



1 **Weakened aerosol-radiation interaction exacerbating ozone**
2 **pollution in eastern China since China's clean air actions**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Since China's clean air action, PM_{2.5} air quality has been improved while ozone
22 (O₃) pollution has been becoming severe. Here we apply a coupled meteorology-
23 chemistry model (WRF-Chem) to quantify the responses of aerosol-radiation
24 interaction (ARI), including aerosol-photolysis interaction (API) and aerosol-radiation
25 feedback (ARF), to anthropogenic emission reductions from 2013 to 2017, and their
26 contributions to O₃ increases over eastern China in summer and winter. Sensitivity
27 experiments show that the decreased anthropogenic emissions play a more prominent
28 role for the increased MDA8 O₃ both in summer (+1.96 ppb vs. +0.07 ppb) and winter
29 (+3.56 ppb vs. -1.08 ppb) than the impacts of changed meteorological conditions. The
30 decreased PM_{2.5} caused by emission reduction can result in a weaker impact of ARI on
31 O₃ concentrations, which poses a superimposed effect on the worsened O₃ air quality.
32 The weakened ARI due to decreased anthropogenic emission aggravates the summer
33 (winter) O₃ pollution by +0.81 ppb (+0.63 ppb) averaged over eastern China, with
34 weakened API and ARF contributing 55.6% (61.9%) and 44.4% (38.1%), respectively;
35 this superimposed effect is more significant for urban areas during summer (+1.77 ppb).
36 Process analysis indicates that the enhanced chemical production is the dominant
37 process for the increased O₃ concentrations caused by weakened ARI both in summer
38 and winter. This study innovatively reveals the adverse effect of weakened aerosol-
39 radiation interaction due to decreased anthropogenic emissions on O₃ air quality; more
40 stringent coordinated air pollution control strategies are needed for future air quality
41 improvement.

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43 1. Introduction

44 With the implementation of clean air action since 2013, PM_{2.5} (particulate matter
45 with an aerodynamic equivalent diameter of 2.5 micrometers or less) concentrations
46 have decreased significantly in China (Zhai et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). However,
47 ozone (O₃) pollution is becoming worse and poses a significant challenge over eastern
48 China, especially in the developed city clusters including Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH),
49 Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Pearl River Delta (PRD), and Sichuan Basin (SCB) (Lu
50 et al., 2018; Dang and Liao, 2019; Li et al., 2019; Li et al., 2021). According to
51 observation data, Li et al. (2020) found that the daily maximum 8-h average O₃
52 concentrations (MDA8 O₃) increased at a rate of 1.9 ppb a⁻¹ from 2013 to 2019 over
53 eastern China. Elevated O₃ concentrations can not only decrease crop yield but also
54 damage human health (Lelieveld et al., 2015; Yue et al., 2017; Mills et al., 2018).
55 Therefore, it is essential to gain a comprehensive understanding about factors driving
56 the increasing trend of O₃ in China in order to formulate effective prevention strategies.

57 As a secondary air pollutant, troposphere O₃ can be produced by nitrogen oxides
58 (NO_x = NO + NO₂) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the presence of solar
59 radiation through photochemical reactions (Atkinson, 2000; Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006).
60 Consequently, the concentration of O₃ is closely related to changes in meteorological
61 conditions and anthropogenic emissions (Wang et al., 2019; Liu and Wang, 2020a,b;
62 Shu et al., 2020). Moreover, particulates can also affect O₃ concentrations through
63 aerosol-radiation interaction (ARI), including aerosol-photolysis interaction (API) and
64 aerosol-radiation feedback (ARF) (Liao et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2016; Zhu et al., 2021;
65 Yang et al., 2022), and heterogeneous chemistry on aerosol surface (Lou et al., 2014;
66 Li et al., 2019; Liu and Wang, 2020b). Many studies have found that the decreased
67 PM_{2.5} can be one of the driving factors contributing to the increased O₃ concentrations
68 (Li et al., 2019; Liu and Wang, 2020b; Shao et al., 2021). Li et al. (2019) analyzed
69 GEOS-Chem simulation results and pointed out that the reductions in PM_{2.5}
70 concentrations from 2013 to 2017 in North China Plain (NCP) could decrease the sink
71 of HO₂ on aerosol surface, which would result in the increase in O₃ concentrations.



72 When heterogeneous reactions were considered in WRF-CMAQ, Liu and Wang (2020b)
73 found that decreased $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations weakened the uptake of reactive gases
74 (mainly HO_2 and O_3) which led to the increase in O_3 concentrations over China from
75 2013 to 2017. However, the contribution of weakened aerosol-radiation interaction due
76 to substantial decreases in $PM_{2.5}$ under clean air action to the increased O_3 has not been
77 systematically quantified. Furthermore, previous studies mainly focus on the increased
78 summer O_3 (Li et al., 2019; Liu and Wang, 2020a,b; Shu et al., 2020; Shao et al., 2021),
79 but underlying reasons driven the changes in winter O_3 is unclear. Li et al. (2021)
80 pointed out that O_3 pollution has been extended into cold seasons under the emission
81 control measures. Therefore, this study aims to quantify the response of aerosol-
82 radiation interaction to anthropogenic emission reduction from 2013 to 2017, with the
83 mainly focus on the contribution to changed O_3 concentrations over eastern China both
84 in summer and winter.

85 Aerosol-radiation interaction (ARI) can alter photolysis rates through aerosol-
86 photolysis interaction (API) and meteorological variables through aerosol-radiation
87 feedback (ARF) to suppress O_3 formation (Yang et al., 2022). Hong et al. (2020) used
88 WRF-CMAQ in conjunction with future emission scenarios to find that weakened ARF
89 due to reduced aerosol concentration led to an increase in the daily maximum 1-h
90 average O_3 concentration in eastern China from 2010 to 2050. By using WRF-CMAQ,
91 Liu and Wang (2020b) reported that weakened API could increase the MDA8 O_3
92 concentrations by 0.3 ppb in urban areas from 2013 to 2017. Zhu et al. (2021) used
93 WRF-Chem to investigate the impact of weakened ARF on air pollutants over NCP
94 during COVID-19 lockdown and reported that the weakened ARF would increase the
95 O_3 concentrations by 7.8%. In general, previous studies mainly examined the impact of
96 either weakened ARF or API, systematic analysis about the total and the respective
97 impacts of changed API and/or ARF on O_3 over eastern China both in summer and
98 winter from 2013 to 2017 have not been conducted.

99 The objective of this manuscript is to examine the impacts of aerosol-radiation
100 interactions (ARI), including the effects of aerosol-photolysis interaction (API) and
101 aerosol-radiation feedback (ARF), on O_3 concentrations over eastern China both in



102 summer and winter by using the online coupled WRF-Chem model, with the main focus
103 on their responses to clean air action. Process analysis is also applied to explore the
104 prominent physical/chemical process responsible for the changed impacts of API and/or
105 ARF on surface O₃. This study is believed to provide insights into the role of weakened
106 ARI on O₃ levels over eastern China not only in summer, but also in winter. In Section
107 2, we describe the model configuration, numerical experiments, observational data, and
108 the integrated process rate analysis. Model evaluation is presented in Section 3. The
109 presentation of model results and the corresponding analyses are exhibited in Section
110 4. Conclusions are provided in Section 5.

