

1 **Elucidating the mechanisms of rapid O₃ increase in North China Plain during COVID-19**
2 **lockdown period**

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8 **Abstract**

9 Ozone (O₃) levels in North China Plain (NCP) suffered from rapid increases during the COVID-19
10 period. Many previous studies have confirmed more rapid NO_x reduction compared with VOCs
11 might be responsible for the O₃ increase during this period, while the comprehensive impacts of
12 each VOC species and NO_x on ambient O₃ and their interactions with meteorology were not revealed
13 clearly. To clarify the detailed reasons for the O₃ increase, a continuous campaign was performed in
14 a typical industrial city of NCP. Meanwhile, the machine-learning technique and the box model
15 were employed to reveal the mechanisms of O₃ increase from the perspective of meteorology and
16 photochemical process, respectively. The result suggested that the ambient O₃ level in Tangshan
17 increased from 18.7 ± 4.63 to 45.6 ± 8.52 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ (143%) after COVID-19 lockdown, and the
18 emission reduction and meteorology contributed to 77% and 66% of this increment, respectively.
19 The higher wind speed (WS) coupled with regional transport played a significant role on O₃ increase
20 (30.8 kg/s). The O₃ sensitivity verified that O₃ production was highly volatile organic compounds
21 (VOC)-sensitive (Relative incremental reactivity (RIR): 0.75), while the NO_x showed the negative
22 impact on O₃ production in Tangshan (RIR: -0.59). It suggested that the control of VOCs rather than
23 NO_x might be more effective in reducing O₃ level in Tangshan because it was located on the VOC-
24 limited regime. Besides, both of ozone formation potential (OFP) analysis and observation-based
25 model (OBM) demonstrated that the alkenes (36.3 ppb) and anthropogenic oxygenated volatile
26 organic compounds (OVOCs) (15.2 ppb) showed the higher OFP compared with other species, and
27 their reactions released a large number of HO₂ and RO₂ radicals. Moreover, the concentrations of
28 these species did not experience marked decreases after COVID-19 lockdown, which were major
29 contributors to O₃ increase during this period. This study underlines the necessity of priority
30 controlling alkenes and OVOCs, which will benefit not just NCP but also other regions in China.

31 **Summary**

32 The major aims of our study are to reveal the detailed mechanisms for O₃ increase in North
33 China Plain (NCP). It was well known that the O₃ level experienced dramatic increase in NCP even
34 in East China during COVID-19 period. Although many previous studies have confirmed more rapid
35 NO_x reduction compared with VOCs might be responsible for the O₃ increase, we believed the
36 drastic O₃ increase might be not caused by a single factor. Some other factors should be further
37 explored. To date, the comprehensive impacts of each VOC species and NO_x on ambient O₃ and
38 their interactions with meteorology were not revealed clearly. Based on the detailed analysis in our
39 study, we demonstrated OVOCs and alkenes showed the higher OFP compared with other species,
40 and their reactions released a large number of HO₂ and RO₂ radicals, which was responsible for the
41 O₃ increase during this period. The natural experiment gave us many policy implications about O₃
42 pollution control. For instance, the collaborative controls VOC and NO_x must be seriously
43 performed in the near future. Moreover, more efforts are needed for the control of alkenes and
44 OVOCs.

45 Although we only performed the observation at a single city, the policy implication of our study
46 was not limited to the local focus. At first, Tangshan possessed many energy-intensive industries
47 including coal-fired power plants, non-ferrous smelting industries, and cement factories. It is a
48 typical region to reveal O₃ formation mechanisms and radical chemistry because it could reflect the
49 overall characteristics of NCP. Moreover, Li et al. (2019) revealed the emissions of alkenes and
50 OVOCs derived from paint use and chemical industry across China experienced rapid increases
51 since 2010 and will keep the trend in the near future. Therefore, our policy implication will benefit
52 not just NCP but also other regions in China.

53 **1. Introduction**

54 In December 2019, a tragic coronavirus (COVID-19) has spread worldwide causing over 6.33
55 million deaths as of this writing. In order to combat the further spread of COVID-19, Chinese
56 government imposed many unconventional and stringent control measures. Nearly all of the
57 provinces launched full-lockdown responses from 23 January to the early February, 2020.

58 During this period, many strict lockdown measures including the shutdown of industries and
59 non-essential businesses, curfews, and quarantines necessarily resulted in the reduction of
60 anthropogenic pollutant emissions. In turn, the dramatic decreases of primary emissions led to

61 marked changes of air pollutant concentrations. For instance, Zhao et al. (2020) reported that the
62 concentrations of PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, and NO₂ across China decreased by 13.7%, 21.8%, 4.6%, and
63 46.1%, respectively. Compared with aerosols and gaseous precursors, the concentration decreases
64 of secondary inorganic ions were not remarkable. Li et al. (2021b) confirmed that the sulfate level
65 in Tangshan only decreased by 6% after COVID-19 lockdown. Surprisingly, marginal increases in
66 O₃ were observed in many cities across East China (e.g., Wuhan, Shanghai), which seems to be in
67 contrast to the changes of most other air pollutants (Saha et al., 2022; Venter et al., 2020). As a
68 photochemical product, elevated O₃ levels often enhanced the atmospheric oxidation capacity (AOC)
69 and exerted hazardous impacts on human health and ecosystem (Liu et al., 2022). The exploration
70 of key driving forces for O₃ pollution has become a hot topic for scientific community. During
71 COVID-19 period, VOCs and NO_x levels experienced substantial changes due to strict emission
72 control measures, and both of these compositions further affected radical chemistry and O₃ change
73 (Goldberg et al., 2022; Nussbaumer et al., 2022). It provided us an unprecedented opportunity to fill
74 the knowledge gap about the responses of O₃ and radical chemistry to the drastic changes of
75 precursor emissions, which facilitated the optimization of emission control strategy.

76 It was well known that the O₃ level was often affected by the comprehensive impacts of
77 meteorological conditions, precursor emissions, and photochemical processes (Li et al., 2022).
78 Therefore, it is essential to distinguish the contributions of meteorological parameters and emission
79 change firstly, and then to figure out the O₃ formation mechanisms and sensitivity. Unfavorable
80 meteorological condition was often considered to be the key factor for the O₃ increase (Yin et al.,
81 2021; Zhang et al., 2022b). Gong et al. (2018) revealed that daily maximum temperature was major
82 driving factor responsible for the national O₃ pollution. Besides, RH, WS, and solar radiation also
83 played significant roles on the O₃ pollution especially in summer and autumn (Chen et al., 2019).
84 To date, some researchers have employed chemical transport models (CTMs) and statistical models
85 to distinguish the contributions of meteorological conditions and emission changes to O₃ pollution.
86 Zhao et al. (2020) utilized Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model and the Community
87 Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model to reveal that the contribution of meteorological factor to O₃
88 increase in some megacities (e.g., Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou) during COVID-19 period ranged
89 from 15% to 65%. Later on, Wang et al. (2020b) applied machine-learning models to assess the
90 contribution of meteorological condition to O₃ pollution in six megacities of China and the result

91 was in good agreement with study based on CTMs. Unfortunately, these pioneering studies did not
92 analyze the independent impact of each meteorological parameter on O₃ increase during the
93 pandemic and the dominant meteorological factor were scarcely revealed. Furthermore, the
94 contribution of regional transport to O₃ pollution at the fine scale was also less quantified. Compared
95 with the simple separation of meteorology and emission, the detailed assessment was favorable to
96 the effective implementation of O₃ pollution prevention policy under the circumstance of different
97 meteorological conditions.

98 Apart from the impact of meteorological factors, the photochemical processes played important
99 roles on the ambient O₃. As a novel technique to analyze the reasons of O₃ pollution, OBM-master
100 chemical mechanism (MCM) has been widely applied to investigate O₃-VOC-NO_x relationships
101 and radical chemistry. The method about O₃ sensitivity to VOCs and NO_x also have been established
102 to uncover O₃ formation mechanisms and pollution control strategies. Up to date, many studies have
103 employed this advanced technique to determine the key formation pathways of ambient O₃. Liu et
104 al. (2019) analyzed the budget of ambient O₃ in Hong Kong in the autumn of 2007, 2013, and 2016
105 and found the contribution of HO₂ + NO only accounted for 56 ± 1 % of the total O₃ production.
106 However, Liu et al. (2022) estimated that the contribution ratio of HO₂ + NO reached 68 ± 4 % in
107 the autumn of Xiamen. The O₃ formation pathway varied greatly in different cities and seasons,
108 which might be strongly dependent on primary emission, the ratio of volatile organic compounds
109 and nitrogen oxides (VOC/NO_x), AOC, and radical chemistry. Up to date, most of the current studies
110 focused on the O₃ formation mechanisms and radical chemistry in summer and autumn, while few
111 studies clarified the reasons for O₃ pollution events in winter. In fact, winter also suffered from
112 substantial increase of O₃ concentration such as COVID-19 period. Unfortunately, only Zhang et al.
113 (2022a) applied this method to determine the source-sink mechanism of atmospheric O₃ during
114 COVID-19 period. Moreover, this study ignored the contributions of alkanes and most alkenes to
115 O₃ pollution. Although the OFP value of alkanes was generally lower than alkenes and oxygenated
116 volatile organic compounds (OVOCs), the absolute concentrations of ambient alkanes were often
117 largely higher than alkenes and OVOCs. Thus, the neglect of alkanes might underestimate the ozone
118 production and could mislead the diagnosis of ozone sensitivity regimes. In addition, most of the
119 previous studies focused on O₃ pollution analysis in megacities (e.g., Beijing and Hong Kong) and
120 coastal cities (e.g., Xiamen), whereas the impact of emission reduction on O₃ pollution and radical

121 chemistry in a heavy industrial city still remained unknown.

