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Y.O. Hu³ 3 1. School of Resource and Environmental Sciences, Wuhan University, Wuhan 430072, China 4 2. Department of Civil and Environmental Engineering, The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, 5 Hong Kong, China 6 3. International Institute for Earth System Science, Nanjing University, Nanjing 210023, China 7 4. Wuhan Environment Monitoring Center, Wuhan 430022, China 8 *Corresponding author. ceguohai@polyu.edu.hk; 9 **Second corresponding author. chenghr@whu.edu.cn 10 Abstract 11 12 In August 2016, continuous measurements of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and trace gases were conducted at an urban site in Wuhan. Four high-ozone (O3) days and twenty-seven non-high-13 O3 days were identified according to the China's National Standard Level II (~100 ppb). The 14 15 occurrence of high-O₃ days was accompanied by tropical cyclones. Much higher concentrations of VOCs and carbon monoxide (CO) were observed on the high-O₃ days (p < 0.01). Model 16

Causes of ozone pollution in summer of in Wuhan, Central China

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17 simulations revealed that vehicle exhausts were the dominant sources of VOCs, with the 18 contribution of $45.4 \pm 5.2\%$ and $37.3 \pm 2.9\%$ during high-O₃ and non-high-O₃ days, respectively. 19 Both vehicle exhausts and stationary combustion made significantly larger contributions to O₃ 20 production on high-O₃ days (p<0.01). Analysis of using a chemical transport model found that 21 local photochemical formation accounted for $74.7 \pm 5.8\%$ of the daytime O₃, around twice the regional transport ($32.2 \pm 5.4\%$), while the nighttime O₃ was mainly attributable to regional 22 23 transport (59.1 \pm 9.9%). The local O₃ formation was generally limited by VOCs in urban Wuhan. To effectively control O₃ pollution, the reduction ratio of VOCs to NO_x concentrations should not 24 be lower than 0.73, and the most efficient O₃ abatement could be achieved by reducing VOCs from 25

vehicle exhausts. This study contributes to the worldwide database of the O3-VOC-NOx

27 sensitivity research. The-<u>Its</u> findings of this study are will be helpful to-<u>in</u> formulatinge and
28 implementing the emission control strategies against for dealing with O₃ pollution in Wuhan.
29 Keywords: VOCs, Source apportionment, O₃ formation, Vehicle exhausts, Control measures
30 Capsule: Local formation dominated the daytime O₃, while the nighttime O₃ was attributable to

regional transport in Wuhan.

32 **1. Introduction**

33 Over the past decades, tropospheric ozone (O_3) pollution has become a major problem around 34 the world because of its deleterious impact on human health, vegetation, and climate (Krupa and 35 Manning, 1988; Tilton, 1989; Stevenson et al., 2013; Monks et al., 2015). In recent years, the issue of severe O₃ pollution has attracted broad attention in many megacities and fast-developing regions 36 in China has attracted much attention (Wang et al., 2009; Xue et al., 2014; Verstraeten et al., 2015; 37 38 Gao et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017). To effectively control the O₃ pollution, it is urgently 39 necessarycssential to investigate understand the characteristics and formation mechanisms of O_3 pollution in Chinese cities with different energy structures and geographic features, such as Wuhan 40 41 in Central China.

42 The global background, intrusion of stratospheric O_{3a} and photochemical formation are the main sources of tropospheric O₃, among which photochemical formation generally dominates O₃ levels 43 44 in urban areas (Monks et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2016; Gao et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2017). In ozone 45 chemistry, O₃ is formed through the photolysis of NO₂, following by the combination betweenof an oxygen atom from NO₂ photolysis and with oxygen (O₂) (Logan, 1985; Roelofs and Lelieveld, 46 1997). ConReversely, O₃ reacts with NO, regenerating NO₂. NO, NO₂, and O₃ can reach a photo-47 48 equilibrium, which is driven by the oxidative radicals (e.g. OH, HO₂, and RO₂) (Monks, 2005). NOx plays a dual roles in O3 formation. In the a low NOx environment, it stimulates O3 formation, 49 while in <u>a NO_x-rich</u> environment, O_3 is depleted by NO_x mainly due to the titration of NO to O_3 50 51 (Wang et al., 2016). The relationships between O₃ and its precursors in these complicated 52 photochemical processes have been well documented in many previous studies. For example, it 53 has been extensively reported that VOCs are the limiting factors of O_3 production in the urban

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54	areas of many Chinese cities, spanning from Beijing in the north to Hong Kong in the south (Wang
55	et al., 2010; Lyu et al., 2016b; Xu et al., 2017), However, in the-rural or background regions, O ₃
56	formation is generally NO _x -limited due to the relatively low NO _x (high VOCs/NO _x ratio) in the
57	atmosphere (Pan et al., 2015; Xu et al., 2015). The <u>A</u> NO _x -limited regime is has also been observed
58	or /simulated in some cities of western China (Xue et al., 2014; Feng et al., 2016). Regardless of
59	the regimes controlling O ₃ formation, the responses of O ₃ formation to the precursors are generally
60	non-linear, which is as has been revealed by the empirical kinetic modeling approach (EKMA)
61	curves (Lin et al., 1988; Jia et al., 2016; Lyu et al., 2016a). In the a VOC-limited regime, alkenes,
62	aromatics, and biogenic VOCs are have been repeatedly confirmed as the main contributors to O ₃
63	production. An et al. (2012) indicated that aromatics and alkenes contributed 73 - 84% to the O_3
64	production in summer 2008 in Beijing. Han et al. (2013) found that alkenes were the largest
65	contributors to O_3 production (53.3%), followed by aromatics (35.1%) and alkanes $(9.2\%)_{2}$ in
66	autumn 2009 in Tianjin. Geng et al. (2007) reported that aromatics were the main contributor (79%)
67	to the O ₃ production in November 2005 in Shanghai. The sources of VOCs in China were have
68	also <u>been</u> widely investigated in China (Guo et al., 2007; Yuan et al., 2010; Lyu et al., 2016b; Gao
69	et al., 2017). The contributions of different sources to VOCs vary significantly among cities and
70	regions, but the vehicular and industrial emissions are generally the most-predominant sources of
71	ambient VOCs in China (see Table S1 for details). For instance, Shao et al. (2016) indicated that
72	in summer 2013 in Nanjing, industry-related sources (52%) was were the largest contributor to
73	VOCs, followed by vehicular emissions (34%)-in summer 2013 in Nanjing. Yuan et al. (2009)
74	reported that vehicular emissions made the largest contribution to ambient VOCs in at both urban
75	(62%) and rural sites (36%) in 2006 in Beijing. Ling and Guo (2014) found that vehicularrelated
76	sources, including gasoline exhaust (22%), diesel exhaust (20%), LPG usage (21%), and gasoline
77	evaporation (8%), were the dominant contributors to VOCs in autumn 2010 in Hong Kong.
78	Wuhan is the largest city in Central China;; it is located in an area which is dominated by the
79	moist subtropical moist monsoon climate. With Due to rapid industrialization and urbanization,

