

1           **On the origin of surface ozone episode in Shanghai over Yangtze**  
2                           **River Delta during a prolonged heat wave**

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10  
11   **Abstract**

12  
13       A heat wave with temperatures over 35°C and sunny stagnant meteorological conditions  
14       occurred in Shanghai from 27 July to 5 August 2015, leading to a sustained episode of high ozone  
15       lasting 12 days. We have conducted a detailed source apportionment of surface ozone, by  
16       precursor source category and region, using a photochemical transport model. In this episode, a  
17       southwesterly wind prevailed over the Yangtze River Delta, and therefore precursors from the  
18       local Shanghai region and the region immediately to the south of Shanghai are the two major  
19       contributors (in total 90%) to ozone in Shanghai. The source apportionment reveals that local  
20       industrial sources and energy/biogenic sources in neighbouring regions are the principal causes  
21       for the high levels of ozone. By examining the contributions from individual physical and  
22       chemical processes, we show that ozone concentrations start to rise rapidly in the morning  
23       because chemical production dominates as the solar radiation increases, and while there is little  
24       removal by deposition when ozone remains low. In general, chemical production, horizontal  
25       advection and vertical diffusion contribute to increase ozone concentration during daytime, and  
26       deposition and vertical advection reduce ozone concentrations.

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28   **Keywords:** Ozone; Source apportionment; Process analysis; Heat wave; Shanghai.

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## 31 INTRODUCTION

32

33 High ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) episodes are one of the most severe air pollution issues experienced in  
34 megacities (Wild et al. 2004; Shao et al., 2006; Streets et al., 2007; Yang et al., 2008; Zhang et al.  
35 2008). Severe O<sub>3</sub> pollution events in troposphere can cause adverse effects on human health, crop  
36 productivity and ecosystems (Feng et al., 2003; Fann and Risley, 2013; Landry et al., 2013). In  
37 recent years, the O<sub>3</sub> concentrations exceeding moderately polluted level (the daily maximum 8-h  
38 moving average O<sub>3</sub> concentration >100 ppbv defined by the National Ambient Air Quality  
39 Standard of China) have been frequently observed in China (Wang et al., 2001, 2009; Wang et al.,  
40 2006a; Ding et al., 2008, 2013; Xu et al., 2008; Tang et al., 2009; Shao et al., 2009; Ran et al.,  
41 2009).

42 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are affected by chemical formation and loss related to local precursors  
43 emissions, and by transport of O<sub>3</sub> and its precursors from other regions. For chemical formation,  
44 O<sub>3</sub> is a secondary pollutant formed nonlinearly by chemical reactions involving nitrogen oxides  
45 (NO<sub>x</sub>) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the presence of solar radiation (Crutzen et al.,  
46 1999; Kumar et al., 2008). High O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are also affected by favorable weather  
47 conditions, such as extremely high temperature, strong solar radiation, low relative humidity and  
48 weak wind speed (Shu et al., 2016). These weather conditions are usually accompanied by strong  
49 subtropical high, and play a crucial role in transport, accumulation and fast chemical production

50 of O<sub>3</sub> in the boundary layer. Shanghai as well as surrounding city cluster (namely as Yangtze  
51 River Delta, YRD), locate on the eastern coast of China, and are generally affected by the  
52 western Pacific subtropical high in summertime. Therefore, high-level O<sub>3</sub> events are observed in  
53 summertime with relationship to synoptic systems (Huang et al., 2006; Jiang et al., 2012; Ding et  
54 al., 2013; Xie et al., 2016).

55 O<sub>3</sub> pollutions in the YRD have been previously analyzed (Wang et al., 2006b; Geng et al.,  
56 2008; Ran et al., 2009; Jiang et al., 2012), but some properties controlling O<sub>3</sub> behavior in this area  
57 remain uncertain, especially during a typical weather system in this region. Effective attainment  
58 of ground-level O<sub>3</sub> concentration depends upon a reliable understanding of how O<sub>3</sub> responds to  
59 control of its precursors (Cohan et al., 2007). In this study, we apply the Comprehensive Air  
60 Quality Model with Extensions model (CAMx) to study the typical weather system and the exact  
61 formation mechanism of the O<sub>3</sub> pollution over YRD region. A better understanding of O<sub>3</sub>  
62 source-receptor relationship in the YRD can be accomplished through the identification of the  
63 geophysical sources as well as sectoral sources contribution. Such information is considerable for  
64 designing adequate control strategies regarding tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> concentration. Furthermore,  
65 process analysis tool provides an insight on qualitative and quantitative contributions of  
66 individual atmospheric processes.

67

## 68 **METHODOLOGY AND DATA**

69

70 ***Model description and setup***

71 We apply an air quality model CAMx v6.20 (ENVIRON, 2015) to simulate an O<sub>3</sub> episode  
72 from 25 July to 6 August, 2015. CAMx simulates the emission, advection, dispersion, chemical  
73 transformation and physical removal of air pollutants on an Eulerian three-dimensional grid. Fig.  
74 1 shows the model domain used in this study, which has a 265×265 grids at 9 km resolution on a  
75 Lambert conformal map projection. Vertically, we use 20 terrain-following layers from the  
76 surface to 20 km, with the lowest 10 layers below 2 km. The meteorological conditions were  
77 provided from the Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF v3.2.1,  
78 [http://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/wrf/users/docs/user\\_guide\\_V3.2/ARWUsersGuideV3.pdf](http://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/wrf/users/docs/user_guide_V3.2/ARWUsersGuideV3.pdf)), using  
79 NCEP/NCAR FNL reanalysis data (1°×1°) for initial and boundary conditions. Four-dimensional  
80 data assimilation (Otte, 2009), based on 6-h 3-D analyses of temperature, water vapor mixing  
81 ratio and horizontal wind speeds, was used with a nudging coefficient of  $3.0 \times 10^{-4}$  for all the  
82 above components over this domain. Monthly-average concentrations from the MOZART model  
83 were used for chemical boundary conditions. The simulation was made from 14 July to 7 August  
84 2015, using the first four days as a spin-up period.

85 The anthropogenic emissions in China were obtained from the Multi-resolution Emission  
86 Inventory for China (MEIC, <http://www.meicmodel.org/>) at 0.25°×0.25° resolution, while  
87 emissions in other countries were derived from the bottom-up Regional Emission inventory in  
88 Asia (REAS 2.1) (Kurokawa et al., 2013). To improve the distribution of anthropogenic

89 emissions at the 9 km resolution used here, we spatially reallocated the coarse resolution  
90 emissions over East Asia based on relevant proxies. For example, residential emissions were  
91 spatially allocated by population data; vehicle emissions were distributed according to road  
92 length data; and agricultural emissions were allocated based on cropland intensity data. All the  
93 static data including population, road length and land category data are obtained through  
94 <http://www.dsac.cn>, with spatial resolution of 1km and data year of 2015. Biogenic emissions  
95 were obtained from a biogenic emission model (MEGANv2) provided by NCAR  
96 ([http://accent.aero.jussieu.fr/database\\_table\\_inventories.php](http://accent.aero.jussieu.fr/database_table_inventories.php)).

97 In this study, we use surface NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentration measurements from a monitoring  
98 network maintained by the Ministry of Environmental Protection (<http://106.37.208.233:20035>).  
99 The locations of surface sites (273 sites within the model domain) are shown in Fig. 1. Hourly  
100 meteorological variables (wind, temperature, relative humidity and solar radiation) were taken  
101 from automatic meteorological stations operated by the Shanghai Meteorological Service, and the  
102 data shown in Fig. 2 was collected at Pudong station (31.22°N, 121.55°E), which represents an  
103 urban area in Shanghai.