122 As a typical heavy industrial city in NCP, Tangshan possessed many energy-intensive
123 industries including coal-fired power plants, non-ferrous smelting industries, and cement factories.
124 According to previous estimates, the anthropogenic VOC emissions in Tangshan reached about 2.35
125 $\times 10^5$ t yr⁻¹ (Zhou et al., 2014). Li et al. (2019) further estimated OFP of these released VOCs and
126 found the total OFP in Tangshan (> 150 Gg-O₃/grid) in 2017 was significantly higher than those in
127 most cities over China. It is a typical region to reveal O₃ formation mechanisms and radical
128 chemistry because it could reflect the overall characteristics of NCP. Major aims of this study are to
129 clarify (1) the VOCs and O₃ pollution characteristics after COVID-19 lockdown; (2) the impact of
130 meteorological condition on O₃ increase; (3) AOC and radical chemistry during pandemic period;
131 and (4) the O₃ formation mechanisms and sensitivity. The results are expected to offer scientific
132 evidence for formulating refined ozone management policy in NCP.

133 **2. Materials and methods**

134 2.1 Field measurement

135 The field campaign about the observation of hourly meteorological factors, VOCs, O₃, and
136 other gaseous pollutants was performed at a supersite in Tangshan during 1 January-7 February,
137 2020 (Figure S1). The sampling site was located in the center of urban, Tangshan. It is surrounded
138 by residential and commercial areas. Some energy-intensive industries were around 50 kilometers
139 away from this supersite. The meteorological factors including air temperature (T), P, RH, WS, and
140 wind direction (WD) were measured by a weather station with a sonic anemometer (150WX, Airmar,
141 USA). O₃, SO₂, NO₂, and CO levels were measured by commercial trace gas analyzer TEI 49i, 43i,
142 42i, and 48i (Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), respectively. The HONO concentration was measured
143 by Monitoring Aerosols and Gases in Ambient Air (MARGA; ADI 2080). A gas chromatography-
144 mass spectrometer (GC-FID/MS) was applied to monitor at least 50 species of VOC concentrations
145 with a 1 h time resolution (Table S1). The quality assurance of O₃, SO₂, NO₂, and CO was performed
146 based on HJ 630-2011 specifications. The limits of detection (LODs), precisions and accuracies of
147 the VOC analyses were 4-9 ppt, 2%, and 5%, respectively. All of these techniques have been widely
148 used in previous studies, and some detailed descriptions have been documented in our companion
149 paper (Li et al., 2021).

150 2.2 Model development

151 The ambient O₃ concentration was affected by the comprehensive impacts of meteorological
152 conditions and emissions. In order to distinguish the separate contributions of emission and
153 meteorology, a random forest (RF) approach was utilized to serve as the site-specific modeling
154 platform (Chen et al., 2018). The hourly O₃ level was regarded as the dependent variables, while
155 the meteorological factors including T, P, RH, WS, and WD, and time predictors (year, day of year
156 (DOY), day of week (DOW), hour) served as the independent variables. The 10-fold cross-
157 validation algorithm was applied to examine the performance of this approach. The original dataset
158 was randomly classified into a training dataset (90% of the original dataset) for developing the RF
159 model and the remained 10% was regarded as the test dataset. After the establishment of the RF
160 model, the deweathered algorithm was used to estimate the O₃ level at a specific time point (e.g.,
161 2020/02/05 16:00). The difference of observed O₃ level and deweathered O₃ level was treated as the
162 concentrations contributed by meteorology. Some typical statistical indexes such as R² value, RMSE,
163 and MAE could be treated as the major criteria to evaluate the modelling performance. In general,
164 the RF model with the R² value higher than 0.50 was considered to be the reliable result. In our
165 study, some hyperparameters such as the number of trees (ntree), number of samples (nsample) and
166 the minimal node size in RF model was set as 500, 500, and 5, respectively.

167 2.3 GAM model

168 The RF model cannot assess the isolated impact of each meteorological parameter on ambient
169 O₃ concentration. Therefore, the GAM model was further applied to quantify the isolated effect.
170 The detailed algorithm of the GAM model was as follows:

$$171 \quad g(\mu) = a + \sum f_i(X_i) \quad (1)$$

172 where $\mu = E(Y|X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$; $g(\mu)$ represents the contiguous function; f_i is the smooth function;
173 X_p denotes the independent variables.

174 2.4 GEOS-Chem model

175 In order to assess the impact of regional transport on O₃ pollution in Tangshan, the GEOS-
176 Chem model (v12-01) driven by GEOS-FP assimilated meteorological data was employed to
177 simulate the ambient O₃ level during 1 January-7 February, 2020. The GEOS-Chem model included
178 detailed ozone-NO_x-VOC-PM-halogen tropospheric chemistry. The nested grid version of the
179 model with a horizontal resolution of 0.25° × 0.3125° was used. The anthropogenic emission

180 inventory in 2019 was collected from Community Emissions Data System (CEDs) (Hoesly et al.,
 181 2018). Then, the emission inventory in 2020 was calculated based on that in 2019 and updated
 182 adjustment factor proposed by (Doubria et al., 2021). Natural emissions include open biomass
 183 burning, lightning, and soil release. Open fire emissions from GFED4 in 2019 were used for both
 184 of 2019 and 2020 simulations (Van Der Werf et al., 2017). Lightning NO_x emission was constrained
 185 by the average of LIS/OTD satellite observations from 1995 to 2013 (Hudman et al., 2012; Murray
 186 et al., 2012). The contributions of regional transport to ambient O₃ before and after COVID-19
 187 lockdown could be quantified based on this model.

188 2.5 Observation-based chemical box model

189 In our study, OBM coupled with MCM v3.3.1 was applied to investigate the O₃ formation
 190 mechanisms and the radical chemistry. More than 6700 chemical species and 17,000 reactions were
 191 included in this model. The observation parameters of the gaseous pollutants including O₃, SO₂, CO,
 192 HONO, NO, NO₂, and VOCs, and meteorological parameters including T, RH, and P were utilized
 193 to constrain the model. In addition, the photolysis frequencies (J values) were also incorporated into
 194 the model, which was calculated as a function of solar zenith angle and altitude based on
 195 Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible (TUV) model. Before each simulation, the model was run for
 196 5 d as spin-up to ensure the stable state and modelling reliability. AOC was estimated based on the
 197 following equations:

$$198 \quad AOC = \sum_{i=1} k_{Y_i-X} Y_i X \quad (2)$$

199 where Y_i represents the targeted pollutants (e.g., CH₄, VOCs, and CO), X represents key oxidants
 200 (OH, NO₃, and O₃), and k_{Y_i-X} denotes the rate constants for the reactions of Y_i and X.

201 The production reaction of O₃ includes RO₂+NO and HO₂+NO, while the removal reaction of
 202 O₃ involves O₃ photolysis, O₃+HO₂, O₃+OH, NO₂+OH, NO₃+VOCs, and O₃+VOCs. The net O₃
 203 production was equaled to the difference of P(O₃) and L(O₃). The detailed equations are as follows:

$$204 \quad P(O_3) = k_1[NO][HO_2] + \sum k_{2i}[NO][RO_2] \quad (3)$$

$$205 \quad L(O_3) = k_3[O_1D][H_2O] + k_4[O_3][HO_2] + k_5[O_3][OH] + k_6[NO_2][OH] + \sum k_{7i}[O_3][VOCs] \quad (4)$$

$$206 \quad N(O_3) = P(O_3) - L(O_3) \quad (5)$$

207 where k_i is the related reaction rate constant. P(O₃), L(O₃), and N(O₃) denote the production, loss,

208 and net production rate of ambient O₃.

209 In addition, to assess the impact of aerosol uptake on O₃ production, we also added the
210 heterogeneous uptake of HO₂ in the box model when the sensitivity experiment was performed. The
211 impact of heterogeneous reaction of HO₂ on ozone formation was estimated in the box model using
212 RH-corrected aerosol surface concentration (S_a) and uptake coefficient of HO₂. The change rate in
213 HO₂ due to aerosol uptake is expressed by Eq. (6).

$$214 \quad \frac{dC}{dt} = \frac{\gamma_{HO_2} \times v \times S_a \times C}{4} \quad (6)$$

215 where C, v, and γ_{HO_2} represent the gas-phase concentration, mean molecular velocity, and uptake
216 coefficient, respectively. The measured RH to correct S_a to ambient conditions. The uptake
217 coefficient of HO₂ was equaled to 0.2, which has been widely used by previous studies (Wang et al.,
218 2020b; Taketani et al., 2012).

