

Dear Prof. Ronald Cohen,

We would like to submit a revision to the manuscript entitled “**Quantitative impacts of meteorology and precursor emission changes on the long-term trend of ambient ozone over the Pearl River Delta, China and implications for ozone control strategy**” (ACP-2019-355.R2) to *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*.

We thank both referees for their positive feedbacks on our manuscript. We did try our best to understand some comments, and provide here a detailed response to all of them. We hope that you would find our response compelling and our revised manuscript meets the quality standard of *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*. We appreciate your consideration of our manuscript, and look forward to receiving further comments from the referees. If you have any queries, please contact me via [zibing@scut.edu.cn](mailto:zibing@scut.edu.cn).

Yours sincerely,

Zibing Yuan

Professor, South China University of Technology

## Response to the Comments from Referee #1

General comments: Ozone ( $O_3$ ), as a criteria air pollutant, is attracting increasing concerns in China due to the rapid rise in concentrations across the country. This paper studied the  $O_3$  pollution in an economically boomed region of China (PRD in southern China), in terms of the meteorological impacts, local contribution and regional transport. The statistical methods were used, with interesting and meaningful results being reported. Basically, the decadal changes of  $O_3$  in PRD were well explained, except for some aspects where further clarifications or reorganizations are needed. Though some of the findings were already known knowledge, the paper further consolidate our understandings and fully demonstrated its value in future  $O_3$  pollution control in this region. Thus, the paper is recommended to be accepted after the following problems are addressed.

1. First, I do not quite agree with the authors' statement of the "conceptual model". Generally, a conceptual model is established based on some phenomena, and is further verified by the results. In this study, I would like to suggest the authors to replace the "conceptual model" with the "discussions" on the results, because I did not see the verification of the "model".

**Response:** According to Pun and Seigneur (1999), a conceptual model is a qualitative compilation of the physical and chemical processes that govern the formation of pollutants, which, to the extent possible, is supported by quantitative information. Conceptual model helps to elucidate pollutant contributions from local and non-local sources and their temporal and spatial variations, and the underlying reasons governing such variations. In this study, we use information about ozone precursor (VOCs and  $NO_x$ ) emissions and their changing trends, ozone formation regimes, and the monsoonal and micro-scale synoptic conditions over different sub-regions of the Pearl River Delta to explain the spatiotemporal variations of modeling object (locally formed  $O_3$  with meteorological adjustment). Therefore, we believe our analysis approach could be called a 'conceptual model'. Good interpretation on the modeling object (locally formed  $O_3$  with meteorological adjustment) both under general conditions and during episodes serves as verification of the applicability of the conceptual model.

**However, to avoid further dispute, we also accept the term 'conceptual diagram' and use it in the revised manuscript. This could be potentially more accurate as major information contributing to our understanding can be well illustrated in a diagram, as shown in Figs. 11 and 12.**

2. Second, the discussions on the  $O_3$  episodes were relatively weak and the trend analyses did not seem to be appropriate for  $O_3$  episodes, due to the limited and inconsistent number of episode days in every years. This section needs to be reorganized and some discussions should be clarified or corrected.

Response: **We agree with the reviewer that the trend analysis might be associated with larger uncertainty than the general conditions due to much smaller number of cases. This point is highlighted in lines 387-390 of the revised manuscript.** However, we do believe the episode analysis is indispensable, as the annual Air Quality Objective for ozone in China is defined as the 90th percentile (high end) of maximum daily 8 h average in a particular year. Trends during ozone episodes are thus more linked with ozone pollution control and management and useful for policy-makers. We consider our results appropriate, as it can be well explained by the conceptual diagram in section 3.6.

Apart from adding alerts of larger uncertainties in lines 387-390, we didn't reorganize this section as the logic here is quite clear. In section 3.5, we present ozone levels during episodes first, followed by their long-term trends with/without meteorological adjustment. Afterwards, with local/non-local separation, we discuss the trends of local and non-local contribution separately. Findings here are well connected with the development of conceptual diagram in section 3.6.

3. Third, the discussions on O<sub>3</sub> pollution in 2016 and 2017 look a bit weird, which should be reorganized.

Response: We try hard to understand why the reviewer feels that the discussions here are weird, and feel it may be owing to the selection of 2016 and 2017 as representative years for analysis. Actually our statistical analysis framework has the capability of quantitatively identify relative contributions of meteorology and local and non-local emissions to ozone contribution in all years at all stations, but we have no place discuss them in detail. Therefore, **selecting only two years is mostly due to the limitation of space of the manuscript. We make our point clearer in line 363-365 of the revised manuscript.** 2016 and 2017 were selected because they are recent years and have shown significant increase in ozone levels. Policy-makers here in the PRD are very interested in the underlying reasons for such a significant increase, under the backdrop of what they believe effective pollution control within the PRD. Our results affirmed their efforts that such a significant increase during 2016 and 2017 is mainly due to changes in meteorology and non-local emissions.

4. Lastly, it will be good if the O<sub>3</sub> distribution, trend and the influencing factors can be discussed separately by seasons. In fact, the increases of springtime O<sub>3</sub> in PRD in recent years were striking, in contrast to the overall unchanged O<sub>3</sub> in summer and autumn. The paper would be more informative with the discussions on O<sub>3</sub> pollution in different seasons and a special focus on the season when O<sub>3</sub> is highest or increasing with the highest rates.

Response: The main point of this paper is to quantitatively examine the impacts of meteorology and precursor emissions from within and outside the PRD on the evolution of ozone during the past decade

by using a statistical analysis framework combining meteorological adjustment and source apportionment and a discussion diagram. Seasonal variations are indeed a very interesting issue but we didn't address in detail here due to the length of the paper. We will investigate it in our further study.

Specific comments:

1. Page 6, line 233-234. What were the reasons of the minor changes in O<sub>3</sub> due to emissions during 2011 - 2015, in contrast to the significant increase before 2011? Throughout the paper, the changes in the meteorological and artificial impacts, especially the turning points of O<sub>3</sub> variations, should be discussed.

Response: According to the PRD emission inventory developed by our research group (Figure S1, also provided as Figure 1 below, manuscript under preparation), increase in VOCs emission started to mitigate in 2011, while NO<sub>x</sub> emissions showed significant reduction starting from 2013. As PRD is generally in a VOC-limited ozone formation regime, reduction in the magnitude of VOCs emission increase is likely responsible for the minor changes in O<sub>3</sub> during 2011-2015. These were added in lines 239-244 in the revised manuscript.

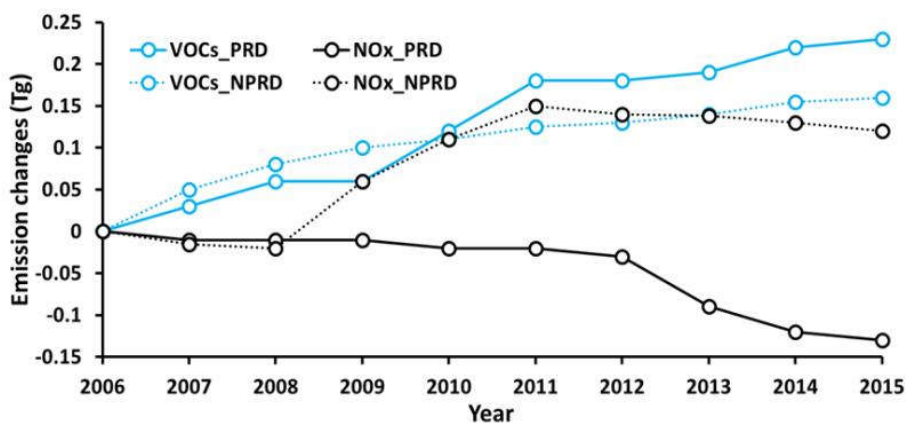


Fig 1. Emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs in the Pearl River Delta during 2006-2016

2. Page 6, lines 236-238. The strong statement must be evidenced. This statement is actually contradictory to the later finding that "meteorological adjustment does not alter ozone concentration much" (page 9, lines 362 – 363) on episode days. Please clarify.

Response: Agree with the reviewer that we cannot draw the conclusion that meteorological condition is "the most" important driving factor. We changed it to "one of the most" in line 248 in the revised manuscript, as it can be clearly evidenced by Fig. 3(b) that ozone spikes were shortened after meteorological adjustment. This indicates that meteorology plays an important role in generating ozone episodes. It should be noted that meteorological adjustment here is against the average meteorological condition during the entire period. In comparison, the meteorological adjustment in the episodic analysis is against the average meteorological condition during episode days. Although the average

meteorological condition varies greatly in different years, that during episodes does not differ much in different years. Therefore, we conclude that “meteorological adjustment does not alter ozone concentration much” on episode days.

3. Page 6, lines 259 – 260. Please briefly explain why central and western PRD were the regions that were most sensitive to meteorological conditions in O<sub>3</sub> pollution?

Response: Generally, area with higher pollutant emission is more sensitive to changes in meteorological condition (Seo et al., 2014). Various studies have shown that central and western PRD is the area with the most intense O<sub>3</sub> precursor (VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions over the PRD (e.g. Zheng et al., 2009a) therefore is more sensitive to meteorological condition. This was added in lines 272-275 in the revised manuscript.

4. Page 7, line 267. “...and that most local emissions are concentrated in the central PRD area”. Add references to support the statement.

Response: We revise this statement as “...and that most local emissions are concentrated in the central and western PRD area”, as shown in lines 281-283 of the revised manuscript. Reference Zheng et al. (2009a) is added in the revision.

5. Page 7, lines 303 – 305. The reasons for picking the three sites should be given. It will be better to plot all the sites in the supplement.

Response: There is a north-south gradient in the spatial distributions of all three principal component loadings, as shown in Fig. 5a. Therefore, we select Tianhu (TH) in the north, Luhu (LH) in central, and Donghu (DH) in the south of PRD to study the long-term trend of ozone contributed by local and non-local emission sources in different areas. Justification on site selection is provided in lines 325-333 of the revised manuscript. Ozone contributions at the other stations were added in Fig. S2 of the supplement.

6. Page 8, lines 349 – 351. Change “strengthening” to “constraining” or “restraining”. Why only VOCs should be controlled? Also, cutting VOCs emissions will not prevent the decrease of NO titration to O<sub>3</sub>. The statements should be more accurate throughout.

Response: Here we are talking about “strengthening local VOC emission control”. There is a “control” at the end of the sentence, therefore we cannot change “strengthening” to “constraining”. In addition, NO titration of O<sub>3</sub> is dependent on VOC/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio. If the ratio is lower, NO titration of O<sub>3</sub> near emission sources would be higher. Therefore, controlling VOCs emission to reduce VOC/NO<sub>x</sub> ratio would to some extent enhance NO titration so as to reduce O<sub>3</sub> level.

7. Page 9, lines 377 – 378. What were the causes of levelling off and decrease of non-local contributions? As commented above, the changes are worth to be discussed, which may relate to the nationwide emission controls.

Response: At this time we are not aware what the exact reason for levelling off and decrease of non-local contribution after 2014. We look at VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> emission inventory over non-PRD area in Guangdong Province developed by our research group (Figure 1). NO<sub>x</sub> emissions decreases and VOCs emissions increases after 2014. As most of the non-PRD area in Guangdong may in a transitional ozone formation regime in an annual average, such a slight change in NO<sub>x</sub> and VOC emissions lead to little changes in O<sub>3</sub> formation and transport into the PRD. We must emphasize that the above argument is simply our speculation and further modeling study is needed to explain such a phenomenon. This point is added in lines 413-415 of the revised manuscript.

8. Page 11, lines 448 – 450. It is most likely that O<sub>3</sub> formation in the northeastern PRD became more limited by NO<sub>x</sub>, however evidences should be provided to prove the shift of O<sub>3</sub> formation regime from VOC-limited to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited in the southwestern.

Response: There is no publication reporting the shift in O<sub>3</sub> formation regime in southwestern PRD, as such a shift mainly occurs in recent years. However, we may speculate such a shift during pollution episodes considering the intense biogenic VOC emissions over southwestern rural area when temperature is high and solar radiation is strong. Jin and Holloway (2015) discovered that O<sub>3</sub> photochemistry is NO<sub>x</sub> limited from April to October and transitional or mixed in other months using satellite observed HCHO/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio. Although there is large uncertainty by using HCHO/NO<sub>2</sub> to infer ozone formation regime, such a trend of shifting to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited regime during ozone episodes is evidenced. This is added in lines 504-508 of the revised manuscript.

