

1 **O₃-precursor relationship over multiple patterns of time scale:**

2 **A case study in Zibo, Shandong Province, China**

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22 **Abstract.** In this study, we developed an approach that integrated multiple patterns
23 of time scale for box modeling (MCMv3.3.1) to better understand the O₃-precursor
24 relationship through multiple sites and continuous observations. A five-month field
25 campaign was conducted in the summer of 2019 to investigate the ozone formation
26 chemistry at three sites in a major prefecture-level city (Zibo) in Shandong province of
27 northern China. It was found that the relative incremental reactivity (RIR) of major
28 precursor groups (e.g., anthropogenic volatile organic compound (AVOC), NO_x) was
29 overall consistent in the sign along with time scales changed from wider to narrower
30 (four patterns: five-month, monthly, weekly, and daily) at each site, though the
31 magnitudes of RIR varied at different sites. The time series of the photochemical regime
32 (using RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} as indicator) in weekly or daily patterns further showed a
33 synchronous temporal trend among the three sites, while the magnitude of
34 RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} was site-to-site dependent. The derived RIR ranking (top 10) of
35 individual AVOC species showed consistency at three patterns (i.e., five-month,
36 monthly, and weekly). It was further found that the campaign-averaging photochemical
37 regimes showed overall consistency in the sign but non-negligible variability among

38 the four patterns of time scale, which was mainly due to the embedded uncertainty in
39 model input dataset when averaging individual daily pattern into different timescales.
40 This implies that utilizing narrower time scale (i.e., daily pattern) is useful to derive
41 reliable and robust O₃-precursor relationship. Our results highlight the importance of
42 quantifying the impact of different time scales to constrain the photochemical regime,
43 which can formulate more accurate policy-relevant guidance for O₃ pollution control.
44

45 **1 Introduction**

46 Since 2013, the ambient PM_{2.5} concentration in China has dramatically declined
47 by implementing Clean Air Action (Lu et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020b; Zhang et al.,
48 2019). However, national ground surface ozone concentrations increased over the same
49 period (Xue et al., 2020) and became a major air quality problem that needed to be
50 addressed in China (Li et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). It is well-known that ground
51 surface ozone is formed mainly by complex nonlinear photochemical oxidation of
52 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the presence of nitrogen oxides (NO_x = NO +
53 NO₂) and sunlight (Blanchard, 2000; Hidy, 2000; Kleinman, 2000), which adversely
54 influences human health, vegetation and crops (Brunekreef and Holgate, 2002;
55 Vingarzan, 2004).

56 Given the complex non-linear relationship between O₃ formation and its
57 precursors (VOCs and NO_x), challenges in mitigating its severity lie primarily in
58 comprehensively understanding of O₃-precursor relationship (Su et al., 2018a; Tan et
59 al., 2018a). It is commonly recognized that regional-scale air quality models and the 0-
60 D box model are two mainstream approaches to investigate the increasingly severe
61 ozone problem (Blanchard, 2000; Cardelino and Chameides, 1995; Hidy, 2000; Liu et
62 al., 2019). Unlike the complicated 3-D air quality models, the 0-D box model is an
63 observation-based model that implemented with gas-phase chemical mechanism, and
64 has been widely used to diagnose O₃-precursor relationship in various locations (Liu et
65 al., 2021a; Sun et al., 2016; Tan et al., 2019b; Xue et al., 2014a; Yu et al., 2020a). Some
66 previous studies (Li et al., 2021; Lu et al., 2010a; Sicard et al., 2020; Yu et al., 2020b)
67 have reported a large variability of O₃-precursor relationship in spatiotemporal scales
68 in many cities of China, which indicates great challenges in current O₃ pollution control
69 (Wang et al., 2017a; Xue et al., 2014b).

70 **Table 1** summarizes the published studies of O₃-precursor relationship using the
71 0-D box model (implemented with different gas-phase chemical mechanisms) at
72 diversified patterns of time scale in many places of China. The observational period in
73 most previous studies was short-term (i.e., less than one month), while medium-term
74 (i.e., from one to several months), and long-term (i.e., multiple years) periods were
75 limited. As shown in **Table 1**, we find that model input datasets with different

76 timescales have been employed in previous studies to identify the campaign-averaging
77 O₃ formation regime, but there is a lack of comparison among these different timescales.
78 We also find that more than half of the studies using the averaged diurnal patterns as
79 box model input, which is particularly common for those medium and long-term
80 measurements. For example, a 10 years long-term observational study by Wang et al.,
81 (2017a) adopted monthly pattern of time scale for model simulation with the reason of
82 saving computing resources, and it also revealed a substantial temporal variability of
83 O₃-precursor relationship. In addition, it is believed that long-term (measurements of at
84 least several months) and multiple-site continuous online measurements can provide
85 opportunity to develop O₃ control strategy more comprehensively over a wider
86 spatiotemporal scale (Li et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2017b; Wang et al., 2017b). However,
87 such measurements have been quite rare in China, limiting the present understanding
88 of O₃-precursor relationship (Lu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017b).

89 In this study, a five-month field campaign was conducted in the summer of 2019
90 to investigate the ozone formation chemistry at 3 sites in Zibo, a major prefecture-level
91 Chinese city in Shandong province. According to our measurements at the three sites in
92 Zibo, the averaged O₃ concentration during the whole observational period was around
93 50 ppbv, while the daily maximum of O₃ concentrations for some extremely polluted
94 periods were nearly 120-150 ppbv (see details in **Section 3.1**). Here we developed an
95 approach that integrated multiple patterns of time scale for box model simulation, which
96 aimed at illustrating the non-linearity of O₃-precursor relationship driven by its actual
97 daily / weekly / monthly variability. Our results can be conducive to interpreting
98 variations of O₃-precursor relationship over a wider spatiotemporal scale, and they
99 provide implications for developing more precise and constrained O₃ control strategies
100 in other regions.

101 **2 Methods**

102 **2.1 Study sites and measurements**

103 Field measurements were conducted in a major prefecture-level city (Zibo), which
104 is in the middle of Shandong Province, northern China, from 1 May to 30 September,
105 2019. **Figure S1** shows the surrounding environment and geographical locations at the
106 three sampling sites; a detailed description of the Tianzhen (TZ), Beijiao (BJ) and
107 Xindian (XD) sites can be found in our previous study (Li et al., 2021). Briefly, TZ
108 contains a mixture of crude oil processing and operation stations and farming areas, and
109 is classified as suburban area; XD contains a mixture of residential and heavy industrial
110 zones, and is considered as a suburban area; BJ is in the urban area of Zibo.

111 Typical inorganic gases of O₃, NO, NO₂, CO and SO₂ were measured using online
112 commercial gas analysers (Thermo Scientific 49i, 42i, 48i and 43i, USA) at the three
113 sites. Following the Chinese meteorological monitoring regulation (GB/T 35221-2017),

114 we continuously monitored the meteorological parameters (i.e., temperature, relative
115 humidity, UV-A solar radiation, precipitation, wind speed, and wind direction) at the
116 three sites (Li et al., 2021). Two online GC systems (gas chromatography–flame
117 ionisation detector, GC-FID, Thermo Scientific GC5900) were deployed at TZ and BJ
118 respectively to measure VOC species. For C₂-C₅ VOCs, desorption and separation were
119 performed using a GC with pre-concentration on a combination of two columns,
120 followed by a FID detector. For C₆-C₁₂ VOCs, air sample was pre-concentrated on
121 Tenax GR cartridges and subsequently separated by chromatographic column, then
122 detected by another FID detector. Similarly, one online system (gas chromatography–
123 flame ionisation detector/photoionisation detector, GC-FID/PID, Syntech Spectras GC
124 955-615/815) was deployed at XD site. For C₂-C₆ VOCs, the hydrocarbons were
125 concentrated on a Tenax GR carrier, then thermally desorbed and separated on a DB-1
126 column, and finally detected by FID and PID detectors. For C₆-C₁₂ VOCs, the air
127 sample was concentrated on a Carbosieves SIII carrier at 5°C, then thermally desorbed
128 and separated on a combination of two columns, and FID and PID detectors were
129 employed for subsequent detection. These systems measured 55 VOC species at a 1-h
130 resolution, and more detailed descriptions can be found elsewhere (Chien, 2007; Jiang
131 et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2008).

132 **Table S1** summarized the limit of detection, accuracy, precision of the instruments
133 at the three sites, and all the measurement instruments were regularly subjected to the
134 service of checking and maintenance during the whole campaign. Unfortunately, we did
135 not conduct the inter-comparison between the GC-FID and GC-FID/PID instruments at
136 the same site due to practical reasons, as these VOC instruments were separately
137 deployed at the three different sites for continuous routine operation. To ensure the
138 quality assurance / quantity control (QA/QC) of online VOC measurement, two five-
139 point calibrations (i.e., 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 ppbv, dilution from one cylinder) for standard gases
140 with 55 VOC species (Linde Co., Ltd, USA) were carried out in May and August of
141 2019 at the three sites. **Table S2** showed that the calibration linearity (R²) of all
142 measured VOCs were nearly 0.9990. Additionally, a single-point calibration (i.e., 6
143 ppbv) was regularly performed every month during the whole campaign. As shown in
144 **Figure S2** (a case from TZ), the retention time, peak fitting and baseline of the
145 chromatogram were manually checked and adjusted on a daily basis.

