- 1 Impacts of aerosol-photolysis interaction and aerosol-radiation
- 2 feedback on surface-layer ozone in North China during a-multi-
- 3 pollutant air pollution episodes

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Abstract

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We examined the impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions, including the effects of 19 aerosol-photolysis interaction (API) and aerosol-radiation feedback (ARF), on surface-20 21 layer ozone (O₃) concentrations during one-three multi-pollutant air pollution episodes characterized by high O₃ and PM_{2.5} levels from during 28 July to 3 August 2014 22 (Episode1), 8-13 July 2015 (Episode2) and 5-11 June 2016 (Episode3) in North China, 23 by using the Weather Research and Forecasting with Chemistry (WRF-Chem) model 24 embedded with an integrated process analysis scheme. Our results show that aerosol-25 radiation interactions decreased the daytime shortwave radiation at surface by 26 92.4~100.3 W m⁻² averaged over the complex air pollution areas in these three episodes. 27 The dimming effect reduced the near-surface photolysis rates of J[NO₂] and J[O¹D] by 28 $1.8 \times 10^{-3} \sim 2.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ and $5.7 \times 10^{-6} \sim 6.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$, respectively. However, the daytime 29 shortwave radiation in the atmosphere was increased by 72.8~85.2 W m⁻², which made 30 the atmosphere more stable. The stabilized atmosphere decreased the planetary 31 boundary layer height and 10 m wind speed by 129.0~249.0 m and 0.05~0.12 m s⁻¹, 32 33 respectively. The weakened photolysis rates and changed meteorological conditions reduced daytime surface-layer O₃ concentrations by up to 9.3~11.4 ppb, with API and 34 ARF contributing 74.6%~90.0% and 10.0%~25.4% of the O₃ decrease in these three 35 episodes, respectively. Our results show that aerosol-radiation interactions decrease the 36 daytime downward shortwave radiation at surface, 2 m temperature, 10 m wind speed, 37 planetary boundary layer height, photolysis rates J[NO₂] and J[O¹D] by 115.8 W m⁻², 38 $0.56 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$, $0.12 \,\text{m s}^{-1}$, $129 \,\text{m}$, $1.8 \times 10^{-3} \,\text{s}^{-1}$ and $6.1 \times 10^{-6} \,\text{s}^{-1}$, and increase relative humidity 39 at 2 m and downward shortwave radiation in the atmosphere by 2.4% and 72.8 W m⁻². 40 The weakened photolysis rates and changed meteorological conditions reduce surface-41 layer O₃-concentrations by up to 11.4 ppb (13.5%), with API and ARF contributing 74.6% 42 and 25.4% of the O₃ decrease, respectively. The combined impacts of API and ARF on 43 surface O₃ are further quantitatively characterized by the ratio of changed O₃ 44 concentration to local PM_{2.5} level. The ratio is calculated to be -0.14 ppb (µg m⁻³)⁻¹ 45 averaged over the multi-pollutant air pollution area in North China. Process analysis 46

indicates indicated that the weakened O₃ chemical production makes made the greatest contribution to API effect while the reduced vertical mixing is was the key process for ARF effect. This study implies that future PM_{2.5} reductions will lead to O₃ increases due to weakened aerosol-radiation interactions. Therefore, tighter controls of O₃ precursors are needed to offset O₃ increases caused by weakened aerosol-radiation interactions in the future.

1 Introduction

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China has been experiencing severe air pollution in recent years, characterized by high loads of PM_{2.5} (particulate matter with an aerodynamic equivalent diameter of 2.5 micrometers or less) and high levels of ozone (O₃). Observational studies exhibited positive correlations and synchronous occurrence of PM_{2.5} and O₃ pollution in North China during summer (Zhao et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2019), indicating that complex air pollution is becoming a major challenge for North China.

Aerosols can absorb and scatter solar radiation and therefore alterto affect Earth's energy balanceradiative balance. They can also act as cloud condensation nuclei and ice nuclei, and further modify the microphysical characteristics of clouds (Albrecht et al., 1989; Haywood et al., 2000; Lohmann et al., 2005). Both ways perturb meteorological variables, e.g., temperature, planetary boundary layer height (PBLH), and precipitation, and eventually influence air pollutants (Petäjä et al., 2015; Miao et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018). Many studies were are focused on the feedback between aerosol and meteorology (Gao et al., 2015; Gao et al., 2016a; Qiu et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2021). Gao et al. (2015) used the WRF-Chem model to investigate the feedbacks between aerosols and meteorological variables over the North China Plain in January 2013, and pointed out that aerosols could cause a decrease in surface temperature by 0.8-2.8 °C but an increase of 0.1-0.5 °C around 925 hPa-when feedbacks between aerosols and meteorological variables were considered in WRF-Chem model. The more stable atmosphere caused by surface cooling and higher-layer heating led to the decreases of surface wind speed and PBLH by 0.3 m s⁻¹ and 40-200 m, respectively, which further resulted in overall PM_{2.5} increases by 10-50 µg m⁻³ (2-30%) over Beijing, Tianjin and south Hebei during January 2013. By using the same WRF-Chem model, Qiu et al. (2017) reported that the surface downward shortwave radiation and PBLH were reduced by 54.6 W m⁻² and 111.4 m due to aerosol radiative forcing during 21 and 27 February 2014 in the North China Plain. As a result, the surface PM_{2.5} concentration averaged over the North China Plain was increased by 34.9 µg m⁻³ (20.4%).

Aerosols can also influence O₃ through aerosol-radiation interactions, including

aerosol-photolysis interaction and aerosol-radiation feedback. Aerosols can scatter and absorb UV radiation, and therefore directly affect O₃ photochemistry reactions, which is called aerosol-photolysis interaction (API) (Dickerson et al., 1997; Liao et al., 1999; Li et al., 2011; Lou et al., 2014). The changed meteorological variables due to aerosol radiative forcing can indirectly affect O₃ concentrations, which is called aerosol-radiation feedback (ARF) (Hansen et al., 1997; Gao et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2020). Although the effects of API or ARF on O₃ have been examined by previous studies (Xing et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2018; Gao et al., 2020), the combined effects of API and ARF on O₃, especially under the conditions of synchronous occurrence of high PM_{2.5} and O₃ concentrations, remain largely elusive.

The present study aims to (1) quantify the respective/combined contributions of API and ARF on <u>surface</u> O₃ concentrations by using the WRF-Chem model; (2) explore the prominent physical and/or chemical processes responsible for API and ARF effects by using an integrated process rate (IPR) analysis embedded in WRF-Chem model. <u>In order to draw the general conclusions</u>, three multi-pollutant air pollution episodes <u>characterized by high O₃ and PM_{2.5} levels during 28 July to 3 August 2014 (Episode1)</u>, 8-13 July 2015 (Episode2) and 5-11 June 2016 (Episode3) in North China are analyzed in this study. The analysis is conducted during one multi-pollutant air pollution episode characterized by high O₃ and PM_{2.5} levels from 28 July to 3 August 2014 in North China. The model configuration, numerical experiments, observational data, and the integrated process rate analysis are described in section 2. Section 3 shows the model evaluation. The presentation and discussion of the model results are exhibited in section 4, and the conclusions and discussions are is-provided in section 5.

