Interactive comment on "Observations and explicit modeling of isoprene chemical processing in polluted air masses in rural areas of the Yangtze River Delta region: radical cycling and formation of ozone and formaldehyde" by Kun Zhang et al.

# **Response to Referee #2**

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1) The title of manuscript "Observations and explicit modeling of isoprene chemical processing in polluted air masses in rural areas of the Yangtze River Delta region: radical cycling and formation of ozone and formaldehyde" is not well supported by the work presented. The observations are limited since key product species (i.e., MACR and MVK) and ROx radicals of isoprene were not measured or observed.

Response: We are grateful for the comment. We admit that key product species of isoprene and ROx radicals of isoprene were not measured during our observation. Therefore, we changed the title into "Explicit modeling of isoprene chemical processing in polluted air masses in suburban areas of the Yangtze River Delta region: radical cycling and formation of ozone and formaldehyde"

2) Is DSH a rural site? It is characterized as suburban by Lin et al. (2020) and impacted by a nearby freeway. Lin et al. (2020) indicate that both DSH and PD (urban site) are dominated by vehicle emissions sites (Figure 10) and isoprene emission is less in DSH than PD (Figure 5)? Can analysis be done for these five episodes in this study to demonstrate isoprene dominates among VOCs? Otherwise, it is hard to justify the study objective. Response: Thanks for the reviewers' helpful advice. According to former studies (e.g. Lin et al. (2020)), DSL site is a suburban site. We have corrected our description in the revised manuscript. Under stagnant conditions, typically during early morning, DSL could be affected by nearby vehicle emissions. Figure 5 of Lin et al. (2020) exhibited the relative incremental reactivity (RIR) value of O<sub>3</sub> precursors. In their study, RIR of isoprene is lower at DSH than that at PD site, suggesting that more O<sub>3</sub> could be produced at PD site when a same proportion of isoprene was increased. However, at DSH, the ratio of the RIR from isoprene to RIR from anthropogenic hydrocarbons (AHC) is higher than that at PD site, indicating that as DSL site, isoprene plays a more important role than entire AHC in the secondary formation of O<sub>3</sub>. This is consistent with our objective, and we aim to investigate the influence of isoprene chemistry on O<sub>3</sub> formation at YRD region. To roughly estimate the influence of isoprene on atmospheric oxidation capability, we adopted the approach presented in Zhu et al. (2020) to calculate the OH reactivity. The results suggest that isoprene, accounting for  $\sim 19\%$  of the total k<sub>OH</sub>, is the most significant VOC specie in terms of  $k_{OH}$ , with an average value of 0.89  $\pm$  0.44 s<sup>-1</sup>. This illustrates the significant role of isoprene in the photochemistry in suburban area. These descriptions have been added in the revised manuscript (Line 193-198).



Figure 5 Average relative incremental reactivity (RIR) values of the O<sub>3</sub> precursors NO*x*, anthropogenic hydrocarbons (AHCs), biogenic hydrocarbons (NHCs), and CO at (a) the DSH site and (b) the PD site from 11–26 July.(from Lin et al. (2020))

3) Model performance (i.e., OBM in this study) should be conducted against observed key species such as ozone, formaldehyde, and NO*x* before the model can be confidently used to simulate other key RO*x* species such as OH, HO<sub>2</sub>, RO, and RO<sub>2</sub> (e.g., Figures 4, 5, 7-8). For instance, simulated local O<sub>3</sub> is shown in Figure 7(A) but correlative discussion with observed O<sub>3</sub> profile is needed. Similarly, simulated HCHO concentration in Figure 8(A) should be correlated with observed HCHO concentration. Without solid performance evaluation, simulated RO*x* radicals are questionable although they are comparable to other literature values, as indicated in this study.

Response: We agree that solid performance evaluation is essential. Therefore, comparison of simulated and observed  $O_3$  and HCHO concentration are given in the supporting information. The discussion of simulated and observed  $O_3$  and HCHO concentrations are given in Line 153 to Line 164:

"The index of agreement (IOA), mean bias (MB) and normalized mean bias (NMB) are frequently used for model performance evaluation. These three parameters are calculated by Equation (2) to (4), where Si,  $O_i$ , and  $\overline{O}$  are the simulated, observed, and average value of the target compound. In this study, the IOA, MB and NMB of  $O_3$  was 0.90, 0.76 and 10%, respectively, suggesting that the model can reasonably reproduce the variations of  $O_3$ and could be used for further analysis. As for HCHO, the IOA, MB, and NMB was 0.74, 2.43, and 48%, respectively. In general, the model overestimated HCHO concentration, especially on July 29 and July 30. According to previous studies, the inconsistency between simulated and observed HCHO could be caused by the uncertainties in the treatment of dry deposition, faster vertical transport, uptake of HCHO, and fresh emission of precursor VOCs (Li et al., 2014). Nevertheless, these results still provide valuable information of secondary formation of HCHO at suburban area.".

The NO*x* concentrations are constrained by the observed value in our setup, so there is no need to compare the simulated and observed NO*x* concentration.

Reference:

Li, X., Rohrer, F., Brauers, T., Hofzumahaus, A., Lu, K., Shao, M., Zhang, Y. H., and Wahner, A.: Modeling of HCHO and CHOCHO at a semi-rural site in southern China during the PRIDE-PRD2006 campaign, Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 14, 12291-12305, 10.5194/acp-14-12291-2014, 2014.

4) As mention above, ROx radicals and key products (i.e., MACR and MVK) photochemically produced by isoprene and other precursors were not measured so model performance couldn't be conducted against these species. Without the validation, this is hard to evaluate the simulated ROx radicals with confidence, as mentioned above. In addition, over 50 VOCs were measured but they were not utilized in this study. As an example, some VOCs primarily react with OH radical so those VOCs can be used as surrogates to estimate concentration of OH radicals, which can then be compared to simulated OH radicals. For example, Lin et al (2020) used X/E to estimate OH. Another analysis of VOC data can be conducted to evaluate the relative importance of isoprene in total VOCs. Isoprene has to be a significant part of VOCs emissions in order to achieve the objective of this study, evaluating isoprene's importance in rural areas.

Response: Thank for the helpful advice. The average regional OH concentration (8.39  $\pm$  5.11 ×10<sup>6</sup> molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) was estimated by E/X ratio, and relevant descriptions have been added in the revised manuscript. Please refer to Page 10, Line 228-233:

"To verify the performance of OBM model, regional mixing ratios of OH during daytime were also calculated by a parameterization method using ratios of measured ethylbenzene and m,p-xylene concentrations (see Text S2). The calculated average regional concentrations of OH ( $8.39 \pm 5.11 \times 10^6$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) was in the same order of the magnitude of the OBM-simulated result ( $4.59 \pm 5.11 \times 10^6$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>), suggesting that the OBM-simulated radical concentration is reliable."