111 **2. Methodology**

112 2.1 Model configuration

113 The model used in this study is an online-coupled meteorology-chemistry model,
114 Weather Research and Forecasting with Chemistry model (WRF-Chem v3.7.1), that
115 can simulate meteorological fields and concentrations of gases and aerosols
116 simultaneously (Grell et al., 2005; Skamarock et al., 2008). Figure S1 shows the
117 simulated domain that covers most regions of China with a horizontal resolution of 27
118 km and grid points of 167 (west–east) × 167 (south–north). The model contains 32
119 vertical levels extending from the surface to 50 hPa, with the first 16 layers located
120 below 2 km to resolve fine boundary layer processes. The enclosed black line in Figure
121 S1 represents the eastern China (22–41.5 °N, 102–123 °E), and the four heavily polluted
122 regions are also selected for analysis, including BTH (36.0–41.5 °N, 113–119.5 °E),
123 YRD (29.5–32.5 °N, 118–122 °E), PRD (21–23.5 °N, 112–116 °E), and SCB (27.5–
124 31.5 °N, 102.5–107.5 °E), respectively.

125 The National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Final Analysis dataset
126 (FNL) with a spatial resolution of 1° × 1° and 6-hour temporal resolution are used to
127 provide the meteorological initial and lateral boundary conditions. The chemical initial
128 and boundary conditions for the WRF-Chem model are taken from the outputs of
129 Community Atmosphere Model with Chemistry (CAM-Chem).

130 The Carbon Bond Mechanism Z (CBM-Z) is applied as the gas-phase chemical



131 mechanism (Zaveri and Peters, 1999), and the full 8-bin MOSAIC (Model for
132 Simulating Aerosol Interactions and Chemistry) aerosol module with aqueous
133 chemistry is used to simulate aerosol evolution (Zaveri et al., 2008). In MOSAIC
134 module, aerosols are assumed to be internally mixed into 8 bins (0.039–0.078 μm ,
135 0.078–0.156 μm , 0.156–0.312 μm , 0.312–0.625 μm , 0.625–1.25 μm , 1.25–2.5 μm , 2.5–
136 5.0 μm and 5.0–10 μm), and each bin considers all major aerosol species, such as sulfate
137 (SO_4^{2-}), nitrate (NO_3), ammonium (NH_4^+), black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), and
138 other inorganic mass (secondary organic aerosols are not included in MOSAIC (Yang
139 et al., 2022)). The impacts of aerosols on photolysis rates are calculated by using the
140 Fast-J scheme (Wild et al., 2000). The following physical parameterizations are used in
141 WRF-Chem. The Rapid Radiative Transfer Model for general circulation models
142 (RRTMG) scheme is used to treat both shortwave and longwave radiation in the
143 atmosphere (Iacono et al., 2008). The Purdue Lin microphysics scheme (Lin et al., 1983)
144 and the Grell 3D ensemble scheme (Grell, 1993) are used to describe the cloud
145 microphysical and cumulus convective processes. The Noah land surface scheme (Chen
146 and Dudhia, 2001) and the Monin-Obukhov surface scheme (Foken, 2006) are used to
147 simulate land-atmosphere interactions. The planetary boundary layer is characterized
148 by Yonsei University PBL scheme (Hong et al 2006).

149 In this study, Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC;
150 <http://www.meicmodel.org/>) in 2013 and 2017 are used as the anthropogenic emissions
151 of particles and gases (Zheng et al., 2018). Biogenic emissions are calculated online by
152 using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) developed
153 by Guenther et al. (2006).

154 2.2 Numerical experiments

155 Seven sensitivity experiments are designed (Table 1). Here are the detailed
156 descriptions:

157 (1) BASE_17E17M: This baseline experiment is coupled with the interactions
158 between aerosol and radiation, which includes the impacts of API and ARF. Both
159 the meteorological field and anthropogenic emission are fixed at year 2017.



- 160 (2) BASE_13E13M: Same as BASE_17E17M, but the meteorological field and
161 anthropogenic emission are fixed at year 2013.
- 162 (3) NOAPI_17E17M: Same as BASE_17E17M, but the impact of API is not
163 considered by turning off the aerosol effect in the photolysis module, following the
164 method described in Yang et al. (2022).
- 165 (4) NOALL_17E17M: Same as BASE_17E17M, but neither the impact of API nor
166 ARF is considered by zeroing the aerosol optical properties in the optical module,
167 following the method described in Yang et al. (2022).
- 168 (5) BASE_13E17M: Same as BASE_17E17M, but the anthropogenic emission is
169 fixed at year 2013.
- 170 (6) NOAPI_13E17M: Same as NOAPI_17E17M, but the anthropogenic emission is
171 fixed at year 2013.
- 172 (7) NOALL_13E17M: Same as NOALL_17E17M, but the anthropogenic emission is
173 fixed at year 2013.

174 Figure 1 detailedly presents the schematic overview of designed numerical
175 experiments. As shown in Fig. 1, the differences between BASE_17E17M and
176 BASE_13E13M (BASE_17E17M minus BASE_13E13M) represent the changed O₃
177 (ΔO_3) due to variations in meteorology and anthropogenic emissions from 2013 to 2017.
178 The differences between BASE_13E17M and BASE_13E13M (BASE_13E17M minus
179 BASE_13E13M) show the impact of changed meteorological conditions on O₃
180 (ΔO_3_{MET}) from 2013 to 2017. The differences between BASE_17E17M and
181 BASE_13E17M (BASE_17E17M minus BASE_13E17M) indicate the impact of
182 anthropogenic emission reductions on O₃ (ΔO_3_{EMI}) from 2013 to 2017.

183 The impacts of aerosol-radiation interaction (ARI) on O₃ under different
184 anthropogenic emission scenarios (i.e., strong anthropogenic emission levels in year
185 2013, and weaker anthropogenic emission levels in year 2017) can be analyzed as the
186 differences between BASE_17E17M and NOALL_17E17M (BASE_17E17M minus
187 NOALL_17E17M, denote as ΔO_3_{ARI17E}), and BASE_13E17M and
188 NOALL_13E17M (BASE_13E17M minus NOALL_13E17M, denote as ΔO_3_{ARI13E}).



189 Thus, the impact of weakened ARI due to clean air action on O₃ (denote as
190 $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARI_ EMI$) can be quantified from the differences between $\Delta O_3_ ARI_{17E}$ and
191 $\Delta O_3_ ARI_{13E}$. Similarly, the impacts of weakened API (denote as $\Delta O_3_ \Delta API_ EMI$) and
192 ARF (denote as $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARF_ EMI$) due to decreased anthropogenic emission on O₃ can
193 also be estimated from the differences between (BASE_17E17M minus
194 NOAPI_17E17M, denote as $\Delta O_3_ API_{17E}$) and (BASE_13E17M minus
195 NOAPI_13E17M, denote as $\Delta O_3_ API_{13E}$), and between (NOAPI_17E17M minus
196 NOALL_17E17M, denote as $\Delta O_3_ ARF_{17E}$) and (NOAPI_13E17M minus
197 NOALL_13E17M, denote as $\Delta O_3_ ARF_{13E}$), respectively. Detailed descriptions can be
198 found in Fig. 1.

