

1 **Extreme Weather exacerbates Ozone Pollution in the Pearl**
2 **River Delta, China: Role of Natural Processes**

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Abstract

25

26 Ozone (O₃) pollution research and management in China have mainly
27 focused on anthropogenic emissions, while the importance of natural
28 processes is often overlooked. With the increasing frequency of extreme
29 weather events, the role of natural processes in exacerbating O₃ pollution
30 is gaining attention. In September 2022, the Pearl River Delta (PRD) in
31 South China experienced an extended period (25 days) of regional O₃
32 exceedances and high temperatures (2nd highest over last 2 decades) due to
33 extreme weather conditions influenced by the Subtropical High and
34 typhoon peripheries. Employing an integrated approach involving field
35 measurements, machine learning, and numerical model simulations, we
36 investigated the impact of weather-induced natural processes on O₃
37 pollution by considering meteorological factors, natural emissions,
38 chemistry pathways, and atmospheric transport. The hot weather
39 intensified the emission of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOC)
40 by ~10%. Isoprene and biogenic formaldehyde accounted for 47% of the
41 in-situ O₃ production, underscoring the predominant role of BVOC
42 emissions in natural processes. The chemical pathway of isoprene
43 contributing to O₃ formation was further explored, with O₃ production
44 more attributable to the further degradation of early generation isoprene
45 oxidation products (contributed 64.5%) than the direct isoprene oxidation
46 itself (contributed 35.5%). Besides, it was found that the hot weather
47 significantly promoted regional photochemical reactions, with
48 meteorological factors contributing to an additional 10.8 ppb of O₃ levels
49 compared to normal conditions. Temperature was identified as the
50 dominant meteorological factor. Furthermore, the typhoon nearing landfall
51 significantly enhanced the cross-regional transport of O₃ from northern to
52 southern China through stratosphere-to-troposphere exchange (STE). The
53 CAM-Chem model simulations revealed that the STE-induced O₃ on the
54 PRD surface could reach a maximum of ~ 8 ppb, highlighting the non-
55 negligible impact of STE. This study highlights the importance of natural
56 processes exacerbated by extreme weather events in O₃ pollution and
57 provides valuable insights for O₃ pollution control under global warming.

58 **1 Introduction**

59 Ground-level ozone (O_3) is a secondary air pollutant with adverse effects
60 on human health, vegetation, crop yields, and climate (Knowlton et al.,
61 2004; Ashmore, 2005; Eyring et al., 2013). The formation of tropospheric
62 O_3 is a result of sunlight-driven photochemical reactions involving
63 nitrogen oxides (NO_x), volatile organic compounds (VOC), and other
64 pollutants (Derwent et al., 1998; Jacob, 2000). The relationship between
65 O_3 and its precursors exhibits a non-linear pattern that varies across
66 different regions (Jenkin and Clemitshaw, 2000). O_3 and its precursors
67 originate from both anthropogenic activities and natural processes such as
68 fossil fuel combustion, biogenic volatile compound (BVOC) emissions and
69 stratosphere-troposphere exchange (STE). Meteorological conditions also
70 play a crucial role in influencing O_3 pollution, adding complexity to
71 mitigation efforts (Wang et al., 2017).

72 Since the industrial revolution, the northern hemisphere has experienced a
73 significant increase in O_3 pollution, particularly in mid-latitude cities with
74 large populations and industries (Gaudel et al., 2018). In recent decades,
75 Europe and the United States have made notable progress in mitigating O_3
76 pollution through emission control efforts. However, eastern Asia, notably
77 China, continues to face a severe O_3 pollution problem (Lyu et al., 2023).
78 Despite the implementation of strict emission control measures, such as the
79 Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan and the reduction in fine
80 particulate matter concentrations, O_3 levels in China have continued to rise
81 (Wang et al., 2019). Lu et al. (2018) reported that O_3 pollution days in
82 China are 93 to 575% higher compared to other developed countries,
83 indicating the significant public concern surrounding this issue.

84 Despite human activities being recognized as major contributors to severe
85 O_3 pollution, it is also important to acknowledge the role of meteorological
86 conditions on the dynamics of tropospheric O_3 concentrations. For example,
87 temperature has a direct impact on chemical reaction rates involved in O_3
88 formation as well as the emissions of BVOC from vegetation (Lu et al.,
89 2019). Atmospheric water vapor, on the other hand, plays a crucial role by
90 providing hydrogen oxide (HO_x) radicals and directly influencing O_3
91 photochemistry (Camalier et al., 2007). Additionally, wind patterns

92 contribute to the transport and dispersion of pollutants, thereby influencing
93 the spatial distribution of O₃ and its precursors (Wang et al., 2022).
94 Nonetheless, the local meteorological parameters are controlled by
95 synoptic weather system. Generally, the role of weather systems manifests
96 in two aspects, one is via the influence on the regional transport of
97 pollutants, and the other is modulating the aggregation and dispersion of
98 local air pollutants (Ding et al., 2017). Extensive research conducted in
99 eastern China has shed light on the importance of weather patterns and
100 addressed on the impact of extreme weather contributing to O₃ pollution.
101 Notably, anticyclones (such as high-pressure systems) and the periphery of
102 typhoons have emerged as prominent factors (Chan and Chan, 2000; Han
103 et al., 2020; Gao et al., 2021). Besides, natural processes, including the
104 natural sources, chemistry and atmospheric transport of O₃, are highly
105 meteorology-sensitive and might further aggravate O₃ pollution under
106 extreme weather. For example, the wildfire caused by hot and dry weather
107 could emit large amount of carbon monoxide (CO), NO_x and VOCs and
108 exacerbate O₃ pollution (Westerling et al., 2006; Yue and Unger, 2018; Lei
109 et al., 2022); vegetation-released BVOC emissions are sensitive to
110 temperature and have been proven to increase during hot season and thus
111 accelerate urban O₃ formation (Pusede et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2022); an
112 STE event would bring stratospheric O₃ to the troposphere under a large-
113 scale/mesoscale process such as tropopause folds, gravity wave breaking,
114 and deep convections (Stohl et al., 2003; Wang et al., 2020). As global
115 warming progresses, there is an increase in the frequency of extreme
116 weather events which further impact surface O₃ (Banerjee et al., 2016; Lu
117 et al., 2019). These impacts may undermine or offset the efforts by
118 anthropogenic emission reductions, posing risks to the ecological
119 environment. Therefore, understanding the influence of natural process on
120 the formation of ground-level O₃ is essential for gaining insights into the
121 dynamics of O₃ pollution and developing effective strategies for managing
122 air quality.

