



1 **Elevated foehn exacerbates surface ozone pollution in summer Beijing**

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10 **Abstract:** While several studies have evaluated the impact of shallow foehn on air pollution, the effects of elevated
11 foehn on O₃ pollution remain poorly understood. Here, we investigate the role of elevated foehn in summer O₃
12 pollution in Beijing through detailed case analysis and a long-term climatological evaluation. The case study
13 reveals that elevated foehn exacerbates next-day O₃ pollution through three primary mechanisms: first, by
14 increasing boundary layer temperature, thereby enhancing photochemical O₃ formation; second, by reducing the
15 residual/boundary layer height, thereby inhibiting vertical diffusion of pollutants; and third, by slowing boundary
16 layer winds, thereby suppressing horizontal dispersion. A ten-year climatological evaluation of 54 identified
17 elevated foehn events strongly supports these mechanisms. On average, these events led to a post-foehn afternoon
18 boundary layer temperature increase exceeding 3°C, an afternoon boundary layer height reduction of more than 100
19 m, and a decrease in afternoon boundary layer wind speed of more than 1.0 m s⁻¹ compared to the pre-foehn days.
20 Consequently, 87% of elevated foehn events were associated with a worsening of O₃ pollution. Post-foehn daily
21 maximum 8-hour average O₃ concentrations frequently surpassed the national pollution threshold (160 µg m⁻³),
22 with an average increase of 20%–60% (varying by site and higher in urban areas) compared to preceding days.
23 These results demonstrate a robust and deterministic exacerbating effect of elevated foehn on surface O₃ pollution,
24 suggesting that elevated foehn can serve as a reliable meteorological precursor for O₃ pollution warnings in summer
25 Beijing.

26

27 **Keywords:** elevated foehn, atmospheric boundary layer, residual layer warming, ozone pollution, Beijing

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 Foehn is a phenomenon of downslope winds with significant warming on the mountain leeward side (Elvidge and
31 Renfrew, 2016). It has been observed among many large mountains in the world, including the Alpine Mountains
32 (Miltenberger et al., 2016; Seibert et al., 2000), Rocky Mountains (Kerr, 1986), Appalachian Mountains (Gaffin,
33 2002, 2009), Taihang Mountains (Li et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2025), and Tianshan Mountains (Li et al., 2015; Li et al.,
34 2020b). The societal and economic impacts of foehn winds are wide-ranging and well-documented, encompassing
35 enhanced fire risks, extreme heat exposure, impacts on air quality, beneficial impacts on agriculture, and direct
36 wind-driven damage to infrastructure. Given these multifaceted impacts, foehn has long been a subject of sustained
37 scholarly interest across diverse disciplines.

38

39 Scientific research into the effect of foehn on air pollution began in Europe in the late nineteenth century,
40 primarily to explain elevated ozone (O₃) levels in the Alpine regions during foehn events (Baumann et al., 2001;
41 Campana et al., 2005; Seibert et al., 2000). Early European studies identified that the initial rise in O₃ concentration
42 was caused by the advection of residual-layer air masses from source regions such as the Po Basin. Later on, O₃
43 levels in the foehn-affected area were found to be influenced by regional-scale advection from the lower free
44 troposphere or even the stratosphere. Collectively, these studies emphasized the transport role of foehn in



45 influencing O₃ air quality in the relatively clean valleys of Alps. In contrast, research in China has commonly
46 demonstrated a “clearance effect” of foehn on air pollution in highly-polluted cities (Li et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2025;
47 Yang et al., 2018). For example, Yang et al. (2018) reported a case in Shijiazhuang where foehn led to rapidly
48 improved horizontal visibility, decreased aerosol concentration, and weakened haze intensity. Similarly, a six-year
49 statistical study by Li et al. (2025) found that 60.4 % of foehn events were associated with a subsequent decrease in
50 fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) concentrations in Beijing. This clearance effect is attributed to the origin of the foehn
51 winds, which typically transport cleaner air from the less polluted western, northwestern and northern mountain
52 areas of the Hebei–Beijing region into more polluted plains.

53

54 These abovementioned studies, conducted in both Europe and China, primarily examine the foehn effect on air
55 pollution mainly from a dynamical (transport) perspective. Furthermore, the foehn cases selected in these studies
56 are generally confined to shallow foehns, identifying using near-surface meteorological observations. Crucially,
57 however, the defining feature of foehn is the associated warming (Elvidge and Renfrew, 2016). This warming
58 inevitably alters the vertical thermal structure—and thus the atmospheric stability—which directly governs the
59 capacity for vertical diffusion of air pollutants (Liao et al., 2018; Stull, 1988). Therefore, the vertical extent of the
60 foehn (shallow or elevated) critically determines its impact on atmospheric stability: shallow foehn tends to
61 enhance near-surface instability, while elevated foehn can strengthen stability within or above the boundary layer.
62 From this thermodynamic perspective, elevated foehn likely possesses a greater pollution potential than its shallow
63 counterpart. Despite this reasoning, to the best of our knowledge, only one study—Li et al. (2015) in Urumqi, a city
64 adjacent to Tianshan Mountains—has explicitly investigated the impact of an elevated foehn on air pollution from a
65 thermodynamic viewpoint. That study revealed that an elevated southeasterly foehn layer between 480 and 2100 m
66 created a very stable boundary layer structure, which suppressed vertical mixing and led to severe haze pollution
67 episodes. Recent studies on PM_{2.5} pollution in Beijing (Li et al., 2020a; Li et al., 2025) have speculated that
68 post-foehn pollution exacerbation might be driven by a mechanism similar to the elevated foehn process observed
69 in Urumqi (Li et al., 2015). However, the existence and role of such an elevated foehn mechanism have not yet
70 been observationally confirmed for Beijing.

71

72 Beijing, the capital of China, faces significant challenges in terms of air pollution. Particularly in recent summers,
73 O₃ has surpassed PM_{2.5} as the most important air pollutant, arousing widespread attention (Liao et al., 2023; Zong
74 et al., 2023). The city’s location on the plains adjacent to the Taihang Mountains to the west and the Yan Mountains
75 to the north makes it particularly susceptible to foehn winds. Luo et al. (2020) documented an intensive foehn
76 warming event in Beijing where nocturnal air temperatures increased by over 10°C per hour. Utilizing data from a
77 density automatic weather station network, Li et al. (2025) developed a foehn identification method and reported an
78 annual average of 56.5 foehn days in Beijing. As noted earlier, their statistical analysis suggests a higher probability
79 of PM_{2.5} pollution alleviation (60.4 %) rather than pollution exacerbation (39.6 %) following foehn events in
80 Beijing. Importantly, because their identification method only relies on near-surface observations, the detected
81 events are predominantly shallow foehns. This methodological focus may obscure the distinct air pollution effects
82 potentially caused by elevated foehns. Therefore, determining whether elevated foehn induces a more
83 deterministic—and likely adverse—pollution effects is a critical unanswered question. The answer has practical
84 importance, as it would inform whether elevated foehn can serve as a reliable precursor indicator for air pollution
85 warnings, thereby improving mitigation efforts in Beijing and other leese side cities.

86

87 To address this knowledge gap, our team deployed two O₃ lidars at an urban (Guanxiangtai, GXT) and a rural
88 (Shangdianzi, SDZ) station in Beijing in late July 2024. This coordinated dual-station lidar setup is particularly

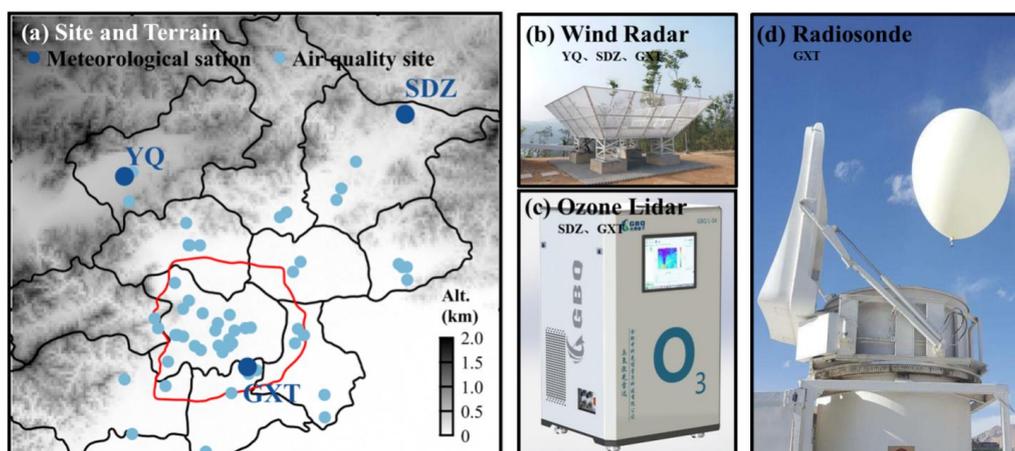


89 suited to capturing the three-dimensional characteristics and mechanisms of boundary layer O₃ evolution under the
 90 influence of elevated foehn. One month after deployment (27–31 August), we observed an O₃ pollution episode
 91 associated with an elevated foehn. In this study, we conducted a detailed analysis of this event by integrating data
 92 from the new lidar system with co-located remote sensing meteorological observations. We supplement this case
 93 study with a climatological evaluation using a decade (2015–2024) of routine observations. Our overarching aim is
 94 to elucidate the specific role of elevated foehn in driving summer O₃ pollution in Beijing.

