

Measurement report: High Contributions of Halocarbon and Aromatic Compounds to Atmospheric VOCs in Industrial Area

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Abstract. Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are key components of tropospheric chemistry. We
15 investigated ambient VOCs in an industrial area in Nanjing, China between July 2018 and May 2020. The sum of the suite of measured VOCs (TVOCs) concentrations was 59.8 ± 28.6 ppbv during the investigation period. About twice the TVOCs concentrations were observed in the autumn (83 ± 20 ppbv) and winter (77.5 ± 16.8 ppbv) seasons compared to those in spring (39.6 ± 13.1 ppbv) and summer (38.8 ± 10.2 ppbv). In previous studies in Nanjing, oxygenated-VOCs (OVOCs) and halocarbons were
20 not measured, the current TVOCs concentration without halocarbons and OVOCs was similar to the previous investigation in the same study area; however, it was 2-folds higher than the one reported in the nonindustrial suburban area of Nanjing. Due to the industrial influence, the halocarbons VOC-group (14.3 ± 7.3 ppbv, 24%) was the second largest contributor to the TVOCs after alkanes (21 ± 7 ppbv, 35%), which is in contrast with the previous studies in Nanjing and also in almost other regions in China.
25 Relatively high proportions of halocarbons and aromatics were observed in autumn (25.7 and 19.3%, respectively) and winter (25.8 and 17.6%, respectively) compared to those in summer (20.4 and 11.8%,

respectively) and spring (20.3 and 13.6%, respectively). According to the potential source contribution function (PSCF), short-distance transports from the surrounding industrial areas and cities were the main reason for the high VOC concentration in the study area. According to positive matrix factorization (PMF) model results, vehicle-related emissions (33-48%) contributed to the major portion of the ambient VOC concentrations. Aromatics followed by alkenes were the top contributors to the loss rate of OH radicals (L_{OH}) (37 and 32%, respectively). According to the empirical kinetic modelling approach (EKMA) and relative incremental reactivity (RIR) analysis, the study area was in the VOC-sensitive regime for ozone (O_3) formation during all the measurements seasons. Therefore, alkenes and aromatics emissions from automobiles need to be decreased to reduce secondary air pollution formation in the study area.

1 Introduction

Air pollution characterized by severe ozone (O_3) and haze pollution is a big problem in urban and industrial areas in China (He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2016; Feng et al., 2016; Hui et al., 2019). In recent years, O_3 concentrations above the national standard and severe haze events have been frequently reported (He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2019; Sheng et al., 2018; Feng et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2016). As a precursor of O_3 and secondary organic aerosol (SOA), volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are largely responsible for the severe air pollution in China (Song et al., 2018; Hui et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018; He et al., 2019). Unfortunately, anthropogenic VOC emissions have been increasing over the last two decades in China, and they are expected to do so in the future (Mozaffar & Zhang, 2020, and references therein).

Atmospheric VOC has plenty of sources; it can be emitted from various anthropogenic and biogenic sources. Besides, it can also be formed in the atmosphere. Anthropogenic VOC sources mainly include industrial emissions, vehicle exhaust, solvent usage, biomass burning, and fuel evaporation. On the other hand, vegetation is the main biogenic source of VOC. In developed areas in China, vehicle exhaust and industrial emissions are the two major VOC sources (He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018; Hui et al., 2019; Mo et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018; An et al., 2014; Mozaffar & Zhang, 2020). Vehicle-related sources are more dominant in the North China Plain (NCP), Central China (CC), and Pearl River

Delta (PRD) regions. But industry-related sources are more influential in the Yangtze River Delta
55 (YRD) area (Zhang et al., 2017; Meng et al., 2015; Sun et al., 2019; He et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2018;
An et al., 2017; Mozaffar & Zhang, 2020; Shao et al., 2016). Alkanes, alkenes, aromatics, oxygenated-
VOCs (OVOCs), and halocarbons are the most common VOC-groups in the atmosphere (Hui et al.,
2019; Hung-Lung et al., 2007; Song et al., 2018; Tiwari et al., 2010; He et al., 2019; Na et al., 2001;
Hui et al., 2018). The seasonal change affects VOC concentration and composition. For example, the
60 contribution from biogenic and solvent utilization increases in summer, and the contribution from
combustion sources increases in winter (Mo et al., 2017; Song et al., 2018; An et al., 2014). The
chemical reactivity of VOCs depends on their chemical composition. For instance, alkenes and
aromatics are generally more reactive than alkanes (Carter, 2010). Analysis of OH radical loss rate
(L_{OH}) is commonly used to understand the chemical reactivity of VOCs (Hui et al., 2018).
65 Industries are an important source of VOCs, and different reactive and hazardous VOC emissions from
industries have already been reported in different areas of the earth (Zhang et al., 2018; Na et al., 2001;
Hung-Lung et al., 2007; Yan et al., 2016; Tiwari et al., 2010; Shi et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2018b). For
instance, Zhang et al. (2018) reported a high concentration of alkanes ($21.3 \pm 17.8 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$ out of the total
 $23.1 \pm 24.5 \text{ mg m}^{-3}$) and lifetime cancer risk of different aromatics and halocarbons in a petroleum
70 refinery in Guangzhou, China. A high concentration of OVOCs ($829.7 \pm 1076.7 \text{ ppbC}$ out of a total of
 $1317.3 \pm 1184.5 \text{ ppbC}$) was observed in an industrial area in Ulsan, Korea (Na et al., 2001). Hung-Lung
et al. (2007) mentioned a high concentration of aromatics ($\sim 90 \text{ ppb}$ out of a total of $\sim 160 \text{ ppb}$) in an
industrial area in Taiwan. A high concentration of halocarbons (9590.2 mg m^{-3} out of a total of 19652
 mg m^{-3}) was observed in an iron smelt plant in Liaoning, China (Shi et al., 2015). Zhang et al. (2018)
75 mentioned a high concentration of alkanes (39.4 ppbv out of a total of 94.15 ppbv) and aromatics (18.9
 ppbv out of a total of 94.15 ppbv) in a petrochemical industrial area in Shanghai, China. Therefore,
VOC composition varies among the industries/industrial areas in different regions. Mostly, short-term
investigations are performed to characterize the VOCs in industry-affected areas. In the current study,
we carried out a comprehensive investigation on VOC in an industrial area in Nanjing between July
80 2018 and May 2020. Several VOC investigations have already been performed in the Nanjing industrial
area, but OVOCs and halocarbons were not measured in those studies (An et al., 2017; An et al., 2014).

However, OVOCs and halocarbons are already mentioned as one of the highest concentrated VOC groups in other industrial regions (Na et al., 2001; Shi et al., 2015). In the current study area, a high concentration of alkanes (19.6 ppbv out of the total 43.5 ppbv) and alkenes (11.1 ppbv out of the total 43.5 ppbv) were observed in a previous investigation (An et al., 2014). Besides the incomplete VOC measurements, O₃ formation sensitivity to its precursors was not investigated properly using a photochemical box model in Nanjing. Moreover, source apportionment of VOCs was not conducted for different seasons of a year.

In the current study, we report the variations in concentrations and compositions of VOC during the observation period. We present the possible source areas and potential sources of VOC based on potential source contribution function (PSCF) and positive matrix factorization (PMF) model analysis. We also report the chemical reactivity of the VOC using L_{OH}. We also present the sensitivity analysis of O₃ formation using the empirical kinetic modelling approach (EKMA) and relative incremental reactivity (RIR) analysis. Therefore, this study provides valuable information to the scientific community and policymakers.