2 Methods

2.1 Model configuration

The version 3.7.1 of the online-coupled Weather Research and Forecasting with Chemistry (WRF-Chem) model (Grell et al., 2005; Skamarock et al., 2008) is used in this study to explore the impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions on surface-layer O₃ in North China. WRF-Chem can simulate gas phase species and aerosols coupled with

meteorological fields, and has been widely used to investigate air pollution over North China (Gao et al., 2016a; Gao et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020). As shown in Fig. 1, we design two nested model domains with the number of grid points of 57 (west–east) × 41 (south–north) and 37 (west–east) × 43 (south–north) at 27 and 9 km horizontal resolutions, respectively. The parent domain centers at (39 °N, 117 °E). The model contains 29 vertical levels from the surface to 50 hPa, with 14 levels below 2 km for the fully description of the vertical structure of planetary boundary layer (PBL).

The Carbon Bond Mechanism Z (CBM-Z) is selected as the gas-phase chemical mechanism (Zaveri and Peters, 1999), and the full 8-bin MOSAIC (Model for Simulating Aerosol Interactions and Chemistry) aerosol module with aqueous chemistry is used to simulate aerosol evolution (Zaveri et al., 2008). The photolysis rates are calculated by the Fast-J scheme (Wild et al., 2000). Other major physical parameterizations used in this study are listed in Table 1.

The initial and boundary meteorological conditions are provided by the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Final Analysis data with a spatial resolution of $1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$. In order to limit the model bias of simulated meteorological fields, the four-dimensional data assimilation (FDDA) is used with a-the nudging coefficient of 3.0×10^{-4} for the-wind, temperature and humidity (no analysis nudging is applied for the inner domain) (Lo et al., 2008; Otte, 2008). Chemical initial and boundary conditions are obtained from the Model for Ozone and Related chemical Tracers, version 4 (MOZART-4) forecasts (Emmons et al., 2010).

Anthropogenic emissions in Episode1 are taken from the 2010 MIX Asian emission inventory, and the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) is used in Episode2 and Episode3 (http://www.meicmodel.org/)Anthropogenic emissions are taken from the 2010 MIX Asian emission inventory (Li et al., 2017a), .). These emission inventories which provides emissions of sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs), carbon dioxide (CO₂), ammonia (NH₃), black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), PM₁₀ (particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter is 10 µm and less) and PM_{2.5}. Emissions are aggregated from four sectors, including power generation, industry, residential, and

transportation, with $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$ spatial resolution. Biogenic emissions are calculated online by the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) (Guenther et al., 2006).

2.2 Numerical experiments

To quantify the impacts of API and ARF on O₃, three case simulations have been conducted: (1) BASE – the base simulation coupled with the interactions between aerosol and radiation, which includes both impacts of API and ARF; (2) NOAPI – the same as the BASE case, but the impact of API is turned off (aerosol optical properties are set to zero in the photolysis module), following Wu et al. (2020); (3) NOALL – both the impacts of API and ARF are turned off (removing the mass of aerosol species when calculating aerosol optical properties in the optical module), following Qiu et al. (2017). The differences between BASE and NOAPI (i.e., BASE minus NOAPI) represent the impacts of API. The contributions from ARF can be obtained by comparing NOAPI and NOALL (i.e., NOAPI minus NOALL). The combined effects of API and ARF on O₃ concentrations can be quantitatively evaluated by the differences between BASE and NOALL (i.e., BASE minus NOALL).

All the experiments in Episode1, Episode2 and Episode3 are conducted from 26 July to 3 August 2014, 6-13 July 2015 and 3-11 June 2016, respectively, with the first 40 hours as the model spin-up in each case. Simulation results from the BASE cases of the three episodes are used to evaluate the model performance. Each simulation is conducted from 26 July to 3 August 2014, with the first 40 hours as the model spin up. Simulation results from the BASE case during 28 July and 3 August 2014 are used to evaluate the model performance.

2.3 Observational data

Simulation results are compared with meteorological and chemical measurements. The surface-layer meteorological data (2 m temperature (T_2), 2 m relative humidity (RH_2), and 10 m wind speed (WS_{10}), with a-the temporal resolution of 3 h, at three ten stations (Table S1) are obtained from NOAA's National Climatic Data Center (https://gis.ncdc.noaa.gov/maps/ncei/cdo/hourly). The radiosonde data of temperature

at 08:00 and 20:00 LST in Beijing (39.93 °N, 116.28 °E) are provided by the University of Wyoming (http://weather.uwyo.edu/). Observed hourly concentrations of PM_{2.5} and O₃ at thirty-two sites (Table S2) in North China are collected from the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC). The photolysis rate of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) (J[NO₂]) measured at the Peking University site (39.99 °N, 116.31 °E) is also used to evaluate the model performance. More details about the measurement technique of J[NO₂] can be found in Wang et al. (2019). The aerosol optical depth (AOD) at Beijing site (39.98°N, 116.38°E) is provided by AERONET (level 2.0, http://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/). The AOD at 675 nm and 440 nm are used to derive the AOD at 550 nm to compare with the simulated ones.

2.4 Integrated process rate analysis

Integrated process rate (IPR) analysis has been widely used to quantify the contributions of different processes to O₃ variations (Goncalves et al., 2009; Gao et al., 2016b; Tang et al., 2017; Gao et al., 2018). In this study, four physical/chemical processes are considered, including vertical mixing (VMIX), net chemical production (CHEM), horizontal advection (ADVH), and vertical advection (ADVZ). VMIX is initiated by turbulent process and closely related to PBL development, which influences O₃ vertical gradients. CHEM represents the net O₃ chemical production (chemical production minus chemical consumption). ADVH and ADVZ represent transport by winds (Gao et al., 2016b). In this study, we define ADV as the sum of ADVH and ADVZ.

3 Model evaluation

Reasonable representation of observed meteorological and chemical variables by the WRF-Chem model can provide foundation for evaluating the impacts of aerosols on surface-layer ozone concentrations. The model results presented in this section are taken from the BASE cases in the three episodes. The concentrations of air pollutants are averaged over the thirty-two observation sites in Beijing, Tianjin and Baoding. To ensure the data quality, the mean value for each time is calculated only when concentrations are available at more than sixteen sites, as did in Li et al. (2019a).

3.1 Chemical simulations

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Figure 2 shows the spatial temporal variations of observed and simulated PM_{2.5} and O₃ concentrations over North China for the three episodes. during 28 July to 3 August 2014. The observed higher concentrations in Beijing and Baoding than those in Tianjin are well reproduced by the WRF Chem model. As shown in Fig. 2, the temporal variations of observed PM_{2.5} can be well performed by the model with correlation coefficients (R) of 0.66, 0.56 and 0.73 and normalized mean bias (NMB) of -19.2%, -3.9% and 30.4% during Episode1, Episode2 and Episode3, respectively. The model also tracks well the diurnal variation of O₃ over the North China, with R of 0.86, 0.91 and 0.86 and NMB of -12.0%, 0.4% and 1.6% for Episode1, Episode2 and Episode3, respectively. The model can also reasonably capture the temporal variations of observed PM_{2.5} and O₃ with high correlation coefficients (R) of 0.66 for PM_{2.5} and 0.86 for O₃, although simulated results underestimate the observed PM_{2.5} by -19.2% and O₃ by -12.0%. The failure to reproduce PM_{2.5} peak values may be attributed to incomplete treatments of chemical reactions in WRF-Chem, e.g., the aqueous-phase reactions of SO₂ oxidized by NO₂ in aerosol water (Cheng et al., 2016). More statistical parameters between simulations and observations are presented in Table 2. Figure S1 shows the correlation between observed and simulated AOD at 550 nm in Beijing. In the WRF-Chem model, the AOD at 550 nm are calculated by using the values at 400 and 600 nm according to the Angstrom exponent. Analyzing Fig. S1, the model can reproduce the observed AOD with R of 0.7 and NMB of 7.9%.

