

1 **Current status of model predictions on volatile organic compounds and impacts**  
2 **on surface ozone predictions during summer in China**

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17 **Abstract**

18 Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) play a crucial role in the formation of  
19 tropospheric ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and secondary organic aerosols. VOC emissions are generally  
20 considered to have larger uncertainties compared to other pollutants, such as sulphur  
21 dioxide and fine particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>). Although predictions of O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> have  
22 been extensively evaluated in air quality modelling studies, there has been limited  
23 reporting on the evaluation of VOCs, mainly due to a lack of routine VOCs  
24 measurements at multiple sites. In this study, we utilized VOCs measurements from the  
25 ATMSYC project at 28 sites across China and assessed the predicted VOCs  
26 concentrations using the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model with the  
27 widely used Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC). The ratio of  
28 predicted to observed total VOCs was found to be  $0.74 \pm 0.40$ , with underpredictions  
29 ranging from 2.05 to 50.61 ppbv (5.77% to 85.40%) at 24 sites. A greater bias in VOCs  
30 predictions was observed in industrial cities in the north and southwest, such as Jinan,  
31 Shijiazhuang, Lanzhou, Chengdu, and Guiyang. In terms of different VOC components,  
32 alkanes, alkenes, non-naphthalene aromatics (ARO2MN), alkynes and HCHO had  
33 prediction-to-observation ratios of  $0.53 \pm 0.38$ ,  $0.51 \pm 0.48$ ,  $0.31 \pm 0.38$ ,  $0.41 \pm 0.47$   
34 and  $1.21 \pm 1.61$ , respectively. Sensitivity experiments were conducted to assess the  
35 impact of the VOCs prediction bias on O<sub>3</sub> predictions. While emission adjustments  
36 improved the model performance for VOCs, resulting in a ratio of total VOCs to  $0.86$   
37  $\pm 0.47$ , they also exacerbated O<sub>3</sub> overprediction relative to the base case by 0.62% to  
38 6.27% across the sites. This study demonstrates that current modelling setups and  
39 emission inventories are likely to underpredict VOCs concentrations, and this  
40 underprediction of VOCs contributes to lower O<sub>3</sub> predictions in China.

41 **Keywords:** *volatile organic compounds, O<sub>3</sub> prediction, model evaluation, emissions*

## 42 **1. Introduction**

43 Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the ambient atmosphere consist of  
44 thousands of gaseous organic trace substances emitted from various anthropogenic and  
45 biogenic sources (Guenther et al., 2012; Li et al., 2017a; Kelly et al., 2018). These  
46 compounds undergo complex chemical reactions that form ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and secondary  
47 organic aerosols (SOA) (Sillman, 1999; Kroll and Seinfeld, 2008). While biogenic  
48 VOCs (BVOCs) are the primary source of VOCs worldwide (Guenther et al., 2006),  
49 urban areas are predominantly influenced by anthropogenic sources (Guan et al., 2020;  
50 Guo et al., 2022; Li et al., 2022a). Anthropogenic VOCs (AVOCs) emission inventories  
51 are typically developed by estimating the total VOCs emissions using emission factors  
52 (EFs) and activity rates from different sources. The VOCs speciation profiles are then  
53 utilized to determine the emission rates of various VOCs species (Li et al., 2017a). Due  
54 to the complexity of VOCs emission processes and presence of numerous small but  
55 dispersed nonpoint sources, notable uncertainties exist while determining EFs, activity  
56 rates, and speciation profiles. It is estimated that the uncertainties associated with VOCs  
57 emissions range from approximately 68% to 76%, which are higher than those of  
58 sulphur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) (12% to 40%), nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>x</sub>) (31% to 35%), and  
59 particulate matter (PM) (30% to 94%) (Zhang et al., 2009; Li et al., 2019; Kurokawa  
60 and Ohara, 2020; An et al., 2021).

61 Chemical transport models (CTMs), such as the Community Multiscale Air  
62 Quality (CMAQ) model, Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with  
63 Chemistry (WRF-Chem), and Goddard Earth Observing System Chemical transport  
64 model (GEOS-Chem) have been developed and widely used to investigate the  
65 formation processes, source apportionment, and emission control strategies for various  
66 air pollution issues (Zhang et al., 2021; Dang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). The

67 emissions of VOCs, along with other species such as SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, ammonia, and PM,  
68 serve as essential inputs driving air quality model simulations. Uncertainties in VOCs  
69 emissions notably impact air quality modelling for O<sub>3</sub>, SOA, and total fine particulate  
70 matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>). A study conducted in the United States reported a substantial  
71 underprediction of VOCs emission inventories in urban regions (McDonald et al., 2018),  
72 particularly for volatile chemical products (VCPs). A simulation study that developed  
73 four cases based on the baseline inventory demonstrated that augmented VOCs  
74 emission inventories have notable effects on O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, highlighting the need for  
75 more detailed VCPs emissions in the inventory to improve model performance (Zhu et  
76 al., 2019). In China, notable discrepancies in aromatics have been observed between  
77 CMAQ predictions and measurements (Wang et al., 2020). Wu et al. (2022) reconciled  
78 the bottom-up methodology and measurement constraints to improve the city-scale  
79 non-methane VOCs (NMVOCs) emission inventory in Nanjing, resulting in improved  
80 O<sub>3</sub> simulation performance with the CMAQ model.

81 Model evaluation serves as the initial step in establishing confidence in air quality  
82 model predictions for further analysis. Numerous studies have conducted evaluations  
83 of the predicted O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in China (Hu et al., 2016; Li et al., 2021b;  
84 Li et al., 2020). Overall, the predictions of O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations generally align  
85 with the observations (Shi et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2021), although substantial biases  
86 have been reported in certain circumstances and for specific species, such as O<sub>3</sub> and  
87 SOA (Gong et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2020; Hu et al., 2017; Qin et al., 2018). Given that  
88 VOCs are key precursors of O<sub>3</sub> and SOA, evaluating VOCs predictions can help  
89 elucidate the causes of these substantial biases in predictions. However, VOCs  
90 evaluations in regional modelling studies have been infrequent due to limited  
91 measurement data. Ambient VOCs have been measured at different locations in China

92 in various studies (Yang et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022a). Unlike O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, which  
93 are routinely monitored across major cities and regions in China, VOCs are often  
94 measured over short periods at one or specific sites. Different studies may employ  
95 different instruments and the study periods may vary, making it challenging to compile  
96 VOCs measurement data from multiple studies for a comprehensive model evaluation.

97 In this study, we conducted VOCs evaluations in China by utilizing summertime  
98 observations from 28 sites located in different regions of the country, as part of the  
99 "Towards an Air Toxic Management System in China (ATMSYC)" project (Lyu et al.,  
100 2020). This study aimed to assess the disparities between measured VOC  
101 concentrations and predictions in various regions of China using the widely used  
102 CMAQ model. We quantified the impacts of VOC biases on O<sub>3</sub> predictions through  
103 emission adjustments based on observation-prediction differences. The results of this  
104 study indicated that the model performance of VOCs in China still has much room to  
105 improve, likely with a focus on updating emission inventories in fast-growing industrial  
106 cities. Most sites underpredicted TVOCs, and the biases of alkenes significantly  
107 impacted O<sub>3</sub> production. These findings enhanced our understanding of the current  
108 VOC modelling in air quality models, which could help to improve VOC emission  
109 inventory and O<sub>3</sub> prediction in the future.