9. Page 11, lines 455 – 464. The discussions on O<sub>3</sub> episodes need to be deepened. For example, the winds were not always from the east during O<sub>3</sub> episodes, which in fact were from the northeast with low speeds in most cases under continental anticyclones, and from the northwest with the approaching of tropical cyclones. I do not think that the winds during O<sub>3</sub> episodes can be simplified as easterly, so did the other characteristics which were discussed as an integration in this paper.

Response: In comparison with general conditions, prevailing winds during episodes are more easterly (Figure S6, also provided as Figure 2 below, manuscript under preparation). We are not saying that the winds were always from the east during ozone episodes. Slight shift to northeasterly or southeasterly would not change the conclusion from the conceptual model that southwestern PRD around DH, ZML and TJ stations is a sink region of ozone produced around the Pearl River Estuary, thereby having high ozone levels during episodes. Northwest wind by the approaching of tropical cyclones could bring ozone

episodes to HK and Shenzhen as they are located downwind of central PRD. However, from an entire region point of view, northwest wind during ozone episodes is rather limited.

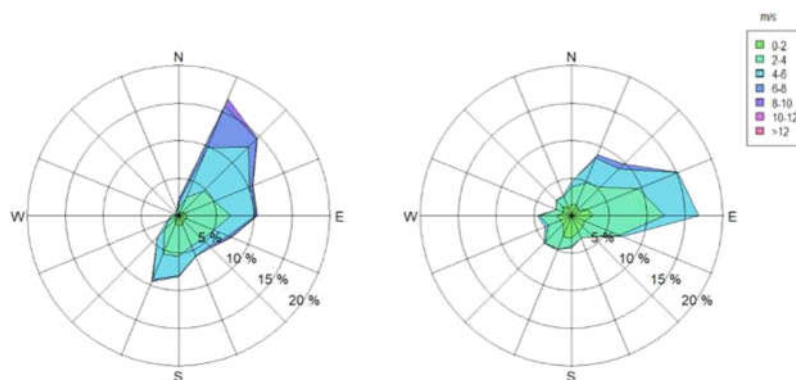


Fig 2. Wind rose under general conditions (left) and during ozone episodes (right) during 2007 and 2017 in the Pearl River Delta.

10. Page 13, lines 529 – 530. The term “optimal effective NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio” needs to be annotated. The optimal ratio in fact means highest O<sub>3</sub> production rates, which is the worst from the angle of O<sub>3</sub> pollution control.

Response: Here we are exactly talking about NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio leading to the highest O<sub>3</sub> concentration. This was modified in lines 520-521 and 570 of the revised manuscript. Our previous publication (Ou et al., 2016) concluded that in the VOC-limited regime, O<sub>3</sub> reduction can be possible in short-term but cannot reduce O<sub>3</sub> into attainment. The only way is to control NO<sub>x</sub> emission so as to change ozone formation regime from VOC-limited to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited. In this process, O<sub>3</sub> concentration would increase slightly in the beginning, and drop significantly after bypassing the turning point with the optimal effective NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio that corresponds with the highest O<sub>3</sub> level.

#### References

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3. Zheng, J., Shao, M., Che, W. W., Zhang, L., Zhong, L., Zhang, Y., and Streets, D.: Speciated VOC emission inventory and spatial patterns of ozone formation potential in the Pearl River Delta, China, *Environmental Science & Technology*, 43, 8580-8586, doi: 10.1021/es901688e, 2009.

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## **Response to the Comments from Referee #2**

The manuscript by Yang et al. describes the quantitatively statistical analysis of meteorology and precursor emissions impacts on ozone evolution in PRD region. The strategy of the analysis is clear and the manuscript has been relatively well organized for such a topic. This study presents an innovative approach to quantify the contributions of meteorological factors as well as non-local precursor emissions for ozone concentration in PRD. Besides, this study reveals the special distribution differences of ozone increase contribution under general conditions and ozone episodes, and uses a model to explain the difference result from emission control. Furthermore, specific suggestions are given in order to acquire high ozone reduction efficiency. Therefore it merits to be published in ACP. However, more detailed explanations are expected to make this manuscript complete and more convincing. In the following, I had a number of specific comments for the authors' reference to address before publication.

Specific comments:

1. It is confusing for the final sentence at the second paragraph of section 3.1. How to conclude the meteorological condition is the most important driving factor for ozone episodes through Fig. 3b?

**Response:** Agree with the reviewer that we cannot draw the conclusion that meteorological condition is "the most" important driving factor. We change it to "one of the most" in line 248 in the revised manuscript, as it can be clearly evidenced by Fig. 3b that ozone spikes were shortened after meteorological adjustment. We added more interpretation for this conclusion in lines 246-247 of the revised manuscript..

2. In Fig. 4a, what is the legend of the color contour?

**Response:** The legend of color contours in Fig. 4a refer to the isopleths of averaged ozone concentration ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) both before and after meteorological adjustment. This is added in the caption of Fig. 4 (lines 771-772) of the revised manuscript.

3. In the first paragraph of section 3.3, considering the monsoon climate, why local emissions have distinct impacts while non-local emissions are consistent?



Response: Agree that the term 'consistent' here leads to misunderstanding. In fact, non-local emissions do pose different impacts to different areas of the PRD due much to deposition and local topography. However, the impacts at all areas are positive, which is different from the impact by local emissions which is positive in some directions while negative in others. To make it more accurate, we revise the sentence as "Considering PRD's monsoonal synoptic condition and that most local emissions are concentrated in the central PRD area, local ('within PRD') emissions tend to pose contrasting impacts to different sub-regions in different seasons while the impacts from non-local ('outside PRD') emissions in a relatively larger scale tend to be similar over the PRD.", as shown in lines 283-285 of the revised manuscript.

4. In section 3.3, I would like to suggest the authors to further explain how to distinguish the non-local emissions from the impact of meteorological condition, as the PC1 is associated with northeasterly wind and meteorology has been removed in meteorological adjustment part.

Response: As explained in section 2.2, meteorological adjustment is conducted against the base condition which is the average meteorological condition of the same calendar date throughout 11 years. Therefore, meteorological adjustment removes the inter-annual variation of meteorological condition, while still preserves seasonal variation and make it consistent in all years. Therefore, the monsoonal characteristics (northerly or northeasterly winds in winter and southerly and southwesterly winds in summer) still remain and act as an important justification for PC determination.

5. What does the score mean in Fig. 5b and Fig. 6? I would like to suggest the authors add more explanations in figure caption for Fig. 5b and Fig. 6.

Response: In the EOF analysis, the scores of a PC refers to the temporal variations of the PC. For example, in Fig. 5b, the score of PC1 shows the increasing normalized contribution of PC1, which is determined as non-local emission contribution due to relatively similar loadings throughout the PRD. This is actually the common knowledge in the EOF/PCA analysis.

6. As SSR plays an important role in meteorology factors, I wonder if it is necessary to add the correlation of SSR with PCs?

Response: The three PCs here refer to the impacts of local and non-local emissions on O<sub>3</sub>. Therefore, we consider there is no theoretic relationship between the impacts of emissions and meteorological factors, such as SSR. Therefore, it is not necessary to add correlation of SSR with PCs.

7. In sections 3.3 and 3.5, long-term trends of local and non-local emission contributions on ozone is an interesting finding. The authors are suggested to provide indepth discussion the influencing factors shaping the trends rather than simply describing them, both under general conditions and during ozone episodes.

Response: We believe the long-term increasing trend of non-local emission contribution is mainly due to ozone elevation in a larger scale. In the past few years, ozone levels in most of China were increasing, leading to continuous increase of non-local emission contribution over the PRD. This was added in lines 331-333 of

the revised manuscript. The long-term trends of local emission contribution in different areas of the PRD is a combined results of VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> emission changes (as shown in Figure S1) and the ozone formation regime in particular sub-regions, which deserves further study. This point is added in lines [413-415](#) of the revised manuscript.

8. There exist some uncommon usages of scientific writing English in the manuscript, such as Line 74 'such a philosophy' and Line 90 'is suffered from'.

Response: "such a philosophy" is changed as "this is" in line 77 of the revised manuscript. "Suffered from" is commonly used to describe the negative impacts from the thing afterwards.

9. In Line 127, u and v are wind direction and speed respectively while in Fig. 6 u and v both represent wind direction.

Response: u and v are the radial wind and zonal wind respectively. The absolute values of u and v indicate the wind speed magnitudes. Positive and negative of u and v indicate westerly, southerly and easterly, northerly wind direction respectively. We added this in lines 130-132 in the revised manuscript.

10. Some grammatical mistakes should be corrected, for example in Line 299, there should be a sentence after the word 'while'.

Response: We changed "while" to "and" in line 321 of the revised manuscript.

# Quantitative impacts of meteorology and precursor emission changes on the long-term trend of ambient ozone over the Pearl River Delta, China and implications for ozone control strategy

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## Abstract

China is experiencing increasingly serious ambient ozone pollution, including the economically developed Pearl River Delta (PRD) region. However, the underlying reasons for ozone increase remain largely unclear, leading to perplexity in formulating effective ozone control strategies. In this study, by developing a statistical analysis framework combining meteorological adjustment and source apportionment, we examine quantitatively the impacts of meteorology and precursor emissions from within and outside the PRD on the evolution of ozone during the past decade. We found that meteorological condition has mitigated ozone increase, and its variation can account for at most 15% of annual ozone concentration in the PRD. Precursor emission from outside the PRD ('non-local') makes the largest contribution to ambient ozone in the PRD and shows a consistently increasing trend, while that from within the PRD ('local') shows a significant spatial heterogeneity and plays a more important role during ozone episodes over southwestern. Under general conditions, the impact on northeastern is positive but decreasing, and on southwestern is negative but increasing. During ozone episodes, the impact on northeastern is negative and decreasing, while on southwestern is positive but decreasing. Central and western PRD is the only area with increasing local ozone contribution. The spatial heterogeneity in both local ozone contribution and its trend under general conditions and ozone episodes are well interpreted by a ~~conceptual diagram~~conceptual model collectively taking into ~~consideration~~account ozone precursor emissions and their changing trends, ozone formation regimes, and the monsoonal and micro-scale synoptic conditions over different sub-regions of the PRD. In particular, we conclude that the inappropriate NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC control ratio within the PRD over the past years is most likely responsible for the ozone increase over southwestern, both under general conditions and during ozone episodes. By investigating the ozone evolution influenced by emission changes within and outside PRD during the past decade, this study highlights the importance of establishing a dichotomous ozone control strategy to tackle with general conditions and pollution events separately. NO<sub>x</sub> emission control should be further strengthened to alleviate peak ozone level during episodes. Detailed investigation is needed to retrieve appropriate NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratios for different emission and meteorological conditions, so as to maximize the ozone reduction efficiency in the PRD.

45 **Keywords:** Ozone, Meteorological adjustment, Empirical orthogonal function, Ozone formation regime,  
46 Pearl River Delta

## 48 1. Introduction

49 Thanks to a series of stringent air pollution control measures, most types of air pollutants, including SO<sub>2</sub>,  
50 NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, PM<sub>10</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, exhibited decreasing concentrations in the past six years (2013-2018) in China,  
51 with the only exception of ozone (Souri et al., 2017; Koukouli et al., 2018; Lin et al., 2018; Lu et al.,  
52 2018; Wang et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). During 2015-2018, ozone concentrations in the three major  
53 city clusters, Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei, Yangtze River Delta, and Pearl River Delta (PRD), had increased by  
54 20%, 4%, and 14%, respectively (Report on the State of the Environment in China,  
55 <http://english.mee.gov.cn/Resources/Reports/soe/>). Although with comparable median ozone  
56 concentrations, the magnitude and frequency of high-ozone events are much higher in China than those  
57 in Japan, South Korea, Europe, and the United States (Lu et al., 2018). Ozone would become one of the  
58 major air pollution control targets in China in the near future to protect public health.

59  
60 Ozone control is far more difficult than particulate matter (PM) control, according to the experiences in  
61 Los Angeles and Mexico City (Madronich, 2014). The difficulties of ozone control lie in two major  
62 aspects. First, ozone can be contributed by both local formation and non-local transport, and their relative  
63 importance is largely driven by meteorological conditions and precursor emission characteristics (Elminir,  
64 2005; Beaver and Palazoglu, 2009; Kovač-Andrić et al., 2009). Moreover, ozone is a secondary pollutant  
65 with non-linear relationship with its precursors, NO<sub>x</sub> and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) (Stevenson  
66 et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2014). Synergistic control with desirable VOC-to-NO<sub>x</sub> reduction ratio is  
67 required for ozone reduction. However, such a ratio is hard to determine and practically implement due  
68 to our limited understanding on VOC emissions, especially those fugitive (Ou et al., 2016). The  
69 appropriate VOCs-to-NO<sub>x</sub> reduction ratio may also vary greatly under different meteorological  
70 conditions. Therefore, from an ozone control point of view, it is fundamental to quantitatively understand  
71 the roles of meteorology and precursor emissions in shaping local and non-local ozone contributions, and  
72 their evolution during a long time scale in response to meteorology and emission changes.