3.2 Meteorological simulations

Figure 3 shows the time series of observed and simulated <u>T2</u>, <u>RH2</u>, <u>WS10</u> and <u>J[NO2]</u> during the three episodes. The observed T2, RH2, <u>WS10</u> are averaged over the ten meteorological observation stations, and the <u>J[NO2]</u> are measured at Peking University. Most of the monitored <u>J[NO2]</u> in Episode3 are unavailable, so the comparison of <u>J[NO2]</u> in Episode3 is not shown. <u>T2</u>, <u>RH2</u>, and <u>WS10</u> averaged over three cities (Beijing, Tianjin, and Baoding), and <u>J[NO2]</u> at Peking University during 28 July to 3 August 2014. The statistical metrics for <u>T2</u>, <u>RH2</u>, <u>WS10</u>, and <u>J[NO2]</u> are also presented in Table 2.

Generally, the model can depict the temporal variations of T₂ fairly well with R of 0.98 and the mean bias (MB) of -1.9~-0.9-0.2 °C. For RH₂, the R and MB are 0.91~0.970.93 and -4.0%~1.9%-6.0%, respectively. Although WRF-Chem model overestimates WS₁₀ with the MB of 0.6~0.90.6 m s⁻¹, the R for WS₁₀ is 0.70~0.890.70 and the root-mean-square error (RMSE) is 0.9~1.51.0 m s⁻¹, which is smaller than the threshold of model performance criteria (2 m s⁻¹) proposed by Emery et al. (2001). The large-positive bias in wind speed was can also be reproduced reported in other studies (Zhang et al., 2010; Gao et al., 2015; Liao et al., 2015; Qiu et al., 2017). The predicted J[NO₂] agrees well with the observations with R of 0.97~0.98 and NMB of 6.8%~6.9%. We also conduct comparisons of between-observed and simulated temperature profiles at 08:00 and 20:00 LST in Beijing during the three episodes (Fig. S2) 29 July to 1 August 2014 in Figure S1. The vertical profiles of observed temperature can be, especially the thermal inversion layer occurred on 31 July around 1600 m, is well captured by the model in these three complex air pollution episodes. Generally, the WRF-Chem model can reasonably reproduces the temporal variations of observed meteorological parameters.

4 Results

It is known that co-occurrence of PM_{2.5} and O₃ pollution is frequently observed nowadays over China (Dai et al., 2021). The complex air pollution characterized by high PM_{2.5} and O₃ levels has already received widespread attentions from both scientists and policy-makers. Therefore, we examine the impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions on O₃ concentrations with a special focus on the complex air pollution areas (CAPAs, Fig. S2S3) in the three episodes, where the mean simulated daily PM_{2.5} and MDA8 (maximum daily 8-h average) O₃ concentrations are larger than 75 µg m⁻³ and 80 ppb, respectively, based on the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (http://www.mee.gov.cn).

4.1 Impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions on meteorology

Figure 4 shows the impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions on downward shortwave radiation at the surface (BOT_SW), downward shortwave radiation in the atmosphere (ATM_SW), PBLH, T₂, RH₂, and WS₁₀ during the daytime (08:00-17:00

LST) from Episode1 to Episode328 July to 3 August 2014. Analyzing the As a results of the interactions between aerosol and radiation (the combined impacts of API and ARF), BOT SW is decreased over the entire simulated domain in the three episodes-Over CAPAs, the BOT SW is decreased by with the decreases of 93.2 W m⁻² (20.5%), 100.3 W m⁻² (19.5%) and 92.4 W m⁻² (19.2%) over CAPAs, respectively 115.8 W m⁻² (20.5%). Contrary to the changes in BOT_SW, ATM SW is increased significantly in the three episodes with an-the increases of 72.8 W m⁻² (25.3%), 85.2 W m⁻² (29.0%) and 73.7 W m⁻² (26.4%) over CAPAs, respectively. The decreased BOT SW perturbs the near-surface energy flux, which weakens convection and suppresses the development of PBL (Li et al., 2017b). The mean PBLHs averaged over CAPAs is <u>calculated to decrease</u> <u>are decreased</u> by 129.0 m (13.0%), 249.0 m (20.9%) and 224.6 m (19.0%), respectively. The reduced surface radiation budget can directly lead to changes in near-surface temperature. Therefore, the changes in T2 have the similar spatial patterns with BOT_SW; the surface temperature is decreased by 0.56 °C averaged over CAPAs. RH2 is increased over most of the domain with an average rise of 2.4%, which is beneficial for the hygroscopic growth of aerosols. WS₁₀ exhibits overall reductions over CAPAs and is calculated to decrease by 0.12 m s⁻¹ (3.6%), 0.05 m s⁻¹ (1.6%), and 0.12 m s⁻¹ (3.0%) for the three episodes, respectively. on average. We also examine the changed meteorological variables caused by API and ARF respectively. As shown in Fig. \$3\$\text{S4}\$ and \$5\$, API has little impact on meteorological variables; which means the major contributor to the meteorology variability is ARF.the above changes are mainly caused by ARF.

4.2 Impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions on photolysis

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Figure 5 shows the spatial distributions of mean daytime surface-layer PM_{2.5} concentrations simulated by BASE cases and the changes in J[NO₂] and J[O¹D] due to aerosol-radiation interactions from Episode1 to Episode328 July to 3 August 2014. When the combined impacts (API and ARF) are considered, J[NO₂] and J[O¹D] are decreased over the entire domain in the three episodes, and; the spatial patterns of changed J[NO₂] and J[O¹D] are similar to that of simulated PM_{2.5}. Analyzing the three

285 simulated episodes, the surface J[NO₂] averaged over CAPAs are decreased by 1.8 × 10^{-3} s^{-1} (40.5%), $2.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (36.8%) and $1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (36.0%), respectively. The 286 decreased surface J[O¹D] over CAPAs are 6.1×10^{-6} s⁻¹ (48.8%), 6.3×10^{-6} s⁻¹ (41.4%) 287 and 5.7 × 10⁻⁶ s⁻¹ (44.6%), respectively. The surface J[NO₂] and J[O¹D] are decreased 288 by 1.8×10^{-3} -s⁻¹ (40.5%) and 6.1×10^{-6} -s⁻¹ (48.8%) averaged over CAPAs. Figure S4 289 S6 exhibits the impacts of API and ARF on surface J[NO₂] and J[O¹D]percentage 290 changes in surface J[NO₂] and J[O¹D] caused by API and ARF respectively. 291 292 Conclusions can be summarized It is found that J[NO₂] and J[O¹D] are significantly modified by API and little affected by ARF. 293

4.3 Impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions on O₃

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Figure 6 shows the changes in surface-layer O₃ due to API, ARF, and the combined effects (denoted as ALL) from Episode1 to Episode3. As shown in Fig. 6(a1-a3)Fig. 6a, API alone leads to overall surface O₃ decreases over the entire domain with an-average reductions of 8.5 ppb (10.1%), 9.0 ppb (10.6%) and 8.3 ppb (10.4%) over CAPAs in the three episodes, respectively. The changes can be explained by the substantially diminished UV radiation due to aerosol loading, which significantly weakens the efficiency of photochemical reactions and restrains O₃ formation. However, tThe decreased surface O₃ concentrations due to ARF, however, is are only 2.9 ppb (3.1%, Fig. 6(b1)), 1.0 ppb (1.2%, Fig. 6(b2)) and 1.0 ppb (1.1%, Fig. 6(b3)) for the three episodes, which indicates that API is the dominant way for O₃ reduction related to aerosol-radiation interactions. The distributions of changed O₃-concentrations coincide with NO_x variations (Fig. S5b). Since North China is VOC-limited (Jin et al., 2015), the increase in NO_x due to ARF may partly explain the O₃ decrease. Fig. 6(c1-c3) presents tThe combined effects of API and ARF are shown in Fig. 6c. Generally, aerosol-radiation interactions decrease the surface O₃ concentrations by 11.4 ppb (13.5%), 10.0 ppb (11.9%) and 9.3 ppb (11.6%) averaged over CAPAs in the three episodes, respectively.