199 Simulation periods are integrated from 30 May to 30 June (denoted as summer)
200 and 29 November to 31 December (denoted as winter) both in 2013 and 2017. To avoid
201 potential deviations caused by long-term model integration, each simulation is re-
202 initialized every eight days, with the first 40 hours as the model spin-up. The complete
203 simulation includes five model cycles. Simulation results from the BASE_17E17M
204 case during summer and winter are used to evaluate the model performance. If not
205 otherwise specified, the time in this paper is the local time, and the synergetic impacts
206 of ARF and API are equal to the impact of ARI (i.e., $ARI=ARF+API$).

207 2.3 Observational data

208 Meteorological observations of temperature (T_2), relative humidity (RH_2), wind
209 speed (WS_{10}) and wind direction (WD_{10}) provided by the NOAA's National Climatic
210 Data Center (<https://www.ncei.noaa.gov/>) are used to validate the model
211 meteorological performance. In this study, 353 stations are selected and the locations
212 are shown as red dots in Fig. S1. Observed surface PM_{2.5}, O₃ and NO₂ concentrations
213 in eastern China are obtained from the China National Environmental Monitoring
214 Center, which can be downloaded from <http://beijingair.sinaapp.com>. To ensure the
215 data quality, a single site with at least 500 actual observations during the simulated
216 period are used for model evaluation. A total of 1296 sites, as shown in Fig. 2a, are
217 obtained. Photolysis rates of nitrogen dioxide (NO₂) ($J[NO_2]$) measured at the Peking



218 University site (39.99 °N, 116.31 °E) are also used to evaluate the model performance.

219 2.4 Integrated process rate analysis

220 In order to quantitatively elucidate individual contributions of physical and
221 chemical processes to O₃ concentration changes due to weakened ARI, the integrated
222 process rate (IPR) methodology is applied in this study. IPR analysis is an advanced
223 tool to evaluate the key process for O₃ concentration variation (Shu et al., 2016; Zhu et
224 al., 2021; Yang et al., 2022). In this study, the IPR analysis tracks hourly (e.g., one time
225 step) contribution to O₃ concentration variation from four main processes, including
226 vertical mixing (VMIX), net chemical production (CHEM), horizontal advection
227 (ADVH), and vertical advection (ADVZ). We define ADV as the sum of ADVH and
228 ADVZ.

229 3. Model Evaluation

230 Simulation results of BASE_17E17M are used to compare with the observations
231 to evaluate the model performs before interpreting the impacts of aerosol-radiation
232 interaction on surface-layer ozone concentration.

233 3.1 Evaluation for meteorology

234 Figure S2 shows the time series of observed and simulated T₂, RH₂, WS₁₀, and
235 WD₁₀ averaged over the 353 meteorological stations in China during summer and
236 winter in 2017. Statistical performances of simulated meteorological parameters
237 compared with ground-based observations are shown in Table 2. Simulations track well
238 with observed T₂ with the correlation coefficient (R) of 0.99 and 0.92, but underestimate
239 T₂ with the mean bias (MB) of -1.0 and -2.0 K in summer and winter, respectively.
240 Simulated RH₂ agree reasonably well with observations with R of 0.97 and 0.87, and
241 small normalized mean biases (NMB) are found in summer and winter with values of
242 3.2% and 3.5%, respectively. WS₁₀ is slightly overpredicted with the MB of 1.6-2.1 m
243 s⁻¹. The R and root-mean-square error (RMSE) of WS₁₀ are 0.77-0.82 and 1.6-2.1 m s⁻¹,
244 respectively. Large bias in wind speed can be partly caused by unresolved
245 topographical features (Jimenez and Dudhia, 2012). The NMB of WD₁₀ ranges from -



246 3.9% to -2.6% and the R ranges from 0.40 to 0.69, respectively. As shown in Fig. S3,
247 the predicted $J[\text{NO}_2]$ match well with the observations with R of 0.93-0.94 and NMB
248 of 4.8%-12.3%. In general, the simulated meteorological variables fairly well
249 agreement with the observations.

250 3.2 Evaluation for air pollutants

251 Figure 2 shows the spatial-temporal variations of observed and simulated near-
252 surface $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, O_3 and NO_2 concentrations averaged over eastern China during summer
253 and winter in 2017. As demonstrated in Figs. 2(a1) and (c1), WRF-Chem model
254 reasonably well reproduces the spatial distribution of observed $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, with high values
255 over large city cluster. The predicted O_3 concentrations can also reproduce the spatial
256 variation of the observed concentrations (Figs. 2(a2) and (c2)). NO_2 is an important
257 precursor of O_3 and aerosol, a good performance on NO_2 is necessary. From Figs. 2(a3)
258 and (c3), the model can well reproduce the spatial distribution of observed NO_2 .
259 Although the distributions of simulated air pollutants are in good with the observations,
260 biases still exist, which may be due to the uncertain in the emission inventories. Figures
261 2(b1-b3) and 2(d1-d3) show the temporal profiles of observed and simulated surface-
262 layer air pollutants averaged over monitoring sites and the grid cell containing the
263 monitor site in eastern China. The statistical metrics are also shown in Table 2. As
264 shown in Figs. 2(b1) and (d1), the model tracks well with the diurnal variation of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
265 over the eastern China, with R of 0.63 and 0.80, respectively. But the model slightly
266 underestimates the concentrations of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ with MB of -6.3 and -10.1 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
267 respectively, in summer and winter. Simulated O_3 agree reasonably well with
268 observations with R of 0.90 and 0.86, and small MB are found in summer and winter
269 with values of -0.6 and 2.8 ppb, respectively. The model tracks the daily variation of
270 observed NO_2 reasonably well, with R of 0.73 and 0.83. But the model slightly
271 underestimates the NO_2 against measurements, with MB of -1.5 and -4.5 ppb,
272 respectively, in summer and winter. In general, WRF-Chem model can well reproduce
273 the features of observed meteorology and air pollutants over eastern China.



274 4. Results and Discussion

275 4.1 Impacts of changed meteorology and anthropogenic emission on O₃

276 The strategy of clean air action decreased the anthropogenic emission of NO_x, but
277 the changes in anthropogenic VOCs emissions were unobvious (Fig. S4), which might
278 influence the O₃ formation sensitive regime and the O₃ concentration. Figure 3 shows
279 the spatial distributions of changed summer and winter MDA8 O₃ concentrations from
280 2013 to 2017 over eastern China, and the contributions of changed anthropogenic
281 emissions alone and changed meteorological conditions alone. As shown in Fig. 3(b),
282 the concentration of summer MDA8 O₃ from 2013 to 2017 was increased in city
283 clusters, but it was decreased in rural regions. This discrepancy might be explained by
284 the ozone formation regimes in urban (typically VOCs-limited) and rural (typically
285 NO_x-limited) areas during summer (Li et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2019). Contrary to the
286 phenomenon in summer, decreased anthropogenic emissions lead to a uniform increase
287 in winter MDA8 O₃ over the whole eastern China (Fig. 3(e)). The different spatial
288 variation characteristics in summer and winter could be explained by the different ozone
289 formation regimes in winter (VOCs-limited) and summer (NO_x-limited) (Jin and
290 Holloway, 2015). From Figs. 3(c) and (f), the impacts of changed meteorological
291 conditions on MDA8 O₃ varied by regions, ranging from -24.9 (-14.0) to 17.0 (7.3) ppb
292 in summer (winter).

