1 **Elucidating the ozone pollution in Yangtze River Delta region during the 2016 G20 summit for**

2 **MICS-Asia III**

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Abstract

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29 To elucidate the factors governing urban ozone (O_3) pollution during the campaign of G20 summit

30 in 2016 Hangzhou, China, the Weather Research Forecast with Chemistry (WRF-Chem) model was

31 used to simulate the spatial and temporal O_3 evolution in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region

32 from 24 August to 06 September 2016. Various atmospheric processes were analyzed to determine

33 the influential factors of ozone formation through integrated process rate method. The results

34 indicated that both the vertical diffusion and the enhanced process of local chemical generation

35 accounted for the increase of surface O_3 concentration in Hangzhou. Local chemical generation was

36 found to positively correlated with O_3 concentrations, with correlation coefficient of 0.77. In

37 accordance with the tropical weather cycle, subsidence air and stagnant weather were induced.

38 Dynamic circulations of O_3 through advection were associated with the urban heat island effect. All

39 these factors intensified ozone pollution in Hangzhou, particularly on 25 August 2016 (O_3-8h: 98

40 ppb). These findings provide insight into urban O_3 formation and dispersion during tropical cyclone

41 events, and support the Model Intercomparison Study Asia Phase III (MICS-Asia Phase III).

42 **Keywords**: Ozone, Tropical cyclone, WRF-Chem, Process analysis, Air quality

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1. Introduction

Tropospheric ozone (O_3) is generated by a series of photochemical reactions involving volatile organic compounds (VOCs), nitrogen oxide (NO_x), and carbon monoxide (CO) (Wang et al., 2006). As a primary component of photochemical smog, ground-level O_3 pollution exhibits detrimental effects on human health (Ha et al., 2014; Kheirbek et al., 2013) and the ecosystem (Landry et al., 2013; Teixeira et al., 2011). The contribution of outdoor air pollution sources to premature mortality may increase globally in the coming decades (Lelieveld et al., 2015). O_3 levels in cities in the United States and Europe are increasing more than those in the rural areas of these regions, where peak values decreased during 1990–2010 (Paoletti et al., 2014). Nagashima et al., (2017) reported that long-term (1980 – 2005) trends of increase in surface O_3 over Japan may be primarily attributed to the continental transport that have contributed to photochemical O_3 production. Urban O_3 pollution events can also be observed in developing countries, such as Thailand (Zhang and Kim Oanh, 2002) and India (Calfapietra et al., 2016).

Air quality has been deteriorating in China as urbanization and motorization have progressed. Many field and modeling studies have investigated the photochemical characteristics of near-surface O_3 (Tang et al., 2009, 2012; Wang et al., 2013, 2014), the photochemistry of O_3 and its precursors (Xie et al., 2014), interactions of O_3 with $PM_{2.5}$ (Shi et al., 2015), and urban O_3 formation (Tie et al., 2013). In addition to anthropogenic emissions of O_3 precursors, uncontrollable physical and chemical processes involved in meteorological phenomena critically modulate changes in O_3 concentration (Xue et al., 2014). In the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region of China, high O_3 concentrations are associated with pollutant transport and diffusion from surrounding areas (Gao et al., 2016; Jiang et al., 2012). Synoptic patterns related to tropical cyclones may be conducive to high O_3 concentrations (Huang et al., 2005). Jiang et al. (2015) reported that enhanced stratosphere – troposphere exchange (STE) driven by a tropical cyclone abruptly increased O_3 concentrations (21 – 42 ppb) in the southeast of China during June 12 – 14, 2014. STE has been highlighted as a significant contributor to near-surface O_3 concentrations (Lin et al., 2012, 2015).

80   Because relevant data are limited, the complex dynamics in atmospheric processes related to O_3

81   formation are difficult to evaluate, and the main processes that account for high O_3 concentrations

82   are challenging to identify. O_3 pollution characteristics and underlying causes have not been

83   sufficiently investigated in China, especially in relation to extreme meteorological conditions. The

84   lack of relevant data may influence urban pollution prevention efforts.

85   In this study, a regional air quality model, within the framework of the Model Inter-

86   Comparison Study for ASIA phase III (MICS-ASIA III) (Li et al., 2019), was used to elucidate the

87   chemical and physical factors that contributed to O_3 abundance during the G20 (Group of Twenty)

88   summit. The summit was held in Hangzhou, China, and the focus of the summit was the sustainable

89   and healthy development of the world economy. Emergency emission control measures (e.g.,

90   industrial stoppages, limitations of vehicle movement) were implemented over an area with a

91   diameter of approximately 600 km to improve the air quality from 24 August to 06 September 2016.

92   Because of severe concerns regarding O_3 concentrations and the summer cyclonic weather pattern,

93   the aforementioned pollution control event attracted wide policy-related interest. The rest of this

94   paper is organized as follows. Section 2 outlines the methodology and configuration of the model

95   system. Section 3 describes the synoptic weather conditions as well as individual O_3

96   formation–related atmospheric processes. Section 4 discusses causes of O_3 pollution. Finally,

97   section 5 presents a summary of the findings.

