



- Summertime response of ozone and fine particulate
- 2 matter to mixing layer meteorology over the North
- 3 China Plain
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11 Abstract. Measurements of surface ozone (O₃), PM_{2.5} and its major secondary components (SO₄²⁻, 12 NO₃-, NH₄+, and OC), mixing layer height (MLH) and other meteorological parameters were made in 13 the North China Plain (NCP) during warm seasons (June-July) in 2021. The observation results 14 showed that the summertime regional MDA8 O₃ initially increased and reached the maximum (158.47 15 μg m⁻³) when MLH at around 900-1200 m, then turned to decrease with further evolution of MLH. 16 Interestingly, synchronized increases in PM_{2.5} concentration along with the development of the mixing 17 layer (MLH < 1200 m) have been witnessed, and the positive response of PM2.5 to MLH was 18 significantly associated with the increase in SO₄²⁻ and OC. It was found that this increasing trend of 19 PM_{2.5} with elevated MLH was not only determined by the effect of wet deposition process but also by 20 the enhanced secondary chemical formation, which was related to appropriate meteorological 21 conditions (50 % < RH < 70 %) and increased availability of atmospheric oxidants. Air temperature 22 played a minor role in the change characteristics of PM2.5 concentration, but greatly controlled the 23 competing role of SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻. The concentrations of SO₄²⁻ and OC increased synchronously with 24 elevated MDA8 O3 concentration, and the initial increase of PM2.5 along with the increased MLH 25 corresponded well with that of MDA8 O3. We highlight that the correlation between MLH and 26 secondary air pollutants should be treated with care in hot seasons, and the impact of atmospheric

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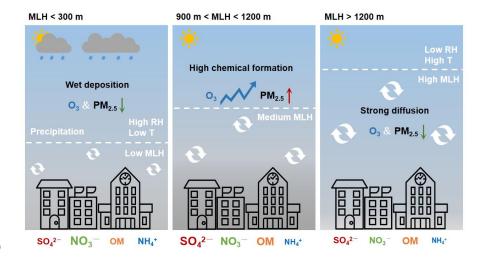
oxidation capacity on surface PM2.5 change profile along with the evolution of mixing layer should be

considered when developing PM_{2.5}-O₃ coordinated control strategies.

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1 Introduction

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than 2.5 µm) are important air pollutants in the atmosphere and have aroused a lot of attention from the public due to their adverse health impact (Jiang et al., 2018; Cohen et al., 2017; Gao and Ji, 2018). Even though stringent clean air actions have been implemented in China during the past decade, high concentrations of O₃ and/or PM_{2.5} exceeding the national air quality standards still occurred during warm seasons (June-August) in China, especially in the North China Plain (NCP), the economic center of China (Dai et al., 2023). O3 is a secondary pollutant originated from photochemical oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOC) and carbon monoxide (CO) in the presence of nitrogen oxides (NOx), and PM2.5 is mainly determined by the atmospheric processes of emissions and secondary formation from gaseous precursors. In addition to air pollutant emissions, meteorological conditions play critical roles in the formation of PM_{2.5} and O₃ (Miao et al., 2021). Mixing layer height (MLH), which influences the vertical mixing within the pollution mixing layer and determines the dilution of pollutants emitted near the ground (Haman et al., 2014; Zhu et al., 2018; Lou et al., 2019), often serves as a critical physical parameter in atmospheric environmental evaluation. Elucidating the association of MLH with surface O₃ and PM_{2.5} is fundamental for the development of PM_{2.5}-O₃ coordinated control strategies. The response of air pollution to MLH was changeable and complicated (Miao et al., 2021). Previous works frequently assumed that the narrowing of mixing layer resulted in accumulation of pollutants near the ground and the increase in MLH was expected to reduce PM2.5 concentration due to dilution (Murthy et al., 2020; Du et al., 2013). However, the relationship between mixing layer structure and PM_{2.5} concentration depends on the site, observation period, and the properties of MLH retrievals (Geiß et al., 2017). Even though the link between PM_{2.5} concentrations and MLH has been investigated in many studies, most observations were conducted in winter conditions and few studies in hot seasons. Interestingly, in some cities, such as Delhi (Murthy et al., 2020) and Shanghai (Pan et al., 2019; Miao et al., 2021), the increase in PM2.5 has been observed when MLH increased during summertime. As for O₃, the relationship between the changes in the MLH and O₃ concentrations is very complex. Both increase or decrease of O3 has been observed corresponded to the growth of MLH. To first order, O₃ concentration decreases along with the increase of MLH owing to dilution. Second, an

Surface ozone (O₃) and PM_{2.5} (atmospheric fine particles with an aerodynamic diameter of less