219 As the quotient of O₃ change ratio and precursor change ratio, RIR is defined to diagnose the
220 O₃ sensitivity to precursors. The detailed equation is as follows:

$$221 \quad RIR = \frac{\Delta P(O_3) / P(O_3)}{\Delta Y / Y} \quad (7)$$

222 Where RIR reflects the relative incremental reactivity; Δ denotes the increase rate; Y represents
223 the precursor of O₃ formation.

224 The index of agreement (IOA) was defined as an index to evaluate the modelling performance
225 of OBM-MCM. In general, the result could be considered to be robust when the IOA value was
226 higher than 0.7. The IOA in our study reached 0.8. Thus, the performance of the OBM-MCM was
227 acceptable. The detailed algorithm of IOA was introduced in Liu et al. (2019) and Liu et al. (2022).

228 **3. Results and discussion**

229 **3.1 Overview of observations**

230 The temporal variations of meteorological parameters are depicted in Figure 1. During the
231 whole observation period, the prevailing WD was northwesterly. The hourly average T remained
232 stable characteristic, while RH, P, and WS increased from 58%, 1019 hPa, and 0.9 m/s to 60%, 1023
233 hPa, and 1.3 m/s after COVID-19 lockdown, respectively (Table S2). Compared with the pre-
234 lockdown period, the concentrations of SO₂, CO, NO, NO₂, and total VOCs (TVOCs) decreased by
235 0.9%, 2.5%, 85%, 41%, and 42% during COVID-19 period, respectively. However, the O₃

236 concentration increased by 143% after COVID-19 lockdown. Nearly all of the gaseous pollutants
237 except O₃ displayed decreasing trend after COVID-19 lockdown. It was assumed that many strict
238 lockdown measures such as partial or complete closure of international borders and nonessential
239 businesses, and restricted citizen mobility largely reduced the precursor emissions (Goldberg et al.,
240 2020; Venter et al., 2020). Besides, the increased RH and WS were beneficial to the secondary
241 transformation from NO_x to NO₃⁻, and the diffusion and advection of NO_x, respectively (Huang et
242 al., 2021; Li et al., 2021b). Both of these meteorological conditions promoted the decrease of
243 ambient NO_x concentration. Compared with NO_x and TVOCs, SO₂ and CO levels suffered from
244 slight decreases. It was supposed that home order largely increased the residential emission
245 (Doumbia et al., 2021; Saha et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2020), which might offset the decreases of
246 vehicle and industrial emissions. There are many reasons accounting for the substantial increase of
247 ambient O₃ concentration. Based on the rough analysis, the ratio of VOC/NO_x during the business-
248 as-usual period was around 0.7, which could be defined as the VOC-limited region (Li et al., 2021a).
249 After COVID-19 lockdown period, the decreasing trend of NO_x (59%) was much higher than that
250 of TVOCs (41), which aggravated the rebound of O₃ concentration. In addition, the increased P
251 might exacerbate O₃ pollution though T remained stable during COVID-19 period (Chen et al., 2019;
252 Dong et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022).

253 The analysis of TVOC variation alone cannot reveal the O₃ increase after COVID-19 lockdown,
254 the detailed variations of VOC species was necessary. During the whole observation period, alkanes
255 dominated the TVOC concentration with the hourly average concentration of 35±11 ppbv.
256 Following alkanes, the alkenes and OVOCs accounted for 20% and 13% of TVOC concentrations,
257 respectively (Figure 2 and S2). Compared with the business-as-usual period, the concentrations of
258 alkanes, alkenes, aromatics, OVOCs, and other VOC species decreased by 45%, 28%, 50%, 41%,
259 and 48% after COVID-19 lockdown, respectively. The most significant drop was found in aromatics,
260 which was similar to the result of Changzhou (Jensen et al., 2021). It might be associated with the
261 drastic decreases in industrial activities and traffic volumes, which were major sources of ambient
262 aromatics. As the key indicators of vehicular exhaust and industrial emission (Song et al., 2020;
263 Zhang et al., 2016), the concentrations of toluene and benzene decreased by 63% and 69%,
264 respectively. The result also demonstrated that the substantial decreases of traffic and industrial
265 emissions were responsible for the significant aromatic decreases. However, the contribution ratios

266 of VOC species suffered from different variation characteristics. The contribution ratio of alkanes,
267 alkenes, aromatics, OVOCs, and other VOC species accounting for TVOC concentrations changed
268 from 55%, 19%, 4.6%, 13%, and 8.2% to 53%, 23%, 3.9%, 13%, and 7.3%, respectively. The result
269 of the increase of alkenes ratio and the decrease of aromatics ratio was in good agreement with that
270 in Nanjing (Wang et al., 2021). The increase of fraction of alkenes to TVOCs after COVID-19
271 lockdown might be linked with the emission source. It was well known that the alkenes might be
272 derived from gasoline evaporation and petrochemical industries (Wang et al., 2021; Wang et al.,
273 2020a). Some necessary petrochemical industries were not closed during the pandemic, which
274 caused the slight decreases of alkenes concentrations.

275 3.2 The impact of meteorology on ambient O₃

276 3.2.1 The isolated contribution of meteorology and emission to ambient O₃

277 Deweathered O₃ concentration was estimated based on RF model after the normalization of
278 meteorological parameters. The difference of observed O₃ level and normalized O₃ level represented
279 the O₃ concentration contributed by meteorology. As shown in Figure 3, the observed and
280 normalized O₃ concentrations increased from 8.9 ± 2.2 and 12 ± 2.7 ppb to 22 ± 5.3 and 21 ± 5.1
281 ppb after COVID-19 lockdown, respectively. The ambient O₃ level increased by 143% during
282 COVID-19 period, and the emission reduction and meteorology contributed to 77% and 66% of this
283 increment, respectively. The result suggested that the excessive NO_x emission reduction and the
284 increase of VOC/NO_x ratio in the VOC-limited region might be the major factors for the substantial
285 increase of ambient O₃ level during the pandemic. In addition, the unfavorable meteorological
286 conditions especially the increase of P and WS aggravated the O₃ pollution (Dong et al., 2020; Ning
287 et al., 2020; Shu et al., 2020).

288 3.2.2 The effect of each meteorological parameter on O₃ pollution

289 Although the machine-learning model can quantify the overall contribution of meteorological
290 conditions to O₃ pollution, the impact of each meteorological parameter on ambient O₃ level still
291 remained unknown. Therefore, the generalized additive model (GAM) was employed to capture the
292 complex nonlinear relationships between O₃ and its influencing factors. All of these explanatory
293 variables including T, RH, P, and WS exerted significant nonlinear impacts on O₃ level at the level
294 of $p < 0.01$ and degrees of freedom > 1 , indicating that each factor displayed statistical significance.
295 The F values could reflect the importance of these variables, and these explanatory variables

296 followed the order of WS (32) > T (25) > RH (16) > P (3.6). As depicted in Figure S3, T and RH
297 showed positive and negative correlations with O₃ concentrations, respectively. The result was in
298 good agreement with Liu et al. (2022). Atmospheric O₃ generally showed the higher concentrations
299 when P was higher than 1025 hPa or lower than 1018 hPa. Among all of these meteorological
300 parameters, WS showed the highest variable importance, and the higher WS was favorable for O₃
301 regional transport. The GEOS-Chem modelling result also suggested that the average O₃ flux
302 induced by regional transport after COVID-19 lockdown reached 31 kg/s, while the mean O₃ flux
303 before pandemic only reached -5.6 kg/s. The contribution from regional transport changed from
304 negative effect to positive effect after COVID-19 lockdown, which largely increased O₃ level during
305 this period. Overall, the combined effects of regional transport and local photochemical production
306 might be responsible for the O₃ increase.

307 3.3 Chemistry perspective

308 3.3.1 OFP variations of VOC species after COVID-19 lockdown

309 The VOC species showed distinct reactivities, and thus the OFP value was applied to assess
310 the contribution of active VOCs to ambient O₃ formation. The OFP value equals to the concentration
311 of each VOC species multiplying the ozone formation potential coefficient (MIR). It should be noted
312 that the OFP value did not represent the absolute concentration of ambient O₃, it only reflected the
313 potential O₃ from the VOC degradation. The temporal variations of VOC species are depicted in
314 Figure 4. The total OFP value decreased from 77±38 to 50±27 ppb after COVID-19 lockdown,
315 indicating marked decreases of VOC reactivities due to drastic lockdown measures. Among all of
316 VOC species, the OFP of aromatics (63%) experienced the most dramatic decrease owing to the
317 decline of vehicle and industrial emissions (Dombia et al., 2021). However, the OFP values of
318 alkenes and OVOCs only suffered from 31% and 34% decreases during the pandemic, respectively.
319 Therefore, the contribution ratios of alkenes and OVOCs to total OFP increased from 56% and 24%
320 during pre-lockdown period to 60% and 24% after COVID-19 lockdown, respectively. At first,
321 alkenes and OVOCs were mainly generated from gasoline evaporation and secondary formation,
322 respectively (Louie et al., 2013; Maji et al., 2020). Both of these VOC species were not sensitive to
323 lockdown measures compared with alkanes and aromatics, both of which were mainly sourced from
324 vehicle emission (Harrison et al., 2021; Mozaffar and Zhang, 2020). Furthermore, the secondary
325 formation could largely compensate for the decrease in primary emissions of OVOCs (Huang et al.,

326 2019). Moreover, the enhanced regional transport coupled with increased AOC was also beneficial
327 to the secondary formation of OVOCs (Huang et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020).