146 2.2 0-D box model and design of four patterns of time scale

147 The 0-D box model integrated with the latest Master Chemical Mechanism of
148 MCMv3.3.1 (<http://mcm.york.ac.uk>; last access: 27 January 2023) has been widely
149 utilized in many regions (He et al., 2019; Jenkin et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2019; Whalley
150 et al., 2021). Unlike the lumped chemical mechanisms such as CB05 (Wang et al.,
151 2017a; Yarwood et al., 2005), CB6 (Yarwood et al., 2010), RACM/RACM2 (Goliff et

152 al., 2013; Stockwell et al., 1997, 2020) and SAPRC-07 (Carter, 2010), the MCMv3.3.1
153 is a near-explicit chemical mechanism consisting of over 5,800 species and 17,000
154 reactions (Jenkin et al., 2015; Saunders et al., 2003), which can be used to describe the
155 gas-phase chemistry (i.e., in-situ photochemistry). In this study, the box model (based
156 on the Framework for 0-D Atmospheric Modeling, F0AM) (Wolfe et al., 2016) was
157 applied and constrained by the mean diurnal profiles of meteorological data (i.e.,
158 temperature, relative humidity, and photolysis rates), 4 inorganic gases (i.e., SO₂, CO,
159 NO, and NO₂), and 45 speciated VOCs (in MCMv3.3.1 species list; see **Table S3**).
160 Since measured photolysis rates (*J* values) were not available, the measured UV-A solar
161 radiation was used to scale the photolysis rates calculated from the Tropospheric
162 Ultraviolet and Visible Radiation model (TUVv5.2;
163 https://www.acom.ucar.edu/Models/TUV/Interactive_TUV; last access: 27 January
164 2023) following the approach of recent studies (Lyu et al., 2019; Lyu et al., 2016).
165 Specifically, the geographical coordinates, date and time were initialized into the TUV
166 model to derive photolysis rates and solar radiation. We obtained the scaling factor by
167 comparing the observed with modeled solar radiation, and used this scaling factor to
168 scale the TUV model derived photolysis rates. A dilution rate of 3/86400 s⁻¹ was applied
169 for all non-constraint species and simulation days through a stepwise sensitivity test by
170 adjusting it from 1/86400 s⁻¹ to 5/86400 s⁻¹ (see details in **Text S1**) for the best
171 reproduction of O₃. For each model run (i.e., each daily model simulation), it was
172 performed on a daily basis with intervals of 24 hours spanning from 0:00 to 23:00, and
173 each individual model simulation was run to reach one-day diurnal steady state. The
174 detailed descriptions of box model operation were provided in our previous study (Li
175 et al., 2021).

176 Since the box model simulations are conducted with intervals of 24 hours spanning
177 from 0:00 to 23:00 local standard time (Wang et al., 2018), the entire campaign
178 observations were taken into four patterns of time scale (i.e., five-month, monthly,
179 weekly, and daily) as diurnal average format for model input (**Figure 1**). Note that some
180 days or weeks were not modeled due to some missing data in the measurements.
181 Nevertheless, the total simulation number at the daily (i.e., 100, 81, and 114 days for
182 TZ, BJ and XD respectively) or weekly (i.e., 21, 20, and 19 weeks for TZ, BJ, and XD
183 respectively) scale was representative of the five-month campaign. Specifically, the
184 entire campaign data classified as four patterns of time scale were modeled as base runs.
185 Then we performed the sensitivity modeling to calculate the relative incremental
186 reactivity (RIR) of precursors by adjusting the input concentrations in the base runs (see
187 next section) (Lu et al., 2010a).

188 2.3 Calculation of net O_x production rate $P(O_x)$ and Relative incremental 189 reactivity (RIR)

190 Considering the rapid chemical titration of NO to NO₂ in the presence of O₃, the
191 concept of ‘total oxidant’ (O_x = O₃ + NO₂) has been widely used to represent the actual
192 photochemical production of O₃ (Lu et al., 2010). Similar to those described in previous
193 studies using the 0-D box model (He et al., 2019; Lyu et al., 2016), the net or in-situ O_x
194 production rate ($P(O_x)$) is defined as the difference between the O_x gross production
195 rate ($G(O_x)$) and the O_x destruction rate ($D(O_x)$), which is formulated in accordance
196 with Eq. (1):

$$197 \quad P(O_x) = G(O_x) - D(O_x) \quad (1)$$

198 The O_x gross production rate ($G(O_x)$), or the total chemical production of O_x, is
199 calculated by summing the rates of oxidation of NO by HO₂ and RO₂ radicals in
200 accordance with Eq. (2):

$$201 \quad G(O_x) = k_{HO_2+NO}[HO_2][NO] + \sum k_{RO_{2,i}+NO}[RO_{2,i}][NO] \quad (2)$$

202 The O_x destruction rate ($D(O_x)$), or total chemical loss of O_x, is calculated by
203 summing O₃ photolysis, the reaction of O₃ with OH, HO₂ and alkenes, as well as the
204 reaction between NO₂ and OH, as described by Eq. (3):

$$205 \quad D(O_x) = k_{O^1D+H_2O}[O^1D][H_2O] + k_{OH+O_3}[OH][O_3] + k_{HO_2+O_3}[HO_2][O_3] + \\ 206 \quad k_{alkenes+O_3}[alkenes][O_3] + k_{OH+NO_2}[OH][NO_2] \quad (3)$$

207 Concentrations of radicals and intermediates are obtained from the outputs of the
208 0-D box model. The k values in Eq. (2) and (3) represent the rate constants of the
209 corresponding reactions, respectively. The subscript ‘ i ’ in Eq. (2) represents the
210 individual RO₂ species.

211 Additionally, relative incremental reactivity (RIR) has been widely used as a
212 metric to quantify the O₃-precursor relationship, and it can be derived from the 0-D box
213 model (MCMv3.3.1) by changing the input mixing ratios of its precursors (Sillman,
214 2010; Xue et al., 2014a). The RIR is defined as the ratio of percentage change in net O_x
215 (O_x = O₃ + NO₂) production rate $P(O_x)$ (Li et al., 2021) to percentage change of
216 concentration of precursor X. The RIR of a specific precursor X is described in Eq. (4):

$$217 \quad RIR(X) = \frac{[PO_x(CX) - PO_x(CX - \Delta CX)] / PO_x(CX)}{\Delta CX / CX} \quad (4)$$

218 Here, X is a specific precursor (i.e., NO_x, CO or grouped / individual VOC species),
219 CX is the measured concentration of precursor X, and ΔCX is the hypothetical
220 concentration change ($\Delta CX / CX = 10\%$ in this study in accordance with the previous
221 studies (Lyu et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2018)). $PO_x(CX)$ represents the simulated O_x
222 production rate in a base run, whereas $PO_x(CX - \Delta CX)$ is the simulated O_x production
223 in a second run with a hypothetical concentration change of species X. Obviously, a
224 higher positive value of RIR(X) suggests a more effective way of reducing the ambient

225 O₃ production rate by reducing X (Ling et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2008a).

226 In this study, the O₃ precursors were divided into four major categories, including
227 anthropogenic VOC (AVOC), biogenic VOC (BVOC, only isoprene in this study), CO
228 and NO_x (Tan et al., 2019b). AVOC was further divided into three subcategories: alkanes,
229 aromatics and alkenes* (the asterisk denotes anthropogenic alkenes, excluding isoprene
230 in this study) (Yu et al., 2020a). As mentioned, RIR method was applied mainly to
231 evaluate the O₃-NO_x-VOC sensitivity and determine the photochemical regimes among
232 four patterns of time scale. Thus, we calculated the RIR values of major precursor
233 groups (i.e., AVOC, BVOC, CO, NO_x, alkanes, alkenes* and aromatics) to further
234 quantify the O₃-precursor relationship.

235 In general, O₃ formation chemistry is usually classified into three regimes (i.e.,
236 VOC-limited, transitional and NO_x-limited) (He et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2018). In this
237 study, RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} (the ratio of two RIR values) was used as a metric to classify
238 the photochemical regimes (Li et al., 2021). Specifically, RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} value of less
239 than 0.5 was defined as VOC-limited regime, greater than 2 as NO_x-limited regime, and
240 from 0.5 to 2 as transitional regime (see **Text S2** and **Table S4**) (Li et al., 2021).