In addition, the OH reactivity ( $k_{OH}$ ) from VOCs was calculated and the result shows that isoprene alone can accounted for 19% of the total  $k_{OH}$ , indicating the significant role of isoprene in suburban area. Please refer to Page 10, Line 194-199:

"To roughly estimate the influence of isoprene on atmospheric oxidation capability, we adopted the approach given in the study of Zhu et al. (2020a) to calculate the OH reactivity ( $k_{OH}$ ). The result suggested that isoprene, accounting for ~19% of the total  $k_{OH}$ , was the most significant VOC specie from the perspective of  $k_{OH}$ , with an average value of 0.89 ± 0.44 s<sup>-1</sup>. This indicates the significant role of isoprene in the photochemistry in suburban area."

### Reference:

Zhu, J., Cheng, H., Peng, J., Zeng, P., Wang, Z., Lyu, X., and Guo, H.: O<sub>3</sub> photochemistry on O<sub>3</sub> episode days and non-O<sub>3</sub> episode days in Wuhan, Central China, Atmospheric Environment, 223, 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.117236, 2020a 5) Measurements of VOCs are described in detail (Lines 116-125) but VOC analysis is lacking. Additional analysis would be useful. For instance, several types of VOCs (e.g., alkenes and aromatics) contribute to OVOC, an important specie focused in this study (in Figures 6 and 9), so their relationship to OVOC can be evaluated, in addition to the VOC analyses suggested above.

Response: Thanks for the reviewer's helpful advice. Analysis about VOCs and the relationship between VOCs and OVOCs are added in the revised manuscript. Please refer to Line 194-214:

" To roughly estimate the influence of isoprene on atmospheric oxidation capability, we adopted the approach presented in Zhu et al. (2020) to calculate the OH reactivity ( $k_{OH}$ ). The results suggest that isoprene, accounting for ~19% of the total  $k_{OH}$ , is the most significant VOC species in terms of  $k_{OH}$ , with an average value of 0.89 ± 0.44 s<sup>-1</sup>. This illustrates the significant role of isoprene in the photochemistry in suburban area. Based on the explicit calculation, the total concentration of OVOC was obtained. Due to the complexity of OVOC formation, which involves hundreds of precursors for just one OVOC species, and the complicated chain reactions converting VOCs to OVOCs, it is difficult to give the accurate relationship between VOCs to OVOCs. Since VOCs were mainly oxidized by OH and O<sub>3</sub> during daytime, we applied multi-linear regression model (given in Eq.(5) ) to provide the roughly relationship between VOCs and simulated OVOCs.

$$[OVOC] = \beta_0 + \beta_1[Alkane] + \beta_2[Alkene] + \beta_3[Aromatic] + \beta_4[OH]$$
(1)  
+ \beta\_5[O\_3]

where  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$ ,  $\beta_4$ , and  $\beta_5$  are the coefficient from linear regression, [OVOC] and [OH] are the simulated concentration of OVOC and OH, respectively; [Alkane], [Alkene],

[Aromatic], [O<sub>3</sub>] are the observed concentration of alkane, alkene, aromatic, and O<sub>3</sub>. The Sig value and statistical reliability criteria (R) was 0.000 and 0.853 (shown in Table S3), respectively, indicating that the linear relationship represented by the equations (5) is statistically reliable. The  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$  was 0.027, 0.623, and 0.820, respectively, suggesting that alkenes and aromatics are significant for the simulated OVOC concentration."

### Technical comments:

Table 1: SO<sub>2</sub> is listed as one of the measured pollutants but it is not used in this study at all. Please remove it from the table. CO is not listed here but shown in Figure 2.
 Response: We are grateful for this comment. The description of SO<sub>2</sub> monitoring has been removed from table 1 and CO monitor has been added in table 1.

2) Figure 2: CO concentration is almost flat so indicates this site is less impacted by trafficrelated emissions. This contradicts with Lin et al (2020)'s observation (Figure 3), where NO*x* concentrations show traffic related variation in DSH.

Response: Thanks for the reviewer's careful comment. We agree that the CO concentration was almost flat during the scenarios, but when we look at the variation of NO, clearly peaks of NO was found during early morning, which is closed relate to traffic emission, and this result is also consistent with the observation of Lin et al. (2020), which also found clearly morning peak in DSL.

3) Section 3.3 (line 210+): there is no discussion or description of Figure 5(B).

Response: Thanks for the suggestion. Description of Figure 5 has been added in Line 386-390:"To investigate the underlying causes, we calculated the production rate of RO*x* (P(ROx)) and loss rate of RO*x* (L(ROx)) in S1, respectively (Figure 5 (B)). From the comparison, we found most of the reaction rates in P(ROx) and L(ROx) showed a decrease trend in S1, suggesting that the absence of isoprene slows down the RO*x* recycling."

4) Figure 8: Net HCHO rate is negative for several hours around noon. What does that mean? Some discussion is needed.

Response: The negative net HCHO rate around noon means the net reduction of HCHO. Relative description is given in Line 364-369:"Between 13:00 and 14:00, a negative net(HCHO) was found. Although the reaction of  $RO+O_2$  quickly produced HCHO at afternoon, the depletion pathways, especially the photolysis of HCHO, became more competitive, leading to the net reduction of HCHO. This also indicated that strong photochemical reactions do not monotonously profit the accumulation of HCHO, it can also constrain high HCHO levels in certain situations."

5) Figures 6 and 9: It seems the red lines indicate photolysis production of ROx radicals while blue lines destruction or sink of these radicals. What does the black line represent? Some description is needed.

Response: Thanks for this good suggestion. The black lines represent the processes in ROx recycling, and NOx recycling, and relative descriptions has been added for Figure 6 and Figure 9.

Minor comments:

Line 184: should be "series", not "serious"
 Response: We have recorrected this mistake as suggested.

2) Lines 512 and 517: these two references seem identical.

Response: We have removed the replicated reference.

3) Term "loss" is used in Figure 5 and its associated text while "destruction" or "sink" in Figures 7 and 8 and their description. They probably meant the same thing but consistency is preferred.

Response: Thanks for the helpful suggestion, the term "loss", "destruction" and "sink" has been unified in our manuscript.

4) Line 205: "by separate the formation of RO<sub>2</sub>" should be revised for clarity. Do you mean"by separation from the formation of RO<sub>2</sub>"?

Response: Thanks for the reviewer's suggestion, we have changed this sentence into "By separating the formation pathways of RO<sub>2</sub>".

5) Line 263-264, the last sentence should be "Primary ROx sources and sinks are in red and blue, respectively."

Response: We have revised this sentence as suggested.