96 **2. Data and method**

97 **2.1. Observational data**

98 Figure 1 shows the observation network and instruments. The network comprises 3 meteorological stations and
 99 46 surface O₃ monitoring sites. Among the O₃ sites, 45 are air quality stations operated by the Beijing Municipal
 100 Ecological and Environmental Monitoring Center, and one is the Shangdianzi (SDZ) atmospheric background
 101 station managed by the Beijing Meteorological Bureau. Two differential absorption O₃ lidars (Hefei GBQ
 102 Technology Company) were deployed at the GXT (urban) and SDZ (rural) stations, respectively. These lidars
 103 measured O₃ profiles with a 5-minute resolution up to an altitude of 3.0 km. In addition, radar wind profilers at
 104 GXT, SDZ, as well as Yanqing (YQ) provided continuous wind profiles at 6-minute resolution. Routine
 105 meteorological radiosondes launched from the GXT station provided high-vertical-resolution (~10 m) profiles of
 106 temperature, relative humidity, wind speed, and wind direction three times daily (08:00, 14:00, and 20:00 BJT) in
 107 summer.



108
 109 **Figure 1.** Site distribution of surface ozone and meteorological measurements, and ground-based remote sensing
 110 instruments used in this study. In (a), dark blue dots denote the GXT, SDZ, and YQ meteorological stations; light
 111 blue dots represent the surface ozone observation sites. Panels (b), (c), and (d) show the radar wind profilers at YQ,
 112 SDZ, and GXT, ozone lidars at SDZ and GXT, and routine radiosonde instrument at GXT, respectively.

113
 114 To validate the lidar O₃ observations, we compared the lidar-derived O₃ concentration at 300 m height (the lowest
 115 reliable altitude above the instrument’s blind zone) with surface measurements. As no surface O₃ data were
 116 available at the GXT site, we used measurements from the nearest air quality monitoring station (~2 km away). The
 117 validation results demonstrated a strong correlation between the lidar-based and surface-based O₃ concentrations
 118 ($R^2 = 0.69$ at GXT and $R^2 = 0.56$ at SDZ), confirming the reliability of the O₃ lidar data (Fig. S1). To construct

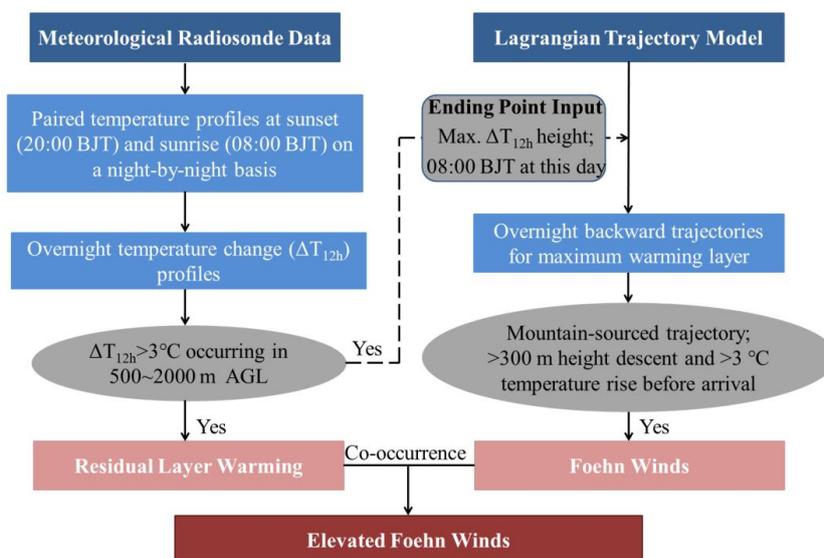


119 complete vertical profiles for calculating O₃ transport flux, we used linear interpolation between the surface O₃
 120 measurement and the validated lidar observation at 300 m to fill the blind zone. A similar procedure was applied to
 121 patch the blind zone (below 150 m) of the radar wind profiler data, where winds were interpolated between the
 122 surface wind observation and the lowest valid radar measurement at 150 m.

123

124 2.2. Identification of elevated foehn

125 To date, no established method exists for identifying elevated foehn. For the purpose of climatological evaluation,
 126 we develop a framework (Fig. 2) to identify elevated foehn events based on the combination of meteorological
 127 radiosonde data and a Lagrangian trajectory model. First, we calculated overnight temperature change (ΔT_{12h})
 128 profiles by subtracting the radiosonde temperature profiles at 20:00 BJT (sunset) from the profiles at 08:00 BJT the
 129 following day (sunrise) on a night-by-night basis (i.e., $\Delta T_{12h}=T_{08}-T_{20}$). A residual layer warming event was
 130 identified when $\Delta T_{12h}>3^{\circ}\text{C}$ occurred within 500–2000 m AGL layer. This threshold is also commonly used to
 131 identify ground-based foehn elsewhere (Kirchgaessner et al., 2021; Steinhoff et al., 2014). Finally, we examined the
 132 backward trajectory properties (including geographic origin, height change, and temperature change) of the air
 133 mass at the identified maximum warming height (i.e., the height of maximum ΔT_{12h}) using a Lagrangian trajectory
 134 model (Miltenberger et al., 2016). If the 12-h backward trajectory originated from the mountains (azimuth of 250–
 135 360° or 0–45°, following Li et al. (2025)), and if the trajectory descended more than 300 m accompanied by a
 136 temperature increase exceeding 3 °C before arriving in Beijing, we attribute the identified warming case to an
 137 elevated foehn event.



138

139 **Figure 2.** Flowchart for identifying elevated foehn based on the combination of meteorological radiosonde data and
 140 a Lagrangian trajectory model.

141

142 2.3. Supporting calculations and model simulations

143 The boundary layer structure during a diurnal cycle can be classified into three regimes: convective boundary
 144 layer (CBL), stable boundary layer (SBL), and residual layer (RL) (Stull, 1988). We determined the boundary layer
 145 height based on high-resolution radiosonde profiles from the GXT station. Following Liu and Liang (2010), the
 146 height of the CBL (CBLH, at 14:00 BJT) was determined at the base of the overlying temperature inversion



147 capping the convective thermals. The height of the SBL (SBLH, at 20:00 and 08:00 BJT) was determined at the top
148 of the underlying temperature inversion, where turbulence nearly ceases. At the morning transition (08:00 BJT),
149 emerging solar radiation gradually erodes the near-surface part of the SBL; thus, the SBLH at this time was
150 determined at the top of the residual underlying temperature inversion. The RL is disconnected from the ground by
151 the underlying SBL but retains the atmospheric state of the former CBL. Its height (RLH) was therefore determined
152 at the base of the overlying temperature inversion at the evening or morning transition (20:00 and 08:00 BJT). For
153 temperature profiles showing no significant overlying inversion, the CHLH and RLH were determined using a
154 multi-variable integrated method proposed by Wang and Wang (2014).

155

156 To analyze O₃ transport in Beijing, we calculated the O₃ transport flux (TF) using collocated wind and O₃ profiles
157 from the GXT and SDZ sites. The transport flux (TF, mg m⁻² s⁻¹), representing the mass flow per unit
158 cross-sectional area per unit time, is determined by the wind speed and the O₃ concentration. The TF at a certain
159 height and direction is calculated as follow:

$$TF = C \times WS \times \cos \left[(WD - B) \times \frac{\pi}{180} \right]$$

160 where C represents the O₃ concentration (unit: μg m⁻³), WS denotes the horizontal wind speed (unit: m s⁻¹), WD
161 denotes the horizontal wind direction and B is the azimuth from the start station to the end station. In this study, we
162 calculated O₃ transport flux in the direction from GXT to SDZ. Therefore, positive TF indicates northeastward
163 transport, and negative TF indicates southwestward transport.

