



1 **Characteristics and sources of VOCs and the O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs relationships in the central plain city,**  
2 **China**

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10 **Abstract:**

11 Volatile organic compounds (VOCs) are important precursors of ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) generation. Understanding  
12 the characteristics, and emission sources of VOCs, and the relationship between VOCs and O<sub>3</sub> during O<sub>3</sub>  
13 pollution are of great significance for O<sub>3</sub> pollution control. This study investigated the characteristics, sources,  
14 and effects of VOCs on O<sub>3</sub> formation in Zhengzhou, Henan Province from 1<sup>st</sup> to 30<sup>th</sup> June 2023, and provided  
15 recommendations for O<sub>3</sub> emission reduction strategies. Two O<sub>3</sub> pollution events occurred during the  
16 observation period. During the observation period, the concentration of Total VOCs (TVOCs) varied from 9.9  
17 to 60.3 ppbv, with an average of  $22.8 \pm 8.3$  ppbv. The average concentration of TVOCs in the two pollution  
18 events were higher than that on the clean days. Six major VOCs sources were identified by using the Positive  
19 Matrix Factorization model. Vehicular exhaust (28%), solvent usage (27%), and industrial production (22%)  
20 were the main sources. An observation-based mode was applied to explore the O<sub>3</sub>-precursors relationship and  
21 observation-oriented O<sub>3</sub> control strategies. The results of relative incremental reactivity (RIR) and empirical  
22 kinetics modeling approach showed that the O<sub>3</sub> formation in Zhengzhou in June was in anthropogenic VOCs  
23 (AVOCs)-limited regimes. VOCs with the largest RIR values, while NO<sub>x</sub> had a negative RIR value. It was  
24 worth noting that the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> generation to biogenic VOCs (BVOCs) was greater than that of AVOCs.  
25 From the perspective of the reduction effect, the reduction ratios of AVOCs/NO<sub>x</sub> should be no less than 3:1,  
26 which was conducive to the reduction of O<sub>3</sub> formation.

27 **Keywords:** Emission reduction strategies; Positive Matrix Factorization; Relative incremental reactivity; The  
28 observation-based model; Empirical kinetics modeling approach



## 29 **1 Introduction**

30 In recent years, ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) pollution has become increasingly prominent in China, especially in urban  
31 areas (Liu et al., 2023a; Zhao et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2023; Sicard et al., 2020). O<sub>3</sub> pollution has become an  
32 important factor affecting the ambient air quality (Zhang et al., 2023). Volatile organic compounds (VOCs),  
33 as an important precursor of O<sub>3</sub> and secondary organic aerosols, widely exist in the atmospheric environment  
34 and participate in many photochemical reactions, which have an important impact on atmospheric oxidation  
35 capacity and air quality (Zhu et al., 2021). Some VOCs are also air toxics (Billionnet et al., 2011), such as  
36 benzene, trichloroethylene, and chloroform (Lerner et al., 2012). Long-term exposure to higher concentrations  
37 of VOCs can lead to acute or chronic risks (He et al., 2015). Therefore, it is necessary to continue to carry out  
38 VOCs monitoring activities in O<sub>3</sub> pollution areas to analyze O<sub>3</sub> concentration levels, sources, and effects on  
39 O<sub>3</sub> generation.