104

#### 105 ***Source apportionment***

106 O<sub>3</sub> source apportionment technology (OSAT, Yarwood et al., 1996) uses multiple tracer  
107 species to track the fate of O<sub>3</sub> and its precursors by monitoring the effects of emissions, chemical

108 reactions, transport, diffusion and deposition within CAMx. These tracers allow O<sub>3</sub> formation  
 109 from multiple “source groupings” to be tracked simultaneously within a single simulation. A  
 110 source grouping is defined in terms of geographical area and/or emission category, and the  
 111 CAMx boundary conditions (BC) and initial conditions (IC) are tracked as separate source  
 112 groupings. OSAT employs four types of tracers for each source grouping: N<sub>i</sub> and V<sub>i</sub> (tracking  
 113 NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs originating from source grouping i, respectively), and O<sub>3</sub>N<sub>i</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>V<sub>i</sub> (tracking O<sub>3</sub>  
 114 formation under NO<sub>x</sub>-limited and VOCs-limited conditions attributed to source grouping i,  
 115 respectively). The ratio of the production rates of hydrogen peroxide to nitric acid is used as an  
 116 indicator of the O<sub>3</sub> formation sensitivity to VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>. Sillman (1995) proposed that O<sub>3</sub>  
 117 formation is NO<sub>x</sub>-limited when the ratio exceeds 0.35 and VOCs-limited when the ratio is less  
 118 than 0.35. The O<sub>3</sub>N and O<sub>3</sub>V tracers for each source grouping accumulate a weighted fraction of  
 119 the O<sub>3</sub> production (ΔO<sub>3</sub>) that occurs in each grid cell at each time step (Δt):

120

$$O_3N_i(t + \Delta t) = O_3N_i(t) + \Delta O_3 \times N_i(t) / \sum_{i=1}^m N_i(t)$$

$$O_3V_i(t + \Delta t) = O_3V_i(t) + \Delta O_3 \times V_i(t) \times \kappa OH_i / \sum_{i=1}^m [V_i(t) \times \kappa OH_i]$$

121

122 Where t represents time, m is the number of source groupings, and  $\kappa OH_i$  is the average OH rate  
 123 constant of VOCs for the i source grouping (ENVIRON, 2015).

124

125 ***Source regions and source categories***

126 Targeting a spatial-source analysis, we divide the model domain into eight source receptor  
127 areas based on province boundaries: Shanghai (SH), provinces north of Shanghai (NORTH2SH),  
128 provinces south of Shanghai (SOUTH2SH), northern China (NORTH\_CHN), western China  
129 (WEST\_CHN), southern China (SOUTH\_CHN) and regions outside China (OUT\_CHN) (see  
130 Fig. 1). NORTH2SH consists of Jiangsu, Anhui and Shandong provinces and SOUTH2SH  
131 consists of Zhejiang, Jiangxi and Fujian provinces.

132 Anthropogenic emissions from MEIC are categorized into industry, transport, residential,  
133 energy and agricultural sectors. Biogenic emissions are generated from the MEGAN model.  
134 These six categories, are defined as source groupings in the OSAT model. In addition, the initial  
135 and boundary conditions (IC and BC) are treated as individual source groupings.

136

137 ***Process analysis***

138 Process analysis (PA) allows for in-depth analysis of the contributions from individual physical  
139 and chemical processes operating within the model (Jeffries and Tonnesen, 1994). Using this  
140 approach, it is possible to investigate the complex interactions between different processes, and  
141 explain simulation results within the context of the model formulation. Integrated process rate  
142 analysis provides detailed rate information for each process in CAMx (i.e., advection, diffusion,

143 deposition, emissions and chemistry) for selected grid cells and selected species (Wang et al.,  
144 1995).

145

#### 146 *Sensitivity analysis*

147 Sensitivity analysis is a widely used approach in which sources are quantified by perturbing  
148 emissions one at a time and simulating the difference in pollutant concentrations compared to  
149 unperturbed control scenarios. There are four sensitivity simulations as well as control run  
150 (BASE). Each sensitivity simulation is compared to the BASE run in order to assess the response  
151 of O<sub>3</sub> to emission perturbations during the episode.

152

## 153 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

154

#### 155 *The episode review and model evaluation*

156 The daily maximum temperature is more than 35°C for sustained 10 days from 27 July to 5  
157 August 2015, in which 4 days of maximum temperature are over 37°C, which is a very powerful  
158 heat wave in Shanghai (Fig. 2). In the meantime, a continuous (12 days) O<sub>3</sub> pollution episode was  
159 detected in Shanghai over the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region, in which the daily maximum  
160 8-h moving average O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in 4 days exceeded moderately polluted level (>100 ppbv),  
161 with the other 8 days exceeding lightly polluted level (>75 ppbv). The hourly maximum observed

162 O<sub>3</sub> concentration reached up to 130 ppbv, which significantly exceeded the moderately polluted  
163 level. During this period, the western Pacific subtropical high stayed over YRD region, and  
164 thereby led to this powerful heat wave in Shanghai. The relative humidity ranged from 40% to  
165 80% and the total radiation, a key meteorological factor for O<sub>3</sub> formation, reached 1000 W/m<sup>2</sup>,  
166 indicating that skies were clear. There is typically a positive correlation between O<sub>3</sub> and  
167 temperature because of a combination of meteorological and chemical factors. High temperatures  
168 lead to higher emissions of some O<sub>3</sub> precursors, greater electrical energy use, and more biogenic  
169 VOC emissions.

170 Fig. 2 also compares the simulated meteorological and O<sub>3</sub> concentration with observations, to  
171 assess the performance of the model. Before 27 July, there were lower temperatures, higher  
172 relative humidities, lower total radiation and lower O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The comparisons  
173 demonstrate that the model can capture the temporal variation of meteorological variables over  
174 the study period very well compared to observations. To evaluate how well the model captures  
175 the diurnal cycle of O<sub>3</sub>, we calculate the episode-mean hourly O<sub>3</sub> concentrations, see Fig. 3. We  
176 find that the model catches the high O<sub>3</sub> during daytime but underestimates O<sub>3</sub> at nighttime. This  
177 may be due to overestimated NO emissions that leads to much chemical destruction at nighttime  
178 (Awang et al., 2015).

179 Fig. 4 shows the weather charts (<http://web.kma.go.kr/chn/weather/images/analysischart.jsp>) at  
180 00UTC (08LST) each day. A subtropical high pressure is noted near Taiwan on 30 July, and the  
181 center moves north on 1 August. This synoptic pattern is disturbed when a typhoon approaches  
182 from the Pacific Ocean. The left panels display the simulated wind fields at the corresponding  
183 times (08:00LST), and daytime average O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (from 08:00 to 18:00 LST). The wind  
184 fields show that there was a high pressure over the ocean and the location is consistent with that  
185 in the weather charts on 30 July and 1 August. A southwesterly wind was induced by the high  
186 pressure prevailing along the east coast of China during the polluted heat wave period. The  
187 spatial distribution of O<sub>3</sub> shows that there were high concentrations in the north of China as well  
188 as on the east coast. On 6 August, the approaching typhoon brought easterly winds to Shanghai  
189 and the Yangtze River Delta region, along with cleaner marine air.