We further define an index to characterize the effects of aerosols on surface O₃ concentrations. The ratio of changes in O₃ to local PM_{2.5} levels is defined as:

 $\frac{AOP}{PM_{2.5}BASE}$

315 where ΔO₃ is the changed O₃ concentration caused by ALL, and PM_{2.5}_BASE is the

316 surface PM_{2.5} concentration simulated in the BASE scenario. The calculated ROP is

0.14 ppb (µg m⁻³)⁻¹ averaged over CAPAs, which means when the concentrations of

PM_{2.5} is 100 μg m⁻³, the O₃ decrease will be up to 14 ppb over CAPAs due to aerosol-

radiation interactions.

4.4 Influencing mechanism of aerosol-radiation interactions on O₃

Figure 7a shows mean results of the three episodes (Episode1, Episode2 and Episode3) in diurnal variations of simulated daytime surface-layer O₃ concentrations from BASE, NOAPI and NOALL cases averaged over CAPAs diurnal variations of simulated surface daytime O₃ concentrations over CAPAs in three cases (BASE, NOAPI, and NOALL). All the experiments (BASE, NOAPI and NOALL) cases present O₃ increases from 08:00 LST. It is shown that the simulated O₃ concentrations in BASE case increase more slowly than that in NOAPI and NOALL cases. To explain the underlying mechanisms of API and ARF impacts on O₃, we quantify the variations in contributions of different processes (ADV, CHEM, and VMIX) to O₃ by using the IPR analysis.

Figure 7b shows hourly surface O₃ changes induced by each physical/chemical process (i.e., ADV, CHEM, and VMIX) in BASE case averaged from Episodel to Episode3. The significant positive contribution to the hourly variation in O₃ is contributed by VMIX, and the contribution reaches the maximum at about 1009:00 LST. After 14:00 LST, the contribution from VMIX remains constant (nearly +2 ppb h⁻¹), which is probably attributed to the stable boundary layer development (Tang et al., 2016). The CHEM process makes negative contributions at around 09:00 and 16:00 LST, which means that the chemical consumption of O₃ is stronger than the chemical production. At noon, the net chemical contribution turns to be positive due to stronger solar UV radiation. The contribution from all the processes (NET, the sum of VMIX, CHEM, and ADV) to O₃ variation is peaked at the noon and then becomes weakened. After sunset (17:00 LST), the NET contribution turns to be negative over CAPAs,

leading to O₃ decrease.

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344 Figure 7c shows the changes in hourly process contributions caused by API averaged from Episode1 to Episode3. The chemical production of O₃ is suppressed 345 significantly due to aerosol impacts on photolysis rates. The weakened O₃ chemical 346 production decreases the contribution from CHEM, and results in a negative value of 347 CHEM DIF (-3.53.2 ppb h⁻¹). In contrast to CHEM DIF, the contribution from 348 changed VMIX (VMIX DIF) to O₃ concentration due to API is always positive, and 349 350 the mean value is +3.13.0 ppb h⁻¹. The impact of API on ADV process is relatively small (-0.360.26 ppb h⁻¹). NET DIF, namely the sum of VMIX DIF, CHEM DIF and 351 ADV DIF, indicates the differences in hourly O₃ changes caused by API. As shown in 352 Fig. 7c, NET DIF is almost negative during the daytime over CAPAs with the mean 353 value of -0.760.46 ppb h⁻¹. This is because the decreases in CHEM and ADV are larger 354 than the increases in VMIX caused by API; the O₃ decrease is mainly attributed to the 355 significantly decreased contribution from CHEM. The maximum difference in O₃ 356 between BASE and NOAPI appears at 1711:00 LST with a value of -10.111.1 ppb (Fig. 357 358 7a). Figure 7d shows the impacts of ARF on each physical/chemical process 359 contribution to the hourly O₃ variation averaged from Episode1 to Episode3. At 08:00 360 LST, the change in VMIX due to ARF is large with a value of -4.63.5 ppb h⁻¹, resulting 361 362 in a net negative variation with all processes considered. The decrease in O₃ reaches the 363 maximum with the value of 6.15.2 ppb at around 0908:00 LST over CAPAs (Fig. 7a). During 1009:00 to 16:00 LST, the positive VMIX DIF (mean value of +0.590.20 ppb 364 h^{-1}) or the positive CHEM DIF (mean value of +0.160.55 ppb h^{-1}) is the major process 365 366 to positive NET DIF. When both impacts of API and ARF are considered, the variation pattern of the 367 difference in hourly process contribution shown in Fig. 7e is similar to that in Fig. 7c, 368 369 which indicates that API is the dominant factor to surface-layer O₃ reduction. Figure 8 presents the vertical profiles of simulated daytime O₃ concentrations in 370

three cases (BASE, NOAPI, and NOALL), and the differences in contributions from each physical/chemical process to hourly O₃ variations caused by API, ARF and the

combined effects averaged over CAPAs from Episode1 to Episode3during 28 July to 3 374 August 2014 over CAPAs. As shown in Fig. 8a, the O₃ concentration is lower in BASE than that in other two scenarios (NOAPI and NOALL), especially at the lower 12 levels 375 (below 863.0 m), owing to the impacts of aerosols (API and/or ARF). 376 The changes in each process contribution caused by API are presented in Fig. 8b. 377 The contribution from CHEM DIF is -2.142.0 ppb h⁻¹ for the first seven layers (from 378 27.6 to 342.8 m). Conversely, the contribution from VMIX DIF shows a positive value 379 380 under the 342.8 m (between the first layer to the seventh layer) at the lower seven layers with the mean value of +1.7 ppb h⁻¹. The positive variation in VMIX due to API may 381 382 be associated with the different vertical gradient of O₃ between BASE and NOAPI cases. The contributions of changed advections (ADVH DIF and ADVZ DIF) are relatively 383 small, with mean values of +0.250.07 and -0.470.21 ppb h⁻¹ respectively below the first 384 seven layers, which may result from small impact of API on wind filed (Fig. \$\frac{\$3a\text{S5}(a4-}{a4-}\) 385 c4)). The net difference is a negative value (-0.660.44 ppb h⁻¹); API leads to O₃ 386 reduction not only nearly surface but also in the aloft. 387 388 Figure 8c shows the differences in O₃ budget due to ARF. When the ARF is considered, the vertical turbulence is weakened and the development of PBL is 389 inhibited, which makes VMIX DIF negative at the lower 7-seven layers (below the 390 342.8 m) with a mean value of -0.550.64 ppb h⁻¹, but the variation in CHEM caused by 391 ARF is positive with a mean value of +0.60.72 ppb h⁻¹. The chemical production of 392 tropospheric O₃ is affected by both photolysis rate and the concentrations of precursors 393 (Tie et al., 2009). The enhanced O₃ precursors due to ARF can promote the chemical 394 production of O₃ (Tie et al., 2009; Gao et al., 2018). The changes of ADVZ and ADVH 395 (ADVZ DIF and ADVH DIF) caused by ARF are associated with the variations in 396 wind filed. When ARF is considered, the horizontal wind speed is decreased (Fig. 397 S_{7(a)6a}), which makes ADVH DIF positive at the lower twelve layers with a mean 398 value of +0.50.25 ppb h⁻¹. However, ADVZ DIF is negative at these layers with a mean 399 value of -0.480.27 ppb h⁻¹ because aerosol radiative effects decrease the transport of O₃ 400 401 from the upper to lower layers (Fig. S6bS7(b)).