40 The concentration of VOCs is affected by background concentration, weather conditions (Mo et al., 2015),  
41 emission sources, terrain conditions (Liu et al., 2016), and extent of pollutant transport (Shao et al., 2009). In  
42 addition, under meteorological conditions with higher temperature, VOCs exhibit photochemical losses during  
43 dispersion and regional transport (Zou et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2023a; Liu et al., 2020). As a result, the ambient  
44 VOC concentration of course varies with the locality and season. For example, in typical coastal areas of  
45 Ningbo, the seasonal variation of VOCs concentration was winter > spring > Autumn > summer (Huang et al.,  
46 2023). The coastal areas of Shandong Province had the highest value in winter ( $28.5 \pm 15.1$  ppbv) and the  
47 lowest value in autumn ( $14.5 \pm 7.6$  ppbv) (Huang et al., 2023). The average summer TVOCs concentration in  
48 the suburbs of Jinan ( $12.0 \pm 5.1$  ppbv) (Liu et al., 2023c) was lower than that in the suburbs of Beijing  
49 ( $18.3 \pm 8.9$  ppb), and much lower than that in the central city of Beijing ( $44.0 \pm 28.9$  ppbv) (Wu et al., 2023).  
50 The average TVOCs concentration ( $21.7$  ppbv) in the O<sub>3</sub> pollution period in Tianjin is 12% higher than that  
51 in the non-O<sub>3</sub> pollution period (Liu et al., 2023a).

52 VOCs are emitted from various sources including anthropogenic sources and biogenic sources (Chameides  
53 et al., 1992) as well as secondary generation through photochemical reactions (Yuan et al., 2012). The main  
54 sources of VOCs include motor vehicle emissions, industrial processes, solvent usage, fuel evaporation,  
55 combustion, and biogenic emissions (Wu et al., 2016; Prendez et al., 2013; Watson et al., 2001). Biogenic  
56 emission is mainly affected by temperature and radiation conditions (Li et al., 2020). Biogenic emissions are  
57 therefore higher during hotter months, especially in summer (Pacifico et al., 2009; Xu et al., 2023). Urban  
58 areas are greatly affected by anthropogenic sources (Zhang et al., 2023; Goldstein and Galbally, 2007). In  
59 different regions, the main contribution sources of VOCs are different. For example, the main anthropogenic



60 VOCs (AVOCs) sources in the Yangtze River Delta region of China are vehicle and solvent evaporation (Xu  
61 et al., 2023). The Pearl River Delta region is mainly affected by solvent use, liquefied petroleum gas use, and  
62 vehicle exhaust. Atmospheric VOCs in Beijing are greatly affected by motor vehicle emission sources and  
63 combustion sources (Liu et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020). Huang et al. (2023) reported that plastic synthesis,  
64 industrial processes, organic solvents, dyeing, traffic emissions, and pesticides were identified as the main  
65 sources of VOCs in Ningbo City in the coastal area (Liu et al., 2023b). Since different emission sources have  
66 different contributions to VOCs and thus have different impacts on the generation of O<sub>3</sub> (Zhang et al., 2023),  
67 it is necessary to investigate the sources of VOCs in different cities.

68 Designing a reasonable and effective precursor emission control strategy is crucial to control the  
69 photochemical generation of O<sub>3</sub> (Yang et al., 2021). The relationship between O<sub>3</sub> and precursors is nonlinear  
70 (Chameides et al., 1992), and precursor emission reduction strategies need to be dynamically adjusted based  
71 on the actual sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> formation (Chu et al., 2023; Lin et al., 2005). The observation-based model  
72 (OBM) is a widely used tool to analyze O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity (Zhang et al., 2008; Nelson et al., 2021;  
73 Cardelino and Chameides, 1995). Several studies in China have analyzed the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> to precursors  
74 and control scenarios. For example, O<sub>3</sub> in the central area of the Yangtze River Delta is in a VOCs-limited  
75 regimes, and AVOCs play a leading role in the formation of O<sub>3</sub> (Liu et al., 2023b). Chengdu is in a typical  
76 VOCs restricted area, so VOCs emission reduction helps to prevent and control O<sub>3</sub> pollution, and the emission  
77 reduction scenario based on VOCs source showed that the emission reduction ratio of VOCs to NO<sub>2</sub> needs to  
78 reach more than 3 to achieve prevention of O<sub>3</sub> pollution (Chen et al., 2022b). Xie et al. (2021) found that  
79 controlling AVOCs in Leshan, a non-provincial capital city in southwest China, can effectively reduce the  
80 photochemical generation of O<sub>3</sub>, and pointed out that the best emission reduction strategy for VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>  
81 should be 3:1. In addition, the generation of O<sub>3</sub> in areas such as Shanghai (Lu et al., 2023), Rizhao (Zhang et  
82 al., 2023), and Nanjing (Mozaffar et al., 2021) is generally limited by VOCs. However, in the United States  
83 and European countries, O<sub>3</sub> formation gradually transitioned from VOCs-limited regime to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited  
84 regime (Nopmongcol et al., 2012; Ring et al., 2018; Goldberg et al., 2016).