73  
74 Meteorology could either strengthen or dampen the efforts of precursor emission control on ozone  
75 reduction (Elminir, 2005; Beaver and Palazoglu, 2009; Kovač-Andrić et al., 2009). Hence, in order to  
76 investigate the effectiveness of precursor control during a long period, it is a common practice to  
77 homogenize meteorological conditions. In numerical simulation studies, ~~such a philosophy~~<sup>this</sup> is  
78 implemented by a set of scenarios in different meteorological and emission conditions (Gilliland et al.,  
79 2008; Godowitch et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2008; Foley et al., 2015). Differences in ozone levels between  
80 scenarios with the same meteorological conditions (emissions) are attributed to emission (meteorology)  
81 changes. Statistical models are also widely applied to establish relationship between ozone and  
82 meteorological variables so as to remove the meteorological impact, which is usually called  
83 meteorological adjustment (Lu and Chang, 2005; Zheng et al., 2007; Foley et al., 2015). After  
84 meteorological adjustment, ozone changes are solely attributed to emission changes.

85  
86 Both local and non-local emission changes contribute to ambient ozone levels in a particular region.  
87 From an ozone control point of view, it is also essential to quantitatively differentiate local and non-local  
88 contributions. Source apportionment module coupled in chemical transport models, e.g. the Ozone

89 Source Apportionment Technology (OSAT) in the Comprehensive Air-quality Model with extensions  
90 (CAMx) and the Integrated Source Apportionment Method (ISAM) in the Community Multiscale Air  
91 Quality (CMAQ), are widely used to attribute ambient ozone concentrations at a particular place into  
92 different (local and non-local) source regions and categories (Li et al., 2013; Kwok et al., 2015). As  
93 numerical simulation is suffered from uncertainties in emission inventories and largely constrained in  
94 time span due to computing resources, statistical models, e.g. lowest-as-background method (Nielsen-  
95 Gammon et al., 2005; Xue et al., 2014) and Empirical Orthogonal Function (EOF) (Langford et al., 2009;  
96 Berlin et al., 2013), are preferentially adopted when the long-term monitoring data is available. They  
97 apportion local and non-local contributions by examining variability and co-variability of ozone  
98 concentrations at multiple monitoring sites. However, without meteorological adjustment, source  
99 apportionment by both methods reflects only the absolute contribution from local and non-local sources  
100 / processes and cannot directly link with local and non-local emissions of ozone precursors. Therefore,  
101 combined application of meteorological adjustment and source apportionment are indispensable in  
102 investigating the effect of local and non-local emission changes on long-term ambient ozone variations.  
103 Such combined application has not been reported in previous studies.

104

105 In this study, PRD is used as a research target area. After restraining its annual  $PM_{2.5}$  concentration below  
106  $35\mu g m^{-3}$  (China's National Ambient Air Quality Standard for annual  $PM_{2.5}$ ) for four consecutive years  
107 (2015-2018), PRD is the first major city cluster in China to transfer its main air pollution control target  
108 onto ozone. By utilizing continuous ozone monitoring at multiple stations across the PRD since 2007,  
109 we investigate the impacts of meteorology and local ('within PRD') and non-local ('outside PRD')  
110 emission changes on the long-term trend of ambient ozone by using the framework of meteorological  
111 adjustment followed by local and non-local contribution differentiation. Ozone contributions from  
112 meteorology and local and non-local emissions are quantitatively demonstrated in 2016 and 2017 the  
113 recent two years with significant ozone increase. We further develop a conceptual diagram ~~conceptual~~  
114 ~~model~~ depicting the impact of emission control within the PRD to the ambient ozone, both under general  
115 conditions and during ozone pollution episodes. Evaluation on the effectiveness of ozone precursor  
116 control measures within and outside the PRD during the past decade would shed light on future control  
117 efforts that hopefully shorten the ozone abatement paths experienced in Europe and the United States.

118

## 119 2. Data and Method

### 120 2.1 Ozone and meteorological data set

121 Hourly ozone monitoring data at fifteen monitoring stations across the PRD from 2007 to 2017 are used  
122 to calculate maximum daily 8-hour average (MDA8) in this study. Missing data are filled taking the  
123 yearly, monthly, weekly and hourly mean into account, otherwise it is replaced by the ozone data at the  
124 nearest monitoring station (Zheng et al., 2007). Geographical distribution of the monitoring stations is  
125 illustrated in Fig. 1, and the latitudes / longitudes and the types of functional areas where the stations are  
126 located are provided in Table 1.

127

128 The meteorological data during the same period, including daily maximum 2m temperature ( $T$ , °C), daily  
129 minimum relative humidity (RH, %), total net surface solar radiation (SSR,  $J/M^2$ ), and 10m mean wind  
130 direction and speed ( $u$  and  $v$ , the absolute values show wind speed (m/s), while positive and negative  
131 signs of  $u$  and  $v$  indicate westerly, southerly and easterly, northerly wind direction, respectively  
132 ~~m/s~~), are retrieved from the European Center for Medium-range Weather Forecast (ECMWF) simulations

133 for meteorological adjustment. Temporal and spatial resolution is 3-hour and  $0.125^\circ \times 0.125^\circ$ , respectively.  
 134 Meteorological condition at the ozone monitoring station is represented by the simulation data at the  
 135 closest point to the station, as illustrated in Fig. 1. In this study, we composed an ozone and  
 136 meteorological dataset with 4018 days at fifteen stations.

137

## 138 2.2 Meteorological adjustment

139 In this study, a statistical analysis framework combining meteorological adjustment and source  
 140 apportionment is developed to identify ozone changes attributable to meteorology and local and non-  
 141 local emissions. Long-term trends of ozone changes by meteorological conditions and local and non-  
 142 local emissions are subsequently evaluated by trend analysis. In this study, ‘local’ emissions refer to those  
 143 from within the PRD, while ‘non-local’ emissions refer to those from outside the PRD. A [conceptual](#)  
 144 ~~conceptual~~ diagram highlighting major calculation procedures of the statistical analysis framework is  
 145 shown in Fig. 2.

146

147 In meteorological adjustment, Kolmogorov-Zurbenko (KZ) filter is firstly used to separate the raw ozone  
 148 and meteorological data into long-term, seasonal and short-term data (Rao and Zurbenko, 1994a; Rao  
 149 and Zurbenko, 1994b). KZ filter can be expressed as

$$150 \quad X(t) = LT(t) + SE(t) + ST(t) \quad (1)$$

151 Where  $X(t)$  is the raw time series data,  $LT(t)$  reflects the long-term trend in the time scale of years,  $SE(t)$   
 152 is the seasonal variation in the time scale of months, and  $ST(t)$  refers to short-term component in the time  
 153 scale of days.

154 The KZ filter repeats the iterations of a moving average to remove the high-pass signal defined by

$$155 \quad Y_i = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=-k}^k A_{i+j} \quad (2)$$

156 where  $k$  is the number of values included on each side, the window length  $m=2k+1$ ,  $i$  is interval time,  $j$   
 157 is window variables, and  $Y$  is the input time-series. Thus the output of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  pass becomes the input for  
 158 the  $i+1^{\text{th}}$  pass, and so on. Different scales of motion are obtained by changing the window length and the  
 159 number of the iterations (Milanchus et al., 1998; Eskridge et al., 1997). The filter periods of less than  $N$   
 160 days can be calculated with window length  $m$  and the number of iterations  $p$ , as

$$161 \quad m \times p^{1/2} \leq N \quad (3)$$

162 So a  $KZ(15, 5)$  filter with the window length of 15 with 5 iterations remove cycles of 33 days. The ozone  
 163 and meteorological time series by  $KZ(15, 5)$  refer to their baseline variations which are the sum of long-  
 164 term  $LT(t)$  and seasonal components  $SE(t)$ .

$$165 \quad BL(t) = KZ_{(15,5)} = LT(t) + SE(t) = KZ_{(36, 53)} + SE(t) \quad (4)$$

166 The long-term trend is separated from the raw data by  $KZ(365, 3)$  with the periods  $>632d$ , and then the  
 167 seasonal and the short-term component  $ST(t)$  can be derived by

$$168 \quad SE(t) = KZ_{(15,5)} - KZ_{(36, 53)} \quad (5)$$

$$169 \quad ST(t) = X(t) - BL(t) = X(t) - KZ_{(15,5)} \quad (6)$$

170 After KZ filtering, meteorological adjustment is conducted by stepwise regression between ozone  
 171 concentration and meteorological factors such as T, RH and SSR (Flaum et al., 1996; Wise and Comrie,  
 172 2005; Papanastasiou et al., 2012).

$$173 \quad A_{BL}(t) = a_{BL} + \sum b_{BLi} \cdot M_{BLi} + \epsilon_{BL}(t) \quad (7)$$

$$174 \quad A_{ST}(t) = a_{ST} + \sum b_{STi} \cdot M_{STi} + \epsilon_{ST}(t) \quad (8)$$

$$175 \quad \epsilon(t) = \epsilon_{BL}(t) + \epsilon_{ST}(t) \quad (9)$$

$$A_{ad}(t) = \epsilon(t) + \sum b_{BLi} \cdot \bar{M}_{BLi} + \sum b_{STi} \cdot \bar{M}_{STi} + a_{BL} + a_{ST} \quad (10)$$

Formula 7 and 8 are the multivariate regression models between baseline and short-term ozone and meteorological factors, respectively.  $A_{ST}(t)$  and  $A_{BL}(t)$  are the baseline and short-term components of ozone and  $M_{BL}$  and  $M_{ST}$  are the baseline and short-term components of meteorological factors. The parameters  $a$  and  $b$  are the fitted parameters and  $i$  is time points (days).  $\epsilon(t)$  is the residual term. The average meteorological condition  $\bar{M}$  of the same calendar date throughout 11 years is used as the base condition for that date, and the meteorological adjustment is conducted against the base condition. By doing so, the inter-annual variation of meteorology is removed while the annual variation is largely reserved. With the homogenized annual variation of meteorological conditions,  $A_{ad}(t)$  in formula 10 represents the meteorologically adjusted ozone variations, and the difference between  $X(t)$  and  $A_{ad}(t)$  reflects the meteorological impact. It is noted that, by using the average meteorological condition as the base condition, the average ozone concentration during the 11 years keeps unchanged.

### 2.3 Source apportionment of ozone contributions from local and non-local emissions

In this study, EOF and absolute principal component scores (APCS) are applied to apportion meteorologically adjusted ozone concentration into local and non-local emission sources. EOF transforms a large number of variables into a new set of uncorrelated, orthogonal principal components (PCs). The few new variables contains the most information of the original variables, and the new variables represent different processes contributing to ambient ozone levels. Here we present a brief description of EOF and APCS. Detailed information regarding the method can be found in Langford et al. (2009) and Berlin et al. (2013).

EOF analysis is performed on the correlation matrix from the meteorologically adjusted ozone data set (4018 days  $\times$  15 stations), without further rotation of the PCs. The first step is to normalize the ozone data (Thurston and Spengler, 1985; Guo et al., 2004).

$$Z_{ik} = (C_{ik} - C_i)/S_i \quad (11)$$

where  $C_{ik}$  is the concentration of ozone in sample  $k$  of the station  $i$ ,  $C_i$  is the arithmetic mean value of ozone in station  $i$  and  $S_i$  is the standard deviation.

$$Z_{ik} = L_{ip} \cdot P_{pk} \quad (12)$$

$L_{ip}$  is loadings of EOF without rotation and  $P_{pk}$  is scores.

Since the factor scores are normalized with the mean to be zero, true zero is calculated through introducing an artificial sample with the zero concentration. Then the APCS are estimated by subtracting the artificial sample from the true samples.

$$(Z_0)_i = \frac{(0 - C_i)}{S_i} = -C_i/S_i \quad (13)$$

$$(APCS)_{pi} = P_{pi} - P_{0pi} \quad (14)$$

The regression between APCS and ozone concentration estimates source contributions to  $C_i$  by

$$C_i = (b_0)_i + \sum APCS_p \cdot b_{pi} \quad (15)$$

where  $(b_0)_i$  is the constant term at station  $i$ ,  $b_{pi}$  is the coefficient of the source  $p$ , and  $\sum APCS_p$  is the scaled value of the factor  $p$ . Multiplication of  $\sum APCS_p$  and  $b_{pi}$  calculates the contribution from source  $p$  to ozone concentration. Local and non-local sources are determined according to the temporal and spatial distribution characteristics of source contributions across the PRD.