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 $\ensuremath{\mbox{the-O}}\xspace_3$ pollution has become increasingly severe in Wuhan. Ozone was identified as the main air

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81	pollutant on 44 days in 2015 and on 34 days in 2016 in Wuhan, when the O_3 un-attainment rate					
82	Please clarify "O; un attainment rate": "un attainment" is not idiomatic, and it is not clear what					
83	was not being attained, was 15.7% and 9.3% according to China's National Ambient Air Quality					
84	Standard Level II (200 μg m ⁻³), respectively (accessible at					
85	http://www.whepb.gov.cn/hbHjzkgb/19431.jhtml). Higher O3 values were generally observed in					
86	summer, with the a peak concentration of 121 ppbv in 2015 and 116 ppbv in 2016. As such, Wuhan					
87	$\frac{1}{100}$ fac <u>es major</u> ing great-challenge <u>s in</u> for O ₃ abatement, just-like the other fast-developing cities					
88	and regions in China.					
89	This study aimsed to characterize the O3 pollution during high-O3 and non-high-O3 days so as					
90	to understand the main causes of high O3 days in Wuhan. Specifically, tThe concentrations and					
91	compositions of VOCs and NOx were are firstly compared between high-O3 and non-high-O3 days.					
92	SecondNextly, the a positive matrix factorization (PMF) receptor model coupled with a					
93	photochemical box model incorporating the Master Chemical Mechanism (PBM-MCM) was-is					
94	applied to investigate the major sources and their contributions to ambient VOCs and					
95	photochemical O ₃ formation during high-O ₃ days and non-high-O ₃ days. LasthyFinally, the O ₃ -					
96	precursor relationships were are evaluated with using a the approach of relative incremental					
97	reactivity (RIR) approach, and a reduction ratio of VOCs/NOx was-is recommended for effective					
98	mitigation of O ₃ pollution in Wuhan. The outcomes are expected to improve our understanding of					
99	photochemical O3 formation and transport mechanisms for subtropical regions that have with moist					
100	monsoon climates and a complex coupling of meteorology and chemistry. Our results also have					
101	implications for other subtropical inland regions around the world.					
102	2. Methodology					

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103 2.1 Sampling site

The sampling site is located in the urban area of Wuhan (30.604° N, 114.278° E), which is
adjacent (~70 m) to a main traffic road and surrounded by residential and commercial blocks (Fig.
1). The instruments were deployed on the roof of a nine-story building (~25 m a.g.l.), the of Wuhan
Research Institute of Environmental Protection.

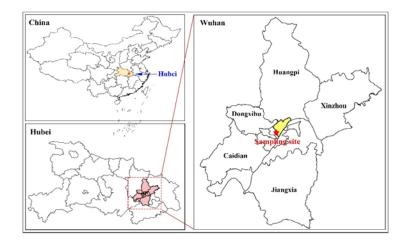


Fig. 1. Geographical location of the sampling site

110 2.2 Measurement techniques

111 2.2.1 On-line measurement of ambient VOCs

112 102 VOCs species, including 58 non-methane hydrocarbons (NMHCs), 31 halocarbons, and 13 113 oxygenated VOCs (OVOCs), were analyzed using an online gas chromatography-mass spectrometry-flame ionization detector system with one-hour time resolution (GC-MSD-FID, TH-114 115 PKU 300B; Tianhong Instrument Co., Ltd., Wuhan). This online system consists of has four parts: 116 the, i.e., sampling system, pre-concentrator, GC-MSD-FID system, and data processing system. 117 Ambient air was continuously drawn through a Teflon tube with an inner diameter of 0.76 cm, and 118 a particle filter was connected to the sampling tube inlet to remove ambient particles. The sampling 119 tube inlet was installed at $1 \sim 2$ m above the rooftop, and the outlet was connected to a PFA-made 120 manifold with a by-pass pump drawing air at a rate of 15 L min⁻¹. When the A-air samples were 121 collected and transferred to the pre-concentrator₂₅ water and carbon dioxide were removed at -80 °C and VOCs were trapped at -150 °C. After preconcentration, the VOCs were desorbed by 122 123 rapidly heating up the trap to 100 °C, and then introduced into the GC-FID-MSD system (Li et al., 124 2015; Lyu et al., 2016). The C_2 - C_4 NMHCs were analyzed by the FID, while other compounds 125 were quantified by MSD. The quality assurance and control (QA/QC) is are shown in Text S1.

126 2.2.2 Monitoring of trace gases other than VOCs and meteorological parameters

127 Five trace gases (O₃, NO₂, NO, CO₄ and SO₂) were measured continuously from 4-August 1 to 128 31, August 2016, with a <u>one-hour</u> resolution-of one hour. Trace gases were monitored using the instruments developed by Thermo Environmental Instruments (TEI) Inc. Specifically, O3 was 129 130 detected with a commercial UV photometric analyzer (TEI, Model 49i), which has a detection limit of 1.0 ppbv. Nitric oxide (NO) and NO₂ were analyzed by a chemiluminescence trace level 131 132 analyzer (TEI, Model 42i) with a detection limit of 0.5 ppbv (Geng et al., 2009). A gas filter 133 correlation CO analyzer (TEI, Model 48i) was used to detect the ambient CO. The detection limit 134 of the CO analyzer was 0.04 ppm. Sulfur dioxide (SO₂) was analyzed using a pulse fluorescence analyzer (TEI, Model 43i) with a detection limit of 0.05 ppbv. The QA/QC of trace gases can be 135 found in Text S1. Weather parameters, including temperature, relative humidity, pressure, wind 136 137 speed, and wind direction, were also monitored at the site in-with hourly-a one-hour resolution by 138 the integrated sensor suite (Vantage Pro TM & Vantage Pro 2 Plus TM Weather Stations, Davis 139 Instruments).