# Explicit modelling of isoprene chemical processing in polluted air masses in suburban areas of the Yangtze River Delta region: radical cycling and formation of ozone and formaldehyde

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# Abstract

Ozone pollution has become one of the most severe environmental problems in China in recent years. Our online observations showed that high levels of  $O_3$  were frequently observed in suburban areas of the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region even there was no obvious ozone transport from the urban regions. To better understand the formation mechanism of local  $O_3$  pollution and investigate the potential role of isoprene chemistry in the budgets of ROx (OH+HO<sub>2</sub>+RO<sub>2</sub>) radicals, synchronous observations of volatile organic compounds (VOCs), formaldehyde (HCHO) and meteorological parameters were conducted at a suburban site of the YRD region in 2018. Five episodes with elevated  $O_3$  concentrations under stagnant meteorological conditions were identified; an observationbased model (OBM) with the Master Chemical Mechanism was applied to analyze the photochemical processes in these high-O<sub>3</sub> episodes. High levels of O<sub>3</sub>, nitrogen oxides (NO*x*), and VOCs facilitated strong production and recycling of RO*x* radicals with the photolysis of oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs) being the primary source. Our results suggest that local biogenic isoprene is important to suburban photochemical processes. Removing isoprene could drastically slow down the efficiency of RO*x* recycling and reduce the concentrations of RO*x*. The absence of isoprene chemistry could further lead to decrease in the daily average concentration of O<sub>3</sub> and HCHO by 34% and 36%, respectively. This study underlines that the isoprene chemistry in suburban atmosphere becomes important with the participation of anthropogenic NO*x* and also provides insights into the radical chemistry that essentially drives the formation of secondary pollutants (e.g. O<sub>3</sub> and HCHO) in suburban YRD region.

**Keywords:** Isoprene; Observation-based model (OBM); Radical; Ozone; Yangtze River Delta

# **1. Introduction**

The hydroxyl radical (OH), hydro peroxy radical (HO<sub>2</sub>) and organic peroxy radical (RO<sub>2</sub>), collectively known as ROx dominate the oxidative capacity of the atmosphere and hence govern the removal of primary contaminants (e.g. volatile organic compounds (VOCs)) and the formation of secondary pollutants (e.g. ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), secondary organic aerosols (SOAs)) (Liu et al., 2012;Xue et al., 2016). ROx radicals can undergo efficient recycling (e.g.  $OH \rightarrow RO_2 \rightarrow RO \rightarrow HO_2 \rightarrow OH$ ) and produce O<sub>3</sub> and oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs) (Liu et al., 2012;Tan et al., 2019;Xue et al., 2016). In addition, the photolysis of

OVOCs can in turn produce primary  $RO_2$  and  $HO_2$  radicals, and further accelerate the recycling of ROx (Liu et al., 2012). The reaction rates of different VOCs with ROx vary significantly (Atkinson and Arey, 2003; Atkinson et al., 2006). For instance, the reaction rate constants for OH with ethane and ethene are  $0.248 \times 10^{-12}$  (cm molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) and 8.52  $\times 10^{-12}$  (cm molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>), respectively. Among the hundreds thousands of VOC species, isoprene (C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, 2-methyl-1,3-butadiene) is one of the most active species, and also the most abundant biogenic VOCs (BVOCs) species globally (Wennberg et al., 2018). Isoprene emissions from biogenic sources have been extensively studied over past decades (Gong et al., 2018) and recent works have switched from emissions to the degradation pathways and the impact of isoprene chemistry on regional forest chemistry (Gong et al., 2018; Wolfe et al., 2016a). Previous studies showed that isoprene could be quickly oxidized by atmospheric oxidants (e.g. OH,  $O_3$  or  $NO_3$ ) (Wolfe et al., 2016a; Gong et al., 2018; Jenkin et al., 2015). Due to the rapid reaction between OH and isoprene  $(100 \times 10^{-12})$ cm<sup>3</sup> molecule<sup>-1</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> at 298 K), more than 90% of the total daytime isoprene is removed via this reaction (Wennberg et al., 2018). The reaction between OH and isoprene is initiated by the addition of OH and can generate isoprene hydroxyperoxy radicals (ISOPO<sub>2</sub>) (Wennberg et al., 2018; D'Ambro et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2013; Jenkin et al., 2015). ISOPO2 isomers could then interconvert rapidly due to reversible O<sub>2</sub> addition and are finally removed via reactions with HO<sub>2</sub> or NO (Jenkin et al., 2015; Wolfe et al., 2016a). Hence, the degradation process of isoprene is tightly associated with ROx recycling. According to He et al. (2019), isoprene chemistry could strongly influence the photochemical formation of  $O_3$ , with a relative incremental reactivity (RIR) of ~0.06%/%. In addition to  $O_3$ , HCHO is formed via several pathways during the depletion of isoprene (Jenkin et al., 2015; Wolfe et al., 2016a) and HCHO formation is found to be highly sensitive to isoprene (Zeng et al., 2019).

The Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region is one of the most developed city-clusters in eastern China and has been suffering from serious O<sub>3</sub> pollution (Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020a; Chan et al., 2017). At the suburban area of YRD, high levels of O<sub>3</sub> were frequently observed (Zhang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020a). A number of studies have been conducted to investigate the relationships between O<sub>3</sub> precursors and O<sub>3</sub> (Chan et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2020a; Zhang et al., 2020b), but few have attempted to address the atmospheric oxidizing capacity and radical chemistry involved in these complicated photochemical processes (Tan et al., 2019;Zhu et al., 2020b). Previous studies have pointed out that high levels of O<sub>3</sub> at suburban areas of Shanghai could be attributed to the transport of O<sub>3</sub> or O<sub>3</sub> precursors from urban areas (Lin et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2019). However, high O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were frequently observed in suburban areas under stable meteorological conditions. Given the high vegetation coverage in suburban YRD and weak transport of air masses, the importance of local isoprene chemistry to ozone formation remains unclear.

In this study, we conducted a comprehensive set of in-situ observations of isoprene, meteorological parameters, and trace gases to understand the important impact of isoprene chemistry on atmospheric photochemical processes in suburban YRD region. An observation-based model (OBM) was used to explore the role of local isoprene chemistry in radical budgets and the formation of  $O_3$  and HCHO. Results from this study can provide insights into the isoprene chemistry in the suburban region of a fast-developing city-cluster.

# 2. Methodology

### 2.1 Measurement site and techniques

The observations were conducted at a supersite (120.98°E, 31.09°N) in the suburban areas of the YRD region (Figure 1). It is located in the west of Shanghai and is close to the Dianshan Lake Scenic area, which has high vegetation coverage. To investigate the local isoprene chemistry and its influence on  $O_3$  and HCHO formation, continuous measurements were conducted from Apr. 7 to Sep. 25, 2018, when the photochemical reactions are active and ozone formation is significant.



Figure 1. Location of the Dianshan lake supersite (white dot) in the suburban areas of YRD

region. This picture was created with Google Earth© on 23<sup>rd</sup> July 2020.