61 increase in MLH generally promotes the downward mixing of upper air containing higher O₃ (Ma et al., 62 2021; Haman et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2018). In addition, the meteorological conditions along with the 63 changes of MLH can influence O₃ concentrations through effecting O₃ gaseous precursors or 64 production rates (Porter and Heald, 2019; Zhang et al., 2022). The combined effects of these processes 65 ultimately determine whether O₃ decreases or increases. 66 Other meteorological variables in the mixing layer were also found to significantly affect PM2.5 and O₃ concentrations. The poor air quality in the NCP was tightly associated with near-surface 67 68 southerly winds and warm stagnant conditions during summertime (Zhang et al., 2015a). The increase 69 in PM_{2.5} concentration often coincided with high relative humidity (RH) conditions (Liu et al., 2017b), 70 which was beneficial to liquid-phase heterogeneous reactions and fine particle hygroscopic growth 71 (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006; Wang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2015b). Temperature was essential to 72 secondary chemical reaction (Dawson et al., 2007). The increase in temperature can promote chemical 73 reaction rates, but also stimulate the evaporation of semi-volatile aerosol components, such as nitrate 74 (Wen et al., 2018). For O₃, elevated O₃ concentrations generally happened on days with strong sunlight 75 and low wind speeds, which favored the photochemical production and the accumulation of O₃ and its 76 precursors. Several studies have shown that O3 was significantly positive correlated with temperature, 77 but negatively correlated with RH (Li et al., 2021; Hou and Wu, 2016; Steiner et al., 2010). 78 Secondary PM_{2.5} species, e.g., sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), and organic 79 matter (OM), have increased dramatically in recent years (Cheng et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2022b), and 80 the correlation between O₃ and PM_{2.5} tended to change from negative to positive from 2013 to 2018 in 81 China (Chu et al., 2020). Previous studies have reported that the increased O₃ concentration may cause 82 the enhancement of atmospheric oxidation capacity, thus influencing the chemical compositions, 83 formation pathways, and evolution processes of PM_{2.5} (Cheng et al., 2019; Kang et al., 2021). Even 84 though some studies have discussed the correlations between MLH and some secondary pollutants, the 85 understanding of the interaction between O₃ and PM_{2.5} (including its major components) along with the 86 evolution of mixing layer during warm seasons remained poor owing to the limited observations of 87 PM_{2.5} chemical species involved. The regional-scale observation can represent the variation 88 characteristics for this area and avoid the spatial heterogeneity between the sites. However, to the best 89 of our knowledge, previous observational studies were mostly limited to specific cities. Therefore, it's 90 encouraged to analyze multiple data sources to determine overall trends rather than making conclusions





based on a single dataset.

To enhance the understanding of the linkages between mixing layer structure and air pollution, in this study, a regional-scale field observation of meteorological factors, O₃, PM_{2.5} concentration and its secondary composition were conducted in the North China Plain (NCP) during a period of severe photochemical pollution (June–July) in 2021. For the first time, the potential association among ground-level observed O₃, PM_{2.5} and its dominant components, and mixing layer meteorological conditions will be explored in the NCP during summertime.

2 Data and methods

2.1 Measurements

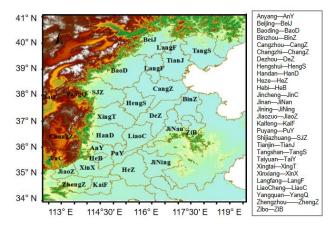


Figure 1. Location of monitoring stations in the NCP.

In this study, observation was made in the North China Plain (NCP) from June 1 to July 31, 2021. The air pollution observation stations in the NCP covered two megacities (BeiJ and TianJ) and 26 surrounding cities. The geographic locations of these stations are marked in Figure 1. The ground-level O₃, PM_{2.5} and its major components (SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and OC), and meteorological variables were obtained from the platform of National Atmospheric Particulate Chemical-Speciation-Network, which is established for improving the understanding of the heavy pollution formation mechanism in the NCP and supporting the decision-making of local governments and state administration. Near-ground meteorological variables included the relative humidity (RH), wind speed (WS), temperature, air pressure and daily accumulated precipitation. Mass concentrations of SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺ in PM_{2.5} were continuously measured at a 1-h resolution by MARGA (model ADI 2080) or AIM-IC (URG





9000D) equipped with a PM_{2.5} sampling inlet. Organic carbon (OC) was measured online by Sunset Semi-Continuous Carbon Analyzer (Sunset Laboratory Inc, USA). PM_{2.5}, O₃, and other gaseous pollutants, such as NO₂ and SO₂, were recorded hourly, mainly based on Thermo Scientific samplers and analyzers. Detailed descriptions of these online sampling instruments can be found in our previous works (Kong et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2017a; Pang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2022b). In this work, O₃ concentration was characterized by the daily maximum 8-h average (MDA8), and the other pollutants were obtained and recorded by the daily mean in each site to avoid the effect of diurnal variability. The vertical profiles of O₃ and aerosol characteristics in BeiJ, SJZ and TangS were measured by the DIAL system, which was developed by the Anhui Institute of Optics and Fine Mechanics (Chinese Academy of Sciences). The overall structure of the DIAL consists of three systems: a emitting system, a receiving system, and a data acquisition system, and the detail information can be found in the work by Wang et al. (2021).