190 A suite of statistical metrics are considered to judge the performance of the model. We use the  
191 correlation coefficient (R), mean value of the observation (Obs) and simulation (Mod), root mean  
192 square error (RMSE) and mean bias (MB) of the hourly data over the full 20-day period. The  
193 spatial distributions of R and RMSE for each city are displayed in Fig. 5. The simulation  
194 generally agrees well with the observations and the correlation coefficients are greater than 0.7  
195 for most of the cities. The RMSEs are below 15 ppbv in south China, but are 15-30 ppbv in north  
196 China. Table 1 summarizes the statistical metrics for O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> for each region separately

197 (region definitions are shown in Fig. 1). The correlation coefficients (R) for O<sub>3</sub> are typically  
198 0.6-0.8, indicating that the model can reproduce the O<sub>3</sub> variations well in the study period. The R  
199 values for NO<sub>2</sub> are lower than for O<sub>3</sub>, with values of 0.5-0.7. The mean bias shows that simulated  
200 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were underestimated over Shanghai (SH) and SOUTH2SH regions, but  
201 overestimated for the other regions. NORTH\_CHN was the only region where NO<sub>2</sub> was  
202 underestimated. In comparing different regions, it is worth noting that the model performed best  
203 over Shanghai and least well over NORTH\_CHN. The NO<sub>x</sub> emission over NORTH\_CHN may be  
204 underestimated, and this is consistent with overestimation of O<sub>3</sub> due to less urban titration. In  
205 general, based on this analysis, we infer that the CAMx model performs relatively well in  
206 simulating observed O<sub>3</sub> concentrations.

207 Fig. 6 shows a scatterplot of hourly daytime O<sub>3</sub> from the model and the observations at some  
208 points. The selected cities are Shanghai, Nanjing, Hangzhou, Hefei, Fuzhou, Nanchang, Jinan,  
209 Beijing, Changsha, Wuhan, Guangzhou and Xi'an, which are capitals of each province,  
210 respectively, over the east China (displayed in red points in Fig. 1). These data help to assess the  
211 model performance, showing that there is clearly a correlation between the model and  
212 observations, with the averaged correlation coefficient (R) of 0.69. The standard linear least  
213 square regression analysis reveals that the model somewhat overestimates the daytime O<sub>3</sub>  
214 concentrations.

215

216 ***Source contribution analysis***

217 Fig. 7 shows the daytime-average (08:00 – 18:00 LST) contributions to O<sub>3</sub> for Shanghai area  
218 from different source regions and source categories. We find that Shanghai and SOUTH2SH are  
219 the two regions that contributed the most to O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in Shanghai, together reaching as  
220 much as 90%. This is a consequence of the southwesterly flow during the study period (see Fig. 2  
221 and 4), which brought pollutants and precursor emissions to Shanghai. In this period, the  
222 contributions from other regions were insignificant. The contributions of different emission  
223 categories show that the industrial sector contributes the most, followed by energy, biogenic and  
224 transport sectors. As expected, initial conditions (IC) were the major contributor at the beginning  
225 of the simulation, and it decreased significantly over the period. The contribution of boundary  
226 conditions (BC) was remarkably large on August 6, and this reflects the dominance of easterly  
227 flow in the Shanghai area on this day (see Fig. 4(c)).

228 Since Shanghai and SOUTH2SH are the dominant sources of O<sub>3</sub> in Shanghai during this  
229 episode, it is interesting to examine the source apportionment by emission category from these  
230 two regions. For local emissions in Shanghai area (Fig. 8(a)), Industrial emissions were the  
231 largest source, with a contribution of 43%, and the contributions from energy, transport and  
232 biogenic sectors were 20%, 20% and 10%, respectively. In contrast (Fig. 8(b)), the largest source  
233 from SOUTH2SH region was not from industrial emissions but from energy and biogenic  
234 emissions which provided 28% and 28% of the O<sub>3</sub> from this region to Shanghai. The

235 contributions from industry and transport tailed off to 25% and 11%, respectively. In addition,  
236 5-6% of O<sub>3</sub> in Shanghai was attributed to initial and boundary conditions (IC+BC), and  
237 agriculture and residential emissions contributed very little.

238 The average diurnal O<sub>3</sub> contributions for Shanghai area from different source regions during  
239 the episode period are shown in Fig. 9(a). It is clear that local and non-local emissions show  
240 distinct characteristics. The contribution of local emissions in Shanghai is heavily peaked,  
241 increasing during the morning, and with a maximum value around noontime. This is strongly  
242 related to chemical formation of O<sub>3</sub> when solar radiation is high. The contributions from  
243 non-local sources (mostly from SOUTH2SH) are greatest in the morning and afternoon. During  
244 nighttime O<sub>3</sub> is destroyed through titration by reaction with NO, and there is no O<sub>3</sub> formation  
245 without solar radiation. Consequently, most of the O<sub>3</sub> in Shanghai originates by transport from  
246 surrounding areas, and the contributions during nighttime are from non-local sources. The  
247 contribution of different source categories is shown in Fig. 9(b). The contribution of industrial  
248 emissions reveals similar features to the local emission in Shanghai, increasing during the  
249 morning, and reaching a maximum at noon. The contributions from energy, transport and  
250 biogenic emissions remain relatively similar over the course of daytime.

251 To evaluate the source contributions in this study, and to inform mitigation strategies for O<sub>3</sub> in  
252 Shanghai, several sensitivity simulations are conducted individually (described in Table 2). The

253 sensitivity simulation results show that if all anthropogenic emissions in Shanghai were reduced  
254 by 50% (SH0.5), the O<sub>3</sub> levels in Shanghai would have decreased by 12% compared to the base  
255 run (BASE). When industrial or transport emissions were reduced by 50% in both Shanghai and  
256 SOUTH2SH (IND0.5 and TRA0.5), the decrease in O<sub>3</sub> concentrations was 11% or 6%,  
257 respectively. If all industrial and transport emissions in both regions were reduced by 50%, the O<sub>3</sub>  
258 concentrations would decrease by 18%. This sensitivity analysis clearly demonstrates that the  
259 response of O<sub>3</sub> to emission reductions isn't linear. And this leads to discrepancy between  
260 sensitivity analysis and source apportionment results. Because O<sub>3</sub> are most formed by chemical  
261 formations, the sensitivity simulations do not generate or lose equivalent concentrations of  
262 secondary O<sub>3</sub> when the simulations are run with fewer precursors. The Source apportionment  
263 method, which does not change any physical and chemical processes, can objectively allocate  
264 100% of the target O<sub>3</sub> to specified sources. Besides, the reduction of O<sub>3</sub> in IND\_TRA0.5 run is  
265 the biggest, even more significant than those in SH0.5 run. This illustrates that industrial and  
266 transport emissions are the main source of precursors in generating O<sub>3</sub> in Shanghai, and should be  
267 considered as the major target sectors for emission controls.

268

### 269 ***Process analysis***

270 The contributions of each modeled process to changes in O<sub>3</sub> in the model are calculated as  
271 average hourly values for each grid cell. Average rates in the surface layer for Shanghai area

272 from July 27 0000 LST to August 5 2300 LST are shown in Fig. 10. The atmospheric processes  
273 that influence O<sub>3</sub> concentrations include chemistry, horizontal and vertical advection, horizontal  
274 and vertical diffusion and dry deposition. Positive values indicate that O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are  
275 increased by the process and negative values indicate a decrease. Note that there is no primary  
276 emission of O<sub>3</sub>, so this process makes no direct contribution to O<sub>3</sub>.

277 The diurnal cycle of O<sub>3</sub> concentration reveals that the build-up of O<sub>3</sub> in the morning is typically  
278 more rapid than the decline in the evening. During daytime, the model has a tendency to generate  
279 a broad daytime O<sub>3</sub> maximum, with the highest concentrations reached at noon. In the morning,  
280 chemical production dominates as the solar radiation increases, and there is little removal by  
281 deposition while O<sub>3</sub> remains low. Consequently, O<sub>3</sub> concentrations start to rise rapidly in the  
282 morning. The effect of chemical processes remains positive from 0600LST to 1600LST, while at  
283 other times there is net chemical destruction of O<sub>3</sub> by titration. Horizontal advection of O<sub>3</sub> from  
284 neighboring regions also keeps daytime concentrations high. In contrast, vertical advection  
285 contributes to a decrease of O<sub>3</sub> as vertical mixing is enhanced during daytime, carrying O<sub>3</sub> away  
286 from the surface. The results also reveal that vertical diffusion has an important role in increasing  
287 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations during afternoon and nighttime. We note above that the model underestimates  
288 the low O<sub>3</sub> levels at nighttime. This may be due to too much chemical destruction, excessive dry  
289 deposition, or to horizontal advection (see Fig. 9). While this may be a consequence of

290 overestimated NO emissions or errors in dry deposition parameters, it may also reflect  
291 meteorological factors such as insufficient boundary layer mixing at nighttime. To summarize,  
292 chemical production, horizontal advection and vertical diffusion are the main contributors to  
293 increases in O<sub>3</sub> concentrations during daytime, while deposition and vertical advection reduce O<sub>3</sub>  
294 concentrations.