123 The Pearl River Delta (PRD) region, known for its high levels of
124 anthropogenic emissions and surrounded by significant vegetation cover,
125 frequently suffers from extreme weather events such as heat waves and

126 tropical cyclones. The PRD region has emerged as a typical hotspot
127 witnessing an increase in O₃ pollution, making it an ideal location to
128 investigate the impact of extreme weather on O₃ pollution. In September
129 2022, the PRD endured a prolonged period of hot weather, leading to more
130 than 20 days of regional O₃ exceedance. Here, by integrating simultaneous
131 measurements, machine learning, and numerical model simulations, we
132 aim to improve the understanding of how natural processes induced by
133 extreme weather events affecting O₃ pollution and provide new insights for
134 future O₃ pollution control efforts.

135 **2 Methods and Materials**

136 **2.1 Data Source**

137 In-situ observations were conducted at the Guangzhou Haizhu Urban
138 Ecological Meteorological Comprehensive Observation Base (HZ Base,
139 23°05'N, 113°22'E), which is located in the North area of the Guangzhou
140 Haizhu District National Wetland Park (as shown in Fig. 1(a)). The
141 observation base is surrounded by basic farmland protection areas and
142 represents a typical composite wetland system consisting of river channels,
143 creeks, fruit orchards, and the Jiangxinzhou Island. It also encompasses
144 commercial streets, residential areas, and major transportation routes,
145 providing a representation of wetland climate and human activities.
146 Synchronous online observations of O₃, NO_x, SO₂, CO, components of
147 VOCs, and meteorological parameters (surface winds, temperature,
148 relative humidity, precipitation and solar radiation) were carried out at
149 this observation base. All the data are collected at the HZ Base from Sept.
150 1st to Sept. 30th, with a time resolution of 1 hour. Detailed information about
151 the data used, including the monitoring instruments, data coverage, and
152 access method, was summarized in Table S1. Briefly, ambient
153 concentrations of O₃, NO_x, CO and SO₂ were routinely measured using
154 instruments produced by Thermo Scientific (49i-D1NAA, 42i-
155 DNMSDAA, 48i-DNSAA and 43i-DNSAA, respectively). The species of
156 VOC components were monitored by GC5000 analysis systems coupled
157 with flame ionization detectors (FID) from AMA Instruments GmbH
158 (AMA, Germany). The target compounds of the instrument were the 56
159 VOCs designated as photochemical precursors by the US Environmental

160 Protection Agency (EPA). The gas standards utilized were identical to
161 those employed by the US EPA Photochemical Assessment Monitoring
162 Stations (PAMS). More details were documented in our previous paper
163 (Zou et al., 2015). All instruments were regularly calibrated and maintained
164 for different durations. Meteorological data, including temperature, solar
165 radiation, precipitation, relative humidity and winds, were obtained at the
166 same site from the China Meteorological Administration. The in-situ
167 measurements were mainly used to drive a photochemical box model as
168 described below. Additionally, the air quality monitoring network
169 established by the Ministry of Ecology and Environment of China was
170 utilized to identify O₃ pollution event in PRD. There were 56 monitoring
171 sites distributed in the whole region (Fig. 1(a)) and the 90th percentile of
172 the maximum daily 8-hour average (MDA8-90) O₃ concentration was
173 employed to assess the regional degree of O₃ pollution. A regional O₃
174 exceedance occurs when the MDA8-90 exceeds the China's Grade II
175 standard (i.e., 160 µg/m³).

176 In addition to the in-situ data, ancillary data from the fifth generation of the
177 European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts atmospheric
178 reanalysis (ERA5) were utilized. The ERA5 data, at a resolution of 0.25°
179 × 0.25° grid, corresponded to the same time period and interval as the
180 observed data and provided information such as boundary layer height,
181 potential vorticity, vertical velocity, geopotential height, specific humidity
182 and O₃ mass mixing ratio. Besides, typhoon tracks occurred in West Pacific
183 Ocean were collected from China Meteorology Administration Tropical
184 Cyclone Data Center (<https://tcdata.typhoon.org.cn>).

185 **2.2 Stepwise Regression Analysis**

186 The stepwise regression analysis, as a common method of machine
187 learning, was used to simulate the dynamics of O₃ concentrations and
188 quantitatively assess the influence of various meteorological factors on
189 pollutant variations. The method was designed to construct an optimal
190 equation by iteratively selecting significant factors while eliminating non-
191 significant ones to address autocorrelation concerns (Johnsson, 1992). In
192 this study, simple regressions were firstly performed for each explanatory
193 variable, and the variable with the most significant contribution was

194 identified. Subsequently, additional variables were gradually introduced,
195 and the F-test and t-test were employed to evaluate their significance. Non-
196 significant variables were progressively eliminated until we obtained a
197 final set of critical explanatory variables. Following variable selection, a
198 multivariate linear regression equation was established to capture the
199 variation of O₃ concentrations:

$$200 \quad O_3(t) = \alpha \text{VAR}_1(t) + \beta \text{VAR}_2(t) + \gamma \text{VAR}_3(t) + \dots + \eta \text{VAR}_n(t) + R(t) \quad (1)$$

201 In Eq. (1), O₃(t) represents the temporal changes in O₃ concentration at
202 hour t. The coefficients (α , β , γ , η) for each variable (VAR) were
203 determined during the stepwise regression process, while R(t) represents
204 the residual error term. This approach enables us to effectively analyze the
205 intricate relationship between meteorological factors and O₃
206 concentrations, providing valuable insights into the dynamics of O₃
207 pollution. This utilized approach has proven effective in our previous
208 pollutant simulations (Chen et al., 2022). In this study, the model's
209 performance was validated through Fig. S1, demonstrating a strong
210 correlation (Pearson correlation coefficient (R) = 0.84 and p-Value (from
211 two-tailed t-test) < 0.01) between the observed and simulated O₃
212 concentrations.