2 Material and Methods

2.1 Sampling Site Description, Gases Analysis, and Meteorology Data

Field measurements were carried out at Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology (32.1°N, 118.4°E) for about one month in winter, spring, and summer and three months in autumn between July 2018 and May 2020. The sampling site was on the rooftop of a building (~20 m). The sampling site is surrounded by different chemical and petrochemical industries, steel plants, gas stations, high traffic roads, and residential areas. A detailed description of the sampling site can be found elsewhere (Mozaffar et al., 2020).

We analysed ambient air VOCs using an online GC-FID/MS instrument (AC-GCMS 1000, Guangzhou Hexin Instrument Co., Ltd., China). The FID detector analysed C₂-C₅ VOCs and the MS analysed C₆-C₁₂ VOCs. The instrument analysed one sample every hour. During the investigation period, we

inspected and calibrated the instrument regularly to ensure the accuracy of the data (Mozaffar et al., 2020). We monitored the O₃ concentrations using a 49i O₃ analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA). NO, NO₂ and NO_x concentrations were measured using a 42i NO-NO₂-NO_x analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA). SO₂ concentrations were followed using a 43i SO₂ analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA) and CO concentrations were measured using a 48i CO analyser (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., USA). We also measured temperature and relative humidity, wind speed, wind direction, and solar radiation by HMP155 (Vaisala, Finland), 010C (Met One Instruments, Inc., USA), 020CC (Met One Instruments, Inc., USA), and CNR4 (Kipp & Zonen, The Netherlands) analysers, respectively. A detailed description of the instrumentation, sampling procedure, analysis, quality control, and calibration procedure can be found elsewhere (Mozaffar et al., 2020).

2.2 Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) model and Potential Source Contribution Function (PSCF)

We used the positive matrix factorization (PMF) model (US Environmental Protection Agency, USEPA, version 5.0) for the source apportionment of VOCs. A detailed description of the model can be found elsewhere (Hui et al., 2019; Song et al., 2018). We used 20 potential VOC tracers (Fig. S1-S4) in the PMF model. The error fraction was set to 20% for the sample data uncertainty estimation. We explored the PMF factor number from 4-8 to determine the optimal number of sources. Finally, we decided to choose a 7 to 8-factor solution for different seasons as $Q_{\text{true}}/Q_{\text{robust}}$ was ~ 1.0 , $Q_{\text{true}}/Q_{\text{expected}}$ ranged from 0.99-1.45 (Hui et al., 2019), and strong correlations (0.7-0.8) were observed between the concentrations extracted from the model and the observed concentrations of each compound (He et al., 2019).

We used the potential source contribution function (PSCF) to locate possible source areas of VOCs for different seasons during the investigation period. We used Zefir analysis software to do the PSCF analysis and the Hysplit4 model to cluster the backward trajectories (Petit et al., 2017). Backward trajectories at the sampling site were estimated using the National Centers for Environmental Prediction data (<ftp://arlftp.arlhq.noaa.gov/pub/archives/gdas1>). We estimated 72 hr backward trajectories 24 times a day arriving at 500 m above the ground surface using the hysplit4 model. For the PSCF analysis, we divided the geographic region covered by the back trajectories into an array of $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ grid cells

and used the mean TVOCs concentration as the VOC reference value. More details about the PSCF analysis can be found in previous studies (Chen et al., 2018).

2.3 OH radical loss rate (L_{OH})

140 To evaluate the daytime photochemistry of VOCs, we estimated their OH radical loss rate (L_{OH}). The following equation was used to estimate the L_{OH} (s^{-1}) (Zhang et al., 2020).

$$L_{OH} = [VOC]_i \times k_{OH,i} \quad (1)$$

Where $[VOC]_i$ is the concentration of VOC species i ($molecule\ cm^{-3}$), $k_{OH,i}$ ($cm^3\ molecule^{-1}\ s^{-1}$) is the reaction rate constant of i VOC with the OH radical. The k_{OH} values for the VOCs are collected from
145 Carter (2010) (Table S1).

2.4 Empirical Kinetic Modelling Approach (EKMA) and Relative Incremental Reactivity (RIR)

The empirical kinetic modelling approach (EKMA) is a well-known procedure to develop the O_3 formation reduction strategy by testing the relationship between ambient O_3 and its precursors (He et al., 2019; Hui et al., 2018; Vermeuel et al., 2019; Tan et al., 2018). To obtain data for the EKMA
150 isopleth, we used the Framework for 0-D Atmospheric Model (F0AM v 3.2, Wolfe et al., 2016), a photochemical box model run by Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) v3.2 chemistry (Jenkin et al., 1997; 2003, 2015; Saunders et al., 2003). The FOAM-MCM box model can simulate 16940 reactions of 5733 chemical species. The box model was run using the VOCs and gas concentrations and the
155 meteorological data as input. 61 VOCs were constrained in the model as the rest of the observed VOC species reactions are not included yet in MCM. These constrained VOCs are listed in Table S1. To generate the O_3 isopleth from the model simulated data, a total of 121 reduction scenarios ($11\ NO_x \times 11$ VOC concentrations) were simulated and the maximum O_3 produced at each model scenario was saved. The relative incremental reactivity (RIR, Cardelino & Chameides, 1995) is also used to test the O_3
160 formation sensitivity of its precursors. We also utilized the FOAM-MCM box model data to estimate the RIR. The RIR is simply defined as the percentage change in O_3 formation per percentage change in

precursor's concentration. In this study, we reduced the precursor concentration by 10% for the RIR estimation. The RIR was estimated using the following equation.

$$RIR(X) = \frac{[P_{O_3}(X) - P_{O_3}(X - \Delta X)] / P_{O_3}(X)}{[\Delta X] / [X]} \quad (2)$$

165 Where $[X]$ is the observed concentration of a precursor X , $[\Delta X]$ is the changes in the concentration of X . $P_{O_3}(X)$ and $P_{O_3}(X - \Delta X)$ are the simulated net O_3 production using the observed and reduced concentration of the precursor X , respectively.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Overview of the metrological conditions and air pollutants concentrations

170 The time series of the hourly data is shown in Fig. 1. The discontinuity of the time series data is due to the failure of the instruments and COVID-19 lockdowns. The data measured between July and August 2018 is termed “summertime data”. Similarly, data collected between September and November 2018 is “autumntime data”, December 2018 and January 2019 is “wintertime data”, and April and May 2020 is “springtime data”. Overall, the observed temperature and solar radiation gradually decreased from
175 summer to winter and increased back to the summertime level in spring. The temperature ranged between -5.7 and 41.4 °C during the measurement period. The relative humidity values varied from 18 to 100%; high values were generally observed in winter and autumn. During the observation period, wind speeds ranged between 0.1 and 7.5 ms^{-1} . Wind prevailed at the sampling site from many directions during the measurement periods; more details about the wind direction will be discussed in Sect.3.3.2.