328 Overall, it should be noted that the VOC/NO_x ratio increased from 0.7 to 1.1 after COVID-19
329 lockdown because the NO_x emission suffered from more dramatic decrease during the pandemic.
330 Meanwhile, the ambient O₃ level also exhibited remarkable increase during the same period. The
331 result suggested that the control of VOCs rather than NO_x might be more effective in reducing ozone
332 level in Tangshan. We further analyzed the contributions of various VOC species to O₃ level, and
333 found the increases in the contributions of alkenes and OVOCs to TVOCs largely elevated ambient
334 O₃ level. Therefore, the effective control of alkenes and OVOCs emissions facilitated the O₃
335 pollution alleviation.

336 3.3.2 AOC and radical chemistry after COVID-19 lockdown

337 In order to further explain the reason for O₃ increase, two cases including pre-lockdown and
338 lockdown periods were selected to analyze the detailed formation/removal mechanisms of O₃ and
339 radicals. The IOA value of MCM reached 0.8, indicating the modelling performance was reliable
340 (Chen et al., 2020). The simulated daytime OH concentration displayed a remarkable increase from
341 $(0.6\pm 0.4)\times 10^6$ to $(1.5\pm 1.0)\times 10^6$ molecules cm⁻³. It might be associated with the solar radiation.
342 Moreover, abundant primary pollutants might react with OH during business-as-usual period, which
343 decreased the OH level. Meanwhile, we also estimated daytime AOC before and after COVID-19
344 lockdown. The result suggested that average daytime AOC increased from 1.0×10^7 molecules cm⁻³
345 s⁻¹ to 1.3×10^7 molecules cm⁻³ s⁻¹. The daytime AOC in the winter of Tangshan was significantly
346 lower than that in autumn of Xiamen (6.7×10^7) and summer of Hong Kong (6.2×10^7) (Liu et al.,
347 2022; Xue et al., 2016). It was supposed that the solar radiation in winter was much lower than that
348 in summer and autumn (Jin et al., 2005; Tang et al., 2010). However, AOC in our study was
349 significantly higher than that during the same period in Changzhou (Zhang et al., 2022a). As shown
350 in Figure 5, the contribution of OH to AOC reached 85% during the whole study period, and thus
351 the higher OH concentration in Tangshan was responsible for the higher AOC compared with
352 Changzhou.

353 Besides, we further analyzed the reason for OH increase after COVID-19 lockdown from the
354 perspective of budget. OH radical was mainly generated from the reaction of HO₂ + NO, accounting
355 for $61\pm 10\%$ and $76\pm 15\%$ of the total production during pre-lockdown and lockdown periods,

356 respectively (Figure 6). Following the reaction of $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}$, the processes of HONO photolysis
357 accounted for $36 \pm 9\%$ and $22 \pm 7\%$ of the total OH production during two cases, respectively. Other
358 pathways including $\text{O}(1\text{D}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$, $\text{O}_3 + \text{VOCs}$, and H_2O_2 photolysis only accounted minor
359 contribution ($< 5\%$) to OH formation. From the perspective of temporal variation, the formation rate
360 from $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}$ increased from 0.7×10^7 during pre-lockdown period to 1.6×10^7 molecules $\text{cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$
361 during the pandemic. However, other formation pathways remained relatively stable characteristics
362 after COVID-19 lockdown. The result indicated that $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}$ was considered to be the major
363 pathway for the significant increase of OH level during the pandemic.

364 Apart from the analysis of OH formation process, the change of OH loss pathway could also
365 play an important role on the OH increase. It was well documented that OH was mainly depleted
366 by four reactions with CO, VOCs, NO, and NO_2 . All of the loss reactions of OH during pre-
367 lockdown period were in the order of $\text{OH} + \text{NO}$ ($34 \pm 9\%$) $>$ $\text{OH} + \text{NO}_2$ ($23 \pm 7\%$) = $\text{OH} + \text{VOCs}$
368 ($23 \pm 6\%$) $>$ $\text{OH} + \text{CO}$ ($20 \pm 5\%$), while the loss pathways of OH after COVID-19 lockdown followed
369 the order of $\text{OH} + \text{VOCs}$ ($43 \pm 11\%$) = $\text{OH} + \text{NO}_2$ ($22 \pm 8\%$) $>$ $\text{OH} + \text{CO}$ ($18 \pm 6\%$) $>$ $\text{OH} + \text{NO}$
370 ($17 \pm 3\%$). It should be noted that the contribution of NO to OH loss experienced dramatic decrease
371 after COVID-19 lockdown because the strict lockdown measures largely decreased NO emission,
372 which could be treated as a nonnegligible reason for the OH increase during the pandemic. Besides,
373 we also found that the contribution ratio of $\text{OH} + \text{VOCs}$ showed slight increase because the
374 decreasing ratios of VOC species were relatively lower than those of NO_x .

375 3.3.3 The chemical mechanisms for O_3 increase after COVID-19 lockdown and implications

376 The formation and loss pathways of O_3 were depicted in Figure 7. The formation of ambient
377 O_3 was dominated by $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$ and $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}$. In our study, the daytime rate of $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}$ during
378 pre-lockdown period reached 2.3 ± 1.1 ppb h^{-1} , accounting for 61% of the total O_3 production. The
379 result was consistent with many previous studies because OH radical was the initiator of O_3
380 photochemical production. Following the pathway of $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}$, $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$ (1.5 ± 0.6 ppb h^{-1}) was
381 also an important pathway for the O_3 formation, accounting for 39% of the total O_3 production.
382 After COVID-19 lockdown, the daytime rates of $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO}$ and $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$ exhibited significant
383 increases by 61% and 53%, respectively. The loss rates of ambient O_3 during pre-lockdown and
384 lockdown periods showed similar characteristics and they followed the order of $\text{NO}_2 + \text{OH}$ (59%
385 and 42%) $>$ O_3 photolysis (27% and 33%) $>$ $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}_2$ (12% and 23%), whereas other pathways

386 such as $O_3 + OH$, $O_3 + HO_2$, $O_3 + VOCs$, and $NO_3 + VOCs$ contributed limitedly. Although both of
387 $P(O_3)$ and $L(O_3)$ displayed increases after COVID-19 lockdown, the increase of total O_3 production
388 was much higher than that of O_3 loss. Thus, the net production rate of O_3 increased from 2.8 ± 1.3
389 to 4.6 ± 1.7 ppb h^{-1} after COVID-19 lockdown, which fully explained the rapid increase of ambient
390 O_3 level during the pandemic. Compared with the previous studies, the net production rate of O_3
391 was much lower than those in summer or autumn of Xiamen (9.1 ± 5.7 ppb h^{-1}) and Shanghai (26
392 ppb h^{-1}), while it was slightly higher than that in winter of Shanghai (~ 4 ppb h^{-1}). The difference
393 was strongly dependent on the precursor emissions and photochemical conditions of O_3 formation.

394 Apart from more rapid decrease of NO_x level compared with VOCs, the excessive reduction
395 of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration after COVID-19 lockdown cannot be ignored because aerosol particles
396 generally scavenged HO_2 radicals (Shi and Brasseur, 2020). As shown in Figure 7, the daytime O_3
397 production rates from HO_2+NO accounted for the major fraction of all of the pathways before and
398 after COVID-19 lockdown, and the HO_2 radical level displayed drastic increase (61%) after
399 lockdown. To evaluate the impact of aerosol variation on HO_2 radical, the aerosol uptake of HO_2
400 radical was added into the model and its impact on the contribution of HO_2+NO on O_3 production
401 were compared with that without aerosol module (Figure S4). The result suggested that the daytime
402 O_3 production rate derived from HO_2+NO without aerosol module only increased by 61% after
403 lockdown, while the daytime O_3 formation rate from HO_2+NO pathway with aerosol uptake
404 increased by 80% (Figure S4). The result indicated that the rapid reduction of aerosol surface area
405 after lockdown weakened the HO_2 uptake, and thus aggravated the O_3 production derived from
406 HO_2+NO pathway. The result was in good agreement with some previous studies (Wang et al.,
407 2020b; Tan et al., 2022).