## 110 **2. Materials and Methods**

### 111 2.1. Observation data

112 The ATMSYC project involved a collaborative sampling campaign at 28 sites in 18  
113 cities across China, conducted from 6 June to 24 August, 2018, with speciated VOC  
114 measurements as part of the observation task (Lyu et al., 2020). Detailed site  
115 information and sampling times can be found in Table S1. Measurements were taken at  
116 intervals of two or four hours between 8:00 and 16:00. The offline measurement

117 techniques, and data quality assurance and quality controls (QA/QC), which were  
118 consistent across all sites, have been previously described (Lyu et al., 2019; Lyu et al.,  
119 2020; Liu et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023). Briefly, stainless steel canisters and 2,4-  
120 dinitrophenylhydrazine (DNPH) cartridges were utilized to collect non-methane  
121 hydrocarbons (NMHCs) and oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs), respectively. NMHCs were  
122 quantified using a gas chromatograph (GC) coupled with a mass spectrometry detector  
123 (MSD), electron capture detector (ECD), and flame ionization detector (FID) (the GC-  
124 FID system for C<sub>2</sub>-C<sub>3</sub> species, and GC-MSD/ECD for other NMHCs). OVOC samples  
125 were analyzed by high-performance liquid chromatography. The accuracies for the  
126 NMHC measurements ranged from -22.58%–8.71%, with precisions of 0.86%–25.89%  
127 (Zhou et al., 2023). More details regarding the measurements can be found in  
128 Supplement S.1. From the ATMSYC dataset, we selected 61 representative VOCs  
129 species and classified them into 20 categories, according to the SAPRC07 mechanism  
130 (Carter, 2010) to facilitate comparison with model predictions. These species can be  
131 categorized into five groups: alkanes, alkenes, aromatics, alkynes, and formaldehyde  
132 (HCHO). Further details regarding these specific classifications are mentioned in Table  
133 S2.

134 Observations of O<sub>3</sub> and nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) were collected from 28 ground  
135 sites, sourced from the Chinese Ministry of Ecology and Environment  
136 (<https://www.mee.gov.cn/>, last accessed on 20 April 2022), to assess the simulation  
137 performance of the modelled O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub>. To evaluate the impact of meteorological  
138 conditions, we also collected observation data of meteorological variables (temperature  
139 (T<sub>2</sub>), relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS) and wind direction (WD)) from the  
140 nearest meteorological stations to the 28 sites from the Chinese Meteorological Agency  
141 (<http://data.cma.cn/en>, last accessed on 27 April 2022).

## 142 2.2. Model Configurations

143 The CMAQ version 5.2 model (Appel et al., 2018), coupled with the  
144 SAPRC07TIC mechanism and aerosol module AERO6i, was utilized to simulate air  
145 quality across China from June to August 2018 (Mao et al., 2022). Meteorological fields  
146 were generated using WRF version 4.2.1, employing a  $1.0^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$  resolution FNL  
147 reanalysis dataset from the National Centre for Atmospheric Research (NCAR). The  
148 specific settings of WRF were consistent with those described by Mao et al. (2022), and  
149 the simulation performance of the meteorological fields was verified (Mao et al., 2022).  
150 The modelling domain with a horizontal resolution of 36 km is shown in Figure 1,  
151 which divides China into seven regions: the North China Plain (NCP), Northwest,  
152 Northeast, Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Central China, Southwest, and South China  
153 (with a higher concentration of sites in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) region).

154 We utilized the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) v1.3 with  
155 a resolution of  $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$  in 2017 (<http://www.meicmodel.org>, last accessed on 25  
156 January 2022) for anthropogenic emissions within China. For anthropogenic emissions  
157 outside of China, we employed the Regional Emission Inventory in Asia (REAS) v3.2  
158 in 2015 (<https://www.nies.go.jp/REAS/>, last accessed on 25 January 2022). Biogenic  
159 emissions were generated using the Model for Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from  
160 Nature (MEGAN) v2.1 (Guenther et al., 2012), which were then mapped to 27  
161 SAPRC07TIC species, including isoprene (ISOP),  $\alpha$ -pinene (APIN), and other BVOCs.  
162 Further details on the biogenic emissions can be found in (Li et al., 2022b). Open  
163 biomass burning emissions were processed using the Fire Inventory (NCAR FINN,  
164 <https://www2.acom.ucar.edu/modeling/finn-fire-inventory-ncar>, last accessed on 28  
165 January 2022).

166 Most emission inventories commonly employ a lumped mechanism to represent

167 VOCs. Li et al. (2014) introduced a method to allocate individual non-methane VOC  
168 (NMVOC) emissions in the MEIC inventory to species groups using multiple chemical  
169 mechanisms, utilizing mechanism-specific mapping tables from Carter (2013). This  
170 method has been widely adopted in CTMs. In this study, we followed this approach and  
171 utilized a speciation profile processor called Spec DB, which is available from  
172 <https://intra.engr.ucr.edu/~carter/emitdb/>, provided by Carter, to generate the speciation  
173 profiles. The mapping scheme for the SAPRC07TIC mechanism in the MEIC and open  
174 biomass burning was updated based on the step-by-step assignment framework of the  
175 SAPRC07 mechanism provided by the MEIC team.

176 In this study, we examined the performance of CMAQ simulations during the  
177 observation period of the ATMSYC project. The days prior to 6 June were considered  
178 as a spin-up period. The simulated VOCs values at each site were matched with the  
179 observation time to obtain the average concentration during the same period. This  
180 duration was defined as the study period.

### 181 2.3. Adjustment of VOCs emissions

182 Emissions were adjusted for several species that exhibited significant deviations  
183 in simulations. The adjustment factors for emissions were determined by calculating  
184 the median of the ratio between observed and predicted values at 18 urban sites, which  
185 provided an average measure of the deviation for each species. Sensitivity experiments  
186 were conducted to examine the impact of the updated VOCs emissions on both  
187 predicted VOCs and O<sub>3</sub> levels. To quantify the effect of unit increments in VOCs on O<sub>3</sub>  
188 concentrations, the Relative Incremental Reactivity (RIR) was calculated. The RIR is a  
189 commonly used metric in observation-based model studies (Cardelino and Chameides,  
190 1995) to assess the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> to individual precursors such as NO<sub>x</sub> and various  
191 types of VOCs. The calculation of RIR is based on Equation (1):



192 
$$RIR(X) = \frac{(N_{O_3}(X) - B_{O_3}(X)) / B_{O_3}(X)}{(N_X(X) - B_X(X)) / B_X(X)} \quad (1)$$

193 In the equation, X represents a specific VOCs species, while  $B_{O_3}$  and  $N_{O_3}$  represent the  
194  $O_3$  concentrations in the base and adjusted emission case for X, respectively. The  
195 denominator on the right-hand side of the equation represents the relative change in  
196 emissions after the adjustment for X.

### 197 **3. Results**

#### 198 3.1. Model performance evaluation

##### 199 3.1.1. Evaluation of $O_3$ and $NO_2$

200 Figure 2 displays the performance of the CMAQ model for the maximum daily 8-  
201 hour average (MDA8)  $O_3$  and  $NO_2$  concentrations at 28 sites. Model performance was  
202 assessed using statistical parameters, including the normalized mean bias (NMB),  
203 normalized mean error (NME), and correlation coefficient (R). The specific values of  
204 these statistical metrics can be found in Table S3. The results indicated that the model  
205 predictions complied with the observations at most sites in the NCP, Central China, and  
206 Southwest, with only slight underpredictions observed at Lanzhou's urban station (LZ-  
207 U; NMB = -0.18) and Shanghai's background station (SH-B; NMB = -0.16), and a  
208 slight overprediction at Shanghai's urban station (SH-U; NMB = 0.20). However, in the  
209 PRD, overpredictions of MDA8  $O_3$  were observed in locations such as Shenzhen's  
210 station (SZ; NMB = 0.39) and Foshan's station (FS; NMB = 0.32), despite the  
211 correlation coefficients being higher than the performance criteria at most sites. The  
212 CMAQ's  $NO_2$  predictions exhibited underpredictions for most cities in the Northwest,  
213 PRD, and some background sites, but substantial overpredictions were evident in  
214 certain urban sites, such as Chengdu's urban station (CD-U; NMB = 0.92) and SZ  
215 (NMB = 0.52).