Species/Parameter	Experimental Technique	Time resolution	<mark>Lower</mark> Detectable limit
O <sub>3</sub>	Model 49i, Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA	<mark>60 s</mark>	<mark>0.5 ppbv</mark>
NO and NO <sub>2</sub>	Model 42i, Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA	<mark>60 s</mark>	<mark>0.4 ppbv</mark>
CO	Model 48i, Thermo Fischer Scientific, USA	<mark>60 s</mark>	<mark>40 ppbv</mark>
НСНО	AL4021, Aero-Laser, GER	90 s	0.1 ppbv
VOCs species	GC866, Agilent., USA	1 hour	-
Temperature, relative humidity, wind speed and wind direction	Meteorological station, Vaisala, NLD	60 s	•

The measuring instruments are shown in Table 1. Wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), temperature (T), and relative humidity (RH) were simultaneously observed by a meteorological station (Vaisala., FIN). According to China's air quality standard, several criteria air pollutants were measured during this experiment. O<sub>3</sub> was measured by an ultraviolet photometric analyzer (Model 49i, Thermo Fischer Scientific., USA), which has a detection limit of 0.5 ppbv at 60 second resolution. 1 min resolution of nitrogen oxides (NO and NO<sub>2</sub>) data were simultaneously observed by a chemiluminescence instrument (Model 42i, Thermo Fischer Scientific., USA), which has a detection limit of 0.4 ppbv. Carbon monoxide was monitored by a gas filter correlation infrared absorption analyzer (Model 48i, Thermo Fischer Scientific., USA), which has a detection limit of 0.04 ppm. All the online instruments used for gas analyzer were auto-zero every day, and were multipoint calibrated every month. All the instruments used for the online observation were housed on top of a 5-floor-high building, which was about 15 m above the ground level.

A total of 55 VOC species, including 28 alkanes, 10 alkenes, 16 aromatics and acetylene were continuously analyzed at our sampling site by two online gas chromatograph with flame ionization detector (GC-FID) systems (GC-866 airmoVOC C<sub>2</sub>- $C_6$  #58850712 and airmoVOC C<sub>6</sub>- $C_{12}$  #283607112, Agilent., USA) with a time resolution of 1 hour during our experiment. Ambient samples are directly inhaled into this system by a pump. Low carbon VOCs (C<sub>2</sub>-C<sub>6</sub>) are captured by a low temperature (-10 °C) preconcentration system, while high carbon VOCs are concentrated by a built-in room temperature preconcentration system. Then the preconcentration systems are heated and desorb VOCs, which are then carried into chromatographic columns by helium. Individual

VOCs separated in the columns are eventually detected by FID systems. Formaldehyde (HCHO) was continuously measured by a Hantzsch fluorescence technique (AL4201, Aerolaser GmbH., GER), which is based on fluorometric Hantzsch reaction in the liquid phase, requiring the quantitative transfer of HCHO from gas phase to liquid phase. A Hantzsch reagent (acetylacetone) was used in this instrument.

### 2.2 Observation-based model

A user-friendly zero-dimensional (0-D) box model (F0AM) was used to simulate the chemical processes in the atmosphere in this study. This model was developed by Wolfe et al.(2016b) based on University of Washington Chemical Model (UWCM). Dry deposition, aloft exchange, and atmospheric dilution were considered in this model. We chose the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) v3.3.1 as the chemical mechanism with more than 5,800 chemical species and 17,000 reactions, which enables a detailed description of the complex reactions. In addition to gas-phase reactions, several heterogenous processes including the uptake of HO<sub>2</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and HCHO on aerosol surface, and heterogenous source of HONO were also considered in our simulation. These reactions rate constants and uptake coefficient were obtained from the study of Riedel et al. (2014), Xue et al. (2014) and Li et al. (2014). Since key parameters such as aerosol surface areas (S<sub>A</sub>) and particle diameters (r) were not measure during our observation, an average S<sub>A</sub> (640 nm<sup>2</sup>/cm<sup>3</sup>) was obtained from the field campaign in Shanghai (Wang et al., (2014)).

Reactions	Reaction rate constant	<b>Reference</b>
	$\gamma \omega S_A/4$ (for CLNO <sub>2</sub> formation)	Riedel et
$N_2O_5 \rightarrow CLNO_2 + HNO3$	$(2 - \emptyset)\gamma\omega S_A/4$ (for HNO <sub>3</sub> formation)	<mark>al. (2014)</mark>



Photolysis frequencies (*J* values) were calculated by a trigonometric parameterization based on solar zenith angle (SZA):

$$J = Icos(SZA)^m \exp\left(-nsec(SZA)\right)$$
(2)

where *I*, *m* and *n* are constants unique to each photolysis reaction, derived from leastsquares fits to *J* values computed with fixed solar spectra and literature cross-section and quantum yields (Wolfe et al., 2016b). Hourly averaged concentrations of speciated VOCs (except HCHO), NO, NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and meteorological parameters (such as T, RH and P) were used to constrain the F0AM model. Nitrous acid (HONO) was not measured during our observation. Therefore, it was fixed as 2% of the observed NO<sub>2</sub> concentration. This constant ratio is well observed in different field studies and performed well in previous box model studies (Tan et al., 2019). Before each simulation, the model will run 3 days as spin up to reach a steady state for unmeasured species (e.g., OH and NO<sub>3</sub> radicals). The comparison of simulated and observed O<sub>3</sub> and HCHO concentrations is shown in Figure S1 and Figure S2. The index of agreement (IOA), mean bias (MB) and normalized mean bias (NMB) are frequently used to estimate the model performance. These three parameters can be calculated by Equation (3) to (5), where  $S_i$ ,  $O_i$ , and O are the simulated, observed, and average observed value of the target compound. In this study, the IOA, MB and NMB of  $O_3$  was 0.90, 0.76 and 10%, respectively. This result suggests that the model can reasonably reproduce the variations of  $O_3$  and could be used for further analysis. As for HCHO, the IOA, MB, and NMB was 0.74, 2.43 and 48%, respectively. In general, the model overestimated HCHO concentration, especially on July 29 and July 30. According to previous studies, the inconsistency between simulated and observed HCHO could be caused by the uncertainties in the treatment of dry deposition, faster vertical transport, uptake of HCHO, and fresh emissions of VOCs precursors (Li et al., 2014). But the result still provides valuable information of secondary formation of HCHO at suburban area. To quantify the atmospheric oxidative capacity (AOC) changes in response to isoprene chemistry, two parallel scenarios (S0 and S1) were conducted with isoprene chemistry disabled in S1. In both cases, identical chemical mechanism and meteorological conditions were used to drive model simulations. Through a comparative analysis of the scenarios, the impact of isoprene chemistry on AOC and secondary formation of O<sub>3</sub> and HCHO can be obtained.

$$IOA = 1 - \frac{\sum (S_i - O_i)^2}{\sum (|S_i - \bar{O}| + |O_i - \bar{O}|)^2}$$
(3)

$$MB = \frac{\sum(S_i - O_i)}{N}$$
(4)

$$NMB = \frac{\sum(s_i - o_i)}{\sum o_i} \times 100\%$$
(5)