213 **2.3 Lagrangian Dispersion Modeling**

214 We conducted backward Lagrangian particulate dispersion modeling
215 (LPDM) using the Hybrid Single-Particulate Lagrangian Integrated
216 Trajectory model (HYSPLIT, <https://www.arl.noaa.gov/hysplit/>, last
217 access: Nov. 15, 2023) to identify the dominant air flow impacting the
218 receptor area. The meteorology fields were from the Global Data
219 Assimilation System (GDAS) data. In this study, we released 3000
220 particulates at 100 m above sea level (a.s.l) over the site (HZ Base) and
221 tracked their backward movement for 48 hours with a time resolution of 1
222 hour. The positions of the particulates were determined using both vertical
223 and horizontal calculations, considering mean wind and turbulence
224 transport. The model finally identified the "retroplume" footprint
225 representing the spatial residence time of the particulates and could be
226 regarded as the distribution of the simulated air mass's surface probability
227 or residence time.

2.4 MEGAN model

The Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN, version 2.1, available at: <https://bai.ess.uci.edu/megan/>, last access Nov. 15, 2023) was used to estimate BVOC emissions from terrestrial ecosystems (Guenther et al., 2012). The model could calculate 147 individual biogenic compounds and lump them into the appropriate VOC mechanisms such as CB05, RACM, SAPRC99 and etc. Herein, the CB05 mechanism was adopted for VOC treatment. Due to the versatility and compatibility, the MEGAN model could be incorporated into many widely used chemical transport models with horizontal resolution ranging from a few kilometers to several hundred kilometers. In this study, the plant function type (PFT) data was from Moderate-Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) MCD12Q1 product and the leaf area index (LAI) data was from MODIS MCD15A2H product. The input meteorology including temperature, solar radiation, and relative humidity was obtained from Weather Research Forecast-Community Multi Scale Air Quality (WRF-CMAQ) simulations with a horizontal resolution of 12km×12km. The configuration of WRF-CMAQ was summarized in Table S2. In particular, to emphasize the influence of extreme weather, comparisons of BVOC emissions from parallel simulations were conducted. In detail, we employed two sets of meteorological fields to drive the MEGAN model, respectively. One set was based on the WRF-simulated meteorology from September 2022, while the other utilized the average meteorological fields from the preceding three years (2019-2021).

2.5 In-situ photochemistry modeling

In-situ O₃ formation was simulated using the Framework for 0-D Atmospheric Modeling (F0AM) incorporating Master Chemical Mechanism v3.3.1 (<https://sites.google.com/site/wolfegm/models>, last access: Nov. 15, 2023). The application method was roughly in line with that in Lyu et al. (2022). Briefly, the model was constrained by observations including O₃, NO_x, CO, sulfur dioxide (SO₂), VOCs species and meteorological parameters collected at HZ Base at hourly resolution. Specifically, HCHO was not measured and was constrained by the WRF-CMAQ simulation results (The validation of WRF-CMAQ was

262 summarized in Table S3). A ‘family conservation’ that set the total NO_x to
263 the observed value every hour and allowed nitrogen monoxide (NO) and
264 nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) to evolve over time was applied. Photolysis
265 frequency of NO_2 observed at HZ Base was input and used to correct the
266 photolysis frequencies of other species. Net O_3 production rate (OPR) was
267 calculated as the difference between O_3 production rate (NO_2 production
268 through NO oxidation by peroxy radicals) and destruction rate (NO_2
269 reacting with OH, O_3 photolysis, ozonolysis of alkenes, and O_3
270 consumption by OH and HO_2), in line with the way adopted in previous
271 studies (Lyu et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2017). The reaction rates for a total
272 of 17,224 reactions were extracted to diagnose the main isoprene-related
273 pathways leading to O_3 formation.

274 **2.6 CAM-Chem model**

275 The CAM-Chem (Chemical Lagrangian Model of the Stratosphere), a
276 component of the National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR)
277 Community Earth System Model (CESM) version 2.2.0, was utilized to
278 simulate the impact of STE transported O_3 on the troposphere. The
279 meteorological fields were obtained from Model-Era Retrospective
280 analysis for Research and Applications-Version 2 (MERRA-2) and
281 regrided to a 32-vertical layer with a horizontal resolution of $0.9 \times 1.25^\circ$.
282 The chemistry mechanism employed was the Model for Ozone and Related
283 Chemical Tracers (MOZART). Further information about the model can be
284 found in the CAM-Chem Wiki (<https://wiki.ucar.edu/display/camchem>).
285 To validate the model's performance, we compared the distribution of the
286 simulated O_3 with O_3 from AIRS (Atmospheric Infrared Sounder). Both
287 the monthly averaged distribution and an STE-induced O_3 intrusion case
288 were compared (Fig. S2). Although the CAM-Chem simulations showed
289 slightly higher O_3 levels in southern China, the correlation coefficient in
290 Eastern China was 0.79 (passed a 95% significance test), indicating the
291 CAM-Chem model relatively well produced O_3 at higher levels (Fig. S3).
292 Besides, it was worth noting that the satellite retrievals themselves contain
293 uncertainties, mainly from the impact of clouds, aerosols, surface albedo
294 and the inversion algorithms (Briegleb et al., 1986; De Smedt et al., 2010;
295 Povey and Grainger, 2015). Overall, the simulated O_3 showed good

296 agreement with the AIRS data in terms of magnitude and spatial pattern,
297 indicating satisfactory model performances. Furthermore, a comparison of
298 the CAM-Chem simulated ground-level O₃ with the surface network
299 monitoring was also conducted (Fig. S4). The daily magnitude and
300 variation trend were successfully captured in Guangzhou, with a mean bias
301 error (MBE) of -7.9 ppb and a root mean square error (RMSE) of 16.3 ppb.
302 This demonstrated a good reproduction of surface O₃ concentrations.
303 Indeed, our previous paper has also shown the good performance of the
304 CAM-Chem model application in eastern China (Wang et al., 2023).