##### 216 3.1.2. Evaluation of VOCs

217 Figure 3 presents the observed VOCs concentrations and corresponding CMAQ  
218 simulations across all the sites during the observation period. The proportions of the  
219 three categorized VOCs groups, namely alkanes, alkenes, and aromatics, are depicted  
220 in detail in Figure S1. The results revealed low predicted VOCs concentrations at most  
221 sites, with particularly markable underestimation in certain areas. Table S4 displays the  
222 mean values of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and total VOCs (TVOCs, encompassing the VOCs considered  
223 in this study) concentrations at the 28 sites throughout the study period. As indicated in  
224 Table 1, the predicted/observed ratio (referred to as ratio here after) of TVOCs is 0.74  
225 ± 0.40. The underprediction ranged from 2.05 to 50.61 ppbv (5.77% to 85.40%) at 24  
226 sites, while overpredictions occurred at four sites, namely SH-U, CU-U, Wuhan's  
227 background station (WH-B), and FS, with values ranging from 0.47 to 29.53 ppbv (1.92%  
228 to 89.96%). These findings suggested that the CMAQ model, employing the MEIC  
229 emission inventory, underpredicted TVOCs concentrations. Notably, the  
230 underprediction of TVOCs was more pronounced at sites located in the cities of  
231 Lanzhou, Jinan, Shijiazhuang, Guiyang, and Zhengzhou, where TVOCs were  
232 underpredicted by factors of two to six.

233 The regional averages of the predicted and observed TVOCs were calculated by  
234 averaging the predictions and observations from all the sites in each region (Table S4).  
235 The ratios of observed to predicted TVOCs varied across regions as follows: YRD  
236 (1.04) > Southwest (0.92) > PRD (0.83) > Central China (0.71) > NCP (0.42) >  
237 Northwest (0.16). In Figure S2, despite having the highest observed TVOCs value  
238 (44.08 ppbv), the model results showed a lower concentration (7.04 ppbv) in the  
239 northwest region (specifically in Lanzhou), making it the region with the lowest  
240 predicted value. The predicted TVOCs concentration in the YRD region (Shanghai) was  
241 the closest to the observed value. However, Figure 3 shows that the VOCs

242 concentrations were notably overpredicted at SH-U and underpredicted at SH-B. The  
243 southwest region appeared to have the best performance among all the regions, which  
244 could be due to the overpredicted TVOCs at CD-U, which offsets the underprediction  
245 at other sites. Overall, the predicted and observed TVOCs concentrations exhibited  
246 notable discrepancies in most regions and the performance varied across the regions.

247 Regarding the VOC components shown in Figure S2, alkanes consistently  
248 constituted as the most abundant group of VOCs in both observations (38.3% to 50.6%)  
249 and predictions (31.6% to 44.9%). This suggested that the predicted proportion of  
250 alkanes in TVOCs closely complied with the actual data. Alkenes typically ranked as  
251 the second highest VOC component in observations (14.9% to 31.2%), but they were  
252 underrepresented in the model (16.5% to 20.0%). The predicted proportions of  
253 aromatics (13.1% to 22.8%) and HCHO (15.3% to 28.9%) were higher than in the  
254 observations. In addition, alkynes were predicted to have a minor contribution to  
255 TVOCs. In terms of absolute concentrations, the underestimation of alkanes and  
256 alkenes was relatively pronounced, particularly in the NCP and Northwest regions. The  
257 model performed better in predicting the proportions of various VOCs species in the  
258 PRD and Southwest regions.

259 Figure 4 illustrates the ratios of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and various VOCs species at the 28 sites.  
260 The discrepancies in ratios between urban and background sites are presented in Figure  
261 S3. The ratio of alkanes is  $0.53 \pm 0.38$  (median  $\pm$  standard deviation), indicating an  
262 underprediction of  $5.65 \pm 6.81$  ppbv from a concentration standpoint (Table 1). Notably,  
263 the alkanes whose reaction rate constant with hydroxyl radical (OH) between  $5 \times 10^2$   
264 and  $2.5 \times 10^3$  ppm<sup>-1</sup> min<sup>-1</sup> (ALK2) exhibited the most notable underprediction. The  
265 predictions for aromatics showed minor deviations across different sites, but the median  
266 ratio was close to one, except for ARO2MN, which was substantially underpredicted

267 with a ratio of  $0.31 \pm 0.38$  ( $0.32 \pm 0.46$  at urban sites), and benzene (BENZ), which was  
268  $2.75 \pm 1.97$  at urban sites (Table S5). The ratios for the seven alkenes were generally  
269 high ( $0.51 \pm 0.48$  for alkenes), indicating underprediction in most sites. Particularly,  
270 1,3-butadiene (BDE13) exhibited a notable low ratio, possibly due to its reallocation  
271 from the underpredicted alkenes whose reaction rate constant is greater than  $7 \times 10^4$   
272  $\text{ppm}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$  with OH (OLE2) and the allocation factor may not be universally  
273 applicable across regions. Furthermore, the predicted concentration of acetylene  
274 (ACYE) was lower than observation at all sites ( $0.41 \pm 0.47$  for alkynes), while the  
275 HCHO was slightly overpredicted ( $1.21 \pm 1.61$  for HCHO). Considering that the  
276 observed VOCs species primarily originated from anthropogenic emissions and the  
277 majority of emitted VOCs were contributed by the MEIC, the ratios between urban and  
278 background sites could verify whether the MEIC emission inventory adequately  
279 reflected the differences between urban and background areas.

### 280 3.2. Adjusting VOCs emissions and their impacts on O<sub>3</sub> predictions

281 These findings indicated a bias between the model-predicted VOCs and observed  
282 ambient VOCs concentrations. To evaluate the impact of these biases on O<sub>3</sub> predictions,  
283 we modified the VOCs emissions of the MEIC based on the differences between  
284 observations and predictions. Previous studies have adjusted emission inventories to  
285 match observed constraints for predicting VOCs and O<sub>3</sub> in specific cities (Wu et al.,  
286 2022; Wang et al., 2020). Considering the temporal and spatial variability of the 28 sites,  
287 we calculated the median ratio of VOCs for the 18 urban sites. We selected coefficients  
288 for six representative AVOCs species with deviations exceeding 2.0 times the median,  
289 including ALK2, ARO2MN, BENZ, the alkenes (excluding ethene) whose reaction rate  
290 constant is less than  $7 \times 10^4 \text{ppm}^{-1} \text{min}^{-1}$  with OH (OLE1), propene (PRPE), and ACYE,  
291 and adjusted their emission rates in the MEIC, resulting in six new cases. Additionally,

292 we conducted a case (case\_all) that incorporated the aforementioned adjustments and a  
293 case in which NO<sub>x</sub> was adjusted by 1.5 based on observational constraints. The  
294 adjustment factors for the eight new cases are provided in Table 2.

295 The impact of adjusting VOCs emissions on the concentrations of O<sub>3</sub> and VOCs is  
296 presented in Table S6. The underprediction of simulated VOCs and NO<sub>2</sub> values was  
297 largely reduced for the new case, as indicated in the six cases with single-species  
298 changes and the case\_all. In Table S7, the ratio of TVOCs in case\_all was modified to  
299  $0.86 \pm 0.47$ , demonstrating improved performance in VOCs compared to the base case.  
300 However, it was worth noting that even after the emission adjustment, the predicted  
301 VOCs concentrations remained lower than the observations (particularly for  
302 case\_BENZ). This discrepancy resulted from the varying reactivities of different VOC  
303 species and NO<sub>x</sub> in atmospheric chemical reactions, leading to different levels of  
304 depletion. Additionally, both measured and modelled concentrations were subject to  
305 photochemical losses (Ma et al., 2022b; Shao et al., 2011). The increased VOCs  
306 concentrations resulted in higher O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. Based on the data presented in  
307 Tables S6 and S8, the constrained species ALK2, ARO2MN, OLE1, and PRPE, guided  
308 by observational data, contributed to an increase in O<sub>3</sub> concentration, especially in  
309 case\_all, which led to a more pronounced overpredictions ranging from 0.62% to 6.27%  
310 across all the sites. In contrast, increasing NO<sub>x</sub> had a positive effect and reduced the O<sub>3</sub>  
311 concentration.