180 The O_3 and NO_x concentrations varied from 2 to 160 ppbv and 0.4 to 90 ppbv, respectively. Whereas high O_3 concentrations (>80 ppbv) were observed in summer and spring, high NO_x concentrations were measured in winter and at the end of autumn. The CO and SO_2 concentrations ranged from 83 to 3398 ppbv and 0.5 to 21 ppbv, respectively. In general, high CO and SO_2 concentrations were observed in the winter and spring. The measured NO and NO_2 concentrations varied from 0.4 to 51 ppbv and 1 to 79
185 ppbv, respectively. In general, high NO and NO_2 concentrations were observed in autumn and winter. The TVOCs concentrations estimated with all the measured VOCs varied between 9 and 393 ppbv

during the observation period and the high values were measured in autumn and winter. More details about the abovementioned parameters will be discussed in the following section.

3.2 Concentration and composition of VOCs

190 In total, 100 VOCs were observed in the Nanjing industrial area, including 27 alkanes, 11 alkenes, one alkyne, 17 aromatics, 31 halocarbons, 12 OVOCs, and one other (carbon disulfide) (Table S2). Ethane (5.8±2.5 ppbv), propane (4.2±1.5 ppbv), and ethylene (3±1.6 ppbv) were the most abundant VOCs in the study area during the observation period. However, we observed season-wise variations in the order of abundant VOC species (Table S2). For instance, acetone was the 3rd highest concentrated VOC in
195 spring. The abovementioned 4 VOC species are also frequently mentioned as the most abundant VOCs in different regions in China (Deng et al., 2019; He et al., 2019; J. Li et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2019). We compared the individual VOC concentrations with the available data presented in recent investigations. The individual VOC concentrations in the current observation were similar to those reported in the previous investigation in the same study area (An et al., 2017). However, they were almost twice those
200 found in a nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing (Wu et al., 2020) (Table S2). Some of the differences may be due to the differences in the observation period. The reported yearly concentrations (Wu et al., 2020) were probably estimated over continuous measurement data for a year. However, in the current observation, the measurements were not continuously performed during all the days of a year. Individual VOC concentrations in the autumn were about 1.4 times lower than those measured in
205 Beijing in October and November (Li et al., 2015). The wintertime individual VOC concentrations were also about 1.4 folds lower than those measured in Shanghai during November-January (Zhang et al., 2018). But, the yearly individual VOC concentrations in the current observation were similar to those measured in Guangzhou from June to May (Zou et al., 2015). During the observation period, the concentrations of different VOC-groups were in the order of alkanes (21±7 ppbv, 35%)> halocarbons
210 (14.3±7.3 ppbv, 24%)> aromatics (9.9±5.8 ppbv, 17%)> OVOCs (7.5±1.9 ppbv, 13%)> alkenes (5±1.9 ppbv, 8%)> alkynes (1.4±0.3 ppbv, 2%)> others (0.5±0.2 ppbv, 1%). Relatively high proportions of halocarbons and aromatics were observed in autumn (25.7 and 19.3%, respectively) and winter (25.8 and 17.6%, respectively) compared to those measured in summer (20.4 and 11.8%, respectively) and

spring (20.3 and 13.6%, respectively) (Fig. 2f). It could be related to the burning of biomass and fossil
215 fuel for additional heating. Similar to the observation in the current study, the alkane family is generally
the most abundant VOC group in China (Mozaffar & Zhang, 2020). The relatively high contribution of
halocarbons to the TVOCs could be related to the industrial emissions in the study area. However,
halocarbons and OVOCs were not measured in previous investigations in the same study area (An et al.,
2014; An et al., 2017; Shao et al., 2016) and also in another suburban area in Nanjing (Wu et al., 2020).
220 Either the aromatics or alkenes group was mentioned as the second most abundant VOC group in those
studies in Nanjing, which is the 3rd and 5th most abundant VOC group in the current investigation. The
TVOCs concentration estimated with all the measured VOCs was 59.8 ± 28.6 ppbv over the whole
observation period, and relatively higher TVOCs concentrations were measured in autumn (83 ± 20
ppbv) and winter (77.5 ± 16.8 ppbv) compared to those observed in spring (39.6 ± 13.1 ppbv) and summer
225 (38.8 ± 10.2 ppbv). The TVOCs concentrations without halocarbons were 45.4 ± 20.4 , 61.7 ± 14.6 ,
 57.4 ± 11.8 , 31.6 ± 10.9 , and 30.9 ± 8.2 ppbv during the whole observation period, autumn, winter, spring,
and summer, respectively. As mentioned before, halocarbons and OVOCs were not reported in the
previous investigations in Nanjing (An et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2020). The current TVOCs concentration
without halocarbons and OVOCs was similar to the previous investigation in the same study area,
230 however, 2-folds higher than the one reported in the nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing. The diurnal
variation of the TVOCs, alkenes, aromatics, halocarbons, OVOCs, and alkanes concentrations showed a
double-hump structure (Fig. 2a, b, d, & e). This double-hump pattern indicates the contribution of
traffic emissions during the rush hours in the morning and evening. The lowest concentration of the
TVOCs and different VOC groups reached 12:00-16:00. Oppositely, the highest concentration of O₃
235 was reached in that period (Fig. 3). The lowest O₃ concentrations were observed in winter, which was
consistent with the solar radiation.

3.3 Sources of VOCs

3.3.1 Potential Source Contribution Function (PSCF)

Besides the local sources, both the long-distance and short-distance transport of air mass could bring
240 VOCs to the study area. Figure 4 shows the wind cluster and PSCF analysis results for different

seasons. During summer, the major air masses were short-distance transport from the south (44%) direction and two long-distance types of transport from the southeast (31 and 25%) direction. High PSCF values were in the nearby south and southeast directions; therefore, VOC pollution in the study area was mainly affected by short-distance transport from the south and east directions. During autumn, the dominant air masses were short-distance transport from the northwest (35%) and long-distance transport from the north (34%) directions. However, according to the PSCF analysis, VOC pollution was mainly influenced by the short distance transport from the south direction. During winter, short-distance transport from the northwest (52%) direction was the major incoming air masses to the study area. According to the PSCF values, the short-distance air masses from the south and north mainly transported VOC to the receptor site. During the spring, air masses were primarily transported from the north (50%) and the southwest (32%). A minor long-distance air mass was transported from the northwest (18%) direction. Atmospheric VOCs were mainly transported by these air masses to the study site, mostly from the nearby areas. Overall, the high PSCF values were concentrated around the measurement site. Therefore, short-distance transport from the surrounding areas and cities was the main reason for the high VOC concentration. The above conclusion perfectly makes sense as the sampling site is surrounded by different chemical and petrochemical industries, steel plants, gas stations, high traffic roads, and residential areas.

3.3.2 PMF Model Analysis

According to the PMF model analysis, five VOC sources were common during all the measurement seasons. They were biomass/biofuel burning, LPG/NG usage, gasoline evaporation, gasoline vehicle exhaust, and paint solvent usage (Sect. S1). The biogenic source was distinguished only in the summer. Figure 5 shows the relative contributions of different sources to ambient VOCs during different seasons. Overall, vehicle-related sources contributed the most to the ambient VOC concentrations. The total contributions of vehicle-related emissions were about 39%, 33%, 48%, and 42% in summer, autumn, winter, and spring, respectively. The contributions of biomass/biofuel burning sources were about 19%, 21%, 17%, and 16.4% in summer, autumn, winter, and spring, respectively. Besides these two sources,

LPG/NG usage (18%, 21%, 16%, and 18%, respectively) and paint solvent usage (8%, 12%, 11%, 5%, respectively) were two other important VOC sources during those four seasons.

