¹ Significant increase of surface ozone at a rural site,

² north of eastern China

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13 Abstract

Ozone pollution in eastern China has become one of the top 14 environmental issues. Quantifying the temporal trend of surface ozone 15 helps to assess the impacts of the anthropogenic precursor reductions and 16 the likely effects of emission control strategies implemented. In this 17 paper, ozone data collected at the Shangdianzi (SDZ) Regional 18 Atmospheric Background Station from 2003 to 2015 are presented and 19 analyzed to obtain the variation in the trend of surface ozone in the most 20 polluted region of China, north of eastern China or the North China Plain. 21 A modified Kolmogorov–Zurbenko (KZ) filter method was performed on 22 the maximum daily average 8-h (MDA8) concentrations of ozone to 23 separate the contributions of different factors from the variation of 24 surface ozone and remove the influence of meteorological fluctuations on 25 surface ozone. Results reveal that the short-term, seasonal, and long-term 26 component of ozone account for 36.4%, 57.6%, and 2.2% of the total 27

variance, respectively. The long-term trend indicates that the MDA8 has 1 undergone a significant increase in the period of 2003-2015, with an 2 average rate of 1.13 ± 0.01 ppb/yr (R²=0.92). It is found that 3 meteorological factors did not significantly influence the long-term 4 variation of ozone and the increase may be completely attributed to 5 changes in emissions. Furthermore, there is no significant correlation 6 between the long-term O_3 and NO_2 trends. This study suggests that 7 emission changes in VOCs might have played a more important role in 8 the observed increase of surface ozone at SDZ. 9

10

11 1. Introduction

Tropospheric Ozone (O_3) plays a key role in the oxidizing capacity of 12 the atmosphere (Penkett, 1988) and acts as a greenhouse gas in terms of 13 radiative forcing at the Earth's surface (IPCC, 2013). Moreover, it is an 14 important precursor of the OH radical, hence changes in its abundance 15 can exert indirect radiative forcing by altering the lifetimes of some other 16 greenhouse gases. Tropospheric O_3 originates from photochemical 17 production within the troposphere and the downward transport of 18 stratospheric O₃ (Cooper et al., 2014; Monks et al., 2015). Ground-level 19 O_3 is subject to in-situ chemical reactions and physical processes and is 20 directly affected by precursor emissions, temperature, solar radiation and 21 other meteorological factors. 22

Observations (Oltmans et al., 2006) and model simulations 1 (Hauglustaine and Brasseur, 2003) indicate that ground-level O_3 2 increased distinctly at northern mid-latitudes during the latter half of the 3 20th century, which is qualitatively in agreement with the increasing 4 anthropogenic emissions of precursors. Anthropogenic emissions of O_3 5 precursors have been declining in Europe and North America while 6 increasing in East Asia (Streets et al., 2001, Granier et al., 2011). The 7 largest increase in NO_X (NO + NO₂) emissions is found in China and 8 appears to have continued into the 21st century based on emission 9 inventories (Streets et al., 2001; Richter et al., 2005; Ohara et al., 2007; 10 Mijling et al., 2013; Kurokawa et al., 2013). From 1990 to 2010, surface 11 O_3 in different regions showed inconsistent trends. In the eastern US, 12 surface O_3 was found to decrease strongly in summer, be largely 13 unchanged in spring, and increase in winter, while O₃ increases in the 14 western US were the strongest in spring (Monks et al., 2015). In East 15 Asia, surface O₃ was generally found to be increasing (Cooper et al., 16 2014). For example, ground-level O_3 in the Northeast Asian region, e.g. 17 Japan (Lee et al., 1998) and Hong Kong (Chan et al., 2004; Wang et al., 18 2009) increased significantly from the 1990s to 2000s. Enhanced 19 variability of surface O₃, particularly an increasing trend in the monthly 20 highest 5% of the ozone mixing ratios, was reported for the Yangtze 21 River Delta region in eastern China (Xu et al., 2008). 22