85 Zhengzhou is the capital city of Henan Province and an important transportation hub in China. High  
86 population density levels, large vehicle ownership (MPS, 2022) and complex industrial structures determine  
87 the complexity of VOCs emission sources. In recent years, Zhengzhou's O<sub>3</sub> pollution has increasingly  
88 intensified, becoming one of the cities with the highest O<sub>3</sub> pollution in central China (Wang et al., 2023b; Min  
89 et al., 2022). From 2020 to 2022, the annual 90th percentile of the mean daily maximum 8 h average O<sub>3</sub> (O<sub>3</sub>-  
90 8H-90per) published by Zhengzhou Ecological Environment Bureau were 182, 177 and 178 μg/m<sup>3</sup>,



91 respectively, which were 10% to 13% higher than the National Ambient Air Quality Grade II Standard (160  
92  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ) (<https://sthjj.zhengzhou.gov.cn/>, last access: June, 2023). Some studies have analyzed the  
93 concentration levels, sources, and impact of VOCs on  $\text{O}_3$  in Zhengzhou (Zeng et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2023b;  
94 Min et al., 2022). Wang et al. (2022) analyzed the sensitivity of  $\text{O}_3$  to precursors and found that in July with  
95 low  $\text{O}_3$  levels in Zhengzhou,  $\text{O}_3$  formation was in a VOCs-limited state, while on  $\text{O}_3$  pollution accumulation  
96 and persistence days,  $\text{O}_3$  formation was in a transitional state. Yu et al. (2021) showed that Zhengzhou was  
97 under a VOCs-sensitive regime in September. The above studies all show that it is important to study the  
98 emission reduction of precursors to control  $\text{O}_3$  generation. However, there is still a lack of relevant research  
99 on June, the month with the heaviest  $\text{O}_3$  pollution in Zhengzhou. In order to effectively solve the increasingly  
100 serious trend of  $\text{O}_3$  pollution in Zhengzhou, it is necessary to give priority to and strengthen the research of  
101 Zhengzhou area, especially during the period of high  $\text{O}_3$  pollution. Therefore, it is necessary to continue to  
102 pay attention to the pollution levels of  $\text{O}_3$  and precursors in Zhengzhou and further explore the relationship  
103 between them.

104 In this study, we conducted an online measurement of VOCs in June, when  $\text{O}_3$  pollution was severe in  
105 Zhengzhou. The concentration, composition, and diurnal variation of VOCs in the atmosphere were analyzed.  
106 The main sources of VOCs were discussed by using ratio method and Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF)  
107 model. OBM was used to analyze the sensitivity of  $\text{O}_3$ -VOCs- $\text{NO}_x$  and consequently the emission reduction  
108 strategy of precursors to control  $\text{O}_3$  concentration was proposed. This study establishes a collaborative control  
109 strategy for atmospheric VOCs, which is of great significance for the control of atmospheric  $\text{O}_3$  pollution in  
110 Zhengzhou.

## 111 **2. Materials and methods**

### 112 **2.1 Sampling site**

113 The monitoring site is on the roof (about 20 m above ground) of the building at Zhengzhou Environmental  
114 Protection Monitoring Centre Station (34.75° N, 113.60° E) (Fig. S1). The sampling site is surrounded by  
115 residential areas, commercial areas, and office buildings, and there are no obvious atmospheric pollution  
116 sources nearby, which is a typical urban site. The sampling site is surrounded by roads and vegetation, and the  
117 sampling may be affected by motor vehicle emissions and plant emissions.

