

1 **Measurement report: Vertical and temporal variability of near-**
2 **surface ozone production rate and sensitivity in an urban area in Pearl**
3 **River Delta (PRD) region, China**

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20 **Abstract:** Understanding the near-ground vertical and temporal photochemical O₃
21 formation mechanism is important to mitigate O₃ pollution. Here, we measured the
22 vertical profiles of O₃ and its precursors at six different heights ranging from 5 to 335
23 m using a newly built vertical observation system in the Pearl River Delta (PRD) region,
24 China. The net photochemical ozone production rate ($P(O_3)_{net}$) and O₃ formation
25 sensitivities at various heights were diagnosed using an observation-based model
26 coupled with the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM v3.3.1). Moreover, to assess
27 model performance and identify the causative factors behind O₃ pollution episodes, the
28 net photochemical ozone production rate ($P(O_3)_{net}$) was measured at 5 m ground level
29 utilizing a custom-built detection system. In total three O₃ pollution episodes and two
30 non-episodes were captured. The identified O₃ pollution episodes were found to be

31 jointly influenced by both photochemical production and physical transport, with local
32 photochemical reactions playing a major role. The high index of agreement (IOA)
33 calculated from comparing the modelled and measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ values indicated the
34 rationality to investigate the vertical and temporal variability of O_3 formation
35 mechanisms using modelling results. However, the measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ values were
36 generally higher than the modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ values, particularly under high NO_x
37 conditions, which may indicate a potential underestimation of total RO_2 by the model.
38 Throughout the measurement period, the contribution of different reaction pathways to
39 O_3 production remained consistent across various heights, with HO_2+NO as the major
40 O_3 production pathway, followed by RO_2+NO . We observed $P(O_3)_{net}$ decreasing with
41 the increase in measurement height, primarily attributed to the decreased O_3 precursors
42 anthropogenic volatile organic compounds (AVOC) and oxygenated volatile organic
43 compounds (OVOC). O_3 formation regimes were similar at different heights during
44 both episodes and non-episodes, either located either in the volatile organic compounds
45 (VOCs) sensitive regime or in the transition regime and more sensitive to VOCs.
46 Diurnally, photochemical O_3 formation typically remained in the VOCs sensitive
47 regime during the morning and noon, but transitioned to the transition regime and more
48 sensitive to VOCs in the afternoon around 16:00 local time (LT). The vertical and
49 temporal O_3 formation is most sensitive to AVOC and OVOC, suggesting that targeting
50 VOCs, especially AVOC and OVOC, for control measures is more practical and
51 feasible at the observation site. The vertical temporal analysis of O_3 formation
52 mechanisms near the ground surface in this study provides critical foundational
53 knowledge for formulating effective short-term emergency and long-term strategies to
54 combat O_3 pollution in the PRD region of China.

55 1. Introduction

56 Tropospheric ozone (O_3), which has adverse effects on ecosystems, climate
57 change, and human health (Fiore et al., 2009; Anenberg Susan et al., 2012; Seinfeld,
58 2016), has become an important factor resulting in severe regional air pollution in China
59 (Zhu et al., 2020). Tropospheric O_3 mainly comes from stratospheric intrusions and the
60 photochemical reactions of O_3 precursors, involving volatile organic compounds
61 (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides ($NO_x=NO+NO_2$). The ozone-precursor relationship can
62 be split into a “ NO_x -limited” or “VOC-limited” or “mixed-sensitive” regime (Seinfeld
63 and Pandis, 2016; Sillman S., 1999). A “ NO_x -limited” regime has higher VOCs/ NO_x

64 ratios and the O₃ formation is sensitive to NO_x concentration changes, while a “VOCs-
65 limited” regime has lower VOCs/NO_x ratios and the O₃ formation is sensitive to NO_x
66 concentration changes. In a “mixed-sensitive” regime, O₃ formation responds
67 positively to changes in both NO_x and VOC emissions (Wang et al., 2019). Local O₃
68 concentrations can be further influenced by meteorological conditions and the regional
69 transport of O₃ and its precursors (Gong and Liao, 2019; Chang et al., 2019). The Pearl
70 River Delta (PRD) stands out as one of the most rapidly developing economic and
71 urbanized regions in China, which currently is suffering from severe ground-level O₃
72 pollution (Lu et al., 2018; Yang et al., 2019). Currently, many scholars have analyzed
73 the relationship between tropospheric ozone pollution and its precursors and
74 meteorological elements in the PRD region, results show that the surface O₃ pollution
75 is determined by both local photochemistry and physical transport, with long-range
76 transport contributing 30%-70% to surface O₃ concentrations (Mao et al., 2022; Shen
77 et al., 2021; Li et al., 2012, 2013). However, the distribution of O₃ is highly variable at
78 different altitudes (Wang et al., 2021), due to vertical differences in VOCs
79 concentrations and sources, as well as the sensitivity of O₃ formation (Liu et al., 2023;
80 Tang et al., 2017). Due to the presence of strong vertical mixing driven by the surface
81 heating effect in the daytime boundary layer, the budget of the ozone at the ground level
82 and also at an arbitrary height in the daytime boundary layer is closely related to the
83 formation and removal of ozone at other heights (Tang et al., 2017). In addition, the
84 difference in vertical gradients of precursors may drive the vertical change in the
85 photochemical formation regimes of ozone (Zhao et al., 2019). Using data from only
86 one height to understand the photochemical reactions in the planetary boundary layer
87 is of great limitation. Thus, diagnosing the O₃ formation mechanism at different heights
88 is essential to achieve effective control of O₃ pollution.

89 Currently, remote sensing techniques with high time resolution and real-time
90 response, such as lidar and optical absorption spectroscopy, have been utilized to
91 measure the vertical distribution of O₃ (Luo et al., 2020a; Wang et al., 2021). However,
92 in situ measurements of VOCs at various heights primarily rely on offline methods
93 combined with diverse techniques, including aircraft, tethered balloons, tall buildings
94 and towers, unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs or drones), and satellite observations
95 (Klein et al., 2019; Li et al., 2022; Geng et al., 2020; Benish et al., 2020; Li et al., 2021;
96 Wang et al., 2019). Owing to the low time resolution of these monitoring techniques,

97 achieving continuous vertical coverage of VOCs and NO_x measurements is challenging.
98 Consequently, the vertical distribution structure of VOCs remains unclear, thus largely
99 hindering our understanding of the vertical and temporal regional ozone formation
100 mechanism.

101 To fill the gaps in the existing studies, we utilized a newly constructed vertical
102 observation system based on the Shenzhen Meteorological Gradient Tower (SZMGT)
103 (Li et al., 2023). This system measured the vertical profiles of O₃ and its precursors at
104 six different heights from 5 to 335 m. To diagnose the net ozone production rate,
105 $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$, and O₃ formation sensitivities across various heights, we employed an
106 observation-based model coupled with the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM v3.3.1),
107 referred to as OBM-MCM in the following. Additionally, we employed a novel net
108 photochemical ozone production rate ($P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$, NPOPR) detection system to measure
109 the $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ at the 5 m ground level to explore potential reasons for O₃ pollution
110 episodes (Hao et al., 2023), i.e., examine the contribution of chemical and physical
111 processes to changes in O₃ concentration. Comparisons between the directly measured
112 $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ results and the model-derived data enabled us to evaluate the simulation
113 accuracy and explore potential reasons for discrepancies of the OBM-MCM model
114 concerning photochemical O₃ formation. Based on these results, we have extensively
115 discussed the vertical and temporal variability in $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ and O₃ formation sensitivity,
116 while acknowledging potential biases associated to the modelling. The findings of this
117 study offer a new benchmark for understanding the vertical profile of photochemical
118 O₃ formation mechanism, aiding in the identification of the primary driver of ground-
119 level O₃ pollution. This identification is crucial as it can provide essential theoretical
120 support for developing short-term effective emergency and long-term control measures
121 targeting O₃ in PRD region of China.

122 2. Materials and Methods

123 2.1 Sampling site

124 Field measurements were conducted at the Shenzhen Meteorological Gradient
125 Tower (SZMGT) (22.65° N, 113.89° E) from November 13 to December 10, 2021. The
126 SZMGT is 365 m high and is currently the tallest mast tower in Asia and the second
127 tallest of this kind in the world. The main structure of the tower is made of steel, steel
128 stray lines are used for fixing and securing the tower. It is located in the Tiegang

129 Reservoir Water Reserve at Bao'an District of Shenzhen, in the Pearl River Delta (PRD)
130 region of China. The area is surrounded by a high density of vegetation, reservoir
131 features, low-rise buildings, and hills/mountains (Luo et al., 2020b).

132 2.2 Instrumentation

133 2.2.1 The vertical sampling system

134 A tower-based observation system for traces gases using long perfluoroalkoxy
135 alkane (PFA) tubing (OD: 1/2") was used to sample the O₃ and O₃ precursors at six
136 heights during the campaign, including 5, 40, 70, 120, 220, and 335 m above the ground.
137 All six tubes were continuously drawn using a rotary vane vacuum pump to keep
138 flushing with ambient air to reduce tube delay of the organic compounds, with the flow
139 rate controlled by critical orifices (orifice diameter: 0.063"). A Teflon solenoid valve
140 group was used to switch the air samples at specified time intervals so that the
141 subsamples from these six heights could be sequentially drawn by instruments (see Fig.
142 S1). Consequently, the flow rates of the air sample streams for the six tubes varied
143 between 12.0 and 15.0 SLPM without subsampling and were less than 20 SLPM with
144 subsampling. The residence time of the sample gas in the longest tube (~ 400 m) is less
145 than 180 s at a flow rate of 13 SLPM. The impacts of long tubing on measurements of
146 various of trace gases, including O₃, NO_x, and a set of organic compounds, were
147 systematically investigated using a combination of laboratory tests, field experiments,
148 and modelling techniques. Field observations proved that this observation system is
149 suitable for analyzing spatio-temporal variations of atmospheric trace gases, with many
150 trace gases could be well measured. More details about the establishment and the
151 characterization of this observation system are described elsewhere (Li et al., 2023).

152 2.2.2 P(O₃)_{net} measurement

153 During the campaign, the P(O₃)_{net} at the 5 m ground level was measured using the
154 self-developed NPOPR detection system, which was built based on the dual-channel
155 reaction chambers technique. The improvement, characterization, and the
156 photochemical O₃ formation mechanism in the reaction and reference chambers of the
157 NPOPR detection system are described in our previous study (Hao et al., 2023). Briefly,
158 the NPOPR detection system consists of reaction and reference chambers with the same
159 geometry and made of quartz glass. The length and inner diameter of the quartz glass
160 cylinder are 700 mm and 190.5 mm, respectively, which resulted in an inner volume of

161 ~ 20 L. The outer surface of the reference chamber was covered with an Ultem film
 162 (SH2CLAR, 3 M, Japan) for ultraviolet (UV) protection, which can block sunlight with
 163 wavelengths < 390 nm, thus preventing photochemical reactions inside. During the
 164 experiment, both the reaction and reference chambers were placed outdoors and directly
 165 exposed to sunlight to simulate real ambient photochemical reactions. Ambient air was
 166 introduced into the reaction and reference chambers at the same flow rate, and a Teflon
 167 filter was mounted before the chamber inlet to remove fine particles. To correct for the
 168 effect of fresh NO titration to O₃, we use O_x (=O₃+NO₂) instead of O₃ to quantify the
 169 O₃ generated by photochemical reactions (Pan et al., 2015; Tan et al., 2018). A stream
 170 of air from the two chambers was alternately introduced into an NO-reaction chamber
 171 every 2 min to convert O₃ in the air to NO₂ in the presence of high concentrations of
 172 NO (O₃+NO→NO₂), and the O_x concentrations from the outlet NO-reaction chamber,
 173 i.e., the total NO₂ concentrations including the inherent NO₂ in the ambient and that
 174 converted from O₃, were measured by a Cavity Attenuated Phase Shift (CAPS) NO₂
 175 Monitor (Aerodyne research, Inc., Billerica MA, USA) to avoid other nitrogen oxide
 176 interferences to the NO₂ measurement (such as alkyl nitrates, peroxyacyl nitrates,
 177 peroxyacetic acid, nitrogen pentoxide, etc.). $P(O_3)_{net}$ was obtained by dividing the
 178 difference between the O_x concentrations in the reaction and reference chambers (ΔO_x)
 179 by the mean residence time of air in the reaction chamber $\langle \tau \rangle$:

$$180 \quad P(O_3)_{net} = P(O_x)_{net} = \frac{\Delta O_x}{\tau} = \frac{[O_x]_{reaction} - [O_x]_{reference}}{\tau} \quad (1)$$

181 A schematic of the NPOPR detection system is shown in Fig. S2. The pulse
 182 experiments were performed to quantify the residence time in the chambers (Hao et al.,
 183 2023).