312 To illustrate regional pollution levels on a broader scale, Figure 5 displays the  
313 average concentrations of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, and the six previously mentioned VOCs species  
314 studied in China during the specified period.

315 High O<sub>3</sub> levels were particularly prominent in most areas of the NCP, the eastern  
316 part of the Northwest, and the Sichuan Basin in the Southwest. NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations

317 were elevated in the NCP, YRD, and PRD regions, as well as in certain megacities. The  
318 spatial distribution of various VOCs, derived from TVOCs emissions in the MEIC,  
319 exhibited broad consistency, with higher concentrations observed in south-eastern  
320 China. Megacities, akin to NO<sub>2</sub>, displayed elevated VOCs levels. Different cities  
321 exhibited VOCs originating from various sources. ALK2 demonstrated high  
322 concentrations in individual cities but less than 1 ppbv in other regions; thus, displaying  
323 stronger geographical characteristics compared to the other five VOCs. ARO2MN  
324 exhibited the lowest average concentration but exerted a substantial influence on O<sub>3</sub>  
325 due to its higher reactivity. Figure S4 illustrates the effects of altering the emission rates  
326 of NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs in seven scenarios across China. The left panel displays the  
327 concentrations in the new cases, while the middle and right panels show the differences  
328 for corresponding species and O<sub>3</sub> between the new cases and the base case, respectively.  
329 Spatial variations in NO<sub>2</sub> and VOCs exhibited similarities. The increase in NO<sub>2</sub> was  
330 more pronounced in the NCP and YRD regions, where NO<sub>2</sub> concentration was  
331 consistently high. Previous studies indicate that the NCP and YRD regions are  
332 predominantly limited by VOCs during the summer (Li et al., 2017b; Lyu et al., 2019;  
333 Liu et al., 2021), resulting in either no change or a reduction in O<sub>3</sub> when NO<sub>2</sub> increases.  
334 Conversely, in other areas with low NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations, O<sub>3</sub> concentrations increased  
335 by 0 to 10 ppbv. BENZ was the only compound whose concentration decreased, and its  
336 impact on O<sub>3</sub> in different regions mirrored that of NO<sub>2</sub>, albeit at a much lower  
337 concentration. The increased emissions of ALK2, ARO2MN, ACYE, OLE1, and PRPE  
338 favoured O<sub>3</sub> production, with the most notable effects observed in the NCP, YRD, and  
339 other metropolitan areas. Among these compounds, OLE1 exhibited the strongest effect,  
340 while ACYE had a minimal influence.

341 The section 2.3 describes the calculation of the RIR values, which were used to

342 demonstrate the sensitivity of the model-simulated O<sub>3</sub> to VOCs constrained by  
343 observations in different locations. Figure S5 presents the variations in RIR values for  
344 the six VOCs across the 28 sites. OLE1, PRPE, and ARO2MN exhibited a higher RIR  
345 values. Urban areas within the same city displayed a higher RIR values compared to  
346 the background areas. With the exception of Chengdu, Guiyang, Lanzhou's background  
347 station (LZ-B), Guangzhou's background station (GZ-B), and Zhaoqing's station (ZQ),  
348 where O<sub>3</sub> generation was more sensitive to PRPE, other areas showed a greater impact  
349 of OLE1 concentration on O<sub>3</sub>, indicating that adjusting the emission rate of alkenes in  
350 the emission inventory was crucial for simulating changes in O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. For  
351 instance, improvements could be made in LZ-U, Huizhou's station (HZ), and  
352 Jiangmen's station (JM), where O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were underpredicted in the base case.  
353 Special attention should be given to the sites with high RIR values such as SH-U, CD-  
354 U, SZ, Zhuhai's station (ZH), and others, as O<sub>3</sub> generation in these locations will be  
355 highly sensitive to changes in the local VOCs emission inventory. Moreover, ALK2,  
356 ACYE, and BENZ had minimal effects on O<sub>3</sub>, and BENZ even exhibited a negative  
357 RIR values at certain sites.

358 These findings indicated a notable improvement in the underprediction of VOCs  
359 when adjustments were made based on VOCs observations. However, the elevated  
360 VOCs concentrations in the model could lead to increased O<sub>3</sub> formation, thereby  
361 enhancing the model's accuracy in areas where both VOCs and O<sub>3</sub> were underpredicted.  
362 Nonetheless, this adjustment will unavoidably worsen any existing overprediction of  
363 O<sub>3</sub> in the model.

## 364 4. Discussions

### 365 4.1. Large bias in TVOCs predictions at specific sites

366 Significant discrepancies between predicted and observed TVOCs were observed

367 in Lanzhou, Jinan, Shijiazhuang, and Zhengzhou. Lanzhou and Shijiazhuang have  
368 developed petrochemical industries, where high concentrations of VOCs are frequently  
369 detected downwind of industrial areas (Guan et al., 2020; Guo et al., 2022). Figure 3  
370 illustrates that alkanes, alkenes, and aromatics were substantially underpredicted due to  
371 inadequate prediction of industrial areas with high VOCs emissions in the MEIC. Jinan  
372 and Zhengzhou experienced severe air pollution due to heavy industry and traffic  
373 (Zhang et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2022c). The simulated levels of TVOCs were  
374 substantially lower than the observed levels, with alkenes exhibiting an even greater  
375 inaccuracy, being more than 10 times lower in Jinan. At certain sites, the simulated  
376 TVOCs exceeded the measurements, including the CD-U, SH-U, WH-B, and FS sites.  
377 In CD-U, the predicted TVOCs were almost double the measured values, whereas they  
378 were underpredicted in CD-B. In Chengdu, VOCs emissions were dominated by  
379 LPG/NG usage and vehicle emissions in summer, with a higher proportion of low-  
380 carbon alkanes compared to other cities in China (Xiong et al., 2021). It is most likely  
381 that VOC emissions in CD-U were overpredicted. This could also cause high biases of  
382 HCHO, which is mostly generated from secondary production in VOC photochemical  
383 reactions (Atkinson and Arey, 2003; Wu et al., 2023). In SH-U, characterized by a dense  
384 population, the simulation of alkenes, aromatics, and HCHO was approximately twice  
385 that of the measurements. This aligns with the report by Wang et al. (2020)  
386 stating that observation-constrained aromatic emissions were roughly half of the  
387 estimates provided by the MEIC in Shanghai, 2015. Peng et al. (2023) also observed  
388 inconsistencies between the trend of non-methane hydrocarbon emissions in Shanghai  
389 from 2009 to 2015 and the growth trend indicated by the MEIC (Li et al., 2019),  
390 suggesting the effectiveness of local pollution control measures. However, SH-B was  
391 situated in the easternmost part of Chongming Island, which had the minimal local



392 emissions at the 36 km grid resolution. This likely explains the differences observed  
393 between the urban background areas in Shanghai. In the cases of WH-B and FS, which  
394 demonstrated excellent model performance for VOCs, only the overprediction of  
395 aromatics was more pronounced.