3.4 Chemical reactivity (L_{OH})

270 The estimated loss rates of OH radical (L_{OH}) with VOCs were about 2-fold high in autumn (13.7 s^{-1}) and winter (13.5 s^{-1}) compared to those in summer (7 s^{-1}) and spring (7.5 s^{-1}) (Fig. 6 a). The relatively high L_{OH} values in autumn and winter were due to the relatively high VOC concentrations in these seasons (Fig.2). The average L_{OH} value was $10.4 \pm 3.6 \text{ s}^{-1}$ over the four seasons. It was in a similar range to the values determined in Guangzhou (10.9 s^{-1}), Chongqing (10 s^{-1}), Xian ($1.6\text{-}16.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$), and Tokyo
275 ($7.7\text{-}13.4 \text{ s}^{-1}$), but higher than the values estimated in Shanghai ($2.9\text{-}5 \text{ s}^{-1}$, 6.2 s^{-1}) and Beijing (7 s^{-1}) (Tan et al., 2019; Zhu et al., 2019; Yoshino et al., 2012; Song et al., 2020). While alkene was the highest contributor to the L_{OH} in summer (3 s^{-1} , 43%) and spring (2.6 s^{-1} , 35%), aromatic was the maximum contributor in autumn (6.9 s^{-1} , 50%) and winter (5.9 s^{-1} , 44%) (Fig. 6 a & d). An increase in the OH loss rate by OVOCs was observed in spring (17%) compared to the other seasons (10, 8, and 9%
280 in summer, autumn, and winter, respectively). Over the four seasons, the contribution of VOC groups to L_{OH} exhibited the following trend: aromatics > alkenes > alkanes > OVOCs > halocarbons. Similar to the current study, the aromatic group is also mentioned as the maximum contributor to L_{OH} in different regions in China. However, the alkene group is generally reported as the top contributor to L_{OH} (Zhang et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2020; Hui et al., 2018; Song et al., 2020). Figure 6 also shows the top 10 VOCs
285 contributing to L_{OH} for different seasons. Whereas isoprene was the highest contributor to L_{OH} in summer, it was styrene in autumn and winter. On the other hand, naphthalene was the main contributor to L_{OH} in the spring. Overall, styrene, naphthalene, ethylene, and isoprene were the main contributors to L_{OH} . In previous studies in China, these compounds are also mentioned as one of the highest contributors to L_{OH} (Zhao et al., 2020; Hui et al., 2018; Song et al., 2020).

290 3.5 Sensitivity analysis of O_3 formation

Figure 7 shows the EKMA isopleth diagrams of O_3 for different seasons. In all the diagrams, VOC and $NO_x = 100 \%$ is the base case. The ridgeline divided the diagrams into two regimes, VOC-sensitive

above the line and NO_x-sensitive below the line. For all the seasons, the study area fell above the
ridgeline. Moreover, O₃ production decreased with the decrease in VOC concentration. Therefore, the
295 study area was in the VOC-sensitive regime for O₃ formation during all the seasons. As a case study, O₃
formation sensitivity to its precursors was tested on a high O₃ concentration day (July 29 2018,
maximum 126 ppbv). During the high O₃ episode, the study area was also in the VOC-sensitive regime
for O₃ formation (Fig. S5). We also employed the RIR analysis to evaluate the O₃ production sensitivity
to VOC, NO_x, and CO concentrations (Fig. 8). The RIR value of VOC was the highest during all the
300 seasons. It indicates that O₃ production was more sensitive to the reduction of VOC concentration. This
finding is consistent with the EKMA isopleth diagrams (Fig. 7). Except for the spring, the RIR values
of CO were very small relative to those for the VOC. It indicates that the CO concentrations were
relatively less important for the O₃ formation during those seasons. The RIR values for NO_x were
negative during all the seasons, implying that the O₃ formation was in the NO_x-titration regime in the
305 study area. From the above analysis, it is evident that a reduction of VOC concentration in the study
area will be the most efficient way to reduce the O₃ formation. The previous two studies performed in
Nanjing also concluded with the same finding based on VOC/NO_x ratios and RIR analysis (An et al.,
2015; Xu et al., 2017). Our findings are also consistent with the previous studies performed in other
regions of China (Tan et al., 2018a; He et al., 2019; Feng et al., 2019; Ma et al., 2019). However, NO_x-
310 sensitive regions for O₃ formation are also found in China (Tan et al., 2018; Jia et al., 2016).

4 Conclusions

Nanjing is one of the biggest industrial cities in China. We performed a long-term investigation of
ambient VOCs in Nanjing. Compared to the previous investigation in the current study area, similar
TVOCs concentrations were observed. However, about 2-folds higher TVOCs concentrations were
315 observed compared to the one previously reported in a nonindustrial suburban area in Nanjing. TVOCs
concentrations were about twice as high in autumn and winter compared to those observed in summer
and spring. Generally, haze pollution occurs most frequently in autumn and winter. Therefore, VOC
concentration reduction in these seasons is an important step to reduce haze pollution in the study area.
The halocarbon group was the 2nd largest contributor to the TVOCs following alkanes, indicating the

320 impact of industrial emissions on the local air. As halocarbons are carcinogenic, their emissions need to
be reduced. The short-distance air mass from the surrounding areas and cities was the main reason for
the high VOC concentration. Hence, local emissions need to be reduced. Vehicle-related emissions
were the major VOC source in the study area, thus, emission reduction from this source should get more
priority. Aromatics and alkenes were the major contributors to the L_{OH} . Therefore, these 2 VOC groups
325 should get more priority in emission reduction policies and strategies. During all the seasons, the study
area was in the VOC-sensitive regime for O_3 formation. Therefore, VOC emission reduction is the most
effective way to decrease the local O_3 formation.