184 We further quantified and corrected the wall losses of O_x and the light-enhanced
 185 loss of O₃ ($d[O_3]$) in the reaction and reference chambers during daytime (Hao et al.,
 186 2013):

$$187 \quad \gamma = \frac{d[O_3] \times D}{\omega \times [O_3] \times \tau} \quad (2)$$

188 where γ is the light-enhanced loss coefficient of O₃, which is derived from $J(O^1D)$
 189 according to the relationship obtained from the outdoor experiments (for more details,
 190 see supplementary materials: S3.). $d[O_3]$ represents the difference between the O₃

191 mixing ratios at the inlet and outlet of the reaction and reference chambers, D is the
192 diameter of the chambers, ω is the average velocity of O_3 molecules, $[O_3]$ is the injected
193 O_3 mixing ratio at the inlet of the reaction and reference chambers, and τ is the average
194 residence time of the air in the reaction and reference chambers. When quantifying the
195 light-enhanced O_3 loss ($d[O_3]$) during the ambient air measurement, we first calculate
196 γ using the measured $J(O^1D)$ and the $\gamma - J(O^1D)$ equations listed in Fig. S8 in the
197 reaction and reference chambers, then use the measured $[O_3]$ and Eq. 2 to calculate
198 $d[O_3]$. The results show that such kind of correction can increase the measured $P(O_3)_{net}$
199 by 10% (25% percentile) to 24% (75% percentile), with a median of 17%.

200 The limit of detection (LOD) of the NPOPR detection system is 2.3 ppbv h^{-1} at the
201 sampling air flow rate of 5 L min^{-1} , which is obtained as three times the measurement
202 error of $P(O_3)_{net}$. More details about the measurement error of $P(O_3)_{net}$ are described in
203 the supplementary materials: S4: The measurement error of $P(O_3)_{net}$ and the LOD of
204 the NPOPR detection system. More details can be found in our previous work (Hao et
205 al., 2013). The measurement accuracy of NPOPR detection system is determined as
206 13.9 %, which is the maximum systematic error caused by the photochemical O_3
207 productions in the reference chamber. As the UV protection Ultem film covered on the
208 reference chamber can only filtered out the sunlight with wavelengths < 390 nm, the
209 photochemical O_3 productions at the sunlight wavelength between 390 nm and 790 nm
210 still exists in the reference chamber. According to our previous investigation, the
211 modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ in the reaction chamber is similar to that modelled in ambient air,
212 with the modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ in the reference chamber accounting for 0-13.9% of that in
213 the reaction chamber (Hao et al., 2023). Here, we employed the same modelling method
214 described in Hao et al. (2013) to quantify the $P(O_3)_{net}$ in the reference chamber and
215 corrected the bias caused by the $P(O_3)_{net}$ in reference chamber accordingly (more details
216 can be found in Sect. 2.2.1).

217 2.2.3 VOCs measurement

218 VOCs were measured using a high-resolution proton transfer reaction time-of-
219 flight mass spectrometer (PTR-TOF-MS, Ionicon Analytik, Austria) (Wang et al.,
220 2020a; Wu et al., 2020) and an off-line gas chromatography mass spectrometry flame
221 ionization detector (GC-MS-FID) (Wuhan Tianlong, Co. Ltd, China) (Yuan et al.,
222 2012). The concentrations of oxygenated VOCs (OVOC), including formaldehyde

223 (HCHO) and acetaldehyde (CH₃CHO), were measured via PTR-TOF-MS, and the non-
224 methane hydrocarbons (NMHC) were measured via GC-MS-FID. PTR-TOF-MS was
225 run with both hydronium ion (H₃O⁺) (Yuan et al., 2017; Wu et al., 2020) and nitric
226 oxide ion (NO⁺) (Wang et al., 2020) modes. The measurement error of PTR-TOF-MS
227 was lower than 20%, more details of the PTR-TOF-MS technique can be found in our
228 previous publication (Yuan et al., 2017). The H₃O⁺ and NO⁺ modes were automatically
229 switched with 20 min H₃O⁺ mode and 10 min NO⁺ mode. The background signal of
230 each mode was measured every 30 min for at least 2 min by automatically switching the
231 ambient measurement to a custom-built platinum catalytic converter heated to 365 °C.
232 Eventually, we only used VOCs measured during the H₃O⁺ mode, which was operated
233 at a drift tube pressure of 3.8 mbar, a temperature of 120 °C, and a voltage of 760 V,
234 resulting in an E/N (E refers to the electric field and N refers to the number density of
235 the buffer gas in the drift tube) value of ~ 120 Td (townsend). 3035 ions with m/z up to
236 510 were obtained at time resolutions of 10 s. A gas standard with 35 VOC species was
237 used for calibrations of the PTR-ToF-MS once per day. Raw data from PTR-TOF-MS
238 were analyzed using Tofware software (Tofwerk AG, v3.0.3). Due to the humidity
239 dependencies of various VOCs signals of the PTR-ToF-MS observed in laboratory
240 studies, such as formaldehyde, benzene, methanol, ethanol, and furan (Wu et al., 2020),
241 we determined their humidity-dependence curves. During data analysis, we removed
242 the impacts of ambient humidity change on the measured signals of the PTR-ToF-MS
243 according to these humidity-dependence curves. For the off-line GC-MS-FID
244 measurement, whole-air samples were collected using 3.2 L electro-polished stainless-
245 steel canisters (Entech, USA) at 5 and 120 m at time intervals of two hours. Two
246 automatic canister samplers connected to 12 canisters were used to collect the whole-
247 air samples, with each of canister collecting the sample for 10 min. The canisters were
248 analyzed within one week (Zhu et al., 2018). The concentrations of 56 NMHC species
249 in the canister analyzed by GC-MS/FID were calibrated daily using the mixture of a
250 photochemical assessment monitoring stations (PAMS) standard gas and pure N₂. In
251 addition, the mixture of PAMS standard gas and pure N₂ with species concentrations
252 of 1 ppbv was injected into the analytical system every 10 samples to check the
253 operational stability of the instrument. Pure N₂ was injected into the analytical system
254 at the start and end of each day's analysis to provide reference blank measurements. A
255 full list of all 56 non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs) can be found in the
256 supplementary material (Table S2).

257 2.2.4 Other parameters

258 The photolysis frequencies of different species were measured using the actinic
259 flux spectrometer (PFS-100, Focused Photonics Inc, China). O₃, CO, and NO_x
260 concentrations were measured by a 2B O₃ monitor based on dual-channel UV-
261 absorption (Model 205, 2B Technologies, USA), a gas filter correlation (GFC) CO
262 analyzer (Model 48i, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), and a chemiluminescence NO_x
263 monitor (Model 42i, Thermo Fisher Scientific, USA), respectively. According to our
264 test (Zhou et al., 2025), a 5% overestimation could be caused in the NO₂ measurement
265 using the chemiluminescence technique compared to the CAPS technique, due to some
266 NO_z species (i.e., HNO₃, peroxyacetyl nitrate (PANs), HONO, etc.)(Dunlea et al.,
267 2007), this will result in a decrease of the modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ by < 4%, which is
268 negligible compared to the bias caused by the $P(O_3)_{net}$ in the reference chamber (~ 14%)
269 (Zhou et al., 2023). Temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), and pressure (P) were
270 measured by a portable weather station (Met Pak, Gill Instruments Ltd, UK).

271 2.3 Data analysis

272 2.3.1 Observation-based chemical box model

273 We investigated the detailed photochemical O₃ formation mechanism during the
274 observation period based on the field observed data. The specific tropospheric O₃
275 photochemical formation process involves the photolysis of NO₂ at < 420 nm
276 (Sadanaga et al., 2017). Simultaneously, RO_x (RO_x=OH+HO₂ +RO₂) radical recycles
277 provide HO₂ and RO₂ to oxidize NO to NO₂, resulting in the accumulation of O₃ (Shen
278 et al., 2021; Cazorla and Brune, 2010; Sadanaga et al., 2017). Therefore, the RO_x
279 radicals and the O₃, OH, NO₃ oxidants play important roles in photochemical O₃
280 formation. A zero-dimensional box model based on the Framework for 0-D
281 Atmospheric Modelling (FOAM) v3.2 (Wolfe et al., 2016) coupled with the MCM
282 v3.3.1 was used to simulate the $P(O_3)_{net}$. MCM v3.1.1 contains a total of 143 VOCs,
283 more than 6700 species, involving more than 17000 reactions (Jenkin et al., 2015).
284 $P(O_3)_{net}$ and O₃ concentrations were simulated by constraining T , RH, P , organic and
285 inorganic substances in gases, including 12 OVOCs (methanol, ethanol, formaldehyde,
286 acetaldehyde, acrolein, acetone, hydroxyacetone, phenol, *m*-cresol, methyl vinyl ketone,
287 methacrylaldehyde, methyl ethyl ketone), 56 NMHCs (toluene, benzene, isoprene,
288 styrene, etc. as listed in Table S2), conventional pollutants (O₃, NO, NO₂, and CO),

289 and photolysis rate values ($J(\text{O}^1\text{D})$, $J(\text{NO}_2)$, $J(\text{H}_2\text{O}_2)$, $J(\text{HONO})$, $J(\text{HCHO}_\text{M})$,
 290 $J(\text{HCHO}_\text{R})$, $J(\text{NO}_3_\text{M})$, $J(\text{NO}_3_\text{R})$, etc.). The VOCs, NO_x, T, RH and P were
 291 constrained throughout the modelling period, while O₃ was not constrained after
 292 providing initial concentration values. The effect of physical processes (such as vertical
 293 and horizontal transport) was considered by setting a constant dilution factor of 1/43200
 294 s⁻¹ throughout the modelling period. Additionally, the dry deposition rate of O₃ was set
 295 to 0.42 cm s⁻¹, and the background of O₃, CO, and CH₄ were set to 30, 70, and 1800
 296 ppbv, respectively. The modelling was run in a time-dependent mode with a resolution
 297 of 5 min, and it was run for spin-up time of 72 h to establish steady-state concentrations
 298 for secondary pollutants that were not constrained during the simulation. $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ can
 299 be expressed by the difference between ozone production rate ($P(\text{O}_3)$) and ozone
 300 destruction rate ($D(\text{O}_3)$), where $P(\text{O}_3)$ and $D(\text{O}_3)$ can be calculated as Eq. (3)-(4):

$$301 \quad P(\text{O}_3) = k_{\text{HO}_2+\text{NO}}[\text{HO}_2][\text{NO}] + \sum_i k_{\text{RO}_{2,i}+\text{NO}}[\text{RO}_{2i}][\text{NO}]\varphi_i \quad (3)$$

$$302 \quad D(\text{O}_3) = k_{\text{O}^1\text{D}+\text{H}_2\text{O}}[\text{O}^1\text{D}][\text{H}_2\text{O}] + k_{\text{OH}+\text{O}_3}[\text{OH}][\text{O}_3] + k_{\text{HO}_2+\text{O}_3}[\text{HO}_2][\text{O}_3]$$

$$303 \quad + k_{\text{O}_3+\text{alkenes}}[\text{O}_3][\text{alkenes}] + k_{\text{OH}+\text{NO}_2}[\text{OH}][\text{NO}_2] +$$

$$304 \quad k_{\text{RO}_{2,i}+\text{NO}_2}[\text{RO}_{2i}][\text{NO}_2] \quad (4)$$

305 where $k_{\text{M+N}}$ represents the bimolecular reaction rate constant of M and N, the
 306 subscript 'i' refers to different types of RO₂, and φ_i is the yield of NO₂ of the reaction
 307 RO_{2i}+NO. The relevant reaction rates of $P(\text{O}_3)$ and $D(\text{O}_3)$ and the mean measured
 308 concentrations of each VOC category at 5 m ground during O₃ episodes and non-
 309 episodes used in the model are listed in Tables S1 and S2.