# **3. Results and discussions**

#### 3.1 Overview of the observations

To investigate the impact of local chemistry on ozone formation, five days with low daily average wind speed (<2m/s) and high maximum daily 8-h average (MDA8) O<sub>3</sub> concentration (>74.7 ppb) were identified as typical local chemistry cases. Figure 2 shows the time series of observed meteorological parameters (P, T, and RH), trace gases (NO,  $NO_2$  and  $O_3$ ), isoprene and HCHO on selected days. During those episodes, the air masses reaching the site were mainly from southeast and southwest (Figure 2). The weak wind was not conductive to the regional transportation of air pollutants. The observed O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, NO, CO, and TVOC ranged from 1.40 to 155.40 ppbv ( $52.72 \pm 44.43$  ppbv, average value, the same below), 5.36 to 57.95 ppbv ( $21.58 \pm 12.88$  ppbv), 0.75 to 54.51 ppbv ( $5.40 \pm 8.13$ ppbv), 400 to 960 ppbv (597 ± 153 ppbv), and 2.34 to 20.33 ppbv (7.28 ± 4.32 ppbv) respectively. During the five episodes, the average concentrations of alkanes, alkenes, and aromatics were  $13.97 \pm 9.12$ ,  $3.27 \pm 2.31$ , and  $4.93 \pm 2.69$  ppbv, which were about 53%, 18%, and 50% higher than of the whole observation. The conditional probability function (CPF) is applied to exhibit the relationship between high O<sub>3</sub> concentrations and wind (Figure 3). The detailed description of CPF can be found in supplemental information (Text S1). The result suggests that high  $O_3$  concentrations (>131 ppb) was usually observed when the site was influenced by weak south wind. This implies that high O<sub>3</sub> was most likely formed locally. Although this site is far away from urban areas, high levels of NO were found during early morning, which is likely caused by nearby fresh emissions. As for NO<sub>2</sub>, only one peak was found at dusk. This was different from the results in urban areas (Zhang et al., 2019). It is worth noting that NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were high even during

nighttime, suggesting that the AOC remained high at nighttime. The daily average isoprene concentrations were  $0.37 \pm 0.36$  ppbv, which is comparable to that observed by Gong et al. (2018) at a forested mountaintop site (0.287  $\pm$  0.032 ppbv). To roughly estimate the influence of isoprene on atmospheric oxidation capability, we adopted the approach given in the study of Zhu et al. (2020a) to calculate the OH reactivity (k<sub>OH</sub>). The result suggested that isoprene, accounting for  $\sim 19\%$  of the total k<sub>OH</sub>, was the most significant VOC specie from the perspective of  $k_{OH}$ , with an average value of 0.89  $\pm$  0.44 s<sup>-1</sup>. This indicates the significant role of isoprene in the photochemistry in suburban area. The average HCHO was  $5.01 \pm 3.80$  ppby, which was ~2 times of that observed at a rural site of Hong Kong (Yang et al., 2020). It is worth noting that HCHO could reach 18.69 ppby at midday. Based on the explicit calculation, the total concentration of OVOC was obtained. Due to the complexity of OVOC formation, which could have hundreds of precursors for just one OVOC specie, and the complicated chain reactions converting VOCs to OVOCs, it is difficult to give the accurate relationship between VOCs to OVOCs. Since VOCs were mainly oxidized by OH and  $O_3$  during daytime, in this study, we chose multi-linear regression model (given in Eq.(1)) to explore the roughly relationship between VOCs and simulated OVOCs.

$$[OVOC] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 [Alkane] + \beta_2 [Alkene] + \beta_3 [Aromatic] + \beta_4 [OH]$$
(6)  
+ \beta\_5 [O\_3]

where  $\beta_0$ ,  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$ ,  $\beta_4$ , and  $\beta_5$  are the coefficient from linear regression; [OVOC] and [OH] are the simulated concentration of OVOC and OH, respectively; [Alkane], [Alkene], [Aromatic], [O<sub>3</sub>] are the observed concentration of alkanes, alkenes, aromatics, and O<sub>3</sub>, respectively. The Sig value and statistical reliability criteria (R) was 0.000 and 0.853

(shown in Table S2), respectively, indicating that the linear relationship represented by equations (1) is statistically reliable. The  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$  was 0.027, 0.623, and 0.820, respectively, suggesting that alkenes and aromatics are significant for the simulated OVOC concentration.



Figure 2. Time series of hourly averages for trace gases, isoprene, HCHO, and meteorological

parameters.



CPF at the 95th percentile (=131)

Figure 3. CPF polar plot of O<sub>3</sub> at DSL station.

### 3.2 Simulated concentrations of radicals

Figure 4 shows the simulated average diurnal variation of major radicals in the base scenario (S0). The average concentrations of OH, HO<sub>2</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub>, and NO<sub>3</sub> were estimated at 2.11×10<sup>6</sup>, 1.04×10<sup>8</sup>, 0.90×10<sup>9</sup>, and 3.49×10<sup>8</sup> molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>, respectively. The simulated daily average OH concentration lies between the simulated values during the summer in Beijing (9×10<sup>6</sup> molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) and the simulated value at a suburban site in Hong Kong in 2013 ( $1.5 \pm 0.2 \times 10^6$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) (Liu et al., 2019; Xue et al., 2016). In addition, the average simulated daytime OH concentration was ~50% lower than that simulated at a forested mountaintop site in southern China (Gong et al., 2018). To verify the performance of OBM model, regional mixing ratios of OH during daytime were also calculated by a parameterization method using measured ethylbenzene and *m.p*-xylene ratios (see Text S2). The calculated average regional concentrations of OH (8.39 ± 5.11 × 10<sup>6</sup> molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) was in the same magnitude of the OBM-simulated result (4.59 ± 5.11 × 10<sup>6</sup> molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>), suggesting that the OBM-simulated radical concentration is reliable. The maximum HO<sub>2</sub>

concentration simulated for DSL site ( $6.19 \times 10^8$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) was close to that reported in Beijing ( $6.8 \times 10^8$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) (Liu et al., 2012), but was ~32% higher than that in Wuhan ( $4.7 \times 10^8$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) (Zhu et al., 2020a). Pretty high levels of simulated NO<sub>3</sub> (as high as ~ $19 \times 10^8$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup>) was found during nighttime. The average simulated nocturnal NO<sub>3</sub> concentration was  $8.80 \times 10^8$  molecule cm<sup>-3</sup>, which was ~47% higher than that simulated in the study of Gong et al.(2018). As aforementioned, during nighttime, pretty high levels of NO<sub>2</sub> (27.71 ppbv) and O<sub>3</sub> (30.05 ppbv) was observed, which favored the formation of NO<sub>3</sub>. Interestingly, a high level of RO<sub>2</sub> was also found during nighttime. This result is different from the study of Liu et al. (2012), which found the maximum value of RO<sub>2</sub> during daytime. By separating the formation pathways of RO<sub>2</sub>, we found that during nighttime, over 70% RO<sub>2</sub> was produced via the oxidation of VOCs by NO<sub>3</sub> radical, suggesting that the nighttime chemistry in the suburban site was also very important.



Figure 4. Simulated average diurnal variation of OH, HO<sub>2</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub> in S0 (solid lines) and

S1 (dash lines).