## 3. Results and Discussion

### 219 3.1 Long-term trend of meteorological impact on ozone concentration

220 Fig. 3a shows the long-term trends of ambient ozone, meteorologically adjusted ozone, and the  
221 meteorological impact in the PRD during 2007-2017. Ambient ozone concentration in the PRD increased  
222 from  $76 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2007 to  $89 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2017, corresponding to an annual increase rate of  $1.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ .  
223 Previous studies also evidenced ozone increase in the PRD (e.g. Li et al., 2014) and we here demonstrate  
224 that such an increase has been continuing for more than a decade. After meteorological adjustment, ozone  
225 concentration increases from  $68 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2007 to  $90 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2017, corresponding to an annual increase  
226 rate of  $2.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . Higher increase rate of meteorologically adjusted ozone implies that if the  
227 meteorological condition keeps unchanged throughout the 11 years, ambient ozone concentration would  
228 increase more significantly. As shown in Fig. 3a, meteorological conditions are generally favorable for  
229 ozone pollution during 2007-2011, responsible for at most  $6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  of ozone increase. During 2012-2017,  
230 meteorological condition became unfavorable for ozone pollution, leading to at most  $6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  of ozone  
231 reduction. Comparing between the most favorable (2007) and unfavorable (2016) year, meteorological  
232 condition change ozone concentration by  $12 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at most, roughly corresponding to 15% of annual  
233 ozone concentration.

234  
235 It should be noted that meteorological adjustment does not change the overall increasing trend of ozone  
236 concentration, indicating that emission change is the primary driving factor for the long-term ozone trend.  
237 However, as shown in Fig. 3a, the fluctuation of ozone concentration is suppressed by meteorological  
238 adjustment, indicating that meteorology plays an important role in the inter-annual fluctuation of ozone  
239 concentration, especially during 2011-2015 when ozone changes due to emissions are minor. This is  
240 largely caused by emission changes within and outside the PRD. Emissions inventory in the PRD (Fig.  
241 S1) shows that increase in VOCs emission started to mitigate in 2011, while NOx emissions showed  
242 significant reduction starting from 2013. As PRD is generally in a VOC-limited ozone formation regime,  
243 reduction in the magnitude of VOCs emission increase is likely responsible for the minor changes in  
244 ozone during 2011-2015. During some specific period, meteorology plays a greater role in governing  
245 ozone changes than emissions, such as during 2016-2017 as will be discussed in section 3.4. As shown  
246 in Fig. 3b, variations of ozone before (black lines) and after (blue lines) meteorological adjustment  
247 demonstrated that meteorological adjustment significantly ~~meteorological adjustment significantly~~  
248 reduces the magnitude of ozone spikes, indicating that meteorological condition is one of the most  
249 important driving factors for ozone episodes in the PRD. Therefore, ozone precursor emission control  
250 should be strengthened during adverse weather condition to lower peak ozone levels.

251  
252 Fig. 3c shows the impacts from different meteorological factors (T, RH, SSR, u and v) on ozone  
253 concentration. Overall, SSR is the most crucial factor and their variation follows well with that of the  
254 total meteorological impact. Contribution from the other four factors are comparable and relatively  
255 insignificant. As expected, higher SSR, higher T and lower RH are favorable for ozone production.

### 256 257 3.2 Spatial distribution of meteorological impact

258 We further examine the spatial distribution of meteorological impact. Fig. 4a shows the spatial  
259 distribution of averaged ozone concentration in the PRD and the annual ozone concentration changes  
260 before and after meteorological adjustment. Although northeastern PRD has the overall highest ozone  
261 concentrations, central and western PRD shows the most rapid ozone increase during the 11 years (black  
262 bars), and such increases are further substantiated if meteorological impact is removed (green bars).



263 There are two sub-regions in the PRD with overall decreased ozone concentrations, one in the northeast  
264 (TH and JGW) and the other in the southwest (ZML and TJ). The ozone decrease is largely mitigated or  
265 at ZML even reversed after meteorological adjustment. The different mechanisms leading to the ozone  
266 increase in these two sub-regions are explained by a conceptual diagram~~conceptual model~~ in section 3.6.

267  
268 The spatial distribution of meteorological impact in each year during 2007-2017 is illustrated in Fig. 4b.  
269 It is noted that when the meteorological condition favors ozone pollution in the PRD, it increases more  
270 in the central and western area. On the contrary, when it decrease ozone concentration in the PRD, central  
271 and western PRD is also the region with larger decrease in most years. Therefore, central and western  
272 PRD is a meteorology-sensitive region for ozone pollution. Generally, area with higher pollutant  
273 emission is more sensitive to changes in meteorological condition (Seo et al., 2014). Various studies have  
274 shown that central and western PRD is the area with the most intense VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions over the  
275 PRD (e.g. Zheng et al., 2009a), therefore is more sensitive to meteorological condition. Formulation of  
276 ozone control strategy in this region needs to consider meteorological impact.

### 277 278 **3.3 Identification of ozone changes resulted from local and non-local emissions**

279 Long-term variation of meteorologically adjusted ozone reflects the impacts from precursor (VOCs and  
280 NO<sub>x</sub>) emission changes. As ozone can be contributed by both local production and long-range transport,  
281 it is important to quantitatively separate them from an emission control point of view. Considering PRD's  
282 monsoonal synoptic condition and that most local emissions are concentrated in the central and western  
283 PRD area, local ('within PRD') emissions tend to pose contrasting~~distinct~~ impacts to different sub-  
284 regions in different seasons while the impacts from non-local ('outside PRD') emissions in a relatively  
285 larger scale tend to be spatially similar~~consistent~~ over the PRD. We use this philosophy to examine the  
286 PCs derived from EOF analysis.

287  
288 According to the Kaiser's rule (Wilks, 2006), three PCs are retained in EOF analysis, explaining 53%,  
289 16% and 7% of total variance, respectively. Fig. 5a shows the interpolated PC loadings in the PRD, and  
290 Fig. 5b shows the long-term variation of PC scores during the 11 years. PC1 shows relatively consistent  
291 spatial distribution across ~~the~~ PRD, with its loadings ranging from 0.47 at TH to 0.84 at JJZ. Further  
292 examination on the relationship between PC scores and wind direction discovered that the score of PC1  
293 is higher during high ozone concentration in the PRD, and is associated with northeasterly wind (Fig.  
294 6a). Situated along the southeastern coast of China, PRD has two main prevailing winds, northeasterly  
295 mainly during winter and spring and southwesterly mainly during summer and fall. Northeasterly wind  
296 tends to bring emissions from inland to the PRD, while southwesterly wind originated from the ocean is  
297 relatively clean. All the above evidences support the notion that PC1 is associated with non-local impact  
298 from continental long-range transport. Higher impact in the central PRD may be caused by the rough  
299 land use and micro-scale circulation in this urbanized region that increases the residence time of non-  
300 local ozone. The score of PC1 (Fig. 5b) is almost consistently increasing during the 11 years, indicating  
301 increased ozone contribution from long-range transport. It should be noted that meteorological  
302 adjustment is conducted against the base condition which is the average meteorological condition of the  
303 same calendar date throughout 11 years. Therefore, meteorological adjustment removes the inter-annual  
304 variation of meteorological condition, while still preserves seasonal variation and make it consistent in  
305 all years. Therefore, the monsoonal characteristics (northerly or northeasterly winds in winter and  
306 southerly and southwesterly winds in summer) still remain and act as an important justification for PC

307 determination.

308  
309 In comparison, PC2 and PC3 loadings show significant spatial variations. PC2 loadings have an obvious  
310 north-south gradient with different signs, indicating that the impact of PC2 on northern and southern  
311 PRD are reversed at all times. Further examination on their relationship with wind direction, as shown  
312 in Fig. 6b and 6c, indicates that during high ozone periods, PC2 score tends to be positive with southerly  
313 winds and negative with northerly winds. With southerly winds, northern PRD receives the highest  
314 impact from PC2, leading to increased ozone concentration. On the contrary, southern PRD receives the  
315 highest impact (negative score and negative loading) with northerly winds. This reflects exactly the  
316 impact from emissions within the PRD posed by the north-south components of the prevailing winds.  
317 Similarly, PC3 is associated with the impact from local emissions by the west-east components of the  
318 prevailing winds. Therefore, PC2 and PC3 collectively reflect the impact of local emissions on ozone  
319 formation. PC2 and PC3 scores show a bimodal pattern that are higher in 2007 and 2011-2014 (Fig. 5b).  
320 This suggests that local emissions pose higher ozone contribution to northern and eastern PRD during  
321 2007 and 2011-2014 and while to southern and western PRD during 2008-2010 and 2015-2017.

322  
323 The PC loadings and scores may reflect the spatial distributions and temporal variations of the PCs,  
324 respectively. However, as they are normalized values, APCS calculation is conducted to quantify the  
325 absolute ozone contributions from local and non-local emission sources. As explained earlier, the impacts  
326 from non-local ozone by long-range transport tend to be spatially more consistent within the PRD, while  
327 those from local ozone is more spatially inconsistent. With such a philosophy, we select Tianhu (TH) in  
328 the north, Luhu (LH) in the central, and Donghu (DH) in the south of PRD to study the long-term trend  
329 of ozone contributed by local and non-local emission sources in different areas, as shown in Fig. 7. Ozone  
330 contributions from local and non-local at the other stations is provided in Fig. S2. A first glance on this  
331 figure reveals identical and consistently increasing non-local trends at all three stations. Actually, ozone  
332 level in most areas of China was increasing during the past years, which inevitably led to increased non-  
333 local contribution to ozone over the PRD (Lu et al., 2018) Fig. 7 shows ozone contributions from local  
334 and non-local emission sources at three representative stations, TH in northern, LH in central and DH in  
335 southern PRD. A first glance on this figure reveals identical and consistently increasing non-local trends  
336 at all three stations. Non-local emission contributions at DH reach 90~115  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ , more than doubling  
337 those of 44~56  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at TH. As explained previously, such a spatial heterogeneity is mainly caused by  
338 longer residence time of non-local ozone in the urbanized area. In comparison, local emission  
339 contributions show differences in both magnitude and trend over three stations. Local emission  
340 contribution on ozone ranges from 15~30  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at TH, 1~6  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at LH, and -30~-15  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at DH. As  
341 a net effect of ozone production and loss, the positive or negative sign of local emission contribution  
342 reflects the relative strengths of ozone production by HO<sub>x</sub> and RO<sub>x</sub> cycles and ozone loss by NO titration  
343 and deposition. As non-local emission contributions dominate over the local counterpart at all stations,  
344 its consistently increasing trend determines the meteorologically adjusted ozone trend over the 11 years.

345  
346 We further plot the spatial distribution of ozone contribution from local and non-local emissions and its  
347 long-term changes over the PRD, as shown in Fig. 8. Local emissions give positive contribution to  
348 northeastern, with the largest contribution of 31  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at JGW, and negative contribution to southwestern,  
349 with the largest contribution of -23  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at DH. Furthermore, apart from reversed ozone contribution  
350 from local emissions, northeastern and southwestern PRD also exhibit reversed trends in changes of

351 ozone contribution from local emissions during the 11 years, as illustrated in the bars of Fig. 8. The most  
352 significant increase trend is found over southwestern, with the largest increase rate of  $0.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ year}^{-1}$   
353 at DH, while the most significant decrease trend is found over northeastern, with the largest decrease rate  
354 of  $0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ year}^{-1}$  at JGW. The underlying mechanism resulting in the opposite trends in both local  
355 ozone contribution and its long-term changes between northeastern and southwestern are explained with  
356 a ~~conceptual diagram~~conceptual model in section 3.6. In comparison, the ozone contributions from non-  
357 local emissions are relatively consistent over the PRD, and non-local emission poses increasing influence  
358 on ozone for the entire region.