241 **3 Results and discussion**

242 **3.1 Overview of the field campaign**

243 **Figure 2** shows the time series of measured meteorological parameters and O₃ as
244 well as its precursors at the three sites during the whole campaign. In general, the
245 temperature (*T*) and relative humidity (RH) were basically consistent at the three sites,
246 while the wind speeds were different, which suggests that the three sites had an overall
247 consistent meteorological condition. In addition, the time series of UV-A radiation was
248 shown in **Figure 2d**, which was only available from one urban site of Zibo but expected
249 to represent the whole Zibo city in this study. Following the protocol of the previous
250 studies (Lyu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017b; Xue et al., 2014), the time series of
251 photolysis rates (e.g., J_{NO₂} (**Figure 2e**) and J_{O¹D} (**Figure 2f**)) were calculated from
252 TUVv5.2 model and further scaled from UV-A radiation measurement.

253 As shown in **Figure 2g**, we found that severe O₃ pollution was observed at the
254 three sites throughout the whole campaign. According to our measurements at the three
255 sites in Zibo, the averaged O₃ concentration during the whole observational period was
256 around 50 ppbv, while the daily maximum of O₃ concentrations for some extremely
257 polluted periods were nearly 120-150 ppbv (**Figure 2g**). Interestingly, the O₃
258 concentrations at the three sites were generally consistent, while the levels of its
259 precursors (e.g., VOC, NO_x) were obviously different (**Figure 2h-k**), which implies the
260 site-to-site variation of O₃ formation chemistry for the whole Zibo city.

261 Generally, OH reactivity (or OH loss rate, *k*_{OH}) is widely applied to quantify the
262 capacity of OH consumption by VOCs (Tan et al., 2019a). According to **Table S3**, the

263 BVOC reactivity (k_{BVOC} , $3.5 \pm 4.1 \text{ s}^{-1}$) in TZ were highest among the three sites. As BJ
264 was mainly influenced by the emission from urban region, it showed the highest AVOC
265 reactivity (k_{AVOC} , $6.8 \pm 6.3 \text{ s}^{-1}$) and NO_x level ($31.1 \pm 28.6 \text{ ppbv}$). In addition, XD
266 showed the highest level of alkenes* reactivity of $4.0 \pm 3.2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ within the three sites,
267 and the local petrochemical industry nearby XD area may explain such characteristic
268 (Li et al., 2021).

269 3.2 Evaluation of box model performance

270 The measured O_3 concentrations were not constrained in our MCMv3.3.1 box
271 model calculation, thus the model performance could be quantitatively assessed by
272 comparing the modeled O_3 (from base runs) with the measured O_3 . **Figure S3-S8** show
273 the time series of simulated and observed O_3 concentrations at four patterns of time
274 scale. In most cases, the box model simulation could accurately capture the level and
275 variation trend of the observed O_3 . However, on some days the modeling results
276 underestimated or overestimated the O_3 concentrations, particularly the
277 underestimation of nocturnal O_3 concentrations. Such discrepancies between the
278 simulated and observed O_3 were likely due to limitations in explicit representations of
279 atmospheric and transport processes (i.e., the horizontal and vertical transport process
280 of ground ozone) by 0-D modeling approach (Lyu et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2020b).
281 Specifically, ozone simulated by the 0-D box model is considered as in-situ
282 photochemical processes from its precursors. Unlike the 3-D air quality model, 0-D box
283 model usually simplifies the representation of the physical processes (i.e., deposition
284 and advection) (Lu et al., 2010a; Sillman, 2010). Note that some adjustable parameters
285 (e.g., radiation scheme, dilution rate) were remained consistent in all of our model
286 calculations, which ensured the comparability of model results to the greatest extent.

287 The index of agreement (*IOA*) (Li et al., 2021; Lyu et al., 2016), Pearson's
288 correlation coefficient (*r*) and root mean square error (*RMSE*) were jointly used as
289 statistical metrics to quantify the goodness-of-fit between the simulated and observed
290 O_3 concentrations. **Table S5** summarizes these statistical metrics for each site at various
291 patterns of time scale. Because any single statistical metric has its own limitations,
292 using these three indicators conjointly provided a more comprehensive evaluation of
293 the model performance (Su et al., 2018b). Generally, higher *IOA* and *r* as well as lower
294 *RMSE* indicate better agreement between the simulated and observed values (Wang et
295 al., 2018; Willmott, 1982). As shown in **Table S5**, slightly reduced correlation was
296 observed as the time scale changed from the wider (i.e., five-month scale) to the
297 narrower (i.e., daily scale) pattern, which is understandable because of the enlarged
298 statistical samples in the narrower pattern of time scale.

299 In summary, TZ showed the best performance of the box model simulation,
300 followed by XD and BJ, regardless of any statistical metrics or different patterns of time

301 scale, which may be associated with the optimized dilution rate for non-constraint
302 species in model configuration. The overall model performance in this study (i.e., a day-
303 to-day *IOA* of approximately 0.90 for TZ) was close to or slightly better than those
304 reported in previous studies, such as *IOA* = 0.74 in Hong Kong (Liu et al., 2019), *IOA*
305 = 0.74 in Wuhan (Lyu et al., 2016) and *IOA* = 0.90 in Jiangmen (He et al., 2019).
306 According to the above evaluation of base runs, our modeled results were acceptable
307 for the subsequent O₃-precursor relationship analysis described in the following
308 sections.

309 3.3 Month-to-month

310 **Figure 3a-b** presents the monthly RIR values of the major precursor groups at
311 each site, and the large variability of O₃-precursor relationship at spatiotemporal scale
312 (i.e., site-to-site and month-to-month) was observed. Specifically, in most months, XD
313 generally showed the highest RIR_{AVOC} among the three sites, followed by BJ and TZ.
314 In addition, RIR_{BVOC} showed similar level to RIR_{AVOC} in TZ, but much less than
315 RIR_{AVOC} in BJ and XD, which can be explained by the observed higher BVOC
316 reactivity in TZ than the other two sites (see **Figure S9** and **Table S3**). Also, almost all
317 the precursor groups showed positive RIR values, except negative RIR_{NO_x} appeared in
318 BJ and XD in September. In addition, the RIR_{CO} values at the three sites suggested its
319 limited role in O₃ formation at the three sites, compared with other major categories of
320 O₃ precursors. Among the three subcategories of AVOC, alkenes* always had the
321 highest RIR values, followed by aromatics, while the contribution of alkanes to O₃
322 formation can be ignored due to their near-zero RIR values. That sequence of O₃-AVOC
323 sensitivity (alkenes* > aromatics > alkanes) indicated by the RIR analysis was
324 consistent with previous studies in some other Chinese cities (Su et al., 2018b; Tan et
325 al., 2019b). Significant monthly variations of O₃, NO_x, CO, VOC reactivity and
326 TVOC/NO_x ratios (in ppbC/ppbv, as a widely used simple metric to determine the
327 photochemical regime) (National Research Council, 1991) were also observed from
328 May to September (see **Figure S9** and **Table S3**) at the three sites. For example, the
329 BVOC reactivity in TZ showed highest level among the three sites during the whole
330 campaign, and the AVOC reactivity in BJ showed more considerable variations in
331 different months, which indicated spatial and temporal variations of local primary
332 emission for O₃ precursors in Zibo city.

333 **Figure 3c** shows monthly RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} at each site, which clearly reveals the
334 spatial and temporal variations in photochemical regimes. For instance, the
335 photochemical regime at the TZ site was considered to be transitional regime in May,
336 NO_x-limited regime in June and July, and VOC-limited regime in August and
337 September; whereas for a specific month like June, NO_x-limited, VOC-limited, and
338 transitional regimes were generally identified for TZ, BJ, and XD respectively. **Figure**

339 **5b** shows good consistency between monthly TVOC/NO_x and RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC},
340 suggesting that the changes of local emissions for O₃ precursors may partially explain
341 the considerable variation of O₃ formation chemistry in different months.

342 3.4 Week-to-week

343 **Figure 4** shows the time series of week-to-week RIR values of major precursor
344 groups and RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} at three sites in Zibo. Compared with month-to-month
345 results, **Figure 4** further reveals the O₃-precursor relationship with more information in
346 temporal trends. The temporal variations in weekly RIR_{AVOC} at the three sites generally
347 decreased and then increased, whereas weekly RIR_{NO_x} represented an opposite temporal
348 variation during the entire campaign. Additionally, weekly RIR_{BVOC} showed a trend of
349 first decrease and then increase at TZ, while it did not show clear temporal variation at
350 BJ and XD due to low values (**Figure 4a-c**). In general, RIR_{alkanes}, RIR_{alkenes*} and
351 RIR_{aromatics} showed a tendency consistent with that of the RIR_{AVOC} at three sites (**Figure**
352 **4d-f**). Overall, these phenomena were consistent among the three sites, though the
353 magnitude of RIR values varied site-to-site. In parallel, the temporal changing of O₃
354 precursor (e.g., AVOC, NO_x) was also observed at the three sites during the entire
355 campaign (see **Figure S10**). For example, the weekly NO_x concentration showed an
356 overall trend of first decrease and then increase, while the AVOC reactivity showed a
357 different temporal variation. Given the moderate correlation between weekly
358 TVOC/NO_x and RIR_{AVOC}/RIR_{NO_x} (**Figure 5c**), the temporal variations of RIR values
359 and O₃ formation chemistry at the three sites may be partially elucidated by the emission
360 changes of O₃ precursors.