### 3.3 Recycling of RO<sub>x</sub> radicals

Figure 5(A) shows the primary sources of ROx in S0 and the detailed daytime budget of ROx. Minor ROx sources, e.g. ozonolysis of alkenes, are not shown. The photolysis of  $O_3$  was the predominant primary source of OH, with a daytime mean production rate of 0.50 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which was comparable to that found by Liu et al. (2012) in Beijing, but was 0.40 ppby h<sup>-1</sup> lower than the result in the study of Xue et al. (2016). Another important OH source is the photolysis of HONO, contributing 0.32 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> of daytime OH production in our simulation. This value is much lower than the results of Liu et al. (2019) and Xue et al. (2016). Such low value was most likely caused by the excessive constrain on HONO since HONO was not directly monitored during our experiment. Sensitive studies were conducted to quantify the influence different of HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio on radical recycling (Text S3, Figure. S1 and Table S1). As expected, a lower HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio leads to a lower HONO concentration, and subsequent less OH reduce generated from the photolysis of HONO. The sensitive studies show that when HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio is 0.005, the daytime OH level could decrease by 15.28%. Vice versa, a higher HONO/NO<sub>2</sub> (e.g., 0.04) can promote OH concentration by 14.08%. This result indicates that the photolysis of HONO is essential to the generation of OH, and therefore a simultaneous measurement of HONO is highly recommended for the analysis of local radical recycling in the future. As for HO<sub>2</sub>, the photolysis of OVOC (excluding HCHO) is the predominant source with a daytime mean production rate of 0.65 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> and maximum reaching 0.92 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which is comparable to Xue et al. (2016). The photolysis of HCHO can also contribute 0.48 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> to the daytime production of HO<sub>2</sub>, which is close to the results of Xue et al. (2016). As for RO<sub>2</sub>, the photolysis of OVOC was the largest source (0.57 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>), which was relatively lower than the results found at urban site (Liu et al., 2012). From the ROx perspective, the daytime primary radical production in DSL site was dominated by the photolysis of OVOC (except for HCHO), followed by the photolysis of HCHO and O<sub>3</sub>. But the photolysis of HONO can become the overriding ROx source around run rising, which suggests that HONO can be an important OH reservoir species during nighttime. Summing up all the sources of ROx gives a total primary daytime ROx production rate of 2.55 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> (0.84 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> for OH, 1.14 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> for HO<sub>2</sub>, and 0.57 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> for RO<sub>2</sub>), which was 61~69% lower than those in Beijing (6.6 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, Liu et al. (2012)) and Hong Kong (8.11 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, Xue et al. (2016)), indicating that the recycling of RO<sub>x</sub> in Beijing and Hong Kong could be much reactive.

ROx radicals are ultimate removed from the atmosphere via deposition of radical reservoir species, e.g. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and ROOH (Liu et al., 2012). The terminate processes of ROx was dominated by their reactions with NOx. Specifically, the reaction of OH+NO<sub>2</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub>+NO, forming HNO<sub>3</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub>, and RONO<sub>2</sub>, accounting for 2.42, 0.56, and 0.41 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> of the ROx radical sink during daytime. This is consistent with the understanding that reactions with NOx usually dominate the radical sink in high NOx environments (Xue et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2012). In addition, RONO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>NO<sub>2</sub> could in turn react with OH, leading to 0.41 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> of daytime OH sinks (Figure 6). Summing up the primary sources and sinks gives a negative value of net ROx production, suggesting that the ROx was in a stage of gradual depletion.



Figure 5. Simulated primary daytime sources and sink of ROx in S0 (A) and S1 (B).

The daytime (6:00-18:00) average budget of ROx is shown in Figure 6, with primary sources of ROx in red, sinks of ROx in blue, and recycling processes in black. In the recycling of ROx, the production of OH was dominated by the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub>+NO (8.29 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>). As for RO<sub>2</sub>, it was produced by the reaction of OH with OVOC (3.02 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>), alkyl (RH) (1.21 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>), and peroxides (0.14 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>). The reaction of RO<sub>2</sub>+NO can result in strong production of RO (3.87 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>). The reaction of RO and O<sub>2</sub> was the major contributor to HO<sub>2</sub> production, followed by the reaction of OH with CO (1.89 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>), OVOC (1.59 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>), and RH (0.15 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>). It should be noted that the top two fast reactions within the recycling of ROx (HO<sub>2</sub>+NO and RO<sub>2</sub>+NO) were related to NOx. As mentioned in the study of Liu et al. (2012), this result could be mainly due to the abundance of NO (e.g. ~50 ppbv in the morning). Obviously, these recycling processes dominate the total production of OH, HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> radicals. As suggested in the study of

Xue et al. (2016) and Liu et al. (2012), the radical propagation is efficient and enhances the effect of the newly produced radicals in the polluted atmospheres with the coexistence of abundant NO*x* and VOCs.



Figure 6. Summary of daytime (06:00-18:00) average budgets of ROx radicals (in ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>). Primary ROx sources and sinks are in red and blue, respectively, and the black lines represent the processes in RO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> recycling.

# 3.4 Formation and sink of O<sub>3</sub>

Figure 7 illustrates the diurnal variation of simulated  $O_3$  formation and sink pathways in S0. Also shown is the simulated average diurnal pattern of  $O_3$  concentration and the net  $O_3$  production rate. In the troposphere, the formation of  $O_3$  is via the reactions of NO with peroxy radicals (e.g. HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub>) (Liu et al., 2012; Xue et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2020a). On average, the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub>+NO and RO<sub>2</sub>+NO attributed 5.05 and 4.62 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> of the production of O<sub>3</sub>. The maximum rate of HO<sub>2</sub>+NO (15.36 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) and RO<sub>2</sub>+NO (13.26

ppbv  $h^{-1}$ ) both occurred at 13:00. The total daytime production rate of O<sub>3</sub> (P(O<sub>3</sub>)) is the sum of HO<sub>2</sub>+NO and RO<sub>2</sub>+NO at 17.86 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which lies between that simulated in Beijing (32 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ , Liu et al. (2012)) and Hong Kong (6.7 ppbv  $h^{-1}$ , Liu et al. (2019)). Due to the fast cycling of both O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>, the sink of O<sub>3</sub> was due to several reactions leading to the destruction of  $O_3$  and  $NO_2$ . In our cases, the reaction of  $NO_2$ +OH becomes the predominant scavenging pathways of O<sub>3</sub>, with an average daytime reaction rate of 1.89 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> (49%), percentage of the total  $O_3$  sink rate, same below). This is comparable to the study of Liu et al. (2012 and 2019). The reaction of  $RO_2 + NO_2$  was the second contributor to  $O_3$  sink, with a mean contribution of 0.62 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> (16%). Other pathways, e.g. photolysis of O<sub>3</sub>, ozonolysis of alkenes, and  $O_3$ +HO<sub>2</sub>, together contributed 1.11 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> of the total sink rate of O<sub>3</sub> during daytime. The daytime mean  $L(O_3)$  was 3.87 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which was ~22% of  $P(O_3)$ , suggesting that  $O_3$  could efficiently accumulate during daytime. The net production of  $O_3$  (P( $O_3$ )-L( $O_3$ )) is also shown in Figure 7. The maximum  $O_3$  concentration was found at around 16:00, which was also observed in other suburban sites (Zong et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019). It is worth noting that, the reaction of alkenes+O<sub>3</sub>/NO<sub>3</sub> serves as an important pathway of O<sub>3</sub> sink during nighttime (as high as 2.30 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>).