98   **2. Methodology**

99   **2.1. Regional chemistry modeling system**

100   To investigate the interactions among emissions, meteorological phenomena, and chemical

101   phenomena, the Weather Research Forecast with Chemistry model (WRF-Chem) was used to

102   simulate temporal and spatial changes in O_3 concentration. WRF-Chem is a regional online-coupled

103   air quality model that simultaneously simulates air quality components and meteorological

104   components by using identical transport schemes, grid structures, and physical schemes (Grell et al.,

105   2005). Two model domains were designed in this study (Fig. 1a): an outer domain (horizontal

106   resolution: 30 km) covering East China (20.0 °N – 44.5 °N, 99.0 °E – 126.5 °E) and an inner domain

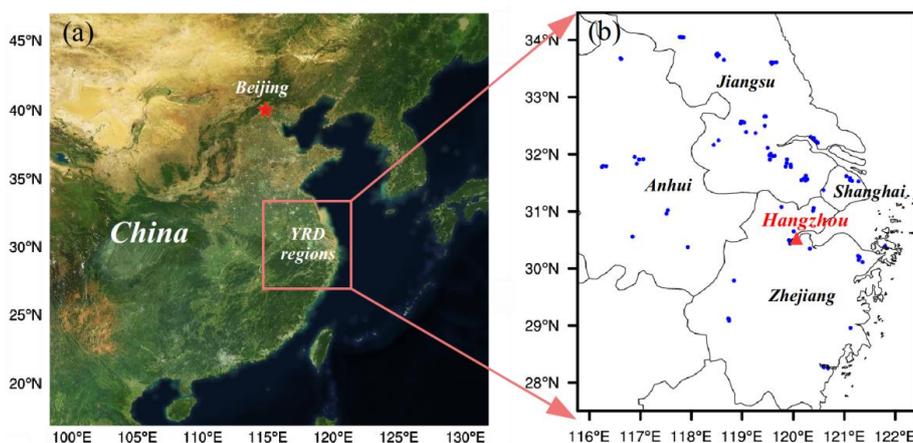
107   (horizontal resolution: 6 km) covering the YRD region (27.6 °N – 32.7 °N, 116.9 °E – 122.4 °E). The

108   "Lambert conformal conic" projection was applied with domain center at 34 °N, 111 °E. There is a

109   total of 31 vertical layers with model top at 50 hPa. The simulation period was from 17 August to

110   06 September 2016, and simulations of the first week were used to spin up the model. Hourly model

111   outputs for 24 August to 06 September were used in the analysis. Additional details regarding the

112   configuration of the WRF-Chem model are described in our previous study (Ni et al., 2018).

113   **Fig. 1.** Double-nested simulation domains. (a) Domain 1: 30 km in East China with 102 (W – E) × 111 (S – N) ×

114   31 (vertical layers) grids. The copyright of map is own to © Google; (b) Domain 2: 6 km in the Yangtze River Delta

115   (YRD) region with 100 (W – E) × 115 (S – N) × 31 (vertical layers) grids. Blue dots denote the air quality

116   monitoring sites.

117   The meteorological boundary and initial conditions were determined from the global objective

118   final analysis (FNL) data of the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (Kalnay et al., 1996).

119   The FNL data were also assimilated to domain 1 (East China), and the grid-nudging method

120   (Stauffer et al., 1991) was used to reduce the meteorological integral errors. The chemical initial and

121   boundary conditions were dynamically downscaled from the model for ozone and related chemical

122   tracers, version 4 (MOZART4) (Emmons et al., 2010) simulation results; the relevant data are

123   available at https://www.acom.ucar.edu/wrf-chem/mozart.shtml.

2.2. Emissions

The 2016 Multiresolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC, $0.25° \times 0.25°$; http://www.meicmodel.org/) was used for the outer domain (Fig. 1a) with spatial resolution of 30 km (Li et al., 2017), including species of SO_2, NO_x, CO, NH_3, $PM_{2.5}$, and VOCs from the power, industrial, residential, transportation, and agricultural sectors. Inventories of finer anthropogenic emissions for the YRD region (Fig. 1b) over the year of 2014 were compiled based on the bottom-up method by Shanghai Academy of Environmental Sciences. These inventories have been documented in detail in previous studies (Huang et al., 2011; Li et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2018). Thus, only brief discussions of these inventories are presented herein. The fine emission inventories include major sectors such as large point sources, industrial sources, mobile sources, and residential sources. The anthropogenic emissions over the YRD region are mainly located over the industrial and urban areas along the Yangtze River as well as over Hangzhou Bay. In this study, the emission inventories for the two domains were projected into horizontal and vertical grids as hourly emissions, with temporal and vertical profiles obtained from Wang et al. (2011). VOCs emissions were categorized into modeled species, according to von Schneidemesser et al. (2016). In addition, biogenic emissions were generated offline using the Model of Emission of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) (Guenther et al., 2006). Dust emissions were calculated online from surface features and meteorological fields by using the Air Force Weather Agency and Atmospheric and Environmental Research scheme (Jones et al., 2011). Other emissions (i.e., those from biomass burning, aviation, and sailing ships), accounting for very small fractions during this period, were therefore not considered in this study.

2.3. Atmospheric processes analysis

To understand the mechanism underlying O_3 formation, individual physical and chemical processes of O_3 formation were investigated using integrated process rate (IPR) analysis in the WRF-Chem model. IPR analysis has been widely applied; this method has been proven to be an effective tool for demonstrating the relative importance of individual processes and for interpreting

150   O_3 concentrations (Goncalves et al., 2009; Tang et al., 2017; Shu et al., 2016). The present study

151   investigated atmospheric processes involved in O_3 formation, including gas chemistry, vertical

152   diffusion, and horizontal and vertical advection. Other processes (i.e., cloud processes and

153   horizontal diffusion) that either play minor roles or result in the formation of a sink (i.e., dry and

154   wet deposition) were not considered in this study.