2.2 The calculation of mixing layer heights

From the perspective of atmospheric turbulent motion, the height of the interface, where turbulence is discontinuous, is usually referred to as the mixing layer height (MLH; Stull, 1988). MLH can not be obtained through conventional surface meteorological observations, and it is necessary to use meteorological elements, such as temperature, RH, and air pressure for diagnosis. However, owing to the difficulty in obtaining the vertical distribution of turbulent parameters, in practical applications, MLH is usually determined from the thermal and dynamic effects reflecting turbulent motion. The work by Wang et al. (2022c) has pointed out that the lifting condensation level (LCL) satisfying the supersaturated state can be approximated to MLH. According to the method proposed by Wang et al. (2017), MLH is calculated based on the following equation and represented by air pressure (p):

134 MLH
$$\approx$$
 LCL = 6.11 \times 10² $\times \left(\frac{0.622 + 0.622 \frac{e_S}{p - e_S}}{0.622 \frac{e_S}{p - e_S}}\right)$, (1)

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$$e_s = 6.22 \times \exp \frac{17.13(T - 273.16)}{T - 38}$$
, (2)

- where e_s represents saturated water vapor pressure, T is temperature (K). According to the relationship
- between air pressure and height, the units of MLH can be converted to the height expression in meters:

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$$\int_{p_0}^{p_z} dp = -\int_0^z \rho_0 g dz, \tag{3}$$

where z is the height, ρ_0 is the density of gas, p_z and p_0 represent the air pressure in the height of z and





140 0, respectively.

3 Results and discussions

3.1 General characteristics

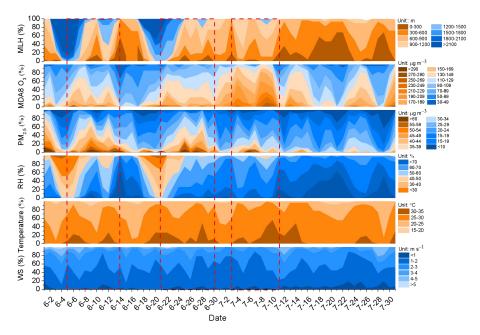


Figure 2. The frequency (%, ratio of occurrence cities to total NCP cities) of PM_{2.5}, MAD8 O₃, and meteorological factors in the NCP from June 1 to July 31, 2021. The color shading represents different categories classified by PM_{2.5}, MDA8 O₃, and meteorological factors. The red dash boxes represent three typical PM_{2.5} and O₃ pollution episodes.

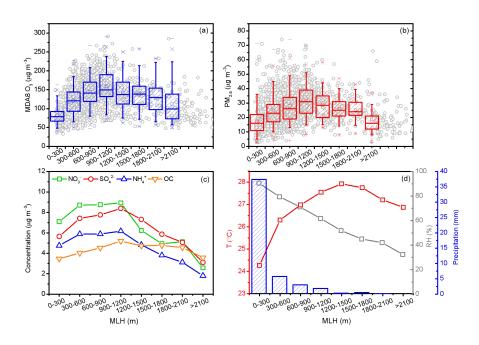
The summertime change characteristics of ground-level meteorological factors (MLH, RH, temperature, and WS), MDA8 O₃, PM_{2.5} and its major components in the NCP were demonstrated in Figure 2 and Figure S1. From June 1 to July 31, 2021, regional PM_{2.5} pollution processes corresponded well with the increasing processes of MDA8 O₃, and three concurring PM_{2.5} and O₃ pollution episodes have happened: June 5–14 (Episode I), June 21–30 (Episode II), and July 3–11 (Episode III), 2021. During the observation period, the change characteristics of PM_{2.5} and MDA8 O₃ concentrations were closely related to the evolution of mixing layer and associated meteorological conditions. Along with the reduction of MLH in Episode I and II, regional MDA8 O₃ and PM_{2.5} concentration both gradually climbed up. When MLH fell in the range of 900–1500 m, MDA8 O₃ concentration reached the





maximum with about 60 % areas higher than 130 μg m⁻³. When MLH further decreased, MDA8 O₃ turned to decline, while PM_{2.5} continued to increase until regional MLH lower than 600 m. In Episode III, the MLH in most cities was around 600–1200 m, and the regional MDA8 O₃ pollution conditions were much serious than other episodes, with 80 % MDA8 O₃ values higher than 150 μg m⁻³. Generally, the concentration peaks of PM_{2.5} lagged behind that of MDA8 O₃ along with the reduction of MLH. Besides, we found that the change characteristics of SO₄²- and NO₃⁻ were different (Figure S1), and the regional peaks of these two components were inconsistent, especially in Episode II. With the evolution of MLH, NO₃⁻ climbed up and peaked in June 24 when regional MLH lower that 900 m, while SO₄²- reached the maximum in June 28 when MLH was around 900–1500 m. This may be related to other synchronized mixing layer meteorology factors, such as RH and temperature. For example, the evolution of mixing layer often accompanied with changes in temperature. The increase in temperature can promote the chemical formation rate of these secondary components, but also stimulate the volatilization of NO₃⁻ to gaseous state (HNO₃) and lead to the decrease in NO₃⁻ concentration. Further analysis about the response of O₃, PM_{2.5} and its secondary components to different mixing layer meteorology factors will be conducted in the following sections.