Figure 7. Simulated average diurnal profiles of O<sub>3</sub> formation and sink rates (ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) in S0 (A)

# **3.5 Formation and sink of HCHO**

As aforementioned, high levels of HCHO was observed at DSL. Figure 8 (A) shows the production and sink pathways of HCHO in S0. On average, HCHO formation was dominated by the reaction of RO+O<sub>2</sub>, accounting for ~90% of the total production rate. Further classification of  $RO+O_2$  pathway suggested that the oxidation of  $CH_3O$  made a significant contribution of ~47%, followed by RO (form isoprene) +  $O_2$  reaction (12%) and RO (from aromatics) +  $O_2$  reaction (~11%). This result is comparable to the study of (Yang et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2018). It is notable that the reaction of RO (from aromatics)  $+ O_2$ could become the predominant pathway of HCHO production during nighttime. This could be attributed to the high level of NO<sub>3</sub> during nighttime, by which styrene could be quickly oxidized and generate N-containing RO radicals, and furtherly generate HCHO. During daytime, isoprene became the most important VOC specie of HCHO production, with a mean rate of 0.48 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>. As mentioned, this site is surrounded by highly vegetated areas, which can provide abundant biogenic isoprene. During daytime, over 90% of isoprene was oxidized by OH radicals (Figure S4). According to MCMv3.3.1, several RO<sub>2</sub> species (e.g. ISOP34O2, ISOPDO2, ISOPCO2, CISOPAO2, ISOPAO2) can be generated during the OH-initiated degradation process of isoprene (Jenkin et al., 2015). With the present of NO, isoprene-originated RO<sub>2</sub> can transfer into RO (e.g. ISOPDO, ISOP34O, ISOPAO). The subsequent degradation processes of isoprene-related RO, especially ISOP34O, ISOPDO, ISOPAO and ISOPBO, are tightly related to the formation of HCHO (Jenkin et al., 2015). Other sources of HCHO, such as the reaction between VOC and O<sub>3</sub>, photolysis of OVOC and the reaction of OVOC+OH only contributed minor amount of the total production rate during whole day.

As for HCHO depletion, the photolysis of HCHO and the reaction of HCHO+OH was the two dominate pathways, accounting for  $\sim 52\%$  and  $\sim 48\%$  of the total depletion rate, respectively. The net HCHO production rate (equals to P(HCHO) + L(HCHO)) was also shown in Figure 8. After sunrise, the net production rate of HCHO raised gradually until 8:00, when it reached the maximum rate ( $\frac{1.6}{1.6}$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>). This result is comparable to the study of Yang et al. (2018). At around  $\frac{12:00}{12:00}$ , the net(HCHO) dropped to ~0 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, that was roughly consistent with our observation, which shows that the HCHO peak occurs at around 12:00. Between 13:00 and 14:00, a negative net(HCHO) was found. Although the reaction of  $RO+O_2$  quickly produced HCHO at afternoon, the depletion pathways, especially the photolysis of HCHO, became more competitive, leading to the net reduction of HCHO. This also indicated that strong photochemical reactions do not monotonously profit the accumulation of HCHO, it can also constrain high HCHO levels in certain situations. After 14:00, the photolysis of HCHO dropped rapidly and the net depletion of HCHO back to  $\sim 0$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> at around 15:00. The daytime net HCHO production rate was 0.70 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which was comparable to result of Yang et al. (2018).

The above analysis indicates that the photolysis of OVOC, HCHO,  $O_3$  and HONO was the primary source of RO*x*, which offers high oxidizing environment for the degradation of VOCs. As a typical by-product in the degradation of several VOCs, HCHO can be quickly formatted during daytime. The insight into detailed photochemical processes shows the important role of isoprene in the formation of HCHO.



Figure 8. Simulated average diurnal profiles of net rate (net (HCHO)), breakdown HCHO production rate and sink rate (ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) in S0 (A) and S1 (B).

# 3.6 Impacts of isoprene chemistry on photochemistry

3.6.1 Impact on ROx budget

As aforementioned, the degradation of isoprene is tightly related to the cycling of ROx. To roughly explain the impact of isoprene chemistry on ROx budget, we carried out a parallel simulation (S1) where isoprene chemistry is disabled (see in Figure 9). The diurnal variation of OH, HO<sub>2</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>3</sub> in S1 is also shown in Figure 4 (B) which clearly suggests the decline in ROx and NO<sub>3</sub> without isoprene input. To investigate the underlying causes, we calculated the production rate of ROx (P(ROx)) and loss rate of ROx (L(ROx)) in S1, respectively (Figure 5 (B)). From the comparison, we found most of the reaction rates in P(ROx) and L(ROx) showed a decrease trend in S1, suggesting that the absence of isoprene slows down the RO<sub>x</sub> recycling. The photolysis of OVOC (0.67 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) is still the predominant primary source of RO<sub>x</sub>. However, without isoprene, the photolysis rate of OVOC decreased by 0.49 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>. The total production and depletion rate of OH dropped to 6.96 and 7.51 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. Although the absence of isoprene could reduce the

consumption of OH, the OH concentration would be reduced by  $\sim 16\%$  compared to S0, suggesting that the amount of OH produced via isoprene chemistry is large enough to compensate for the shift from OH to peroxy radicals in the ROx family. As for RO<sub>2</sub>, the daytime production and sink rate falls to 3.25 and 3.34 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, respectively. This means the concentration of  $RO_2$  would be in a stage of gradual decrease. In addition, the absence of isoprene could also reduce  $RO_2$  concentration by ~20%, suggesting that isoprene was an important source of RO<sub>2</sub> at DSL site. As for HO<sub>2</sub>, drastic decrease of ~53% was found in S1. The above-mentioned decrease in ROx obviously could not be explained solely by the remove of isoprene-related radicals. Inspection of the model results shows that OVOC concentrations decreased drastically ( $\sim 41\%$ ) after cutting isoprene (e.g.  $\sim 37\%$  decrease in formaldehyde,  $\sim 65\%$  decrease in methylglyoxal,  $\sim 51\%$  decrease in glyoxal,  $\sim 100\%$ decrease in methacrolein (MACR), and ~100% decrease in methyl vinyl ketone (MVK)). The decrease in OVOC can further pull down substantial amount of primary RO<sub>2</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub> (Figure 6 and Figure 9). It is interesting to note that, subtracting isoprene also cause drop of NO<sub>3</sub> ( $\sim 23\%$ ). This result can be contributed to the decrease of secondary production of  $O_3$  (~35%), which can further reduce the formation of NO<sub>3</sub>, especially during nighttime.