In this study, high-O₃ days were defined <u>as those</u> when the highest hourly O₃ concentration
exceeded the China's National Ambient Air Quality Standard Level II of 200 μg m³ (~100 ppbv)
(accessible at <u>http://english.mep.gov.cn/Resources/standards/Air_Environment/quality_</u>
<u>standard1/201605/t20160511_337502.shtml</u>). Otherwise, the sampling days were denoted as nonhigh-O₃ days. As such, <u>four</u>4 high-O₃ days, (August i.e., 1, 17, 24, and 30-)August, were captured
during the entire sampling period.

146 2.3 Model description

147 2.3.1. PMF model

The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF, version 5.0) model was applied to identify the sources of ambient VOCs and to quantify their contributions to VOCs. PMF is a multivariate factor analysis tool that decomposes a matrix of speciated sample data into two matrices: factor contributions (G) and factor profiles (F). Here, the "factor contribution" means the contribution of a source to the total measured VOC concentration in a sample, while "factor profile" indicates the percentages of individual VOC species in the total measured VOC concentration in a sample. To ascribe the concentrations of *m* chemical species in *n* samples to *p* independent sources, the receptor model can be generally expressed as follows (Eq. 1):

157
$$x_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{p} g_{ik} f_{ki} + e_{ij}$$
 (Eq. 1)

where x_{ij} (unit: ppbv) is the concentration of the *j*th species in the *i*th sample, g_{ik} (unit: ppbv) is the contribution of the *k*th source to the *i*th sample, f_{kj} is the fraction of *j*th species in *k*th source, and e_{ij} is the residual for the *i*th sample of the *j*th species.

The factor profiles were derived based on the principle that the objective function Q had should
 <u>have</u> the lowest value, as shown in Eq. (2) (Paatero and Tapper, 1994; Paatero, 1997). In addition,
 the profiles should have the best interpretability.

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$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left[\frac{e_{ij}}{u_{ij}} \right]^{2}$$
(Eq. 2)

165 where u_{ij} is the uncertainty of the *i*th species in the *j*th sample. The function value, Q(robust), was 166 calculated by using the model through by excluding the points with the uncertainty-scaled residuals 167 greater than 4. The profile with the lowest value of Q(robust) was selected as the optimum solution. 168 In this study, speciated VOCs including 20 NMHCs, chloromethane, and 169 trichlorethylenetrichloroethylene from 565 samples (m) were input into the PMF model. The 22 170 species (n) were selected because most of them are tracers of different sources. Since Because 171 accuracies in measurements for all species were <10% (Table S1), we used 10% as input to 172 represent the uncertainty of each species in each sample in the model. Different numbers of factors 173 was were tested, and an optimum solution was determined based on a good fit to the observed data 174 and the most meaningful results. Eventually, seven factors (p) were extracted from the PMF model 175 simulation.

176 2.3.2 PBM-MCM model

A zero-dimension Lagrangian photochemical box model incorporating <u>a</u> Master Chemical
 Mechanism (PBM-MCM) was applied to investigate the-in situ photochemical O₃ formation in

179 Wuhan in August 2016. This model simulates the complex photochemistry within a well-mixed 180 boundary layer air parcel, including 5,900 species and 16,500 reactions. All the air pollutants were 181 assumed to be well mixed in the atmospheric boundary layer defined by the model. It should be 182 noted that the vertical and horizontal dispersions were not considered in the model. The This model 183 was described in details by Lam et al. (2013) and its reliability has been repeatedly confirmed 184 reliable-in previous studies (Cheng et al., 2013; Ling et al., 2014; Lyu et al., 2016b). In this study, 185 the observed hourly values of 52 VOCs and four4 trace gases (NO2, NO, SO2, and CO), as well 186 asin addition to temperature and relative humidity, between 00:00 local standard time (LST) and 23:00 LST were used to construct the model. The photolysis rates of different chemicals in the 187 model were parameterized using the photon flux determined from the Tropospheric Ultraviolet 188 189 and Visible Radiation (TUVv5) model (Lam et al., 2013). The simulations of daytime hours (07:00 190 - 19:00 LST) were conducted for the entire sampling period except for the rainy days, and the 191 model output was the simulated hourly mixing ratios of O_3 . The in situ O_3 production, the O_3 -NO_x-VOCs relationship, and the control strategies of O3 were all simulated using the PBM-MCM model. 192 193 The Ddetailsed descriptions of the modeling results were are shown in section 3.2.2 and section 194 3.4.

In addition to the simulation of O3 production, the PBM-MCM model was applied to investigate 195 196 the O₃-precursor relationships through by examining the relative incremental reactivity (RIRs) of 197 O_3 precursors. The RIR is the percentage change in daytime O_3 production per percent change in 198 precursor. The O₃ precursors were divided into four groups:, i.e., anthropogenic VOCs (AVOCs), 199 BVOCs, CO₂ and NO_x. A positive RIR of for a given precursor means that reducing emissions of 200 this precursor will significantly reduce O₃ production, whereas a negative RIR indicates the 201 opposite effect, i.e., cutting emissions of the precursor will enhance O₃ production. In general, the 202 RIRs of VOCs are positive, while both positive and negative RIRs are commonly seen for NO_x due to its dual role in O₃ chemistry. The VOC-limited (VOC-sensitive) regime is indicated by the 203 positive RIRs of VOCs and negative RIRs of NOx. Otherwise, O3 formation is limited by (sensitive 204 205 to) NO_x or both VOCs and NO_x when the RIR of NO_x is positive.

206 –The RIR for precursor X at site "s" is calculated using Eq. 3 (Cardelino and Chameides, 1995): 207 $RIR^{S}(X) = \frac{\left[P_{O_{3}}^{S} \cdot NO(X) - P_{O_{3}}^{S} \cdot NO(X - \Delta X)\right] / P_{O_{3}}^{S} \cdot NO(X)}{\Delta S(X) / S(X)}$ (Eq. 3) 208 where X represents a specific precursor (i.e. VOCs, NOx, or CO); the superscript "S" is used to 209 denote the specific site where the measurements were made; S(X) is the measured mixing ratio of 210 species X (ppbv); $\Delta S(X)$ is the hypothetical change in the mixing ratio of X, which is artificially 211 set as at 10%; $P_{O_{3}}^{S} \cdot NO(X)$ represents the simulated O₃ production in the base run constructed with

the observed concentrations of all the O₃ precursors, including the species X. $P_{O_3-NO}^{S}(X - \Delta X)$ is the simulated O₃ production in the constrained run with 10% reduction of species X (Ling et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2018; Xu et al., 2017), while the concentrations of other species remained unchanged. The titration of O₃ by NO was considered in both runs. Then, the average RIR value (RIR) for the species X over multiple sampling days was calculated using Eq. (4)₃, <u>w</u>Where NS means the number of days simulated.