### 359 **3.4 Identification of driving factors for ozone changes in 2016 and 2017**

360 With meteorological adjustment and source apportionment, the contributions from meteorology and local  
361 and non-local emissions to the ambient ozone changes can be quantitatively analyzed for all years at all  
362 stations. ~~Due to the limitation of space, we here select the recent two years, 2016 and 2017, and~~  
363 ~~demonstrate this capability by analyzing the relative importance of meteorology and local and non-local~~  
364 ~~emissions to the ozone changes during these two years, 2016 and 2017. In this section, we demonstrate~~  
365 ~~this capability by analyzing the relative importance of meteorology and local and non-local emissions to~~  
366 ~~the ozone changes in the recent two years, 2016 and 2017.~~ Significant ozone level increases are revealed  
367 at most stations during the two years, with the average concentration rising from  $81 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2016 to  $87$   
368  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2017 for PRD. It is found that meteorology, local emission and non-local emission contribute  
369 to around  $3.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ,  $-0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and  $2.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  of ozone increase, respectively. Overall, meteorology  
370 plays a greater role in elevating ozone levels during these two years.

371  
372 Contributions from meteorology and local and non-local emissions are further analyzed at each  
373 monitoring station, as listed in Table 2. Under general conditions, in comparison with local and non-local  
374 emissions, meteorology gives the highest contributions to ozone changes at all stations except for CZ  
375 and DH, the two southwestern-most stations. In addition, local emissions gives higher contributions than  
376 non-local ones at CZ, DH, JJZ, ZML and TJ, the cluster of stations in the southwestern PRD. Therefore,  
377 the ozone increase over southwestern PRD during these two years is most attributable to local emission  
378 changes, while the ozone increase in other parts of the PRD is firstly driven by meteorological condition  
379 changes, followed by non-local emission changes. This suggests that in order to reduce ozone levels in  
380 the southwestern PRD, strengthening local VOCs emission control should be of the top priority, so as to  
381 prevent ozone titration from decreasing further.

### 382 **3.5 Impact of meteorology and emission changes during ozone episodes**

383  
384 In this section, we examine the impacts of meteorology and local and non-local emission changes to  
385 ambient ozone level during ozone episodes. Ozone episodes are defined as days with MDA8 ozone  
386 concentration greater than  $160 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at five stations or more across the PRD. ~~During 14 years, there are~~  
387 ~~in total 442 days identified as ozone episodes. The number of ozone episodes are much smaller than that~~  
388 ~~during general conditions, therefore the results below might be associated with larger uncertainties than~~  
389 ~~that during general conditions. As shown in Fig. S1, ozone levels are the highest in the central PRD,~~  
390 ~~mainly Guangzhou and Foshan, during ozone episodes.~~

391  
392  
393 Ozone levels during episodes are the highest in the central PRD, mainly Guangzhou and Foshan, as  
394 shown in Fig. S3. Fig. S4 shows the long-term trends of ambient ozone, meteorologically adjusted ozone,

395 and the meteorological impact in the PRD during ozone episodes in 2007-2017. Ambient ozone  
396 concentration during episodes increases from  $150 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2007 to  $161 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  in 2017, corresponding  
397 to an annual increase rate of  $1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . It is noteworthy that meteorological adjustment does not alter  
398 ozone concentration much, with the largest change of  $3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  only. This implies that, although with  
399 significant variation under general conditions, meteorology does not vary significantly during ozone  
400 episodes across all years. Changes in precursor emissions are therefore the driving factor for long-term  
401 ozone variations during ozone episodes. A slightly different picture is discovered in 2017 during which  
402 meteorology is the major culprit for ozone increase. Without meteorological impact, ozone level during  
403 episodes should be lower than that in 2016.

404

405 We further differentiate ozone changes into those by local and non-local emissions using EOF/APCS  
406 approach. Four principal components are discovered, and they are assigned to local or non-local  
407 emissions by their spatial variations, as shown in Fig. S3. Fig. 9 illustrates the long-term trend of ozone  
408 contribution by local and non-local emissions during ozone episodes at TH, LH and DH stations. At TH  
409 and LH, non-local emissions give dominant contribution to ozone, while local emissions pose negative  
410 impacts, while contributions from local and non-local emissions are comparable at DH. Different from  
411 general conditions during which non-local contribution shows a consistently increasing trend, non-local  
412 contribution fluctuates greatly during ozone episodes and presents a bimodal picture. Starting from 2014,  
413 ozone contribution from non-local emissions has leveled off and decreased gradually. [This may be related](#)  
414 [to the VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in the non-PRD area in Guangdong \(Fig. S1\) and further upwind area,](#)  
415 [and deserves further study.](#)

416

417 Local emission contribution to ozone during episodes differs greatly in different areas. As shown in Fig.  
418 10a, local emissions give positive contribution to southwestern, with the largest average contribution of  
419  $78 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  at DH. They pose negative contribution to northeastern, with the largest contribution of  $-36 \mu\text{g}$   
420  $\text{m}^{-3}$  at TH and HG. Such a spatial distribution is contrary to that during general conditions, as illustrated  
421 in Fig. 8a. Stations over central PRD show increasing trend, with the largest increase rate of  $1.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$   
422  $\text{year}^{-1}$  at HG, while stations surrounding central and western PRD show decreasing trend, while the  
423 largest decrease rate of  $3.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{year}^{-1}$  at JGW. In comparison, ozone contributions from non-local  
424 emissions are relatively consistent over the PRD, with the hotspot shifted from central and western PRD  
425 under general conditions (Fig. 8b) to central and eastern PRD during ozone episodes (Fig. 10b). The  
426 entire PRD experienced increasing ozone contribution from non-local emission. Comparing with non-  
427 local emission, ozone contribution from local emission and its trend show significant spatial  
428 heterogeneity. We develop a [conceptual diagram](#)~~conceptual model~~ to explain in detail the underlying  
429 mechanisms resulting in the distinct spatial distribution of local ozone contribution and its trend between  
430 general conditions and ozone episodes, as elaborated in section 3.6.

431

### 432 3.6 A [conceptual diagram](#)~~conceptual model~~ describing impact of local emission changes to ozone 433 in the Pearl River Delta

434 As discussed in section 3.3 and 3.5, the spatial pattern of ozone contribution from local ('within PRD')  
435 emissions and its long-term changes in the PRD under general condition and during ozone episodes  
436 present different pictures. Under general condition, local emissions give positive and decreasing  
437 contribution to ozone over northeastern PRD, and negative and increasing contribution over southwestern  
438 (Fig. 8a). In contrast, during ozone episodes, local emissions give negative and decreasing contribution

439 over northeastern, and positive and decreasing contribution over southwestern. Central and western PRD  
440 is the only region having slight increasing local ozone contribution during episodes (Fig. 10a). In this  
441 section, we aim to provide detailed explanation on such phenomena by developing a [conceptual](#)  
442 [diagramconceptual model](#) collectively taking into account ozone precursor emissions and their changing  
443 trends, ozone formation regimes, and the monsoonal and micro-scale synoptic conditions over different  
444 sub-regions of the PRD.

445

### 446 3.6.1 General condition

447 PRD has distinct VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> emission characteristics across its different sub-regions, leading to  
448 different prevailing ozone formation regimes (OFR) over the PRD. Central PRD, essentially western and  
449 southern Guangzhou, Foshan and western Dongguan, is the area with the most significant economic and  
450 industrial activities. Central PRD is associated with significant amount of VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions  
451 (Zheng et al., 2009b, Zhong et al., 2018), and is mostly in a VOC-limited OFR (Ye et al., 2016). The  
452 polluted air mass can be transported to different areas of the PRD under different prevailing winds, and  
453 largely determines the ozone behaviors over those areas. In the past years, NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are decreasing  
454 due to stringent control measures, while VOCs emissions are increasing, as shown in Fig. S14.

455

456 Northeastern PRD is mainly a rural area with plenty of vegetation coverage. Significant VOC emissions  
457 from biogenic sources make it primarily in a NO<sub>x</sub>-limited OFR, especially in summer (Ye et al., 2016).  
458 In summer and fall, southwesterly winds originated from the South China Sea prevail, bringing the NO<sub>x</sub>-  
459 laden air mass from central PRD to the downwind NO<sub>x</sub>-limited northeastern and increasing ozone levels  
460 over TH, XP and JGW stations. However, NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio in the air mass is decreasing during the past  
461 years due to emission control measures that are preferentially targeting on NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Lowered  
462 NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio would inhibit ozone production in the NO<sub>x</sub>-limited northeastern, leading to a downward  
463 ozone trend. In contrast, southwestern PRD shows relatively higher NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC emission ratios, and is  
464 mostly in a VOC-limited OFR (Ye et al., 2016). The OFR would shift to be more VOC-limited in winter  
465 due to the suppressed biogenic VOC emissions and reduced reaction rate of HO<sub>x</sub> and RO<sub>x</sub> cycles. In  
466 winter and spring, northeasterly winds originated from the Eurasia Continent prevail, bringing the NO<sub>x</sub>-  
467 laden air mass from the central PRD to the southwestern. The NO<sub>x</sub>-laden air mass would react  
468 preferentially with ozone in the VOC-limited southwestern, thereby decreasing the ozone levels at CZ,  
469 DH and ZML stations. Due to the strengthened NO<sub>x</sub> emission control that reduces NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio from  
470 the central PRD, ozone titration is largely mitigated, leading to an upward ozone trend over southwestern  
471 in the past few years. Fig. 11 provides a [conceptual diagramconceptual diagram](#) on the impact of local  
472 emission control on ozone concentrations and their changing trends over the PRD.

473

474 Hence, the combined influences by reduced ozone titration from local emissions and increased ozone  
475 import from non-local emissions make southwestern the area having the most rapid ozone increase over  
476 the PRD. In order to curb ozone increase in the southwestern, VOC emission control within the PRD  
477 must be strengthened to elevate NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio into a level that ozone titration would not be further  
478 reduced. With decreased influence from local emissions, northeastern shows the least ozone increase.

479

### 480 3.6.2 Ozone pollution episodes

481 Both meteorology and precursor emissions exhibit significant differences during ozone episodes in  
482 comparison with general conditions. Ozone episodes typically happen in summer and fall with hot and

483 sunny weather and weakened background wind, which is very often associated with a high pressure ridge  
484 or approaching of a tropical cyclone (Huang et al., 2006). Temperature very often rises above 32 degree  
485 Celsius with abundant sunshine, leading to more intense biogenic VOC emissions over the PRD.  
486 Considering NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are insensitive to temperature rise and the high reactivity of biogenic VOCs,  
487 the effective NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio becomes much lower. As a result, NO<sub>x</sub>-limited OFR over northeastern is  
488 intensified, and VOC-limited OFR over southwestern shifts to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited. VOC-limited area shrinks to  
489 merely central PRD and the magnitude is largely weakened (Wang et al., 2011; Jin and Holloway, 2015).  
490 Due to significant NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, the urban central PRD is probably the last area turning into NO<sub>x</sub>-  
491 limited due to enhanced biogenic VOC emissions during ozone episodes.

492

493 In addition, the prevailing wind direction changes from northeasterly / southwesterly to easterly, as shown  
494 in Fig. S65. With weakened background wind, micro-scale circulations such as land-sea breeze develop  
495 around the Pearl River Estuary (PRE), and becomes an effective mechanism in trapping and mixing up  
496 pollutants emitted surrounding the PRE (Lo et al., 2006). Micro-scale circulations increase the residence  
497 time of pollutants over the PRE and thus expedite chemical reactions to produce ozone. High ozone  
498 produced around the PRE is brought to southwestern PRD (a 'sink' region) by the weak easterly wind,  
499 thereby increasing ozone levels at DH, ZML and TJ stations. In contrast, with easterly wind, northeastern  
500 receives little impact from the central PRD ozone hotspot while instead serves as a 'source' region (ozone  
501 import from further east is accounted for as impact from non-local emissions), thereby providing negative  
502 contribution at TH, XP, JGW, HG and LH stations.

503

504 With higher biogenic VOC emissions and VOC oxidation rate, the OFR distribution over the PRD during  
505 ozone episodes vary from that under general conditions. The preferential NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction due to  
506 stringent control would lead to downward trend of local ozone contribution over northeastern due to  
507 intensified NO<sub>x</sub>-limited OFR, also downward trend over southwestern due to shift from VOC-limited to  
508 NO<sub>x</sub>-limited OFR (Jin and Holloway, 2015). An upward trend is only discovered over central and western  
509 PRD (HG, LH, HJC and ZH) where NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are very strong and still persist in VOC-limited OFR.  
510 Fig. 12 provides a ~~conceptual diagram~~ conceptual diagram on the impact of local emission control on  
511 ozone concentrations and their changing trends over the PRD during ozone episodes.