293 The reductions in anthropogenic emissions from 2013 to 2017 will also lead to a
294 decrease in PM_{2.5} concentrations (Fig. S5), which can further affect the O₃
295 concentrations by weakened aerosol-radiation interaction (ARI). Further, we average
296 the observed MDA8 O₃ concentrations of monitoring sites in the urban areas and the
297 simulation value for the grid cell containing the monitoring site to examine the impacts
298 of changed meteorological conditions, anthropogenic emissions and ARI on O₃ levels
299 in densely populated urban areas (Fig. 4). Given that most of the monitoring stations
300 with 5 years of continuous observations are located in urban areas. Therefore, these
301 monitoring stations and the grid cells containing the monitoring stations can be
302 considered as urban areas in this study (Liu and Wang, 2020b). As shown in Figs. 4(a1)



303 and (b1), the changes in observed MDA8 O₃ over urban areas in eastern China from
304 2013 to 2017 can be well captured by WRF-Chem both in summer and winter. In
305 summer, changed meteorological conditions from 2013 to 2017 has little impact on the
306 variations in MDA8 O₃ over the urban areas, while the contribution of emission
307 reductions to increased MDA8 O₃ is significant. In winter, changed meteorological
308 conditions is unfavorable for the increase in MDA8 O₃ from 2013 to 2017, indicating
309 the worsened ozone pollution driven by the changed anthropogenic emission. What's
310 more, the $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARI_EMI}$ has significant effect on the increased MDA8 O₃ in summer
311 from 2013 to 2017 with the value of +1.77 ppb (87.6%), but its impacts in winter are
312 smaller, only +0.42 ppb (11.8%), which is consistent with the results in Li et al. (2021).
313 Meanwhile, the contributions of $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$ and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$ to the increase
314 in O₃ concentration averaged over urban areas in eastern China are almost the same in
315 summer (0.79 vs. 0.98) and winter (0.20 vs. 0.22). The model can also capture the
316 changes in observed summer/winter MDA8 O₃ from 2013 to 2017 over urban areas in
317 the four city clusters (Figs. 4(a2-b5)), except BTH in summer. The reason for the
318 underestimation over BTH may be that this study did not consider the effect of changes
319 in aerosol heterogeneous reactions. Li et al. (2019) found that the weakened uptake of
320 HO₂ on aerosol surfaces was the main reason for the O₃ increase over BTH. In general,
321 we find that the enhancement of O₃ concentrations both in summer and winter is mainly
322 caused by the factor of reduced anthropogenic emissions. Furthermore, the
323 contributions of $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$ and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$ to the increases in O₃
324 concentrations from 2013 to 2017 over urban areas are almost the same during summer
325 and winter.

326 4.2 Impacts of weakened aerosol-radiation interaction on O₃

327 Figures S6a (S7a) and S6b (S7b) present the spatial distribution of the impacts of
328 ARF, API and ARI on surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations in summer (winter) under
329 different anthropogenic emission conditions in year 2017 and 2013, respectively. As
330 shown in Fig. S6, summer MDA8 O₃ are significantly reduced over eastern China, ARF,



331 API and ARI decrease the surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations by 0.23 (0.59) ppb, 1.09
332 (1.54) ppb and 1.32 (2.13) ppb under low (high) anthropogenic emission conditions in
333 year 2017 (year 2013), respectively. The changes in MDA8 O₃ concentrations due to
334 aerosol-radiation interaction under low emission condition are weaker than that under
335 high emission condition. This is because the concentration of aerosols in year 2013 is
336 higher than that in year 2017, and then its impact on meteorological conditions and
337 J[NO₂] is greater (Fig. S8). As shown in Fig. S7a, ARF, API and ARI decrease the
338 winter MDA8 O₃ concentrations by 0.38 ppb (-0.9%), 1.59 ppb (-4.1%) and 1.96 ppb
339 (-5.1%) in year 2017, respectively. Compared to the impacts under relatively high
340 anthropogenic emission conditions in year 2013, the reduction of surface MDA8 O₃
341 concentrations caused by ARF, API and ARI are also greater, with the values of 0.62
342 ppb (-1.6%), 1.98 ppb (-5.4%) and 2.59 ppb (-7.1%), respectively. Both API and ARF
343 reduce O₃ concentrations, and the reduction in O₃ caused by API is greater than that
344 caused by ARF both in summer and winter.

345 Further, the significant reduction in PM_{2.5} due to clean air action (Fig. S5) will
346 lead to an increase in O₃ concentrations as the weakened effects of aerosols on O₃.
347 Therefore, this study further quantifies the effects of $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$,
348 $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$ and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARI_EMI}$ on O₃ air quality. As shown in Figs. 5(a1-a3),
349 the surface MDA8 O₃ in summer are increased over most of eastern China due to
350 $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$, $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$ and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARI_EMI}$. The largest increases in
351 MDA8 O₃ concentrations due to $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$ and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$ are found in
352 the developed four city clusters, with the increase larger than 4 ppb. Overall,
353 $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$, $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$ and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARI_EMI}$ lead to the increase in
354 surface MDA8 O₃ by 0.36 ppb, 0.45 ppb and 0.81 ppb averaged over eastern China
355 during summer, respectively. As shown in Fig. 5(a4-a6), the $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$,
356 $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$ and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARI_EMI}$ can also cause an increase in winter MDA8 O₃
357 concentrations by 0.24 ppb, 0.39 ppb and 0.63 ppb, respectively. In general, weakened
358 aerosol-radiation interaction due to reduced anthropogenic emission from 2013 to 2017
359 can exacerbate ozone pollution both in summer and winter.

360 In order to explore the mechanism of the impacts of $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARI_EMI}$ on MDA8



361 O₃, we resolve the changed O₃ into the contributions from chemical and physical
362 processes. Figure 6 presents the accumulated changes in O₃ and each process
363 contribution from 09:00 to 16:00 LST by the $\Delta O_3_ \Delta API_EMI$, $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARF_EMI$ and
364 $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARI_EMI$ ($\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARI_EMI = \Delta O_3_ \Delta API_EMI + \Delta O_3_ \Delta ARF_EMI$) during
365 summer and winter. As shown in Fig 6, the enhanced chemical production is the
366 dominant process leading to the increase in O₃ concentrations over eastern China and
367 the four city clusters both in summer and winter. The leading factor of enhancement in
368 O₃ over BTH are inconsistent with that over eastern China, and the enhancement of O₃
369 concentration in BTH is mainly due to $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARF_EMI$. But the leading factor of
370 enhancement in O₃ over SCB are consistent with that in eastern China, the enhancement
371 of O₃ concentration is mainly due to $\Delta O_3_ \Delta API_EMI$ both in summer and winter.
372 Moreover, the enhancement of O₃ concentration in BTH, YRD and PRD is mainly due
373 to $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARF_EMI$ during winter, which is opposite to that of eastern China. The
374 leading factors for the increase of O₃ concentration in different city clusters are different.
375 The enhancement of O₃ concentration in most areas is caused by $\Delta O_3_ \Delta API_EMI$,
376 whereas the increase in O₃ concentration in BTH, YRD and PRD areas is dominated by
377 $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARF_EMI$ in winter. In general, the weakened aerosol-radiation interaction
378 caused by emission reduction would promote the chemical production of O₃ and
379 increase the O₃ concentrations over eastern China in summer and winter.