218
$$\overline{\text{RIR}} = \frac{\sum_{1}^{\text{NS}} \left[\text{RIR}^{\text{S}}(X) P_{\text{O}_{3} \cdot \text{NO}}^{\text{S}}(X) \right]}{\sum_{1}^{\text{NS}} P_{\text{O}_{3} \cdot \text{NO}}^{\text{NS}}(X)}$$
(Eq. 4)

219 2.3.3 WRF-CMAQ model

220 The U.S. EPA Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model with the Carbon Bond 05 221 (CB05) chemical mechanism was applied to simulate the-O₃ concentrations during the-high-O₃ 222 days. CMAQ is a three-dimensional atmospheric chemistry and transport modeling system; and 223 more details about the CMAQ model can be found at http://cmascenter.org/cmaq/. In this study, 224 CMAQ was driven by the meteorological fields from the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) 225 model, which is one of the most eurrently commonly used available models to apply for both 226 forecasting and atmospheric research across scales ranging from meters to thousands of kilometers. 227 The simulation period was 00:00 LST, August 13, 2016, from 00:00 LST 13 August 2016 to 23:00 228 LST, August 18, 2016, 23:00 LST 18 August 2016 when continuously high O₃ values were 229 observed, with the highest hourly O_3 of 133.9 ppbv on $\frac{17}{17}$ August $\frac{17}{17}$ (Fig. S1). The purpose to of 230 running the model simulations for the six6 consecutive days was to ensure that the modeling could

231 achieve the a balance of the intermediates (e.g. radicals) and reduce the integration error in 232 numerical calculations (-Jiang et al., 2008; Pan et al., 2015; Chen et al., 2018). Two nested domains 233 were defined in the WRF modeling, and the corresponding grid spacings were 27 km and 9 km, 234 receptivityrespectively. The outer domain (DM1, 27 km) covered most territory of China, and the 235 second domain (DM2, 9 km) included most cities in eastern Hubei Province, and some parts of 236 Anhui, Henan, and Jiangxi Provinces. Vertically, there were 31 sigma levels, with the top pressure 237 fixed at 100 hPa. The meteorological parameters were well considered by the model (Jiang et al., 238 2010). The anthropogenic emission inventory developed by Tsinghua University based on figures 239 for the year of 2010 was applied for this study, which includes monthly anthropogenic emissions 240 of SO₂, NO_x, CO, ammonia (NH₃), PM_{2.5}, PM_{coarse}, black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), and 241 non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs). The data has have a horizontal resolution 242 of $0.25^{\circ} \times 0.25^{\circ}$. More details are given by He (2012). The biogenic emissions were calculated 243 offline using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN, version 2.04) (Guenther et al., 2006). These modeling systems have been successfully used in previous O₃ 244 245 simulations by Jiang et al. (2010) and Wang et al. (2015).

246 **3 Results and discussion**

247 3.1 Characteristics of meteorological parameters and air pollutants

248 Table S2 shows the descriptive statistics of meteorological parameters on high-O3 and non-high-249 O₃ days. The occurrence of high-O₃ days was associated with high temperature, low wind speed, 250 and low relative humidity. Fig. S3 presents the distributions of mean sea level (MSL) pressure and 251 wind fields averaged over high-O₃ days and non-high-O₃ days in East Asia. It is shownindicates 252 that the high-O₃ days were all related to tropical cyclones. This is because This relation exists 253 becausee reason is that Wuhan was is located on the periphery of the tropical cyclones, where 254 relatively high pressure and subsiding air were are formed, causing O₃ accumulation. In addition, 255 the east to north winds induced by the tropical cyclones also brought the polluted air masses from 256 East China and North China to Wuhan on these days. A detailed discussion is given in Text S2 in 257 the Supplement.

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258 The time series of observed O_3 concentrations in Wuhan in August 2016 is shown in Fig. S1. 259 According to Based on the definition of a high-O₃ day, August 1, 17, 24, and 30 August were 260 defined as high-O₃ days during the sampling period. Table S3 shows the statistical descriptions of 261 air pollutants on high-O₃ and non-high_-O₃ days. During high-O₃ days, the O₃ mixing ratio was 262 61.2 ± 7.4 ppbv, about 40% higher than that $(42.3 \pm 2.0 \text{ ppbv})$ on non-high-O₃ days $((42.3 \pm 2.0 \text{ ppbv}))$ 263 ppby; p<0.01). The mixing ratios of O₃ precursors, i.e., CO and total VOCs (TVOCs) representing the sum of mixing ratios of 102 VOC species, were 987.8 ± 95.4 and 43.9 ± 3.8 ppbv on high-O₃ 264 265 days, respectively, about 37% and 33% higher than those on non-high-O₃ days $(p<0.01)_{\tau}$ respectively. However, the levels of NO and NO₂ were comparable between high-O₃ and non-high-266 267 O_3 days (the differences < 2 ppby, p > 0.05). Previous studies indicated that O_3 formation is 268 generally limited by VOCs and suppressed by NO_x in urban areas (Wang et al., 2008; Ling et al., 269 2013; Lyu et al., 2016b). Hence, the more abundant TVOCs and CO during high-O₃ days and 270 comparable NO_x values between high-O₃ and non-high-O₃ days might indicate the significant 271 contribution of local photochemical reactions to O3 formation.

272 Fig. S2 shows the diurnal variations of O_3 , NO_{xe} and *m*,*p*-xylene/ethylbenzene ratio on high- O_3 273 and non-high-O₃ days. The observed O₃ generally peaked in the afternoon, and had relatively low 274 concentrations from midnight to the early morning on both high-O₃ and non-high-O₃ days. A 275 trough of O_3 appeared at about 08:00 LST, which was likely caused by the enhanced NO titration 276 due to the increased vehicular emissions of NO in during morning rush hours (So and Wang, 2003). 277 In fact, the diurnal variation of NO_x was opposite to that of $O_{3:-}$ Namely, the high levels of NO_x appeared in the morning and evening when O₃ was relatively low, and the increase of O₃ from 278 279 09:00 to 15:00 corresponded to the decrease of NO_x. The opposite diurnal patterns between O₃ and 280 NOx indicated that O3 formation in Wuhan was in a VOC-limited (NOx-suppressed) regime. The 281 diurnal trend of m, p-xylene/ethylbenzene was also negatively correlated to O₃. Since Because m, p-282 xylene is more reactive than ethylbenzene, the ratios of *m*,*p*-xylene/ethylbenzene would-decreased when photochemical reaction occurred. Indeed, the lowest ratios were observed in early afternoon 283 284 when O₃ peaked, while higher ratios were found in the morning and late afternoon, indicating fresh Field Code Changed

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vehicular exhaust emissions and relatively weak photochemical consumption of VOCs.