Figure 9. Summary of daytime (06:00-18:00) average budgets of RO<sub>x</sub> radicals (in ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) in S1. Primary RO<sub>x</sub> sources and sinks are in red and blue, respectively, and the black lines represent the processes in RO<sub>x</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> recycling. Values in the brackets represent the difference between S1 and S0.

### 3.6.2 Impact on O<sub>3</sub> formation

To investigate the detailed impact of isoprene on  $O_3$  formation, the production and sink pathways of  $O_3$  in S1 was also calculated (see Figure 7 (B)). In S1, the simulated maximum and daily average level of  $O_3$  dropped to 84.95 and 41.23 ppbv, respectively, which is ~35% and ~34% lower than that in S0. Comparisons of S1 and S0 show that the absence of isoprene can reduce all the production and sink pathways of  $O_3$ . For example, the rate of the two major production pathways of  $O_3$  (HO<sub>2</sub>+NO and RO<sub>2</sub>+NO) decreased by ~37% and ~45%, respectively. This can be attributed to the drop in the concentration of HO<sub>2</sub> and RO<sub>2</sub> racial in S1. As for the depletion of O<sub>3</sub>, the absence of isoprene caused a decrease of 0.31 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> in the reaction rate of alkene+O<sub>3</sub>/NO<sub>3</sub>, followed by RO<sub>2</sub>+NO<sub>2</sub> (0.22 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>) and NO<sub>2</sub>+OH (0.265 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>). Apparently, the absence of isoprene will reduce the total concentrations of alkenes and can further leads to the decrease of RO<sub>2</sub> and OH level, which ultimately slows down the depletion pathways of O<sub>3</sub>. Eventually, the absence of isoprene caused a decrease of 5.78 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> in the daytime mean net production rate of O<sub>3</sub>. Hence, isoprene chemistry plays an important role in the local O<sub>3</sub> formation at DSL site.

### 3.6.3 Impact on HCHO formation

The analysis of S0 revealed the important role of isoprene, aromatics, and alkenes in the production of HCHO. To investigate the chain effect of isoprene chemistry on HCHO production, the major reactions that dominate the formation and depletion of HCHO in S1 were also analyzed by OBM model (see Figure 8 (B)). Comparison of S0 and S1 shows that the daily average HCHO decreased by  $\frac{2.90}{2.90}$  ppbv ( $\sim \frac{39}{8}$ ) when cutting away isoprene chemistry. It is obviously that the drop in HCHO concentration cannot be solely illustrated by the absence of RO (from isoprene). As aforementioned, the absence of isoprene slows down the recycling of  $RO_x$  and can further lead to decrease in  $RO_x$  concentration. According to the result of OBM analysis, the concentration of CH<sub>3</sub>O, RO (from aromatics), RO (from alkanes), and RO (from alkenes) decreased by  $\frac{2.70 \times 10^2}{10^2}$  molecule cm<sup>-3</sup>,  $\frac{1.59 \times 10^5}{10^2}$ molecule cm<sup>-3</sup>,  $3.35 \times 10^1$  molecule cm<sup>-3</sup>, and 3.44 molecule cm<sup>-3</sup>, respectively. The drop in the HCHO precursor concentrations ultimately lead to decrease in the daytime reaction rate of CH<sub>3</sub>O + O<sub>2</sub>, RO (from alkenes) + O<sub>2</sub>, and RO (from aromatics) + O<sub>2</sub> decreased by 0.66ppby  $h^{-1}$  (~36%), 0.06 ppby  $h^{-1}$  (~16%), and 0.06 ppby  $h^{-1}$  (~40%), respectively. The total daytime formation rate of HCHO dropped to  $\frac{1.71}{1.71}$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup>, which was  $\frac{1.66}{1.66}$  ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> (~49%) lower than that in S0. As a result of the lower HCHO and OH concentration in S1, the daily mean depletion rate of HCHO decreased by 1.25 ppbv h<sup>-1</sup> (~49%). Finally, the absence of isoprene pulls down the daily average HCHO level by 1.61 ppbv (~36%).

# 4. Conclusions

Our observations at a suburban site of the YRD region from April to June in 2018 captured 5 typical local  $O_3$  formation episodes. The detailed atmospheric photochemistry during these episodes were analyzed. Under stagnant condition, the photolysis of OVOC served as the predominant primary ROx sources. ROx achieves efficient recycling with the participation of NOx. Influenced by the fast ROx recycling, local  $O_3$  was efficiently produced and accumulated under stagnant conditions. The reactions of RO radicals with O<sub>2</sub> dominate the photochemical formation of HCHO. The higher atmospheric oxidative capacity lead to fast degradation of VOCs, which can further lead to high levels of HCHO at the DSL site. Specifically, the degradation of RO radicals (e.g. ISOP34O, ISOPDO, ISOPAO and ISOPBO) from isoprene oxidation play an important role in the photochemical production of HCHO. To investigate the role of isoprene in RO<sub>x</sub> recycle and the formation of secondary pollutant, a sensitivity scenario without isoprene (S1) input was simulated by OBM model. By comparing S1 to the standard simulation (S0), we find that isoprene chemistry is important to local RO<sub>x</sub> recycling. The absence of isoprene can obviously decrease the concentrations of OVOC and the reaction rates in RO<sub>x</sub> propagations, and further reduce the concentrations of radicals (e.g. OH, HO<sub>2</sub>, RO<sub>2</sub>). Our results indicate that the isoprene chemistry can strongly influence the formation of O<sub>3</sub> and HCHO with the present of NO<sub>x</sub>. Removing isoprene can slow down the reaction of HO<sub>2</sub>+NO and RO<sub>2</sub>+NO by  $\sim 37\%$  and  $\sim 45\%$ , respectively, and eventually cause  $\sim 34\%$  decrease of O<sub>3</sub>. As a result

of lower O<sub>3</sub> concentration, average concentration of NO<sub>3</sub> dropped by 23% in S1. The absence of isoprene can lead to decrease of RO (from isoprene) and RO<sub>x</sub> concentration and cause an obvious drop of HCHO formation (~49%). Overall, this study underlines the significant role of isoprene chemistry in radical chemistry, photochemical reactions, and secondary pollutant formation in the atmosphere of the YRD region and provides insights into secondary pollution and its formation mechanisms.

*Data availability.* The data that support the results are available from the corresponding author upon request.

*Authorship contribution*. Kun Zhang: Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing-original draft. Ling Huang: Writing-review. Qing Li: Formal analysis. Juntao Huo: Formal analysis, Data curation. Yusen Duan: Formal analysis, Data curation. Yuhang Wang: Writing-review. Yangjun Wang: Formal analysis. Qingyan Fu: Formal analysis. Li Li: Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing-review & editing.

*Competing interest.* The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the word reported in this paper.

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