164

165 We used the Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT) model (Stein et al., 2015) to
166 trace the origin and history of the air masses associated with the maximum residual layer warming in Beijing. In
167 addition to HYSPLIT, we employed the Weather Research and Forecasting model with Chemistry (WRF-Chem,
168 version 4.2.1) to simulate O₃ concentrations and meteorological fields. The WRF-Chem model accounts for key
169 atmospheric processes, including emissions, deposition, advection, diffusion, gas-phase chemistry, and aerosol
170 chemistry (Grell et al., 2005). Our simulation domain encompassed most of China, centered at (105.5 °E, 37.5 °N),
171 with a horizontal grid spacing of 9 km. The meteorological initial and boundary conditions were derived from the
172 National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Final Operational Global Analysis data. For emissions, we
173 utilized the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) (Guenther et al., 2006) and the
174 Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) (Zhang et al., 2009), with the latter updated to a 0.1 ° × 0.1 °
175 resolution for 2019 (MEIC-2019; <http://www.meicmodel.org>). The detailed model configuration follows Xu et al.
176 (2024). The WRF-Chem simulation demonstrated a reasonable agreement with observed surface O₃ concentrations
177 during the studied pollution episode ($R^2 = 0.51$ at GXT and $R^2 = 0.44$ at SDZ; Fig. S2).

178

179 3. Results

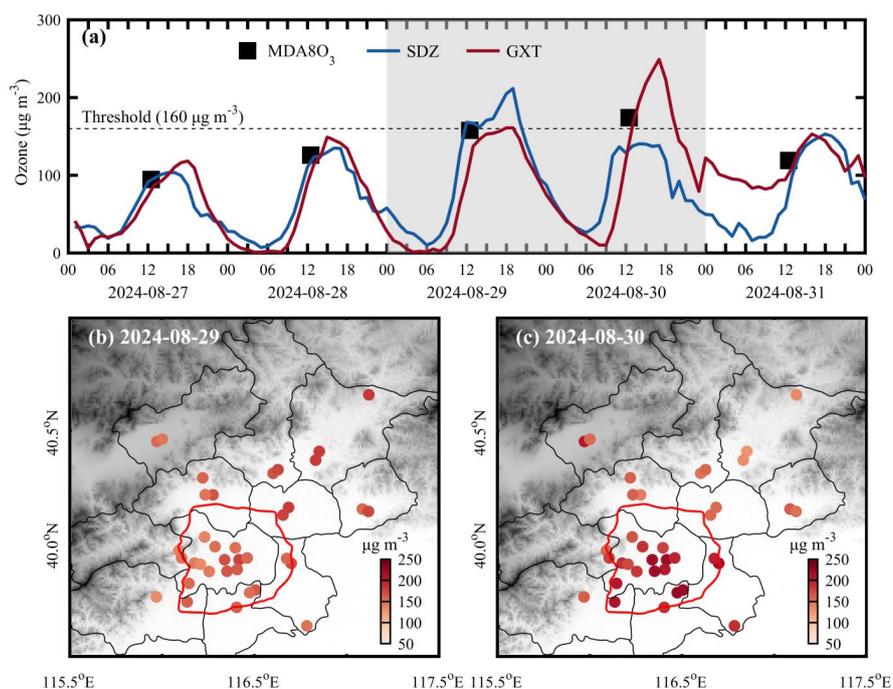
180 3.1. Case study

181 3.1.1. Overview of the O₃ pollution episode

182 Following heavy rainfall on 26 August 2024, Beijing experienced consecutive sunny days until light rain
183 resumed on 31 August. The persistent sunny weather established favorable meteorological background for
184 photochemical O₃ production. Consequently, surface O₃ concentrations in Beijing exhibited a daily increasing trend
185 from 27 to 30 August. On the final two days (29 and 30 August), the city-averaged daily maximum 8-hour average
186 O₃ (MDA8O₃) concentrations approached or exceeded China's ambient air quality standard threshold of 160 μg m⁻³,
187 peaking at 174 μg m⁻³ on 30 August (Fig. 3a). A notable feature of these two polluted days was the stark contrast in
188 the spatial distribution of O₃ concentrations. On 29 August, the spatial pattern showed a positive O₃ gradient



189 extending northeastward, which was reversed on 30 August (Fig. 3b, c). This contrast was exemplified by the
 190 station observations: SDZ recorded its peak O₃ concentration (212 μg m⁻³ at 18:00 BJT) on 29 August, significantly
 191 higher than the concurrent value at GXT (161 μg m⁻³). Conversely, GXT observed its maximum O₃ level (249 μg
 192 m⁻³ at 16:00 BJT) on 30 August, far exceeding the measurement at SDZ (138 μg m⁻³; Fig. 3a). These contrasting
 193 spatial patterns seem to represent two typical O₃ pollution scenarios in Beijing: an urban plume transport pattern
 194 and an urban pollution accumulation pattern, as previously reported by Zong et al. (2023). The key question is what
 195 mechanism drove the rapid intensification of O₃ pollution and the reversal of its spatial pattern over the two
 196 consecutive days.



197
 198 **Figure 3.** (a) Time series of surface ozone concentrations at the GXT and SDZ stations from 27 to 31 August 2024;
 199 Spatial distribution of maximum 8-h O₃ concentrations over Beijing on (b) 29 and (c) 30 August. In (a), black
 200 squares represent the city-averaged MDA8O₃ concentrations; gray shading denotes the two polluted days (29 and
 201 30 August 2024).

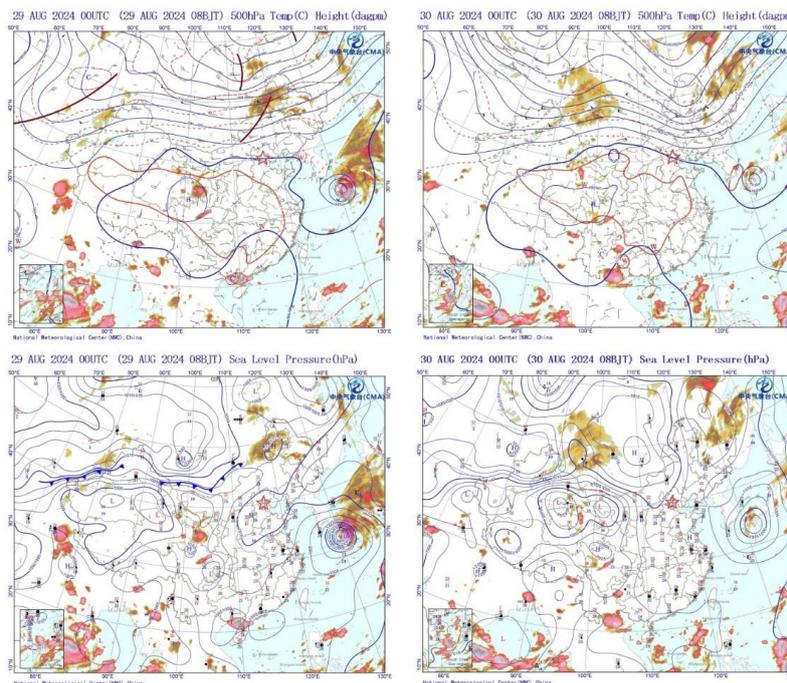
202

203 3.1.2. Meteorological attribution to elevated foehn

204 The weather charts at 08:00 BJT on 29 and 30 August are presented in Fig. 4. A subtropical high prevailed in the
 205 upper atmosphere over the central and eastern China, while a typhoon was active over the western Pacific Ocean
 206 south of Japan. The coexistence of these two synoptic systems induced widespread clear skies over the eastern
 207 China, a condition highly conducive to photochemical O₃ production (Ouyang et al., 2022; Shu et al., 2016). In the
 208 lower atmosphere, the synoptic patterns differed between the two days. On 29 August, the North China Plain (NCP)
 209 was under the influence of a weak high-pressure system. By 30 August, another high-pressure system (a cold front)
 210 had intruded into the northwestern NCP from the Mongolian Plateau, creating a strong pressure gradient
 211 perpendicular to the Taihang Mountains. Traditionally, cold fronts are known to have a significant clearance effect
 212 on air pollutants (Zhang et al., 2021). However, in this case, the cold front led to an unexpected O₃ increase in