286 Fig. 2 shows the diurnal variations of TVOCs, ethene, propane, toluene, and isoprene on O3 and non-high O₃ days. In general, the patterns between high-O₃ and non-high-O₃ days for TVOCs and 287 288 individual VOC species were similar, except for the magnitude. Moreover, TVOCs showed the 289 same trend as ethene, propane, and toluene:- Namely, a bimodal structure was observed with the 290 first peak in the morning and the second one in late afternoon, likely due to vehicular exhausts 291 during rush hours and strong photochemical reactions at noon and in early afternoon. Clearly, the 292 mixing ratios of TVOCs, ethene, propane, and toluene during high-O₃ days were about 37%, 31%, 293 48%, and 30% higher than those during non-high-O₃ days (p<0.01). It was is unlikely that the local 294 emissions of these air pollutants changed substantially between high-O₃ and non-high-O₃ days. 295 SinceBecause more O₃ precursors were usually consumed by intensive photochemical reactions 296 on high-O3 days, the more abundant O3 precursors on high-O3 days might indicate poor dispersion 297 and dilution of air pollutants. Conversely, higher levels of isoprene were observed during daytime 298 than that at night, suggesting that biogenic emission (BVOCs) of isoprene was more enhanced than 299 its photochemical oxidation and dispersion at-during_daytime hours. Isoprene is often used as a 300 tracer of biogenic sources, as it is the most abundant compound in vegetation emissions (Guenther 301 et al., 2006; Sharkey et al., 2008). Mixing ratios of isoprene were comparable (p>0.05) on both 302 high-O3 and non-high-O3 days, indicating that there was no significant difference in the biogenic 303 emissions had no significant difference between the two scenarios.

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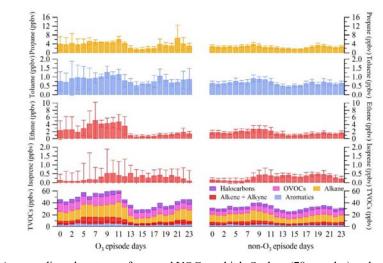


Fig. 2. Average diurnal patterns of grouped VOCs on high-O₃ days (78 samples) and non-high-O₃ days (487 samples)

307 3.2 Sources apportionment of ambient VOCs

308 3.2.1 Source contribution to VOCs

304

309 Seven factors were identified by the PMF to best describe the sources of ambient VOCs:, i.e., 310 gasoline exhausts, diesel and compressed natural gas (CNG) exhausts, stationary combustion, the 311 petrochemical industry, solvent usage in painting, asphalt application, and biogenic VOCs 312 (BVOCs) (see Text S3 and Fig. S4 in the supplement for further description). Table 1 lists the 313 source contributions to the total mixing ratios of VOCs applied used forin source apportionment on high-O3 days and non-high-O3 days, in the forms of mixing ratio and percentage contribution. 314 315 Noticeably, the vehicle emissions, including gasoline exhaust, and diesel and CNG exhausts, were 316 the dominant sources of VOCs, with the total contributions of $45.4 \pm 5.2\%$ (11.0 ± 2.1 ppbv) and 317 $37.3 \pm 2.9\%$ (7.1 ± 1.0 ppbv) during high-O₃ and non-high-O₃ days, respectively. The contribution 318 of vehicular exhausts to VOCs in this study was comparable to those that found obtained at an 319 urban site in Hong Kong (Ling and Guo, 2014), while lower than that in Beijing (Liu et al., 2005). 320 BesidesIn addition, stationary combustion was also an important contributor to ambient VOCs, 321 with the a contribution of $31.5 \pm 4.5\%$ (5.6 ± 0.6 ppbv) during high-O₃ days and $36.5 \pm 2.7\%$ (4.9 $\frac{322}{2} \pm 0.3 \text{ ppbv} \text{ during non-high-O}_3 \text{ days. This <u>finding_was-is_not</u> unreasonable, in view of the$ $<math display="block">\frac{323}{2} \text{ considerable coal consumption in Wuhan (more than 17 million tons in 2015) and intensive}$ $\frac{324}{2} \text{ burning of biomass (e.g. crop residues) burning in and around Wuhan (Lyu et al., 2016).}$

325 In comparison, VOCs emitted from diesel and CNG exhausts and solvent usage in painting on 326 high-O₃ days were much higher than those during non-high-O₃ days (p<0.01). However, gasoline 327 exhaust, asphalt application, stationary combustion, and BVOCs made comparable contributions 328 to VOCs between high-O3 and non-high-O3 days (p>0.05). In addition, VOCs attributable to the 329 petrochemical industry was were even lower during high-O₃ days (p < 0.01). However, 330 sincebecause the reactivity of VOC species in O_3 formation varies in-over a wide range (Carter, 331 1994), we could not conclude that the sources with higher contributions to VOCs (vehicle exhausts, 332 stationary combustion, and solvent usage) were responsible for the occurrence of high-O₃ days. In 333 other words, further investigation was needed into the contributions of VOC sources to O3 334 production-needed further investigation.

335 336

Table 1 Source contributions to VOCs on high-O3 days and non-high-O3 days

	(mean \pm 95% confidence interval)				
	Mixing ra	tios (ppbv)	Contribution (%)		
	High-O ₃	Non-high-O ₃	High-O ₃	Non-high-O ₃	
	days	days	days	days	
Gasoline exhaust	4.7 ± 0.9	3.7 ± 0.5	23.0 ± 4.0	20.9 ± 1.9	
Diesel and CNG exhausts	6.3 ± 1.6	3.4 ± 0.7	22.4 ± 4.1	16.4 ± 2.2	
(Vehicle exhausts)	(11.0 ± 2.1)	(7.1 ± 1.0)	(45.4 ± 5.2)	(37.3 ± 2.9)	
BVOCs	0.5 ± 0.1	0.5 ± 0.1	3.0 ± 0.6	3.8 ± 0.5	
Stationary combustion	5.6 ± 0.6	4.9 ± 0.3	31.5 ± 4.5	36.5 ± 2.7	
Asphalt application	1.5 ± 0.6	1.6 ± 0.4	7.8 ± 2.5	9.7 ± 2.2	
Solvent usage in painting	1.5 ± 0.3	0.8 ± 0.1	7.9 ± 1.2	5.3 ± 0.6	
Petrochemical	0.9 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.1	4.4 ± 0.8	7.4 ± 0.7	