Dynamic factors may contribute to the long-term variations of surface 1 O_3 . For example, the long-term increase of surface O_3 was found to be 2 related to the variability in the stratosphere-to-troposphere transport of O_3 3 (Ordonez et al., 2007; Hess and Zbinden, 2013; Lin et al., 2015a) and 4 changes in transport patterns (Pausata et al., 2012). Decadal circulation 5 shifts played a key role in the autumnal ozone increase and the absence 6 of spring ozone change measured at Mauna Loa Observatory (3.4 km 7 altitude) over the subtropical Pacific Ocean in the period of 1974-2012 8 (Lin et al., 2014). However, some studies (Brown-Steiner and Hess 2011; 9 Parrish et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2012; Oltmans, et al., 2013; Derwent et al., 10 2015; Verstraeten et al., 2015) attribute the increase of O_3 in some areas 11 mainly to the transport of O_3 and related pollutants from the continental 12 China, where the emissions of O_3 precursors (NO_X and VOC) has 13 steadily increased (Ohara et al., 2007; Kurokawa et al., 2013). Studies by 14 Lin et al. (2015b) indicate that mean springtime ozone level over western 15 North America in the most recent decade has increased by 5.9 ± 2.1 ppbv 16 compared to the 1980s, which could be attributed in part to rising Asian 17 ozone precursor emissions and global methane. Because of increasing 18 emissions of O₃ precursors due to the sustained economic growth in 19 China (Zhang et al., 2007), fueled by favorable photochemical conditions, 20 China has likely being experiencing severe photochemical pollution. Due 21 to his industrialization, increases are expected in some regions. Indeed, 22

limited studies have indicated this is indeed the case. Ding et al. (2008) 1 analyzed O₃ data from the MOZAIC (Measurement of Ozone and Water 2 Vapor by Airbus In-Service Aircraft) program and obtained a 2%/yr rate 3 of increase in the daytime O_3 in the lower troposphere over Beijing and 4 its surrounding areas for the period of 1995-2005. Xu et al. (2011) 5 analyzed the TOR (Tropospheric Ozone Residue) data over the period 6 1979-2005 and found a significant upward trend in tropospheric O_3 over 7 the North China Plain for all seasons except for winter, with a maximum 8 rate of increase of 1.10 DU per decade for summer. Wang et al. (2009) 9 found that surface O_3 at a regional station in Hong Kong increased at an 10 average rate of 0.58 ppb/yr from 1994 to 2007 and they associated the 11 12 trend with an increase in tropospheric NO₂.

Information regarding the trends in surface O_3 concentrations in the 13 different regions of China, particularly those with high anthropogenic 14 emissions rates, is urgently needed. Due to a lack of long-term 15 observations, it is difficult to gain reliable results about the long-term 16 trends of surface O₃ in various regions of China. Recently, the long-term 17 trend of surface O_3 in western China was reported by Xu et al. (2015), 18 based on the observations at the Mt. Waliguan baseline station. So far, 19 there has been no report of changes of surface O₃ levels in highly 20 polluted eastern China during the recent decade. In this paper, we present 21 trends in surface O_3 in the North China Plain, based on the measurements 22

from a rural site. The relative contributions of meteorological factors and
anthropogenic emissions are investigated, which provide a further insight
into the potential causes of the observed trend of surface O₃.

4 2. Data and methods

5 2.1 Site and measurements

Surface O₃ and ancillary data were collected at the Shangdianzi (SDZ, 6 40.65 N, 117.10 E, 293.3m a.s.l.) station. SDZ is one of the regional 7 Global Atmosphere Watch (GAW) stations, located about 100 km 8 northeast of suburban of Beijing. The 30 km radius surrounding the site 9 contains only small villages with a sparse population and insignificant 10 anthropogenic emission sources. The observation facilities are situated 11 12 on the south slope of a hill, which is surrounded by mountainous areas except in the southwest sector. Fruit trees and corn are grown in the 13 fields surrounding the site. Previous studies (Lin et al., 2008; Xu et al., 14 2009) suggest that the observations of pollutants at SDZ reflect the 15 regional scale air quality of North China. 16

The maximum daily average 8-h (MDA8) concentrations of O_3 were calculated from hourly averages of O_3 from October 2003 to June 2015 and are used in the following analysis. To facilitate the analysis, ambient NO₂ concentration and temperature measured at SDZ in the surface layer during the same time period were processed to obtain daily averages. Details of the observations and the quality assurance and quality control 1 (QA/QC) procedures were described by Lin et al. (2008).