305 **3 Results and discussion**

306 **3.1 Exacerbation of O₃ Pollution due to Extreme Weather** 307 **Conditions**

308 In September 2022, the PRD region experienced continuous extreme
309 weather, resulting in a prolonged period of hot weather conditions. As a
310 consequence, the region encountered 25 consecutive days of regional O₃
311 pollution (Fig. 1(b)). Monthly O₃ concentrations (MDA8-90 O₃) were
312 situated in high levels reaching up to 92 ppb, approximately 20 ppb higher
313 than the average of the same period during past three years. Meanwhile,
314 the monthly average daily-maximum temperature soared to 32°C, making
315 it the second-highest temperature recorded in September over the past 2
316 decades (Fig. S5). The extremely high temperature appeared to be a
317 significant driver of O₃ pollution, as evidenced by a high correlation
318 coefficient of 0.70 ($p < 0.05$) between O₃ levels and air temperature (Fig.
319 1(b)). From a synoptic weather perspective, the occurrence of hot weather
320 was the combined effect of multiple tropical cyclones and Western Pacific
321 Subtropical High (WPSH) (Fig. 1(c)). It was recorded that there were four
322 tropical cyclones within the one-month time (2022 September) influenced
323 PRD (described in Table S4). As shown in Fig. 1(c), the combined effects
324 of tropical cyclones and WPSH resulted in the splitting of the subtropical
325 high into two parts. One part lingered over the western Pacific Ocean,
326 while the other remained over the southern region of China, leaving the
327 PRD under the fully control of the mainland high-pressure system.
328 Affected by the sinking air flow under the mainland high, the PRD region
329 experienced conditions characterized by high temperatures, intense solar

330 radiation, low humidity, and reduced precipitation, creating a favorable
331 environment for photochemical pollution (Fig. 1(d)).

332 To assess the influence of meteorological parameters on O₃ concentrations,
333 we developed a stepwise regression model to simulate regional O₃
334 concentrations. By incorporating an extensive range of input variables,
335 including surface and 850hPa meteorological factors, we rigorously tested
336 and identified ten significant factors through T-test analysis. These factors
337 comprised the following: 2m temperature (T2), boundary layer height
338 (BLH), surface relative humidity (RH), surface wind speed (WS), 10m U-
339 component of wind (U10), vertical wind speed (W), 850hPa U-component
340 of wind (U850), total cloud coverage (TCC), 10m V-component of wind
341 (V10), and 850hPa V-component of wind (V850). As illustrated in Fig. 2,
342 meteorological parameters exerted a crucial influence on O₃ concentrations
343 in 2022, surpassing levels in previous years (2019-2021). This underscored
344 the profound impact of meteorology on O₃ pollution. Notably, the factor
345 associated with photochemistry, such as T2, BLH, and RH, played a
346 substantial role, contributing 43.1 ppb, 35.7 ppb, and -9.3 ppb, respectively,
347 to the overall O₃ concentration. In particular, the average daily-maximum
348 air temperature in September maintained at a typically high level (32 °C),
349 which not only accelerated the rates of photochemical reactions, but also
350 stimulated the emission of BVOC from vegetation, thereby exacerbating
351 O₃ concentrations. Furthermore, the increase in BLH and WS compared to
352 previous years indicated relatively favorable ventilation conditions, which
353 facilitated the transport of local and upstream pollutants. Subsequent
354 investigations unveiled that air pollutants from northern regions could be
355 transported to the PRD, contributing to the observed O₃ concentrations
356 (refer to Section 3.3). Additionally, September exhibited relatively dry
357 conditions with lower relative humidity (RH) and less precipitation. Our
358 model revealed a negative correlation between O₃ and RH, suggesting that
359 the presence of water vapor contributed to the photochemical removal of
360 O₃ concentrations (e.g., through HO_x reactions). The reduced RH in
361 September also likely facilitated the persistence of O₃ pollution in the
362 region.

363

3.2 Weather-boosted BVOC emissions aggravating O₃ production

364 As one important precursor of O₃ formation, BVOC emissions are sensitive
365 to ambient temperature and solar radiation. Here, we utilized MEGAN
366 model to calculate the regional BVOC emissions. Parallel simulations
367 driven by different meteorological inputs, i.e., meteorological fields in
368 September 2022 and the average meteorological fields in September of the
369 previous three years, were conducted, respectively. It was found that the
370 hot weather in September 2022 led to an increase in BVOC emissions in
371 the PRD region by approximately 10%, relative to that in the same period
372 in the past (Fig. 3(a)). Besides, the in-situ observed isoprene exhibited a
373 significant concentration difference between day and night, i.e., 0.52 – 1.25
374 ppb during 6:00 – 17:00 and an average of 0.10 ppb at other times (Fig.
375 S6). Not surprisingly, isoprene contributed 7.77 ppb h⁻¹ (~ 40%) to the in-
376 situ net O₃ production rate (OPR) in daytime (Fig. 3(b)). Nevertheless, this
377 was likely a conservative estimate of the biogenic contributions, due to lack
378 of consideration of other biogenic VOC. HCHO, as an important O₃
379 precursor, is of both anthropogenic and biogenic origin. Here, we utilized
380 WRF-CMAQ simulated biogenic HCHO as input to examine its impact on
381 O₃ formation with F0AM. It was found that biogenic HCHO at an average
382 concentration of 2.46 ppb elevated the OPR by 1.29 ppb h⁻¹. This increased
383 the contribution to OPR of biogenic emissions to 47%. Overall, the
384 modeling results underlined the crucial role of biogenic emissions in
385 building up O₃ levels in September 2022.

387 Next, we explored the detailed mechanisms of O₃ formation enhancement
388 induced by the rise in isoprene levels due to hot weather (Fig. 4).
389 Simulations were performed for a base case with observations in 2022 and
390 a hypothetical case of lower isoprene levels. We used the ratio of isoprene
391 emissions between 2022 and previous years to scale the observed isoprene
392 in September 2022. So, isoprene in the base case was 10% higher than that
393 in the hypothetical case. HCHO was constrained by the same profile in
394 both cases. It was simulated that the 10% increase in isoprene would lead
395 to an additional O₃ production of 7.5 ppb (OPR of 1.00 ppb h⁻¹ at 12:00).
396 While there was little change in the O₃ destruction pathways, the
397 production of NO₂ through RO₂ + NO and HO₂ + NO (pathways leading