396 Heavy O<sub>3</sub> pollution events, primarily limited by VOCs, have been frequently  
397 observed in the PRD region since its rapid development in the last century (Chan et al.,  
398 2006; Shao et al., 2009; Li et al., 2014). In the PRD region, slightly lower TVOCs  
399 simulations were observed at most sites, primarily due to the underestimation of alkanes  
400 and alkenes, while aromatics and HCHO were overestimated. Furthermore, the  
401 differences in VOCs components among the cities in the PRD region could be attributed  
402 to local industry characteristics, and variations in prevention and control policies. For  
403 instance, although the TVOC concentration was well modelled in FS, the simulated  
404 ethene (ETHE) accounted for 35% of the alkenes, lower than the observed fraction of  
405 over 50%. In addition, the predicted HCHO (3.66 ppbv) was much higher than the  
406 observed value (0.42 ppbv). The predicted ETHE in ZH was higher (50% of alkenes)  
407 than the observation (20% of alkenes), while other cities exhibited similar ETHE  
408 percentages. Moreover, the proportion of ISOP in Guangzhou's alkenes was higher than  
409 that in other PRD cities, suggesting effective control of local anthropogenic alkene  
410 emissions, consistent with the findings of Zhao et al. (2022).

#### 411 4.2. Urban-background evaluation

412 Differences in atmospheric VOCs among urban and background areas have been  
413 extensively demonstrated (Sillman, 1999; Shao et al., 2020). As depicted in Figure 6,  
414 we compared the average performance of the model for 18 urban sites and 10  
415 background sites. In urban areas, the predicted TVOCs concentration (23.76 ppbv) was  
416 lower than the observed concentration (32.46 ppbv), primarily due to the

417 underprediction of alkanes, alkenes, and alkynes. Predicted aromatics and HCHO  
418 exhibited higher proportions and concentrations compared to the observations. In the  
419 background areas, TVOCs were also underpredicted, with concentrations lower than  
420 those in urban areas, as indicated by both the observed and predicted values. Each of  
421 the five VOCs showed lower predictions, with alkanes exhibiting the most notable  
422 disparity, with a negative bias of 6.91 ppbv compared to the observation values. This  
423 suggested that the model underpredicted alkanes in urban areas, which were  
424 predominantly derived from the petrochemical industry or fuel evaporation (Wang et  
425 al., 2022a). The predicted proportions of alkanes, aromatics, and HCHO exhibited  
426 urban-background differences consistent with the observations, reflecting the  
427 characteristics of urban and background areas in the model. These differences were well  
428 represented in our horizontal grid resolution of only 36 km. Overall, the CMAQ model  
429 captured the characteristics of urban and background areas in different regions but  
430 underestimated the concentrations of certain individual VOC species.

431 The ratios distinguished between urban and background areas are presented in  
432 Figure S3. The comparison revealed that the alkanes were more prominently  
433 underpredicted in the background area than in the urban area. Xylene (XYL), 1,2,4-  
434 trimethylbenzene (B124), OLE1, OLE2, and PRPE were also underpredicted to a  
435 greater extent in the background area. This could be attributed to the scarcity of  
436 background sites or the model's underprediction of VOCs emissions in the background  
437 area. The model's performance in simulating ISOP, a BVOC, in urban areas was not as  
438 satisfactory as in the background areas, which was consistent with the findings of Ma  
439 et al. (2021) suggesting that MEGAN could underestimate the emissions from urban  
440 green spaces. APIN, an important monoterpene, originating from anthropogenic  
441 emissions from biomass burning and VCPs, could be either underpredicted or

442 disregarded (Wang et al., 2022b; McDonald et al., 2018), resulting in common  
443 underprediction with a median ratio of five in urban-background areas. Additionally,  
444 the simulated HCHO concentrations were higher in the urban areas. Overall, these  
445 results indicated that the model generally performed better for anthropogenic VOCs in  
446 the urban areas. However, there were still a few notable outliers and significant  
447 deviations for a majority of VOCs, particularly those with high chemical reactivity.  
448 These deviations will inevitably impact the model's calculation of photochemical  
449 reactions involved in O<sub>3</sub> generation.

#### 450 4.3. Implications and suggestions

451 Accurately predicting VOCs is crucial for O<sub>3</sub> modelling. However, due to limited  
452 measurement data and uncertainties in emission inventories, accurately simulating the  
453 VOCs across China using CTMs remains challenging.

454 Considerable efforts have been dedicated to the development of VOCs emission  
455 inventories in recent years (Li et al., 2019; An et al., 2021; Chang et al., 2022). However,  
456 our findings indicate a substantial variation in the model performance of VOCs across  
457 different regions and species. Therefore, the inclusion of accurate local emission factors,  
458 activity data, and source profiles is essential. Sha et al. (2021) compiled an integrated  
459 dataset of AVOCs source profiles in China, emphasizing the need for supplementary  
460 and timely updates to these profiles in the future. Apart from anthropogenic emissions,  
461 model resolution, chemical mechanisms, meteorological conditions, and BVOCs  
462 emissions also contribute to the uncertainty of VOCs modelling, thereby affecting the  
463 performance of O<sub>3</sub> modelling (Zhang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022).

464 High-resolution models require higher emission inventory resolution (Li et al.,  
465 2022; An et al., 2021), which can improve simulation performance to a certain extent.  
466 Given the large scope of the model used in this study and the 0.25° × 0.25° horizontal

467 resolution of the MEIC inventory, a resolution of 36 km was chosen to balance  
468 computational efficiency and the preservation of information from the emission  
469 inventory, but inevitably results in deviation of the modelled VOCs and other elements.  
470 On the one hand, urban and background sites in close proximity may be assigned to the  
471 same grid in the model, as shown in Table S3, making it difficult to distinguish the  
472 differences in modelled VOCs between urban and background sites in cities such as  
473 Shijiazhuang, Jinan, Wuhan, and Guiyang; on the other hand, in real atmospheres, even  
474 with close proximity, the observed VOCs may differ greatly in concentration, which is  
475 challenging to capture in a coarse-resolution model. When applying coarse-resolution  
476 emission inventories, increasing the model resolution can enhance the spatial  
477 correlation between observed and predicted concentrations, but does not always  
478 improve simulation performance (Zheng et al., 2021). High-resolution models may  
479 introduce more emission mapping errors, which can be reduced by using coarse-  
480 resolution model grids (Zheng et al., 2021). Therefore, addressing this issue requires  
481 not only finer model resolution but also improved emission inventories.

482 The SAPRC07TIC chemical mechanism used in this study has been proven  
483 reliable in previous model applications (Qin et al., 2022), reducing the computational  
484 effort compared to the explicit MCM mechanism (Li et al., 2015) while retaining the  
485 chemical reactivity of various VOCs. However, the lumped VOCs species contain more  
486 VOCs species than those in corresponding observations. Therefore, if both the emission  
487 inventory and model are sufficiently accurate, the predicted values should theoretically  
488 be higher.

489 Notably, this study revealed that the model overpredicted HCHO, while some  
490 previous studies tend to show underprediction (Luecken et al., 2018; Li et al., 2022b).  
491 The biases could result from uncertainties in VOC emissions, chemical mechanisms,

492 model resolution, etc. In general, HCHO is mainly contributed by oxidations of reactive  
493 VOCs such as ISOP, ETHE, PRPE, and toluene (TOLU) (Simpson et al., 2010; Wei et  
494 al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023). The overprediction of HCHO suggests that there may be  
495 excessive emissions of these VOCs or that the reaction rates of some VOCs with OH  
496 radicals were overpredicted in the model. Secondly, HCHO predictions could vary by  
497 25–40% with different chemical mechanisms, likely due to differences in hydrogen  
498 oxide radicals ( $\text{HO}_x$ ) and VOCs grouping (Knote et al., 2015; Luecken et al., 2018).  
499 Lastly, finer model resolution could improve the representation of HCHO, especially at  
500 grids where HCHO was substantially affected by point sources (e.g., petrochemical  
501 facilities), as has been reported in (Parrish et al., 2012). Considering HCHO is an  
502 important source of  $\text{HO}_x$  radicals and drives ozone production (Wittrock et al., 2006;  
503 Li et al., 2021a), more investigations are warranted to improve the model performance  
504 of HCHO in the future.