380 In order to explore the reason for the increase in O₃ chemical production, we
381 further analyzed the variation of HO_x (HO+HO₂) concentration from 2013 to 2017. As
382 the aerosol concentration decreases, its influence on solar radiation is weakened and
383 photolysis is enhanced, leading to an increase in HO_x levels. It can be seen from Fig.
384 S9 that the concentration of HO_x increases both in winter and summer. The increase in
385 HO_x will promote the conversion of NO to NO₂, which will lead to the accumulation
386 of O₃ concentration.

387 4.3 Impacts of weakened aerosol-radiation interaction on effectiveness of emission
388 reduction for O₃ air quality

389 Figure 7 shows the changed summer and winter surface-layer MDA8 O₃



390 concentrations caused by anthropogenic emission reduction from 2013 to 2017 with
391 (ΔO_3_EMI) and without (ΔO_3_NOARI) ARI, including the effects of weakened ARI on
392 the effectiveness of emission reduction for O_3 air quality ($\Delta O_3_ARI_EMI$, which is
393 also equal to ΔO_3_EMI minus ΔO_3_NOARI). Comparing with Fig. 7(a1) and (a2) in
394 summer and Fig. 7(a4) and (a5) in winter, when the impact of ARI is considered, the
395 concentrations of MDA8 O_3 are increased more than that when ARI is not taken into
396 account. Thus, $\Delta O_3_ARI_EMI$ makes the superimposed impact on the effectiveness
397 of anthropogenic emission reduction for the increased MDA8 O_3 concentrations from
398 2013 to 2017 over eastern China. However, during summer, the worsened O_3 air quality
399 due to weakened ARI can only be found in scattered city clusters (e.g., BTH, YRD and
400 PRD in Fig. 7(a3)). During winter, it would increase MDA8 O_3 concentrations over
401 nearly the whole eastern China (Fig. 7(a6)).

402 **5 Conclusions**

403 In this study, the impact of weakened aerosol-radiation interaction (ARI) due to
404 decreased anthropogenic emissions on surface O_3 ($\Delta O_3_ARI_EMI$) over eastern
405 China is mainly analyzed by using an online-coupled regional chemistry transport
406 model WRF-Chem. Simulation results generally reproduce the spatiotemporal
407 characteristics of observations with correlation coefficients of 0.63-0.90 for pollutant
408 concentrations and 0.40-0.99 for meteorological parameters, respectively.

409 Sensitivity experiments show that the changes in MDA8 O_3 from 2013 to 2017
410 over eastern China vary spatially and seasonally, and the decreased anthropogenic
411 emission plays a more prominent role for the MDA8 O_3 increase than the impact of
412 changed meteorological conditions both in summer and winter. Furthermore, the
413 decreased $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations due to reduced anthropogenic emissions can result in a
414 weaker impact of ARI on O_3 concentrations, which finally pose a superimposed effect
415 on the worsened O_3 air quality. For urban areas over eastern China, $\Delta O_3_ARI_EMI$
416 has a significant effect on the increase of MDA8 O_3 in summer with the value of +1.77
417 ppb, accounting for 87.6% of the increased value caused by decreased anthropogenic
418 emissions, but the impacts in winter are smaller (+0.42 ppb), accounting for 11.8% of



419 the increased value caused by decreased anthropogenic emissions. For the whole
420 regions over eastern China, the enhancement of MDA8 O₃ by $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARI_ EMI$ is +0.81
421 (+0.63) ppb, with $\Delta O_3_ \Delta API_ EMI$ and $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARF_ EMI$ contributing for 55.6%
422 (61.9%) and 44.4% (38.1%) in summer (winter), respectively. Process analysis shows
423 that the enhanced O₃ chemical production is the dominant process for the increased O₃
424 concentrations caused by $\Delta O_3_ \Delta ARI_ EMI$ both in summer and winter.

425 Generally, since China's clean air action from 2013, the decreased PM_{2.5}
426 concentrations due to reduced anthropogenic emissions can worsen O₃ air quality by
427 the weakened interactions between aerosol and radiation, which is a new and an
428 important implication for understanding the causes driving the increases in O₃ level
429 over eastern China. Therefore, our results highlight that more carefully designed multi-
430 pollutants coordinated emissions control strategies are needed to reduce the
431 concentrations of PM_{2.5} and O₃ simultaneously.

432



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603 **Table 1.** Descriptions of model sensitivity experiments.

Cases	Anthropogenic emission	Meteorological field	API ^a	ARF ^a
BASE_17E17M	2017	2017	On	On
BASE_13E13M	2013	2013	On	On
NOAPI_17E17M	2017	2017	Off	On
NOALL_17E17M	2017	2017	Off	Off
BASE_13E17M	2013	2017	On	On
NOAPI_13E17M	2013	2017	Off	On
NOALL_13E17M	2013	2017	Off	Off

604 ^aAPI means aerosol-photolysis interaction, ARF means aerosol-radiation feedback.

605



Table 2. Statistical parameters of the simulated 2 m temperature (T_2 , k), 2 m relative humidity (RH_2 , %), 10 m wind speed (WS_{10} , m s⁻¹), 10 m wind direction (WD_{10} , °), photolysis rate of NO_2 ($J[NO_2]$, 10³ s⁻¹), $PM_{2.5}$ ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), O_3 (ppb), and NO_2 (ppb) against observations during summer and winter in 2017.

Variable	Summer						Winter					
	O^a	M^a	R^b	MB^c	NMB^d (%)	$RMSE^e$	O^a	M^a	R^b	MB^c	NMB^d (%)	$RMSE^e$
T_2	295.3	294.2	0.99	-1.0	-3.2	1.0	275.0	272.8	0.92	-2.0	-74.1	2.5
RH_2	68.1	71.0	0.97	2.2	3.2	3.6	58.1	60.6	0.87	2.1	3.5	6.5
WS_{10}	2.6	4.2	0.77	1.6	61.6	1.6	2.6	4.7	0.82	2.1	83.2	2.1
WD_{10}	175.7	170.9	0.40	-4.6	-2.6	16.9	192.6	184.6	0.69	-7.5	-3.9	17.4
$J[NO_2]$	2.6	2.7	0.93	0.1	4.8	1.2	1.0	1.2	0.94	0.1	12.3	0.6
$PM_{2.5}$	31.0	24.8	0.63	-6.3	-20.2	8.3	69.0	58.9	0.80	-10.1	-14.6	15.6
O_3	39.7	38.9	0.90	-0.6	-1.6	6.9	17.7	20.5	0.86	2.8	15.7	5.0
NO_2	12.7	11.2	0.73	-1.5	-12.0	4.5	23.3	18.7	0.83	-4.5	-19.4	5.6

^a O and M are the averages for observed and simulated results, respectively. $O = \frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^n O_i$, $M = \frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^n M_i$.

^b R is the correlation coefficient between observations and model results. $R = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n |(O_i - O) \times (M_i - M)|}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - O)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - M)^2}}$.

^c MB is the mean bias between observations and model results. $MB = \frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - O_i)$.

^d NMB is the normalized mean bias between observations and model results. $NMB = \frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{M_i - O_i}{O_i} \times 100\%$.

^e $RMSE$ is the root-mean-square error of observations and model results. $RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \times \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - O_i)^2}$.

In the above O_i and M_i are the hourly observed and simulated data, respectively, and n is the total number of hours.