Data availability

330 All the data presented in this article can be accessed through <https://osf.io/bm6cs/>.

Author contribution

YLZ designed and supervised the project; MYF, FX, YCL, FC, and AM conducted the measurements;
AM analysed the data and prepared the manuscript. All authors contributed in discussion to improve the
335 article.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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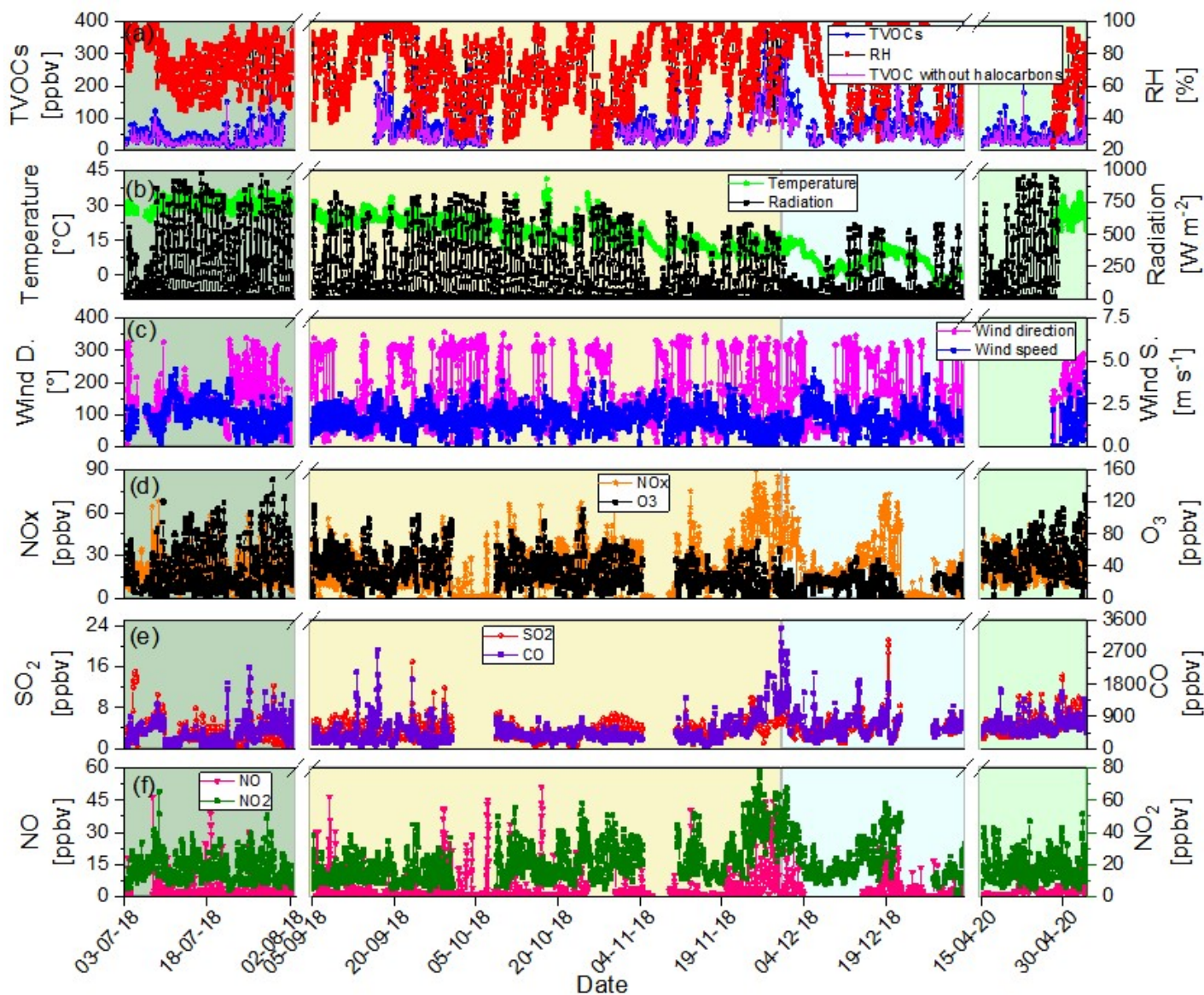
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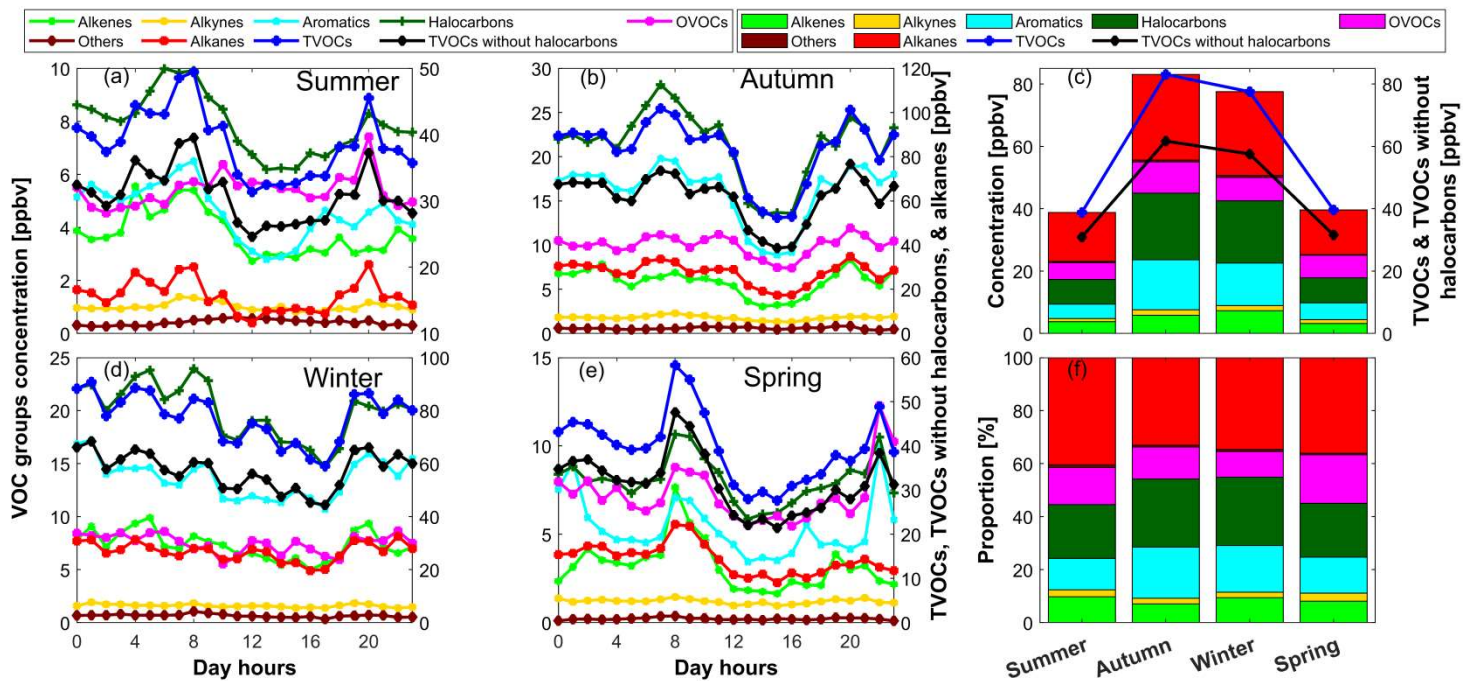
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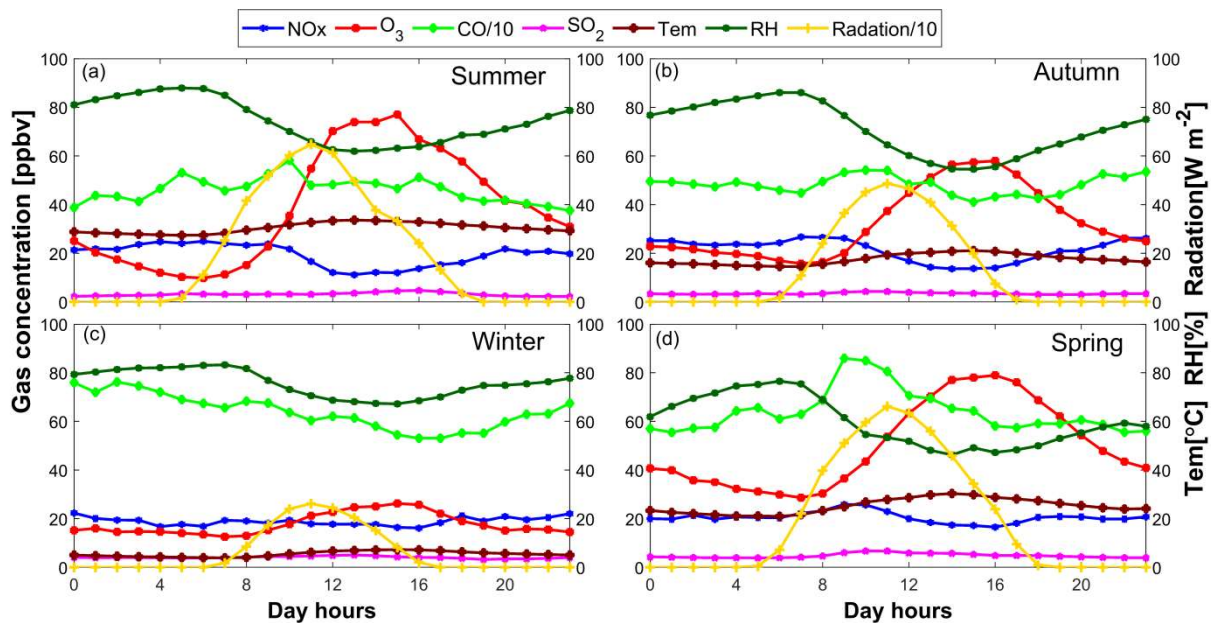
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Figure 1: Time series of hourly meteorological parameters, inorganic air pollutants, TVOCs, and TVOCs without halocarbons concentrations during the observation period at Nanjing. The green, yellow, cyan, and light-green shaded areas indicate summer, autumn, winter, and spring seasons, respectively. The discontinuity of the measured data is due to the instruments failure.