295

## 296 **CONCLUSIONS**

297

298 A sustained, 10-day episode of high O<sub>3</sub> occurred in the Yangzte River Delta from 27 July to 5  
299 August 2015, with O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the afternoon reaching more than 100 ppbv. During this  
300 O<sub>3</sub> episode, temperatures of more than 35°C and sunny stagnant meteorological conditions were  
301 observed, providing favorable conditions for O<sub>3</sub> formation. A numerical model was used to study  
302 this O<sub>3</sub> episode and comparisons between simulation and observations suggest that the model can  
303 reproduce the meteorological and chemical conditions during this O<sub>3</sub> episode well.

304 By applying source apportionment approaches, we have developed a detailed understanding of  
305 the precursor source region and source category contributions to surface O<sub>3</sub> in Shanghai.  
306 Spatially, precursors from local and nearby southerly provinces contributed 90% of O<sub>3</sub>  
307 concentrations in this episode. Normally synoptic high pressure systems in summertime over this  
308 region are associated with high temperatures and a southwesterly wind which brings O<sub>3</sub> and its  
309 precursors to Shanghai. Industrial emission was the largest local source, with a contribution of

310 41%, and the contributions from energy, transport and biogenic sectors were 19%, 19% and 12%,  
311 respectively. For precursors from southern provinces, energy and biogenic sectors were the  
312 largest sources, with contributions of 30% and 29%. Therefore, it is a priority to reduce  
313 industrial, energy and transport emissions through effective O<sub>3</sub> control strategies. However,  
314 biogenic emissions also play an important role in formation of O<sub>3</sub> at this time of year.

315 We have analyzed the contributions from individual physical and chemical processes during  
316 this episode. It is interesting to note that the build-up of O<sub>3</sub> in the morning was much more rapid  
317 than the decline in the evening. In the morning, chemical production made a large contribution in  
318 the presence of sunlight, while the removal of O<sub>3</sub> was much smaller. The results revealed that  
319 chemical production, horizontal advection and vertical diffusion contribute to the increase of O<sub>3</sub>  
320 concentrations during daytime. The underestimation of O<sub>3</sub> at nighttime may be due to too much  
321 destruction by chemistry, deposition or horizontal advection. This may be a consequence of  
322 overestimated NO emissions or errors in dry deposition parameters, it may also reflect  
323 meteorological factors such as insufficient boundary layer mixing at nighttime.

324

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326

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432 **Table 1.** Statistical summary of the model results against observations between 00:00LST 18  
 433 July and 00:00LST 7 August.

Species	Regions	N <sup>a</sup>	Obs <sup>b</sup>	Mod <sup>c</sup>	R <sup>d</sup>	RMSE <sup>e</sup>	MB <sup>f</sup>
O <sub>3</sub> (ppbv)	Shanghai(SH)	478	46.5	40.0	0.80	14.7	-6.5
	NORTH2SH	32962	32.8	41.4	0.71	21.6	8.6
	SOUTH2SH	16108	26.9	23.9	0.76	13.6	-3.0
	NORTH_CHN	23400	36.5	46.9	0.61	28.7	10.4
	WEST_CHN	40000	32.1	38.7	0.78	21.2	8.5
	SOUTH_CHN	15768	21.1	25.9	0.68	15.7	4.8
NO <sub>2</sub> (ppbv)	Shanghai(SH)	478	15.4	17.8	0.69	10.7	2.4
	NORTH2SH	32961	11.7	14.6	0.52	11.1	2.9
	SOUTH2SH	16110	9.1	12.8	0.63	12.9	3.8
	NORTH_CHN	23405	11.0	8.8	0.50	8.6	-2.2
	WEST_CHN	40093	10.2	12.5	0.52	13.0	2.2
	SOUTH_CHN	15771	7.9	10.7	0.58	10.4	2.8

434 <sup>a</sup> Number of valid paired data.

435 <sup>b</sup> Mean value of observations

436 <sup>c</sup> Mean value of simulations

437 <sup>d</sup> Correlation coefficient

438 <sup>e</sup> Root mean square error

439 <sup>f</sup> Mean bias

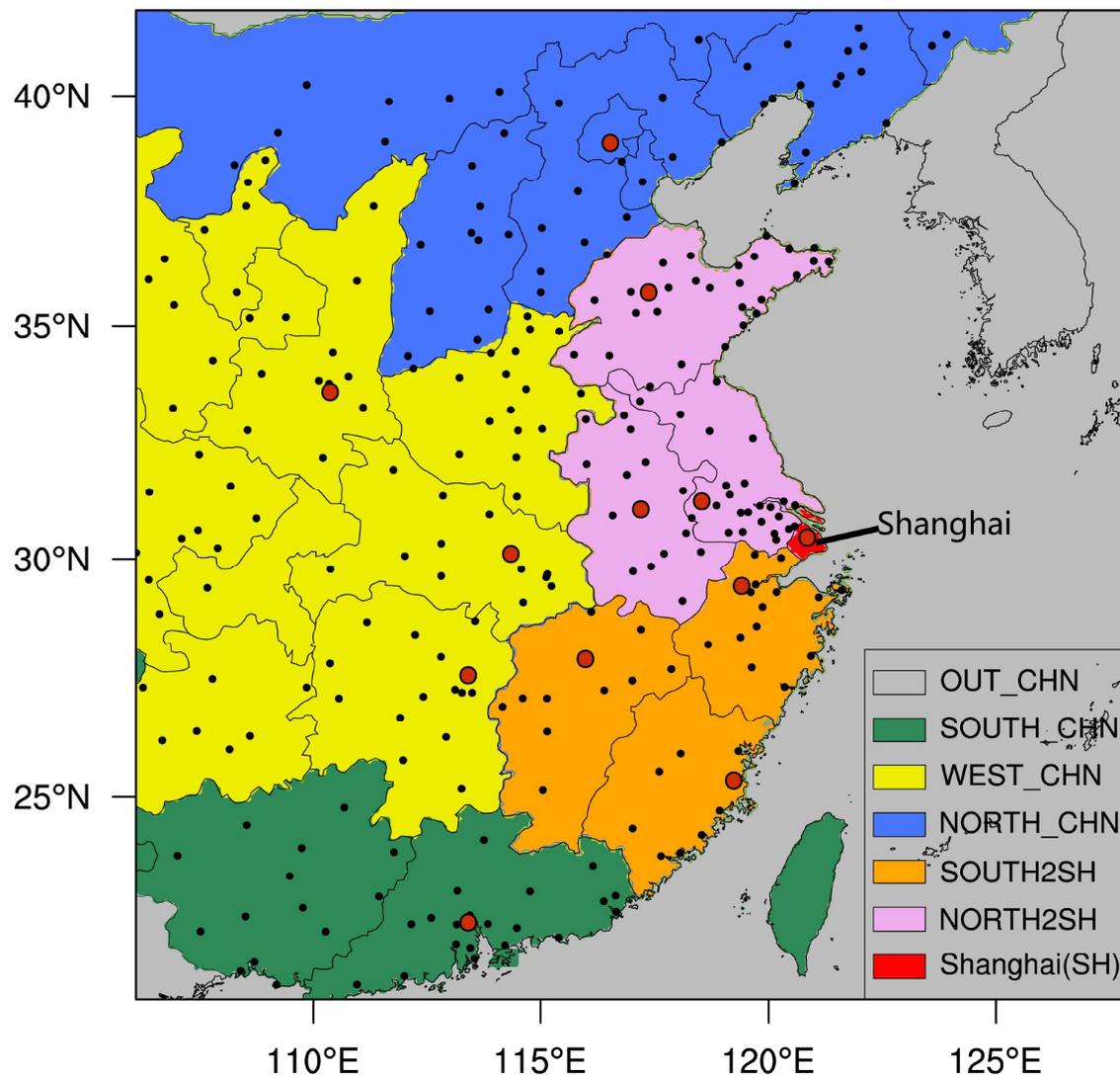
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441 **Table 2.** Sensitivity analysis of emission perturbations in specific regions.