505 Meteorology bias also contributed to some bias of the VOCs predictions. We added  
506 evaluation of the meteorology predictions in this study, and the results are shown in  
507 Table S9 and S10. The results are consistent with other studies in China (Mao et al.,  
508 2022; Wang et al., 2021). It is observed that temperature is overpredicted at most sites,  
509 while RH is mostly underpredicted. The combination of high temperature and low RH  
510 facilitates the consumption of VOCs through photochemical reactions, which may  
511 explain the tendency of our modelled VOCs to be underestimated. But we believe it is  
512 insufficient to account for the underestimation of low-reactivity VOC species (mainly  
513 alkanes). Furthermore, the modelled wind speeds slightly exceed the observations,  
514 which may also contribute to VOCs underprediction (Table S10). While the bias in  
515 meteorological conditions contributes to the underestimation of modelled VOCs, the  
516 underestimated VOCs emissions is the key factor for the VOCs underprediction across

517 most of the cities.

518 In this study, the adjustment of VOCs emissions resulted in increased predicted  
519 emission levels, subsequently leading to higher O<sub>3</sub> predictions. However, these  
520 adjustments are simplistic and fail to account for regional variations in VOCs biases.  
521 The accuracy of VOCs measurement data is also crucial. Therefore, there is a need to  
522 promote the establishment of a national O<sub>3</sub> precursor monitoring network and develop  
523 a standardized framework with quality control systems. This would facilitate the  
524 comparability of VOCs measurements between regions, thereby supporting related  
525 research and the implementation of collaborative regional prevention and control  
526 measures.

## 527 **5. Conclusion**

528 In this study, we conducted a comprehensive evaluation of the simulation  
529 performance of VOCs using the CMAQ model and investigated the influence of  
530 predicted VOCs on O<sub>3</sub> formation. The inclusion of summertime-observed VOCs data  
531 from the ATMSYC project for 28 sites in China enhanced the spatiotemporal  
532 comparability of our model evaluation.

533 During the study period, TVOCs were found to be underpredicted by  $14.1 \pm 13.2$   
534 ppbv at 24 sites, except for SH-U, CD-U, WH-B, and FS. Despite some sites exhibiting  
535 similar TVOCs concentrations, differences still persisted in their specific components.  
536 After considering the uncertainties of the MEIC inventory and relevant factors, we  
537 found several sites with substantial inaccuracies, such as Jinan, Shijiazhuang, Lanzhou,  
538 Chengdu, and Guiyang. The model's performance in predicting TVOCs and their  
539 components varied across regions, with better predictions observed in urban areas  
540 compared to background areas.

541 Alkanes, alkenes, ARO2MN, and alkynes are generally underpredicted, with ratios

542 of  $0.53 \pm 0.38$ ,  $0.51 \pm 0.48$ ,  $0.31 \pm 0.38$ , and  $0.41 \pm 0.47$ , respectively, except for HCHO  
543 which is overpredicted, with the ratio of  $1.21 \pm 1.61$ . In urban areas, the CMAQ model  
544 exhibited underpredictions for OLE1, ALK2, ARO2MN, PRPE, ACYE, and NO<sub>x</sub>,  
545 ranging from 2.0 to 4.6 times, while overpredicting BENZ by 2.75 times. For sensitivity  
546 experiments, their emissions were adjusted and their impact on O<sub>3</sub> and VOCs was  
547 evaluated. These adjustments improved the model's VOCs performance, resulting in a  
548 change in the ratio of total VOCs to  $0.86 \pm 0.47$ . However, the increased VOCs  
549 contributed to higher reactivity, exacerbating O<sub>3</sub> overpredictions by 0.62% to 6.27%  
550 across the sites. Consequently, RIR values were calculated to depict the varying  
551 reactivities of VOCs in different regions, with OLE1, PRPE, and ARO2MN  
552 contributing the highest RIR values during the study period.

553 Due to the uncertainties present in current VOCs emission inventories, notable  
554 efforts are needed to enhance the development and updating of emission inventories,  
555 particularly in regions characterized by developed industries, evolving energy  
556 structures, and relatively underdeveloped conditions. It is only through improving the  
557 accuracy of VOCs emission inventories that we can ensure reliable model performance  
558 in predicting O<sub>3</sub> levels, thereby establishing a solid foundation for addressing the  
559 escalating issue of O<sub>3</sub> pollution.

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563

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815

816 Table 1. Mean, median, maximum (max), minimum (min), and standard deviation (std)

817 of the Ratios and differences (Diff) for five VOCs groups and TVOCs at 28 sites

		Alkanes	Alkenes	Aromatics	ARO2MN (Aromatics)	Alkynes	HCHO	TVOCs
	mean	0.59	0.60	1.33	0.40	0.55	1.66	0.70
	median	0.53	0.51	1.30	0.31	0.41	1.21	0.74
Ratio(pre/obs)	max	1.87	2.46	3.29	1.96	2.36	8.70	1.90
	min	0.13	0.09	0.10	0.05	0.09	0.25	0.15
	std	0.38	0.48	0.89	0.38	0.47	1.61	0.40
	mean	-6.18	-4.02	0.42	-0.28	-1.16	0.16	-10.78
	median	-5.65	-2.56	0.83	-0.25	-1.04	0.49	-7.57
Diff(pre-obs)	max	14.12	3.50	6.09	0.24	0.87	5.57	29.53
	min	-19.40	-15.50	-8.18	-0.74	-2.64	-8.90	-50.61
	std	6.81	4.69	3.47	0.20	0.97	2.99	16.11

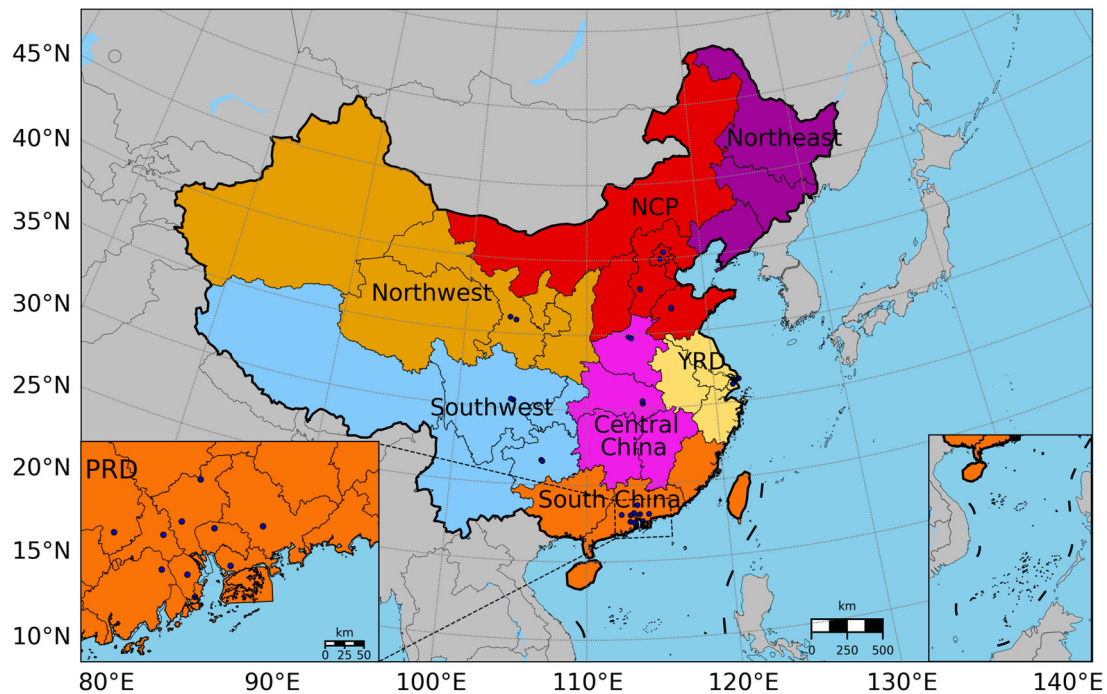
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820 Table 2. New cases of adjusting emission coefficient under observation constraints