2 2.2 Analysis methods

It is well known that meteorology plays an important role in ozone 3 formation and transport. Ground-level ozone concentrations are strongly 4 influenced by fluctuations of meteorological parameters. Therefore, it is 5 difficult to distinguish the trend of ozone related to the change in 6 emissions from that related to meteorological impacts. In order to filter 7 out or minimize the influence of meteorology on ozone levels, a method 8 called Kolmogorov-Zurbenko (KZ) filter (Rao and Zurbenko, 1994) is 9 used to separate data into short-term, seasonal, and long-term variations. 10 The KZ filter is based on an iterative moving average that removes high 11 12 frequency variations in the data. The method is briefly described below.

The KZ(*m*,*n*) filter is defined as *n* applications of a moving average
of *m* points. The moving average can be expressed as

15
$$Y_{i} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=-k}^{k} X_{i+j},$$
 (1)

where m=2k+1, and the calculated Y_i becomes the input for the second pass, and so on.

Data filtered by the KZ filter preserve information related to physical processes, whereas data treated by some other techniques may remove unwanted information but at the same time distort phenomena of interest. Eskridge et al. (1997) compared the KZ filter method with several others, such as wavelet transform, anomalies, etc. and demonstrated that the KZ

filter has the same level of accuracy as the wavelet transform method. In 1 addition, the magnitude of the long-term trend estimated by the KZ filter 2 provides estimates with approx. 10 times higher confidence than the 3 other methods. However, the width moving average (m) of the KZ filter 4 with wide windows will dampen sharp breaks of variations. Based on the 5 KZ filter, an adaptive filter was developed by Zurbenko et al. (1996), 6 which dynamically adjusts the width of *m* according to the rate of change 7 of the process. As the rate of change increases, the m decreases. The 8 modified KZ filter method is applied in this paper. More details on this 9 method can be found in Zurbenko et al. (1996). 10

Rao et al. (1997) developed a method to separate different phenomena present in time series of both meteorological and ozone data, which have different characteristics such as long-term and short-term variations. Following the method, it is assumed that the time series of ozone can be partitioned as

16
$$O(t) = W(t) + S(t) + e(t),$$
 (2)

where O(t) is the original time series, W(t) is the meso-scale and synoptic-scale variation, S(t) is the seasonal change, e(t) is the long-term (trend) component. Rao et al. (1997) found that when $KZ_{15,5}$ and $KZ_{365,3}$ filters are applied to the raw data, several influences could be removed and the actual variation of ozone at different scales would be obtained. W(t), S(t) and e(t) can be calculated using the following formulae.

1
$$W(t) = O(t) - KZ_{15,5},$$
 (3)

2
$$S(t) = KZ_{15,5} - KZ_{365,3},$$
 (4)

$$e(t) = KZ_{365,3}$$
 (5)

4 The Rao et al. (1997) method was implemented in this work.

5 3. Results and discussion

3

6 **3.1 General characteristics of yearly ozone distribution**

Yearly MDA8 statistics were calculated for 2004-2015 and are 7 presented in Fig. 1. Since the ozone observation at SDZ commenced in 8 October 2003, no reliable yearly MDA8 statistics can be obtained. It is 9 noted that data from 2015 cover only the first 6 months. Although only 10 the first 6 months records in 2015 are used for the statistics, the 11 maximum of the MDA8 values in this year exceeded 160 ppb, only 12 second to that in 2012. The yearly average of MDA8 varied from 49.3 13 ppb to 60.2 ppb during 2004-2014, with a highly significant positive 14 trend (1.05 ± 0.14 ppb/yr, R=0.93, P<0.0001). We also observed a similar 15 fluctuation of the median value within the range of 43.3 ppb to 53.0 ppb, 16 with a positive trend (0.62 ± 0.20 ppb/yr, R=0.72, P<0.05) from 2004 to 17 2014. The MDA8 level was relatively stable during 2004-2006, with a 18 maximum approx. 120 ppb. However, the annual maximum value 19 exhibited a dramatic increase from 123 ppb in 2006 to 165 ppb in 2015. 20 This increase coincided with an increase of in the size of the vehicle fleet 21