398 to O₃ formation following NO₂ photolysis) increased by 0.63 ppb h⁻¹ and
399 0.38 ppb h⁻¹, respectively. As shown in Fig. 4, this overall effect was caused
400 by multiple reactions involving several generations of isoprene oxidation
401 products/intermediates. The direct oxidation of isoprene by OH and the
402 following transformation from RO₂ through RO to HO₂ only accounted for
403 30.3% and 42.8% of the increase in total rate of RO₂ + NO and HO₂
404 production, respectively. The rest was contributed by the degradation of
405 methyl vinyl ketone (MVK) and methacrolein (MACR), two typical
406 isoprene oxidation products (Pierotti et al., 1990). In particular, the
407 formation of peroxyacetyl radical (CH₃CO₃) was enhanced by 0.16 ppb h⁻¹
408 ¹, which further accelerated the rate of RO₂ oxidizing NO by 0.30 ppb h⁻¹
409 (45.6%) and HO₂ production rate by 0.15 ppb h⁻¹ (32.5%). Methylglyoxal
410 (MGLYOX) and CH₃CO₃ were the key intermediates in photochemical
411 degradation of MVK and MACR that largely enhanced O₃ formation. The
412 effect of MVK was much more significant than MACR, which was
413 reasonable, due to the presence of a more reactive vinyl group in the MVK
414 molecule.

415 It is well documented that isoprene emitted from vegetation is highly
416 reactive in the troposphere and is therefore not prone to transport over long
417 distances. Here, we show that the primary oxidation products of isoprene
418 that may be formed during air mass transport (Wang et al., 2022),
419 especially MVK and MACR, make significant contributions to O₃
420 formation. This presents to be an important mechanism of isoprene
421 contributing to O₃ formation. Hence, the impacts of BVOC oxidation
422 intermediates on downwind air quality warrant more attention (Dreyfus et
423 al., 2002; Lee et al., 2014).

424 **3.3 O₃ enhancement by STE and cross-regional transport**

425 In addition to its influence on meteorological factors and natural emissions,
426 extreme weather can also impact atmospheric transport, modulating the
427 regional air quality. For instance, the STE process is a significant natural
428 process that facilitates the exchange of O₃-rich air from the stratosphere to
429 the troposphere, impacting O₃ levels in the lower atmosphere (Wang et al.,
430 2023). STE often occurs in association with synoptic weather systems such
431 as cyclones, westerly jet stream, frontal activities and troughs of low

432 pressure (Banerjee et al., 2016). Being affected by the combined influence
433 of the Subtropical High and typhoons, we diagnosed a continuous STE
434 event occurring from September 13, 2022, to September 16, 2022.
435 Initially, on September 13, a trough of low pressure extended from
436 northwest Inner Mongolia to central China, affecting a large portion of
437 mainland China (Fig. S7). Concurrently, Typhoon "Muifa" developed near
438 the coastline in the western Pacific Ocean, leading to the gradual
439 development of this trough towards the southeastern part of China. On the
440 15th, the typhoon made landfall in the Yangtze River Delta region. The
441 combined influence of the typhoon's low-pressure center and the external
442 strong anticyclone further extended the trough of low pressure southward
443 (Fig. S7). The dynamic evolution of the weather system facilitated the
444 favorable conditions for cross-regional transport from higher latitudes of
445 China to the lower latitudes, such as the PRD region.
446 Here, we utilized multiple methods to illustrate the impact of the STE-
447 induced O₃. First of all, we employed potential vorticity (PV) at 300 hPa
448 to distinguish between stratospheric and tropospheric air masses,
449 considering a threshold of 2 potential vorticity units (PVU) as the
450 dynamical tropopause (Li et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2020). According to Fig.
451 5(a), a notable high value of PV was observed in eastern China, specifically
452 spanning from the North China Plain (NCP) area to southern China on
453 September 14, 2022. This extensive cross-regional transport area is closely
454 associated with typhoon "Muifa" (as depicted in Fig. S5). The presence of
455 a strong anticyclone on the outer periphery of the typhoon further
456 intensified the cross-regional transport in eastern China. This was true with
457 the LPDM simulation, as it revealed that the PRD region was
458 predominantly influenced by northerly air flow originating from central
459 China (Fig. S8). As a result, the potential impact of stratospheric O₃
460 intrusion on the troposphere formed a distinct and extensive band that
461 stretched from the north to the south over eastern China. The subsequent
462 investigations further supported this finding, as we found similar patterns,
463 including notable high O₃ distribution at 300 hPa (Fig. 5(b)), low specific
464 humidity (Fig. 5(c)), and low geopotential height (Fig. 5(d)) along the high
465 PV area. These patterns suggested that the stratospheric intrusion did

466 transport both dry and O₃-rich air masses to the troposphere. Meanwhile,
467 the transported region exhibited a prevailing downward airflow with
468 positive vertical velocity (Fig. 5(e)), and a distinct high O₃ area was also
469 observed along the transported band at 700 hPa (Fig. 5(f)), indicating that
470 the O₃ induced by STE could impact the lower troposphere. Similar
471 patterns were consistently observed on other days between September 13-
472 16, 2022 (Fig. S9-S11), confirming the continuous nature of the STE event.
473 The CAM-Chem model was further adopted to quantify the impact of STE-
474 induced O₃. In this model, we introduced a tracer, O₃S, to represent the
475 concentration of O₃ from stratosphere. Fig. 6 convinced again the previous
476 analyses that the transport of O₃-rich air from the stratosphere to the
477 troposphere, spanning from the northern to the southern China. The cross-
478 regional transport of O₃S was notable at higher levels (between 500hPa and
479 300hPa) in the troposphere with substantial contributions exceeding 50 ppb.
480 Though the influence reduced in the lower of the troposphere, the impacted
481 contribution was still high. The simulated maxima of O₃S at the surface
482 level could reach up to approximately 8 ppb, indicating a non-negligible
483 impact of STE.