3.2 Evolution of ozone with mixing layer meteorology







175 and (d) meteorological parameters in different MLH conditions. Box plots in (a) and (b) show the inter 176 quartile range (the distance between the bottom and the top of the box), median (the band inside the 177 box), and 95 % confidence interval (whiskers above and below the box) of the data. 178 To quantify the effect of MLH on near-ground O₃ concentrations, relationships between MLH and 179 MDA8 O₃ were analyzed (Figure 3a). Here we used a data binning method to remove the expected 180 day-to-day atmospheric variability from sampling uncertainty (Dian et al., 2010), which has been 181 applied elsewhere (Lou et al., 2019). The MLH was grouped into 8 classes with 300 m width: 0-300, 182 300-600, 600-900, 900-1200, 1200-1500, 1500-1800, 1800-2100 and > 2100 m. It was found that 183 MDA8 O₃ concentration initially increased and reached the maximum (158.47±44.54 μg m⁻³) when 184 MLH at around 900-1200 m, then turned to decrease with further development of MLH. This nonlinear 185 relationship between MDA8 O₃ and MLH was is inconsistent with previous studies, in which high O₃ 186 concentrations corresponded to a low boundary layer height (NASTRO, 2000), but consistent with the 187 results conducted by Zhao et al. (2019) and Reddy et al. (2012). The work by Zhao et al. (2019) found 188 that O₃ concentration was the highest at medium boundary layer heights (1200-1500 m) in 189 Shijiazhuang, China. In India, days of higher O3 concentrations were also associated with higher 190 boundary layer height (Reddy et al., 2012). 191 This relationship observed between MDA8 O₃ and MLH can be explained by two dominant 192 processes: vertical transport or photochemical formation. Previous works have shown that higher 193 height of mixing layer can lead to the mixing of near surface air with the O3 rich air aloft, resulting in 194 the observed enhancements in surface O₃ concentration (Reddy et al., 2012). Besides, the evolution of 195 mixing layer were strongly associated with the change of other meteorological conditions, such as air 196 temperature, RH and precipitation. The increase of MLH often coincided with higher air 197 temperature, lower RH, and less precipitation (Figure 3d), which were more conducive to O₃ 198 production (Ma et al., 2021; Haman et al., 2014; Xu et al., 2018). Under this meteorological condition, 199 the photochemical formation of O₃ was more intense, and exceeded the influence of vertical dilution. 200 As shown in Figure 4a-b, as the MLH fixed, MDA8 O3 concentration climbed up with increase in 201 temperature but decrease in RH levels. Possible reasons for these results could be: (1) the increase in 202 RH can contribute to the depletion of O₃, and lead to weakened O₃ related photochemical reaction (Ma 203 et al., 2021; Yu, 2019); and (2) the rise of temperature can accelerate the emission rate of gaseous

Figure 3. The variation characteristics of (a) MDA8 O₃, (b) PM_{2.5}, (c) major secondary aerosol species,





precursors, such as biogenic VOCs and soil NO_X (Dang et al., 2021; Porter and Heald, 2019), and also stimulate the photochemical reaction rate in the generation of O₃ (Ma et al., 2021). In comparison, the effects of precipitation and WS to the initial growth of MAD8 O₃ were inapparent in this work.

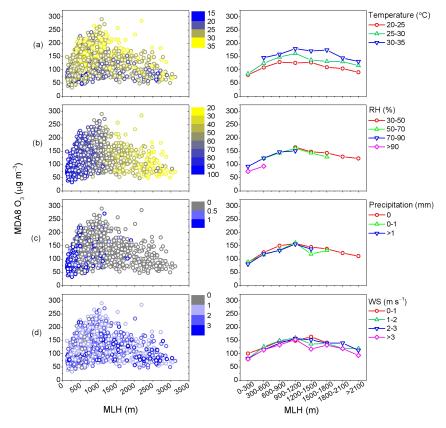


Figure 4. The distribution characteristics of the MDA8 O₃ concentrations with the evolution of MLH under different (a) temperature, (b) RH, (c) precipitation, and (d) WS conditions.

3.3 Evolution of PM_{2.5} and its secondary compositions with mixing layer meteorology

The concentration distribution of surface PM_{2.5} in different MLH bins has been shown in Figure 3b. Interestingly, PM_{2.5} showed similar change profile as MDA8 O₃, which initially increased and then declined along with the growth of MLH. PM_{2.5} concentration reached the maximum of 31.65 µg m⁻³ when MLH fell in the range of 900–1200 m, and the concentration has increased by 1.51 µg m⁻³ through the rise phase for the variation of 100 m MLH. This phenomenon was quite different with the results in cold seasons (Pan et al., 2019; Du et al., 2013; Murthy et al., 2020). The narrowing of mixing