Cases in CMAQ	Changing species in MEIC	Adjusted coefficient
base case	--	--
case_NO <sub>x</sub>	NO, NO <sub>2</sub>	1.5
case_ALK2	ALK2	4.6
case_ARO2MN	ARO2MN	3.2
case_BENZ	BENZ	0.4
case_OLE1	OLE1	2.0
case_PRPE	PRPE	2.1
case_ACYE	ACYE	2.8
case_all	all of the above VOCs	

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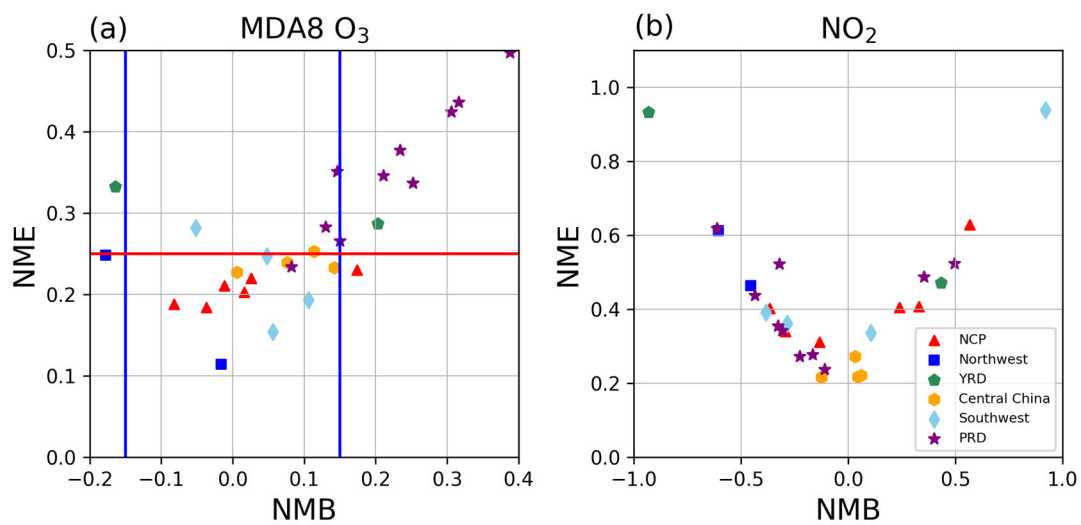


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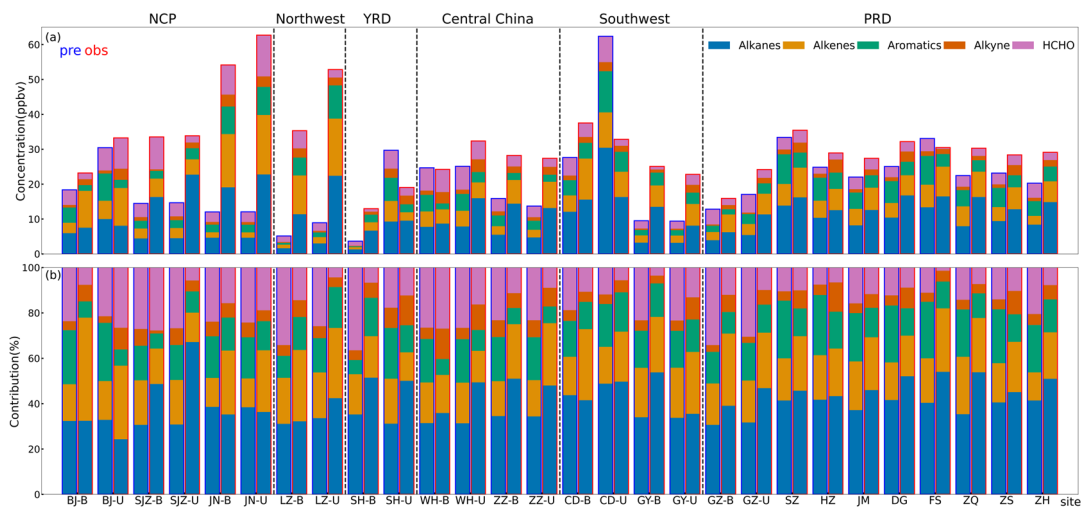
823 Figure 1. The CMAQ modelling domain cover China and the surrounding countries and

824 regions in this study, including 28 blue dots that represent the positions of VOCs

825 sampling sites. We divided China into seven regions according to the geographical  
 826 location of different provinces, which comprise the following sites: NCP: BJ-B, BJ-U,  
 827 SJZ-B, SJZ-U, JN-B, JN-U; Northwest: LZ-B, LZ-U; Northeast (no observation site);  
 828 YRD: SH-B, SH-U; Central China: ZZ-B, ZZ-U, WH-B, WH-U; Southwest: CD-B,  
 829 CD-U, GY-B, GY-U; South China: Most of the sites are concentrated in PRD region  
 830 (shown in the enlarged subgraph in the lower left): GZ-B, GZ-U, SZ, HZ, DG, FS, JM,  
 831 ZQ, ZS, ZH.



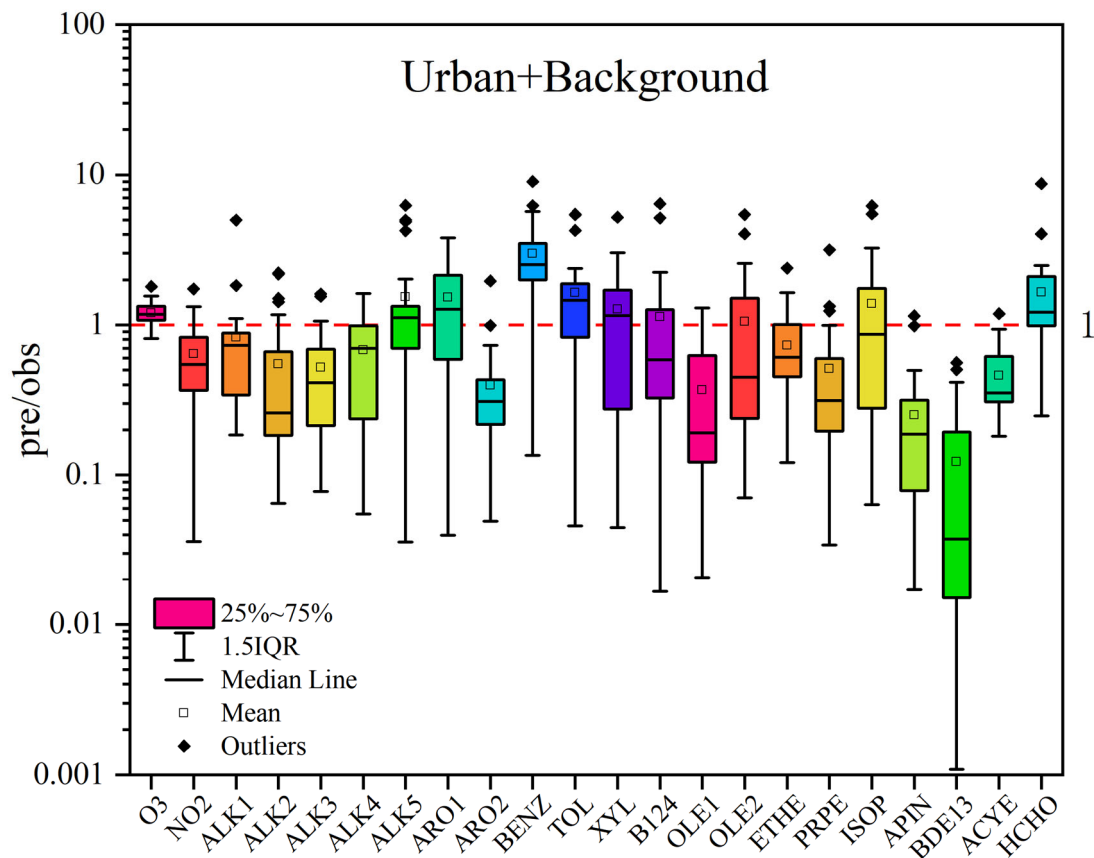
832  
 833 Figure 2. Model performance on MDA8 O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> at 28 sites in different regions  
 834 from June 6th to August 24th in 2018. The blue and red lines denote performance  
 835 criteria (NMB: normalized mean bias, NME: normalized mean error) for MDA8 O<sub>3</sub>  
 836 suggested by Emery et al. (2017) and the symbols in different colors distinguish  
 837 different regions of China.