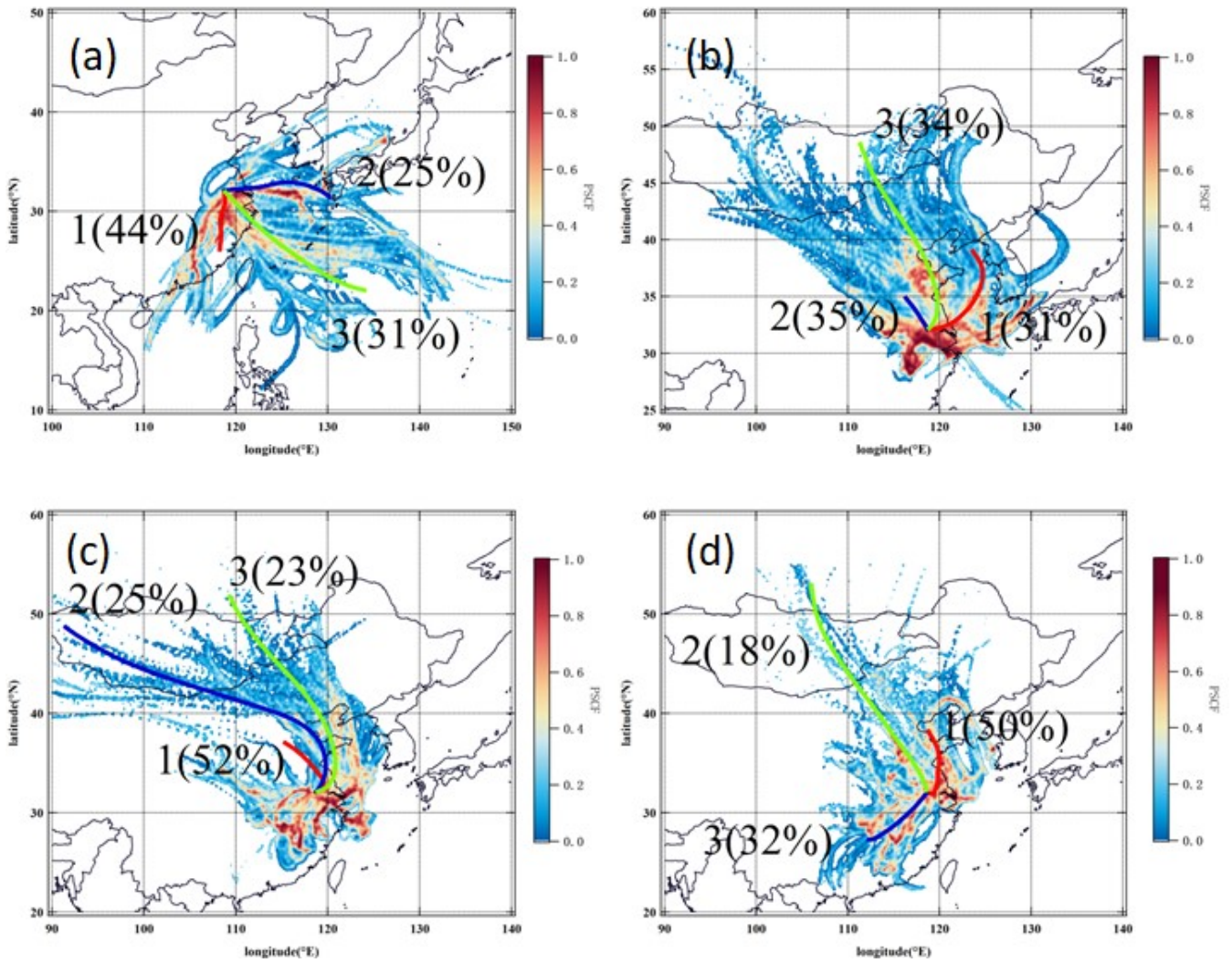
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520 **Figure 2: Diurnal variations in different VOC-groups, TVOCs, TVOCs without halocarbons concentrations in different seasons (a, b, d, & e) and seasonal variations in average concentrations and proportion of different VOC-groups, TVOCs, TVOCs without halocarbons (c & f).**



525 **Figure 3: Diurnal variations in weather conditions and NO_x, O₃, CO, and SO₂ concentrations in different seasons. Note that the plotted CO concentrations and solar radiation values are reduced by 10-folds for a better visualization.**



530 **Figure 4: Wind cluster and PSCF analysis during (a) summer (b) autumn, (c) winter, and (d) spring based on the 72 hours backward air mass trajectories from the study area.**