in eastern China. For example, in Beijing, the number of registered 1 vehicles was 2.30 million in 2004, 2.88 million in 2006, 4.81 million in 2 2010, 5.60 million 2014 3 and in (http://www.bjjtgl.gov.cn/jgj/ywsj/index.html). Both the maximum O₃ 4 value and the vehicle number increased dramatically in the period 5 2004-2015. Nevertheless, it is not possible to derive a reliable long-term 6 trend in the median or maximum value solely from the data shown in Fig. 7 1. Nor can we directly attribute the observed changes in surface O_3 to the 8 increase in vehicles. 9

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3.2 Ozone time series separated by KZ filter

Ozone time series (MDA8 value) from the SDZ site was separated 11 12 using the method described in section 2.2. Fig. 2 shows the original time series of MDA8 values (Fig. 2a) and the time series of the separated short 13 term, seasonal and long-term components (Figs. 2b-2d). The original 14 MDA8 exhibits a distinct seasonal variation, with an overlapping of high 15 frequency noises (Fig. 2a). Removing the short-term component (Fig. 2b) 16 leads clearer seasonal cycles shown in Fig. 2c. As can be seen in Fig. 2c, 17 there are evident double peaks of ozone during summer in each year, 18 which are not so obvious in the original time series (Fig. 2a). Generally, 19 the double peaks occur in June and September respectively, and the dip 20 in between occurs in July or August when relatively abundant rainfall 21 damps ozone formation and accumulation. Under the influence of the 22

summer Asian monsoon, rainfall in July and August at SDZ can amount 1 to more than 40% of the annual rainfall. Fig. 2c also demonstrates some 2 irregularities in the seasonal cycle, particularly the year-to-year changes 3 in the levels of annual maximum, annual minimum, and the dip between 4 the double peaks. The seasonal fluctuations have to be accurately 5 removed to get the long-term trend, as data for the trend analysis are 6 required to be independent of season and normally distributed. The 7 short-term component (Fig. 2b) showed high frequency variations, 8 ranging between -60 ppb and 70 ppb, which are composed of noise (or 9 fluctuation) caused by meso-scale and synoptic-scale meteorological 10 processes. Synoptic-scale events have a timescale from 2 days to 3 weeks, 11 which could be removed by smoothing with the KZ filter for a window 12 size of 15 days and 5 iterations. To further illustrate the short-term 13 component, a quantile-quantile (QQ) plot of W(t) is presented in Fig. 3. 14 The QQ plot indicates that W(t) basically obeys a normal distribution, 15 with a mean value of 0.002 ppb, suggesting that the $KZ_{15,5}$ filter 16 effectively removed W(t) from O(t). 17

Through the previous steps and using the formulae (2)-(5), we obtained the long-term trend of MDA8 at SDZ, as shown in Fig. 2d. This long-term trend reveals a rapid increase of the daily high value of surface ozone at the SDZ site in the last decade. It is noteworthy that the increase is not at a stable rate but with large inter-annual variations. Linear regression (not shown) indicates that the average increase rate during 20004-2015 was 1.13 ± 0.01 ppb/yr (r² = 0.92). Previous work by Ding et al. (2008) using MOZAIC data obtained a yearly increase of 2% (about 1 ppb/yr) of O₃ in the boundary layer around Beijing in the period of 1995-2005, which agrees well with our result. Therefore, the greater Beijing area, probably the North China Plain, has been suffering a rapid ozone increase for the last two decades.