155   **2.4. Evaluation method**

156   To increase the confidence in interpretations of model results, model outputs should first be

157   evaluated based on observations. Accordingly, in this study, the model results derived from domain

158   2 were compared with hourly surface observational data obtained from 96 air quality monitoring

159   sites in the YRD region (blue dots, Fig. 1b). These data were downloaded from http://www.pm25.in.

160   The air pollutants assessed were O_3 and NO_2. Model performance was evaluated using statistical

161   measures, namely mean fractional bias (MFB), mean fractional error (MFE), and correlation

162   coefficient (R), following the recommendation of the US Environmental Protection Agency (US

163   EPA; 2007). The formula used in this evaluation is presented in Table S1. Additionally, the

164   meteorological parameters were evaluated based on observational data—including temperature at 2

165   m (T2), relative humidity at 2 m (RH2), and 10 m wind speed (WS10) and direction (WD10)—from

166   the Meteorological Assimilation Data Ingest System (https://madis.noaa.gov). Following the study

167   of Zhang et al. (2014), commonly used mean bias (MB), gross error (GE), and root mean square

168   error (RMSE) were calculated as the statistical indicators; corresponding equations are denoted in

169   Table S1.

170   The vertical distribution of modeled O_3 in Hangzhou was evaluated based on comparisons with

171   observed differential absorption LiDAR (DIAL) data (Su et al. 2017). In the DIAL technique, the

172   mean gas concentration over a certain range interval is determined by analyzing the LiDAR

173   backscatter signals for laser wavelengths tuned "on" (λ_{on}) and "off" (λ_{off}) in a molecular absorption

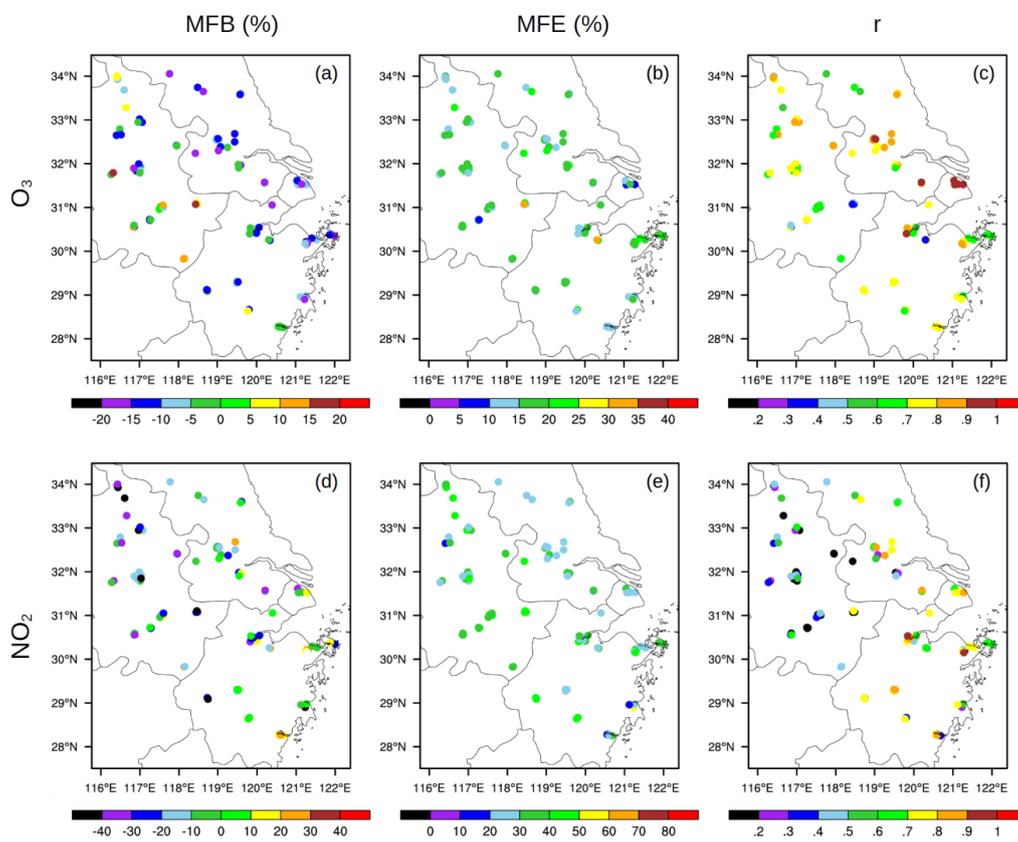
174   peak of the gas under investigation (Browell et al., 1998). The DIAL technique can be used to

175   measure O_3 concentrations above or near a specific location (Browell, 1989). In our DIAL datasets,

176 the vertical height available was from 0.3 km to 3 km due to the limitations of the signal-to-noise

177 ratio and detection range.

178 **3. Results**

179 **3.1. Model performance evaluation**

180

181 **Fig. 2.** Comparison of modeled air pollutants concentrations against measurements in 96 monitoring sites over

182 YRD region during August 24–September 6, 2016: Mean fractional bias (MFB), mean fractional error (MFE) and

183 Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) of O_3 (a–c) and NO_2 (d–f), respectively.