408 To examine the impacts of precursor emissions (various VOC species) on O_3 production, RIR
409 technique was applied to diagnose the O_3 sensitivity to precursors (Figure 8). First of all, all of the
410 VOCs were classified into anthropogenic hydrocarbons (AHCs) and biogenic hydrocarbons (BHCs)
411 (e.g., isoprene). Afterwards, all of AHCs could be further categorized into four groups of alkanes,
412 alkenes, aromatics, and OVOCs. The O_3 production was highly VOC-sensitive especially AHCs-
413 sensitive (RIR: 0.8), followed by CO (0.2), and BHCs (0.1). However, the NO_x showed the negative
414 impact on O_3 production in Tangshan (RIR: -0.59). Among all of the AHCs, the contributions to O_3
415 sensitivity were in the order of alkenes (0.4) > OVOCs (0.3) > alkanes (0.1) \geq aromatics (0.1).

416 Although the RIR value has revealed the importance of VOCs and NO_x on O₃ formation, this
417 method cannot quantify the contribution of VOC species and NO_x to ambient O₃ change. Therefore,
418 the scenario analysis raised a question: how much O₃ could change with the reduction of VOC
419 species and NO_x? Then, the variation percentage of ambient O₃ was calculated, which was beneficial
420 to the implementation of O₃ control strategies. As shown in Figure 9a, nearly all of the VOC species
421 displayed the positive relationships with O₃ variations. Similar to RIR values, O₃ level suffered from
422 the most significant response to alkenes. In our study, the O₃ production experienced around 30%
423 decrease when the alkenes decreased by 80%. Following alkenes, the O₃ reduction reached 25%,
424 10%, and 12% when OVOCs, alkanes, and aromatics decreased by 80%, respectively. The results
425 also confirmed that the decreases of alkenes and OVOCs could alleviate O₃ pollution effectively.
426 As depicted in Figure 9b, the NO_x level exhibited negative correlation with O₃ production. The O₃
427 production could increase by 50% when NO_x experienced 80% reduction. Although Tangshan has
428 experienced rapid NO_x decrease in the past years and the NO₂ concentration in Tangshan remained
429 the lower level, Tangshan was still VOC-limited regime. The continuous NO_x reduction might be
430 not an efficient pathway for O₃ pollution control.

431 Although many previous studies have confirmed more rapid NO_x reduction compared with
432 VOCs might be responsible for the O₃ increase, the comprehensive impacts of each VOC species
433 and NO_x on ambient O₃ and their interactions with meteorology were not revealed clearly. Based on
434 the detailed analysis in our study, collaborative controls VOC and NO_x must be seriously performed
435 in the near future. Moreover, more efforts are needed for the control of alkenes and OVOCs. Li et
436 al. (2019) revealed the emissions of alkenes and OVOCs derived from paint use and chemical
437 industry across China experienced rapid increases since 2010 and will keep the trend in the near
438 future. Therefore, our policy implication will benefit not just NCP but also other regions in China.

439 **4. Conclusions**

440 Due to the outbreak of COVID-19, many strict lockdown measures have been widely adopted
441 across China, leading to dramatic decreases of vehicle and industrial emissions. Therefore, the
442 concentrations of multiple air pollutants such as SO₂, NO_x, and CO experienced decreases during
443 the pandemic, whereas the O₃ level suffered from significant increase. To uncover the reason for O₃
444 increase, the precursor concentrations (e.g., VOCs, NO_x), meteorological conditions, and relevant
445 chemical mechanisms have been analyzed. The ambient O₃ level increased by 143% during COVID-

446 19 period, and the emission reduction and meteorology contributed to 77% and 66% of this
447 increment, respectively. Along with the obvious increase of O₃ concentration, the VOC/NO_x ratio
448 also increased from 0.7 to 1.1 after COVID-19 lockdown, indicating the control of VOCs rather
449 than NO_x might be more effective in reducing O₃ level in Tangshan. In addition, the OFP values of
450 VOC species were also calculated to assess their contributions to O₃ formation. We found that the
451 alkenes and OVOCs displayed the higher contributions to O₃ production. Afterwards, a box model
452 was applied to further analyze the detailed chemical mechanisms of O₃ formation and sensitivity.
453 The result suggested that increased contributions of HO₂+NO and RO₂+NO resulted in the
454 significant increase of O₃ concentration. Besides, the O₃ sensitivity analysis also demonstrated that
455 the alkenes and OVOCs played significant roles on the O₃ formation and the reduction of alkenes
456 and OVOCs were more beneficial to O₃ mitigation. In regard with the temporal trends of VOC
457 emissions over China, more efforts should be devoted to reduce the concentrations of alkenes and
458 OVOCs across China rather than NCP alone.

459 **Acknowledgements**

460 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (42107113).

461 **Data availability**

462 [Dataset] The CEDS emission inventory are available at the website of
463 <https://zenodo.org/record/3754964#.YwrJL8jfmfU> (McDuffie et al., 2020).

464 **Author contributions**

465 LR wrote the manuscript. LR and WGH contributed to the conceptualization of the study. GYN,
466 and LR conducted the research, and visualized the results. LR and GYN revised the manuscript.

467 **Competing interests**

468 The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any competing interests.

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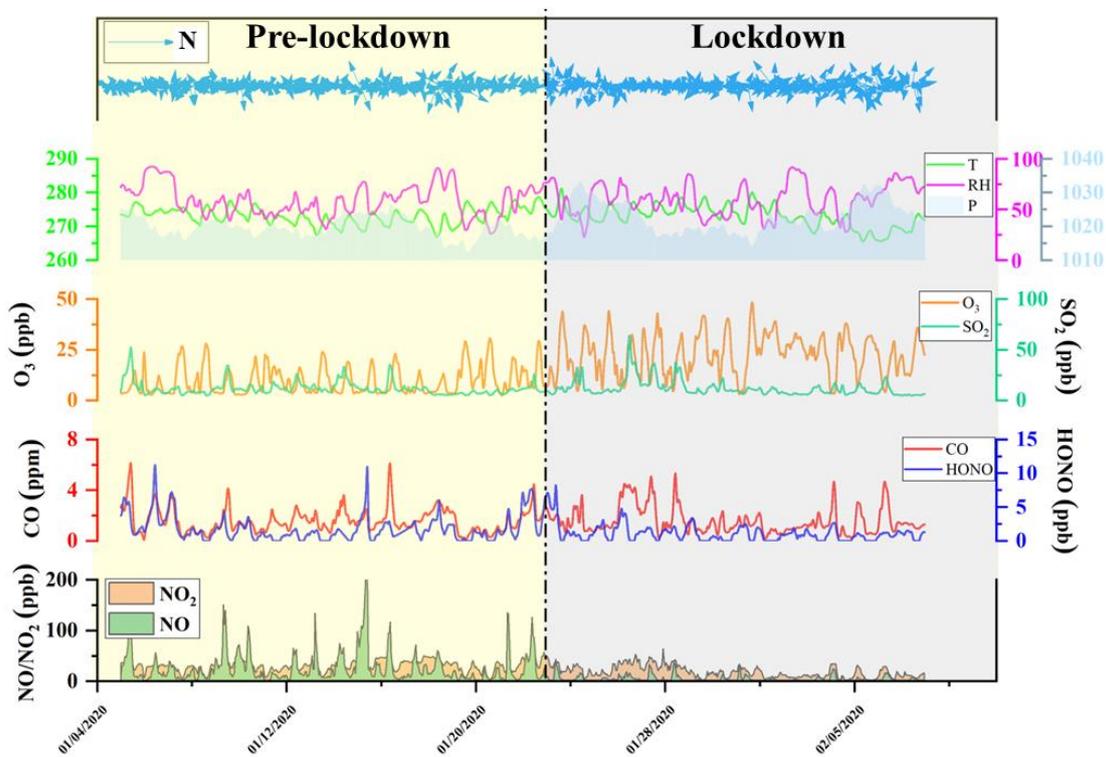
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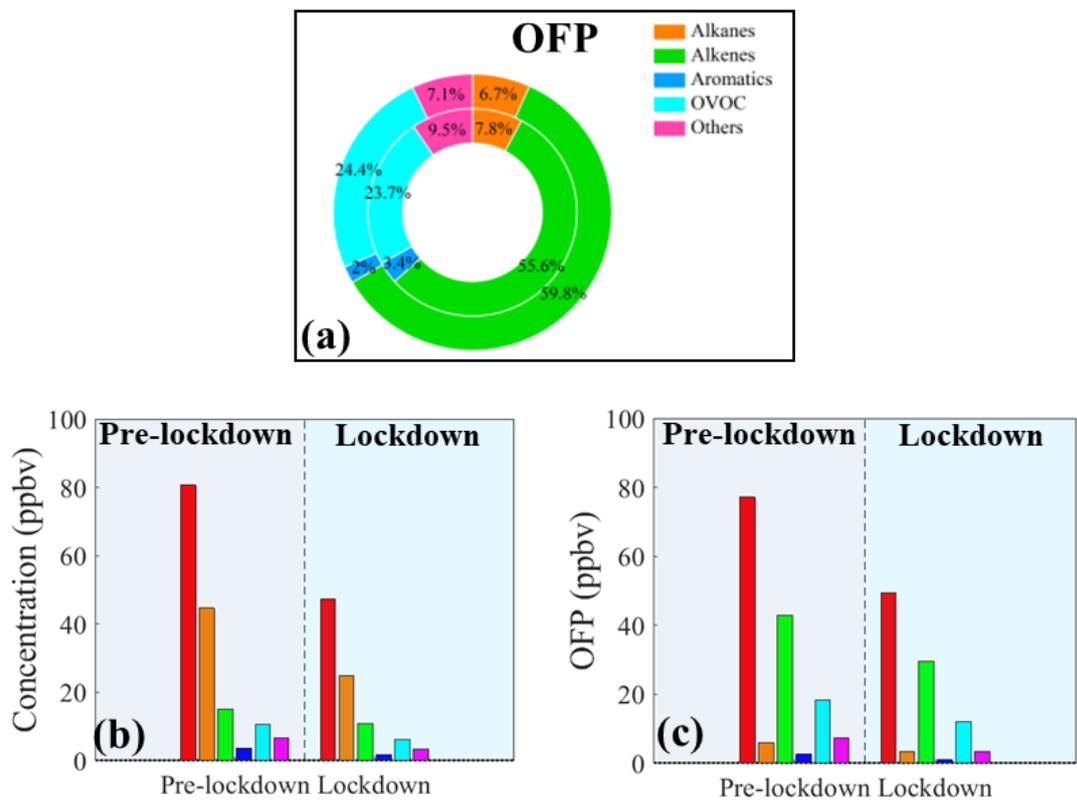
621 **Figure 1** Temporal variations of meteorological parameters (e.g., T, RH, P) and gaseous pollutants
622 (e.g., SO₂, O₃) during the whole observation. The date is shown in the format month/day/year.