310 **2.3.2 Derive contribution of chemical and physical processes to O₃** 311 **changes on the ground level**

312 It is known that chemical and physical processes jointly influence the O₃
 313 concentration changes near the ground surface (Xue et al., 2014; Tan et al., 2019). The
 314 direct measurement of $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ gave us a chance to identify the contribution of chemical
 315 and physical processes to the variation of observed O₃ concentrations using the
 316 following equation:

$$317 \quad \frac{d\text{O}_x}{dt} = P(\text{O}_x)_{\text{net}} + R(\text{O}_x)_{\text{trans}} \quad (5)$$

318 Where $\frac{dO_x}{dt}$ is the change rate of the observed O_x mixing ratio change (ppbv h⁻¹),
 319 $P(O_x)_{\text{net}}$ denotes the net photochemical O_3 production rate (ppbv h⁻¹), which was equal
 320 to $P(O_3)_{\text{net}}$ and measured directly by the NPOPR system. $R(O_x)_{\text{trans}}$ represents O_3
 321 mixing ratio change due to physical transportation (ppbv h⁻¹), including the horizontal
 322 and vertical transport, dry deposition and the atmospheric mixing (Liu et al., 2022). To
 323 correct the effects of NO titration to O_3 , we have replaced O_3 with $O_x (=O_3+NO_2)$ during
 324 the calculation in this study (Pan et al., 2015).

325 2.3.3 Model performance

326 In order to judge the reliability of the model simulation, we calculated the index
 327 of agreement (IOA) based on the measured and modelled $P(O_3)_{\text{net}}$ and O_3 at 5 m above
 328 the ground level using the following equation (Liu et al., 2019):

$$329 \quad \text{IOA} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - S_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (|O_i - \bar{O}| + |S_i - \bar{O}|)^2} \quad (6)$$

330 Where S_i and O_i represents the simulated and observed $P(O_3)_{\text{net}}$ or O_3 values at the
 331 same time, respectively, \bar{O} is the averaged observed value, and n is the data number.
 332 Furthermore, we also judged the model simulation performance using statistical
 333 measures, including the normalized mean bias (NMB) and normalized mean error
 334 (NME), which are defined as:

$$335 \quad \text{NMB} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (S_i - O_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^n O_i} \cdot 100 \% \quad (7)$$

$$336 \quad \text{NME} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n |S_i - O_i|}{\sum_{i=1}^n O_i} \cdot 100 \% \quad (8)$$

337 Where S_i and O_i have the same meaning as Eq. (6), and n is the total number of
 338 such data pairs of interest. The results will be discussed in Sect. 3.2.2.

339 2.3.4 OH reactivity

340 In order to investigate the influence of the photochemical reactions of different
 341 VOCs to photochemical O_3 formation, we calculated the OH reactivities of different
 342 VOCs, which is the sum of concentrations of OH reactants multiplied by their reaction
 343 rate coefficients, as shown below:

$$344 \quad k_{\text{OH}} = k_i \times [\text{VOCs}]_i \quad (9)$$

345 where k_{OH} represents the total OH reactivity of a group of VOCs species, k_i
346 represents the rate constants between OH radicals and different VOCs species i ,
347 $[VOCs]_i$ represents the concentration of species i . In this study, we summarized the OH
348 reactivities of different kinds of VOCs groups together to investigate their influence on
349 the vertical gradient $P(O_3)_{net}$ in Sect. 3.2.3.

350 **2.3.5 O₃ formation potential**

351 The ozone formation potential is calculated using the product of the VOCs
352 concentration and the maximum incremental reactivity (MIR) coefficient
353 (dimensionless, gram of O₃ produced per gram of VOCs) (Carter et al., 2012):

$$354 \quad OFP_i = \sum_i [VOC]_i \times MIR_i \quad (10)$$

355 Where OFP_i is the ozone formation potential of species i , $[VOC]_i$ is the mass
356 concentration or emission of species i , and MIR_i denotes the maximum increment
357 reactivity of species i (g O₃/g VOCs).

358 **2.3.6 O₃ formation regime**

359 The sensitivity of photochemical O₃ production to its precursors was diagnosed by
360 calculating the relative incremental reactivity (RIR) using the OBM-MCM model. RIR
361 is defined as the percent change in O₃ photochemical production per percent change in
362 the concentration of its single precursor/precursor group (Cardelino and Chameides,
363 1995). Therefore, the RIR for precursor (group) X can be expressed as:

$$364 \quad RIR = \frac{\Delta P(O_3)/P(O_3)}{\Delta X/X} \quad (11)$$

365 where the $\Delta X/X$ represent the percent change in different O₃ precursors or
366 precursor groups. We classified the measured VOCs into anthropogenic organic
367 compounds (AVOC), biogenic organic compounds (BVOC), and OVOC group, and
368 investigated the O₃ formation sensitivity to these different types of VOCs.

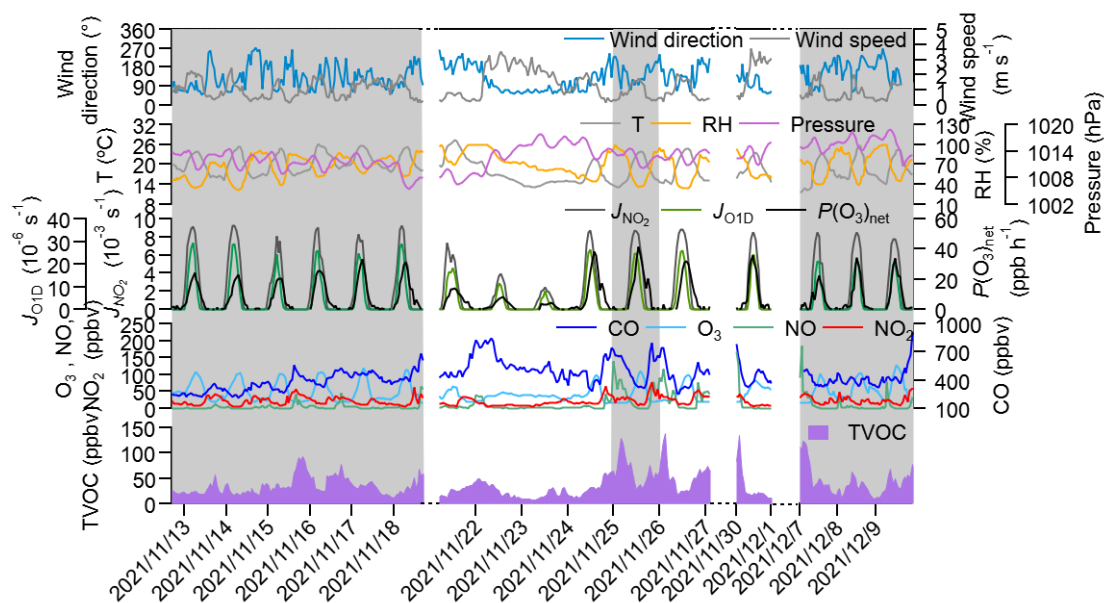
369 **3. Results and discussions**

370 **3.1 Vertical and temporal profile of ozone and its precursors**

371 **3.1.1 Ozone and its precursors at 5 m ground level**

372 Figure 1 shows the time series of the major trace gases, photolysis rate constants,
373 and meteorological parameters at 5 m ground-level during the observation period at

374 SZMGT. Over the 1-month field observation period, a total of 3 O₃ pollution episodes
375 (referred to episodes hereafter) and 2 non-O₃ pollution episodes (referred to non-
376 episodes hereafter) were captured. O₃ pollution episodes were defined as the days
377 during which the hourly average ozone concentration at ground-level (5 m) exceed the
378 Grade II standard (102 ppbv, GB 3095-2012, China; Ambient Air Quality Standards,
379 2012), while the remaining days were defined as non-episodes. Episode days (marked
380 as gray columns in Fig. 1) included November 13-18 (episode I), November 26 (episode
381 II), and December 7-9 (episode III), while the non-episode days included November
382 22-25 (non-episode I), November 26-27 and 30 (non-episode II). The corresponding
383 daytime mean values (6:00-18:00 LT) during all episode days and non-episode days are
384 shown in Table 1. During the daytime of episode days (episodes I, II, and III), the mean
385 concentrations of O₃ were 70.1 ± 28.6 , 59.5 ± 32.4 , and 71.3 ± 31.0 , respectively. The
386 mean *T* and RH were 22.3 ± 2.5 °C and 56.2 ± 14.5 % for episode I, 20.4 ± 3.2 °C and
387 52.2 ± 16.7 % for episode II, and 20.6 ± 3.4 °C and 58.2 ± 17.2 % for episode III. During
388 non-episode days, the mean concentrations of O₃ were 45.3 ± 16.2 and 63.7 ± 21.3 ppbv
389 for non-episode I and II, respectively. The corresponding mean *T* and RH were
390 18.4 ± 4.3 °C and 69.5 ± 15.4 % for non-episode I, and 21.3 ± 2.7 °C and 51.8 ± 13.7 % for
391 non-episode II. These observations indicate that the *T* and RH during episode days were
392 not significantly different from those during non-episode days. This phenomenon
393 contrasts with previous studies in the PRD area, where O₃ pollution episodes were
394 generally associated with high *T* and low RH (Mousavinezhad et al., 2021; Hong et al.,
395 2022).