In view of the air pollution problems, the central government of 8 China issued a revised National Ambient Air Quality Standard 9 (CNAAQS, GB 3095-2012) in 2012, which has taken effect across the 10 country since 1 January 2016 and sets the MDA8 O_3 limits to 100 μ g/m³ 11 (46.7 ppb) and 160 μ g/m³ (74.7 ppb) for national reserve areas and 12 residence/commercial areas, respectively. As can be seen in Fig. 2a, O_3 13 exceedance would be quite often in the warm seasons if the new 14 CNAAQS had been implemented. 15

We also examined the contributions of different components to the total variance of MDA8, which was calculated from the unfiltered data. The contributions of the short-term and seasonal components to the total variance are about 36.4% and 57.6%, respectively. The long-term component accounts for only 2.2% of the total variance. The covariance terms sum to less than 4% of the total variance, indicating an effective separation of different components. The long-term component makes only a much smaller contribution than the other two components,
confirming the necessity to clearly separate the short-term and seasonal
variations from the data to obtain the long-term trend.

4 **3.3 Cause analysis**

The long-term trend of the ozone concentration can be caused by the 5 changes of both pollutant emissions and related meteorological variables. 6 Climate variability and circulation shifts may lead to long-term changes 7 of O₃ as discussed in Lin et al. (2014, 2015a, 2015b). To assess the 8 influence of precursor emissions on the ozone trend, the meteorological 9 chemical impacts have to be separated. However, both and 10 meteorological and chemical impacts are complicated, not to mention the 11 12 interactions among meteorology, precursor emissions, and photochemical reactions. Therefore, a clear separation of meteorological and chemical 13 impacts is hardly possible purely based on observational data. 14 Nevertheless, apportionment of the O₃ trend to precursor emissions and 15 other causes are worthy of further study. 16

many meteorological variables Although can influence the 17 photochemical formation of O_3 , temperature is the prevailing one. The 18 increase of temperature can speed up the photochemical reactions, 19 strengthen the emissions of biogenic VOCs, and reduce wind speed, etc. 20 (Lin et al., 2001; NRC, 1991; Pusede et al., 2015). In certain regions, 21 temperature is also closely related to the intensity of solar radiation, 22

which plays a critical role in the photochemical formation of O_3 . Thus, 1 we took temperature as a key meteorological parameter and investigated 2 the relationship between O_3 and temperature, with the hope to obtain the 3 influence of emission changes on the long-term trend of O_3 . The initial 4 step was to divide the time series of temperature into three components in 5 formula (2), just as done for that of MDA8 (Fig.2). The results of the 6 different components of temperature are given in Fig. 4. Unlike the trend 7 of MDA8 of O₃, the long-term component for temperature at SDZ shows 8 a slight decrease trend $(R^2=0.015)$ (Fig. 4d) and this long-term 9 component accounts only for 0.16% of the total variance of temperature. 10

The unfiltered data of O_3 and temperature are less correlated 11 $(R^2=0.50, P<0.0001)$, presumably due to the strong influence of the 12 short-term component. Fig. 5 compares the derived seasonal cycles of the 13 daily mean temperature (from Fig. 4c) and the MDA8 of O₃ (from Fig. 14 2c). A similarity is evident between both seasonal cycles. However, there 15 is also a distinct phase lag of the seasonal cycle between O_3 and 16 temperature, due to the influence of other processes on the O₃ level. Rao 17 et al. (1995) found a similar phase lag of about 3 weeks in the data from 18 the northeastern United States. In our case, the linear correlation between 19 O_3 and temperature becomes the strongest ($R^2=0.83$, P<0.0001) when the 20 temperature data are lagged by 17 days (Fig. 6). 21

22

When only considering the influence of temperature, the seasonal-

and long-term components of O_3 could account for 93% of the total 1 variance at the Cliffside Park, New Jersey (Rao and Zurbenko, 1994). 2 While in our case, it just accounts for 83% (see R^2 in Fig. 6). We tried to 3 add more meteorological factors that could affect O_3 production, such as 4 solar radiation, relative humidity. However, the correlation was only 5 improved by no more than 0.5%. This implies that the changes in 6 emissions might have a more important influence on surface O₃ at SDZ 7 than that at Cliffside Park. This view is consistent with the rapid 8 increases in anthropogenic emissions in China (particularly the North 9 China Plain) during the last decade (Mijling et al., 2013). 10