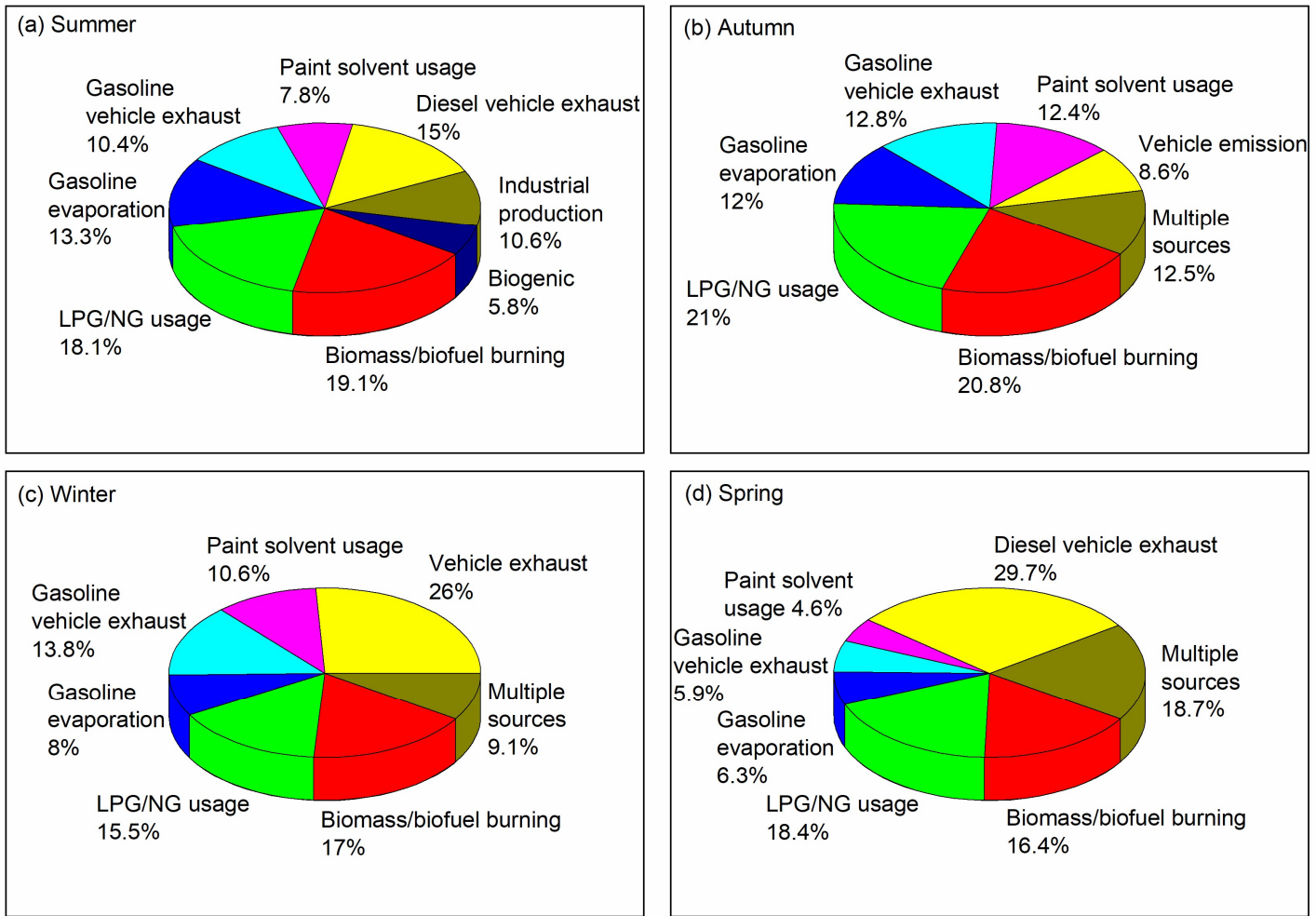


Figure 5: relative contributions of different sources to ambient VOCs in Nanjing industrial area during different seasons

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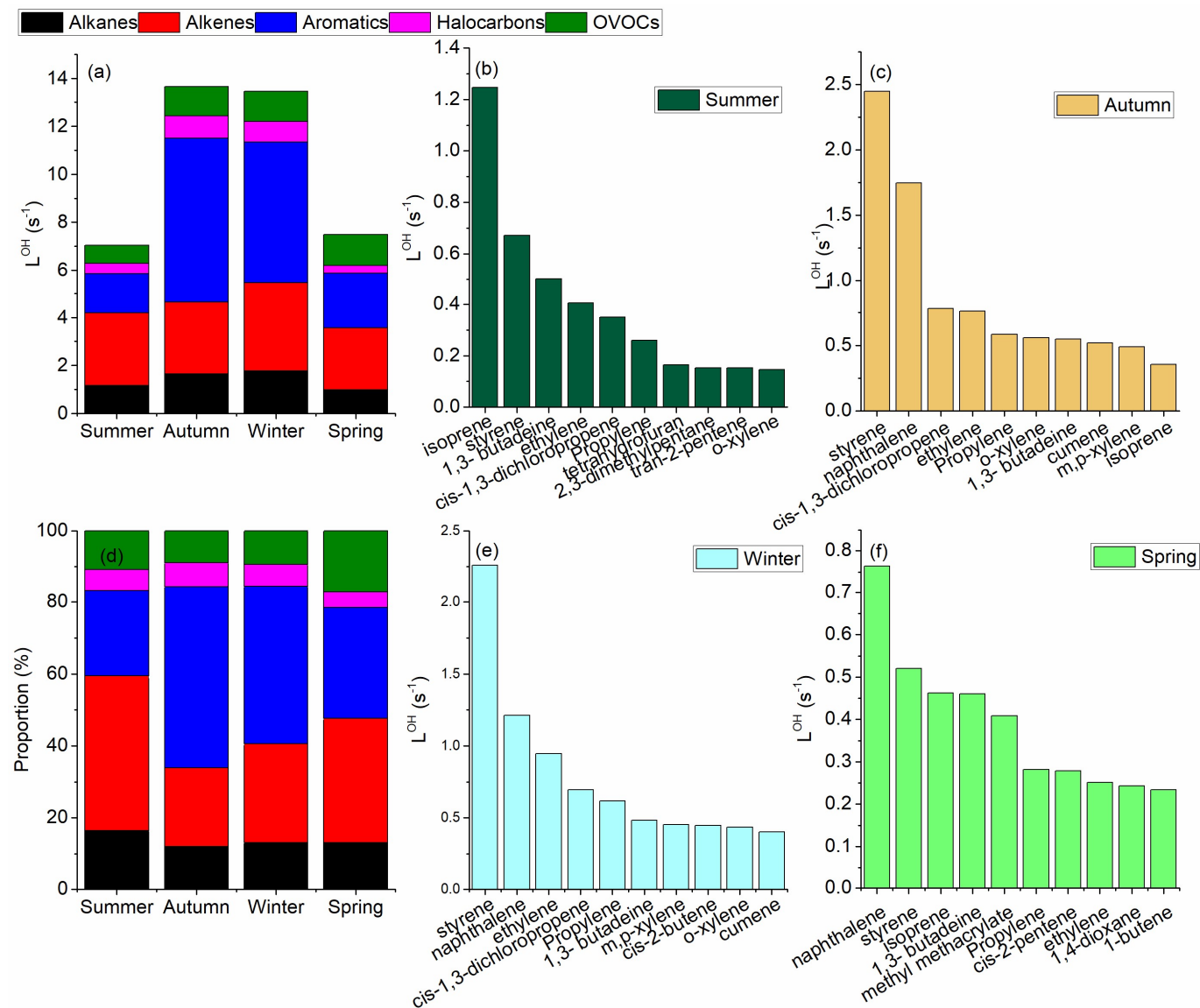
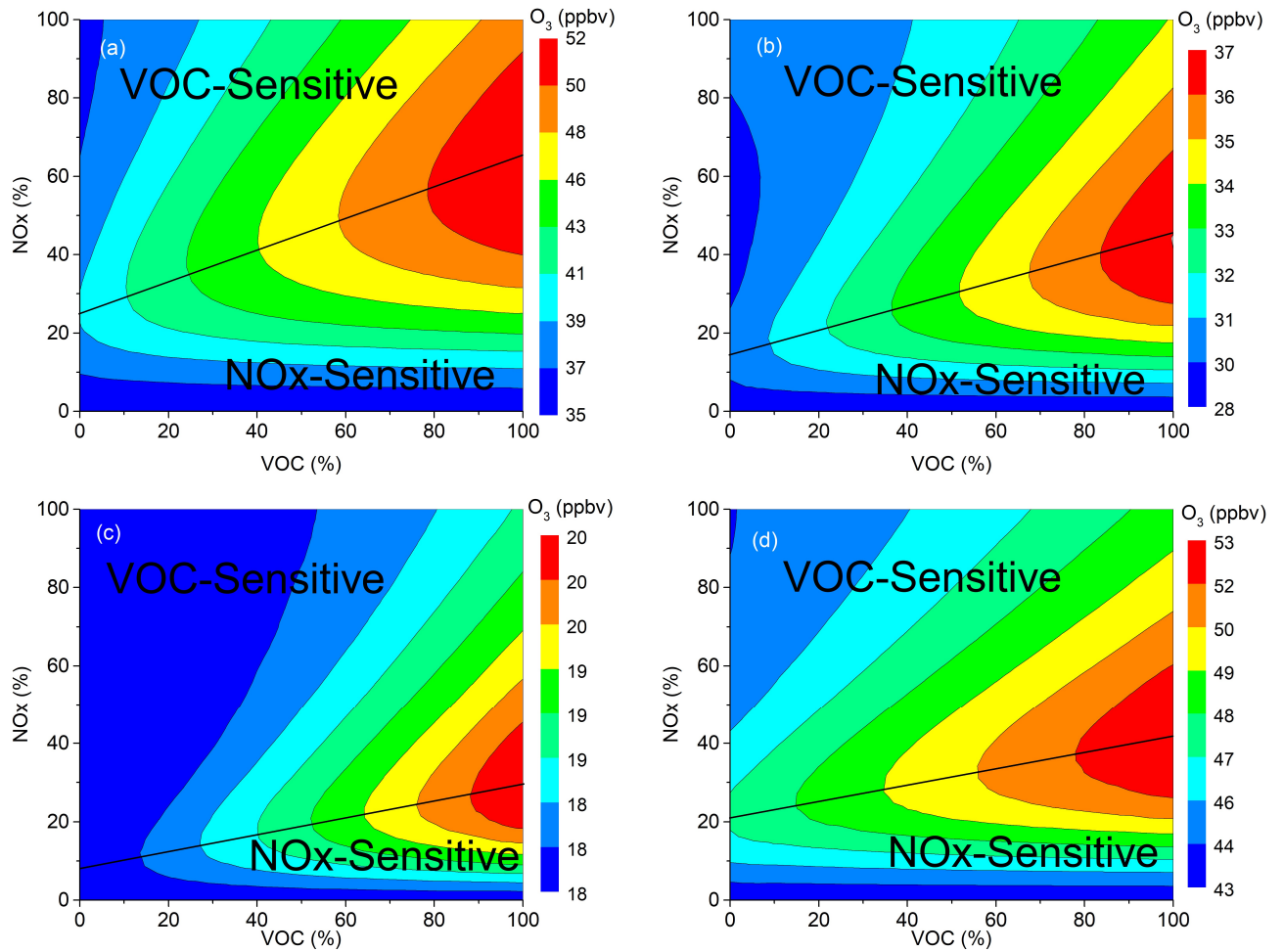