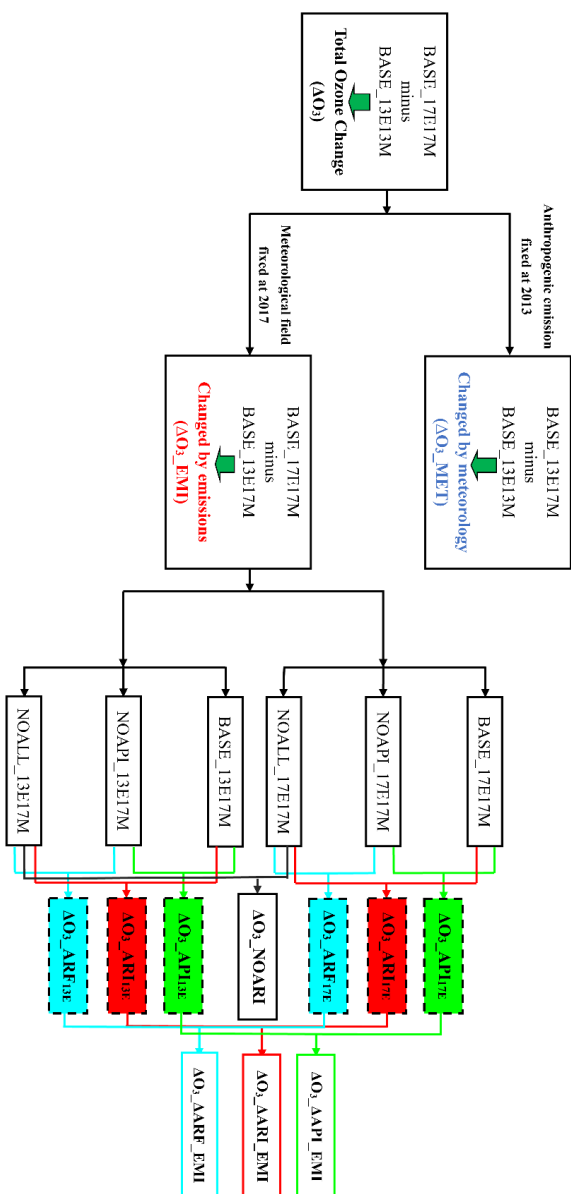


Figure 1. Schematic overview of numerical experiments. 17E17M (13E13M) means meteorological fields and anthropogenic emissions are fixed at year 2017 (2013). 13E17M means anthropogenic emissions are fixed at year 2013 but meteorological fields are at year 2017. ΔO_3_{MET} , ΔO_3_{EMI} and ΔO_3 mean the impacts of changed meteorological conditions, changed anthropogenic emissions and their combined effects on O_3 , respectively. $\Delta O_3_{API(13E)}$, $\Delta O_3_{ARF(13E)}$ and $\Delta O_3_{ARI(13E)}$ mean the impacts of aerosol-photolysis interaction, aerosol-radiation feedback and aerosol-radiation interaction on O_3 under different emission conditions, respectively. ΔO_3_{NOARI} means the changed O_3 concentration by reduced anthropogenic emissions without considering aerosol-radiation interaction. $\Delta O_3_{AARF_EMI}$, $\Delta O_3_{AARI_EMI}$ and $\Delta O_3_{AARI_EMI}$ represent the impacts of weakened aerosol-photolysis interaction, aerosol-radiation feedback and aerosol-radiation interaction due to decreased anthropogenic emission on O_3 concentration, respectively.

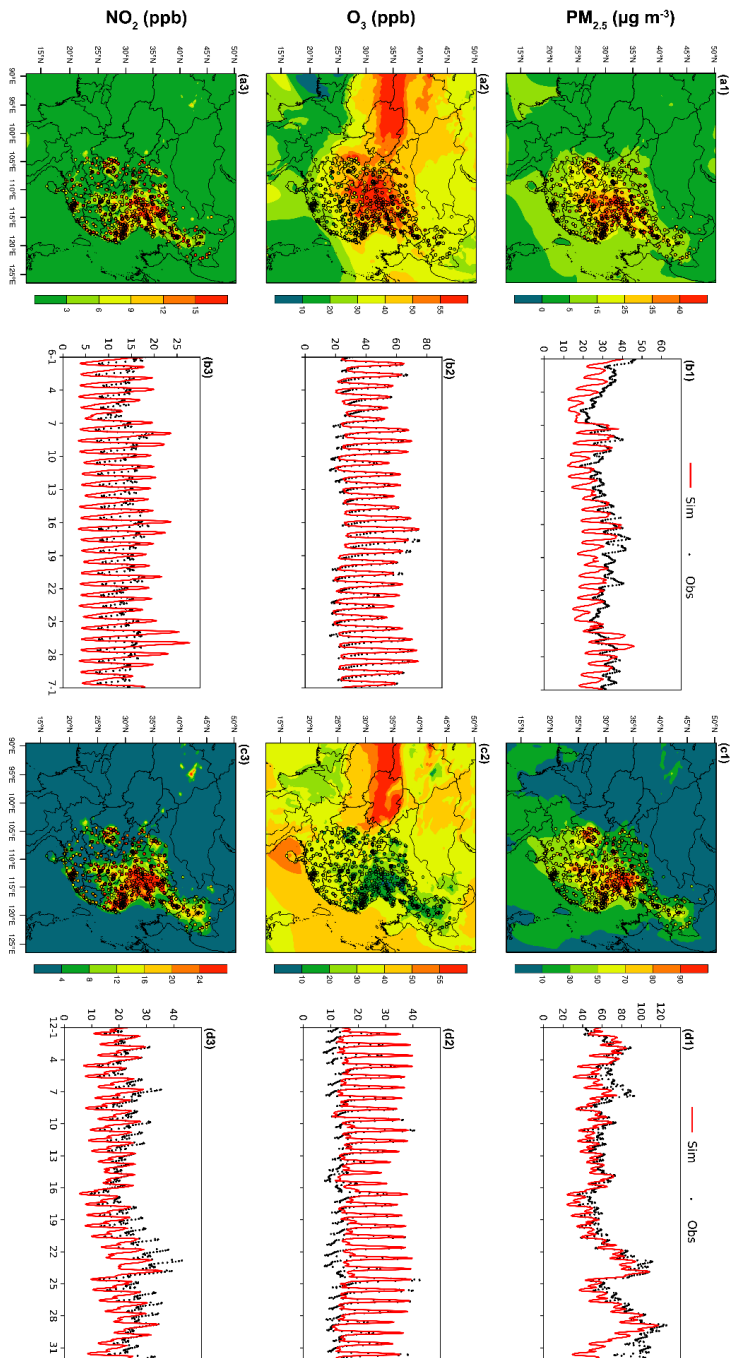


Figure 2. Spatial distributions of observed (circle) and simulated (shade) $PM_{2.5}$, O_3 and NO_2 concentrations averaged over (a1–a3) summer and (c1–c3) winter in 2017. Time series of observed (black dots) and simulated (red lines) hourly $PM_{2.5}$, O_3 and NO_2 concentrations averaged over the whole observation sites in eastern China during (b1–b3) summer and (d1–d3) winter in 2017.