Simulation	Description	Average O <sub>3</sub> (ppbv) In Shanghai <sup>a</sup>	Contribution of sensitivity (%) <sup>b</sup>
<b>BASE</b>	With base emission	91.3	/
<b>SH0.5</b>	50% reduced anthropogenic emission in Shanghai (SH)	80.4	-12
<b>IND0.5</b>	50% reduced industry emission in Shanghai (SH) and SOUTH2SH	82.3	-11
<b>TRA0.5</b>	50% reduced transport emission in Shanghai (SH) and SOUTH2SH	86.3	-6
<b>IND_TRA0.5</b>	50% reduced industry and transport emission in Shanghai (SH) and SOUTH2SH	77.4	-18

442 <sup>a</sup> The O<sub>3</sub> concentration is averaged during daytime (08:00-18:00 LST) from July 27 to August 5  
443 2015.

444 <sup>b</sup> Contribution =  $\frac{Sensitivity-BASE}{BASE} \times 100\%$



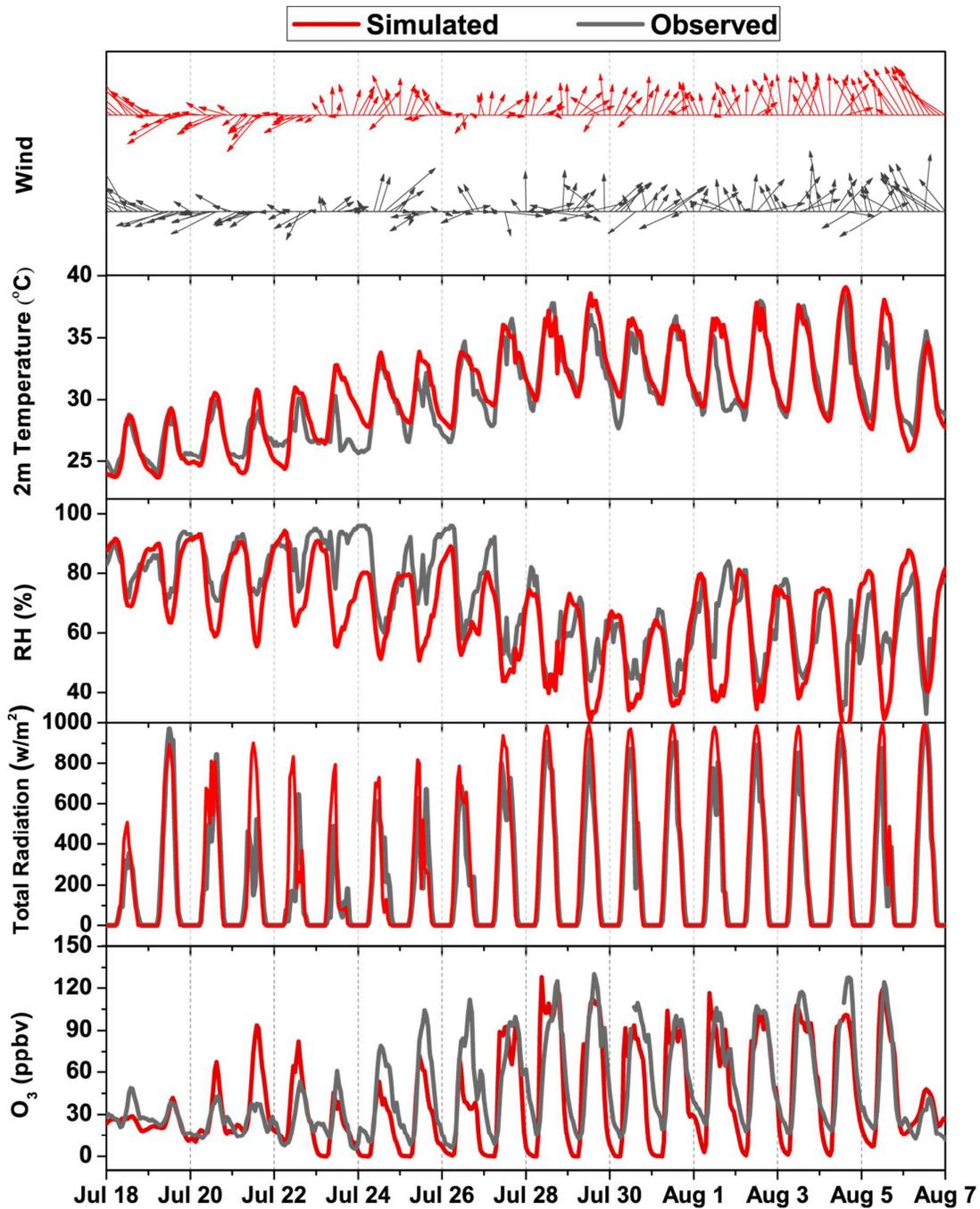
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447 **Fig. 1.** Model domain showing the sub-division into separate areas for geographic source

448 apportionment (shaded) and surface observation sites (black dot), and the red dots are the selected

449 cities for scatterplot.

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452 **Fig. 2.** Comparison of hourly time-series for simulated (red) and observed (gray) wind, 2-m

453 temperature, relative humidity, total radiation and ozone concentration at Shanghai station from

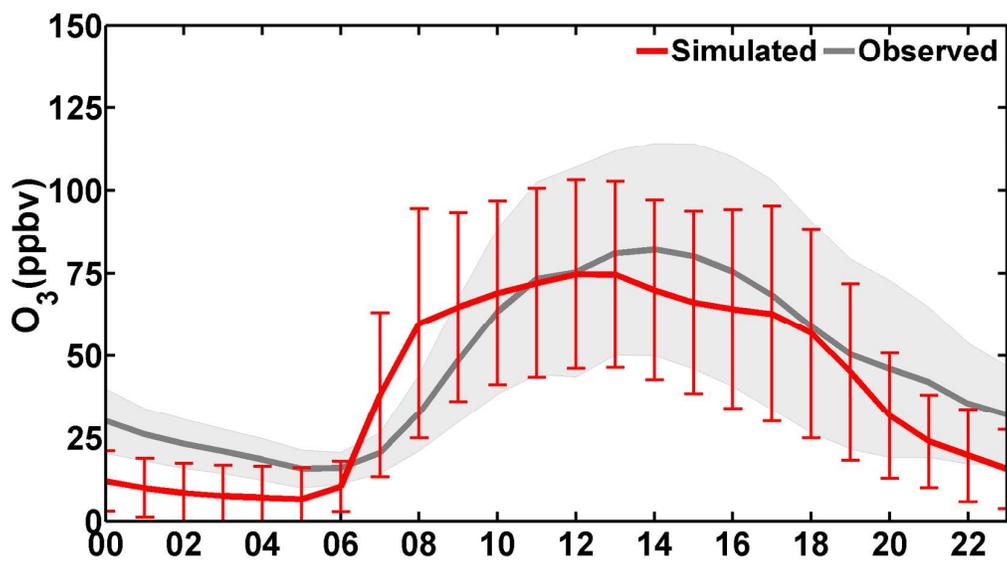
454 18 July to 7 August 2015.