industry

337

338 3.2.2 Source contributions to O₃ production

339 To further understand the contributions of different VOCs sources to O_3 formation, the in situ 340 production of O₃ was simulated by using the PBM-MCM model. Since Because the photolysis 341 rates could not be well calibrated on rainy days and wet deposition was not considered in the model, 342 there generally were often majorgreat discrepancies between the observed and simulated O₃ on 343 rainy days. Therefore, the days with precipitation (in total 10 days) were excluded in the O₃ 344 simulation. In addition, the instruments were maintained on some days to guarantee the data quality. 345 These days were also not-omitted from the included in O_3 simulation. Fig. S5 in the supplement 346 shows the model validation results. It was found that These indicate that that the PBM-MCM model 347 well reproduced the levels and diurnal trends of O_3 , implying that O_3 on these days was mainly 348 locally formed. However, O3 was only simulated in this study at for daytime hours (07:00 - 19:00 LST) in this study. In fact, O₃ simulation by a chemical transport model in the same period 349 350 indicated that while local formation was responsible for daytime O₃, regional transport elevated 351 nocturnal O₃ (more details shown are given in 3.3).

352 Two scenarios for O₃ simulation (, i.e., a) base scenario and a constrained scenario), were run to 353 investigate the contribution of a specific VOC source to the O₃ production. The observed VOCs 354 were used to construct the base scenario, while in the constrained scenario VOCs emitted from an individual specific source were deducted. The difference in simulated O₃ between the base and 355 356 constrained scenarios was the net O₃ production of the specific source. In this way, the contribution 357 of each VOC source to O_3 production was obtained. It is noteworthy that the data on the four4 358 high-O₃ days were included for source apportionment. Since Because species with high reactivity 359 participate more in photochemical reactions during high-O₃ days, their contributions to O₃ 360 production were partly somewhat underestimated.

Table 2 summarizes the contributions of VOC sources to O₃ production on high-O₃ days and non-high-O₃ days. It was found that vehicle exhausts (exhausts from gasoline-, diesel- and CNG-

363	fueled vehicles) made the largest contribution to O_3 production, with 34.0 \pm 1.4% (13.9 \pm 2.2 ppbv)
364	during high-O_3 days and 29.5 \pm 0.7% (8.3 \pm 0.9 ppbv) during non-high-O_3 days. However,
365	compared to their contributions to VOCs (45.4 \pm 5.2% during high-O_3 days, and 37.3 \pm 2.9%
366	during non-high-O ₃ days; p <0.01) the contribution of vehicle exhausts to O ₃ production was lower
367	($p < 0.01$). On the contraryIn contrast, the contributions to O ₃ production of the petrochemical
368	industry, solvent usage in painting, and BVOCs were obviously higher than their contributions to
369	VOCs (p <0.01). This discrepancy might be caused by the source-specific compositions of VOCs
370	and the different reactivity of VOCs in O_3 formation. More importantly, we noticed that O_3
371	produced by vehicle exhausts (the sum of exhausts from gasoline-, diesel- and CNG-fueled
372	vehicles) and stationary combustion all increased significantly during high-O ₃ days (p <0.05).
373	ParticularlyIn particular, O3 produced by VOCs from diesel and CNG exhausts increased from
374	$13.7\pm0.6\%$ (3.9 \pm 0.4 ppbv) during non-high-O_3 days to 19.2 \pm 1.3% (7.8 \pm 1.3 ppbv) during
375	high-O ₃ days. This $\underline{\text{finding}}$ implies $\underline{\text{sd}}$ that emission of VOCs from diesel and CNG exhausts was
376	thea main culprit of for the elevated O3 during on high-O3 days.

Table 2 Source contributions to O_3 production on high- O_3 days and non-high- O_3 days (mean \pm 95% confidence interval)

	Net O ₃ increment (ppbv)		Contrib	ution (%)	
	High-O ₃ Non-high- High-O ₃ No		Non-high-O ₃		
	days	O3 days	days	days	
Gasoline exhaust	6.1 ± 0.9	4.5 ± 0.4	14.8 ± 0.3	15.8 ± 0.5	
Diesel and CNG exhausts	7.8 ± 1.3	3.8 ± 0.4	19.2 ± 1.3	13.7 ± 0.6	
(Vehicle exhausts)	(13.8 ± 2.2)	(8.3 ± 0.8)	(34.0 ± 1.4)	(29.5 ± 0.7)	
BVOCs	6.9 ± 1.1	6.0 ± 0.8	16.7 ± 0.8	20.3 ± 1.1	
Stationary combustion	5.3 ± 0.7	3.8 ± 0.4	13.3 ± 0.2	12.7 ± 0.3	
Asphalt application	3.3 ± 0.5	2.7 ± 0.4	8.9 ± 1.1	8.5 ± 0.9	
Solvent usage in painting	5.9 ± 0.9	4.8 ± 0.5	14.6 ± 0.5	16.4 ± 0.8	
Petrochemical industry	4.9 ± 0.7	3.8 ± 0.4	12.5 ± 0.5	12.8 ± 0.3	

380 **3.3** Contributions of local formation and regional transport to O₃ levels

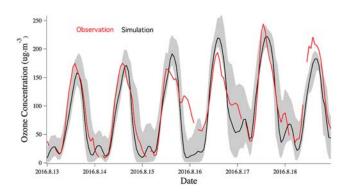
381 To understand the causes of high-O₃ days in Wuhan during the sampling period, the local 382 formation and regional transport of O₃ during the continuous sunny days from August 13 August 383 to 18 August were simulated as a case study with using the WRF-CMAQ model as a case study. 384 One of the high-O3 days (17 August) discussed in section 3.1.2 (August 17) was involved. This 385 case was selected to represent the general characteristics of high-O₃ days during the sampling period, as all the high-O₃ days occurred under similar meteorological conditions (see section 3.1.2). 386 387 The processes influencing O₃ concentration, i.e. advection and diffusion in both the horizontal and 388 vertical directions, the dry deposition, and chemical reactions, were fully considered in the WRF-389 CMAQ model. The model configurations were consistent with those described in Jiang et al. (2010). Figure 4 shows the hourly variations of the simulated and observed O_3 through August 13 390 391 to 18, 2016, in Wuhan. The model well reproduced the observed O₃ in both magnitude and diurnal pattern, with the an index of agreement of 0.79 (Willmott, 1981). 392 393 It is noteworthy that, the WRF-CMAQ overestimated O_3 on <u>August</u> 15-16-<u>August</u>, but 394 underestimated O3 on August 13, 17, and 18 August (Figure 4). The PBM-MCM model 395 overestimated O₃ on August 17, 19, 24, and 31 August (Figure S5). Despite the discrepancies, the modeling results were acceptable, in view of the uncertainties inherent in model simulations. For 396 397 the WRF-CMAQ model, the uncertainty mainly derives from the uncertainty of the emission 398 inventory and the carbon bond chemical mechanisms. Though the PBM-MCM model is near-399 explicit in chemical mechanisms, it does not consider the physical processes. Therefore, it is 400 expected that some differences exist can be expected between the observed O_3 and simulated O_3 401 by for both models. In fact, this discrepancy is common in almost all the studies using that use 402 these chemical transport models and box models (e.g., Gao et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2017; Chen 403 et al., 2018).