213 Beijing on 30 August. So, what underlying mechanism was responsible for this phenomenon?

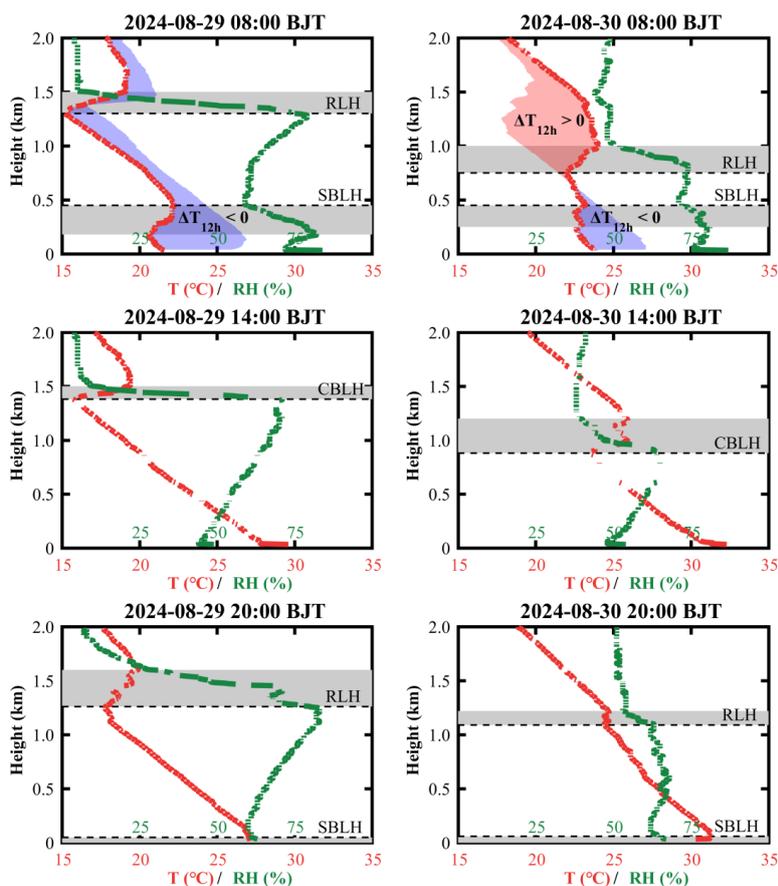


214

215 **Figure 4.** Weather charts at 500 hPa and sea-level pressure over the East Asia at 08:00 BJT on 29 and 30 August,
 216 2024. Shaded areas denote the cloud cover. The location of Beijing is marked by a red star.

217

218 To address the question above, we examined the radiosonde profiles and derived boundary layer heights at the
 219 GXT station (Fig. 5). The results indicate that the CBLH and RLH on 30 August (750, 880, and 1090 m at 08:00,
 220 14:00, and 20:00 BJT, respectively) were significantly lower than those on 29 August (1300, 1380, and 1260 m at
 221 the same times), despite the SBLH showing no significant difference. The CBLH defines the available volume that
 222 the pollutants emitted/produced near the surface can occupy, directly affecting their surface concentration and air
 223 quality (Tang et al., 2016). Evidently, the significant decline in CBLH contributes to the surface O₃ enhancements
 224 in urban Beijing on 30 August. Notably, the two-day CBLH difference originated from a sharp drop (more than 500
 225 m) in RLH between 20:00 BJT on 29 August and 08:00 BJT on 30 August. Comparing radiosonde profiles from
 226 these two time points revealed abnormal drying and warming in the residual layer, with a maximum temperature
 227 increase of up to 5.8 °C at 1250 m, contrasting sharply with the normal cooling observed the previous night. The
 228 base height of this warming layer coincided precisely with the RLH observed at 08:00 BJT on 30 August,
 229 indicating that the warming process was responsible for the overnight RLH drop and thereby contributed to the
 230 subsequent daytime O₃ pollution exacerbation. Furthermore, the nocturnal residual layer warming inevitably
 231 contributes to higher daytime air temperatures. As observed, the afternoon boundary layer temperature on 30
 232 August showed a significant increase compared to the previous afternoon, and this higher temperature further
 233 promotes photochemical O₃ production (Gu et al., 2020). That is to say, in addition to promoting daytime O₃
 234 accumulation by reducing the boundary layer height, residual layer warming also enhances the photochemical O₃
 235 production. The remaining question is: what caused the abnormal warming of the nocturnal residual layer under the
 236 background of a cold front intrusion?



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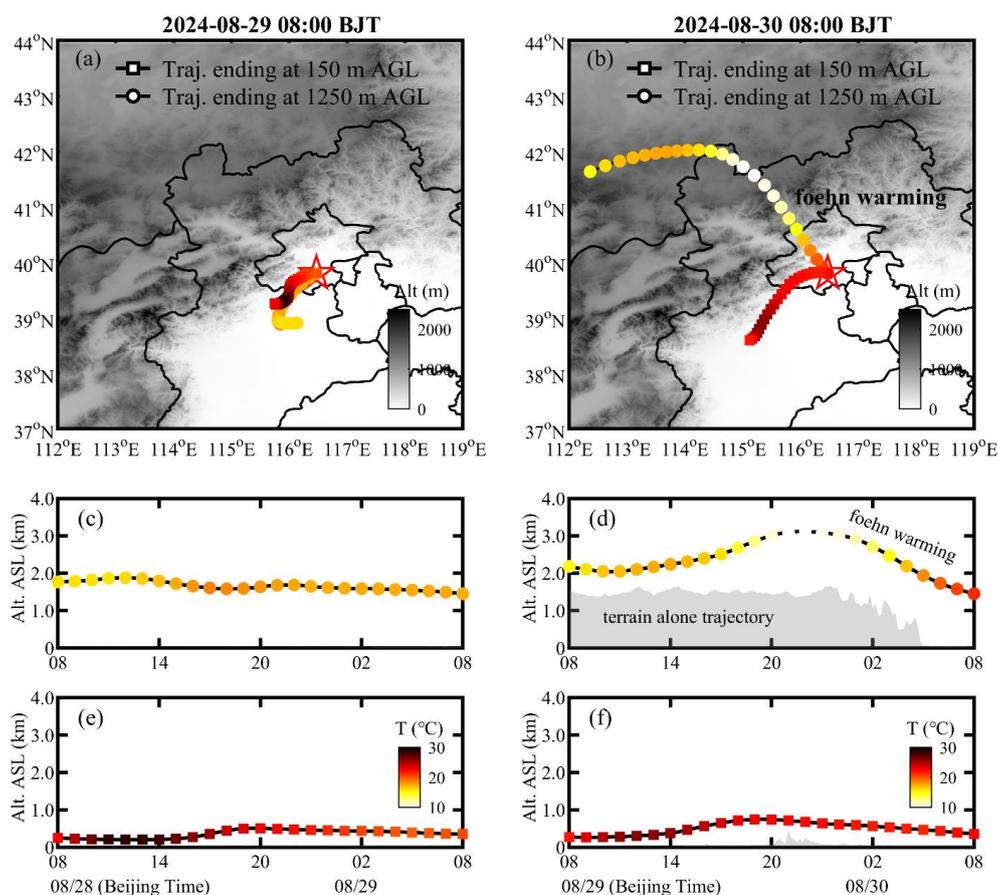
238 **Figure 5.** Radiosonde-based temperature (T, red lines) and relative humidity (RH, green lines) profiles at the GXT
 239 station. Gray shaded areas represent the heights of temperature inversion layers. Dashed lines denote the afternoon
 240 convective boundary layer height (CBLH), and dot lines denote the nocturnal stable boundary layer height (SBLH).
 241 Colorful shaded areas highlight the overnight temperature changes, with increase marked in red and decrease in
 242 blue. Note: at 08:00 BJT (morning transition), emerging solar radiation collapses the near-surface SBL; thus, the
 243 SBLH at this time is determined at the top of the residual underlying temperature inversion.