396

397 **Figure 1. Time series of major trace gases, photolysis rate constants, and meteorological**
 398 **parameters at 5 m ground level during the observation period. The gray columns show the**
 399 **typical O₃ episodes that occurred.**

400 **Table 1. Daytime major trace gases concentrations (units: ppbv), $P(O_3)_{net}$ (units: ppbv h⁻¹,**
 401 **and meteorological parameters during different episodes and non-episodes during the**
 402 **observation period (from 13 November to 9 December 2021) at SZMGT.**

Parameters	Mean±SD				
	Episode I	Episode II	Episode III	Non-episode I	Non-episode II
O ₃	70.1±28.6	59.5±32.4	71.3±31.0	45.3±16.2	63.7±21.3
TVOC	29.6±10.6	53.8±21.7	42.9±11.5	23.3±8.6	26.8±11.1
CO	344.9±85.1	408.8±85.4	397.2±42.1	508.5±117.2	383.4±74.6
NO	2.3±2.6	13.1±17.4	6.6±13.8	2.9±2.0	6.8±13.1
NO ₂	15.6±7.5	22.3±10.2	20.0±8.3	14.1±6.8	15.4±8.8
OF _P (g m ⁻³)	5.1E-4± 7.5E-5	1.0E-3± 2.0E-4	7.2E-4± 8.3E-5	4.1E-4± 5.6E-5	4.7E-4± 7.8E-5
$P(O_3)_{net}$ * (ppbv h ⁻¹)	14.3±10.7	21.5±14.9	14.6±11.9	5.6±4.6	18.9±13.9
T (°C)	22.3±2.5	20.4±3.2	20.6±3.4	18.4±4.3	21.3±2.7
RH (%)	56.2±14.5	52.2±16.7	58.2±17.2	69.5±15.4	51.8±13.7
Wind speed (m s ⁻¹)	1.3±0.5	1.2±0.4	1.1±0.5	1.8±0.9	2.1±0.9
wind direction (°)	115.5±48.7	128.6±35.3	144.8±57.1	115.0±57.6	115.3±36.2

403

* All values here were calculated as the mean average values during daytime (6:00-18:00 LT).

404

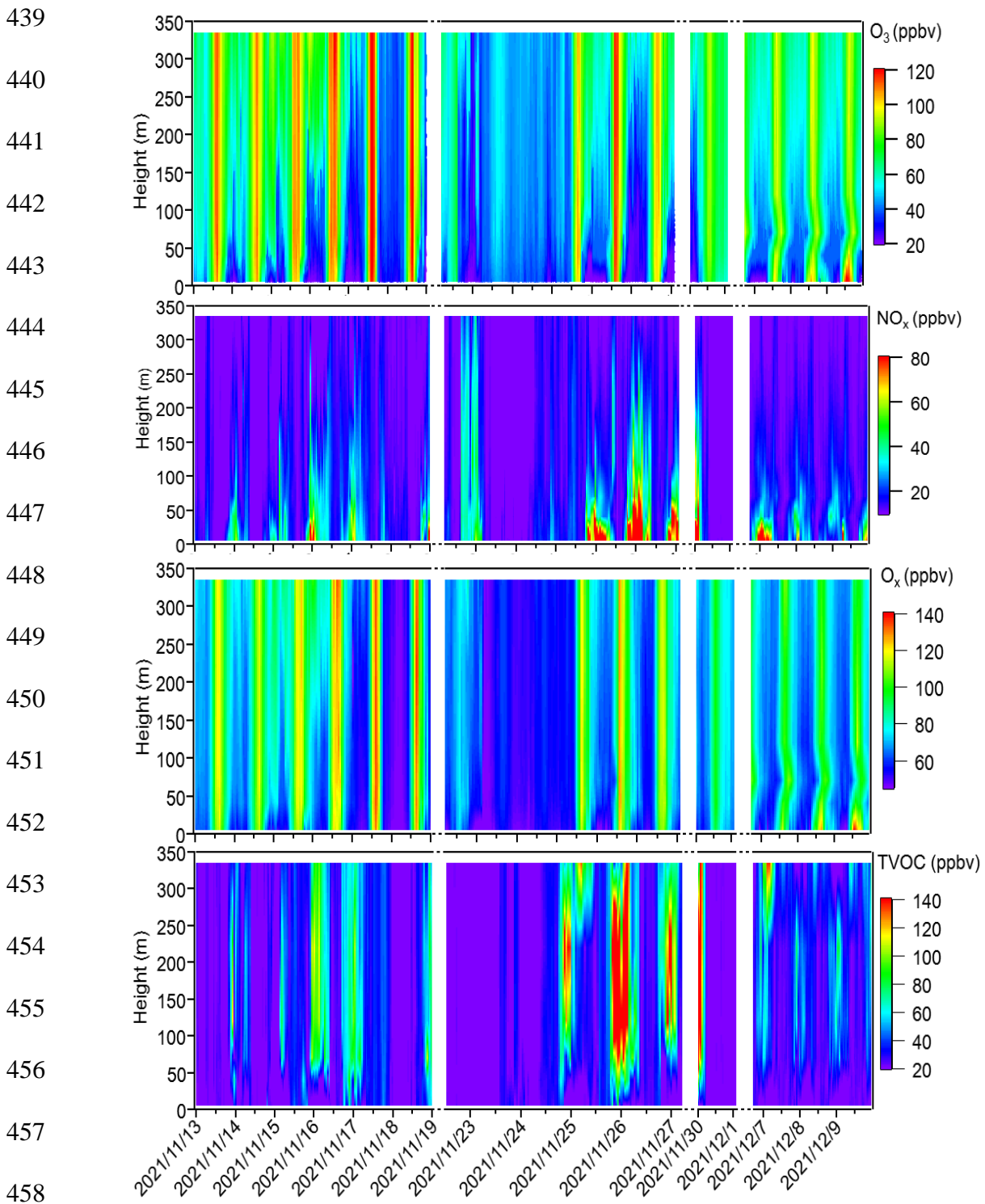
The mean concentrations of O₃ precursors, including CO, NO, NO₂, and the total

405 VOCs measured by PTR-TOF-MS (shown as TVOC in Fig. 1 and Table 1), did not
406 exhibit notable discrepancies between episodes and non-episodes. This suggests that
407 their concentrations during O₃ pollution episodes can vary, being either higher or lower
408 than those observed during non-episodes (as shown in Table 1). Further comparison of
409 the daytime mean O₃ formation potential (OFP) and the measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ during
410 episodes and non-episodes showed no significant differences, ranging from 5.1E-4 to
411 1.0E-3 g m⁻³ and 14.3 to 21.5 ppb h⁻¹, respectively, during non-episodes, whereas they
412 are ranged from 4.1E-4 to 4.7E-4 g m⁻³ and 5.6 to 18.9 ppb h⁻¹ respectively, during
413 episodes. Although OFP was always higher during episodes than during non-episodes,
414 the mean $P(O_3)_{net}$ values during episodes I and III were even lower than during non-
415 episodes II. The higher O₃ concentrations may be due to the more stable weather
416 conditions during episodes I and III (with lower wind speed), which benefits the
417 accumulation of O₃ formed by local photochemical O₃ formation. While for non-
418 episode II, even it processes higher $P(O_3)_{net}$, the outflow of O₃ from the observation site
419 by physical processes may be higher due to the higher wind speed. These findings
420 indicate that the O₃ pollution episodes stem from either substantially elevated local
421 photochemical O₃ formation (i.e., episode II), or the accumulation of O₃ formed by
422 moderate local photochemical O₃ formation under stable weather conditions (i.e.,
423 episodes I and II). Notably, when local photochemical reactions contribute intensely to
424 the formation of O₃, favorable weather conditions facilitating O₃ outflow diminish the
425 likelihood of O₃ pollution occurrences (i.e., non-episode II). These results indicate that
426 O₃ pollution episodes are jointly affected by the photochemical reactions and physical
427 transport processes, which we will discuss in more detail in Sect. 3.2.1.

428 3.1.2 Vertical profiles of ozone and its precursors at 5-335 m level

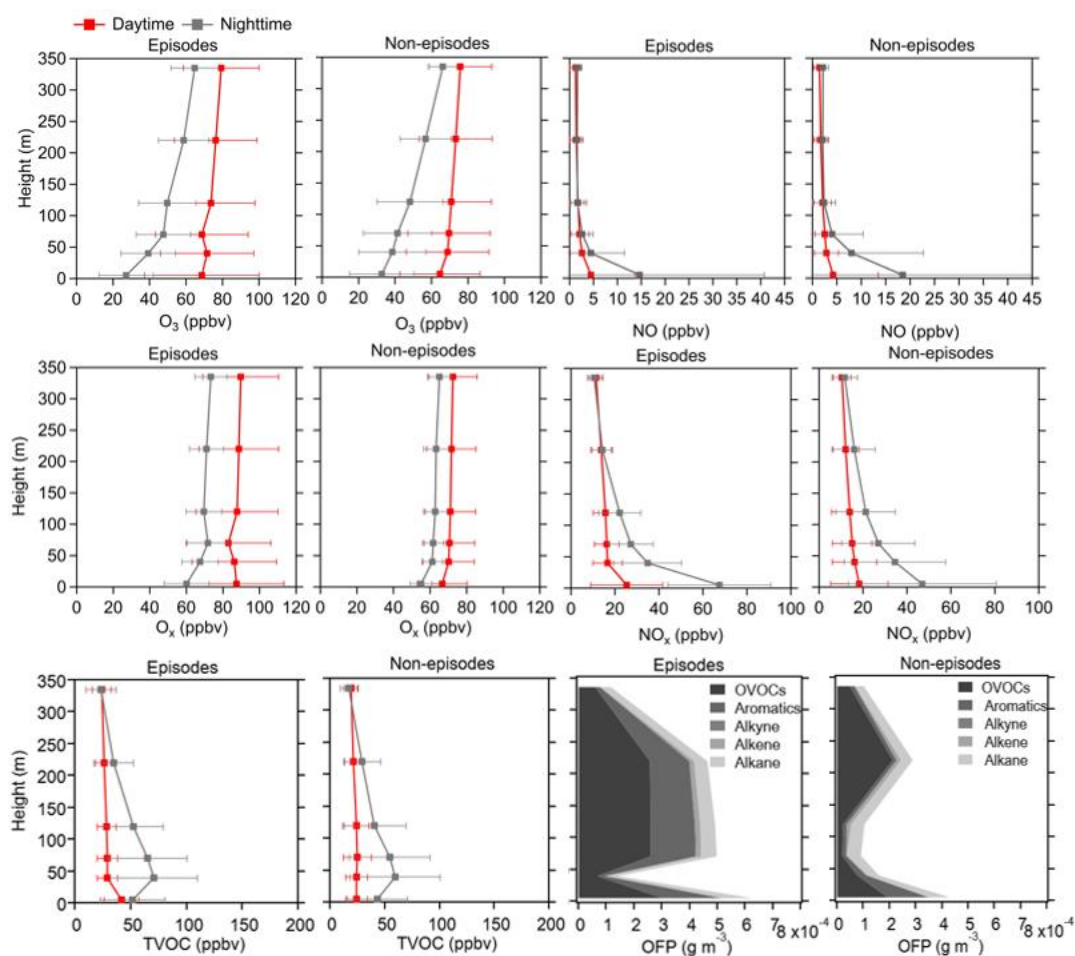
429 Figure 2 shows the contour plots illustrating the vertical profiles of O₃, NO_x,
430 O_x(=O₃+NO₂), and TVOC. From Fig. 2, minimal vertical gradients were observed
431 during daytime in the concentration of all species—O₃, NO_x, O_x, and TVOC—due to the
432 rapid vertical mixing effects. However, distinct vertical gradients were observed during
433 nighttime owing to the stability of the nocturnal residual layer. Elevated concentrations
434 of O₃ and O_x were identified at higher altitudes, whereas higher NO_x concentrations
435 predominantly occurred at ground level. We further elucidated the vertical distribution
436 patterns of different pollutants as well as the OFP of different VOCs groups during
437 local daytime (6:00-18:00 LT) and nighttime (19:00-5:00 LT) for both episodes and

438 non-episodes, as shown in Fig. 3.



