sub> and its composition in 242 South Korea using surface observations interpreted with statistical methods and machine learning. 243 Declining anthropogenic emissions have led DJF mean  $PM_{2.5}$  to decrease at a rate of 1.2 µg m<sup>-3</sup> a<sup>-1</sup> in 244 South Korea but with significant variability including a 2015-2019 increase in Seoul driven by 245 particulate nitrate (pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>) even as NO<sub>x</sub> emissions decreased. pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and organic aerosol now contribute 246 over half of total PM<sub>2.5</sub>. pNO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> would not respond to NO<sub>x</sub> emission controls if its formation was limited 247 by the supply of NH<sub>3</sub>, but EANET observations of total (gas + particulate) nitrate indicates a switch to 248  $NO_x$ -limited conditions during the 2010s. A major factor driving increased pNO<sub>3</sub> and secondary 249 organic aerosol (SOA) formation as NO<sub>x</sub> emissions decrease is the nighttime formation of the nitrate 250 radical (NO<sub>3</sub>), which increases due to weaker titration of O<sub>3</sub>. Using AirKorea hourly network 251 observations of NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>, we show that the nighttime NO<sub>3</sub> production rate P(NO<sub>3</sub>) in Seoul increased 252 rapidly over the 2012-2022 period. We see evidence for a resulting nighttime increase in  $pNO_3^-$  and 253 SOA formation by comparing weekend versus weekday concentrations and their trends. We infer from 254 the AirKorea observations a 25 ppb NO<sub>2</sub> threshold below which P(NO<sub>3</sub>) should begin to decrease 255 256 rapidly as  $NO_x$  emissions decrease.  $NO_2$  concentrations in Seoul in 2019-2022 were approaching that threshold, implying that further  $NO_x$  emission reductions should accrue immediate benefits for reducing 257  $pNO_3^-$  and SOA and therefore total  $PM_{2.5}$ . 258

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