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460 **Fig. 3.** Comparison of the diurnal cycle of simulated and observed O<sub>3</sub> at Shanghai station from

461 July 27 to August 5, 2015. Error bars (lines for simulation, shaded for observation) show the

462 standard deviation for each hour.

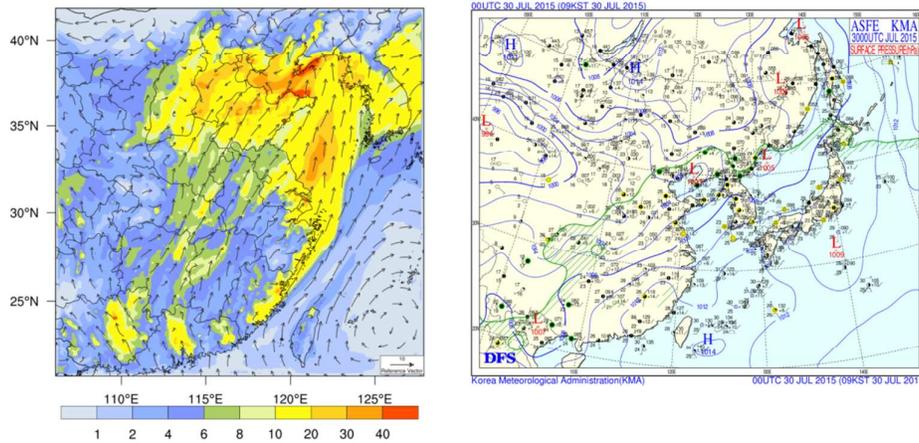
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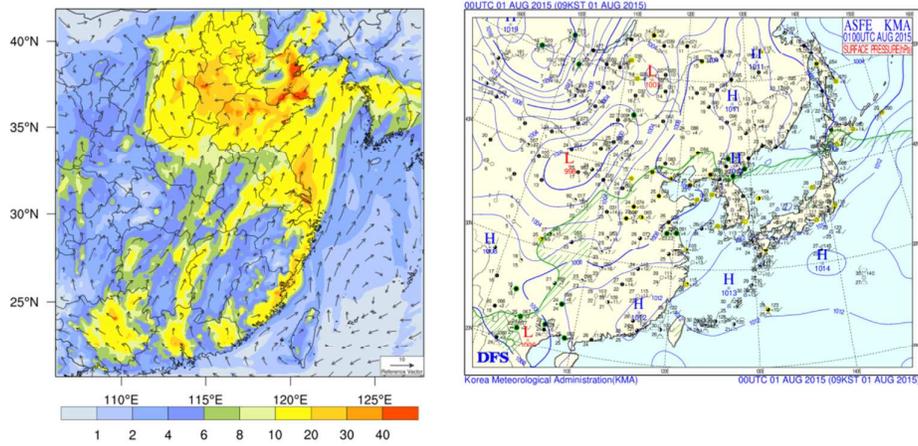
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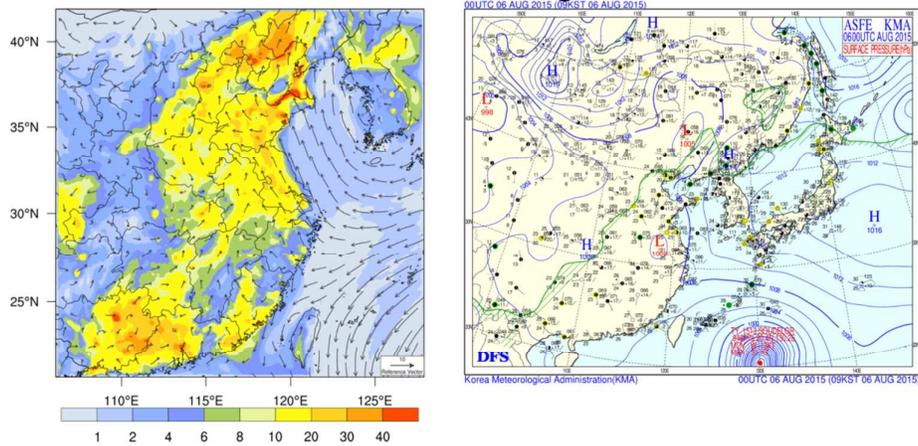
(a) 08:00LST, 30 July



(b) 08:00LST, 1 August



(c) 08:00LST, 6 August



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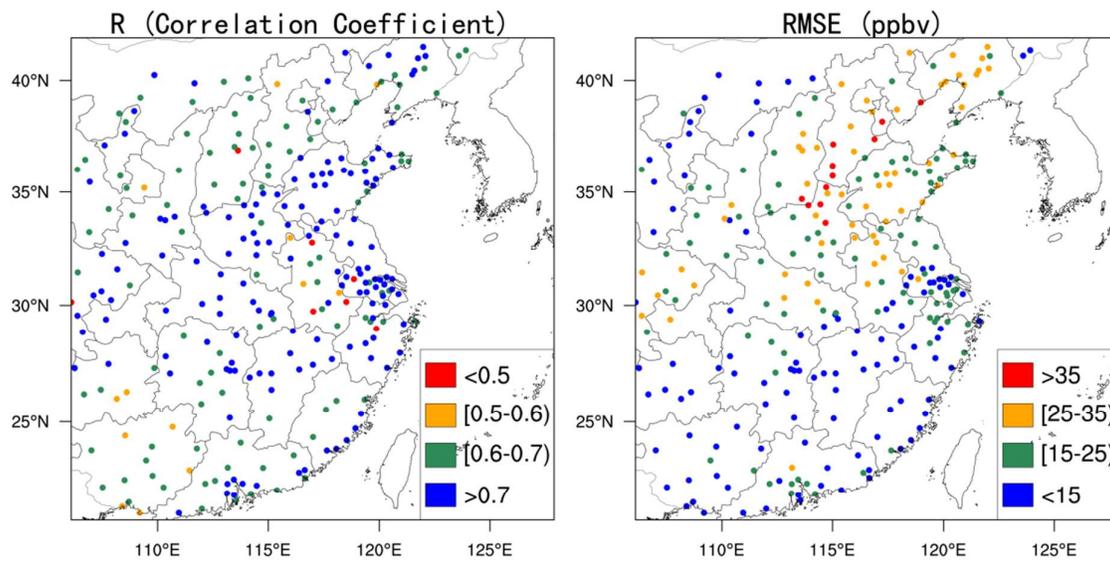
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**Fig. 4.** Simulated wind (left) and surface synoptic charts (right, <http://web.kma.go.kr/chn/weather/images/analysischart.jsp>) at 08:00 LST on 30 July, 1 August and 6 August 2015. Daytime averaged (08:00-18:00 LST) simulated ozone concentration (shaded) are also plotted on the left.