Assuming that the residual of the total variance of O_3 after subtracting the contribution related with temperature was all caused by pollutant emissions, the long-term trend of O_3 , attributable to changes in emissions, can be determined by performing a linear regression between time and the noise-free, temperature-independent O_3 values (ϵ (t)), which are derived using function (6).

$$O_{kz}(t) = aT_{kz}(t+17) + b + \varepsilon(t)$$
 (6)

where $O_{kz}(t)$ is the filtered O_3 concentration, $T_{kz}(t+17)$ is the filtered temperature lagged by 17 days, *a* and *b* are fitted parameters, $\varepsilon(t)$ is the residual of the relationship. Here, $\varepsilon(t)$ reveals the changes in ozone attributable to changes in emissions.

22 Fig. 7 shows the time series of the noise-free and

temperature-independent O₃, which is basically equal to the long-term 1 component of O₃ only under the influence of emission changes. Most of 2 the data in Fig. 7 are within a 95% confidence interval band except for 3 some special cases in the summer months. In summer, temperature is not 4 the dominant restricting factor for O_3 production compared to other 5 factors, such as rainfall and precursor concentrations. Substantial 6 negative influences occurring in 2005 and 2006 can be explained by 7 stronger impact of Asian summer monsoon on surface O₃ (Lin et al., 8 2008). The results in Fig. 7 indicate that the influence of emission has 9 been varying substantially but with an average increase rate of $1.19\pm$ 10 0.03 ppb/yr. This increase rate is very close to the average long-term 11 12 trend of MDA8 of O₃ (1.13 \pm 0.01 ppb/yr) in Fig. 2d, implying that the increase of O_3 in the period of 2003-2015 could be mainly attributed to 13 the emission changes and the meteorological factors had only a tiny 14 negative influence. Jaffe and Ray (2007) also found that the temperature 15 change had little influence on long-term ozone trends in the western US. 16

Some studies suggested that the trends of surface O_3 at the similar latitude as SDZ could be attributed partly to the reduced titration by NO (Chou et al., 2006; Itano et al., 2007). In order to assess the effect of changing NO titration on the long-term trend of O_3 , we examined the long-term measurements of NO₂ at SDZ in the period of 2004-2015. A comparison of the long-term trend of O_3 with that of NO₂, which was

1	also extracted using the previous methods, is displayed in Fig. 8. The
2	evolution of the NO ₂ trend can be divided into three stages, i.e., a
3	substantial decrease of NO ₂ occurring during the first 3 years, followed
4	by a small increase in the period of 2007-2010, and finally a gradual
5	decrease in the period of 2011-2015. The large decrease of NO_2 in the
6	period of 2004-2006 corresponded to the control of coal consumption
7	around Beijing, especially for the Olympic Games in 2008 (Zhang et al.,
8	2010; Gao et al., 2011) and to the relocation of the Capital Steel and Iron
9	Company, which was one of the largest industrial sources in Beijing. The
10	NO_2 increase from 10.2 ppb to 13.5 ppb between 2007 and 2010
11	corresponded with the rapid increase in the number of vehicles in Beijing
12	from 3.1 million to 4.8 million
13	(http://www.bjjtgl.gov.cn/jgj/ywsj/index.html). From 2011 to 2015, the
14	new standard for vehicle emissions and measures for reduction of $\ensuremath{\text{NO}_{X}}$
15	emission from power plants were implemented, which may have helped
16	to reduce the NO_2 concentration. The long-term trends of O_3 and NO_2
17	given in Fig. 7 do not show any coincidence. Therefore, it is nearly
18	
10	impossible that the reduced NO titration had led to the increase of surface
19	impossible that the reduced NO titration had led to the increase of surface O_3 at SDZ. Previous studies (Ge et al., 2010; Ge et al., 2012) showed that
20	impossible that the reduced NO titration had led to the increase of surface O_3 at SDZ. Previous studies (Ge et al., 2010; Ge et al., 2012) showed that the ozone production efficiency at SDZ varied in from 0.2 to 21.1, with
20 21	impossible that the reduced NO titration had led to the increase of surface O ₃ at SDZ. Previous studies (Ge et al., 2010; Ge et al., 2012) showed that the ozone production efficiency at SDZ varied in from 0.2 to 21.1, with an average of 4.9, implying that ozone formation at SDZ could be more