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Fig. 4 Time series of simulated and observed O3 concentrations in Wuhan from 00:00 LST,_ August 13-August to 23:00 LST, August 18, August 2016. The grey area defines the lowest and highest simulated O3 at eight8 air quality monitoring stations (AQMSs) surrounding the sampling site. The AQMSs are managed by the China National Environmental Monitoring Centre.

Furthermore, tThe contributions of different processes to O₃ are summarized in Table 3. Overall, the horizontal advection (-1.3 \pm 7.0 ppbv) and diffusion (-0.1 \pm 0.02 ppbv) made negative contributions to O₃ mixing ratios. In addition, 3.4 ± 0.6 ppbv of O₃ was removed through dry deposition. In contrast, O₃ was elevated by 3.9 ± 7.5 and 14.2 ± 1.2 ppbv due to the vertical advection and diffusion, respectively. As the largest contributor to O₃, chemical reactions built up the O₃ mixing ratio by 42.3 ± 6.1 ppbv. It is noteworthy that the chemical reactions indicated the process of local O₃ formation. Since Because advection and diffusion generally represent the transport of air pollutants, the sum of horizontal and vertical advection/diffusion is referred to hereafter as regional transport hereafter (Jiang et al., 2010; Li et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2018). As a 420 result, rRegional transport, local photochemical formation, and dry deposition accounted for 44.4 421 $\pm 5.8\%$, $60.2 \pm 6.1\%$ and $-4.6 \pm 0.5\%$ of the total simulated O₃, respectively. More specifically, the 422 contribution of regional transport (59.1 \pm 9.9%) to nighttime O₃ predominated over local formation 423 $(42.7 \pm 10.1\%)$ (20:00 - 06:00 LST), while daytime O₃ was mainly derived from the local

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424	photochemical formation (74.7 \pm 5.8%), about twice the regional transport (32.2 \pm 5.4%). H
425	<u>T</u> therefore, it would seem was concluded that the high daytime O_3 on high- O_3 days in Wuhan was
426	is primarily attributable to local formation, while regional transport from the east made significant
427	contributions to the-nocturnal O3. In fact, compared to the same time slots on other days, the
428	observed nighttime O ₃ increased by 412 ppbvon <u>August</u> 1517 <u>August</u> (Figure 4), <u>in</u> contrast
429	to the limited nocturnal O_3 production from photochemical reactions and the consumption of O_3
430	by some substances (e.g. NO and alkenes). As such, the increase of nocturnal O3 on these days
431	was-is most likely attributable to regional transport, consistent with the modeling results.
432	Table 3 Factor contributions to the simulated O ₃ during August 13-18, 2016, in Wuhan (Unit:

		ppbv).		
	Average \pm 95%	Maximum	Minimum	Standard deviation
	Confidence			
	Interval			
Horizontal advection	-1.3 ± 7.0	125.0	-111.5	42.7
Vertical advection	3.9 ± 7.5	127.8	-128.3	45.5
Horizontal diffusion	$\textbf{-0.1} \pm 0.02$	0.1	-0.4	0.1
Vertical diffusion	14.2 ± 1.2	36.6	1.5	7.5
Dry deposition	$\textbf{-3.4}\pm0.6$	-0.01	-10.9	3.4
Chemical reactions	42.3 ± 6.1	130.5	-8.0	36.9

433

435 **3.4 Implications for** <u>-on</u>-control strategies

436 To understand the O₃ formation mechanisms, the relationships between O₃ and its precursors 437 were explored using the PBM-MCM model. The O₃ precursors were divided into four groups, 438 namely i.e. anthropogenic volatile organic compounds (AVOCs), BVOCs, CO, and NOxi, then 439 their RIR values were calculated using Eq. 3. According to previous studies (Zhang et al., 2006; Lyu et al., 2016b; Wang et al., 2018), the positive RIR value of VOCs and negative RIR value of 440 441 NO_x indicates VOCs-limited O₃ production in the study area, while the negative RIR value of 442 VOCs and positive RIR value of NOx means that production is NOx-limited. Fig. S6 shows the 443 mean RIR values of O₃ precursors over the high-O₃ and non-high-O₃ days. It was foundindicates

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444 that the average RIR values of VOCs (AVOCs and BVOCs) were positive, while RIR for NO_x was negative, indicating that O₃ formation was limited by VOCs at this site on both high-O₃ days and 445 446 non-high-O₃ days. This means-The implication is that cutting VOCs could reduce O₃ production, while reducing NO_x would lead to O₃ increase. The \underline{A} VOC-limited regime was also identified in 447 rural areas of Delhi, India (Kumar et al., 2017), and in urban and suburban Hong Kong (Lyu et al., 448 449 2016b). However, Lin et al. (2017) indicated that the summertime O_3 pollution in the southeastern 450 U.S. was alleviated by controlling NO_x emissions, indicating the a NO_x-limited regime in O₃ 451 formation. Jin et al. (2017)It also found was also revealed that O₃ production became 452 increasingly sensitive to NO_x in mid-latitude megacities in <u>the</u> northern <u>h</u>Hemisphere (e.g., New 453 York, London, and Seoul) between 2005 and 2015-(Jin et al., 2017). It should be noted that a recent 454 study (McDonald et al., 2018) pointed out the underestimation of VOCs emissions from the 455 volatile chemical products in industrialized cities in the U.S., meaning that the current 456 understandings of O₃ formation mechanisms based on the pre-existing emission inventories might 457 need further verifications. To sum up, the O_3 -VOC-NO_x sensitivity should be investigated case by 458 case. This study expand<u>sed</u> the worldwide database of the O_3 -VOC-NO_x sensitivity to include the 459 situation in developing regions, where NO_x was is on at high levels and might continue to increase 460 if no stringent control strategies were are taken put in place (Jin et al., 2017).