361 As shown in **Figure 4g-i**, all the three sites showed similar temporal trends of
362 RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC}, as it increased first and then decreased, though the magnitude of
363 RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} varied largely at each site. Such site-to-site variability of
364 RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} suggests that the photochemical regime in a local scale was mainly
365 influenced by local emissions. By contrast, the site-to-site synchronization in temporal
366 trend of RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} suggests that the photochemical regime in a local scale may
367 also be influenced by the emissions in a regional area. Therefore, the long-term, week-
368 to-week RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} of multiple sites can further reflect the variability of ozone
369 formation regime at a large geographic scale.

370 3.5 Day-to-day

371 In this section, O₃-precursor relationship at the narrowest pattern of time scale was
372 identified in detail. **Figure S11-S12** shows the time series of daily RIR values at three
373 sites in Zibo, where the temporal trend of RIR values was consistent with that at weekly
374 scale (**Figure 4**). Additionally, the time series of daily RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} (**Figure S13**)
375 showed more irregular variations in temporal trends during the entire campaign, though

376 such temporal trends were overall consistent with that of weekly scale in **Figure 4 g-i**.
377 In summary, the time series of RIR values from the daily scale can provide more
378 informative variations and characteristics of O₃-precursor relationship in temporal
379 trends.

380 **Table 2** summarizes the number of days and proportions that were classified into
381 the three photochemical regimes across each site and each pattern of time scale. Near-
382 consistent proportions of O₃ formation regimes (using RIR_{NOx}/RIR_{AVOC} as a metric)
383 were shown among multiple patterns of time scale, whereas a variability of proportion
384 occurred among the three sites. The proportions of photochemical regimes changed
385 accordingly along with the time scale varied from wider to narrower pattern. Taking TZ
386 as an example, 20% (monthly) and 26% (daily) of the time was considered as VOC-
387 limited regime. The number of days and proportions for photochemical regimes
388 summarized at four patterns of time scales can reveal a more plausible and
389 comprehensive variation in ozone formation chemistry. Compared with patterns of
390 monthly and weekly scales, the results derived at a daily scale can reveal the temporal
391 variability of photochemical regimes more comprehensively. Note that the
392 photochemical regime proportion obtained from the day-to-day scale has an advantage
393 due to the large number of statistical samples.

394 **3.6 Comparison among different patterns of time scale**

395 This section gives a more comprehensive understanding of the campaign-
396 averaging O₃-precursor relationship by comparing the similarities and differences of
397 the results from various patterns of time scale. The overall O₃-precursor relationship for
398 the entire campaign can be quantified by averaging the RIR values from the individual
399 simulation runs depending on the chosen time scale (e.g., five simulation runs for
400 monthly scale in this study). Therefore, four sets of logical and comparable results can
401 be derived to represent the campaign-averaging O₃-precursor relationship, as four
402 patterns of time scale (i.e., five-month, monthly, weekly, and daily) were treated in this
403 study.

404 **Figure 6** shows the averaged RIR values of the major precursor groups at different
405 patterns of time scale. As the time scale changed from wider (i.e., five-month scale) to
406 narrower (i.e., daily scale) pattern, all three sites showed increases in the means of
407 RIR_{AVOC} and RIR_{alkenes*} as well as decreases in averaged RIR_{NOx}, whereas the averaged
408 RIR of other precursors (i.e., BVOC, CO, alkanes and aromatics) did not vary obviously
409 (see **Table S6**). Comparing with the O₃-VOC-NO_x sensitivity at the daily scale, the
410 results obtained at the five-month scale underestimated O₃-AVOC sensitivity (indicated
411 by averaged RIR values) by 48% (TZ), 66% (BJ), and 49% (XD), and overestimated
412 O₃-NO_x sensitivity by 37% (TZ), 142% (BJ), and 144% (XD). We performed
413 comprehensive uncertainty analysis for model input and output results, which was

414 assessed through statistical methods (see details in **Section 3.7**). We found that the
415 model-derived RIR values may become more uncertain when the input dataset was
416 averaged into a wider diurnal pattern (i.e., five-month scale), which may explain the
417 discrepancy of RIR values between five-month scale and daily scale. We expect that
418 such discrepancies derived from different patterns of time scale could widely exist in
419 many other world areas. Note that the mean RIR values were generally consistent
420 among the four patterns of time scale within a reasonable range (within 25-75th quantile
421 and standard deviation, see **Figure 6** and **Table S4**), suggesting that any selected pattern
422 of time scale could reasonably derive the campaign-averaging O₃-precursor relationship.

423 **Figure 7** further shows the variations in photochemical regimes (defined by
424 RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} ; see **Text S2** and **Table S4** for details) for each pattern of time scale.
425 Specifically, TZ was mainly considered as transitional regime for the entire campaign
426 period, whereas its variations covered three photochemical regimes, which was
427 consistent with the results from **Table S6**. BJ was generally identified as VOC-limited
428 regime, whereas some days were also grouped into transitional regime. XD was
429 considered as primarily between VOC-limited and transitional regime, and its
430 variations also spanned three photochemical regimes. Compared with the five-month
431 pattern, it was further found that the averaged RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} from other time scale
432 patterns (i.e., monthly, weekly, and daily) were higher (12% to 20% for TZ; 38% to
433 153% for XD) or lower (21% to 65% for BJ) than that from five-month scale. Note that
434 the above discrepancies in photochemical regime derived from multiple patterns of time
435 scale may influence the development of targeted O₃ control strategies. In summary, the
436 photochemical regime derived by averaging RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} from the daily scale (see
437 **Table S6**) suggests that the three sites mainly followed the sequence of TZ ($1.34 \pm$
438 1.39) > XD (0.67 ± 1.49) > BJ (0.16 ± 0.65).

439 In addition, the temporal variations of TVOC/NO_x in different timescales were
440 identified during the whole campaign, and good correlations between observed
441 TVOC/NO_x and model derived RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} at four patterns of time scale were also
442 found (see **Figure 5**). Such consistency suggests that both metrics can reasonably
443 reflect the variation of photochemical regimes, which can also improve the reliability
444 of our box model simulation.

445 The consistency and difference of model output (summarized in **Table S7**) are
446 quantified by the statistical methods of Pearson's correlation coefficient (Hu et al., 2018)
447 and paired-samples *t*-test analysis (Wang et al., 2016). In particular, we assess and
448 compare the degree of significance of differences among multiple patterns of time scale
449 by the *p* values (a statistical significance assuming at $p < 0.05$) through paired-samples
450 *t*-test and Wilcoxon matched-paired signed-rank test (non-parametric statistics)
451 (Chiclana et al., 2013). **Figure 8a** shows high Pearson's correlation coefficients (with
452 values all above 0.85, $p < 0.01$) were found among four patterns of time scale, and the

453 higher correlation coefficient was identified between the two closer patterns. **Figure**
454 **8b-c** shows that the differences among multiple patterns of time scale were non-
455 significant using Paired-samples t-test analysis and Wilcoxon matched-pair signed-rank
456 test respectively. Furthermore, their results indicate that more significant difference was
457 recognized between the two distant patterns (e.g., daily and five-month), which is
458 consistent with the results of Pearson's correlation analysis. Noted that the discrepancy
459 between the two distant patterns was not significant but non-negligible (e.g., $p = 0.092$
460 of Wilcoxon matched-paired signed-rank test between five-month and daily patterns).

461 The influence of different patterns of time scale on deriving RIR values from
462 individual AVOC species was further investigated. Briefly, quantifying the relative
463 contribution of individual AVOC on O₃ formation based on RIR calculation is beneficial
464 to the development of cost-effective AVOC control strategies (Zhang et al., 2021).
465 **Figure 9** shows the averaged RIR values of individual AVOC species (i.e., top 10) at
466 different patterns of time scale (i.e., five-month, month-to-month, week-to-week) at
467 three sites in Zibo. As shown in **Figure 9**, the 10 individual AVOC species at the three
468 sites were selected according to the top 10 highest RIR from five-month pattern. All
469 three sites showed that the RIR of individual AVOC species increased gradually as the
470 time scale changed from the wider (i.e., five-month) to narrower (i.e., weekly) pattern,
471 which was consistent with the earlier discussion (see **Figure 6** and **Table S6**) of O₃-
472 AVOC sensitivity derived from four patterns of time scale. The results also indicate that
473 the choice of time scale pattern has a limited effect on deriving high-ranking AVOC
474 species (i.e., top 10) based on RIR calculations.