244

245 Using the HYSPLIT model, we traced the 24-hour origin and characteristics of the air mass at the overnight
 246 maximum warming height (1250 m) observed at 08:00 BJT on 30 August (Fig. 6b and d). For comparison, we also
 247 calculated backward trajectories for the near-surface (150 m) airflow at the same time (Fig. 6b and f), as well as
 248 airflows at the same heights and time on the previous day (Fig. 6a, c, and e). The results show that the airflows at
 249 1250 m and 150 m on 29 August, as well as at 150 m on 30 August, all originated from the southern NCP region
 250 with no significant change in trajectory height. In contrast, the air mass at the maximum warming height on 30
 251 August originated from the Mongolian Plateau. It moved eastward to the northern side of the Yanshan Mountains,
 252 turned southeastward to cross the mountains, and finally arrived in Beijing. During this transport, the airflow first
 253 ascended about 1000 m and then descended about 1500 m, accompanied by a temperature change of cooling (7.6°C)
 254 followed by warming (11.4°C). These changes in trajectory height and temperature exhibit very pronounced foehn



255 warming characteristics (Elvidge and Renfrew, 2016). Previous studies have reported several cases of shallow
 256 foehn-induced nocturnal surface warming in Beijing (Li et al., 2026; Luo et al., 2020). Our case differs significantly
 257 because it involves elevated air masses and shows no warming in the surface layer. To confirm this, we examined
 258 hourly temperature variations from 20:00 BJT on 29 August to 08:00 BJT on 30 August at 20 surface
 259 meteorological stations in Beijing (Fig. S3), as well as at 15 levels on a 325 m high meteorological tower (Fig. S4).
 260 The results revealed that, except for the high-altitude Foyeding station (1224.9 m), no temperature surges
 261 ($\Delta T_{1h} > 1^\circ\text{C}$) were observed before sunrise (around 06:00 BJT) at the other stations. This implies no detectable
 262 foehn warming signature from standard mountain-leside surface observations (Li et al., 2025), despite the strong
 263 foehn signature in the residual layer. Therefore, we identify this case as the first observation of a novel type of
 264 foehn phenomenon in Beijing: elevated foehn in the residual layer.

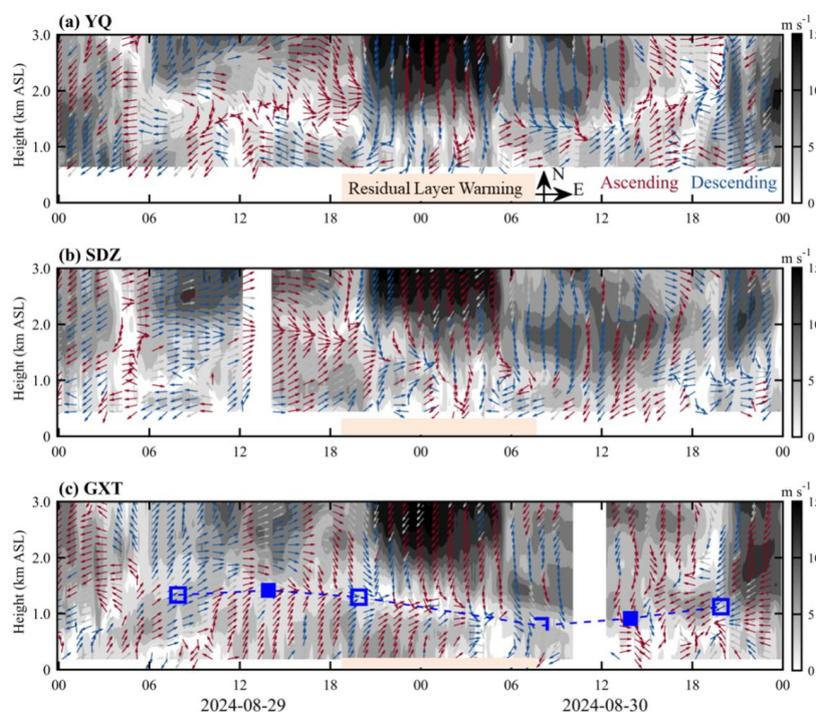


265
 266 **Figure 6.** 24-h backward trajectories ending at 150 m (squares) and 1250 m (dots) above ground level (AGL) over
 267 the GXT station, at 08:00 BJT of (a) 29 and (b) 30 August. The 1250 m level corresponds to the maximum
 268 overnight warming height at 08:00 BJT on 30 August (see Fig. 5). Panels (c-f) show the height and temperature
 269 changes of 24-h backward trajectories at 150 and 1250 m. All temperature changes share the same colorbar,
 270 including those in (a) and (b).
 271

272 To illustrate the dynamical conditions during the elevated foehn-induced residual layer warming, Figure 7 presents



273 the radar wind profiles at the YQ, SDZ, and GXT stations from 29 to 30 August. Prior to the warming, southerly
 274 winds prevailed in the boundary layer (southwesterly at SDZ and GXT; southeasterly at YQ), while lower
 275 free-tropospheric winds gradually shifted from southwesterly to northwesterly. After sunset on 29 August, the cold
 276 front intrusion induced strong northeasterly winds in the lower free troposphere at all stations. These northeasterly
 277 winds aloft first descended into the boundary layer at YQ, followed by SDZ. In contrast, GXT maintained
 278 southwesterly boundary-layer winds until later in the night, forming a distinct northwesterly wind shear zone aloft.
 279 During this process, the height of the northwesterly wind shear corresponded well with the sounding-derived RLH
 280 at GXT, and the northwesterly winds matched the HYSPLIT backward trajectories ending at GXT (Fig. 6b).
 281 Combining the HYSPLIT results, these features strongly support the mechanism of an elevated northwesterly foehn
 282 during the residual layer warming period. The elevated foehn appears to have occurred within a shallow wind shear
 283 zone, similar to the elevated foehn scenario reported in winter Urumqi by Li et al. (2015). After the residual layer
 284 warming, northeasterlies prevailed in the boundary layer at SDZ and southwesterlies at YQ, whereas GXT showed
 285 highly variable winds with weak speeds—likely due to convergence between the emerging northwesterly foehn and
 286 the prevailing southwesterly flows. This weak-wind stagnant condition suppressed the horizontal dispersion of air
 287 pollutants. Operating in conjunction with the inhibited vertical dispersion (from a lower boundary layer height) and
 288 accelerated photochemical production (due to higher temperatures), this post-foehn convergent stagnation represent
 289 a third contributing factor to the severe daytime O₃ pollution observed in urban Beijing on 30 August.



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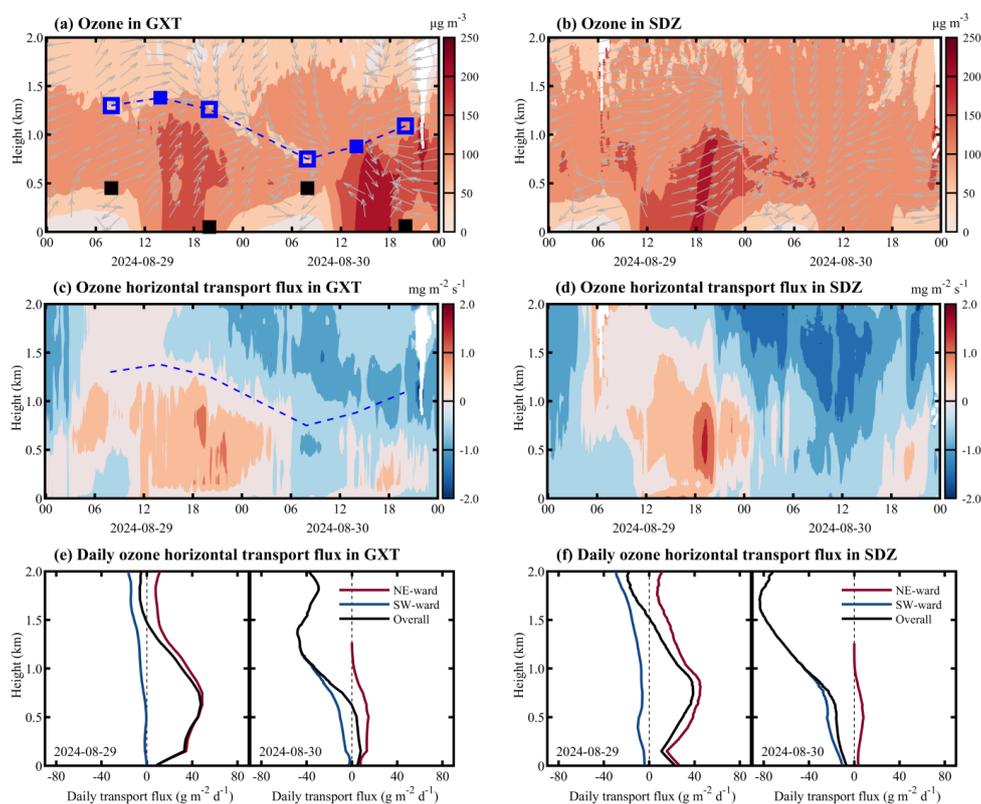
291 **Figure 7.** Radar-based wind profiles at the (a) YQ, (b) SDZ, and (c) GXT stations before, during, and after the
 292 elevated foehn-induced residual layer warming. Shaded areas represent horizontal wind speed; arrows denote
 293 horizontal wind direction (red indicates ascending motion, blue indicated descending motion). In (c), blue squares
 294 denote the convective boundary layer height (solid) or residual layer height (hollow); blue dashed line indicates the
 295 evolution of the convective boundary layer and residual layer heights.