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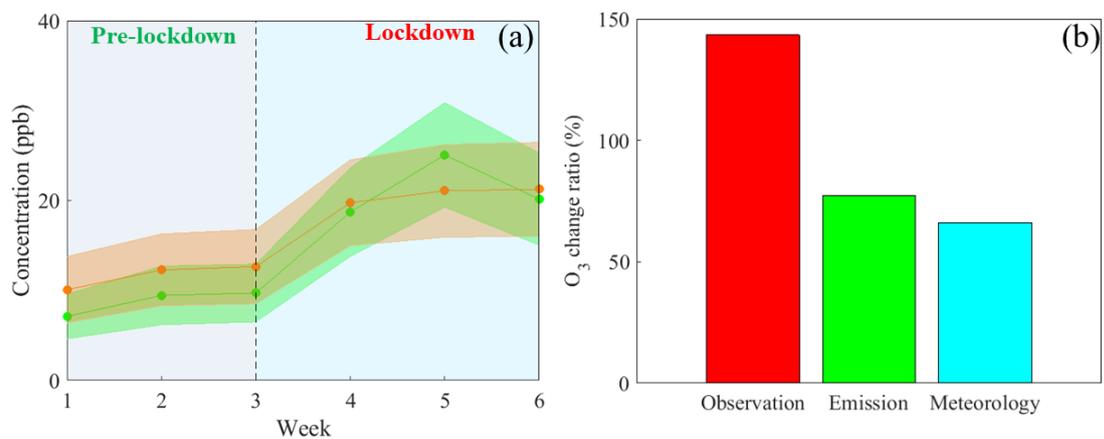
624

625 **Figure 2** The OFP contribution ratios of VOC species (a). The absolute concentrations (b) and OFP
 626 values (c) during pre-lockdown and lockdown periods.



627

628 **Figure 3** Comparison of observed O₃ (green) and normalized O₃ concentrations (orange) during
629 pre-lockdown and lockdown periods (a). The O₃ change ratios derived from observation, emission,
630 and meteorology.

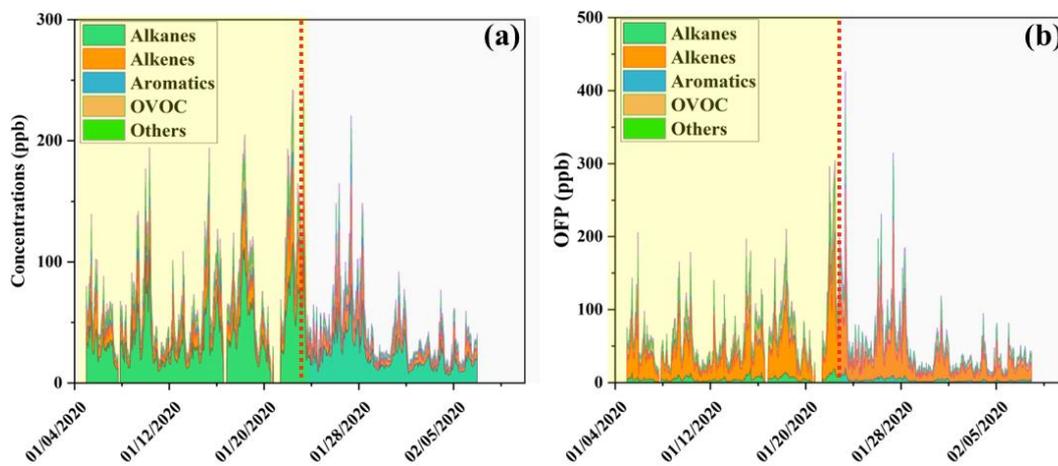


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634 **Figure 4** The temporal variations of absolute concentrations (a) and OFP (b) for VOC species during
635 the whole sampling period. The yellow and white episodes represent the pre-lockdown and
636 lockdown periods.

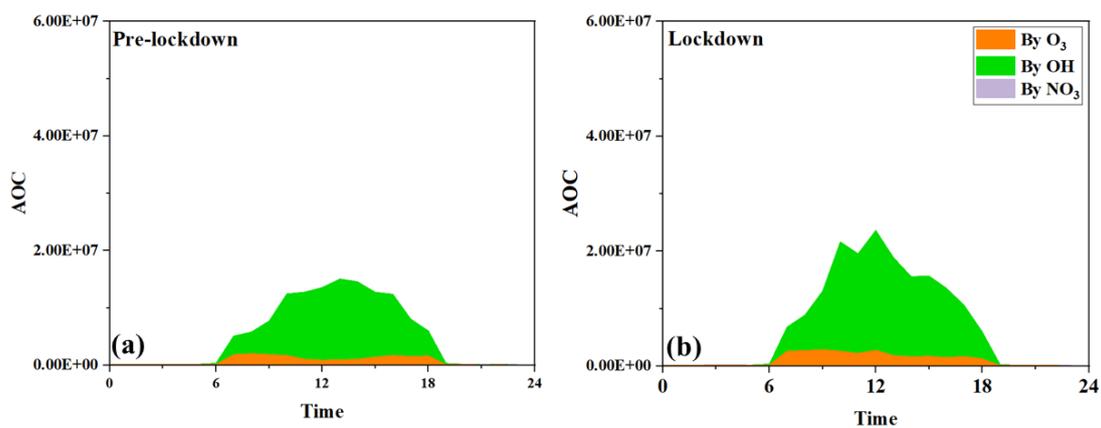


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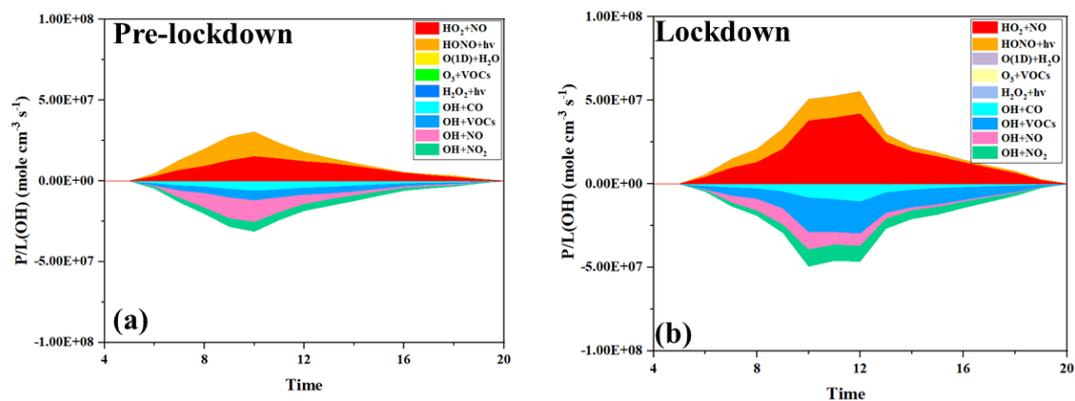
640 **Figure 5** Hourly variations of model-estimated AOC contributed by O₃, OH, and NO₃ radical during
641 pre-lockdown and lockdown periods (Unit: molecules cm⁻³).