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layer can inhibit the vertical dilution and dispersion of pollutants and make pollutants accumulate locally, MLH thus has been illustrated as the key factor to aggravate the haze events in large cities of China in winter. However, the response of PM2.5 concentration to MLH is not only determined by the vertical stratification of the mixing layer, but also by local sources, secondary chemical formation, wet deposition, and the wind field. Previous works also fund that the statistical relationship between the daily MLH and air pollution levels can become uncorrelated or even positive (Lu et al., 2019; Geiß et al., 2017). Distinct correlations between primary, secondary pollutants and MLH during summer and winter observations were observed (Geiß et al., 2017). The work by Geiß et al. (2017) found little correlation between MLH and PM2.5 in Berlin during hot seasons. The observation in Shanghai found that the PM_{2.5} diurnal variation presented different patterns in summer and winter (Pan et al., 2019). The PM_{2.5} diurnal peaks in winter well corresponded to the low mixing layer conditions (200-300 m), while in summer, the diurnal PM2.5 concentration peaked in medium mixing layer condition (1000 m). The work by Miao et al. (2021) found that the summertime concurring PM2.5 and O3 pollution in Shanghai usually occurred on the days with deep afternoon planetary boundary layer. Based on the summertime soundings from China for the period from 2014 to 2017, Lou et al. (2019) found that the relationships between the boundary layer height (BLH) and PM2.5 were variable under different BLH regimes, and the aerosol loadings increases with the increasing BLH for the Stable Boundary Layer. Noted that in this work there were still some extreme high PM_{2.5} values under low MLH condition as shown in Figure 3b, and this phenomenon will be discussed in the following part when exploring the effect of precipitation. The response of PM_{2.5} concentrations to mixing layer structure was the net effect of the changes in PM_{2.5} major chemical components, such as SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺, and OC. Interestingly, the change profiles of these PM_{2.5} components to the evolution of MLH were different. As shown in Figure 3c, SO₄²⁻ and OC both increased and reached the maximum values when MLH in the range of 900–1200m, with the values of 8.39±3.03 μg m⁻³ and 5.20±1.90 μg m⁻³, respectively. However, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ slightly increased when MLH lower than 600m, and kept almost stable when MLH in the range of 600-1200m, then significantly decreased with further increase of MLH. The increasing trend (MLH < 1200m) of PM_{2.5} was mainly attributed to the enhancement of SO₄²⁻ and OC. The mass ratio of SO₄²⁻ to NO₃⁻ gradually increased along with the development of mixing layer (Figure S2). When MLH higher than 1200m, SO_4^{2-} surpassed NO_3^- and became the dominant $PM_{2.5}$ component. Changes in NH_4^+ were

a consequence of the changes in SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻. The difference in the relationships between these aerosol species and MLH reflected the intrinsic complexity mechanisms of PM_{2.5} formation, which were probably related to other meteorological parameters, such as temperature, RH, precipitation and WS. In order to understand how the other meteorological factors impacted the relationship between MLH and PM_{2.5}, we demonstrated the statistics on the concentration distribution of PM_{2.5} and its dominant components with the increase of MLH under different RH, temperature, precipitation and WS conditions in Figure 5 and Figure 7.

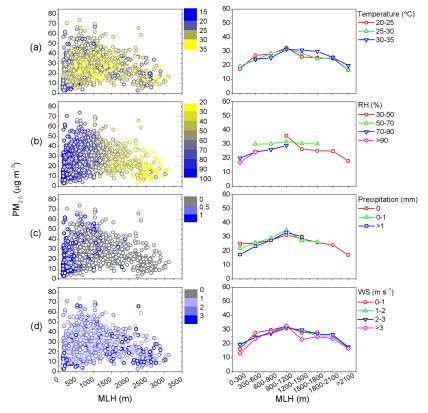


Figure 5. The distribution characteristics of the PM_{2.5} concentrations with the evolution of MLH under different (a) temperature, (b) RH, (c) precipitation, and (d) WS conditions.

Temperature is not only essential to the secondary chemical reaction of trace gases, but also the gas-particle partitioning of volatile $PM_{2.5}$ species. The response of $PM_{2.5}$ and its dominant components to MLH followed similar change characteristics under different temperature conditions, all increasing with the development of mixing layer when MLH lower than 1200m. The response of $PM_{2.5}$ to temperature was largely the result of competing changes in NO_3^- and SO_4^{2-} concentrations with a





smaller role played by organics (Figure 7). Specifically, as the MLH fixed, SO_4^{2-} concentration climbed up with increasing temperature level, while the concentration of NO_3^- declined when temperature kept going up. Higher temperature may lead to rapid oxidation of SO_2 to SO_4^{2-} . However, the partitioning of semi-volatile nitrate is temperature-dependent. Higher temperature prompts the partitioning of nitrate to HNO_3 , thus nitrate tends to exit in the particulate phase, resulting in a significant decrease in NO_3^- and NH_4^+ concentrations.

The response of $PM_{2.5}$ and its dominant components to the evolution of mixing layer was more sensitive to RH, and distinct distribution characteristics under different RH ranges have been observed in Figure 5 (b) and Figure 7 (b). When MLH fell in the range of 600–900 m, the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ and its major components mostly decreased with RH elevating from 50–70 % to 70–90 %. Previous works have shown that when RH higher than 60%, local humidity-related physicochemical processes play important roles in transforming the gases to aerosols (Wang et al., 2022d; Liu et al., 2020). We considered that the RH range from 50% to 70% was more beneficial to the aqueous chemical production of major $PM_{2.5}$ components, then led to the increase of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration. It is worth noting that as MLH fixed (0 < MLH < 300 m), when RH rose from 70–90 % to > 90 %, the concentration of $PM_{2.5}$ and its major components severely dropped, which was probably related to the fast hygroscopic growth and enhanced wet deposition processes.