475 **3.7 Uncertainty analysis**

476 The uncertainty of model input was quantified in this section, which is embedded
477 in pre-processed dataset with multiple patterns of time scale. As showed in **Figure 1**,
478 the daily simulation used the individual daily pattern to constrain model, while the input
479 dataset of averaged diurnal patterns (i.e., weekly, monthly, and five-month) is treated
480 by averaging individual daily pattern into different timescales. This averaging approach
481 will conceal the temporal variations of O₃ precursors and meteorological factors,
482 particularly for a long-term observational campaign. **Figure S14** shows the
483 distributions of the standard deviations for OH reactivity (k_{OH}) or concentration of O₃
484 precursor groups at three averaged patterns of time scale at the three sites. As the time
485 scale changed from wider (i.e., five-month scale) to narrower (i.e., weekly scale) pattern,
486 the uncertainty (indicated by the average, median and 25%-75% quantile) decreased
487 accordingly. In addition, meteorological factors such as temperature and irradiation also
488 play an important role on O₃ formation, especially these meteorological parameters can
489 vary greatly over a long observational period (Boleti et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2019b;
490 Weng et al., 2022). Therefore, the masked temporal variation of these meteorological

491 factors behind the averaged input dataset would also result in model uncertainty.

492 Moreover, it has been widely recognized that the uncertainty for 0-D box model
493 simulation mainly arises from the constraint of observation dataset and the
494 configuration of model scheme. Note that constraints with more species from
495 measurements (or including as many species as possible) would lower its uncertainty
496 from the chemical box model simulation (Wolfe et al., 2011, 2016). Nevertheless, due
497 to the measurement limitation in our field campaign, we are unable to measure some
498 important atmospheric species (i.e., HONO and oxygenated VOC (OVOC)), and these
499 may arise uncertainty in box model simulation. For instance, Xue et al., (2021)
500 performed a sensitivity test for HONO constraint in their box model simulation, and
501 they showed that without HONO constraint would lead to O₃ photochemical production
502 rate decreasing by 42%. More recently, Wang et al., (2022) obtained a comprehensive
503 VOC dataset at Guangzhou, and their results showed that box model simulation without
504 OVOCs constraints would underestimate the productions of RO_x and O₃. Besides, both
505 gaseous HNO₃ and organic nitrates can result in interferences on NO_x measurement by
506 chemiluminescence technique, which may arise uncertainty in our box modelling (Ge
507 et al., 2022; Uno et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2013). Since the accurate NO_x measurement is
508 essential in determining the photochemical regime, more in-depth studies on NO_x
509 measurement uncertainty in box model simulation are required in the future. In addition,
510 the parameter configuration of model scheme is essential to derive a reliable and valid
511 model output, such as dilution rate as an important model technical parameter. We
512 performed a stepwise sensitivity test for this parameter to obtain an optimized dilution
513 rate, and assigned it to all non-constraint species, which can reduce uncertainty in box
514 model simulation (see details in **Text S1**). Also, the dry and/or wet deposition of
515 pollutants is an important atmospheric physical process, which has been mostly
516 parameterized in emission-based chemical transport modeling but very limited in box
517 model, as most of the primarily emitted species are already constrained from
518 measurements. Xue et al., (2014) considered O₃ deposition into box model simulation,
519 and their result showed negligible contribution of O₃ deposition to total O₃ destruction
520 rates. As for this work, we are unable to consider the deposition due to the difficulty in
521 representing and parameterizing this term in the 0-D box model. Nevertheless,
522 deposition of O₃ and other species may be one of the uncertainties during box model
523 simulation, which is worth further study in the future.

524 **4 Summary and implications**

525 Our present results suggest that comprehensively understanding of multiple
526 patterns of time scale is conducive to formulating a more accurate and robust O₃ control
527 strategy. Specifically, as identified from the narrower patterns of time scale (i.e., weekly
528 and daily), the site-to-site photochemical regime indicated by RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} showed

529 various magnitudes but a synchronous temporal trend. This indicates that the O₃
530 formation regime in a city area can be influenced by local and regional emissions jointly.
531 The reason behind this phenomenon is not clear at present, and we believe that further
532 investigation on the synergetic effect of local and regional emission reduction for O₃
533 control would help elucidating this observation. It was also found that the campaign-
534 averaging photochemical regimes showed overall consistency but non-negligible
535 variability among the four patterns of time scale, which was mainly due to the
536 embedded uncertainty in model input dataset with averaged diurnal patterns. This
537 implies that comparison among multiple patterns of time scale based on RIR analysis
538 is useful to derive the O₃-precursor relationship more accurately and reliably.

539 Moreover, the high-ranking AVOC species (i.e., top 10) based on RIR calculations
540 were overall consistent from the narrow to wide patterns of time scale. **Table S8**
541 summarizes the total run number of box model for different patterns of time scale. It is
542 known that large-scale computing capacity and computational efficiency were required
543 in the narrower pattern of time scale (e.g., 2760 simulation runs in weekly scale in this
544 study). Considering the difficulties of performing long-term and continuous online
545 measurements in some environments, it is also advisable to identify the high-ranking
546 VOC species from the campaign-averaging diurnal pattern in box model simulation.

547 In this study, we explored the non-linearity of O₃-precursor relationship in a way
548 driven by the actual daily / weekly / monthly variability around the distribution. Our
549 results highlight the importance to quantitatively test the impact of different timescales
550 on photochemical regime determination, as there is uncertainty embedded in model
551 input dataset when averaging individual daily pattern into different timescales. Such
552 understanding would be complementary in developing more accurate O₃ pollution
553 control strategy, particularly as the long-term O₃-precursor observations (e.g., from
554 several months to years) are becoming more available than before in many places of
555 China. In addition, site-to-site differences of model-derived photochemical regimes
556 also underlines the importance of developing target O₃ control strategy for different
557 areas in a city scale. Specifically, according to the averaged RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} at daily
558 pattern, the derived photochemical regime was transitional for TZ (suburban) and XD
559 (suburban), while VOC-limited for BJ (urban). This implies that for mitigating ozone
560 pollution in Zibo city, more endeavors should be devoted to the anthropogenic VOC
561 reduction in urban areas, while strengthening the synergetic mitigation of VOC and
562 NO_x emissions at the same time in other suburban areas. Although the above
563 implications for O₃ control were derived from a case study in a major prefecture-level
564 city (Zibo) of northern China, the developed approach by integrating multiple patterns
565 of time scale in the present work can be used to other regions, particularly the on-going
566 “One City One Policy” campaign (2021-2023) for O₃ control in many cities in China.

567 **Code availability**

568 The code for the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCMv3.3.1) can be achieved from
569 <http://mcm.york.ac.uk> (last access: 27 January 2023).

570 **Data availability**

571 The datasets generated and analysed during the current study are available on
572 reasonable request from the corresponding author (Kangwei Li).

573 **Supplement**

574 The supplement related to this article is available online.

575 **Author contribution**

576 KL conceived and led the study. ZZ performed the modeling. ZZ, KL, and ZB analyzed
577 the data. BX, JD, LL, GZ, SL, CG, and WY conducted the field measurement. ZZ and
578 KL wrote the paper. MA and ZB commented on the manuscript.

579 **Competing interests**

580 The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

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Table 1. Summary of relevant published 0-D box model studies in China.