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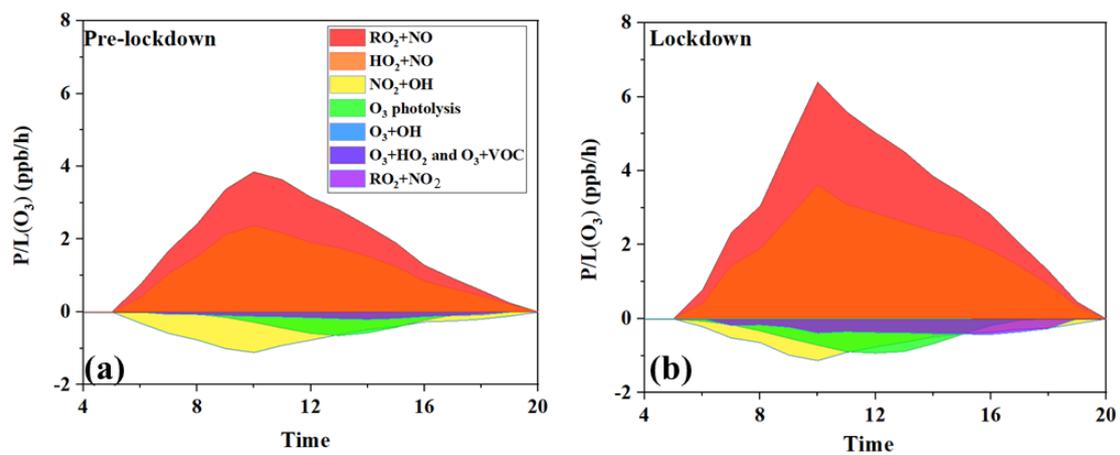
644 **Figure 6** Daytime variation of OH budget during pre-lockdown and lockdown periods.



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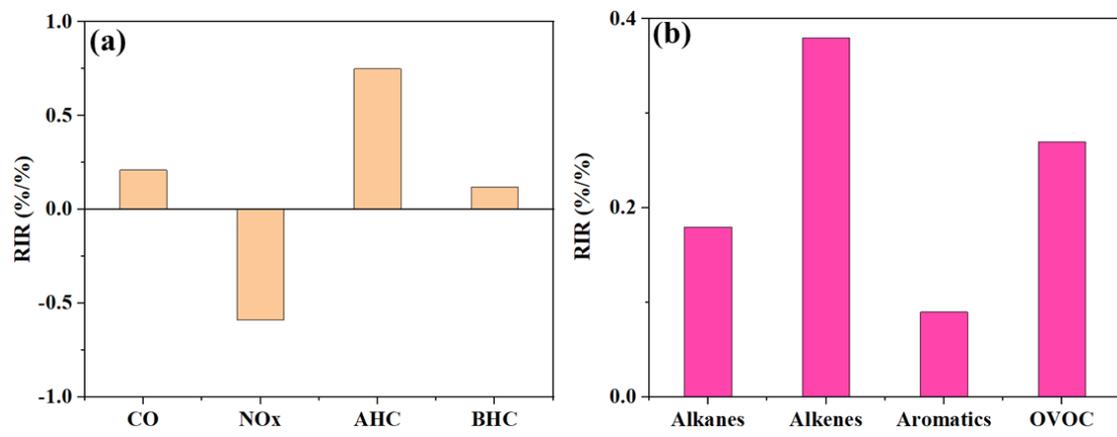
647 **Figure 7** Daytime variation of O₃ budget during pre-lockdown and lockdown periods.



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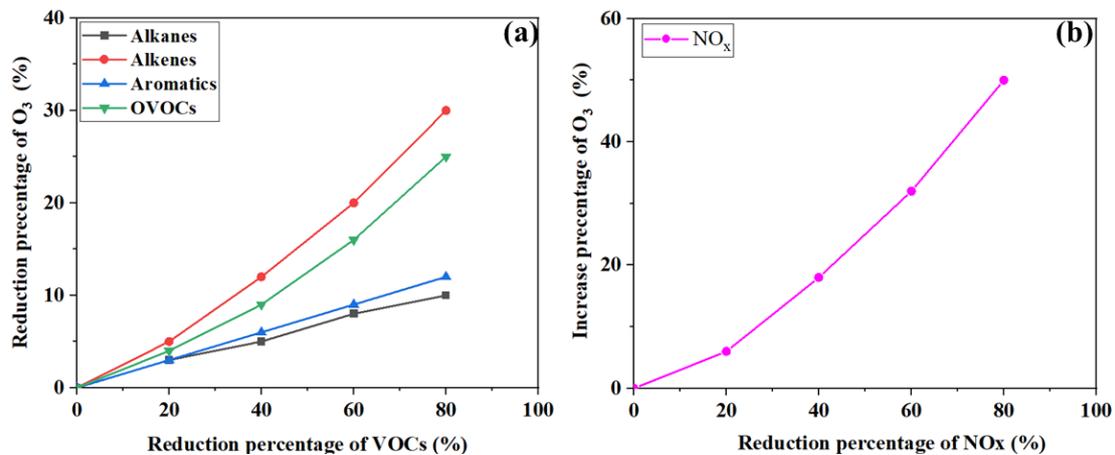
649

650 **Figure 8** The model-estimated RIR values for major O₃ precursor groups and (b) the sub-groups of
651 anthropogenic VOC species.



652

653 **Figure 9** Reduction percentage of O₃ as a function of the reduction percentage of VOCs (a); increase
654 percentage of O₃ as a function of the reduction percentage of NO_x (b).



655

Supplementary Information

Title: Elucidating the mechanisms of rapid O₃ increase in North China Plain during COVID-19 lockdown period

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Number of pages: 8

Number of figures: 4

Number of tables: 2

Figure S1 The topographic map of China reflecting the location of Tangshan (a), diamond sampling site (b). The yellow circles represent some key sampling sites.

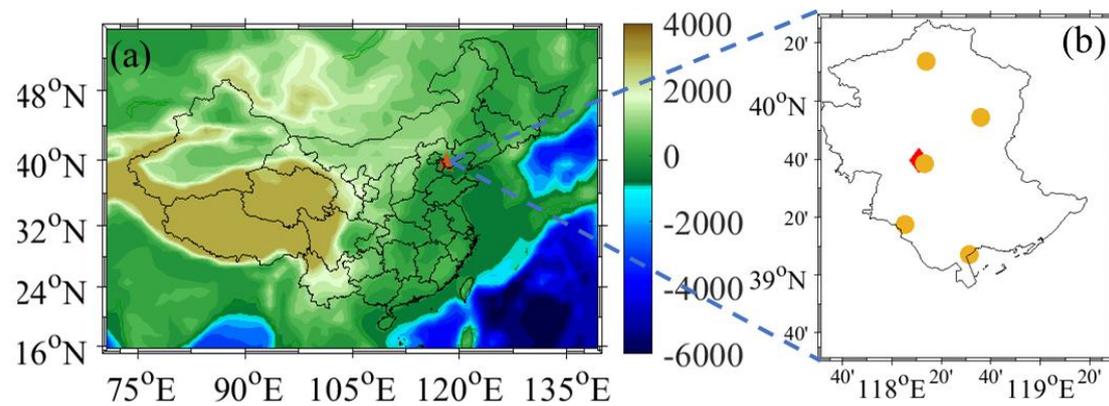


Figure S2 Diurnal patterns of gaseous pollutants and meteorological parameters during the whole period in Tangshan. The error bar is the standard error.