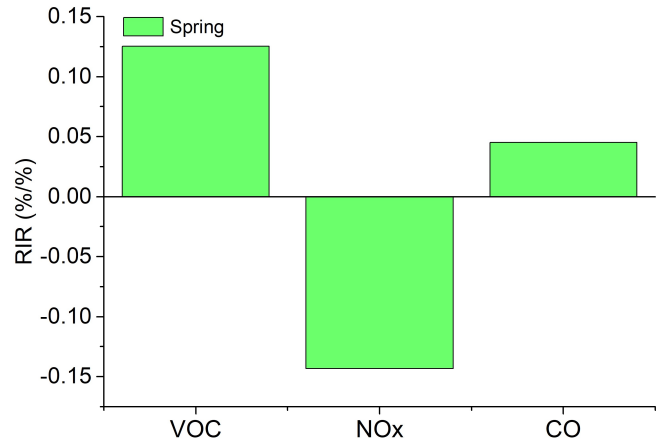
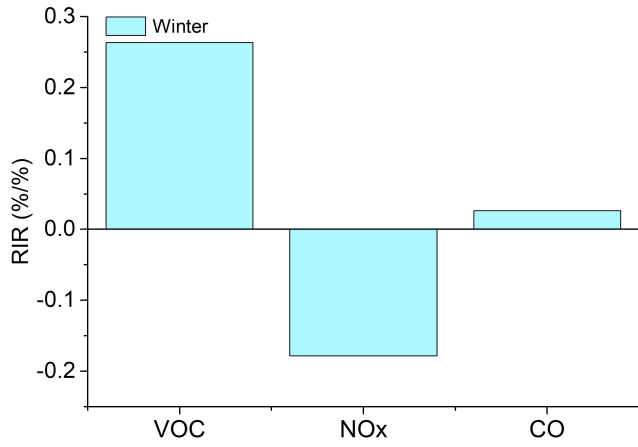
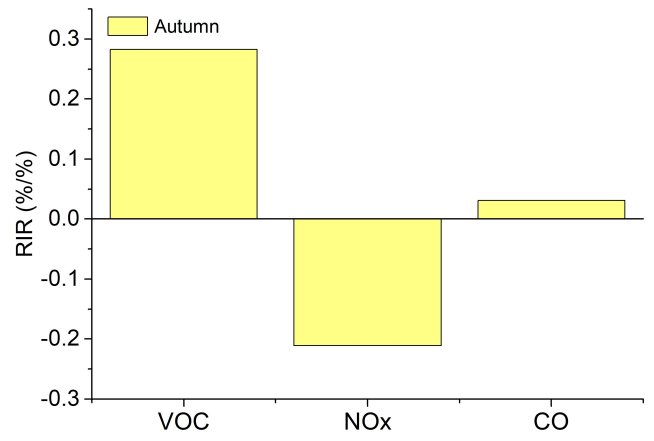
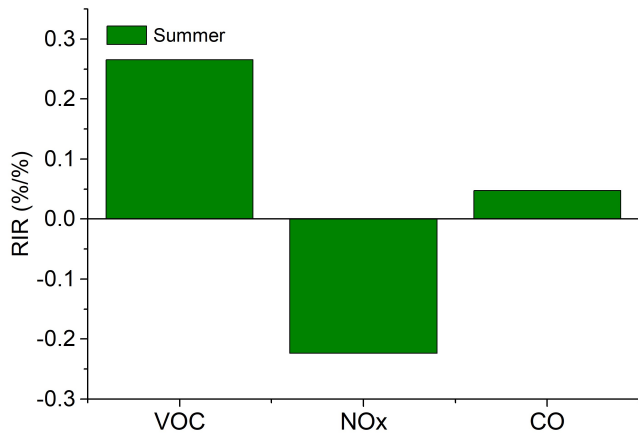
Figure 6: Contribution to OH loss rates of different VOC-groups and the top 10 VOC species in different seasons

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Figure 7: O₃ isopleth diagram for (a) summer (b) autumn, (c) winter, and (d) spring based on percentage changes in VOCs and NOx concentrations in Nanjing and corresponding modelled O₃ production.



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Figure 8: The RIR values of the VOC, NOx, and CO for the different seasons in Nanjing