459 **Figure 2. Time series of vertical profiles for O₃, NO_x, Ox, and TVOC during the**
460 **observation period. The contour plots are made using the measured values from six heights.**

461



462

463 **Figure 3. Average vertical profiles of O₃, NO, Ox, NO_x, and TVOC during both daytime**
 464 **and nighttime, and OFP of different VOCs types during daytime at six heights (5, 40, 70, 120,**
 465 **220, and 335 m), including episodes and non-episodes throughout the observation period. The**
 466 **error bars indicate the standard deviation calculated from the measured values during these**
 467 **periods.**

468 The vertical profiles of averaged concentrations of various pollutants exhibit
 469 similar trends during both episodes and non-episodes, with O₃ showing an increasing
 470 trend from 5 m above ground level to 355 m, aligning with findings from previous
 471 studies (Zhang et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2021). Given that NO_x has a significant
 472 titration effect on O₃, the lower O₃ concentration at ground level may be attributed to
 473 the increase in NO_x concentration (Zhang et al., 2022) and also the dry deposition near
 474 the ground (Li et al., 2022). NO and NO_x showed an opposite trend compared to O₃.
 475 These two factors jointly effected the Ox changing trend with heights, and consequently,
 476 the gradients of Ox concentrations showed a weaker increasing trend from the 5 m
 477 ground level to 355 m height compared to O₃. This observation demonstrated a more
 478 pronounced NO titration effect at the 5 m ground level compared to the effect at 355 m

479 height. However, the TVOC showed variable trends with increased height for daytime
480 and nighttime during episodes and non-episodes. During daytime, TVOC initially
481 decreased from 5 m to 40 m, and then continuously increased from 40 m to 355 m
482 during episodes, while continuously slightly decreased from 5 m to 335 m during non-
483 episodes. During nighttime, TVOC concentrations first increased from 5 m to 40 m and
484 then continuously decreased from 40 m to 335 m during both episodes and non-episodes.
485 We further plotted the OFP of different VOCs groups at various altitudes, and found
486 that the total OFP was highest at 5 m ground level and exhibited higher levels during
487 episodes compared to non-episode periods. Subsequently, there was a significant
488 decrease at 40 m height during both episodes and non-episodes. However, there was a
489 sharp increase observed at 70 m, 120 m, and 220 m during episodes, contrasting with a
490 gradual rise during non-episode periods, which eventually reach a peak at 220 m during
491 non-episodes. A consistent decrease of OFP from 220 m to 335 m was observed during
492 both episodes and non-episodes. The OFP was primarily attributed to OVOCs at
493 different altitudes throughout both episodes and non-episodes, followed by aromatics
494 and alkane during episodes and non-episodes, respectively.

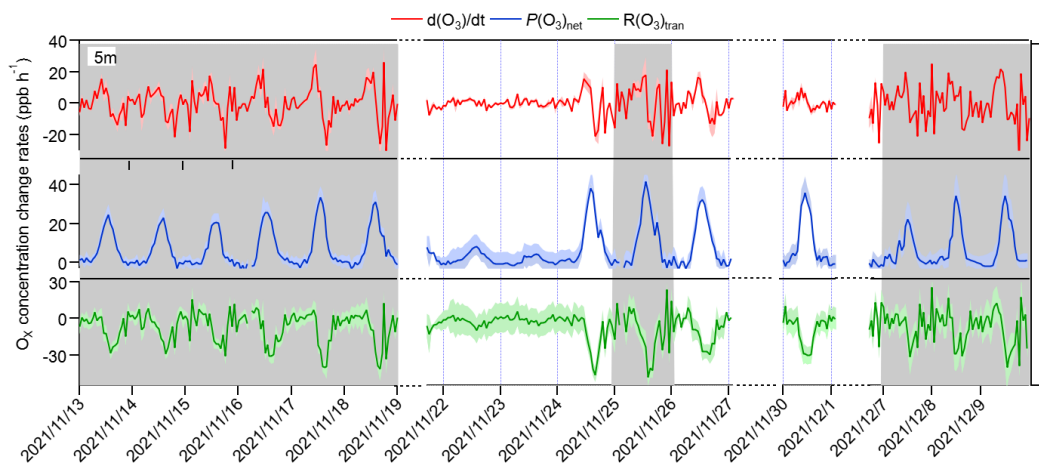
495 **3.2 O₃ pollution episodes formation mechanism at near-ground surface**

496 In this section, we first explored the possible reason for O₃ pollution episodes on
497 the 5 m ground level, aiming to identify the contribution of chemical and physical
498 processes to change in O₃ concentrations (Sect. 3.2.1). Subsequently, we assessed the
499 modelling performance and investigated the potential reasons for the modelling bias in
500 photochemical O₃ formation by comparing the measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ with the modelled
501 $P(O_3)_{net}$ (Sect. 3.2.2). To gain insights into the photochemical O₃ formation mechanism
502 at different heights and understand their role in overall O₃ pollution, we further
503 discussed the chemical budget of O₃ at different heights (Sect. 3.2.3), the vertical and
504 temporal variability of $P(O_3)_{net}$ and O₃ formation regime (Sect. 3.2.4), along with
505 potential bias within the modelling approach (Sect. 3.2.5).

506 **3.2.1 Contribution of chemical and physical processes to O₃ changes on** 507 **the ground level**

508 As concluded in Sect. 3.1.1, O₃ pollution episodes may be jointly affected by the
509 photochemical reactions and physical transport. In order to identify the main reasons
510 for O₃ pollution on the ground level, we calculated the contribution of chemical and

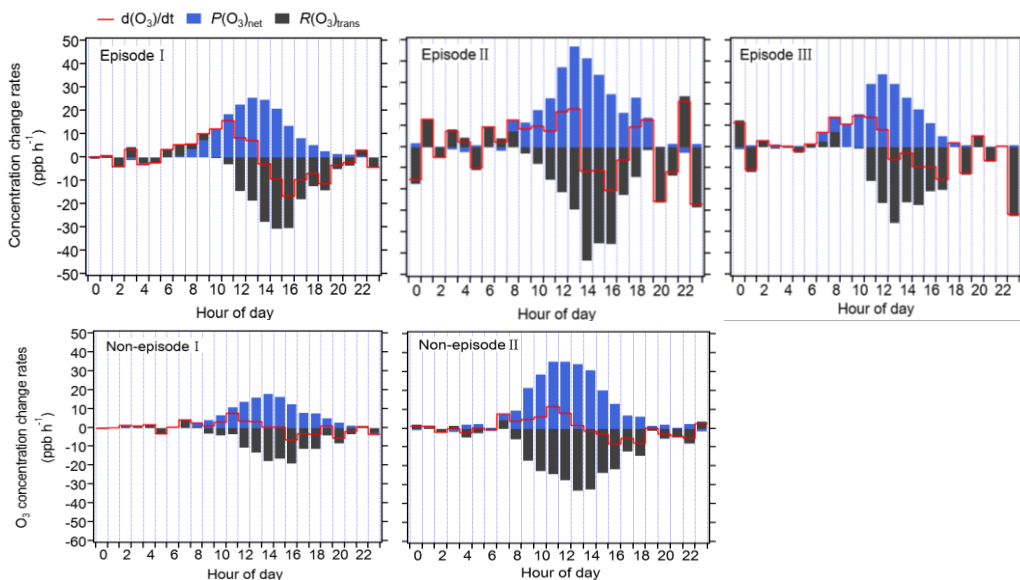
511 physical processes to O₃ changes at 5 m ground level separately for all 3 episodes and
 512 2 non-episodes. Typically, as **dry deposition contributes** a relatively small portion and
 513 can often be considered negligible, making vertical and horizontal transport the main
 514 contributors to physical processes (Tan et al., 2019).



515

516 **Figure 4. Time series of O₃ concentration changes ($d(O_3)/dt$) and contributions from**
 517 **local photochemical production ($P(O_3)_{net}$) and physical transport ($R(O_3)_{tran}$). The shaded areas**
 518 **of $d(O_3)/dt$, $P(O_3)_{net}$, and $R(O_3)_{tran}$ represent one standard deviation (denoted by σ) of**
 519 **the mean $d(O_3)/dt$, the uncertainty of measured $P(O_3)_{net}$, and the propagated error of $R(O_3)_{tran}$,**
 520 **respectively.**

521



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529 **Figure 5. Diurnal variation of the contribution of chemical and physical transport to O₃**
 530 **changes on the ground level.**

531 **$R(O_x)_{tran}$ at 5 m ground level was derived from $\frac{dO_x}{dt}$ minus $P(O_x)_{net}$, according to**
 532 **Eq. (5) shown Sect. 2.3.2, their hourly averages and diurnal variations are shown in**

533 Figs. 4 and 5, respectively. From these figures, it is evident that the fluctuation of the
534 O_3 concentration change rate ($d(O_3)/dt$) at ground level is typically small and primarily
535 dominated by the physical processes during nighttime. During nighttime, $P(O_3)_{net}$
536 should be zero without sun radiation. The significant $P(O_3)_{net}$ shown in Fig. 5 may be
537 due to the measurement uncertainty of $P(O_3)_{net}$, which is determined by the
538 measurement error of O_X of CAPS- NO_2 monitor and the error caused by the light-
539 enhanced loss of O_3 in the reaction and reference chambers (as discussed in Sect. S4).
540 The measurement uncertainty of $P(O_3)_{net}$ is higher at lower $P(O_3)_{net}$ values (as shown
541 in Fig. 4), which was mainly determined by the instrumental error of O_X measurement
542 and the ambient O_X concentrations during nighttime. It was estimated to be $\sim 38\%$ and
543 can be considered as the measurement precision. Around 6:00-7:00 LT, O_3
544 concentrations increase for all episodes and non-episodes, mainly due to physical
545 transport during episodes I and II and non-episodes I, while photochemical reactions
546 and physical processes are equally important for episodes III and non-episode II. This
547 could be due to short-term strong vertical turbulence in the early morning, which leads
548 to an expansion of the boundary layer height and makes the residual layer “leaky”,
549 allowing vertical transport. At the same time, O_3 precursors were also transported down
550 from the residual layer, and with increasing sunlight, these O_3 precursors underwent
551 rapid photochemical reactions that competed with the physical processes between 6:00-
552 7:00 LT, leading to a sharp increase in $P(O_3)_{net}$ between 8:00 to 12:00 LT. The $P(O_3)_{net}$
553 peaked around 11:00-14:00 LT and started to decrease around 15:00, eventually
554 approaching zero by around 19:00-20:00 LT. Between 7:00-8:00 LT, $R(O_3)_{tran}>0$ for all
555 episodes and non-episodes, indicating inflow of O_3 from physical transport, increasing
556 surface O_3 concentration by averages of 4.7, 3.9, 2.3, 3.5, and 4.5 ppbv h^{-1} for episodes
557 I, II, III, and non-episodes I and II, respectively. From 9:00 to 10:00 LT, $R(O_3)_{tran}>0$
558 only for episodes I, increasing the O_3 concentration by 1.5 ppbv h^{-1} , indicating inflow
559 of O_3 from physical transport; on the contrary, $R(O_3)_{tran}<0$ for episodes II and III, and
560 non-episodes I and II, indicating outflow of O_3 from physical transport, decreasing the
561 O_3 concentration by 3.1, 0.1, 3.0, and 16.9 ppbv h^{-1} , respectively. After 10:00 LT,
562 $R(O_3)_{tran}<0$ for all episodes and non-episodes, indicating outflow of O_3 from the
563 observation sites, possibly due to accumulated photochemically formed O_3 increasing
564 the concentration at the observation site, diffusing upward or to surrounding areas.