296

297 **3.1.3. Three-dimensional evolution of O₃ before, during, and after elevated foehn**

298 The coordinated O₃ lidar observations at the urban (GXT) and rural (SDZ) stations provided a unique
 299 opportunity to elucidate the three-dimensional evolution of boundary-layer O₃ in response to elevated foehn. By
 300 integrating data from meteorological radiosondes and radar wind profilers, we investigated how sudden changes in
 301 boundary layer thermal and dynamical structure induced by elevated foehn affected O₃ evolution and quantified the
 302 differences in boundary layer O₃ transport fluxes between the pre- and post-foehn days (Fig. 8).



303

304 **Figure 8.** Vertical O₃ concentrations, wind direction, and O₃ transport flux at the GXT and SDZ stations. In (a),
 305 squares denote the boundary layer heights determined from radiosonde profiles (black for SBLH, blue for
 306 CBLH/RLH). The blue dashed line in (a) and (c) indicates the evolution of CBL and RL heights. In (c) and (d),
 307 positive (negative) horizontal transport flux indicates northeastward (southwestward) transport in the direction from
 308 GXT to SDZ. Panels (e) and (f) show the daily integrated O₃ transport flux at the GXT and SDZ stations on 29 and
 309 30 August, respectively.

310

311 As shown in Fig. 8a, the boundary layer thermal structure critically shaped O₃ vertical distribution in urban
 312 Beijing: a steep gradient in the SBL, an O₃ reservoir in the RL, and relatively uniform mixing in the CBL. The
 313 elevated foehn-induced residual layer warming on the night of 29–30 August led to a significant reduction in the
 314 boundary layer height on 30 August, substantially compressing the vertical space for daytime O₃ mixing. Combined
 315 with enhanced photochemical O₃ production (due to higher temperatures) and weakened horizontal dispersion (due



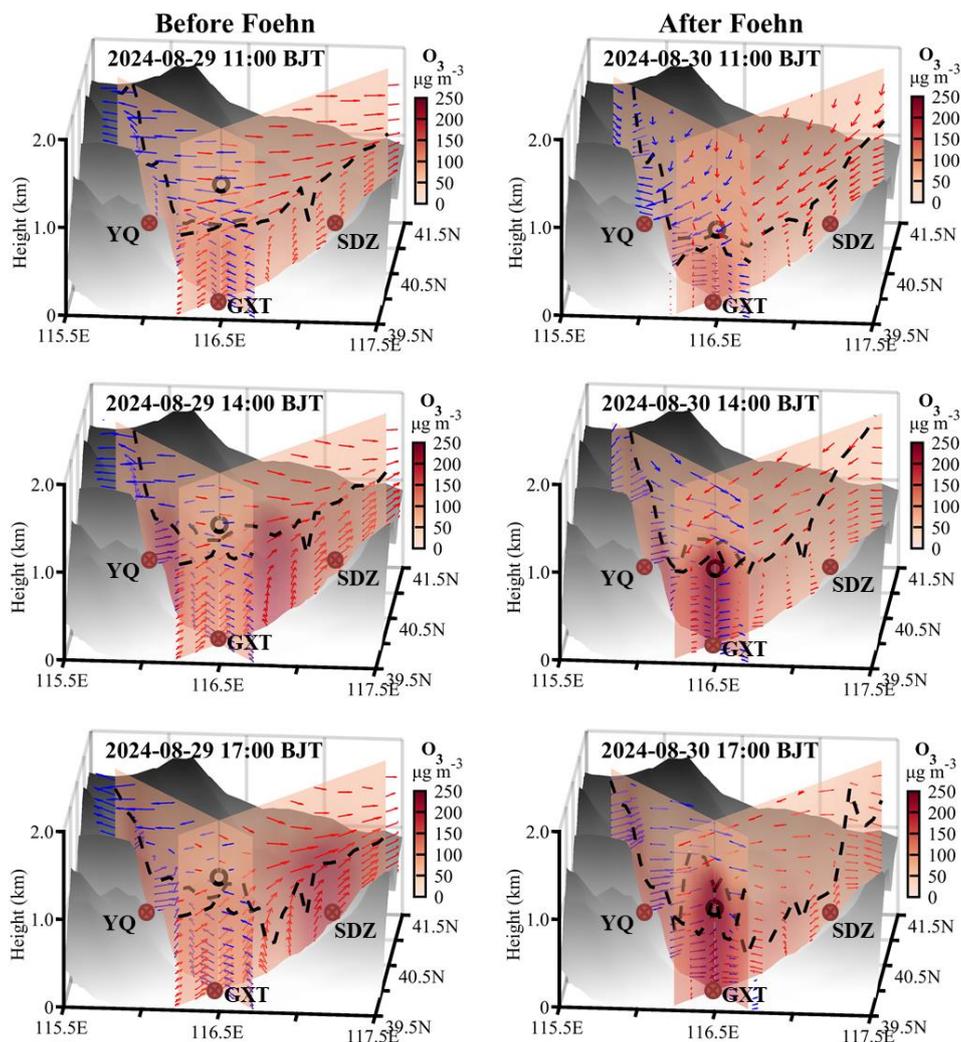
316 to lower post-foehn wind speeds,) these factors collectively contributed to a marked increase in afternoon boundary
317 layer O₃ concentrations in urban Beijing on 30 August (200–250 μg m⁻³) compared to the previous day (~150 μg
318 m⁻³). We also observed that the elevated foehn was accompanied by downward transport of free-tropospheric O₃
319 (Fig. 8a). However, due to the presence of a strong capping inversion acting as a transport barrier (Fig. 5), this
320 descending free-tropospheric O₃ was unlikely to have significantly intruded into the boundary layer.

321

322 The urban-rural coordinated lidar observations clearly reveal a dynamically driven shift in spatial heterogeneity
323 before and after the elevated foehn. On 29 August (pre-foehn), prevailing southwesterly flows facilitated the
324 northeastward transport of the urban O₃ plume. The lidars recorded higher O₃ concentrations at the downwind rural
325 SDZ station than at the urban GXT station (Fig. 8a and b). The peak O₃ occurrence at SDZ was delayed by 1–3
326 hours relative to GXT, consistent with advective transport. The calculated horizontal O₃ transport flux was
327 predominantly northeastward in the boundary layer at both stations throughout the day, with stronger fluxes in the
328 upper boundary layer. The instantaneous maximum flux at SDZ exceeded 2.0 mg m⁻³ s⁻¹, significantly higher than
329 at GXT (Fig. 8c and d). In stark contrast, the post-foehn convergence stagnation on 30 August suppressed advective
330 transport and promoted local O₃ accumulation in urban Beijing. Consequently, afternoon boundary layer O₃
331 concentrations at GXT reached notably high levels (200–250 μg m⁻³), while concentrations at SDZ dropped to low
332 values (~100 μg m⁻³). Despite this spatial contrast, the boundary layer O₃ transport flux at both stations was
333 markedly low compared to the previous day (Fig. 8c, d, e, and f), underscoring a shift in the dominant pollution
334 mechanism from urban plume transport to urban pollution accumulation.