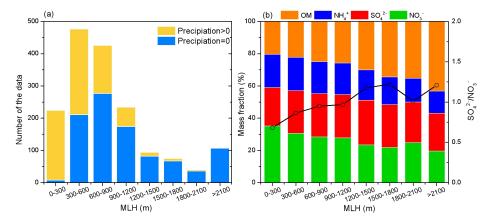


Figure 6. (a) The number distributions of the data when the daily precipitation larger than 0 mm or equal to 0 mm along with the evolution of MLH. (b) The mass fractions of major $PM_{2.5}$ components and the mass ratio of SO_4^{2-} to NO_3^- along with the evolution of MLH when the daily precipitation equal to 0 mm.

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All aerosol species have wet deposition as a major sink, so precipitation is expected to have significant effects on PM_{2.5} concentrations. As shown in Figure 5 (c), changes in the concentrations of PM_{2.5} was sensitive to the rain events. When MLH fell in the range of 0-300 m, the concentration of PM_{2.5} obvious decreased during rainfall period. Interestingly, when no rainfall occurred, even though PM_{2.5} concentration kept stable under low MLH condition, the response of PM_{2.5} concentrations to MLH still followed upward trend with MLH increasing from 300-600 to 900-1200 m. The observed PM_{2.5} concentrations under moderate MLH condition (900–1200 m) was around 31.34 μg m⁻³, which was still about six times higher than the WHO's PM_{2.5} guideline value (5 μg m⁻³, World Health Organization, 2021). As for specific aerosol species, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ concentration showed two obvious peaks, with one in the range of 0-300 m, and the other in 900-1200 m. Under low MLH condition, the concentrations of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ were high, with NO₃⁻ as the dominant species in PM_{2.5} as shown in Figure 6 (b). With the growth of MLH, NO₃ and NH₄ initially decreased, but turned to increase again when MLH in the range of 900-1200 m. As for SO₄²⁻ and OM (OC×1.6), the concentrations obvious increased with the elevation of MLH and has exceeded that of NO₃- when MLH higher than 1200 m. As shown in Figure 6 (a), low mixing layer generally accompanied with cloudy and rainy conditions during summertime in the NCP in 2021, and only small fraction of days without rainfall has been captured during this period. Therefore, despite some high PM2.5 or major aerosol species values have been witnessed under low MLH condition, the overall trend in Figure 3 (b) was still upwards along with the growth of mixing layer (MLH < 1200 m). The upward trend under medium MLH condition indicated that the particle removal by precipitation was potentially important but not the only controlling factor driving this growing trend, and the enhancement of secondary aerosol formation due to appropriate chemical reaction environment should be considered. WS can represent the atmospheric dissipation potential in the horizontal directions (Zhu et al., 2018). Low WS generally suggested weak pressure gradients and potentially a more favorable meteorological condition for PM_{2.5} enhancement (Ma et al., 2021). As expected, the concentrations of PM_{2.5} and its aerosol species gradually decreased with the increase of WS. However, the response of these air pollutants to MLH followed similar upward trends under different WS conditions (MLH < 1200 m). This indicated that the elevation of PM_{2.5} and its aerosol species along with the evolution of mixing layer (MLH < 1200 m) was not attributed to the effect of horizontal diffusion.



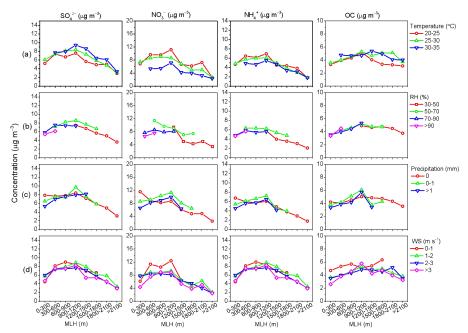


Figure 7. The distribution characteristics of NO₃⁻, SO₄²⁻, NH₄⁺, and OC concentrations with the evolution of MLH under different (a) temperature, (b) RH, (c) precipitation, and (d) WS conditions.

3.4 Impact of atmospheric oxidation capacity on surface PM_{2.5} change profile

The above analysis shows that MDA8 O₃ and PM_{2.5} concentrations were closely related to the evolution of BLH. The increasing trend of PM_{2.5} concentration with the development of mixing layer under medium MLH condition discussed before indicated that the evolution of mixing layer was not a simple physical dilution process, and its influence on the enhanced secondary photochemical formation should be considered as well. Interestingly, in this work we found three concurring PM_{2.5} and MDA8 O₃ pollution cases along with the development of mixing layer: June 10–13, June 26–29, and July 9–11. Figure 8 demonstrated a case study to illustrate the detailed regional change characteristics of MLH, MDA8 O₃, PM_{2.5} and its chemical compositions from 10 to 13 on June 2021. It was found that during this period, MLH evolved substantially, with the daily height varying from 300–600 m to 900–1500 m. Concurrently, PM_{2.5} and MDA8 O₃ concentrations also increased, and the areas of highest PM_{2.5} concentrations coincided well with those of highest MDA8 O₃ concentrations. In general, most cities during this period were in the steady conditions with high temperature and low humidity. The vertical profiles of O₃ concentration (24-h averaged) and extinction coefficient in TangS, BeiJ, and SJZ (Figure



9) indicated that the elevation of O_3 during this period was mainly resulted from the vertical transport from higher mixing layer, while the increase of $PM_{2.5}$ was not attributed to regional transport, but probably enhanced O_3 related secondary aerosol formation. It was found that the increase of $PM_{2.5}$ was mainly due to the enhanced formation of SO_4^{2-} and OC. The chemical composition of $PM_{2.5}$ changed substantially in the NCP during this observation period: NO_3^{-} decreased with the development of mixing layer in June 11 and 12, and the areas dominated by NO_3^{-} gradually withdrew, while the contribution of SO_4^{2-} and OC in $PM_{2.5}$ significantly increased.