565 In conclusion, the observed daytime O_3 concentration changes during all episodes

566 and non-episodes were influenced by both photochemical production and physical
567 transport. In the early morning, the increase in O₃ concentrations can be attributed to
568 photochemical reactions, physical processes, and possibly reduced NO titration effects
569 as the boundary layer height increases. Around noon, O₃ concentrations stabilize,
570 suggesting a balance between photochemical reactions and physical transport affecting
571 O₃ concentration changes. In the afternoon, O₃ concentrations decrease due to the
572 transport of photochemically formed O₃ from the observation site to upward directions
573 or the surrounding areas. Our findings indicate that local photochemical reactions
574 dominate O₃ pollution. For example, O₃ pollution episodes recorded during the
575 observation period manifest under specific conditions: ① high photochemical O₃
576 production (i.e., episode II); ② moderate photochemical O₃ productions coupled with
577 O₃ accumulation under stable weather conditions (i.e., episodes I and III). In contrast,
578 non-episodes observed during the observation period occur under different conditions:
579 ① low levels of photochemical O₃ production (i.e., non-episodes I); ② elevated
580 photochemical O₃ production, with O₃ transport to surrounding areas under favorable
581 diffusion conditions (i.e., non-episodes II).

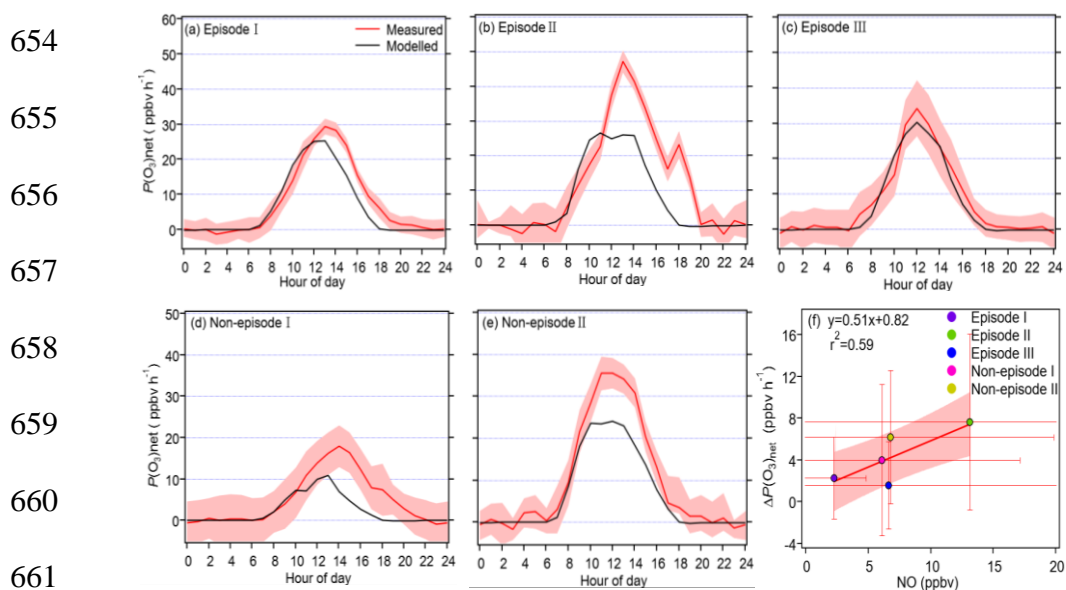
582 3.2.2 The model performance

583 In order to test the simulation ability of OBM-MCM model for $P(O_3)_{net}$, we
584 compared the measured and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ at 5 m ground level, as depicted in Fig.
585 S3. The measured and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ revealed close alignment during episodes I
586 and III, yet displayed discernible variations during episode II, non-episode I, and non-
587 episode II. Assessment metrics including IOA, NMB, and NME were computed based
588 on the observed and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ over the entire measurement period (as described
589 in Sect. 2.3.3). The IOA ranged between 0.87 (25th percentile) and 0.90 (75th percentile)
590 for the measured and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ across the measurement period, indicating the
591 acceptable performance of the OBM-MCM model simulation (a higher IOA value
592 signifies a stronger agreement between simulated and observed values). Additionally,
593 comparison of measured and modelled O₃ concentrations at different heights (as shown
594 in Fig. S4) revealed generally higher modelled values during daytime and closer
595 alignment during nighttime at lower heights (i.e., 5 m, 40 m, and 70 m), while
596 discrepancies were observed at higher heights (i.e., 120 m, 220 m, and 335 m). These
597 phenomena may be primarily attributed to uncertainties in assumed physical processes
598 in the modelling, such as vertical and horizontal transport. To achieve the best

599 agreement between the modelled O_3 concentrations and the observed values, we applied
600 different dilution factors (the lifetime of the species) in the modelling, varying from 6
601 h to 24 h. We found that the simulated O_3 is closest to the measured O_3 concentrations
602 when the lifetime of the species is set to 12 h. The modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ increases with the
603 decrease of the dilution factor, but this doesn't affect the main conclusions as the
604 influence of the dilution factor on the modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ is negligible due to the very
605 short lifetime of the HO_2 and RO_2 radicals that determine the $P(O_3)_{net}$ values (Wang et
606 al., 2021). Therefore, a constant dilution factor of $1/43200\text{ s}^{-1}$ was set throughout the
607 observation period. Further investigations revealed an IOA range between 0.80 (25th
608 percentile) and 0.82 (75th percentile) for measured and modelled O_3 concentrations at
609 5 m ground level, which lies in between the IOA result for the modelled and observed
610 O_3 concentrations in previous studies, which range between 0.68 and 0.89 (Wang et al.,
611 2018), signifying the modelling results for O_3 concentrations here are acceptable. The
612 calculated NMB and NME using the modelled and observed $P(O_3)_{net}$ at 5 m ground
613 level during the whole measurement period ranged from -0.42 (25th percentile) to -0.31
614 (75th percentile) and -0.42 (25th percentile) to 0.54 (75th percentile), respectively. These
615 analysis results indicate that the model underestimates the measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ by a factor
616 ranging from 1.42 (25th percentile) to 1.31 (75th percentile), calculated as $(1+|NMB|)$,
617 and the simulation results are reliable (with $-1 < NME < 1$).

618 The mean diel variation of measured and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ during different
619 episodes and non-episodes are shown in Fig. 6a-e. The maximum daily $P(O_3)_{net}$ values
620 were 29.3, 47.2, and 34.2 ppbv h^{-1} for episodes I, II, and III, and 17.9 and 35.5 ppbv h^{-1}
621 for non-episodes I and II, respectively. These values were comparable to or lower than
622 those measured in urban areas of Houston, United States (40-50 and 100 ppbv h^{-1} in
623 autumn and spring, respectively) (Baier et al., 2015; Ren et al., 2013), but higher than
624 those measured in a remote area of Japan (10.5 ppbv h^{-1} in summer) and an urban area
625 of Pennsylvania, United States (~ 8 ppbv h^{-1} in summer) (Sadanaga et al., 2017; Cazorla
626 and Brune, 2020). The averaged diel profiles of measured and simulated $P(O_3)_{net}$
627 exhibited large standard deviations (as depicted in Table 1), representing their day-to-
628 day variation throughout the campaign. The measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ were mostly higher than
629 the modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$, which could be attributed to the underestimation of RO_2 under
630 high NO conditions, leading to substantial disparities between calculated $P(O_3)_{net}$
631 derived from measured and modelled RO_2 concentrations, as highlighted in previous

632 studies (Whalley et al., 2018, 2021; Tan et al., 2017, 2018). The median value of
 633 [measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ -modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$]/measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ ranged from 22% to 45% for
 634 different episodes and non-episodes. To delve deeper, we further investigated the
 635 relationship between the daily disparities of measured and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ ($\Delta P(O_3)_{net}$
 636 = measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ -modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$) and average daytime NO concentrations during
 637 different episodes and non-episodes, as depicted in Fig. 6f. The observed elevated
 638 $\Delta P(O_3)_{net}$ at higher NO concentrations aligns with findings from previous studies,
 639 which suggest that multiple factors could contribute to these outcomes. For example,
 640 the reaction of OH with unknown VOCs (Tan et al., 2017), the lack of correction for
 641 the decomposition of $CH_3O_2NO_2$, the missing RO_2 production from photolysis $ClNO_2$
 642 (Whalley et al., 2018; Tan et al., 2017), and the underestimation of OVOCs photolysis
 643 (Wang et al., 2022) in modelling approaches may lead to the underestimation of RO_2 ,
 644 thus underestimating the modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$. Further analysis showed that the
 645 underestimation of $P(O_3)_{net}$ can lead to the NO_x -limited regime being shifted to the
 646 VOCs-limited regime, thus underestimating the NO_x -limited regime (Wang et al., 2022,
 647 2024). However, the derived IOA, NMB, and NME values from the modelled and
 648 observed $P(O_3)_{net}$ (and O_3) at 5 m ground during different episodes and non-episodes
 649 indicate that the model proficiently reproduces the genuine $P(O_3)_{net}$ at the observation
 650 site (as shown in Table S3). Consequently, these results provide confidence in exploring
 651 the vertical and temporal variations of $P(O_3)_{net}$ and O_3 formation sensitivities utilizing
 652 the outcomes from the modelling approach. Nonetheless, it is important to acknowledge
 653 and discuss the potential biases caused by the modelling methodology in this study.



662 **Figure 6. (a-e) diurnal variations of the measured and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ during the**
663 **observation period, and (f) the relationship between the average daily differences of measured**
664 **and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ ($\Delta P(O_3)_{net}$) and the average daytime NO concentrations during different**
665 **episodes and non-episodes.**

666 **3.2.3 Vertical and temporal variability of $P(O_3)_{net}$ budget**

667 The detailed $P(O_3)_{net}$ budget at different heights during the observation period
668 from the modelling results are shown in Fig. 7. Across various heights and different
669 episodes and non-episodes, the contributions of different reaction pathways to $P(O_3)$
670 were almost the same, with HO_2+NO as the major O_3 production pathway, followed by
671 CH_3O_2+NO and other RO_2+NO , where other RO_2+NO encompasses all RO_2 except
672 CH_3O_2 . This result aligns with previous studies (Liu et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2022). The
673 major O_3 destruction pathway was $OH+NO_2$ (loss of OH radicals), followed by net
674 RO_2+NO_2 (form peroxyacetyl nitrate, commonly called PAN species) and O_3
675 photolysis, while other O_3 destruction pathways, including O_3+OH , O_3+HO_2 , $C_5H_8+O_3$,
676 $C_3H_6+O_3$, and $C_2H_4+O_3$, together contributed negligibly to O_3 destruction. These $P(O_3)$
677 and $D(O_3)$ reaction pathways occurred between 6:00-18:00 LT, exhibiting strong
678 diurnal variation characterized by a sharp increase between 6:00-11:00 LT in the
679 morning, peaking between 11:00 and 14:00 LT, and decreasing rapidly after 14:00 LT.
680 These phenomena were in accordance with the concentration changes of the major
681 oxidants (i.e., OH, O_3 , and NO_3), as shown in Fig. S5, where OH radicals and O_3
682 concentrations increased significantly in the morning and reached a peak around noon,
683 followed by sharp afternoon decreases.