335

336 We examined the WRF-Chem output to gain further insight into the vertical O₃ structure over Beijing before and
337 after the elevated foehn. As shown in Fig. 9, although the WRF-Chem model exhibited some deviations in
338 simulating the boundary layer height, it successfully reproduced the pre-foehn northeastward transport of the urban
339 O₃ plume on 29 August, as well as the post-foehn stagnation-driven local O₃ accumulation in the urban Beijing on
340 30 August. On 29 August, the O₃ pollution initially built up in the urban area (e.g., near GXT) by 11:00 BJT. By
341 14:00 BJT, the high-O₃ zone had shifted to the northern suburbs, and by 17:00 BJT, it had been transported to the
342 rural areas in the northeast (e.g., near SDZ). In contrast, on 30 August, the relatively higher O₃ concentrations over
343 Beijing were consistently confined in the urban area, with no significant spatial shift. These simulation results
344 aligned well with the lidar observations. Furthermore, the WRF-Chem model reproduced the vertical wind patterns
345 observed at GXT, SDZ, and YQ (Fig. 7), thereby better illustrating the vertical structure of the foehn flow during its
346 decaying stage on 30 August via wind cross-sections. The foehn simulations show that while the near-surface
347 component—shallow foehn—was blocked by prevailing southerly winds within the boundary layer, leading to
348 convergence and airflow stagnation over urban Beijing, its upper-layer branch—elevated foehn—passed directly
349 over the urban area unimpeded, resulting in persistent warming that suppressed the daytime convective boundary
350 layer development until the foehn decayed around 14:00 BJT. These features are evident in both the GXT-YQ
351 cross-section (parallel to the elevated northwesterly foehn) and the GXT-SDZ cross-section (perpendicular to the
352 elevated northwesterly foehn). The configuration of an unimpeded elevated foehn and a blocked shallow foehn
353 effectively explains the accumulation of higher O₃ concentrations in the urban boundary layer of Beijing on 30
354 August.



355

356 **Figure 9.** Cross-sections of simulated O₃ concentrations along the line across the GXT and SDZ stations and the
 357 line across GXT and YQ stations on 29 and 30 August. Dashed black lines denote the simulated boundary layer
 358 height, and arrows show the composite of simulated horizontal wind speed (m s⁻¹) and vertical wind speed (×10 m
 359 s⁻¹) in the GXT-SDZ (red arrows) and GXT-YQ (blue arrows) cross-sections. Only horizontal wind speed in the
 360 direction along the individual cross-sections is included. The black dots denote the boundary layer height observed
 361 at GXT and the height at 14:00 BJT is the observational value and these at 11:00 and 17:00 BJT are interpolated
 362 from two adjacent radiosonde observations.

363

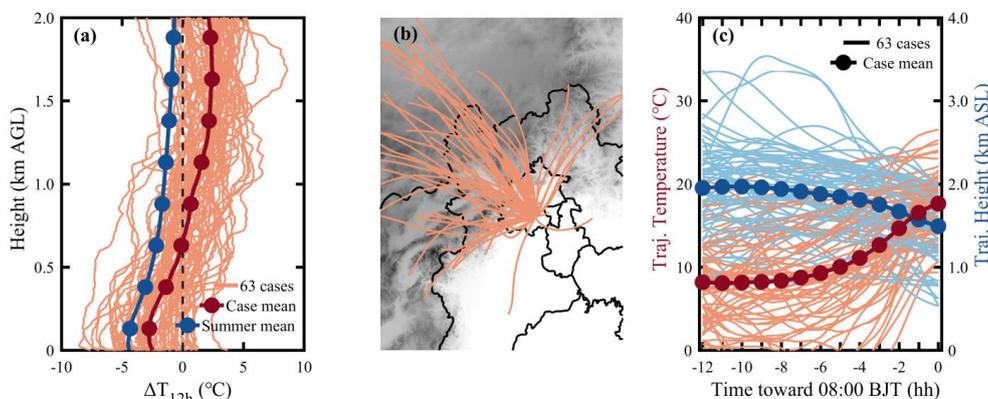
364 3.2. Climatological evaluation

365 While a case study is valuable for mechanistic understanding, the question of representativeness always arises.
 366 To clarify whether the features identified in the case study are typical, we supplemented the case analysis with a
 367 climatological investigation of elevated foehn and its O₃ pollution effect based on long-term observations.



368

369 Based on summer radiosonde data from the GXT station during 2015-2024, we calculated overnight temperature
 370 change (ΔT_{12h}) profiles for each night by differencing the temperature profiles at 20:00 BJT and 08:00 BJT the
 371 following day. We identified a residual layer warming event when $\Delta T_{12h} > 3\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ occurred within 500-2000 m height
 372 range. For each event, we identified the height of maximum warming and used it as the endpoint for backward
 373 trajectory calculations. Statistical results show that among the 920 valid summer observation days from 2015 to
 374 2024, a total of 63 residual layer warming cases were identified, accounting for 6.85% of summer night. Figure 10
 375 illustrates the ΔT_{12h} profiles, backward trajectories, and trajectory height/temperature changes for these events.
 376 While warming heights vary widely across different events, the composite ΔT_{12h} profile highlights warming above
 377 ~650 m, contrasting sharply with the summer mean profile showing nocturnal cooling throughout the layer. The
 378 backward trajectories of these warming air masses show that most originated from high-altitude regions to the west
 379 or north. After crossing the Yanshan or Taihang Mountains, these airflows arrived in Beijing, with their trajectories
 380 descending on average by 500 m and their temperature rising rapidly by an average of $10\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, exhibiting clear foehn
 381 characteristics. Applying the elevated foehn criteria from Sect. 2.2, 54 of the 63 warming cases (85.7%) can be
 382 attributed to elevated foehn. These results confirm that elevated foehn is the primary cause of nocturnal residual
 383 layer warming in Beijing.



384

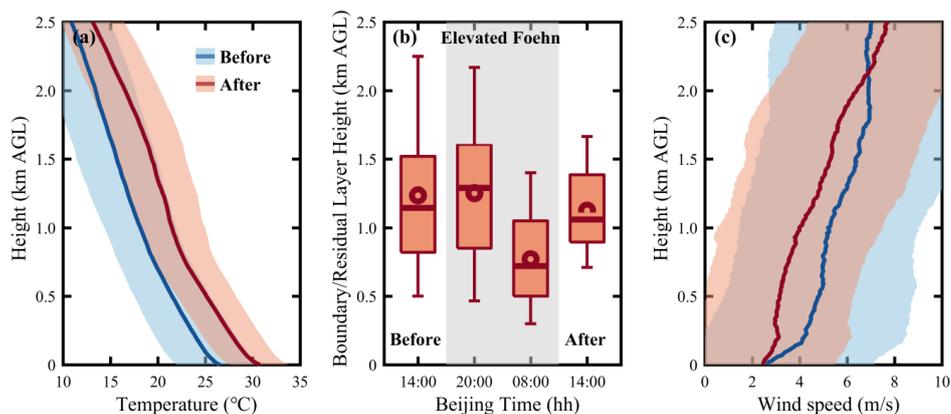
385 **Figure 10.** (a) Overnight temperature change (ΔT_{12h}) profiles from 20:00 BJT to next-day 08:00 BJT, (b) overnight
 386 airflow backward trajectories ending at the maximum warming height, and (c) overnight trajectory height and
 387 temperature changes for the 63 identified residual layer warming events.

388

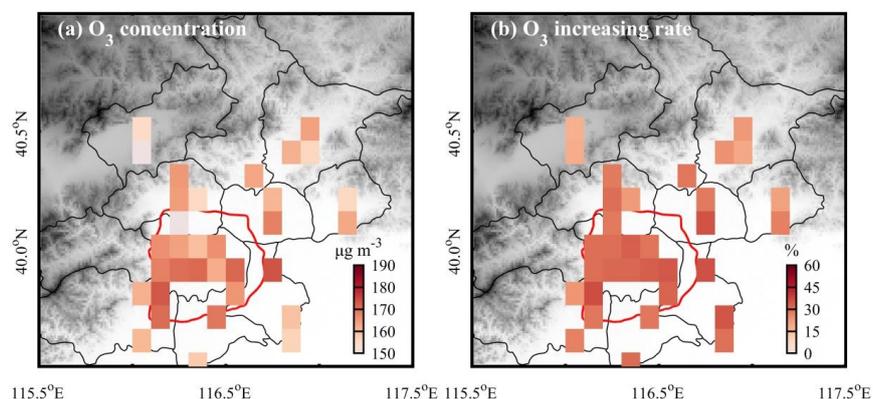
389 Previous case analysis indicated that elevated foehn exacerbates next-day O_3 pollution through three pathways:
 390 increasing boundary layer temperature (enhancing photochemistry), reducing boundary layer height (inhibiting
 391 vertical diffusion), and weakening boundary layer winds (suppressing horizontal dispersion). Composite analyses
 392 of all 54 elevated foehn events (Fig. 11) strongly support the prevalence of these mechanisms. On average,
 393 post-foehn afternoon boundary layer temperature was more than $3\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ higher than pre-foehn conditions. The
 394 elevated foehn-induced residual layer warming directly led to an average RLH reduction of 480 m, and the
 395 subsequent afternoon CBLH was, on average, 110 m lower. Post-foehn afternoon boundary layer wind speed
 396 decreased by more than 1.0 m s^{-1} on average. Overall, these meteorological changes consistently favor local O_3
 397 production and accumulation. As a result, approximately 87 % of elevated foehn events were followed by worsened
 398 O_3 pollution. Post-foehn MDA8O_3 concentrations across Beijing increased by an average of 20–60% (varying by
 399 site) compared to the preceding day (Fig. 12b). Within the main urban zone (inside the 6th Ring Road), the



400 MDA8O₃ increase generally exceeded 45% (Fig. 12b), with concentrations commonly surpassing the national air
 401 quality standard of 160 μg m⁻³ (Fig. 12a).