City	Site/Type	Period	Patterns of Time scale ^a	Mechanism	Reference
Beijing	PKU ^b	Urban	Day-to-day (25 d)	CB-IV	(Lu et al., 2010)
	YUFA	Suburban			
Beijing	PKU	Urban	Entire period	RACM2	(Qin et al., 2018)
	Beijing	Urban			
Dezhou	Yucheng	Rural	Day-to-day (2 d)	MCMv3.3.1	(Zong et al., 2018)
	SY ^c	Urban			
Shenzhen	Fucheng	Urban	Entire period	RACM2	(Yu et al., 2020b)
	TC	Suburban			
Hong Kong	Wan Shan	Island	Entire period	MCMv3.2	(Zeng et al., 2018)
	Tung Chung	Urban			
Hong Kong	Qing Sha	Urban	Year-to-year (3 yrs)	MCMv3.2	(Xue et al., 2014b)
	Tai O	Urban			
Chengdu	Tung Chung	Urban	Day-to-day (10 d)	CB-IV	(Cheng et al., 2010)
	Pengzhou	Suburban			
Chengdu	Pixian	Suburban	Entire period	RACM2	(Tan et al., 2018b)
	Shuangliu	Suburban			
Zhuhai	Chengzhong	Urban	Month-to-month (5 months)	CB05	(Whalley et al., 2021b)
	Qi'ao	Mountain			
Wuhan	HPEMC ^d	Urban	Entire period	MCMv3.2	(Liu et al., 2021b)
	GZ	Urban			
Guangzhou	BZ	Suburban	Month-to-month (21 months)	MCMv3.2	(Lyu et al., 2016)
	Guangzhou	Urban			
Guangzhou	Xinken	Nonurban	Day-to-day (16 d)	CB-IV	(Lu et al., 2010)
	Xinken	Urban			
Hangzhou	Zhaohui	Urban	Entire period	SAPRC	(Zhang et al., 2008b)
	Xiasha	Suburban			
Hangzhou	Zhaohui	Urban	Entire period (5 d)	MCMv3.3.1	(Zhao et al., 2020)
	Xiasha	Suburban			

	Huapu	Urban							
Nanjing	NUIST ^e	Suburban	3 Jul–1 Aug 2018	Entire period	CB-IV	(Fan et al., 2021)			
	SORPES	Suburban	22 Sep–7 Oct 2014	Day-to-day (8 d)	MCMv3.3.1	(Xu et al., 2017)			
Yulin	EMBF ^f	Urban	7 Jul–10 Aug 2019	Day-to-day (13 d)	MCMv3.3.1	(Yin et al., 2021)			
Lanzhou	Renshoushan Park	Urban	19 Jun–16 Jul 2006	Day-to-day (3 d)	MCMv3.2	(Xue et al., 2014)			
Baoding	EPB ^g	Urban	10–30 Sep 2015	Day-to-day (5 d)	MCMv3.3.1	(Wang et al., 2020a)			
	Nan Quan	Suburban							
Chongqing	Chao Zhan	Urban	24 Aug–22 Sep 2015	Day-to-day (7 d)	MCMv3.2	(Li et al., 2018)			
	Jin Yun Shan	Urban							
Shanghai	Pudong	Urban	1–31 Jul 2017	Day-to-day (16 d)	CB-IV	(Lin et al., 2020)			
	Dianshanhu	Suburban							
South China Sea	Wanshan	Island	11 Sep–21 Nov 2013	Entire period	MCMv3.2	(Wang et al., 2018)			

^aNumber of days for modeling the patterns of time scale denotes that which was simulated by the box model.

^bPeking University

^cShenzhen Yanjiusheng Yuan

^dHubei Provincial Environmental Monitoring Center

^eNanjing University of Information Science & Technology

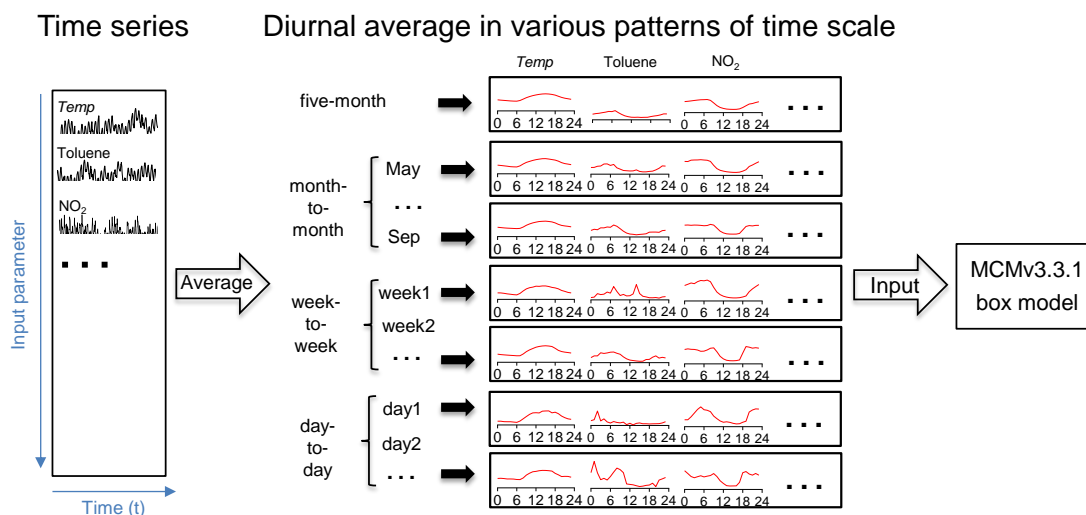
^fEnvironmental Monitoring Building

^gEnvironmental Protection Bureau

911 **Table 2.** Summary of the number of days (for model calculation) and proportions that
 912 were classified into the three photochemical regimes across each site and multiple
 913 patterns of time scale.

Patterns of Time scale	Site	Photochemical regime: RIR_{NOx}/RIR_{AVOC}					
		NO _x -limited: >2		Transition: 0.5~2		VOC-limited: <0.5	
		No. of days	Proportion	No. of days	Proportion	No. of days	Proportion
Month-to-month	TZ	2	40%	2	40%	1	20%
	BJ	0	0%	3	60%	2	40%
	XD	0	0%	2	40%	3	60%
Week-to-week	TZ	7	33%	8	38%	6	29%
	BJ	0	0%	10	50%	10	50%
	XD	3	16%	6	32%	10	53%
Day-to-day	TZ	29	29%	45	45%	26	26%
	BJ	0	0%	21	26%	60	74%
	XD	20	18%	23	20%	71	62%

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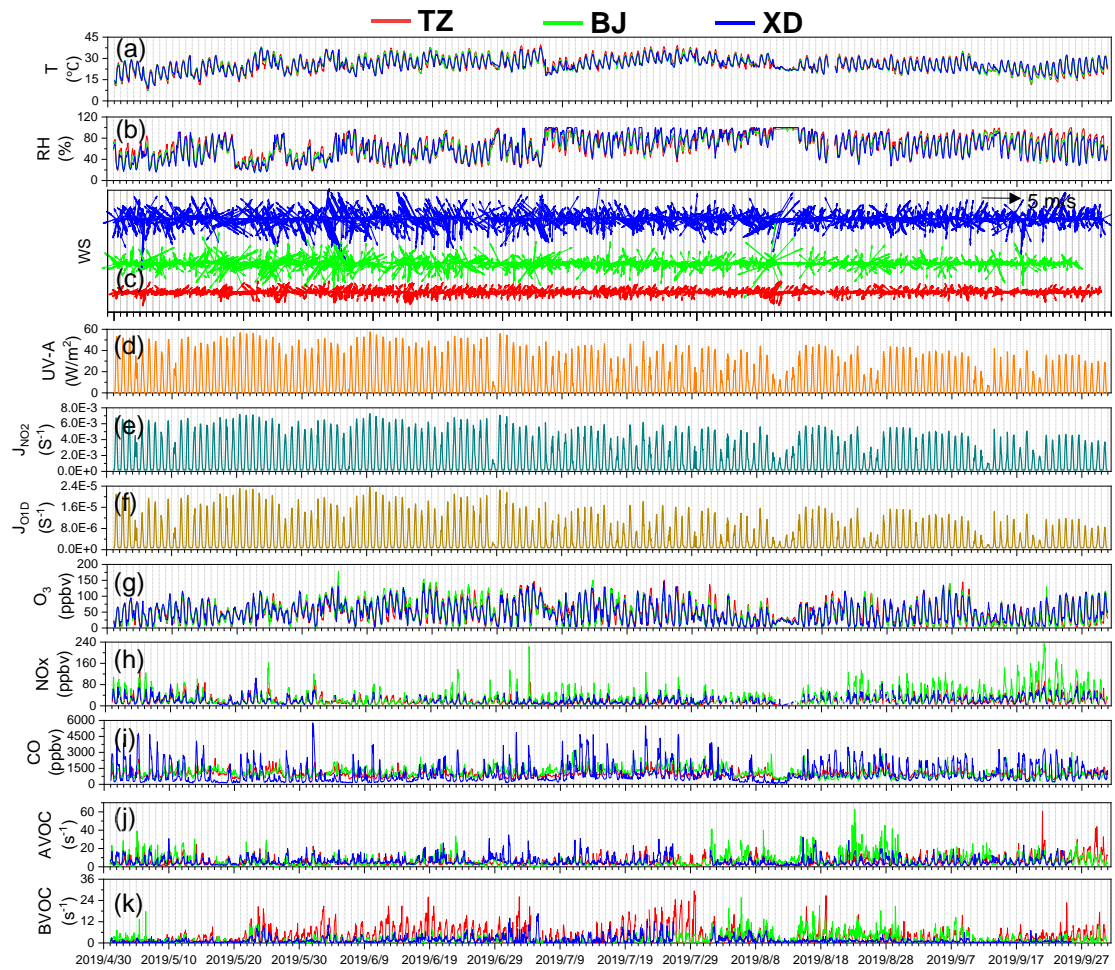
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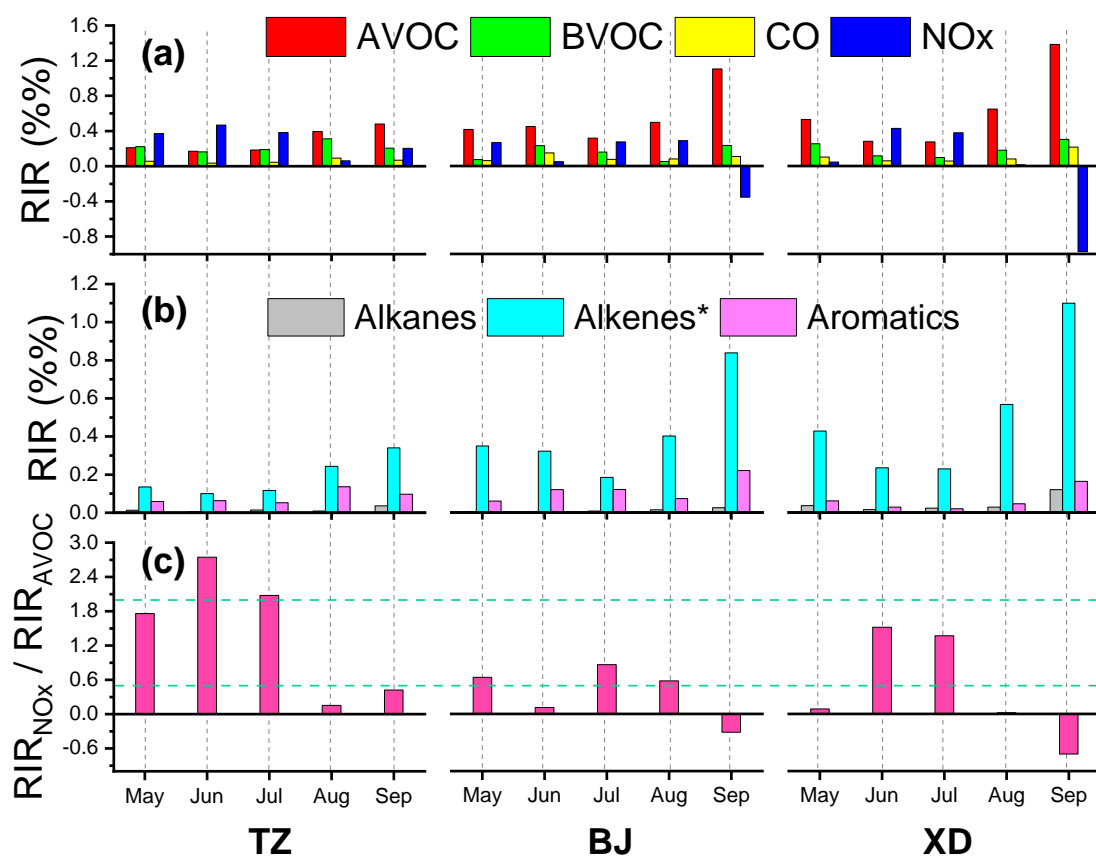
Figure 1. Schematic diagram of the dataset treatment to derive four patterns of time scale for 0-D box model input. Note that the four patterns (i.e., five-month, monthly, weekly, and daily) were the diurnal average of the initial dataset. This diagram takes one site and several input measurements (temperature, toluene, and NO₂) as examples.