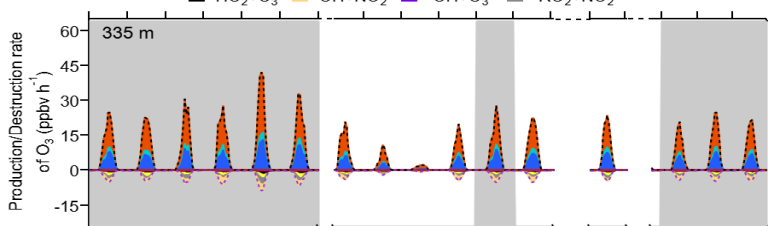
684 The diurnal changes in the concentrations of different reaction pathways to $P(O_3)$
685 and $D(O_3)$ at 5 m ground level during different episodes and non-episodes are depicted
686 in Fig. S6. We note that the maximum total $P(O_3)$ resulting from diel variations at 5 m
687 ground level for episode I, II, and III were 32.0, 34.9, and 38.3 ppbv h^{-1} , respectively.
688 These values were consistently higher than the maximum total $P(O_3)$ observed for non-
689 episodes I and II, which were 15.6 and 30.7 ppbv h^{-1} , respectively. However, as $P(O_3)_{net}$
690 was determined by both $P(O_3)$ and $D(O_3)$, the maximum total $D(O_3)$ values resulting
691 from diel variations during episodes I, II, III, and non-episode I, II, were 5.0, 5.7, 5.1,
692 2.4, and 5.3 ppbv h^{-1} , respectively. Consequently, the modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ during episodes
693 does not exhibiting a statistically significant difference from that during non-episodes
694 (Mann-Whitney p value=0.12), as shown in Fig. S5, which is in agreement with the

695 measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ (Mann-Whitney p -value=0.28), as depicted in Sect. 3.1.1.

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Production: ■ HO₂+NO ■ CH₃O₂+NO ■ Other RO₂+NO --- P(O₃) --- D(O₃)
 Destruction: ■ O₃+hv ■ C₂H₄+O₃ ■ C₃H₆+O₃ ■ C₅H₈+O₃
■ HO₂+O₃ ■ OH+NO₂ ■ OH+O₃ ■ RO₂+NO₂

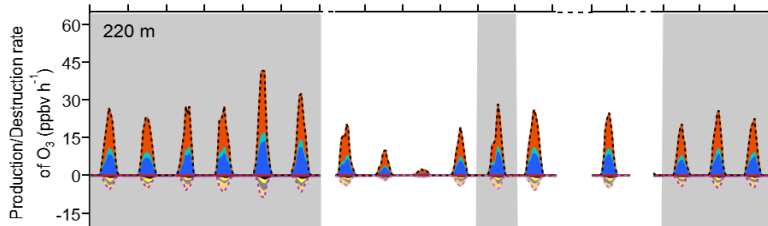
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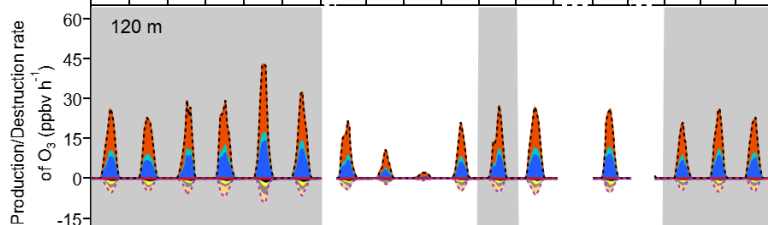
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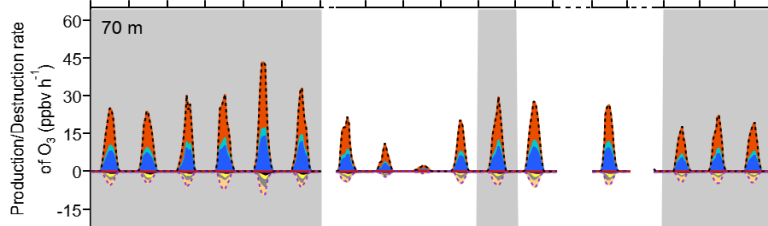
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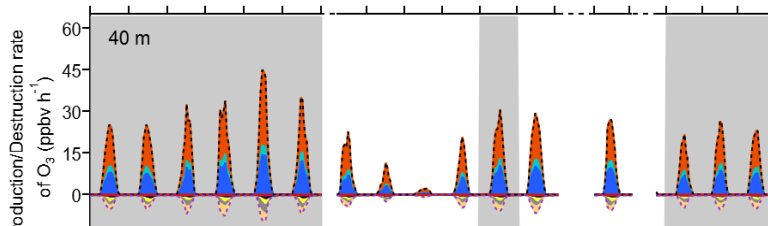
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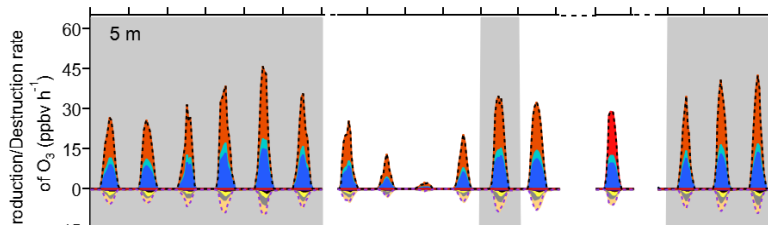
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720 **Figure 7. Time series of model-simulated O₃ production and destruction rates during 13**
721 **November and 9 December 2021, at different heights at SZMGT, the gray columns show the**
722 **typical ozone episodes that occurred.**

723 The diurnal variation of $P(O_3)_{net}$ during different episodes and non-episodes
724 obtained by OBM-MCM modelling at different heights are shown in Fig. 8. We saw
725 that the $P(O_3)_{net}$ all showed a decreasing trend with the increase of the measurement
726 height during different episodes and non-episodes, but the variation of $P(O_3)_{net}$ along
727 with the measurement height differed for different episodes and non-episodes. For
728 example, the decrement of the averaged $P(O_3)_{net}$ during 6:00-18:00 LT from 5 m to 335
729 m were 1.5 and 0.6 ppbv h⁻¹ for episode I and non-episode I, respectively, which was
730 relatively smaller than that during episode II, episode III, and non-episode II, which
731 were 5.3, 5.4, and 4.0 ppbv h⁻¹, respectively. To explore the reason, we plotted the
732 differences of calculated OH reactivities at 5 m and 335 m of different VOCs groups
733 (marked as ΔOH reactivity) as a function of the $P(O_3)_{net}$ change at 5 m and 335 m
734 (marked as $\Delta P(O_3)_{net}$), including nonmethane hydrocarbons (NMHC), anthropogenic
735 volatile organic compounds (AVOC), biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOC),
736 and oxygenated volatile organic compounds (OVOC) (as shown in Fig.8f). The VOCs
737 species included in each category are listed in Table S2. We found that the OH
738 reactivities of AVOC and OVOC had the highest correlation coefficients (R^2) with the
739 $\Delta P(O_3)_{net}$, which are 0.85 and 0.67, respectively, indicating their predominant influence
740 on the decrement of $P(O_3)_{net}$ from 5 m to 335 m. However, the OH reactivity change
741 from 5 m to 335 m of different groups was quite different. Therefore, we further
742 explored O₃ formation sensitivity to its different VOCs precursors and precursor groups.

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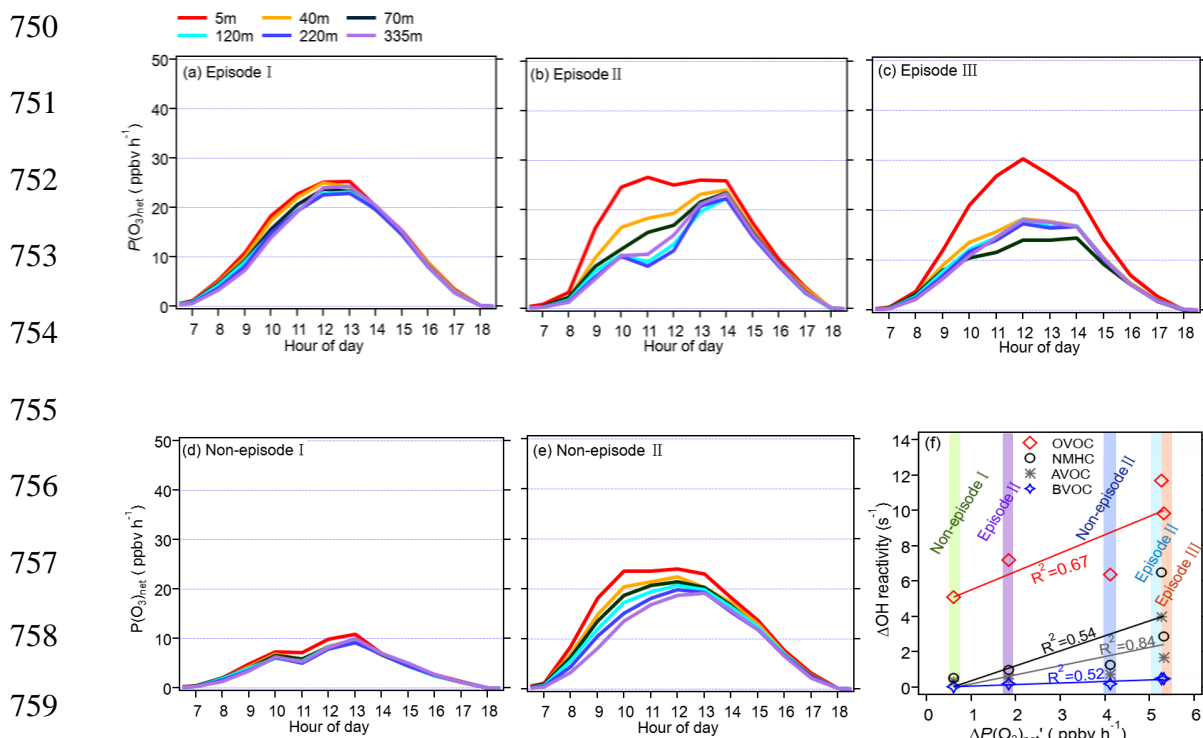
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760 **Figure 8. (a-e) Diurnal variation of vertical profile of the model-simulated $P(O_3)_{net}$**
 761 **during different episodes and non-episodes from 13 November to 9 December 2021, and (f)**
 762 **the relationship between the average daytime differences of modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ (denoted as**
 763 **$\Delta P(O_3)_{net}$), and OH reactivity of different precursor groups at 5 m and 335 m (denoted as Δ OH**
 764 **reactivity).**

765 3.2.4 Vertical distributions of O₃ formation regime

766 To investigate the reasons behind the variable distribution of $P(O_3)_{net}$ at varying
 767 heights, we clarified the sensitivity of O₃ formation to different O₃ precursors or
 768 precursor groups, including NMHC, AVOC, BVOC, OVOC, CO, and NO_x, by
 769 calculating their RIRs during different episodes and non-episodes, as shown in Fig. 9.
 770 As illustrated in Fig. 9, the RIR values for different O₃-precursors or precursor groups
 771 don't exhibit significant variation at different heights during specific episodes or non-
 772 episodes, **indicating a similar photochemical O₃ formation regime.** However, the O₃
 773 formation regimes differ between different episodes or non-episodes. During O₃
 774 polluted episode I, O₃ formation is located in a transition regime and is more sensitive
 775 to VOCs emissions. Conversely, during O₃ polluted episodes II and III, and non-
 776 episodes I and II, it is located in VOCs sensitive regime. This finding aligns with
 777 previous studies suggesting that photochemical O₃ formation in the PRD region is likely
 778 VOC-limited or mixed-limited (Hong et al., 2022; Lu et al., 2018). The results suggest
 779 that the complexity of O₃ mitigation at the observation site. For example, **during**

780 **polluted episode I, reducing both VOCs and NO_x** can mitigate photochemical O₃
 781 formation. However, during other O₃ polluted episodes and non-episodes, reducing
 782 VOCs can effectively alleviate photochemical O₃ formation, while reducing NO_x might
 783 aggravate it. Nevertheless, during all episodes and non-episodes, O₃ formation is most
 784 sensitive to AVOC (RIR: 0.83-1.12), followed by OVOC (RIR: 0.59-0.79) at different
 785 heights, indicating the urgent need to reduce AVOC and OVOC emissions to mitigate
 786 O₃ pollution in this area.