402 **Figure 11.** Composite of (a) afternoon boundary layer temperature profiles, (b) boundary/residual layer height, and
 403 (c) afternoon boundary layer wind speed profiles before, during, and after 54 identified elevated foehn events in
 404 Beijing. In (a) and (c), solid lines denote the mean profiles and shaded areas represent the standard deviation. In (b),
 405 box-and-whisker plots show the 5th, 25th, 50th, 75th, and 95th percentiles; dots represent the means.
 406



407 **Figure 12.** Composite of (a) daily maximum 8-h O₃ concentrations following elevated foehn in Beijing, and (b)
 408 their average percentage increase compared to preceding days. Note: site data are resampled and shown on a
 409 0.1°×0.1° grid, accounting for the relocation of some sites around 2021.
 410

411

412 4. Discussion

413 Traditionally, nocturnal warming has been considered rare. Previous studies have observed occasional nighttime
 414 surface warming in leeward plains or valleys due to foehn effects (Luo et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2015). This study, by
 415 creatively integrating radiosonde data, reveals for the first time the frequent occurrence of pronounced nocturnal
 416 residual layer warming in summer Beijing. The primary driver is identified as elevated foehn—an upper-layer
 417 phenomenon previously missed by near-surface observations. Theoretically, unlike near-surface warming from
 418 shallow foehn (which enhances boundary layer instability), residual layer warming from elevated foehn reinforces
 419 static stability (Stull, 1988). Our observations show that this warming substantially lowers the boundary layer



420 capping inversion (i.e., RLH), thereby inhibiting the development of the next day's convective boundary layer.
421 While Pal and Lee (2019) highlighted that mountain air mass advection can lead to boundary layer overrunning
422 over downwind plains, our results demonstrate that under elevated foehn, mountain-sourced air masses can instead
423 act to lower the downwind boundary layer height through foehn warming.

424

425 The elevated foehn process in summer Beijing shows both similarities and differences with that in winter Urumqi
426 (Li et al., 2015). The similarity lies mainly in the three-layer flow structure that causes similar "sandwich" foehn
427 warming within a middle wind shear layer. The key difference lies in the post-foehn boundary layer convergence
428 mechanism. In winter Urumqi, a downslope wind and hydraulic jump occur simultaneously on the northern leeside
429 of the Tianshan Mountains after the foehn encounters a cold air pool in the southern suburbs, generating
430 convergence between the cold pool and the shallow downslope wind (Li et al., 2015). In contrast, no such cold air
431 pool exists in summer Beijing. Here, the post-foehn convergence instead results from the confrontation between the
432 emerging northwestern foehn winds and the prevailing southwestern winds within the boundary layer.

433

434 Our results reveal that 86.9% of the identified elevated foehn events were followed by O₃ pollution exacerbation
435 in summer Beijing. Post-foehn MDA8O₃ concentrations increased more than 30% on average, exceeding the
436 national pollution threshold at most monitoring sites. In a previous study, Li et al. (2025) explored connections
437 between ground-based foehn and PM_{2.5} pollution in Beijing, finding that 60.4 % of cases corresponded to pollution
438 mitigation and only 39.6% to exacerbation. While direct comparability is limited due to differences in pollutant
439 (PM_{2.5} vs. O₃) and season (annual vs. summer), the markedly higher probability of post-foehn pollution
440 exacerbation found in our study clearly indicates that elevated foehn exhibits a more deterministic pollution effect.
441 Therefore, elevated foehn can serve as a reliable meteorological precursor for O₃ pollution warnings in summer
442 Beijing. Notably, since elevated foehn can be directly identified from routine radiosonde observations (Sect. 2.2),
443 its application as a precursor for summer O₃ forecasting can be both highly convenient and timely.

444

445 5. Conclusion

446 This study systematically investigated the formation process of elevated foehn winds and their mechanisms for
447 exacerbating surface O₃ pollution in summer Beijing through a combined case analysis and climatological
448 evaluation. The main conclusions are as follows:

- 449 1、 First observational confirmation of elevated foehn events in summer Beijing. Utilizing high-resolution
450 radiosonde observations, this study identified a novel phenomenon distinct from traditional near-surface foehn.
451 It manifests as abnormal nocturnal warming ($\Delta T_{12h} > 3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) within the elevated residual layer (approximately
452 500–2000 m AGL), with no significant warming signal at the surface. Lagrangian back-trajectory analysis
453 confirms that the warming air masses originate from the northwestern or northern plateaus, undergoing descent
454 and warming after crossing the Yanshan or Taihang Mountains, exhibiting classic foehn characteristics. These
455 elevated foehn events account for 5.87% of summer nights and are identified as the primary driver (85.7% of
456 identified cases) of nocturnal residual layer warming in Beijing.
- 457 2、 Clarification of the triple synergistic mechanisms through which elevated foehn exacerbates next-day O₃
458 pollution. Thermodynamic Effect I: Increasing boundary layer temperature to enhance photochemical
459 production. Nocturnal residual layer warming directly leads to a significantly higher daytime boundary layer
460 temperature (average increase $>3\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$), accelerating the photochemical reaction rates of precursors.
461 Thermodynamic Effect II: Lowering the boundary layer height to suppress vertical diffusion. The residual layer
462 warming reinforces atmospheric stability, causing the capping inversion base (i.e., the residual layer height) to
463 drop by an average of ~480 m and the subsequent afternoon convective boundary layer height to decrease by



464 ~110 m. This substantially compresses the vertical mixing volume for pollutants. Dynamic Effect: Inducing
465 boundary-layer convergent stagnation to weaken horizontal transport. The intruding northwesterly elevated
466 foehn flow confronts the prevailing southwesterlies within the boundary layer, forming a convergence zone.
467 This leads to a marked reduction in wind speed (average decrease $>1.0 \text{ m s}^{-1}$), severely hindering the horizontal
468 advective dispersion of pollutants.

469 3. Decade-long climatological evaluation confirms the highly deterministic and prevalent exacerbating effect of
470 elevated foehn on summer O_3 pollution. Composite analysis of 54 identified elevated foehn events from 2015–
471 2024 robustly supports the proposed mechanisms. Statistics show that 87% of elevated foehn events were
472 followed by worsened O_3 pollution the next day. The city-wide MDA8O_3 concentration increased by 20–60%
473 on average compared to the preceding day, with increases in the main urban area typically exceeding 45%.
474 Post-foehn MDA8O_3 concentrations commonly surpassed the national ambient air quality standard ($160 \mu\text{g}$
475 m^{-3}). This stands in sharp contrast to previous statistics based on near-surface observations, which associate
476 shallow foehn primarily with pollution alleviation (60.4% of cases), highlighting the fundamental difference in
477 pollution potential between shallow and elevated foehn.

478

479 In summary, this study identifies elevated foehn as a significant and previously overlooked meteorological
480 forcing factor for summer O_3 pollution in Beijing. Its synergistic "warming-lowering-stagnating" effects lead to a
481 highly deterministic pollution exacerbation. Given that elevated foehn can be directly identified using routine
482 radiosonde data, we propose its utility as a reliable and efficient meteorological precursor for O_3 pollution
483 forecasting and warning in Beijing and other cities with similar topography. This provides a new scientific basis for
484 the precise prevention and control of air pollution. Future research should focus on quantifying the contribution of
485 elevated foehn to O_3 generation under different synoptic backgrounds and exploring its coupling with regional
486 transport and chemical processes.

487

488 **Data availability.** The remote sensing observations and numerical simulation results are available from the
489 correspondence author upon reasonable request (zqma@ium.cn).

490

491 **Author contributions**

492 Z.L. conceived the original idea, analyzed the data, and wrote the first version manuscript. J.X. conducted the
493 WRF-Chem simulation. L.Z. operated the remote sensing equipment. C.L. performed the HYSPLIT model. Z.M.
494 supervised the research project. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

495

496 **Competing interests**

497 The authors declare no competing interests.

498

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503

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