### 118 **2.2 Sample collection and chemical analysis**

119 115 VOCs species concentrations were observed with a gas chromatography-mass spectrometer, GC-MS  
120 (TH-PKU 300B, Wuhan Tianhong Instrument, China), which adopted detection technology of ultralow-  
121 temperature preconcentration combined with GC-MS/ flame ionization detector. Details of the device can be



122 found in our previous study (Zhang et al., 2021). Also the study conducted the simultaneous online  
 123 measurements of hourly concentrations of particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>), other trace gases (CO, O<sub>3</sub>, NO,  
 124 and SO<sub>2</sub>), and meteorological data (temperature (T), relative humidity (RH), atmospheric pressure, and wind  
 125 speed (WS) and wind direction (WD).

### 126 2.3 PMF model

127 The PMF 5.0 is an advanced multivariate factor analysis tool (USEPA, 2014), which can be used to identify  
 128 the sources of VOCs (Norris et al., 2014). PMF model is expressed as follows:

$$129 \quad X_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij} \quad (1)$$

130 where,  $i, j$ , and  $k$  represent the  $i^{\text{th}}$  sample, the  $j^{\text{th}}$  chemical species, and the  $k^{\text{th}}$  factor, respectively;  $X$  represents  
 131 the chemical species concentration measured in the sample;  $g$  is the species contribution;  $f$  is the species  
 132 fraction; and  $e$  is the residual matrix.

133 The number of factors is obtained by minimizing objective residual function  $Q$ : as follows:

$$134 \quad Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \left[ \frac{X_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj}}{u_{ij}} \right]^2 \quad (2)$$

135 Where  $\mu^{ij}$  is the sample data uncertainty.

136 The sample data uncertainty is calculated by Equations (3) and (4). If the data concentration is less than  
 137 method detection limit (MDL), Equation (3) is used. Otherwise, Equation (4) is used.

$$138 \quad \text{Unc} = \frac{5}{6} \times \text{MDL} \quad (3)$$

$$139 \quad \text{Unc} = \sqrt{(\text{Error Fraction} \times \text{concentration})^2 + (0.5 \times \text{MDL})^2} \quad (4)$$

140 where Error Fraction represent the precision (%) of each species;

141 Species with high proportions of missing samples or concentration values more than 25% below MDLs  
 142 were excluded, while VOCs serving as typical tracers of emission sources were included (USEPA, 2014), and  
 143 VOCs with short atmospheric lifetimes were excluded (Callén et al., 2014; Guo et al., 2011). In this study, 29  
 144 out of 115 VOCs collected over the sampling period was analyzed by the PMF model. In this study, a seven-  
 145 factor solution ( $Q_{\text{true}}/Q_{\text{theoretical}} = 3.42$ ; and  $F_{\text{peak}} = 0$ ) was chosen (Fig. S2).

### 146 2.4 Conditional bivariate probability function analysis

147 The conditional probability function (CPF) is a new source identification tool, which can be used to  
 148 identify local emission sources of pollutants (Xie and Berkowitz, 2006). CPF analysis methods were used to



149 locate the possible direction of different pollutants in this study. The CPF is defined as (Song et al., 2007):

$$150 \quad \text{CPF} = \frac{m_{\Delta\theta}}{n_{\Delta\theta}} \quad (7)$$

151 Where  $\Delta\theta$  is the wind sector  $\Delta\theta$ ;  $m_{\Delta\theta}$ , the number of samples; and  $n_{\Delta\theta}$  is the total number of samples in the  
152 WD-WS.