838

839 Figure 3. Comparison of predicted and observed VOCs at 28 sites during the study  
 840 period. (a) The predicted (bars outlined in blue) and observed (bars outlined in red)  
 841 concentrations at each site; (b) same as (a) but with contributions of VOC groups.

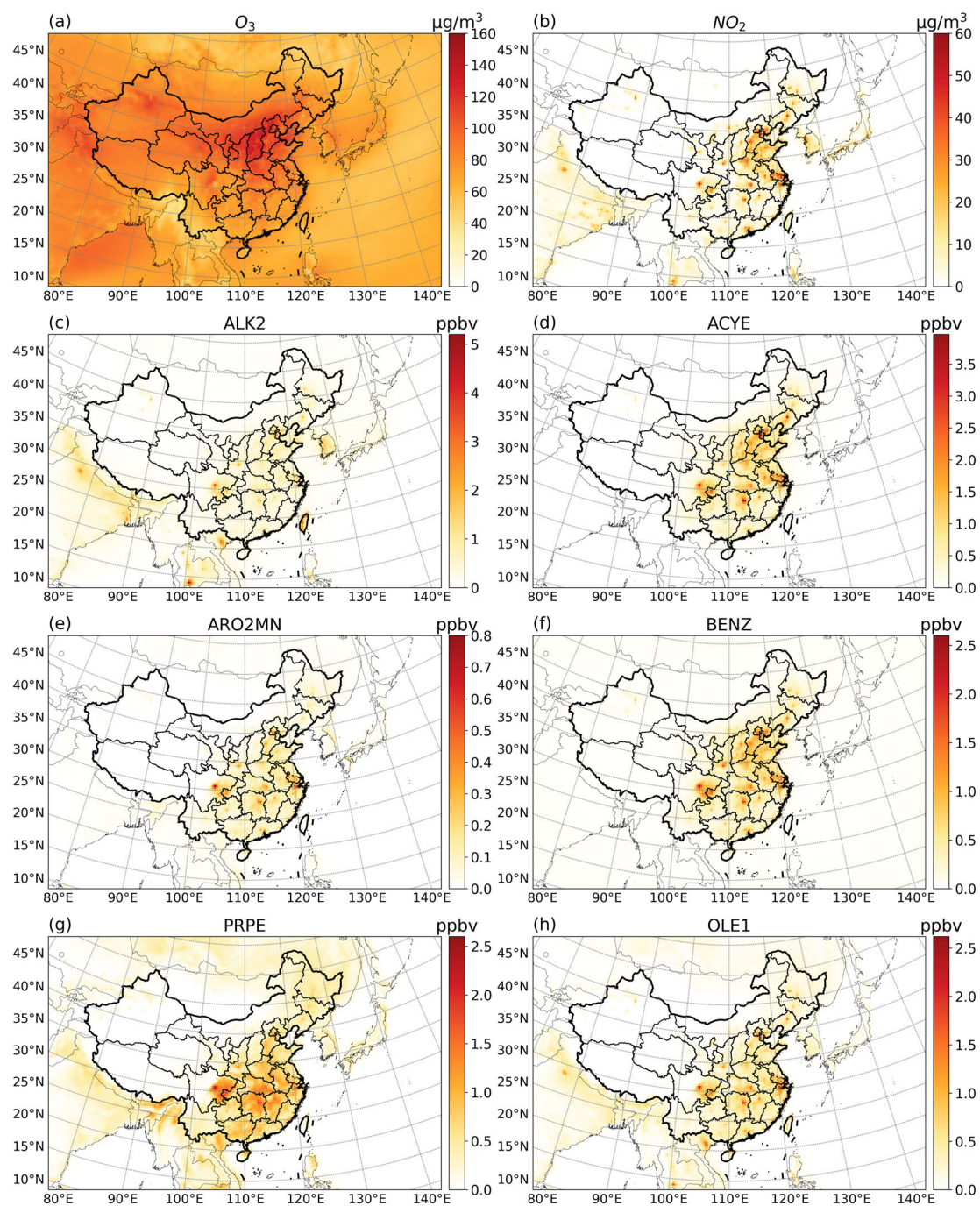




842

843 Figure 4. The ratios of prediction-to-observation (pre/obs) for O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and individual  
 844 VOCs at 28 sites (including urban and background). The horizontal midlines in boxes  
 845 represent the median values and the hollow squares depict the mean values. The boxes  
 846 represent the ratios ranging from the lower and upper quartile for individual VOCs at  
 847 all sites, and the whiskers represent the 1.5 Interquartile Range (1.5 IQR).

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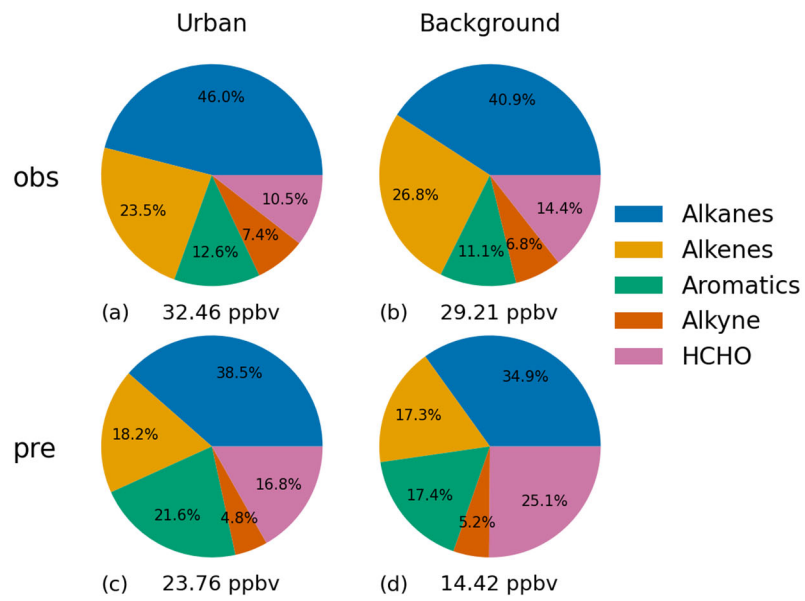


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850 Figure 5. Predicted concentration of (a)  $O_3$ , (b)  $NO_2$  and (c-h) six VOCs in the base case

851 from June 6th to August 24th in 2018.

852



853

854 Figure 6. Observed and predicted contributions of different VOCs to the total VOC

855 concentrations at (a and c) urban sites and (b and d) background sites.