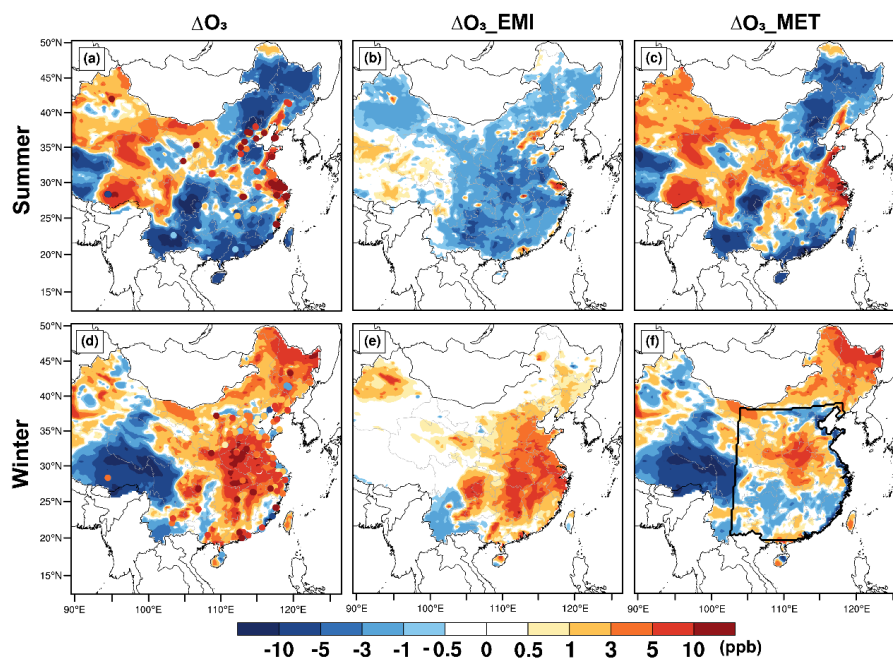


Figure 3. (a, d) Spatial distribution of changed summer (upper) and winter (bottom) surface-layer MDA8 O₃ from 2013 to 2017, and the contributions of (b, e) changed anthropogenic emissions alone and (c, f) changed meteorological fields alone. The observed changes in surface MDA8 O₃ are also marked with colored circles in (a) and (d). The enclosed black line in (f) represents eastern China.

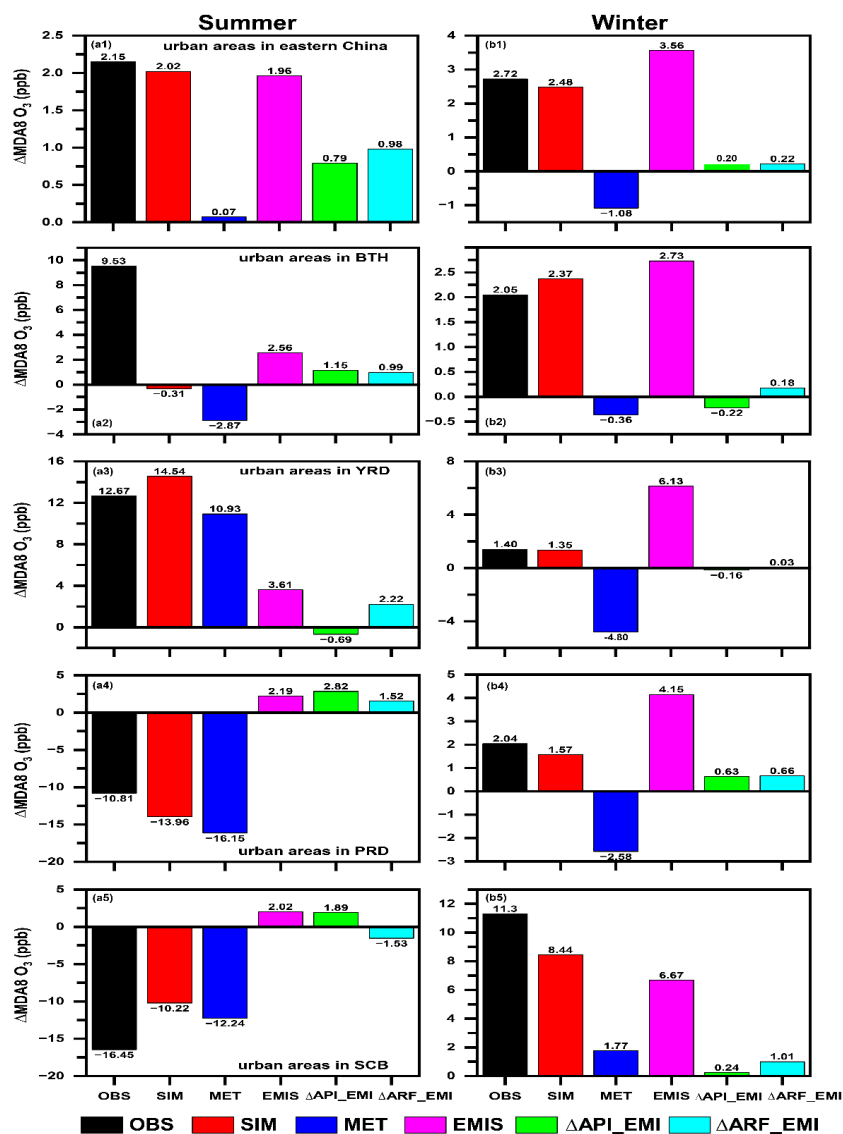


Figure 4. The observed (OBS, black bars) and simulated (SIM, red bars) changes in (left) summer and (right) winter surface-layer MDA8 O₃ from 2013 to 2017. Contributions of changed meteorological conditions alone (MET, blue bars), changed anthropogenic emissions alone (EMI, purple bars), changed aerosol-photolysis interaction alone (ΔAPI_EMI, green bars), and changed aerosol-radiation feedback alone (ΔARF_EMI, cyan bars) are also shown. Observations are calculated from the monitoring sites in the analyzed region, while the corresponding gridded simulations are averaged for SIM. (a1-b1), (a2-b2), (a3-b3), (a4-b4) and (a5-b5) represent the urban areas in eastern China, Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH), Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Pearl River Delta (PRD), and Sichuan Basin (SCB), respectively.