512

513 Hence, even with different formation mechanisms from general conditions, southwestern PRD, mainly  
514 Zhongshan, Zhuhai and eastern Jiangmen, is still the area with the most significant impact from local  
515 emissions during ozone episodes. However, with less NO<sub>x</sub> emissions than central PRD, OFR over  
516 southwestern has shifted from VOC-limited to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited, leading to reduced local ozone contribution.  
517 Comparison of different trends between central and southwestern PRD actually highlights the fact that  
518 NO<sub>x</sub> emission control is one of the possible means to reduce ozone levels over the PRD, especially during  
519 ozone episodes with significantly enhanced biogenic VOCs emissions. Further reduction of NO<sub>x</sub>  
520 emissions, after bypassing the optimal effective NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio leading to the highest ozone  
521 concentration, would rapidly pull down peak ozone level and eventually bring it into attainment (Ou et  
522 al., 2016). Different OFR characteristics under general condition and during ozone episodes also  
523 highlight the importance of formulating dynamic control measures tailored for different emission and  
524 meteorological conditions.

525

526 **4. Conclusion and Implication**

527 Ambient ozone level in a particular area is determined by the interaction between meteorology and  
528 emission of ozone precursors, VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>. Differentiation of their impacts are important to evaluate  
529 the effectiveness of emission control measures in the past and to shed light on directions for future control  
530 plans. In this study, we develop a statistical analysis framework to identify ozone changes attributable to  
531 meteorology and local and non-local emissions in the PRD. The framework is essentially a combination  
532 of meteorological adjustment and source apportionment by EOF. We found that meteorology does not  
533 alter the increasing trend of ozone during 2007-2017, but significantly mitigate the magnitude of  
534 increasing. Ozone increase solely due to precursor emission changes would have been more significant.

535

536 In comparison with non-local precursor emissions, the impacts of local precursor emissions on ambient  
537 ozone present significant spatial and temporal heterogeneity over the PRD. Northeastern and  
538 southwestern exhibit different net ozone production and loss characteristics under general conditions and  
539 during ozone episodes. In response to the preferential NO<sub>x</sub> emission control during the past years, local  
540 ozone contribution decreases over northeastern and increases over southwestern under general conditions,  
541 while decreases over both northeastern and southwestern but increases over central and western PRD  
542 during ozone episodes. Such a complex characteristics can be well interpreted by a [conceptual](#)  
543 [diagram](#)~~conceptual model~~ collectively taking into account ozone precursor emissions and their changing  
544 trends, ozone formation regimes, and the monsoonal and micro-scale synoptic conditions over different  
545 sub-regions of the PRD. In particular, OFR shift during ozone episodes in response to higher biogenic  
546 VOC emissions and VOC oxidation rate is the fundamental cause for different trends both spatially and  
547 temporally. We conclude that the past control measures preferentially targeted on NO<sub>x</sub> are most likely  
548 responsible for ozone increase in the PRD, especially over southwestern by reduced ozone titration.  
549 However, OFR has started to shift from VOC-limited to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited over southwestern, especially  
550 during ozone episodes. Therefore, NO<sub>x</sub> emission control should be further strengthened to alleviate peak  
551 ozone levels.

552

553 By investigating the ozone evolution influenced by emission changes within and outside PRD during the  
554 past decade, this study highlights the complexity in ozone pollution control in the PRD. The complexity  
555 lies in three aspects. First, ozone control should be location-specific. Northeastern is the area benefited  
556 from current control measures in the PRD, and the main focus should be on co-prevention and co-control  
557 with further northeastern areas, e.g. Jiangxi and Fujian, to reduce long-range transport; Central and  
558 southwestern PRD should pay more efforts on VOCs control to elevate NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio into a level that  
559 ozone titration would not be further reduced. Second, ozone control should be temporally dynamic and  
560 largely dependent upon meteorological conditions. OFR may change greatly under different  
561 meteorological conditions which would influence effective control strategy and deserve more in-depth  
562 investigation. In particular, precursor emissions surrounding the PRE should be preferentially controlled  
563 during ozone episodes as they may contribute greatly to ozone formation when trapped over PRE by the  
564 micro-scale circulations. They are responsible for ozone hotspot over southwestern with a drastically  
565 increasing trend. Last but not least, under every circumstance, the most desirable NO<sub>x</sub>/VOCs ratio for  
566 emission control should be investigated in detail. For example, control measures during ozone episodes  
567 should preferentially target on NO<sub>x</sub> in the context of significantly enhanced biogenic VOCs emissions.  
568 Comparison of different trends between central and southwestern PRD provides a perfect highlight on  
569 the effect of NO<sub>x</sub> control. Further reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, after bypassing the optimal effective  
570 NO<sub>x</sub>/VOC ratio [leading to the highest ozone concentration](#), would rapidly pull down peak ozone level

571 and eventually bring it into attainment (Ou et al., 2016).

572

### 573 **Authorship Contribution Statement**

574 ZY and JZ designed the experiments and LY, HL, XL and ~~YBXL~~ carried them out. PKKL and DC  
575 provided ozone monitoring data and contributed to the discussion of the results. LY and ZY drafted the  
576 paper, with all co-authors contributing to subsequent enhancements.

577

578 [§ illustrates that the authors contribute equally to this article and \\* illustrates corresponding author.](#)

579

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585

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730

731

732 **Table 1. Location of fifteen ozone monitoring stations across the Pearl River Delta and their environmental**  
 733 **background.**

<b>Station</b>	<b>Full name</b>	<b>City</b>	<b>Longitude (E)</b>	<b>Latitude (N)</b>	<b>Environmental Background</b>
<b>CW</b>	Central/Western	Hong Kong	114.15	22.28	Residential/Commercial
<b>CZ</b>	Chengzhong	Zhaoqing	112.47	23.05	Residential/Commercial
<b>DH</b>	Donghu	Jiangmen	113.08	22.59	Urban
<b>HG</b>	Haogang	Dongguan	113.73	23.03	Residential/Commercial
<b>HJC</b>	Huijingcheng	Foshan	113.10	23.00	Residential/Commercial
<b>JGW</b>	Jinguowan	Huizhou	114.38	22.93	Residential
<b>JJZ</b>	Jinjuzui	Foshan	113.26	22.81	Suburban
<b>LH</b>	Luhu	Guangzhou	113.28	23.15	Urban
<b>LY</b>	Liyuan	Shenzhen	114.09	22.55	Urban
<b>TC</b>	Tung Chung	Hong Kong	113.91	22.27	Residential
<b>TH</b>	Tianhu	Guangzhou	113.62	23.65	Rural
<b>TJ</b>	Tangjia	Zhuhai	113.58	22.34	Commercial/Industrial
<b>XP</b>	Xiapu	Huizhou	114.40	23.07	Commercial
<b>YL</b>	Yuen Long	Hong Kong	114.02	22.44	Residential
<b>ZML</b>	Zimaling	Zhongshan	113.40	22.50	Residential/Commercial

734

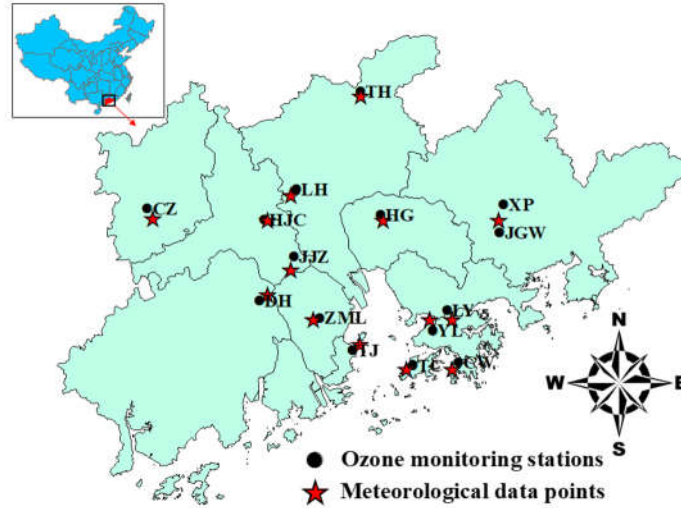
735 **Table 2. Contributions of meteorology and local and non-local emission changes to the ozone concentration**  
 736 **change ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) in 2016-2017 at fifteen monitoring stations in the Pearl River Delta under general**  
 737 **conditions.**

<b>Station</b>	<b>CZ</b>	<b>DH</b>	<b>JJZ</b>	<b>ZML</b>	<b>TJ</b>	<b>HJC</b>	<b>LH</b>	<b>LY</b>
<b>Meteorology</b>	1.9	3.1	3.3	4.0	5.3	3.2	4.0	3.2
<b>Local</b>	3.5	4.8	2.9	3.4	2.2	2.2	-0.3	0.1
<b>Non-local</b>	2.2	2.7	2.8	2.6	2.0	2.5	2.3	1.5
<b>Station</b>	<b>YL</b>	<b>TC</b>	<b>CW</b>	<b>HG</b>	<b>XP</b>	<b>JGW</b>	<b>TH</b>	<b>PRD</b>
<b>Meteorology</b>	3.8	1.9	2.9	3.9	4.2	4.5	4.0	3.5
<b>Local</b>	0.4	0.3	-0.2	-2.7	-5.5	-6.3	-5.0	-0.1
<b>Non-local</b>	1.8	0.9	1.4	2.4	1.8	1.6	1.3	2.0

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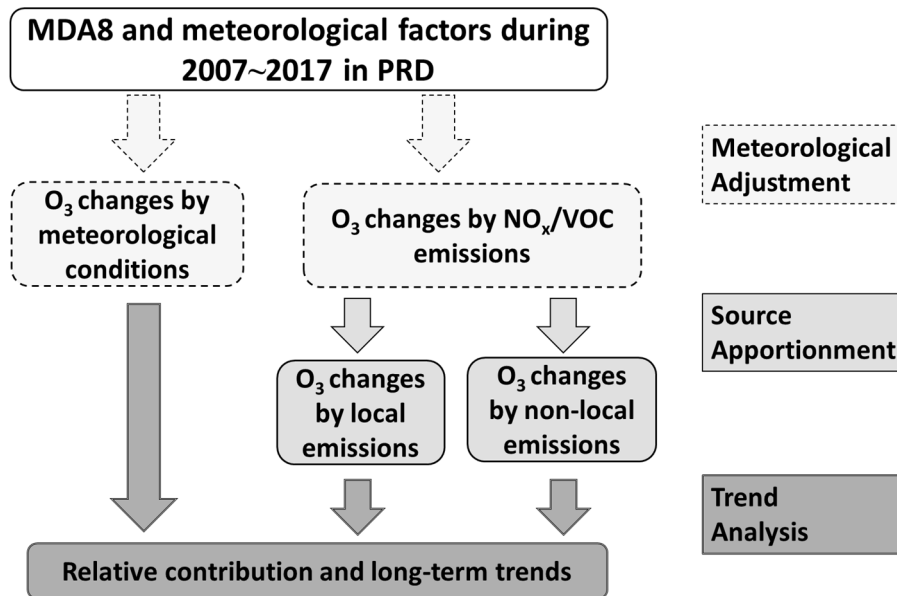


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Fig 1. Distribution of ozone monitoring stations and meteorological data points in the Pearl River Delta.

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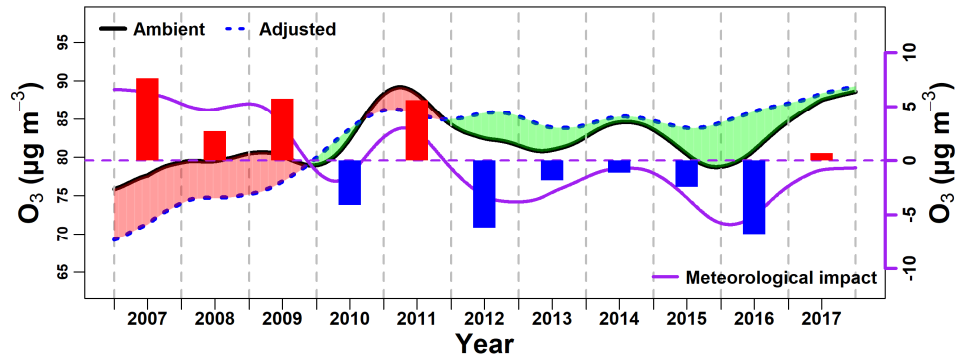
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Fig 2. Flowchart of the statistical analysis framework to identify the long-term impacts of meteorology and local and non-local emissions on ambient ozone.