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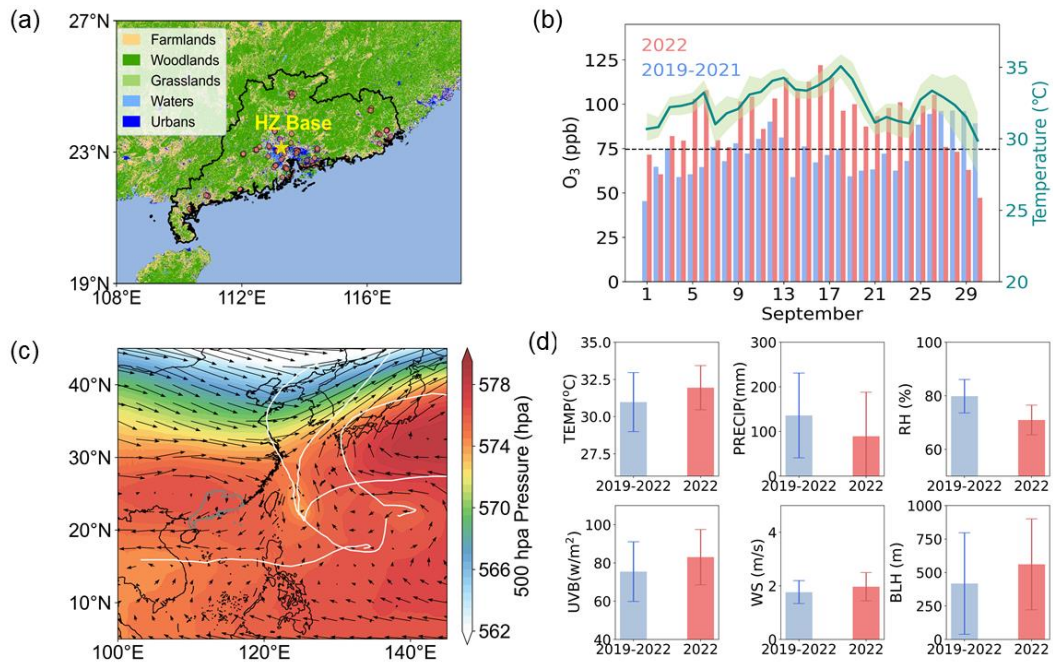
485 **4 Conclusion and implication**

486 This study adopted an integrated methodology, utilizing concurrent
487 observations, machine learning techniques, and numerical simulations, to
488 probe how natural processes triggered by extreme hot weather conditions
489 (the continuous combined influence of the Subtropical High and typhoon
490 peripheries) on O₃ pollution. Various natural processes, including
491 meteorological factors, natural emissions, chemistry pathway and
492 atmospheric transport, were investigated and summarized in Fig. 7. Firstly,
493 we found that meteorological conditions during extreme weather events,
494 characterized by high temperatures, high pressure, and low humidity,
495 greatly facilitated regional photochemical reaction. Through the
496 application of machine learning techniques, we identified that
497 meteorological factors contribute an additional 10.8 ppb to O₃ levels
498 compared to the same period in previous years, with surface temperature
499 exerting the most prominent influence. Furthermore, our investigation
500 revealed that the hot weather stimulated BVOC emissions (increased by

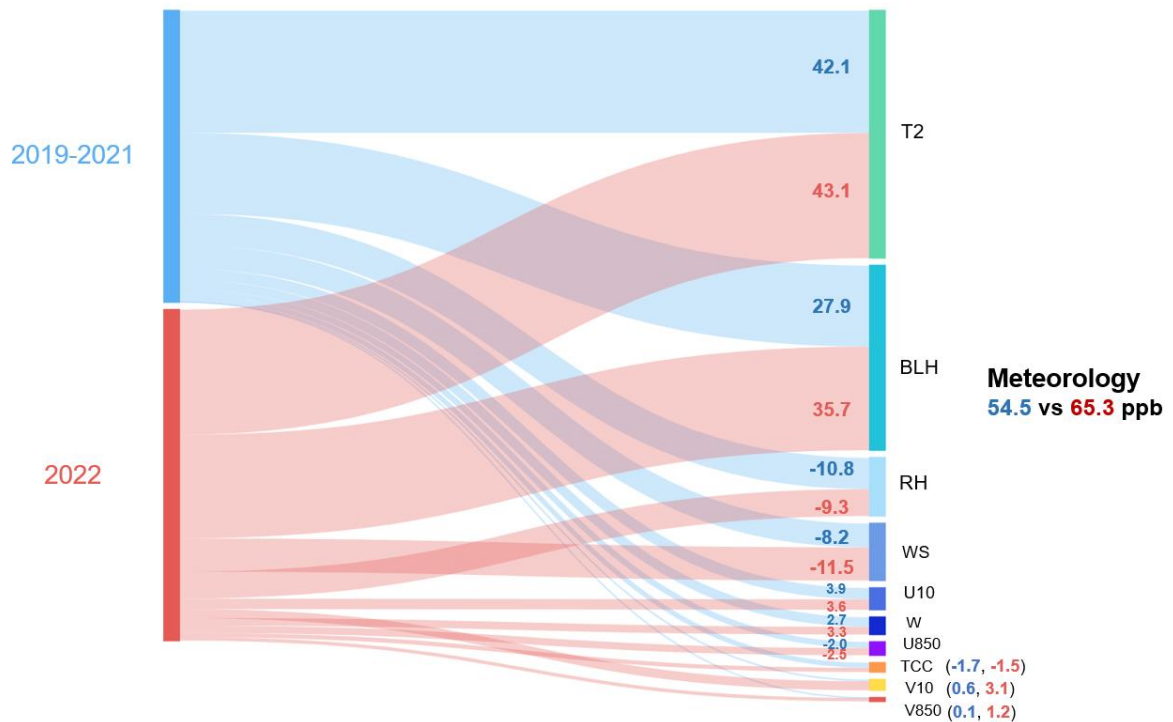
501 10%). Due to the typical high NO_x environment (mainly from
502 anthropogenic emission) in the PRD region, BVOC emissions aggravated
503 photochemical reaction and contributed nearly half of in-situ O_3 production.
504 The chemical transformation pathways of isoprene and its intermediate
505 products were further explored, it was found that the further degradation of
506 initial oxidation products of isoprene was responsible for a large fraction
507 of isoprene contributions to O_3 formation. This could be an important
508 mechanism of isoprene affecting downwind air quality. In addition, the
509 impact of extreme weather on atmospheric transport was also investigated.
510 The phenomenon of STE usually takes place in high latitudes. Interestingly,
511 we discovered that the outer periphery of a typhoon, aggravated the cross-
512 regional transport of STE-induced O_3 , spanning from the northern China
513 to southern China. This process resulted in a non-negligible contributor to
514 the surface levels in downwind area (such as the PRD, reached a maximum
515 of ~ 8 ppb).