In Fig. 8d, the pattern and magnitude of the differences in process contributions between BASE and NOALL are similar to those caused by API, indicating again the dominate contributor role of API on O₃ changes. The impacts of API on O₃ both near the surface and aloft are greater than those of ARF.

Figure S8 and S9 detailed show the influencing mechanism of aerosol-radiation interactions on O₃ in each episode. Similar variation characteristics can be found among the three episodes as the mean situation discussed above, with the larger impacts of API on O₃ both near the surface and aloft than those of ARF, indicating the major contributor of API on O₃ reduction related with aerosol-radiation interactions.

5 Conclusions and Discussions

In this study, the fully coupled regional chemistry transport model WRF-Chem is applied to investigate the impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions, including the impacts of aerosol-photolysis interaction (API) and the impact of aerosol-radiation feedback (ARF), on O₃ during a-summertime complex air pollution episodes from 28 July to 3 August 2014 (Episode1), 8-13 July 2015 (Episode2) and 5-11 June 2016 (Episode3). Three sensitivity experiments are designed to quantify the respective and combined impacts from API and ARF. Generally, the spatiotemporal distributions of observed pollutant concentrations and meteorological parameters can beare captured fairly well by the model with high correlation coefficients of 0.56~0.910.66 0.86 for pollutant concentrations and 0.70~0.98 for meteorological parameters.

Sensitivity experiments show that aerosol-radiation interactions decrease BOT_SW, \mp_{27} , WS₁₀, PBLH, J[NO₂], and J[O¹D] by 92.4~100.3 W m⁻², 0.05~0.12 m s⁻¹, 129.0~249.0 m, 1.8 × 10⁻³~2.0 × 10⁻³ s⁻¹, and 5.7 × 10⁻⁶~6.3 × 10⁻⁶ 115.8 W m⁻², 0.56 °C, 0.12 m s⁻¹, 129 m, 1.8 × 10⁻³ s⁻¹, and 6.1 × 10⁻⁶ s⁻¹-over CAPAs, and increase ATM_SW and RH₂-by 72.8~85.2 W m⁻² and 2.4%. The changed meteorological variables and weakened photochemistry reaction further reduce surface-layer O₃ concentrations by up to 9.3~11.4 ppb (13.5%), with API and ARF contributing 74.6%~90.0% and 10.0%~25.4%, respectively. The combined impacts of API and ARF on O₃ can be characterized by the ratio of changed O₃ (Δ O₃) to local PM_{2.5} level

(PM_{2.5}_BASE), defining as ROP = ΔO_3 /PM_{2.5}_BASE. The calculated ROP is -0.14 ppb ($\mu g \ m^{-3}$)⁻¹ averaged over CAPAs.

We further examine the influencing mechanism of aerosol-radiation interactions on O₃ by using integrated process rate analysis. API can directly affect O₃ by reducing the photochemistry reactions within the lower several hundred meters and therefore amplify the O₃ vertical gradient, which promotes the contribution from VMIX and the vertical mixing of O₃. The reduced photochemistry reactions of O₃ weaken the chemical contribution and reduce surface O₃ concentrations, even though the enhanced vertical mixing can partly counteract the reduction. ARF affects O₃ concentrations indirectly through the changed meteorological variables, e.g., the decreased PBLH. The suppressed PBL can weaken the vertical mixing of O₃ by turbulence. Generally, the impacts of API on O₃ both near the surface and aloft are greater than those of ARF, indicating the dominant role of API on O₃ reduction related with aerosol-radiation interactions.

This study provides a detailed understanding of aerosol impacts on O₃ through aerosol-radiation interactions (including both API and ARF). The results imply that future PM_{2.5} reductions will lead to O₃ increases due to weakened aerosol-radiation interactions. A recent studyRecent study emphasized the need for controlling VOCs emissions to mitigate O₃ pollution (Li et al., 2019b). Therefore, tighter controls of O₃ precursors (especially VOCs emissions) are needed to counteract future O₃ increases caused by weakened aerosol-radiation interactions, and the contributions of different mitigation strategies with the impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions to O₃ air quality will be discussed detailedly in our future work.

There are some limitations to this work. The uncertainty of the lack of secondary organic aerosols (SOA), and the missing mechanisms of some heterogeneous reactions may result in large uncertainties in the final simulation results. Gao et al. (2017) added some SOA formation mechanisms into the MOSAIC module by using the volatility basis set (VBS) in WRF-Chem and found that the surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in urban Beijing were reduced by 1.9 µg m⁻³ due to the weakened ARF effect during Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC). Similar magnitude can also be found in Zhou et al.

461 (2019) (-1.8 μg m⁻³) who did not consider the impacts of SOA in WRF-Chem when
462 analyzing the impacts of weakened ARF on PM_{2.5} during APEC. Therefore, more work
463 should be conducted to explore the impacts of ARF on PM_{2.5} and O₃ concentrations
464 under consideration of SOA in future.

Data availability

The observed hourly surface concentrations of air pollutants are derived from the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (http://www.cnemc.cn). The observed surface meteorological data are obtained from NOAA's National Climatic Data Center (https://gis.ncdc.noaa.gov/maps/ncei/cdo/hourly). The radiosonde data are provided by the University of Wyoming (http://weather.uwyo.edu/). The photolysis rates of nitrogen 471 472 dioxide in Beijing are provided by Xin Li (li xin@pku.edu.cn). The aerosol optical depth in Beijing is obtained from the AERONET level 2.0 data collection 473 (http://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/). The simulation results can be accessed by contacting 474 Lei Chen (chenlei@nuist.edu.cn) and Hong Liao (hongliao@nuist.edu.cn). 475

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Author contributions

HY, LC, and HL conceived the study and designed the experiments. HY and LC performed the simulations and carried out the data analysis. JZ, WW, and XL provided useful comments on the paper. HY prepared the paper with contributions from all coauthors.

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Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Acknowledgements

This work is supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (2019YFA0606804), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (42007195), and the Meteorological Soft Science Program of China Meteorological Administration (2021ZZXM46), and the Postgraduate Research and Practice Innovation Program of Jiangsu Province (KYCX21 1014). We acknowledge the High Performance Computing Center of Nanjing University of Information Science & Technology for their support of this work.

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Table 1. Physical parameterization options used in the simulation.

Options	Schemes				
Microphysics scheme	Lin (Purdue) scheme (Lin et al.,1983)				
Cumulus scheme	Grell 3D ensemble scheme				
Boundary layer scheme	Yonsei University PBL scheme (Hong et al., 2006)				
Surface layer scheme	Monin-Obukhov surface scheme (Foken, 2006)				
Land-surface scheme	Unified Noah land-surface model (Chen and Dudhia, 2001)				
Longwave radiation scheme	RRTMG (Iacono et al., 2008)				
Shortwave radiation scheme	RRTMG (Iacono et al., 2008)				

- 1 Table 2. Statistical parameters between simulated and observed PM_{2.5} (μg m⁻³), O₃
- 2 (ppb), 2 m temperature (T₂, °C), 2 m relative humidity (RH₂, %), 10 m wind speed
- 3 (WS₁₀, m s⁻¹), and photolysis rate of NO₂ (J[NO₂], s⁻¹) during 28 July to 3 August 2014.