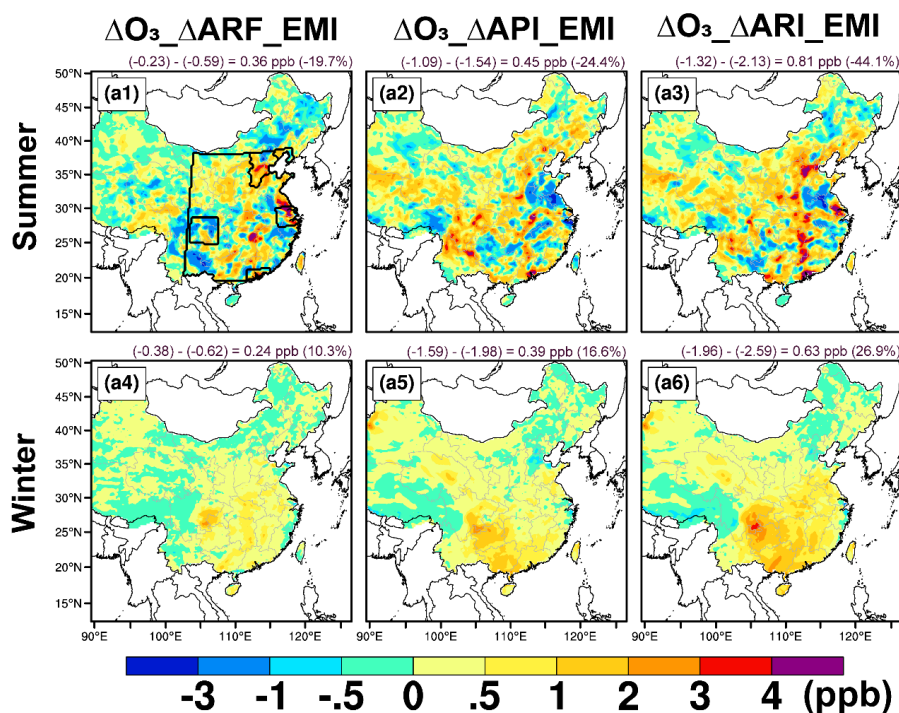


Figure 5. Impacts of $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$, $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$, and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARI_EMI}$ on summer (upper) and winter (bottom) surface-layer MDA8 O_3 concentrations. The enclosed black line in (a1) represents eastern China and the four developed city clusters. The mean changes over eastern China are also shown at the top of each panel. Detailed information about $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARF_EMI}$, $\Delta O_3_{\Delta API_EMI}$, and $\Delta O_3_{\Delta ARI_EMI}$ can be found in Figure 1.

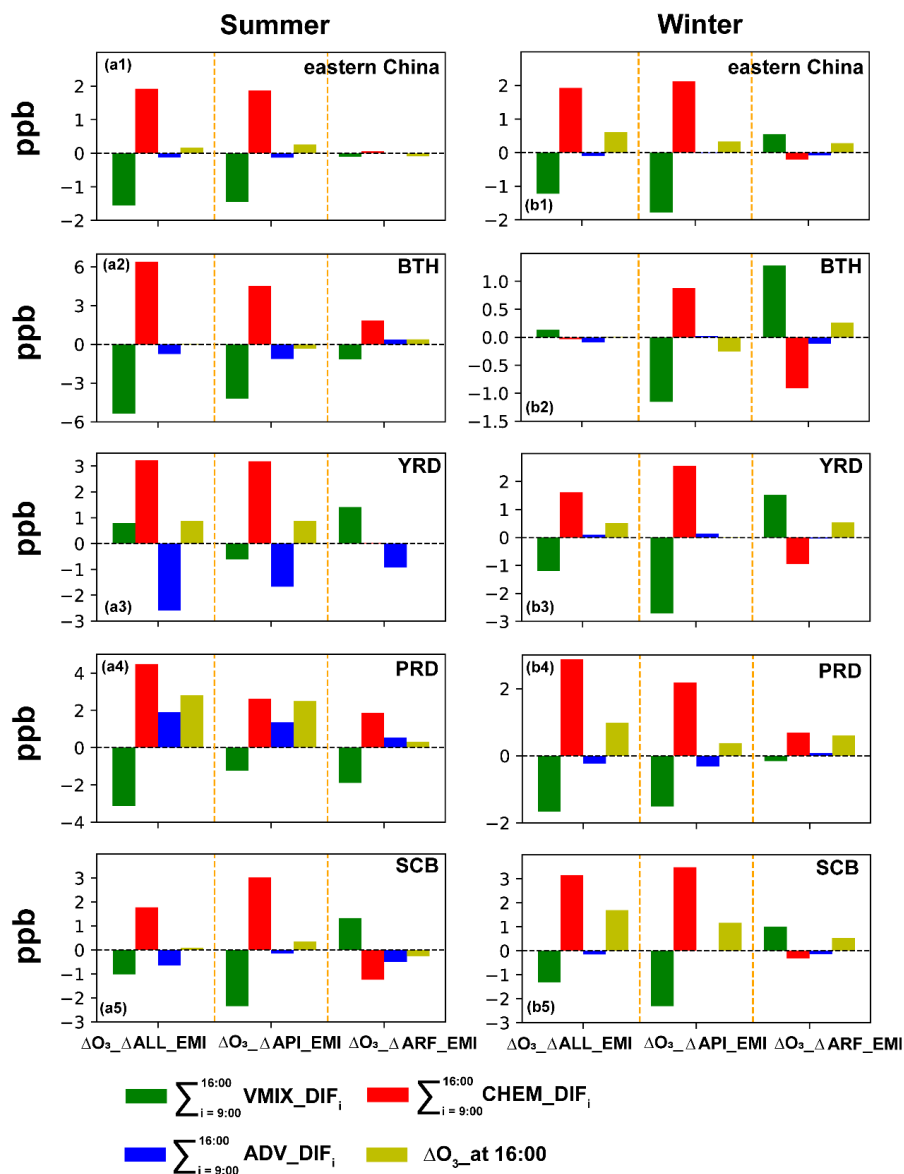


Figure 6. Accumulated changes in each process from 09:00 to 16:00 LST and the changed O₃ concentrations due to ΔO₃_ΔARI_EMI in summer (left column) and winter (right column). The regions of eastern China, Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH), Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Pearl River Delta (PRD) and Sichuan Basin (SCB) are indicated on the right side of each panel.

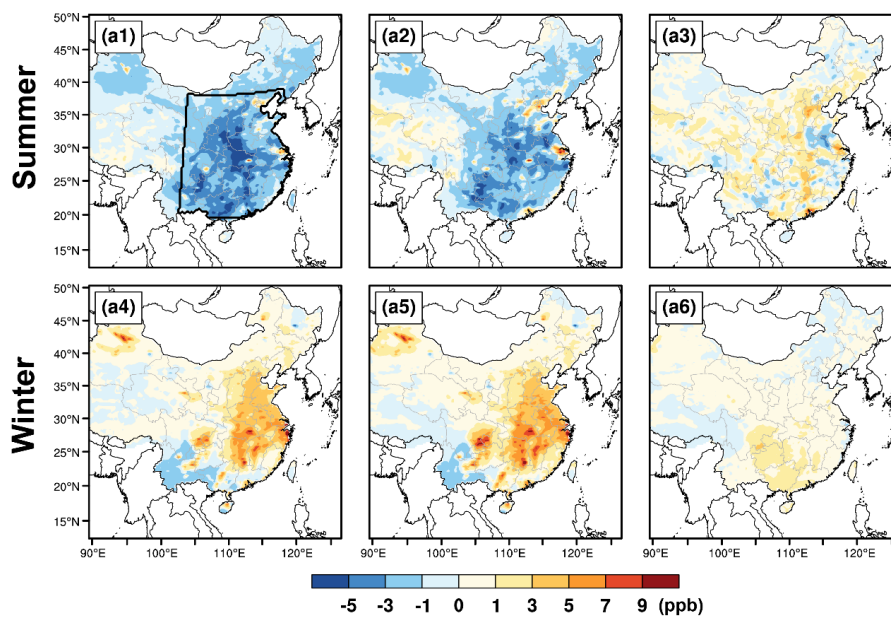


Figure 7. Spatial distribution of changed summer (upper) and winter (bottom) surface-layer MDA8 O₃ concentrations from sensitivity simulations. **(a1, a4)** Effects of anthropogenic emission reduction on MDA8 O₃ without ARI. **(a2, a5)** Effects of anthropogenic emission reduction on MDA8 O₃ with ARI. **(a3, a6)** Effects of weakened ARI on the effectiveness of emission reduction for O₃ air quality.