184   We first evaluated the overall performance of WRF-Chem for the YRD region by incorporating

185 data from the 96 air quality monitoring sites. Specifically, the maximum daily 8 h (O_3-8h) ozone

186 and daily mean NO_2 concentrations at the surface were used. In general, the model-simulated air

187 pollutant concentrations agreed with the observations. The spatial distributions of MFB and MFE

188   for O$_3$ and NO$_2$ at the 96 observational sites over the YRD region are illustrated in Fig. 2. The

189   results reflected reasonable performance, with MFB and MFE for most of the sites meeting the

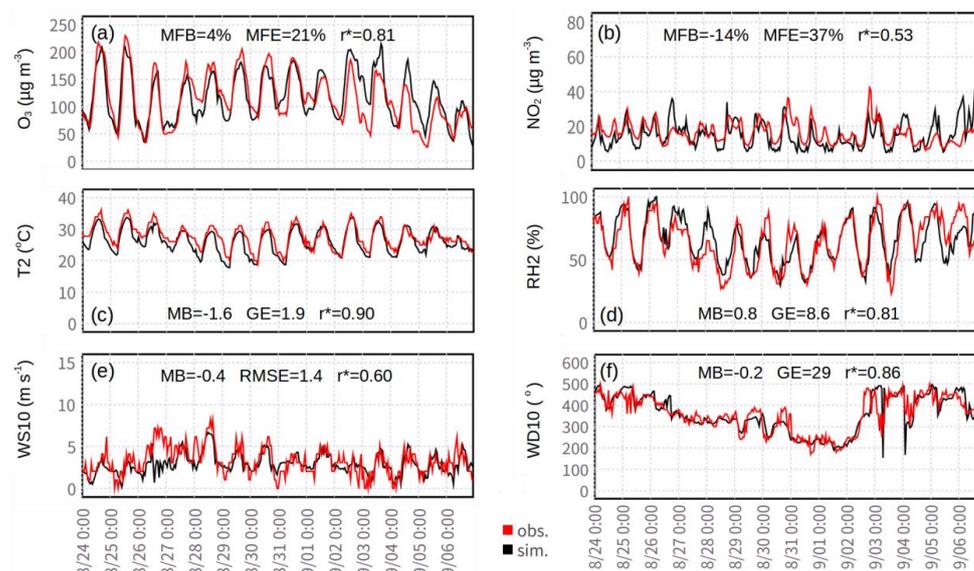
190   benchmarks (MFB: 15%; MFE: 35%) proposed by the US Environmental Protection Agency (US

191   EPA; 2007). A scatter plot of MFB/MFE was shown in Fig. S1a,b in the supporting information,

192   further hinting the ability of model in reproducing the observations, which is also reflected by the

193   high correlation between model and observations (Fig. S1c,d in the supporting information). Other

194   model evaluations with satellite retrievals during this period can been seen in our previous study (Ni

195   et al., 2019).

196   **Fig.3.** Modeled air pollutants and meteorological parameters compared with measurements at the Hangzhou

197   monitoring site from 24 August to 06 September 2016. Surface concentrations of (a) O$_3$ and (b) NO$_2$, (c)

198   temperature at 2 m (T2), (d) relative humidity at 2 m (RH2), (e) wind speed at 10 m (WS10) and (f) wind

199   direction at 10 m (WD10).

200   Following the overall evaluation of the greater YRD region, the site of Hangzhou was focused

201   on for further analysis, and WRF-Chem simulations of the site's air quality and meteorological

202   conditions were assessed. The time series of hourly simulated and observed air pollutants (O$_3$, Fig.

203   3a; NO$_2$, Fig. 3b) and meteorological factors (T2, Fig. 3c; RH2, Fig. 3d; WS10, Fig. 3e; and WD10,

204   Fig. 3f) are presented in Fig. 3. All modeled data were statistically significantly correlated with the

205   observed data at the 95% level. Overall, WRF-Chem well represented the observed diurnal

206   variations. For example, the MFB and MFE for both O_3 and NO_2 were near the benchmarks in

207   particular of O_3 levels (MFB/MFE: 4%/21%), and were well below the benchmarks (MFB/MFE:

208   15%/35%; US EPA; 2007).

209   For evaluation of meteorological parameters, Emery et al. (2001) proposed benchmarks,

210   including 2 m air temperature (MB ≤ ± 0.5°C, GE ≤ 2.0°C), 10 m wind speed (MB ≤ 0.5 m/s,

211   RMSE ≤ 2.0 m/s) and 10 m wind direction (MB ≤ ± 10°, GE ≤ 30°). McNally (2009) suggested a

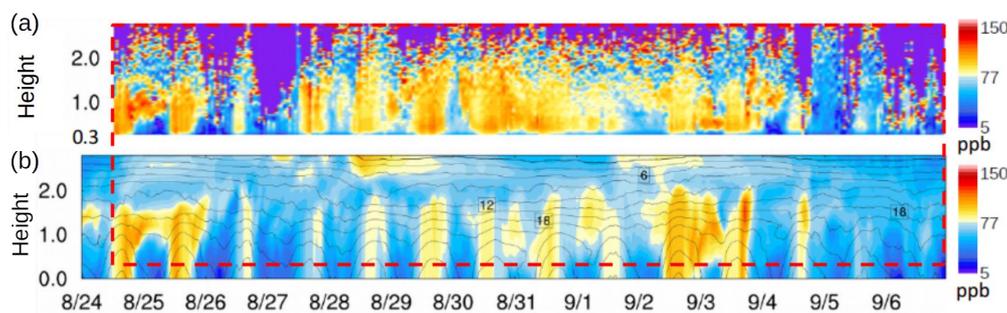
212   relaxed benchmark for 2 m temperature (MB ≤ ± 1.0 ℃). In this study, 10 m wind speed and wind

213   direction (Fig. 3e,f) results were well within the proposed limits. The GE of 2 m air temperature

214   (1.9 ℃; Fig. 3c) also satisfied the criteria; however, the MB was slightly higher (−1.6°C), and a

215   slightly high temperature bias was also noted in a previous study (Zhang et al., 2014). Overall,

216   favorable performance was noted for the simulation of meteorological parameters in comparison

217   with observations.