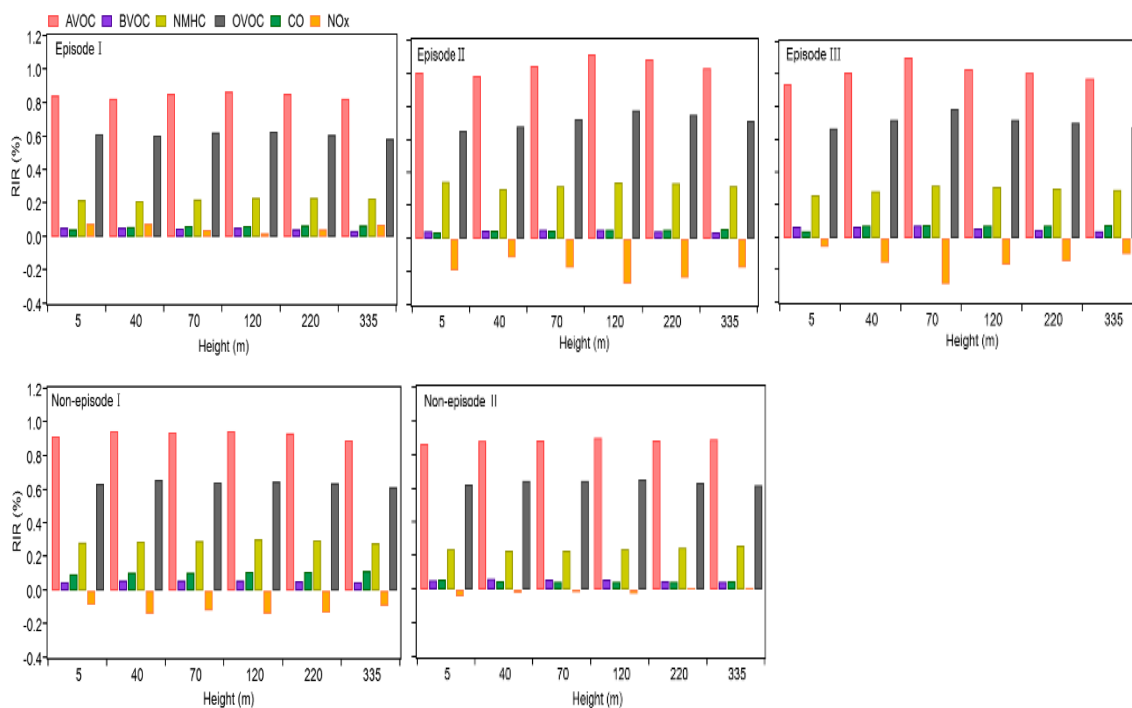
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797 **Figure 9. RIR values for O₃-precursor or precursor groups at different heights during**
 798 **different classified episodes.**

799 The RIR tests for different episodes and non-episodes at various hours of the local
 800 daytime are illustrated in the Supplement (Fig. S7). The results indicate that the diurnal
 801 changes of RIR values for different episodes and non-episodes exhibit remarkable
 802 similarities. In the morning, the RIR values for various VOC groups, including AVOC,
 803 BVOC, OVOC, and CO, are typically higher than those for NO_x. However, they
 804 gradually decrease throughout the day until 16:00 LT, then increase and reach a peak
 805 at 18:00 LT. Interestingly, the RIR values at this peak are lower than those at 8:00 LT
 806 in the morning. Conversely, the RIR values for NO_x are usually around zero or below
 807 zero during most of the day, gradually increasing around 16:00 LT and peaking at 18:00
 808 LT. This suggests a transition in the photochemical O₃ formation regime throughout

809 the day, shifting from a VOC-limited regime in the morning to a transition regime and
810 more sensitive to NO_x in the afternoon around 16:00 LT. The diurnal variations of the
811 RIRs of different O₃ precursors or precursor groups offer detailed insights into the
812 dominant factors influencing the photochemical formation of O₃ at different times of a
813 day.

814 Through the sensitivity study, NO_x is not found to be the limiting factor affecting
815 $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$, therefore, reactions involving NO_x in the RO_x radicals cycle, such as
816 $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{HO}_2$ and $\text{HO}_2 + \text{NO} \rightarrow \text{OH}$, should occurred efficiently. Conversely,
817 reactions not involving NO_x, such as $\text{OH} + \text{VOCs} \rightarrow \text{RO}_2$, should be the limiting steps of
818 the RO_x radicals cycling. Given that photochemical O₃ formation is most sensitive to
819 AVOC, OVOC and NMHC groups, priority should be given to reducing AVOC and
820 OVOC to mitigate O₃ pollution in the PRD area of China.

821 **4 Conclusions**

822 We carried out a field observation campaign in an urban area in Pearl River Delta
823 (PRD) in China, focusing on investigating the vertical temporal variability of near-
824 surface ozone production mechanisms by using a newly built vertical observation
825 system and the observation-based model coupled to the Master Chemical Mechanism
826 (OBM-MCM) v3.3.1. In total, three O₃ pollution episodes and two non-episodes
827 occurred during the observation period. To assess the modelling performance for O₃
828 production rates and sensitivity, as well as to investigate the potential reasons for O₃
829 pollution episodes at 5 m ground level, a net photochemical ozone production rate
830 (NPOPR, $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$) detection system based on the current dual-channel reaction
831 chamber technique was employed to directly measure $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ at 5 m ground-level.

832 The vertical profiles of averaged concentrations of various pollutants exhibit
833 similar trends during both episodes and non-episodes. The O₃, NO_x, and Ox
834 concentrations show minimal vertical gradient during the daytime due to rapid vertical
835 mixing effects, but distinct vertical gradients emerge during nighttime owing to the
836 stability of the nocturnal residual layer. Higher concentrations of O₃ and Ox were
837 observed at higher heights, while elevated NO and NO_x concentrations were mainly
838 detected at ground level. Given that NO has a significant titration effect on ozone, the
839 lower O₃ concentration at ground level may be attributed to the increase in NO_x
840 concentration due to a more pronounced NO titration effect, besides the dry deposition

841 near the ground. However, the TVOC and their OFP exhibited variable trends with
842 increased height during both daytime and nighttime, observed in episodes and non-
843 episodes. Total OFP was highest at the 5 m ground level and exhibited higher levels
844 during episodes compared to non-episode periods. The OFP was primarily attributed to
845 OVOCs at different altitudes throughout both episodes and non-episodes.

846 The mean concentrations of O₃ precursors, including CO, NO, NO₂, and TVOC,
847 did not show statistically significant differences between episodes and non-episodes.
848 By considering the observed O₃ concentrations change and the measured $P(O_3)_{net}$ at 5
849 m ground level, we found that the O₃ pollution episodes were influenced by both
850 photochemical production and physical transport, with local photochemical reactions
851 playing a key role. O₃ pollution episodes recorded during the observation period
852 occurred under specific conditions: ① high photochemical O₃ productions; ② moderate
853 photochemical O₃ productions coupled with O₃ accumulation under stable weather
854 conditions. The index of agreement (IOA) ranged from 0.87 (25th percentile) to 0.90
855 (75th percentile) for the measured and modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ across the measurement period,
856 indicating the rationality to investigate the vertical and temporal variability of O₃
857 formation mechanisms using modelling results. However, the measured $P(O_3)_{net}$
858 generally exceeded the modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$, the differences between measured and
859 modelled $P(O_3)_{net}$ ($\Delta P(O_3)_{net}$) were found to be correlated with NO concentrations. Base
860 on previous studies, this phenomenon could potentially be attributed to the
861 underestimation of RO₂ at high NO conditions, arising from inadequate knowledge
862 concerning photochemical reaction mechanisms. Therefore, the potential biases caused
863 by the modelling methodology were acknowledged and discussed.

864 From the modelling results, the contribution of different reaction pathways to $P(O_3)$
865 was almost the same at varying heights during both episodes and non-episodes, with
866 HO₂+NO as the major O₃ production pathway, followed by other RO₂+NO (comprising
867 all RO₂ except CH₃O₂) and CH₃O₂+NO. The major O₃ destruction pathway was
868 OH+NO₂ (loss of OH radicals), followed by net RO₂+NO₂ (forming peroxyacetyl
869 nitrate) and O₃ photolysis. However, other O₃ destruction pathways, including O₃+OH,
870 O₃+HO₂, C₅H₈+O₃, C₃H₆+O₃, and C₂H₄+O₃, collectively contributed negligibly to O₃
871 destruction. Nevertheless, $P(O_3)_{net}$ showed a decreasing trend with the increase of
872 height during different episodes and non-episodes, which was found mainly attributed
873 to the decline in O₃ precursor concentrations, specifically anthropogenic organic

874 compounds (AVOC) and oxygenated volatile organic compounds (OVOC) groups. We
875 observed that modelling biases were correlated with NO concentrations and VOCs
876 categories, impacting $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ through the regulation of the RO_2 radicals' budget. The
877 median value of the estimated error of the modelled $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ ranged from 22-45 %
878 during different episodes and non-episodes. Therefore, the variation of $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ along
879 with the measurement height might be even larger than our initial assessment.

880 Similar photochemical O_3 formation regimes were observed at different heights
881 during specific episodes or non-episodes, yet they varied between different episodes or
882 non-episodes. O_3 formation was predominantly located at a transition regime and more
883 sensitive to VOCs emissions during O_3 -polluted episode I, whereas it shifted to a
884 VOCs-sensitive regime during O_3 -polluted episodes II and III, as well as non-episodes
885 I and II. Further analysis revealed a daytime shift in the photochemical O_3 formation
886 regime, transitioning from a VOC-limited regime in the morning to a transition regime
887 more sensitive to NO_x round 16:00 LT in the afternoon. However, the underestimation
888 of RO_2 radicals in the modelling, especially at lower heights with higher NO
889 concentrations, could result in an overestimate of the VOCs-limited regime. This study
890 highlights the need for more precise analysis using direct measurement techniques in
891 future studies. Nonetheless, throughout all episodes and non-episodes, O_3 formation is
892 most sensitive to AVOC, followed by OVOC at various heights, emphasizing the urgent
893 need to reduce emissions of these compounds to mitigate O_3 pollution in this area.

894 This is the first measurement report of the vertical-temporal of O_3 formation
895 mechanisms near the ground surface. Together with the deliberation of the possible bias
896 on the vertical-temporal profile of O_3 formation rate and sensitivity using modelling
897 studies, this research provides critical foundational insights. The findings provide us in-
898 depth understanding of near-ground vertical variability of O_3 formation mechanisms,
899 which benefit us to formulate ozone control strategies in the PRD area of China.

900 *Data availability.* Data related to this article are available online at
901 <https://zenodo.org/records/10473104>.

902 *Author contributions.* BY, JZ, XBL, and MS designed the experiment, YXH and
903 JZ performed the $P(\text{O}_3)_{\text{net}}$ measurement, BY and XBL built the vertical observation
904 system based on SZMGT. JZ, CZ, AL, BY, JPZ, YXH, YW, XBL, XJH, XS, YC, SY,
905 SY, YW, JPQ collected and analysed the data. JZ wrote the manuscript, all authors

906 revised the manuscript.

907 *Competing interests.* The authors declare that they have no known competing
908 interests.

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