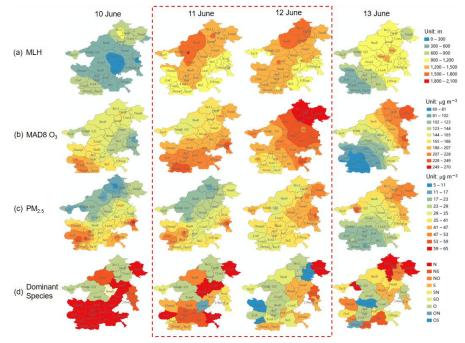


Figure 8. The spatial distribution of (a) MLH, (b) MDA8 O₃, (c) PM_{2.5}, and (d) the dominant PM_{2.5} chemical component (N: NO₃⁻ dominant, NS: NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ dominant, NO: NO₃⁻ and OM dominant, S: SO₄²⁻ dominant, SN: SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ dominant, SO: SO₄²⁻ and OM dominant, O: OM dominant, ON: OM and NO₃⁻ dominant, OS: OM and SO₄²⁻ dominant) from June 10 to 13, 2021. The dominant PM_{2.5} chemical component type was identified as the method proposed by Wang et al. (2022b).

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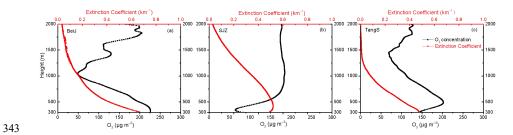


Figure 9. The vertical profiles of O₃ concentration (24-h averaged) and extinction coefficient in (a)

BeiJ, (b) SJZ, and (c) TangS in June 12, 2021

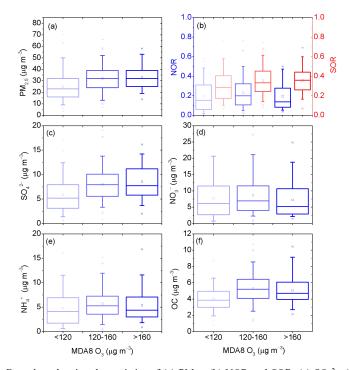


Figure 10. Box plots showing the statistics of (a) $PM_{2.5}$, (b) NOR and SOR, (c) SO_4^{2-} , (d) NO_3^- , (e) NH_4^+ , and (f) OC for different MDA8 O_3 conditions (< 120 μ g m⁻³, 120–160 μ g m⁻³, > 160 μ g m⁻³). The distance between the bottom and the top of the box reflects the inter quartile range; the line and square in between are the median and mean values, respectively. The whiskers above and below the

Figure 10 displays the box-and-whisker plots of PM_{2.5} and its major components for different MDA8 O₃ conditions. To isolate the impacts of precipitation on PM_{2.5} concentration, these rainy days when the daily rainfall amount greater than 0 mm were excluded in this section. Here the concentration

box refer the 95 % confidence interval of the data. Note that rainy days were excluded.

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of PM2.5 was found to increase synchronously with elevated MDA8 O3 concentration, especially when MDA8 O_3 increased from < 120 to 120–160 μ g m⁻³. This summertime collaborative growth process of PM_{2.5}-O₃ has also been observed in other works (Wang et al., 2022a; Wu et al., 2022). It's noted that the elevation of PM_{2.5} was mainly due to the changes in SO₄²⁻ and OC, which was consistent with the conclusion discussed before. With elevated MDA8 O3 concentration, the oxidation ratio of sulfate (SOR, the molar ratio of sulfate to the sum of sulfate and SO2) significantly increased, which indicated the strong formation of secondary SO₄²⁻ promoted by high atmospheric oxidation capacity. However, the oxidation ratio of nitrate (NOR, the molar ratio of nitrate to the sum of nitrate and NO2) turned to decreased when MDA8 O₃ > 160 µg m⁻³, demonstrating a more significant role of partitioning process between gas and aerosol than the atmospheric oxidation process under this stage. As the MLH fixed (900 m < MLH < 1200 m), SO₄²⁻ concentration climbed up with enhanced MDA8 O₃ concentration, while the concentration of NO₃⁻ declined (Figure S3). This result further demonstrated the conclusion discussed above: the formation of SO₄²⁻ and OC was closely associated with the enhanced MDA8 O₃ concentration, while the change characteristics of NO₃⁻ was mainly determined by the partitioning process between gas and aerosol. To verify the potential impact of photochemical oxidation to the increase of PM2.5 concentration with mixing layer development, the changes in PM2.5 and MDA8 O3 along with the increase of MLH were quantified in the "2+26" cities in the NCP. Linear regression equations between air pollutants and MLH were fitted during the initial increasing stage (300 < MLH < 1200 m) and their slopes were given in Figure 11. The slopes indicated the rates of the maximum changes in air pollutant concentration for a unit change in MLH (100 m). The slopes of $PM_{2.5}$ and O_3 were expressed as $\Delta PM_{2.5}$ and ΔO_3 (µg m $^{-3}$ (100) m⁻¹). It was found that $\Delta PM_{2.5}$ was closely related to ΔO_3 (R²=0.60), and obvious spatial difference in $\Delta PM_{2.5}$ and ΔO_3 was witnessed in the NCP during the observation period. $\Delta PM_{2.5}$ and ΔO_3 both showed high values in TianJ, YangQ, and LangF, with values of 3.43 and 19.56 μg m⁻³ (100) m⁻¹ in TianJ, 7.56 and 18.00 $\mu g \ m^{-3}$ (100) m^{-1} in YangQ, and 5.75 and 17.85 $\mu g \ m^{-3}$ (100) m^{-1} in LangF, respectively. Comparing with these cities, ΔPM_{2.5} and ΔO₃ were lowest in HeB, with the value of 1.80 and -2.02 μg m⁻³ (100) m⁻¹, respectively, which implied that the secondary formation here was weak and the surface PM2.5 change characteristic was dominantly controlled by local emissions or vertical diffusion effect. Comparing with winter, the photochemistry in summer is quite active due to the strong solar