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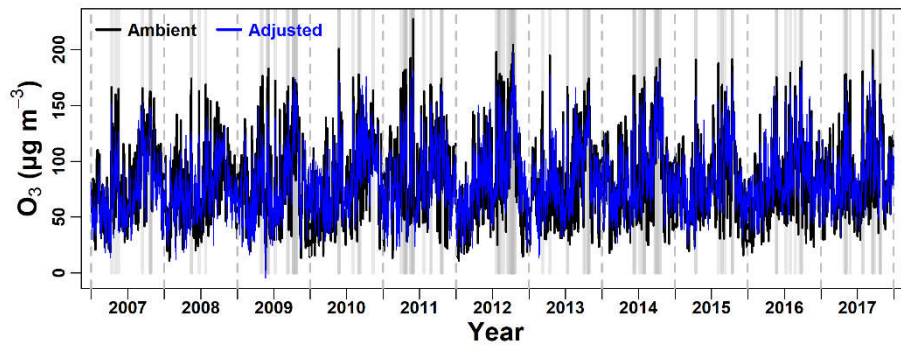
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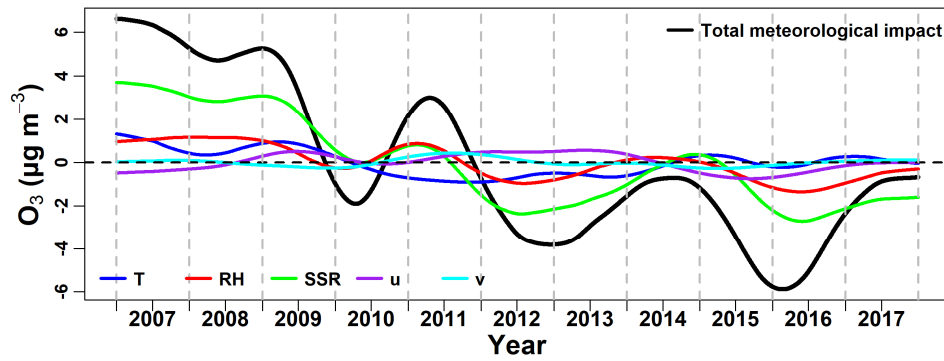
(a)



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(b)



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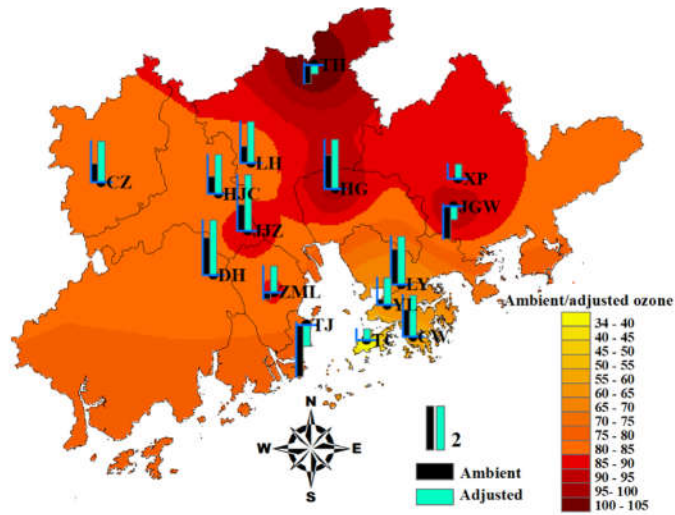
753

(c)

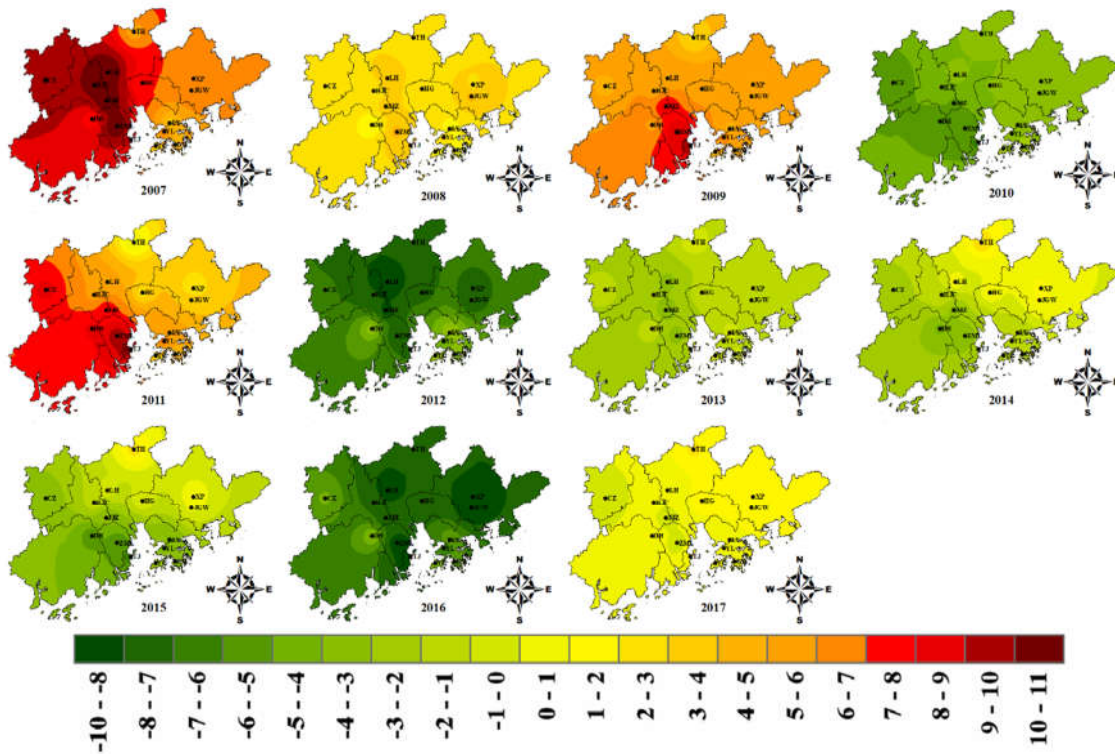
754 **Fig 3. (a) Long-term trends of ambient ozone, meteorologically adjusted ozone, and the meteorological**  
 755 **impact in the Pearl River Delta during 2007-2017. Periods with positive and negative meteorological impacts**  
 756 **are shadowed in red and green, respectively. Red and blue bars represent ozone increase and reduction**  
 757 **attributed to meteorology in each year, respectively. (b) Ozone concentration time series before (black) and**  
 758 **after (blue) meteorological adjustment. Gray areas represent periods with ozone concentration over 160**  
 759  **$\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . (c) Long-term variations of meteorological impact by different meteorological factors.**

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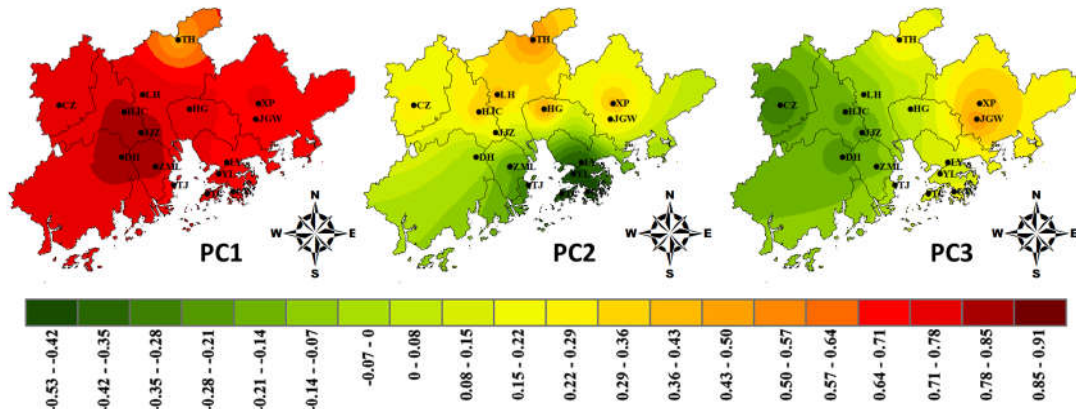
(a)



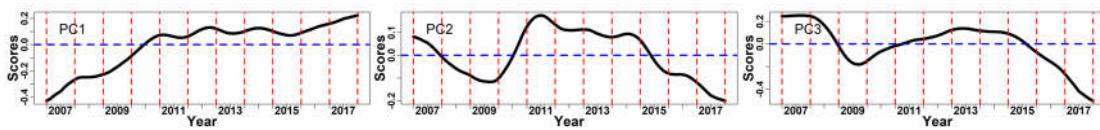
(b)

Fig 4. (a) Spatial distribution of averaged ozone concentrations ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) in the Pearl River Delta and annual ozone changes ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ year}^{-1}$ ) before and after meteorological adjustment over the fifteen monitoring stations during 2007-2017. The bar length in the legend corresponds to an annual increase of  $2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . (b) Annual variation of meteorological impact on ozone concentration ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) over the Pearl River Delta during 2007-2017. The legend of color contours in (a) refers to the ozone concentration ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) isopleths before and after meteorological adjustment.





(a)



(b)

Fig 5. (a) Spatial distribution of principal component loadings in the Pearl River Delta, and (b) long-term variation of principal component scores during 2007-2017. PC1 reflects non-local emission impacts while PC2 and PC3 refer to impacts from different local emissions.

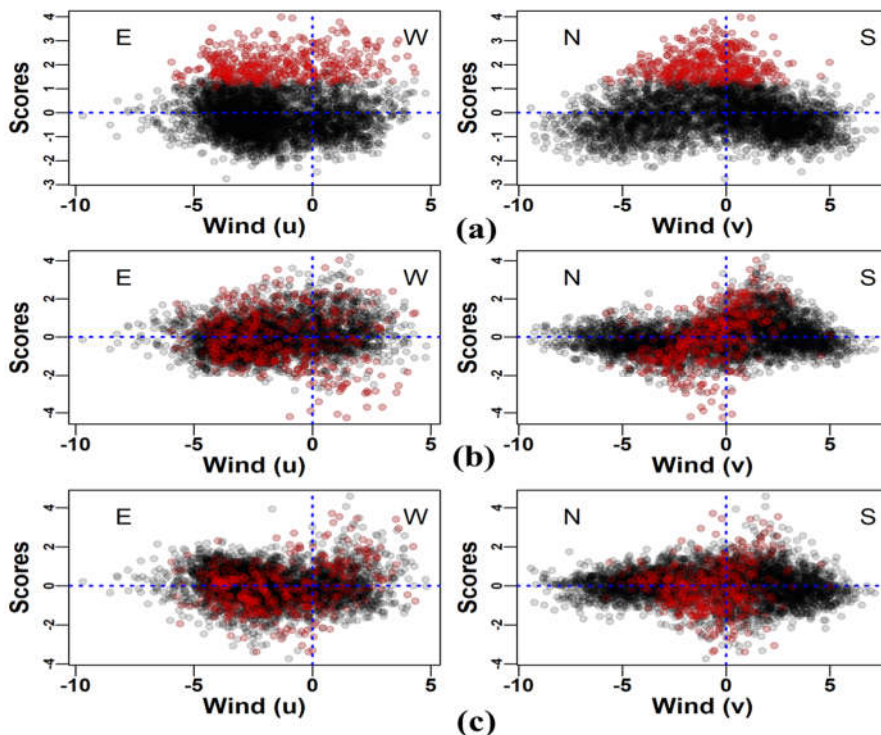
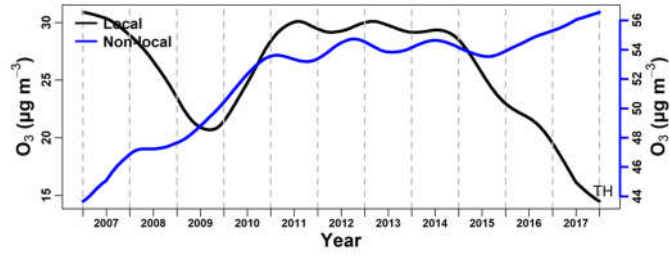


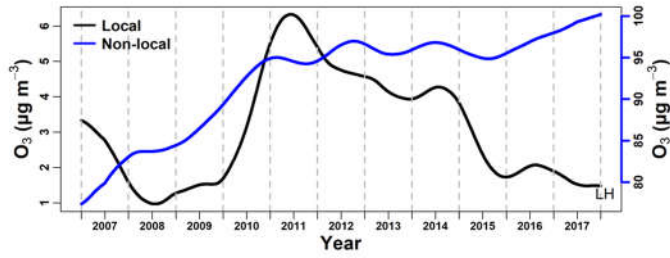
Fig 6. Scatterplot between principal component scores (a-c: PC1-3) and wind (u and v). u and v are the east-west and north-south components of wind (u: +west/-east, v: +south/-north). Red points refer to samples with high ozone concentration (over 90<sup>th</sup> percentile).