of VOCs emissions and the ratio VOCs/NOx might have caused the 1 increase of surface O₃ observed at SDZ. Unfortunately, no systematic 2 VOC observations are available from the SDZ site so that we cannot 3 prove this supposition conclusive. However, a large increase in the 4 anthropogenic emissions of non-methane hydrocarbon (NMHC) can be 5 inferred from the Multiresolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) 6 (http://www.meicmodel.org) for Beijing in the period of 2004-2012, 7 which supports our view, although the emission data are questioned by a 8 recent study (Wang et al., 2015). 9

10 4. Summary

We separated the time series of maximum daily average 8-h (MDA8) 11 12 concentration of surface O_3 observed at SDZ in the period of 2003-2015 into various spectral components using a modified KZ filter. This 13 separation has led to a better understanding of the variation of surface O_3 14 at the site and its relationships with the meteorological and precursor 15 variables, enabling us to unravel the trend of O₃ from the original data 16 containing noises and seasonality, and to estimate the contribution of 17 changes of precursor emissions to the trend. Our analysis reveals that the 18 short-term, seasonal, and long-term components of O₃ data from the SDZ 19 site accounted for 36.4%, 57.6%, and 2.2% of the total variance, 20 respectively. 21

It is found that the MDA8 of O_3 at the site north of eastern China has

undergone a significant increase in the period of 2003-2015, at an 1 average rate of 1.13 ± 0.01 ppb/yr. Together with the reported yearly 2 increase rate of 2% in the lower tropospheric O₃ around Beijing in the 3 period of 1995-2005 (Ding et al., 2008), we conclude that the north part 4 of eastern China (i.e., the North China Plain) may have been suffering a 5 rapid increase in the O₃ level for at least two decades. By eliminating the 6 influence of air temperature, we found that the observed increase of 7 surface O_3 in the period of 2003-2015 was mainly induced by the 8 9 emission changes and the meteorological factors exerted only a tiny negative influence. Our result also indicates that the change of VOCs 10 emissions might have played a more important role in the O3 increase 11 12 than the effect of NO_X .

Because fine particulate pollution has been very severe in eastern China, the central government of China has implemented several measures to control $PM_{2.5}$ Pollution, including reductions of both NOx and VOCs. This, however, risks further O₃ increases as a VOCs/NOx ratio more favorable to ozone production may be reached. Thus, further studies are needed to trace the ozone trend and its influence in eastern China.

- 20 21

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2 Fig 1. Percentile-box plot of yearly statistics of MDA8 values of ozone at SDZ, in the

- 3 period of 2004-2015. Box depicts interquartile range and median; the square depicts
- 4 the mean; whiskers depict 10th and 90th percentile; dot depicts maximum values.



5

6 Fig 2. Separated time series of MDA8 values of ozone at SDZ: (a) the original data;

7 (b) the short-term component, W(t); (c) the seasonal component, S(t); (d) the 8 long-term component, e(t).



2 Fig 3. QQ plot of the short-term component W(t) for ozone.



3 4

Fig 4. Separated time series of daily mean values of temperature at SDZ: (a) the original data; (b) the short-term component, W(t); (c) the seasonal component, S(t);





2 Fig 5. Results of the daily mean temperature and the MDA8 value of ozone after the

application of $KZ_{15,5}$ filter to the original time series. The results indicate the sum of the seasonal and long-term components.



5

- 6 Fig 6. Linear regression fit on the filtered daily maxima of temperature and ozone.
- 7 Temperature data are lagged by 17 days to ozone data.



- 2 Fig 7. Time series of the noise-free and temperature-independent ozone. The red line
- 3 is a linear fit and the blue lines are the 95% confidence prediction band.



4

Fig 8. Long-term trends of NO₂ and the MDA8 ozone value calculated by KZ_{365,3.}