Variables	O a	₩ª	\mathbf{R}^{b}	MB ^e	ME ^d	NMB ^e (%)	NME ^f (%)	RMSE ^g
PM _{2.5}	113.3	90.7	0.66	-21.8	25.2	-19.2	22.2	30.1
O 3	47.7	44.1	0.86	-5.7	15.5	-12.0	32.4	18.2
\mathbf{T}_2	28.4	28.0	0.98	-0.2	0.9	-0.7	3.3	1.1
RH_2	70.9	65.7	0.93	-6.0	6.7	-8.5	9.5	8.7
WS ₁₀	2.4	3.0	0.70	0.6	0.9	27.9	36.6	1.0
J[NO ₂]	1.6×10 ⁻³	1.8×10 ⁻³	0.97	1.1×10 ⁻⁴	3×10 ⁻⁴	6.8	18.5	5.3×10 ⁻⁴

- 4 *O and M are the averages for observed and simulated results, respectively. O =
- 5 $\frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} O_{i}$, $M = \frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}$.
- 6 ^bR is the correlation coefficient between observations and model results. R=
- $7 \qquad \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |(O_{i} \cdot O)^{\times}(M_{i} \cdot M)|}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (O_{i} \cdot O)^{2} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} (M_{i} \cdot M)^{2}}}$
- 8 "MB is the mean bias between observations and model results. MB = $\frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} (M_i O_i)$.
- 9 ^dME is the mean error between observations and model results. ME = $\frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} |M_i \cdot O_i|$.
- 10 *NMB is the normalized mean bias between observations and model results. NMB =
- 11 $\frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{M_i \cdot O_i}{O_i} \times 100\%$.
- 12 ^fNME is normal mean error between observations and model results. NME=
- 13 $\frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{|M_i O_i|}{O_i} \times 100\%$.
- 14 **RMSE* is the root mean square error of observations and model results. RMSE=
- 15 $\sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^{n} (M_i \cdot O_i)^2}$.
- 16 In the above O_i and M_i are the hourly observed and simulated data, respectively, and n
- 17 is the total number of hours.

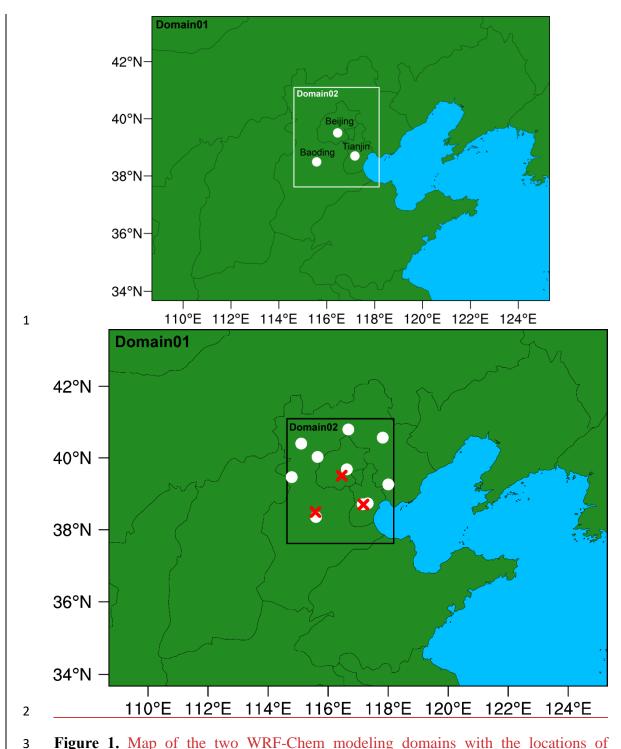


Figure 1. Map of the two WRF-Chem modeling domains with the locations of meteorological (white dots) and environmental (red crosses) observation sites used for model evaluation. Map of the two WRF-Chem modeling domains and the locations of observation sites (white dots) used for model evaluation.

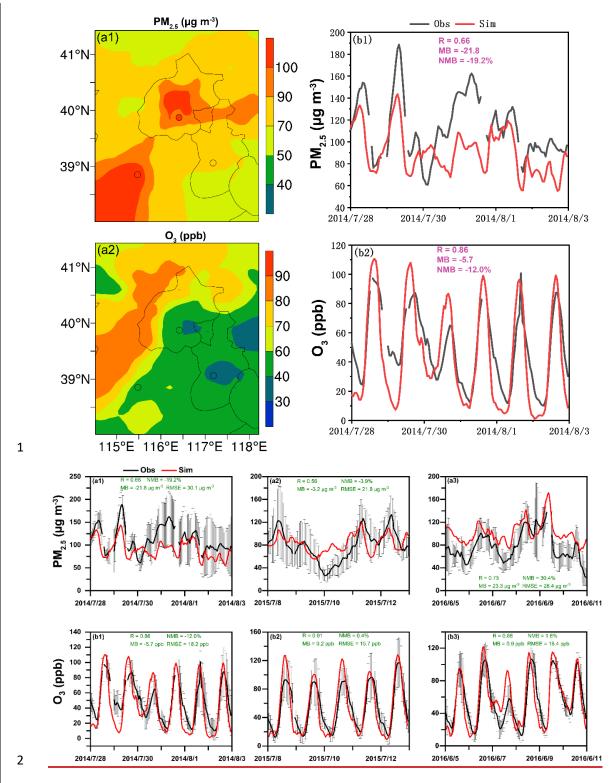


Figure 2. Time series of observed (black) and simulated (red) hourly surface (a) PM_{2.5} and (b) O₃ concentrations averaged over the thirty-two observation sites in Beijing, Tianjin, and Baoding during 28 July to 3 August 2014 (Episode1, a1-b1), 8-13 July 2015 (Episode2, a2-b2) and 5-11 June 2016 (Episode3, a3-b3). The error bars represent the standard deviations. The calculated correlation coefficient (R), mean bias (MB), normalized mean bias (NMB) and root-mean-square error (RMSE) are also shown.(a1-a2) Spatial distributions of simulated (color counters) and observed (colored circles)

PM_{2.5} and O₃ concentrations averaged during 28 July to 3 August 2014. (b1-b2) Time series of observed (black) and simulated (red) hourly PM_{2.5} and O₃ concentrations averaged over the 32 observation sites in Beijing, Tianjin, and Baoding. The calculated correlation coefficient (R), mean bias (MB), and normalized mean bias (NMB) are also shown.