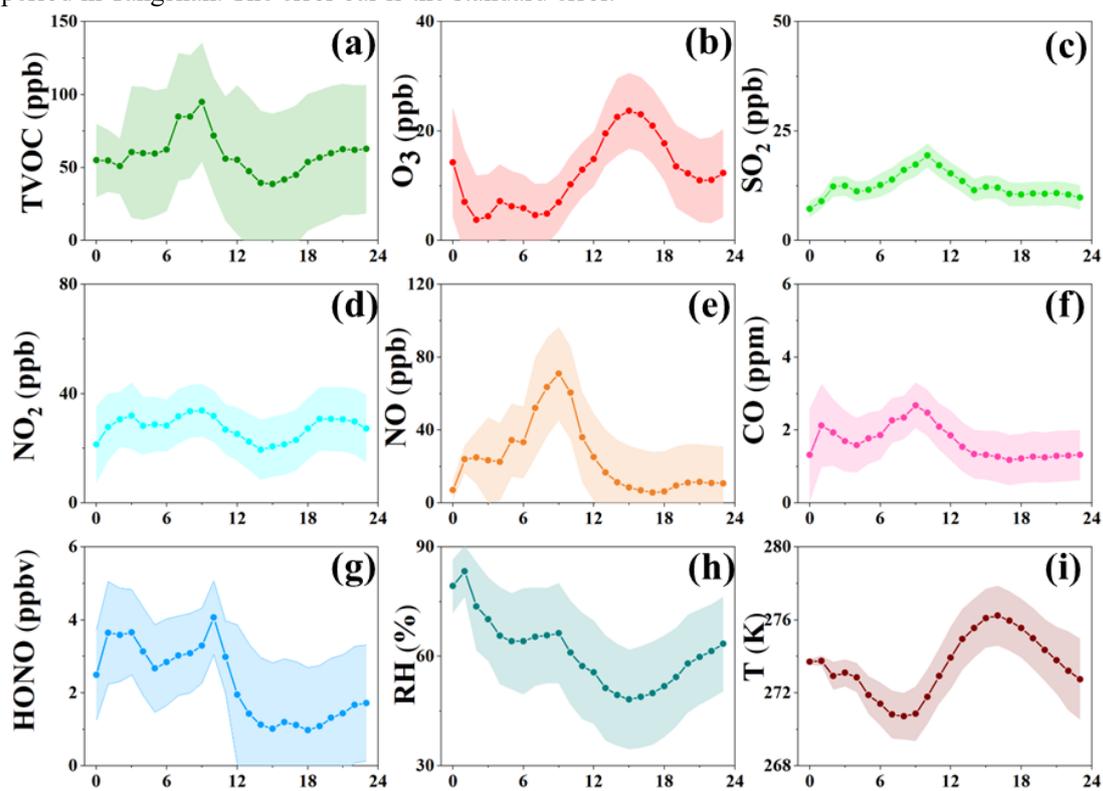


Figure S3 Response curves of O₃ concentration to changes in (a) air temperature (T), (b) relative humidity (RH), (c) pressure (P), and (d) wind speed (WS). The y axis denotes the smoothing function values. The x axis represents the meteorological parameter. The vertical short lines denote the concentration distribution characteristics of the meteorological parameters, and the shaded area around the solid line reflects the 95 % confidence interval of O₃ concentration.

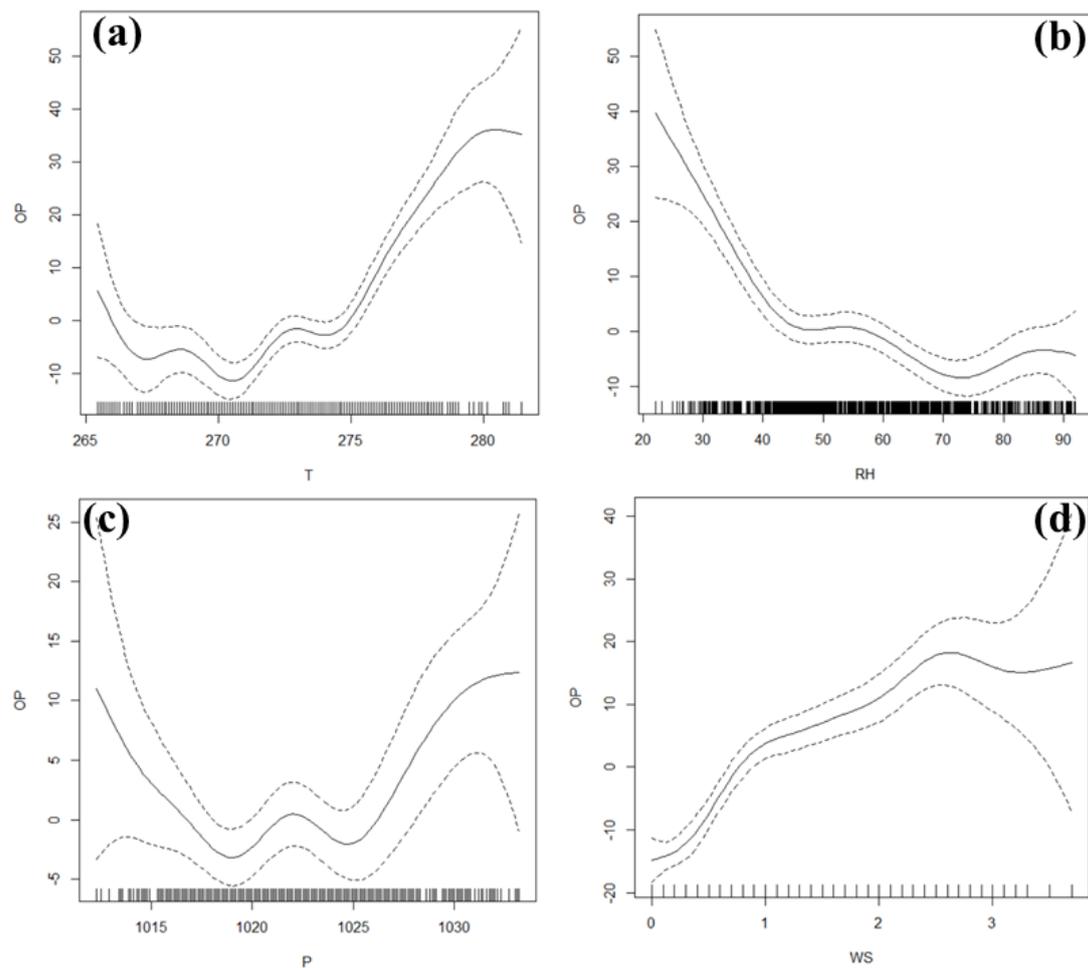


Figure S4 The contribution of HO₂+NO to O₃ formation without aerosol module and with aerosol module before (a) and after lockdown (b).

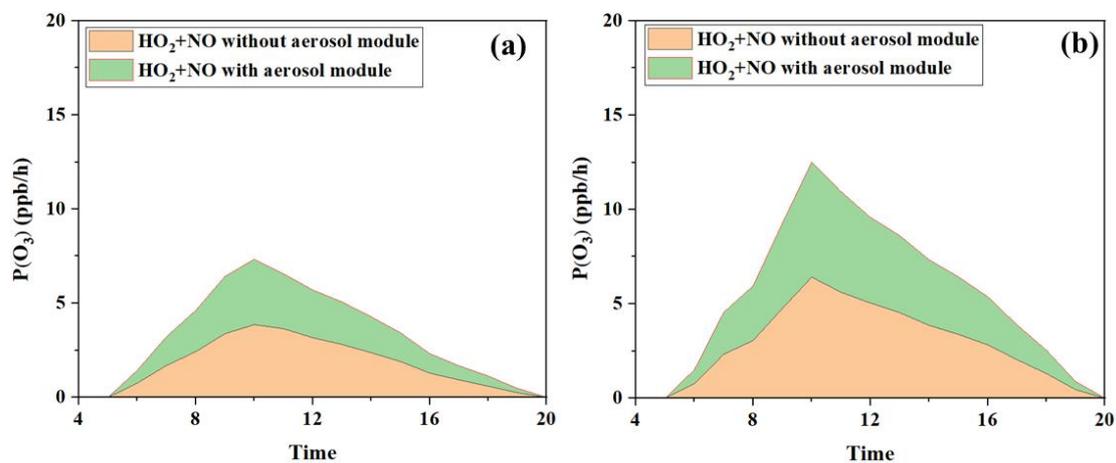


Table S1 All of measured VOC species in our study used to assess the O₃ budget.

VOC species	Classification
toluene	Aromatics
m/p-xylene	Aromatics
o-xylene	Aromatics
benzene	Aromatics
ethylbenzene	Aromatics
styrene	Aromatics
1,2,4-trimethylbenzene	Aromatics
ethyltoluene	Aromatics
isopropylbenzene	Aromatics
1,3,5-trimethylbenzene	Aromatics
1,2,3-trimethylbenzene	Aromatics
n-propylbenzene	Aromatics
dichloromethane	Other VOC species
1,2-dichloroethane	Other VOC species
chloromethane	Other VOC species
1,2-dichloropropane	Other VOC species
bromomethane	Other VOC species
trichloroethene	Other VOC species
acetylene	Other VOC species
acetone	OVOCs
2-butanone	OVOCs
2-propanol	OVOCs
acrolein	OVOCs
2-methoxy-2-methylpropane	OVOCs
2-hexanone	OVOCs
ethane	Alkanes
propane	Alkanes
isopentane	Alkanes
n-butane	Alkanes
n-dodecane	Alkanes
n-pentane	Alkanes
n-hexane	Alkanes
isobutane	Alkanes
n-heptane	Alkanes
3-methylhexane	Alkanes
3-methylpentane	Alkanes
2-methylhexane	Alkanes
2-methylpentane	Alkanes
2,3-dimethylbutane	Alkanes
cyclohexane	Alkanes
n-undecane	Alkanes
n-octane	Alkanes

n-nonane	Alkanes
n-decane	Alkanes
ethene	Alkenes
propene	Alkenes
isoprene	Alkenes
trans-2-pentene	Alkenes
cis-2-butene	Alkenes
1-butene	Alkenes
1-pentene	Alkenes
1-hexane	Alkenes
1,3-butadiene	Alkenes
trans-2-butene	Alkenes

Table S2 Comparison of meteorological parameters before and after COVID-19 lockdown.

Periods	T	RH	P	WS
Pre-lockdown	273	58.4	1019	0.91
Lockdown	273	60.4	1023	1.26