radiation. Even though deep MLH prefers to the dilution of air pollutants, higher MLH can also promote secondary chemical feedback through enhancing the availability of atmospheric oxidation capacity (such as changes in O₃) along with appropriate meteorological condition. This conclusion corresponded well to the finding based on chemical transport model (Dai et al., 2023), which proposed strong chemical production of secondary aerosols when planetary boundary layer height was about 946.1m on O₃–PM_{2.5} co-pollution days. The strong chemical productions in the oxidative atmosphere at medium MLH condition may overcome the dilution effect on PM_{2.5} induced by mixing layer development, leading to higher PM_{2.5} level at the ground level.

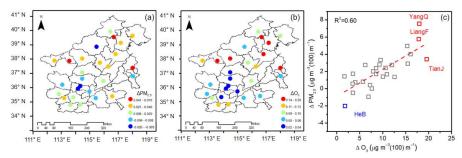


Figure 11. The spatial distribution of (a) $\Delta PM_{2.5}$ and (b) ΔO_3 . (c) The relationships between $\Delta PM_{2.5}$ and ΔO_3 in the NCP during summertime. The corresponding correlation coefficients (R²) was given at the top of the panel.

4 Conclusions

Mixing layer height (MLH) was generally considered as a critical physical parameter in atmospheric environmental evaluation. It is assumed that extended mixing layer may lead to the dilution of air pollutants and thus tend to decrease surface concentrations. Several publications have indeed reported such anti-correlations in cold seasons. However, the understanding of the interaction between near surface O₃ and PM_{2.5} (including its major components) along with the evolution of mixing layer during warm seasons remained poor. Furthermore, previous observational studies were mostly limited to a specific city. This paper is devoted to these topics by examining the response of MDA8 O₃, PM_{2.5}, and its major components to the changes in mixing layer meteorology in the North China Plain (NCP) during summertime. We showed that MDA8 O₃ initially increased and then decreased with the growth of MLH. The maximum turning point of MLH was around 900–1200 m. As

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for near-ground PM2.5, similar non-linear change profile was found, with the maximum value of 31.65 μg m⁻³ under medium MLH condition (900–1200 m), which was quite different from the results conducted in cold seasons. Compared with winter, the occurrence of low MLH during summertime in the NCP was mostly accompanied with cloudy or rainy conditions, which promoted wet deposition and led to low concentrations of PM2.5 at the ground level. Under medium MLH condition, strong chemical productions of SO₄²⁻ and OC occurred along with appropriate mixing layer meteorology, where RH was around 50-70 %, and the availability of atmospheric oxidants (i.e., O₃) increased. The strong chemical productions at medium MLH conditions may offset the diffusion effect on PM2.5 induced by mixing layer development, resulting in higher PM2.5 levels. The chemical characteristics of PM2.5 significantly changed along with the growth of MLH. The composited concentration of NO₃⁻ was the highest under low MLH condition, while the composited concentrations of SO₄²⁻ and OC obviously increased under medium MLH condition. Temperature was the key factor controlling the competing changes in NO₃⁻ and SO₄²⁻ concentrations in PM_{2.5}. We conclude that the MLH can be an indicator of air pollutants in cold seasons, but the correlation between MLH and air pollutants, such as O3 and PM_{2.5}, should be treated with care in hot seasons. At least for the observation period in the NCP this was not the case. Although several studies have examined the change characteristics of MLH and its influence on ground-level O₃ and PM_{2.5}, it remains challenging to elucidate the mechanism underlying the complex relationships. To better understand the complex interactions between MLH, air pollution, and chemical processing, there is a need to have more extended data sets in time and space. Besides, the aids of explicit models should be needed in the future. Data availability. The data used in this paper can be provided upon request from the corresponding author. Author contributions. J W and J G conceived the study and designed the experiments. J W, F C, X Y,Y Y, L L and Y X analyzed the data. J W prepared the manuscript and all the coauthors helped improve the manuscript.

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Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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