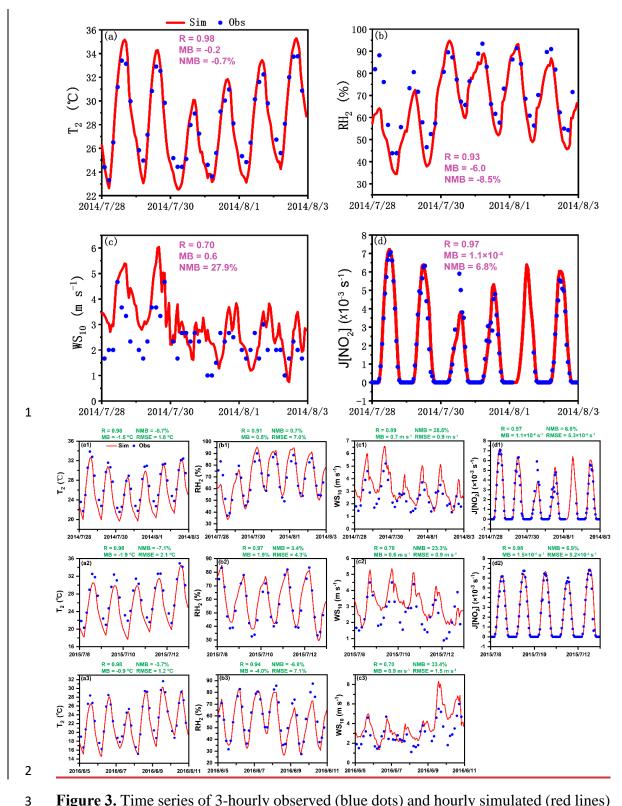
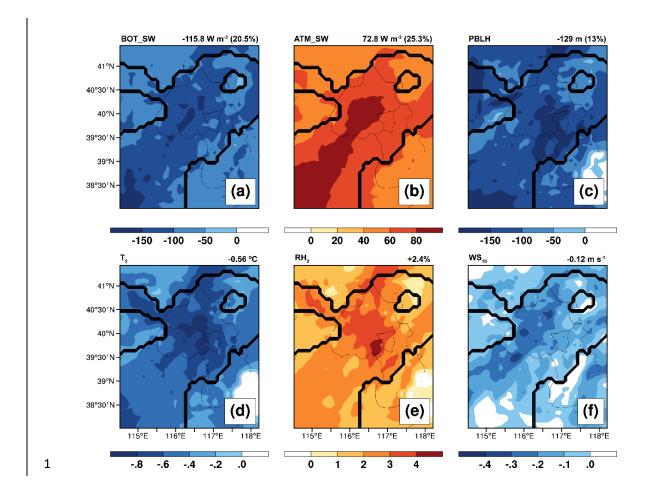


Figure 3. Time series of 3-hourly observed (blue dots) and hourly simulated (red lines) (a) 2-m temperature (T₂), (b) 2-m relative humidity (RH₂), (c) wind speed at 10 m (WS₁₀) averaged over ten meteorological observation stations, and (d) surface photolysis rate of NO₂ (J[NO₂]) during 28 July to 3 August 2014 (Episode1, a1-d1), 8-13 July 2015 (Episode2, a2-d2) and 5-11 June 2016 (Episode3, a3-c3). The calculated correlation coefficient (R), mean bias (MB), and normalized mean bias (NMB) and root-mean-square error (RMSE) are also shown.



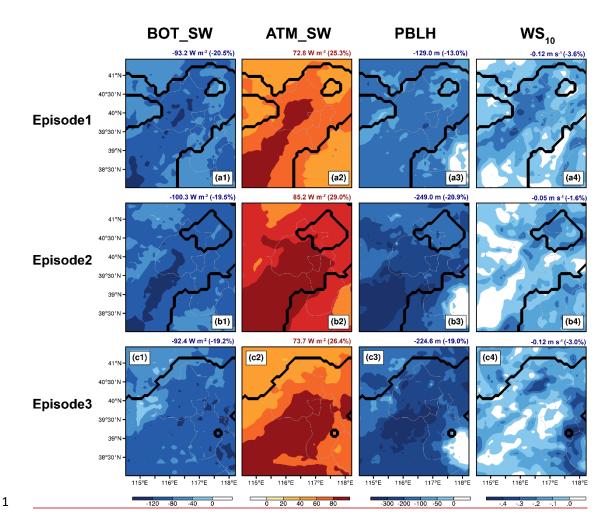


Figure 4. The impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions on (a) downward shortwave radiation at the surface (BOT_SW), (b) downward shortwave radiation in the atmosphere (ATM_SW), (c) PBL height (PBLH), (d) 2-m temperature (T₂), (e) 2-m relative humidity (RH₂), and (f) 10-m wind speed (WS₁₀) during in the daytime (08:00-17:00 LST) during from 28 July to 3 August 2014 (Episode1), 8-13 July 2015 (Episode2) and 5-11 June 2016 (Episode3). The regions sandwiched between two black lines is are defined as the complex air pollution areas (CAPAs) where the mean daily PM_{2.5} and MDA8 O₃ concentrations in BASE case are larger than 75 μg m⁻³ and 80 ppb. The calculated changes (percentage changes) averaged over CAPAs are also shwon shown at the top of each panel.

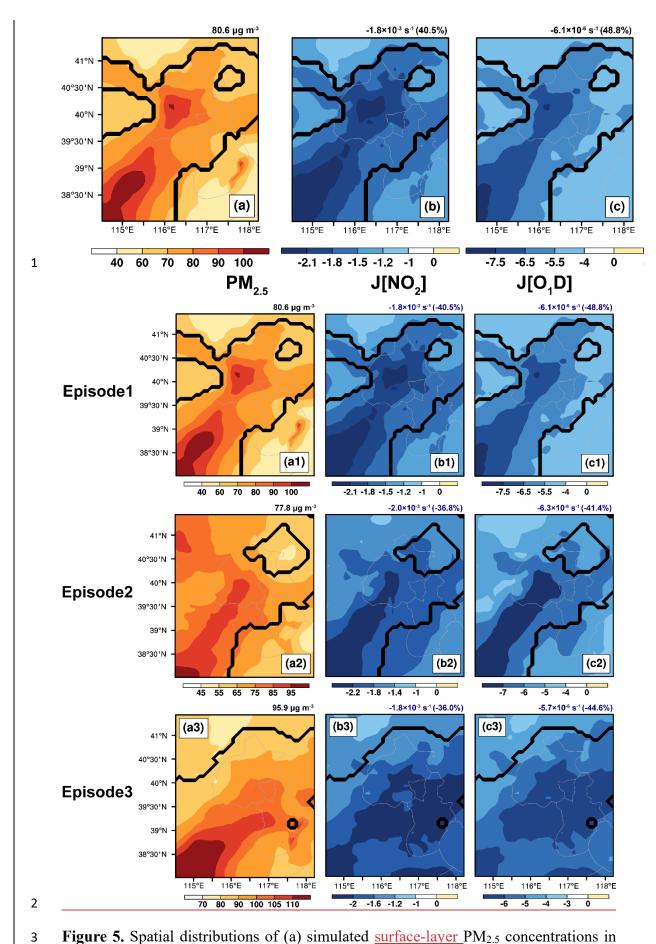
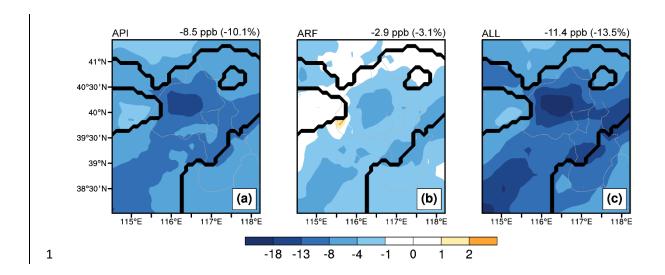


Figure 5. Spatial distributions of (a) simulated surface-layer PM_{2.5} concentrations in

- 1 BASE cases, and the changes in surface (b) J[NO₂] and (c) J[O¹D] due to aerosol-
- 2 radiation interactions during in the daytime (08:00-17:00 LST) during 28 July to 3
- 3 August 2014 (Episode1), 8-13 July 2015 (Episode2) and 5-11 June 2016
- 4 (Episode3) from 28 July to 3 August 2014. The calculated values (percentage changes)
- 5 avaraged over CAPAs are also <u>shwon shown</u> at the top of each panel.