516 Our study underscores the importance of natural processes induced by
517 extreme weather events in O_3 pollution and provides valuable insights for
518 future endeavors in O_3 pollution control. Given the impact of climate
519 change, many regions around the world are experiencing an increase in the
520 frequency of extreme weather events, thereby intensifying natural
521 processes. This trend is particularly notable in developed regions with high
522 levels of anthropogenic emissions, such as eastern China, southeastern
523 America and northern India. The interaction between natural process and
524 human activities might further exacerbate air pollution. Future pollution
525 control and prevention efforts should not solely focus on reducing
526 anthropogenic emissions. Instead, a comprehensive consideration of both
527 anthropogenic impact and natural impact should be taken into account, and
528 a coordinated cross-regional joint emission control is highly recommended.
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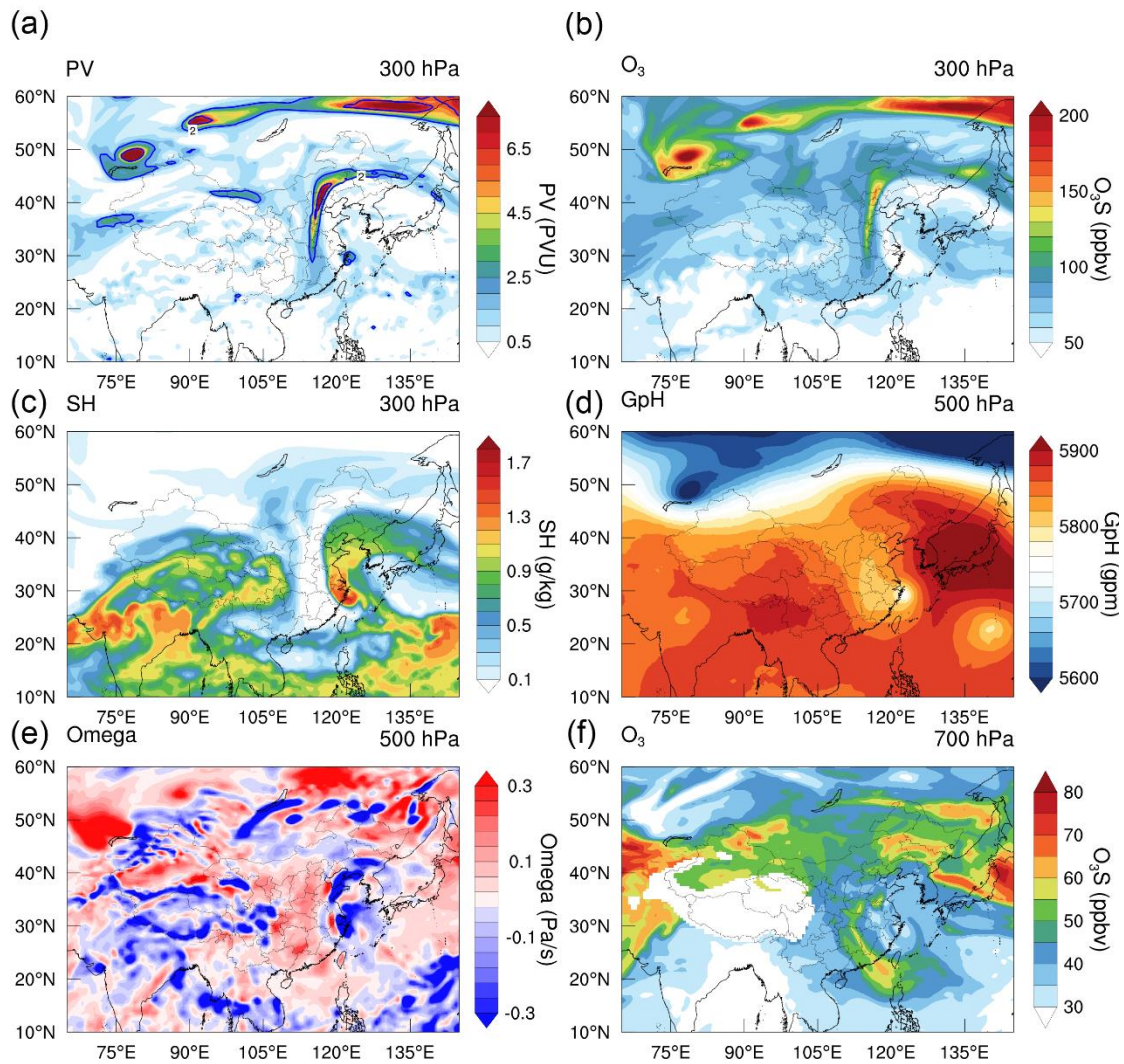
530 **List of Figures**



531
 532 Figure 1 (a) Map showing the geographical distribution of PRD. The dots show the air quality monitoring network and the yellow star shows the in-situ site at Guangzhou Haizhu Urban Ecological Meteorological Comprehensive
 533 Observation Base (HZ Base); (b) Variation of MDA8-90 O₃ concentrations and regional daily max temperature (The
 534 green line shows the average, and the upper and lower shade indicate the 75th and 25th percentile, respectively); (c)
 535 Distribution of 500 hPa pressure and winds of September 2022. The white line shows the typhoon track; (d)
 536 Comparisons of meteorological parameters (temperature (TEMP), precipitation (PRECIP), relative humidity (RH),
 537 ultraviolet radiation b (UVB), wind speed (WS) and boundary layer height (BLH)) between 2022 and 2019-2021
 538



539
 540 Figure 2 Contributions of multi-meteorological factors (2m temperature (T2), boundary layer height (BLH),
 541 relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS), 10 m u-component of wind (U10), w (vertical wind speed), 850 hPa u-



557
 558 Figure 5 Evidence illustrating STE O₃ intrusion on September 14, 2022. (a) Spatial distribution of potential vorticity
 559 (PV) at 300hPa over China (The blue solid line indicates the dynamical tropopause of 2PVU, 1 PVU=10⁻⁶ m² s⁻¹ K
 560 kg⁻¹); (b-e) The distribution of O₃ concentration (at 300 hPa), specific humidity (at 300 hPa, SH), geopotential height
 561 (at 500 hPa, GpH), vertical velocity (at 500 hPa, Omega), and O₃ concentration (at 700 hPa), respectively. All the
 562 data were identified based on ERA5 database.