218   **Fig. 4.** Upper-level comparison of hourly (a) observed (from differential absorption LiDAR) and (b) simulated O_3

219   concentrations (ppb) in Hangzhou for 24 August to 06 September 2016. Purple regions in the top panel denote

220   invalid data with a low signal-to-noise ratio. To facilitate direct comparison, the red dashed line indicates the

221   ozone level recorded for the same time periods (starting from 12:00, 24 August) and vertical heights (0.3 – 3 km)

222   in the observations and simulation results.

223   To further evaluate the ability of the model to reproduce the vertical structure of ozone

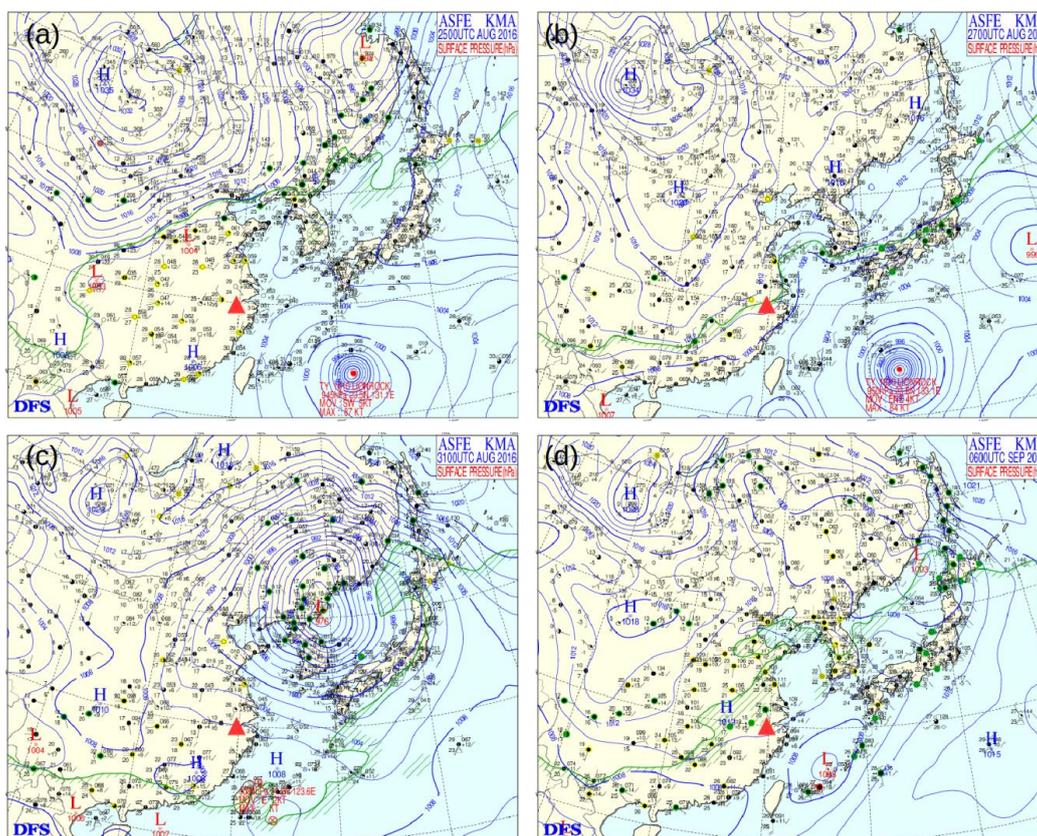
224   concentration, the vertical distribution of the modeled O_3 was qualitatively compared with the

225   DIAL datasets (Fig. 4). The comparison revealed that the model results were consistent with the

226   observations. Diurnal O_3 variations were mainly observed within the planetary boundary layer

227   (approximately <2 km). Notably, the model captured a nocturnal O_3-rich mass, which exhibited an

228   n-shaped distribution in the upper air (approximately 1 km) on 25 August 2016.

229   **3.2. Synoptic weather system**

230   **Fig. 5.** Tropical cyclone evolution in East Asia during the 2016 G20 summit. Weather charts for four

231   representative periods at 08:00 LST on (a) 25 August, (b) 27 August, (c) 31 August, and (d) 06 September 2016.

232   LST: Local Sidereal Time; H: High-pressure system; L: Low-pressure system. The red triangle denotes the

233   location of Hangzhou. The copyright of map is own to © Korea Meteorological Administration.