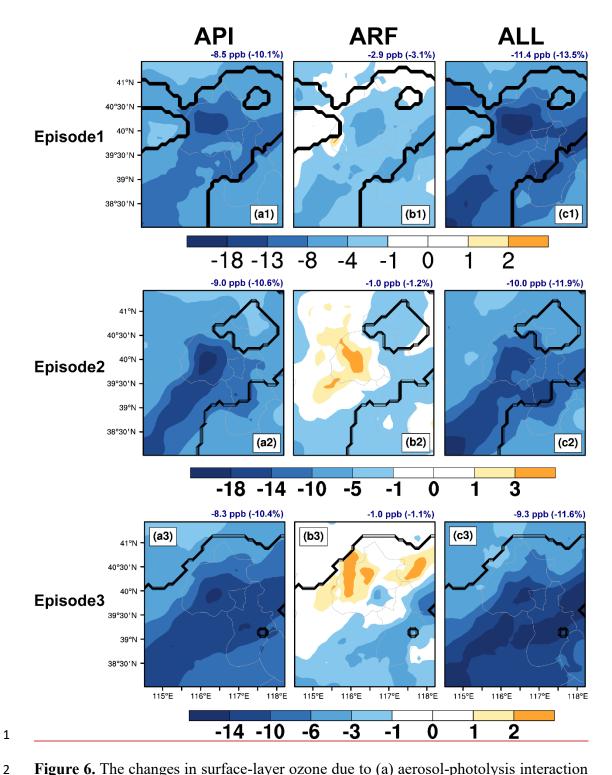


Figure 6. The changes in surface-layer ozone due to (a) aerosol-photolysis interaction (API), (b) aerosol-radiation feedback (ARF), and (c) the combined effects (ALL, defined as API+ARF) during in the daytime (08:00-17:00 LST) during 28 July to 3 August 2014 (Episode1), 8-13 July 2015 (Episode2) and 5-11 June 2016 (Episode3) from 28 July to 3 August 2014. The calculated mean changes (percentage changes) avaraged over CAPAs are also shown at the top of each panel.

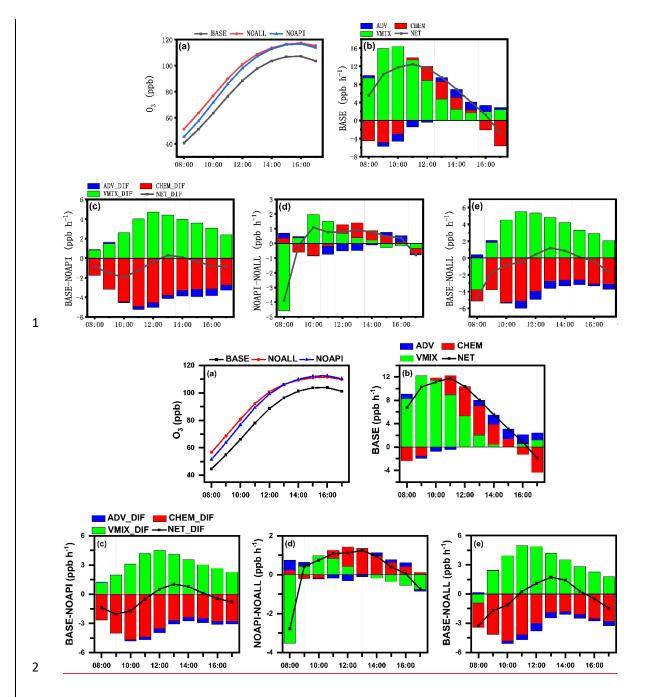
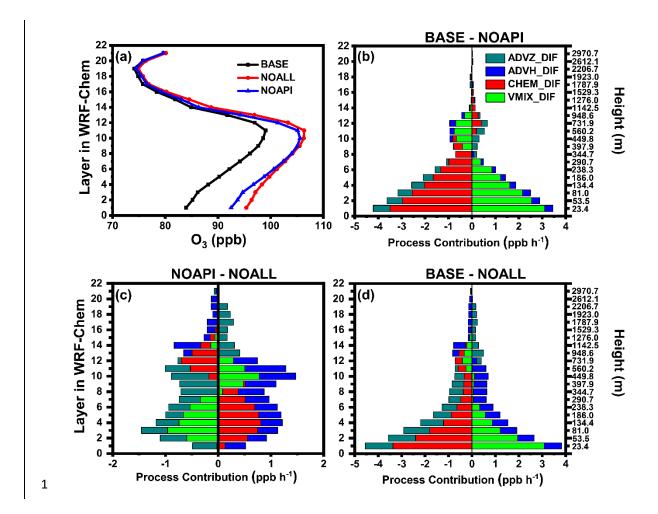


Figure 7. Temporal evolution characteristics of aerosol-radiation interactions on O₃ averaged over the three episodes. (a) Diurnal variations of simulated O₃ concentrations in BASE (black dotted line), NOAPI (blue dotted line), and NOALL (red dotted line) cases over CAPAs. (b) The hourly O₃ changes induced by each physical/chemical process using the IPR analysis method in BASE case. (c-e) Changes in hourly O₃ process contributions caused by API (BASE minus NOAPI), ARF (NOAPI minus NOALL), and ALL (BASE minus NOALL) over CAPAs during the daytime (08:00-17:00 LST) from 28 July to 3 August 2014. The black lines with squares denote the net contribution of all processes (NET, defined as VMIX+CHEM+ADV). Differences of each process contribution are denoted as VMIX_DIF, CHEM_DIF, ADV_DIF, and NET DIF.



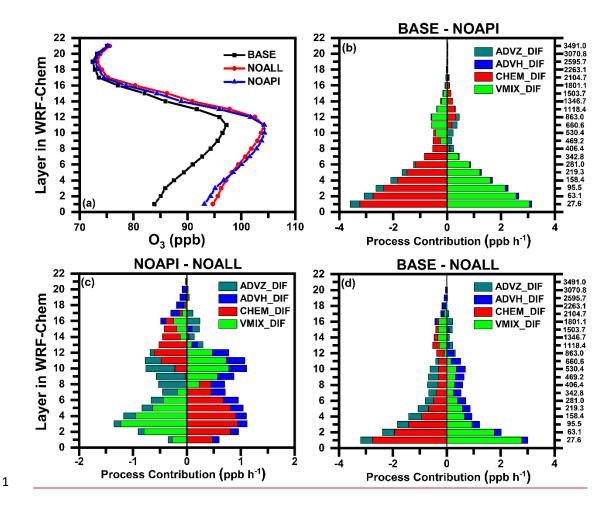


Figure 8. The impacts of aerosol-radiation interactions on vertical O₃ averaged over the three episodes. (a) Vertical profiles of simulated O₃ concentrations in BASE (black dotted line), NOAPI (blue dotted line), and NOALL (red dotted line) cases over CAPAs. (b-d) Changes in O₃ budget due to API, ARF, and ALL over CAPAs during the daytime (08:00-17:00 LST) from 28 July to 3 August 2014. Differences of each process contribution are denoted by ADVZ_DIF, ADVH_DIF, CHEM_DIF, and VMIX_DIF.