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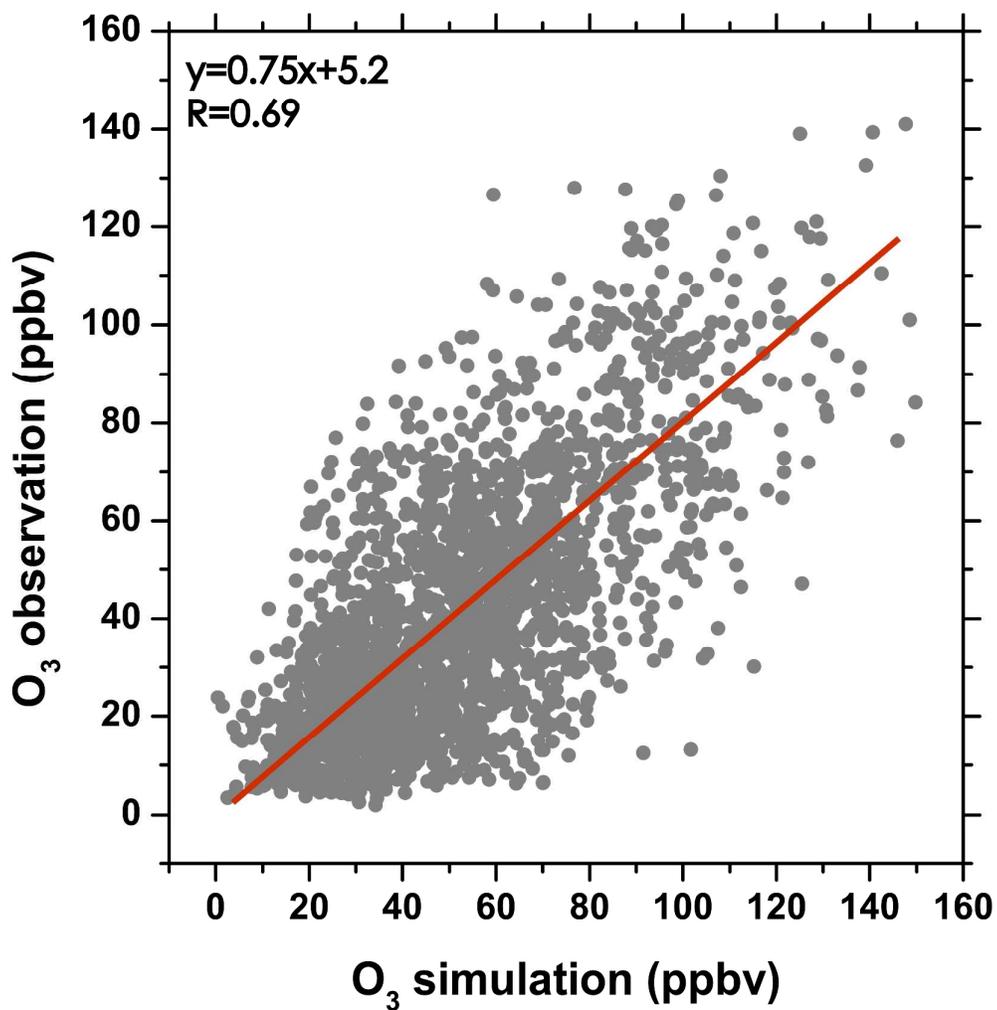


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476 **Fig. 5.** Spatial patterns of correlation coefficients (R) and root mean square errors (RMSE) for

477 ozone between 00:00LST 18 July and 00:00LST 7 August.

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480 **Fig. 6.** Scatterplot of observed and simulated O<sub>3</sub> for daytime (08:00 – 18:00 LST) in the selected

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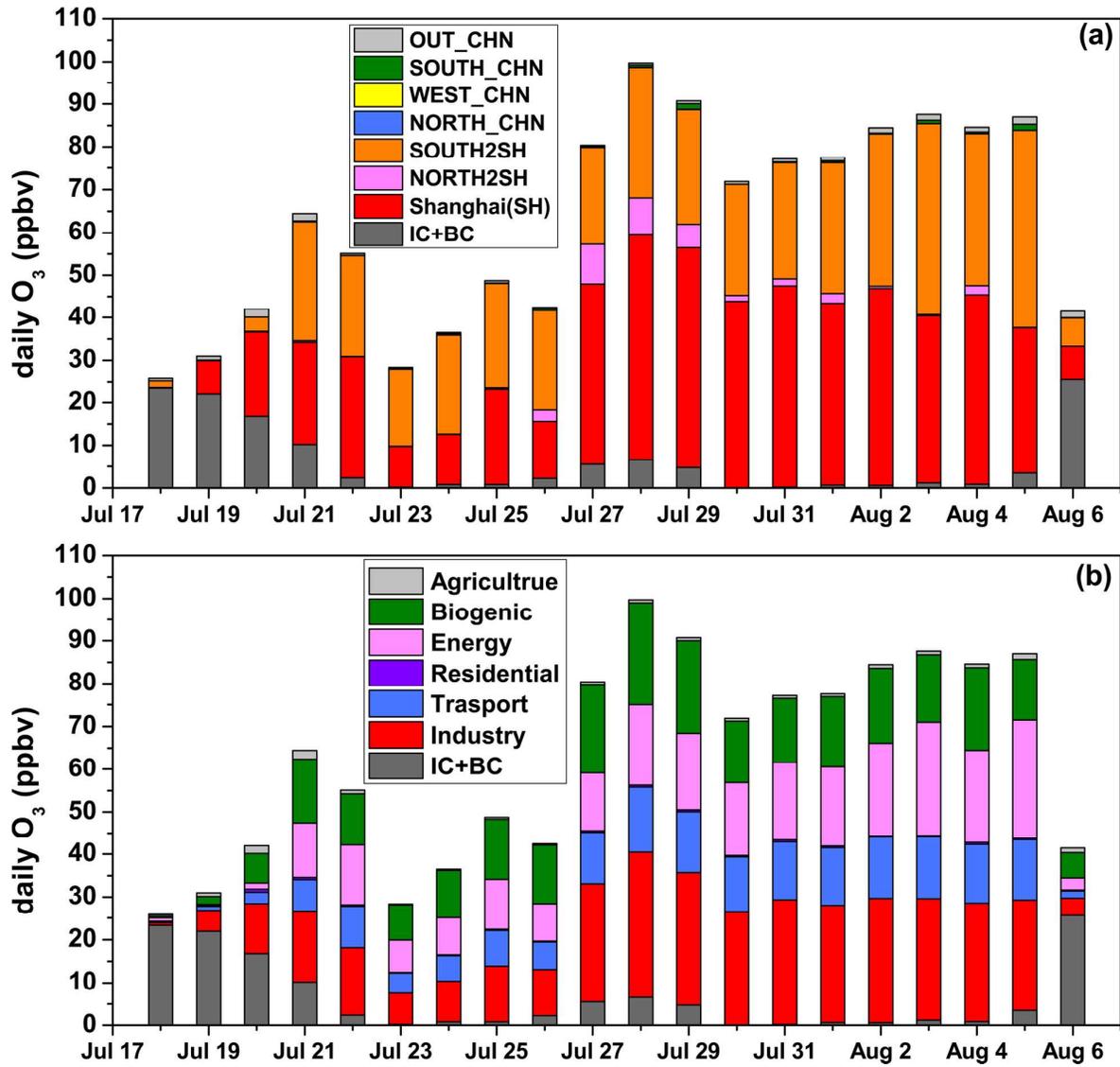
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491 **Fig. 7.** Daytime-average (08:00 – 18:00 LST) O<sub>3</sub> contributions for Shanghai area from (a)

492 different source regions, and (b) different source categories for grid cells corresponding to the

493 observation sites in Shanghai. Note that the colors of the source regions are consistent with map  
494 in Fig. 1.