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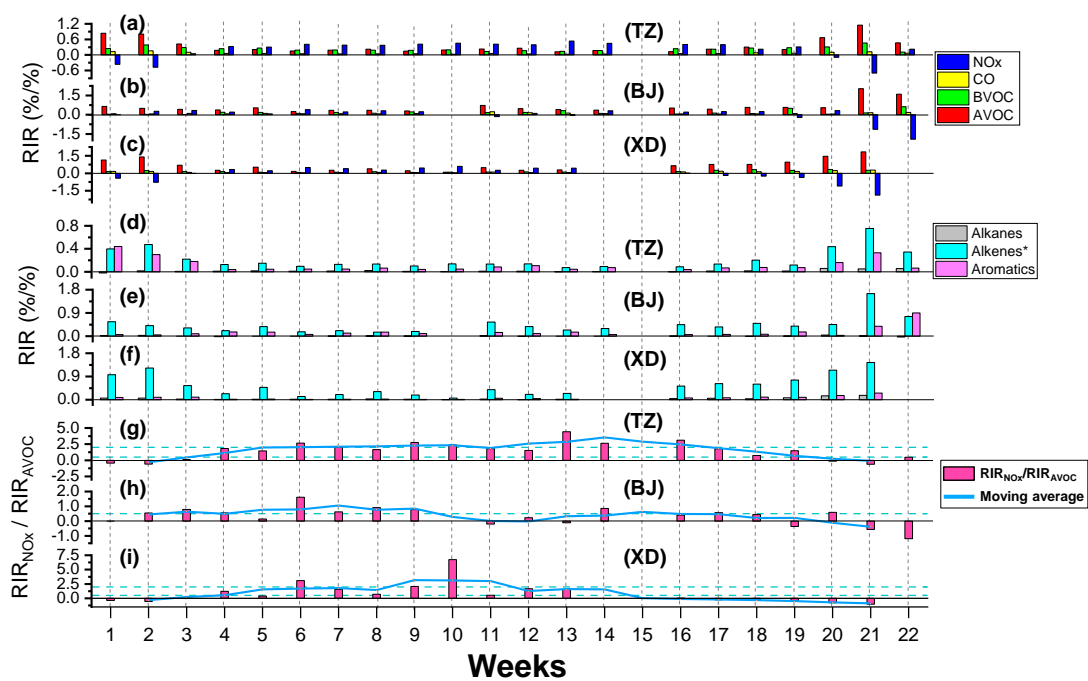
Figure 2. Time series of meteorological parameters, O₃ and its precursors (i.e., CO, NO_x, VOCs) throughout the whole campaign at the three sites in Zibo.

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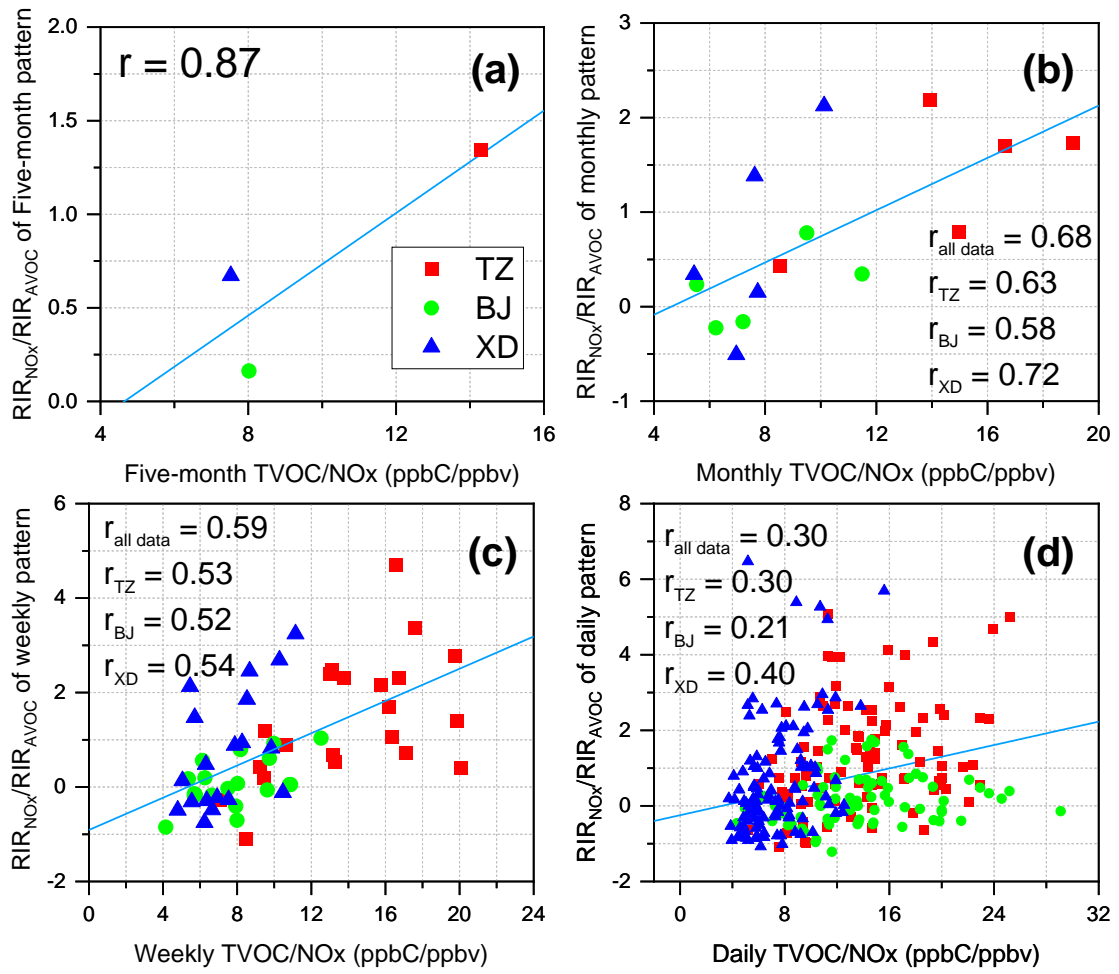
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925 **Figure 3.** Time series of month-to-month RIR values of major precursor groups and RIR_{NOx}/RIR_{AVOC} at
 926 three sites (TZ, BJ and XD) in Zibo. The green dash line indicates to RIR_{NOx}/RIR_{AVOC} = 0.5 and 2.