234   Considering the synoptic circulation is closely related to O_3 abundance, four representative

235   surface weather charts obtained from the Korea Meteorological Administration were used to track

236   the tropical cyclone (Fig. 5). In the early stage of the tropical cyclone during 24 and 25 August 2016

237   (Fig. 5a), strong and uniform high-pressure fields covered vast regions of southeastern China. A

238   tropical cyclone moved northeastward over the East China Sea. In the middle stage (Fig. 5b), the

239   tropical cyclone approached the YRD region, bringing strong north wind fields to this area. The

240   long narrow rain band arrived in Hangzhou (red triangle) on 27 August 2016. In the later stage (Fig.

241   5c), the cyclone continuously moved toward Japan and eventually hit the land. The tropical high in

242   the YRD region recovered gradually. Finally, the cyclone faded, and a rainstorm appeared over most

243   of the YRD region. This rainstorm continued from approximately 02 through 07 September 2016

244   (Fig. 5d, for clarity, only the data for 06 September are presented).

245   **3.3. O_3 pollution episode**

246   In Fig. 6, hourly vertical and horizontal O_3 distributions and wind fields in the YRD region are

247   presented for three representative episodes according to the movement of the tropical cyclone. For

248   stagnation days with weak wind fields (i.e., 25 August and 02 September) before or after the

249   tropical cyclone, meteorological conditions were unfavorable for pollutant dispersion. O_3 pollution

250   was more regional and intense, with an hourly peak O_3 concentration of 250 μg m^{-3} below the high

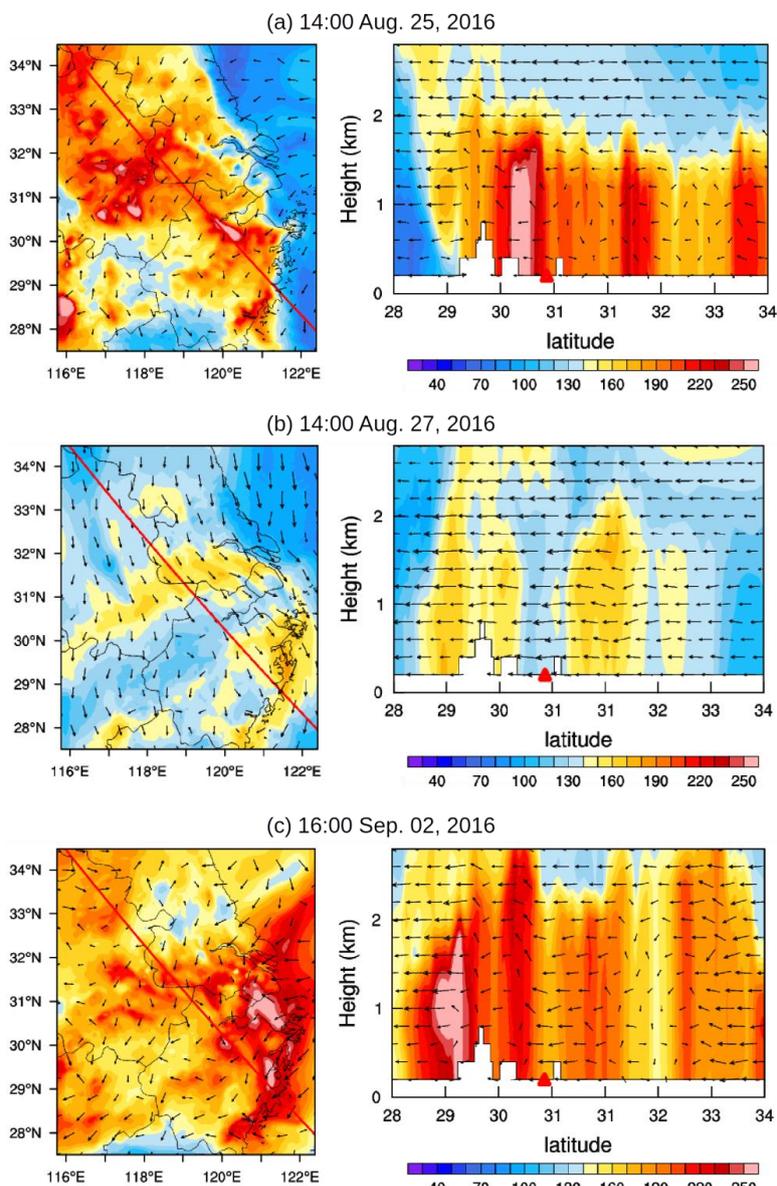
251   layer (2 km) around Hangzhou (Fig. 6a,c). As the cyclone approached (on 27 August), a large belt

252   of O_3-rich mass (>160 μg m^{-3}) appeared in the upwind direction and moved toward Hangzhou

253   under a prevailing north wind field (Fig. 6b). Transboundary pollutant transport played a critical

254   role in these processes, and this finding was consistent with the atmospheric trajectories from North

255   China (Fig. S2). This southward transport of pollutants may supply raw materials for photochemical

256   O_3 generation.

257
258 **Fig. 6.** Surface and upper-level O$_3$ distributions (µg m^{-3}) and wind fields (vectors, m s^{-1}) for representative

259 episodes. (a) Stagnant weather before the tropical cyclone, (b) pollutant transport when the tropical cyclone

260 approached, and (c) stagnant weather after the cyclone. The red line denotes the cross section line of upper-level