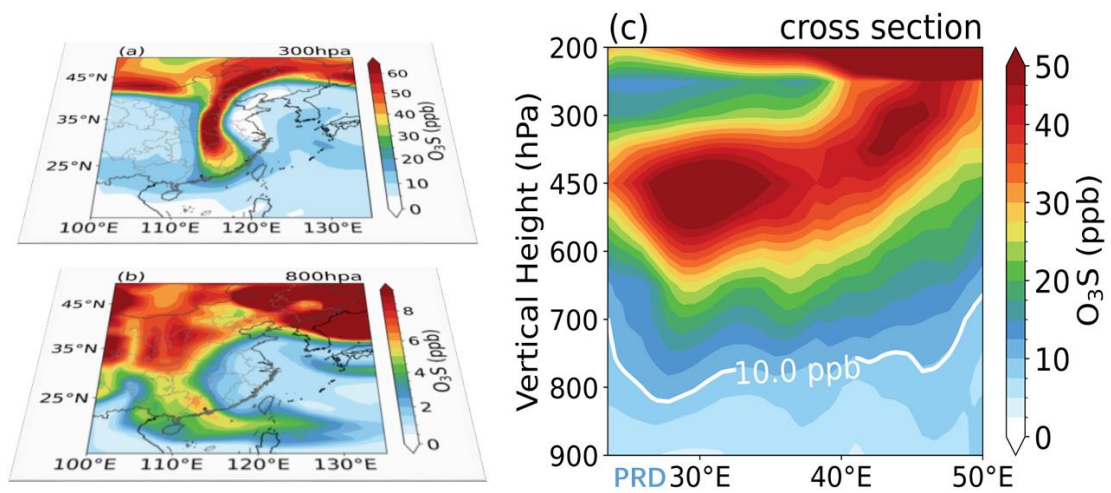
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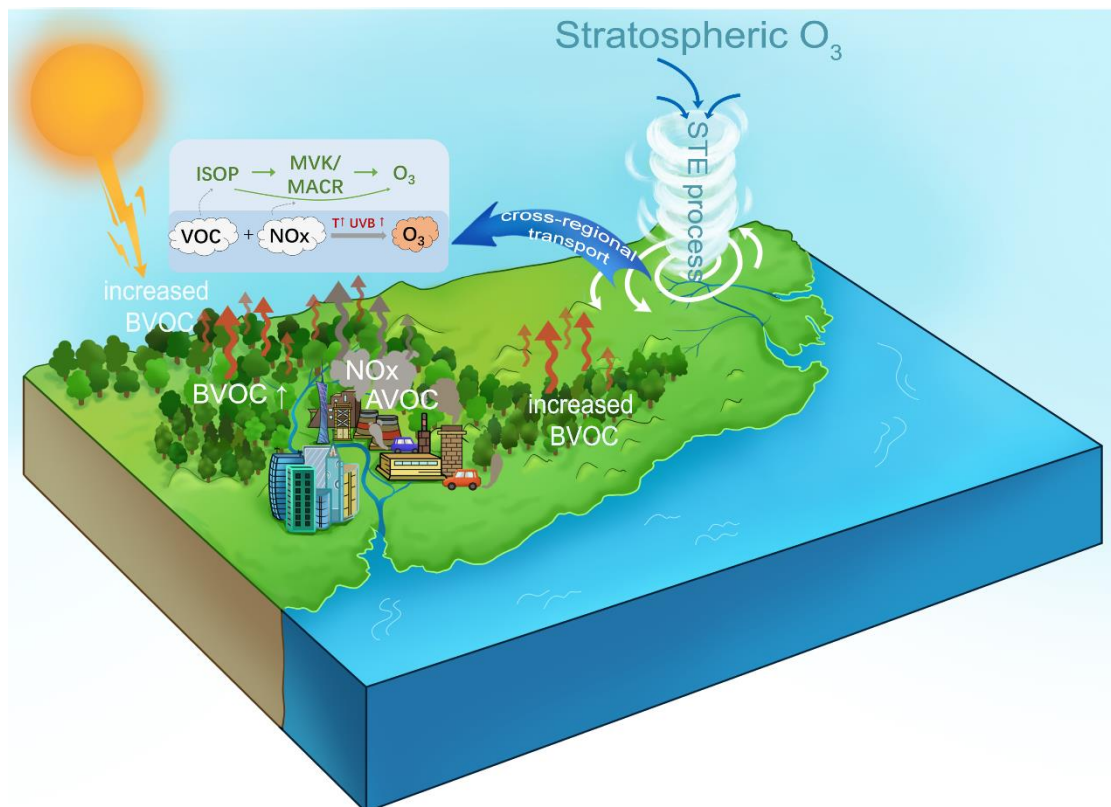


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569 Figure 6 Distribution of CAM-chem simulated O₃S. (a) O₃S distribution at 300 hPa; (b) same as (a) but at 800 hPa;
 570 (c) Vertical transection of O₃S along the 113°E.

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573

574 Figure 7 Conceptual scheme illustrating how extreme weather induced natural processes affecting O₃ in PRD. ISOP,
 575 MVK and MACR refer to isoprene, methyl vinyl ketone and methacrolein, respectively.

576

577 **Associated Content (Supporting Information)**

578 Validation of the stepwise regression model(Fig. S1); Synoptic weather
579 distribution (Fig. S2); LPDM simulated 48h retroplume (footprint
580 residence time) (Fig. S3); Evidence illustrating STE O3 intrusion (Fig. S4-
581 S6); Introduction of monitoring instruments (Table S1); Introduction of the
582 recorded tropical cyclones (Table S2)

583 **Author Contributions**

584 N.W. designed the research. N.W. and X.L. wrote the manuscript. N.W. ,
585 X.L., H.W., X.C. and F.Y. contributed to the interpretation of the results.
586 All authors provided critical feedback and helped shape the research,
587 analysis, and manuscript.

588 **Competing Interests**

589 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing
590 interests.

591 **Code/Data availability**

592 The code and data used in this study are available upon request from Nan
593 Wang (nan.wang@scu.edu.cn) and Xiaopu Lyu (xiaopu_lyu@hkbu.edu.hk)

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