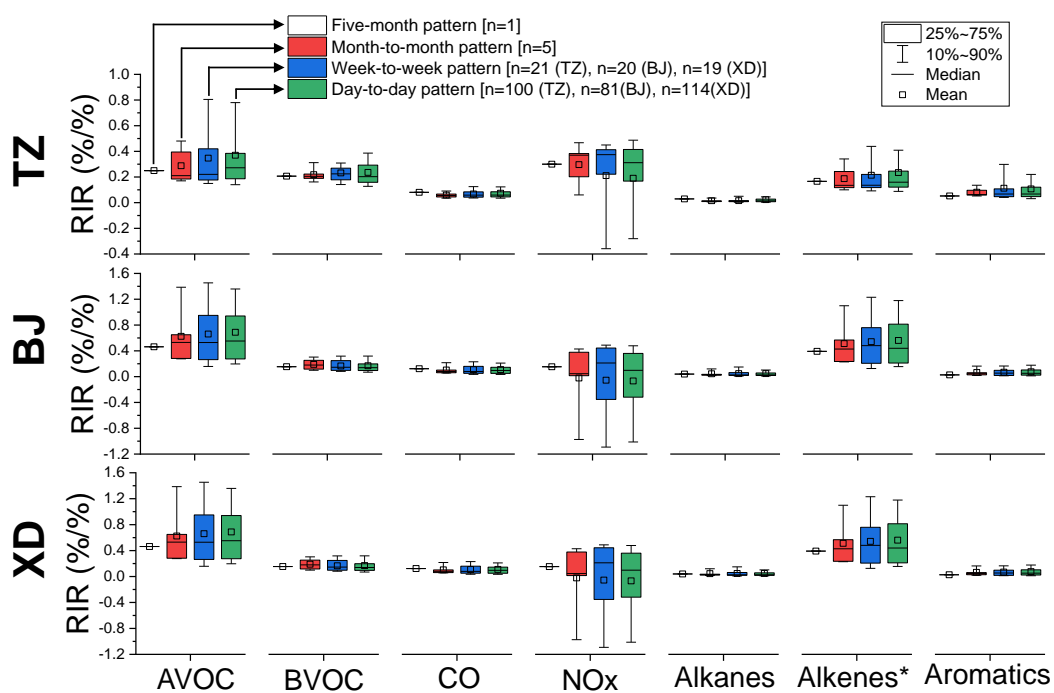
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Figure 4. Time series of week-to-week RIR values of major precursor groups and RIR_{NOx}/RIR_{AVOC} at three sites (TZ, BJ, and XD) in Zibo. The blue lines in (g)-(i) are the three points moving average of RIR_{NOx}/RIR_{AVOC} value.



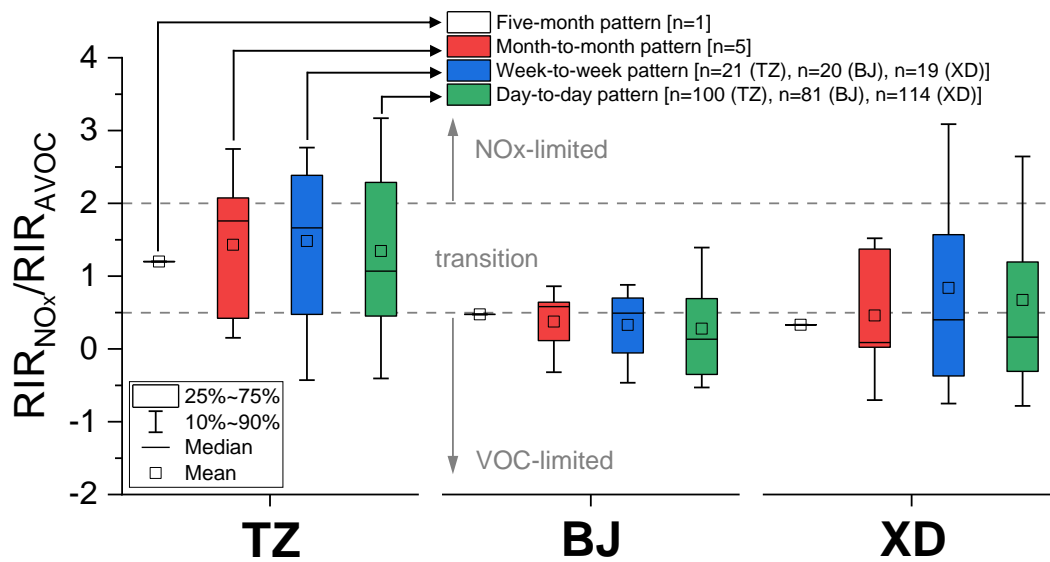
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Figure 5. The correlations of TVOC/NO_x with RIR_{NO_x}/RIR_{AVOC} at multiple patterns of time scale at the three sites in Zibo.



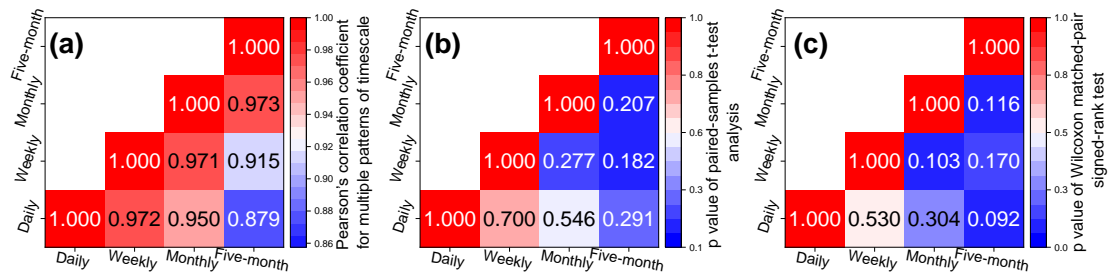
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Figure 6. Distribution of RIR values of major precursor groups in multiple patterns of time scale at three sites (TZ, BJ, and XD) in Zibo.



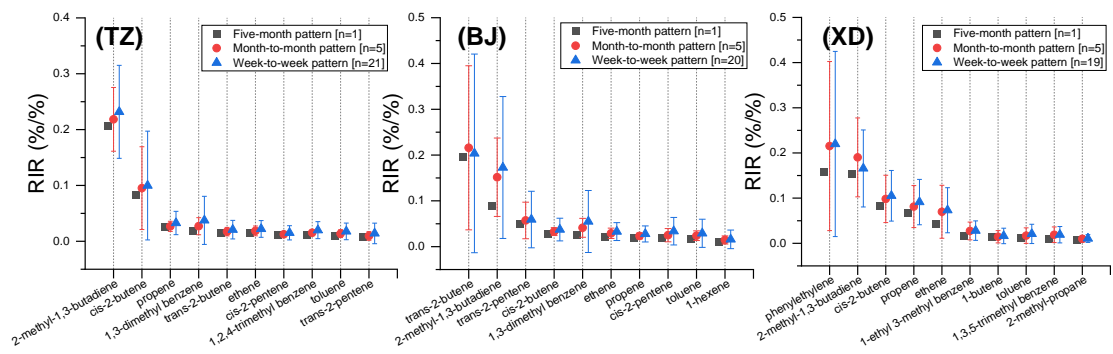
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940 **Figure 7.** Distribution of RIR_{NOx}/RIR_{AVOC} (indicator of photochemical regime) in multiple patterns of
 941 time scale at three sites (TZ, BJ, and XD) in Zibo.



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Figure 8. The statistical analysis results of RIR values (from Table S6) at multiple patterns of time scale: (a) Pearson's r correlation analysis (all the results have passed statistical significance assumed at $p < 0.01$), (b) Paired-samples t-test analysis (p values refer to differences with a statistical significance assumes at $p < 0.05$), (c) Wilcoxon matched-pair signed-rank test (p values refer to differences with a statistical significance assumes at $p < 0.05$).



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Figure 9. Averaged RIR values of individual AVOC species (top 10) at different patterns of time scale at three sites (TZ, BJ, and XD) in Zibo. The error bars represent the standard deviations of the mean.