261 O$_3$ distributions. The red triangle denotes the location of Hangzhou.

3.5. Process analysis of O₃ formation

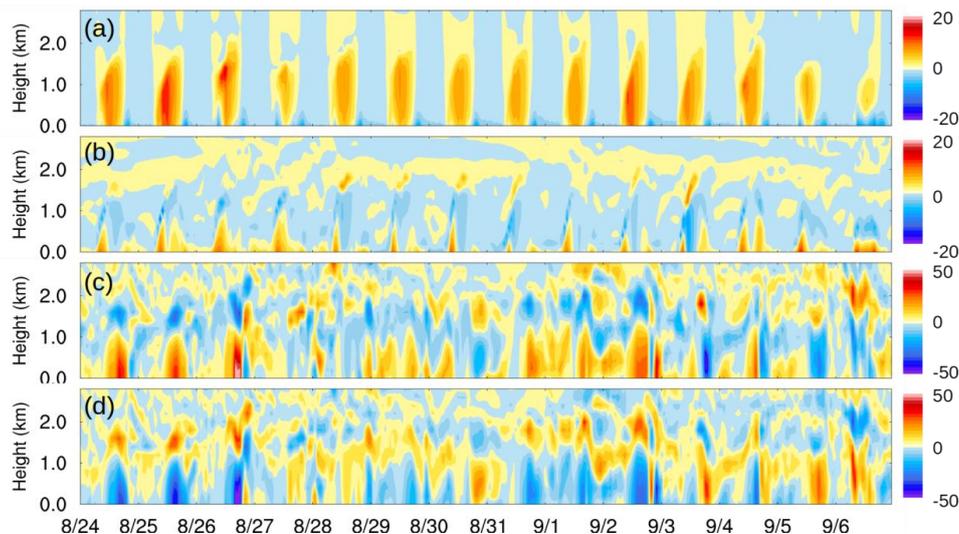



Fig. 7. Hourly variations in the change rate of upper-level O$_3$ (ppb h^{-1}) resulting from (a) gas chemistry, (b) vertical diffusion, (c) horizontal advection, and (d) vertical advection in Hangzhou.

Four hourly modeled processes indicated the diurnal fluctuations in loops. Gas chemistry resulted in generation of O$_3$ nearly above the upper-air height of 2 km in the daytime but caused depletion of O$_3$ at the near-surface height (<0.3 km) in the nighttime (Fig. 7a). O$_3$ from the upper layer diffused downward to the ground through vertical diffusion during the study period but was significantly higher in the daytime (Fig. 7b). In addition, as indicated in Fig. 8c and d, several dynamic O$_3$ circulations were observed between the near-surface and upper-air heights during 24 and 25 August and on 02 September 2016. An O$_3$-rich mass in the lower layer (<1 km) traveled to Hangzhou through horizontal advection, and it was transported from the upper layer to the high layer (approximately 1.5 km) through vertical advection. The mass subsequently reversed and traveled away from Hangzhou in the high layer through horizontal advection in a circular manner. Urban heat island circulations caused the upward and downward flows.

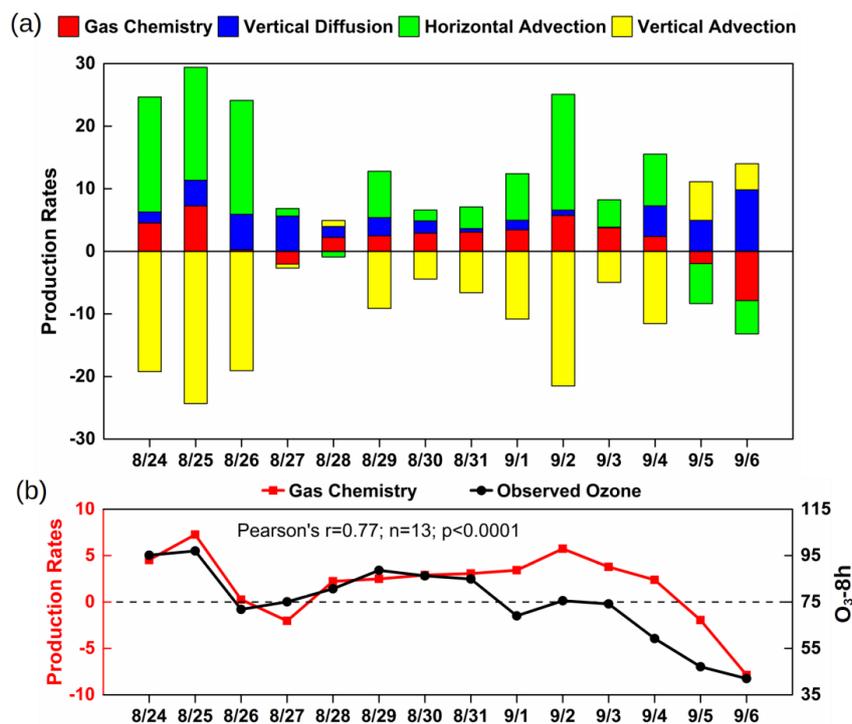



Fig. 8. (a) Daytime mean (08:00–17:00 LST) variations in simulated surface O_3 change rate (ppb h^{-1}; left y axis) resulting from gas chemistry, vertical diffusion, and horizontal and vertical advection in Hangzhou. (b) Comparison of daytime mean gas chemistry generation (ppb h^{-1}; left y axis) and observed surface-level maximum for daily 8 h concentration of O_3 (O_3-8h; ppb; right y axis) in Hangzhou. China's national standard is approximately 75 ppb (160 μg m^{-3}).