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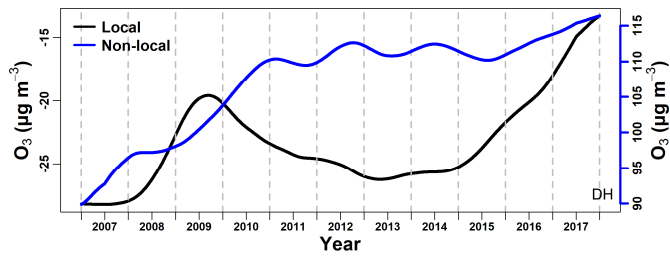
(a)



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(b)



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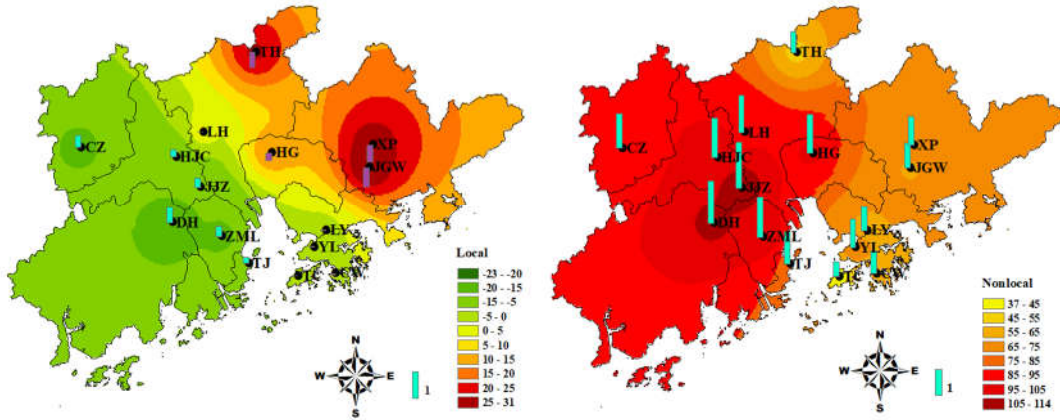
(c)

Fig 7. Long-term trend of ozone contributed by local (black) and non-local (blue) emission sources from 2007 to 2017 at (a) TH, (b) LH and (c) DH stations.

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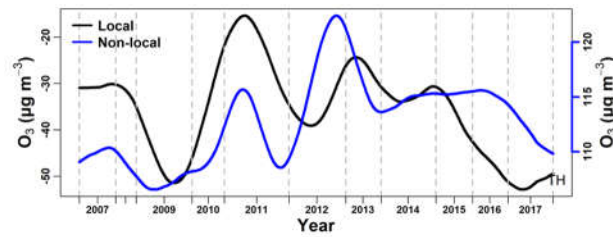
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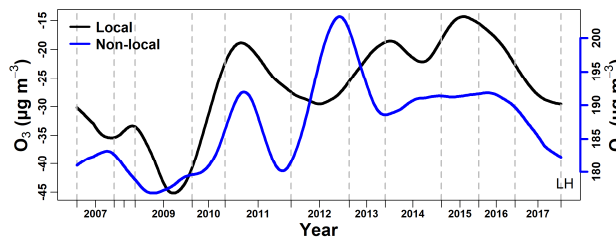
(a)

(b)

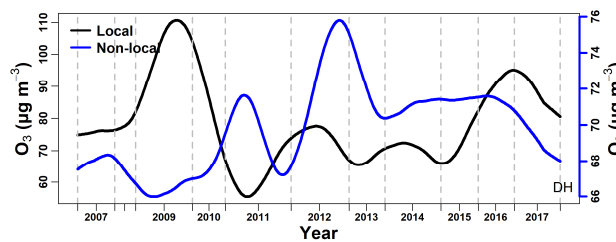
Fig 8. Spatial distribution of ozone contribution from (a) local and (b) non-local emissions ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of each station and their annual change rate in the Pearl River Delta. Bars in blue above / in purple below the station point indicate increasing / decreasing contributions. The bar length in the legend corresponds to an annual increase of  $1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . Ozone contributions from local emissions show positive but decreasing trend in the northeastern and negative but increasing trend in the southwestern. Ozone contributions from non-local emissions are positive and increasing region-wide.



(a)

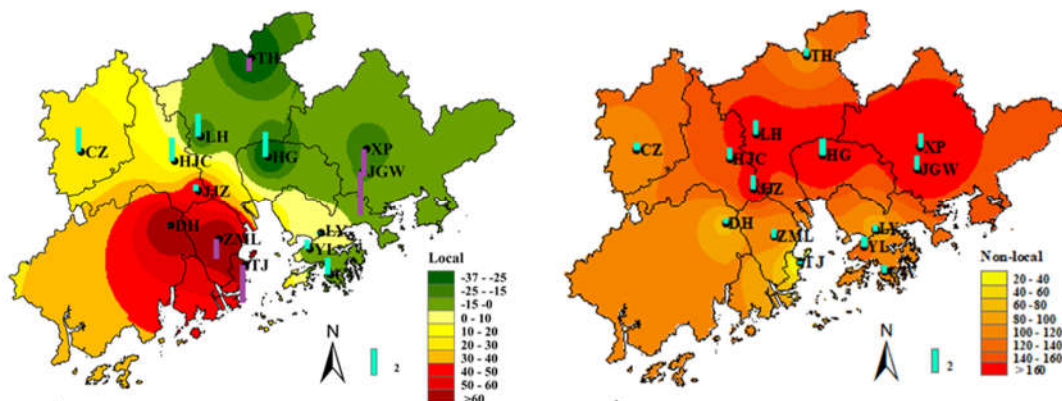


(b)



(c)

Fig 9. Long-term trend of ozone contributed by local (black) and non-local (blue) emission sources from 2007 to 2017 at (a) TH, (b) LH and (c) DH stations during ozone episodes. Inver

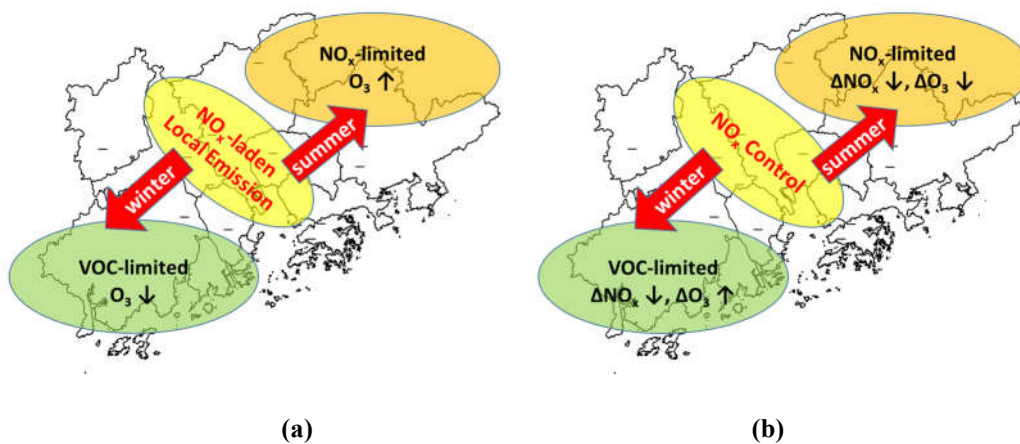


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815 Fig 10. Spatial distribution of ozone contribution from (a) local and (b) non-local emissions ( $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ) of each  
 816 station and their annual change rate in the Pearl River Delta during ozone episodes. Bars in blue above / in  
 817 purple below the station point indicate increasing / decreasing contributions trend. The bar length in the  
 818 legend corresponds to an annual increase of  $2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ . Ozone contributions from local emissions are positive  
 819 in the southwestern and negative in the northeastern. Central PRD is the only area with increasing local  
 820 ozone contribution trend. Ozone contributions from non-local emissions are positive and increasing region-  
 821 wide.

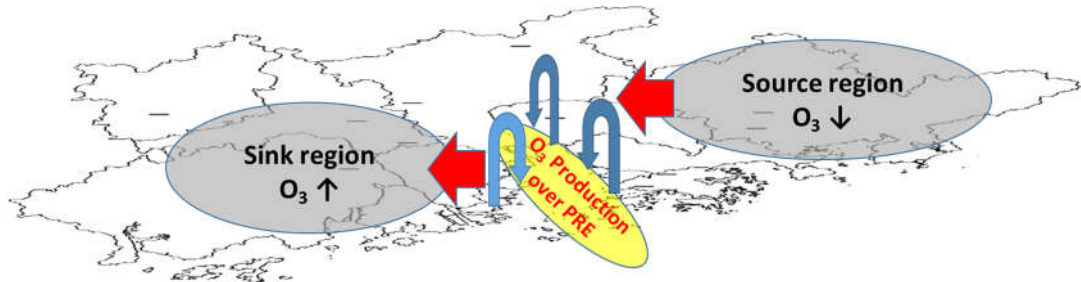
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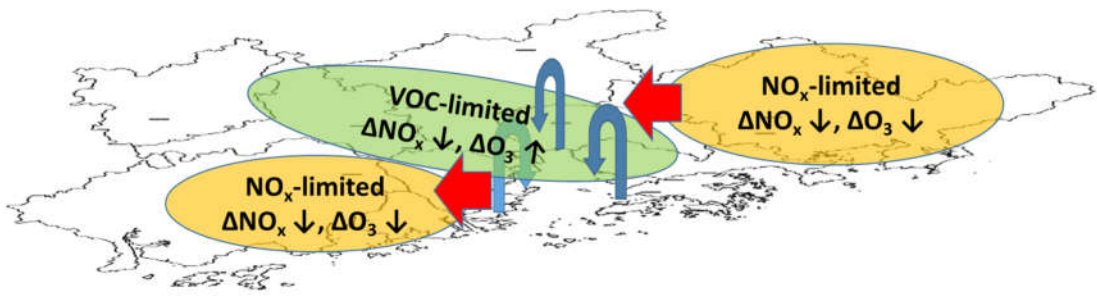
825 Fig 11. A conceptual diagram on the impacts of local emissions on (a) ozone  
 826 concentrations and (b) their changing trends over the Pearl River Delta. Local  $\text{NO}_x$ -laden emissions increase  
 827 ozone level ( $\text{O}_3 \uparrow$ ) in the downwind northeastern in summer and fall, but the increase is suppressed due to  
 828 the preferential  $\text{NO}_x$  control ( $\Delta \text{NO}_x \downarrow$ ), leading to net ozone decrease ( $\Delta \text{O}_3 \downarrow$ ). In comparison, local  
 829 emissions decrease ozone level ( $\text{O}_3 \downarrow$ ) in the downwind southwestern in winter and spring, but the decrease  
 830 is also mitigated due to  $\text{NO}_x$  control ( $\Delta \text{NO}_x \downarrow$ ), leading to net ozone increase ( $\Delta \text{O}_3 \uparrow$ ). Such a phenomenon  
 831 is essentially governed by different ozone formation regimes in northeastern ( $\text{NO}_x$ -limited) and  
 832 southwestern PRD (VOC-limited).



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834

(a)



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(b)

837 Fig 12. A **conceptual diagram** on the impact of local emissions on (a) ozone  
 838 concentrations and (b) their changing trends in the Pearl River Delta during ozone pollution episodes. The  
 839 blue curved angles indicate micro-scale circulations such as land-sea breeze developed around the Pearl  
 840 River Estuary (PRE). The micro-scale circulation leads to a high ozone area around the PRE due to effective  
 841 mixing and reaction between VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>. High ozone is transported to southwestern by easterly wind,  
 842 increasing local ozone contribution. In comparison, northeastern is a source region of ozone therefore its  
 843 local contribution is negative. With higher biogenic VOC emissions and VOC oxidation rate during ozone  
 844 episodes, most of PRD is in the NO<sub>x</sub>-limited ozone formation regime except for urban central PRD which is  
 845 still VOC-limited due to intense NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Therefore, reduced NO<sub>x</sub> emissions ( $\Delta \text{NO}_x \downarrow$ ) lead to  
 846 decreasing ozone level ( $\Delta \text{O}_3 \downarrow$ ) over both northeastern and southwestern and increasing ozone level over  
 847 central PRD ( $\Delta \text{O}_3 \uparrow$ ).

848