Further, the RIR of AVOCs was much higher than that of BVOCs. <u>NamelyThus</u>, O₃ formation was more sensitive to AVOCs, which should <u>thus</u> be <u>more focusedfocused on</u> in O₃ abatement. In addition, relatively high average RIR value was found for CO, indicating that CO had <u>a</u> positive impact on O₃ formation in Wuhan, <u>in contrast to the findings</u> of Wang et al. (2017), who reported that <u>the</u> RIR value of BVOCs was much higher than CO in summer in Hong Kong.

To further investigate the role of NO_x in O₃ chemistry, the O₃ productions with different levels of NO_x were simulated using the PBM-MCM model. Table S5 shows the mean net O₃ production in the base case with the observed NO_x and in the constrained cases with NO_x being reduced by 10%, 20%, 40%, 60%, 80%, 90%, 95%, and 98%. The observed VOCs were applied to all the cases without any reduction. It was found that with the increase of as NO_x reduction percentages Formatted: Not Highlight

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471 <u>increased</u> from 10% to 95%, the simulated O_3 <u>also</u> increased, <u>by a</u> <u>with the increasing</u> percentage 472 <u>raising rising from within the range of 2% to 78%. This implies The implication is</u> that O_3 formation 473 is limited by VOCs in these cases. However, simulated O_3 decreased significantly when the 474 reduction percentage of NO_x increased from 95% to 98%, indicating that O_3 formation switched 475 to the NO_x-limited regime. The dual roles of NO_x in O_3 formation are is clearly presented in these 476 experiments.

477 SinceBecause VOCs (particularly AVOCs) and NOx are generally co-emitted, it is nearly 478 impossible to only reduce VOC emissions with while NOx remainsing unchanged. Therefore, it is 479 vital to find an appropriate eutting reduction ratio of VOCs/NOx for, to effectively controlling O3 480 pollution. With the aid of the PBM-MCM model, the net O₃ variations were simulated in the 481 scenarios with different $\frac{\text{cutting}}{\text{percentage cuts of in}}$ VOCs and NO_x, based on the measured VOCs 482 and NOx. The positive and negative variations indicated increases and decreases of O3, respectively. 483 Both tThe percentage cuts ineutting percentages of VOCs and NOx were 0 - 50%, with the step 484 ofat 10% intervals. As shown in Fig. S7, the net O3 variation increased non-linearly with the 485 increase of percentage cuts in NOx eutting percentages and decreased with the increase of 486 percentage cuts in VOCs-cutting percentages. This finding was-is consistent with the finding that 487 O₃ formation was occurred in a VOCs-limited regime during the study period in Wuhan. To-For 488 reducinge O3 production, the percentage cutsting percentages of in VOCs and NOx could only be accepted were only considered acceptable when the O₃ variations were nil or negative. According 489 490 to Fig. S7, with the increase of eutting percentage cuts ins of VOCs from 10.0% to 50.0%, the 491 maximum eutting percentage cut ins of NO_x for nil O₃ increment increased from 13.7% to 51.0%, 492 and the ratio of the VOCs percentage cut cutting percentage to NOx percentage cut cutting percentage (termed the as-"VOCs/NOx cutting ratio") increased from 0.73 to 0.98. Therefore, to 493 494 maintain <u>a</u> nil/negative O_3 increment, the VOCs/NO_x cutting ratio should be higher than 0.73, given that VOCs were cut by 10% - 50%. This finding could guide the formulation and 495 implementation of effective O3 control strategies in Wuhan. 496

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498 4. Conclusions

499 In this study, the continuously measured data of speciated VOCs, trace gases, and 500 meteorological parameters in August 2016 at an urban site in Wuhan were analyzed to explore the different characteristics of VOC and O3 pollution between high-O3 and non-high-O3 days. Results 501 indicated that the high temperature, low wind speed, low relative humidity, tropical cyclones, and 502 503 transport of polluted air masses from northern China to Wuhan were favorable for the occurrence 504 of high-O₃ days during the study period. During high-O₃ days, the mixing ratios of O₃, CO₄ and TVOCs were 61.2 ± 7.4 , 987.8 ± 95.4 and 43.9 ± 3.8 ppby, about 40%, 37%, and 33% higher than 505 506 those during non-high-O₃ days (p < 0.01), respectively. However, the levels of NO (Δ NO: ~1 ppbv) and NO₂ (Δ NO₂: ~2 ppbv) were comparable between high-O₃ and non-high-O₃ days (p>0.05). 507

508 Seven VOCs sources were identified:, including gasoline exhaust, diesel and CNG exhausts, 509 stationary combustion, petrochemical industry, solvent usage in painting, asphalt application, and 510 BVOCs. Vehicle exhausts (i.e., gasoline exhaust, diesel and CNG exhausts) made the largest 511 contribution to VOCs and O₃ production during both high-O₃ days ($45.4 \pm 5.2\%$) and non-high-512 O_3 days (37.3 \pm 2.9%). The contributions of vehicle exhausts and stationary combustion to VOCs 513 and O₃ production increased remarkably from non-high-O₃ days to high-O₃ days, suggesting that 514 these sources were the culprit of for elevated O_3 during high- O_3 days. Ozone simulation by using 515 the WRF-CMAQ model indicated that while local formation ($74.7 \pm 5.8\%$) accounted for most of the daytime O_3 , the nighttime O_3 was significantly elevated by regional transport (59.1 \pm 9.9%). 516 517 As indicated by the relationship between O₃ and its precursors, O₃ formation in urban Wuhan was 518 VOC-limited, and the sensitivity of O₃ formation to AVOCs predominated over BVOCs and CO. 519 To effectively control O₃ pollution, the reduction ratio between VOCs and NO_x should be higher 520 than 0.73. In addition, sincebecause VOCs emitted from vehicle exhausts were the main 521 contributors to O₃ production, it is urgent and efficient effective to control vehicle emissions in 522 order toto pursue O3 attainment-reduction in Wuhan. This study fillsed the knowledge gap of 523 concerning the causes of high O3 events in Central China, particularly the characterization of local 524 and regional contributions to the high O3, which would will be of help for O3 study and control in

525 other subtropical regions with moist monsoon climates.

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