The daytime mean variations of O_3 at the ground level resulted from atmospheric processes (Fig. 8a). Quantification of these variations revealed major positive contributions from gas chemistry, vertical diffusion, and horizontal advection to surface O_3 formation, with mean production rates of 1.9, 3.3, and 6.7 ppb h^{-1}, respectively, from 24 August to 06 September 2016. Firstly, the trends between the daytime mean values associated with gas chemistry and observed O_3-8h concentration were consistent (Fig. 8b), indicating a trade-off effect among vertical diffusion and horizontal and vertical advection. High O_3 concentrations (i.e., 25 August 2016 O_3-8h: 98 ppb) were accompanied by prolific generation of gas chemicals. Local chemical generation was found to have large positive correlation (Pearson's r = 0.77) with O_3 concentrations. Secondly, vertical diffusion

290   may have partially compensated for gas chemistry when the chemical reaction rate was relatively

291   low or negative. For example, on 26 and 27 August and 05 and 06 September 2016, most of the

292   vertical diffusion rates were greater than the chemical production rates. The low O_3 episode on

293   these periods mainly resulted from local chemical consumption. Finally, advection processes were

294   essential and integral to air circulation: horizontal advection exerted remarkably positive effects on

295   surface O_3 concentrations in Hangzhou, and vertical advection exerted dispersion effects.

4. Discussion

297   This study revealed notable background O_3 concentrations in the upper-air layer in the YRD

298   region. Peripheral downdrafts in large-scale cyclone circulation can transport an O_3-rich mass in the

299   upper troposphere or lower stratosphere downward to the surface (Tang et al., 2011; Hsu and

300   Prather, 2014). This type of O_3 intrusion during this period was reported in southeast China (Ni et

301   al., 2019). Based on our results, we inferred that a considerably high background O_3 concentration

302   in the upper air markedly contributed to surface O_3 pollution; this inference agreed (hemispheric

303   background) with the findings of studies conducted in Europe (Wilson et al., 2012) and the United

304   States (Lin et al., 2012, 2015).

305   We demonstrated that local chemical generation in Hangzhou was enhanced during episodes of

306   high O_3 concentrations before and after the tropical cyclone that occurred during the study period.

307   Chemical generation of O_3 is the net effect of photochemical generation and titration consumption.

308   VOC oxidation (Jenkin et al., 1997; Sillman, 1999) in photochemical reactions provides critical

309   oxidants (i.e., RO_2) that efficiently convert NO to NO_2, resulting in further accumulation of O_3

310   (Wang et al., 2017). In the present study, downward shortwave flux at the ground level (Fig. S3)

311   was more intense on days with high O_3 concentrations than on those with low O_3 concentrations.

312   This strong solar radiation strengthened O_3 photochemical generation. In addition to the stagnant

313   weather conditions, air subsidence in peripheral circulations of tropical cyclones helps to trap heat

314   and pollutants at the surface (Jiang et al., 2015; Shu et al., 2016). Furthermore, a tropical system

315   with calm, hot–dry weather favors the development of an urban heat island, which causes thermal

316   circulations as well as the convergence of the surrounding O₃ and its precursors (Lai and Cheng,

317   2009). The increased temperature also accelerates the photochemical reactions (Narumi et al., 2009;

318   Walcek et al., 1995). In the present study, these enhanced photochemistry processes dominated O₃

319   chemical generation, resulting in high O₃ concentrations. This result was consistent with the results

320   of a previous field study (Su et al., 2017). Low-level O₃ episodes (i.e., 06 September) in Hangzhou

321   were accompanied by a rain band in the YRD region. Rain band–related cumulus clouds blocked

322   solar radiation, thereby weakening O₃ photochemical generation. Consequently, titration

323   consumption dominated the chemical generation process, resulting in low or negative O₃ chemical

324   production.

5. Conclusions

326   Changes in O₃ concentrations in Hangzhou during the G20 summit were well represented by

327   the WRF-Chem model. Statistical evaluations of meteorological and chemical parameters suggested

328   that the model system results satisfactorily matched the observed data for both the ground and

329   upper-air levels in MICS-ASIA III. The model results revealed that the O₃ concentrations in

330   Hangzhou were highly related to a tropical cyclone over the East China Sea. Throughout the

331   simulation period, large-scale air mass circulations and energy transport by the tropical cyclone

332   probably caused the high upper-air O₃-rich mass in the horizontal and vertical scales of the YRD

333   region; this phenomenon engendered a negative background O₃ concentration. As the tropical

334   cyclone approached, bringing with it a prevailing north wind component, Hangzhou was affected by

335   pollutant transport from North China. After or before the tropical cyclone, peripheral downdraft or

336   air subsidence produced stable and calm weather, with high pressure and temperature and weak

337   wind, and the urban heat island effect was aggravated. The combination of these conditions

338   enhanced the chemical generation process, resulting in a marked increase in surface O₃

339   concentrations. Our study provides scientific insight into urban O₃ formation and dispersion under

340   conditions where short-term emission reduction measures had been applied in East China during a

341   tropical cyclone event.

342

Author contribution

Kun Luo and Xiang Gao designed the experiments. Fei Jiang, Huang Cheng, Jian-ren Fan, Joshua S

Fu and Chang-hong Chen edit the manuscript. Zhi-zhen Ni and Yang Gao prepared the manuscript

with contributions from all co-authors

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China, and the official documents of emission control policies were obtained from the Hangzhou

Environmental Monitoring Center.

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