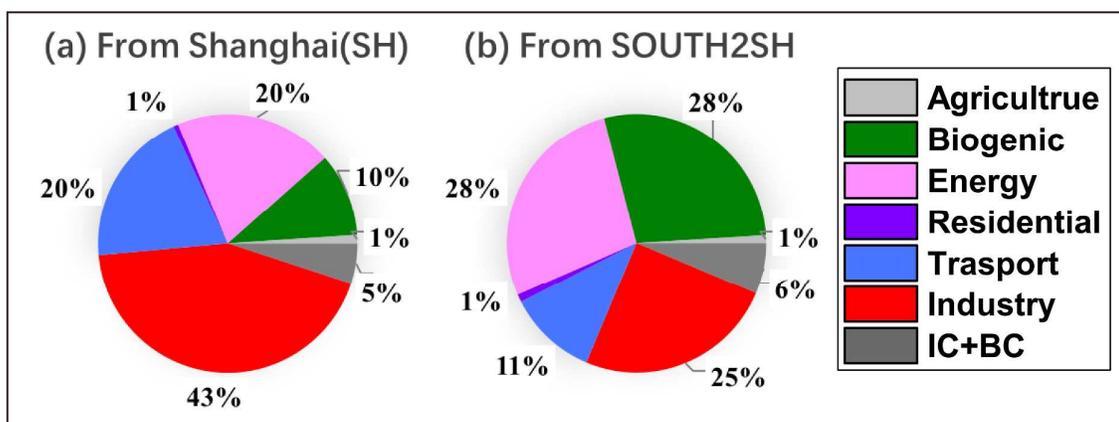
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501 **Fig. 8.** O<sub>3</sub> source apportionment for Shanghai area by emission category from (a) Shanghai (SH)

502 and (b) the SOUTH2SH region averaged for the episode period (daytime (08:00 – 18:00 LST)

503 from July 27 to August 5) in grid cells corresponding to the observation sites in Shanghai. Note

504 that the colors of the source categories are consistent with Fig. 7.

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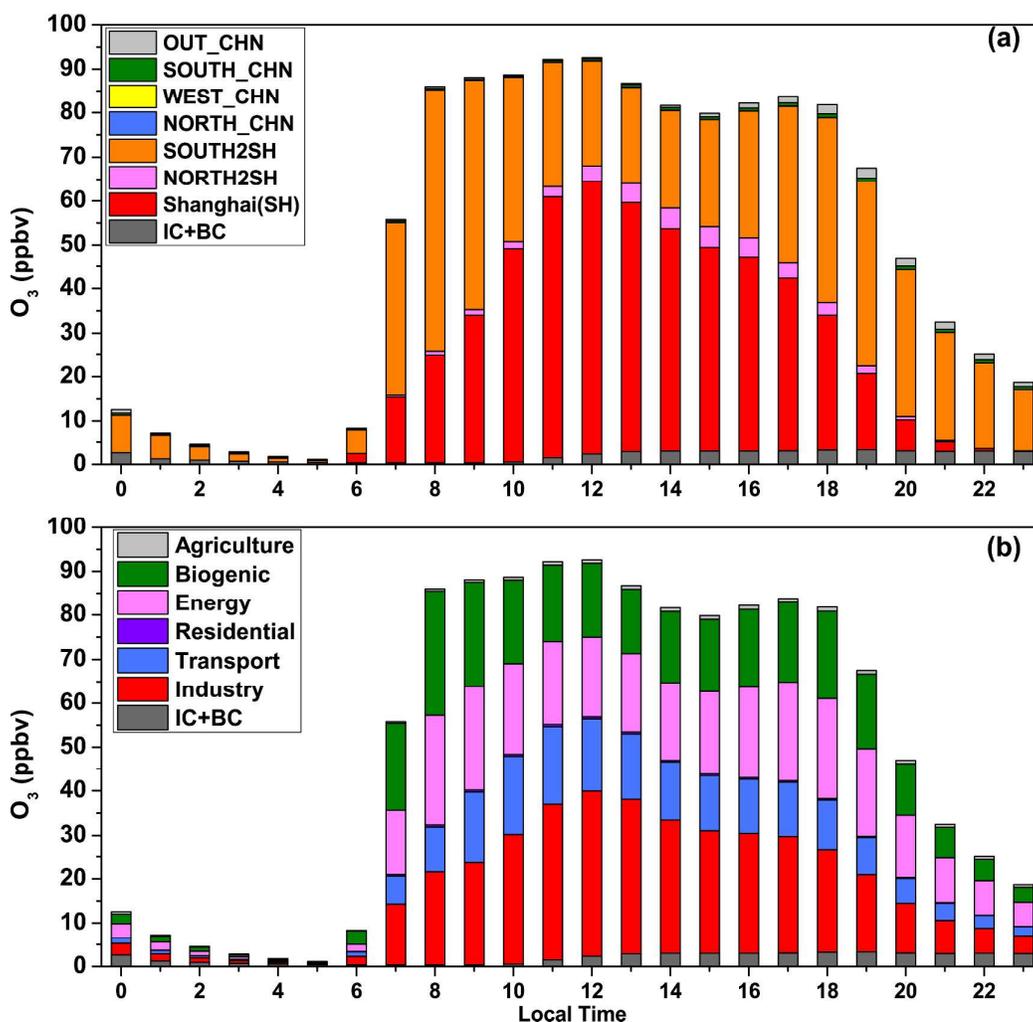
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512 **Fig. 9.** Average diurnal  $O_3$  contributions for Shanghai area from (a) different source regions, and

513 (b) different source categories during the episode (July 27 0000 LST to August 5 2300 LST) in

514 grid cells corresponding to the observation sites in Shanghai.

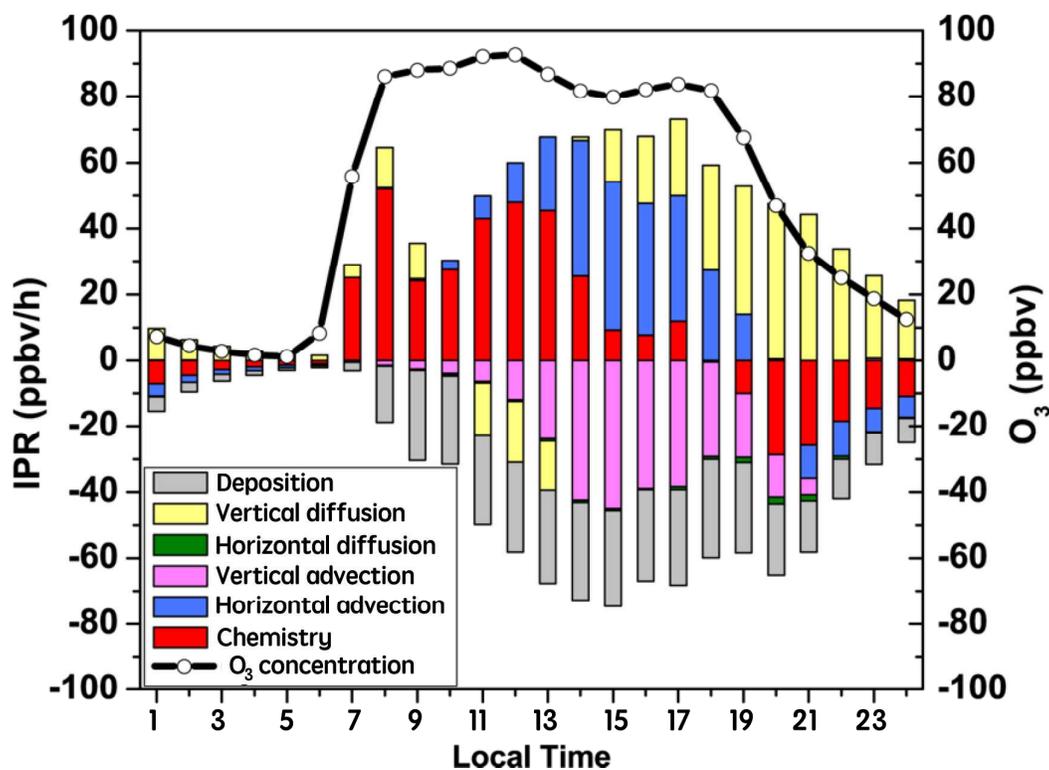
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521 **Fig. 10.** Diurnal profile of O<sub>3</sub> concentration and the impacts of atmospheric processes on O<sub>3</sub> in

522 the surface layer for Shanghai area for the episode period (July 27 0000 LST to August 5 2300

523 LST).

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