### 153 2.5 OBM

154 OBM based on the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM v3.3.1; <http://mcm.leeds.ac.uk/MCM/>) was  
155 employed to estimate the effect of changes of what in O<sub>3</sub> precursors (Liu et al., 2022). Detailed information  
156 about OBM can be viewed in previous studies (Chu et al., 2023; Ling et al., 2011). Briefly, OBM assumes  
157 a good mix of emitted pollutants and is independent of emission inventories and meteorological data,  
158 combined with atmospheric chemical mechanisms, simulates the O<sub>3</sub> production rate and the corresponding O<sub>3</sub>  
159 concentration at a given time (Kleinman, 2000; Qiao et al., 2023). The relative incremental reactivity (RIR)  
160 was computed through OBM to evaluate the sensitivity of the photochemical production of O<sub>3</sub> to changes in  
161 the concentration of individual precursors within a given region (Ling et al., 2013; Cardelino and Chameides,  
162 2000), which can be calculated from Eq. (8):

$$163 \quad \text{RIR}(X) = \frac{[P_{O_3}(X) - P_{O_3}(X - \Delta X)]/P_{O_3}(X)}{\Delta S(X)/S(X)} \quad (8)$$

164 where X is the specific precursor of O<sub>3</sub>;  $P_{O_3}(X)$  and  $P_{O_3}(X - \Delta X)$  are the net production of O<sub>3</sub> simulated by  
165 the OBM; and  $\Delta S(X)/S(X)$  is the change in the concentration of S(X). The large change in primary pollutants  
166 (>20%) deviates greatly from the base scenario and is not representative of the current situation. Therefore,  
167 the concentration changes of  $\Delta S(X)/S(X)$  were assumed to be 20%. In this study, the S for AVOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>  
168 were reduced by 0-100%. The relative change of  $P_{O_3}(X)$  with S(AVOCs) and S(NO<sub>x</sub>) can be expressed by  
169 the isogram of  $P_{O_3}(X)$ .

170 The concentrations of, trace gases (SO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, CO, and NO), and meteorological parameters (T, RH, and  
171 WS) with 1 h time resolution were used as constraints in this model. At the same time, the concentrations of  
172 75 VOCs observed with 1 h time were selected for input into the model because these 75 VOCs were included  
173 in MCM v3.3.1. The photolysis frequency (J(H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>), J(O<sub>1</sub>D)) and planetary boundary layer are the default  
174 values. Then, the differential equation is calculated with a time resolution of 1 h, and the mixing proportion  
175 of various photochemical reaction products, intermediates and free radicals can be obtained.

176 To evaluate the performance of this model, the consistency index (IOA) was used in this study (Huang et  
177 al., 2005):

$$178 \quad \text{IOA} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - M_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (|O_i - \bar{O}| + |M_i - \bar{M}|)^2} \quad (9)$$



179 where  $O_i$ ,  $M_i$ , and  $\bar{O}$  represent the hourly values of observation, the simulation, and the average of  
180 observations, respectively. The IOA values for  $O_3$  was 0.6 in this study, indicating the acceptable performance  
181 of this model.

## 182 **3 Results and discussions**

### 183 **3.1 General characteristics**

#### 184 **3.1.1 VOCs concentrations and composition**

185 According to the Chinese National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS), the grade II threshold of the  
186 maximum daily 8-h average (MDA8) of  $O_3$  was  $160 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  ( $\sim 75$  ppbv). Two  $O_3$  pollution events were found  
187 over  $160 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , which were named case 1 (8<sup>th</sup>-17<sup>th</sup> Jun.) and case 2 (20<sup>th</sup>-27<sup>th</sup> Jun.). Meanwhile, there were  
188 also  $O_3$  pollution events on 6<sup>th</sup> Jun. and 29<sup>th</sup>-30<sup>th</sup> Jun., but were not discussed in this study due to the short  
189 pollution process. The rest of the observation periods were clean days. Figure. 1 shows the time series of the  
190 concentration of TVOCs,  $O_3$  8-h moving average,  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ , CO, and meteorological parameters (WD,  
191 WS, T, and RH) from 1<sup>st</sup> to 30<sup>th</sup> June 2023. The gray areas in Fig. 1 are  $O_3$  pollution events, and the remaining  
192 areas are non-polluting processes (clean days). During the observation,  $O_3$  polluted days were 22 days,  
193 accounting for 73%.

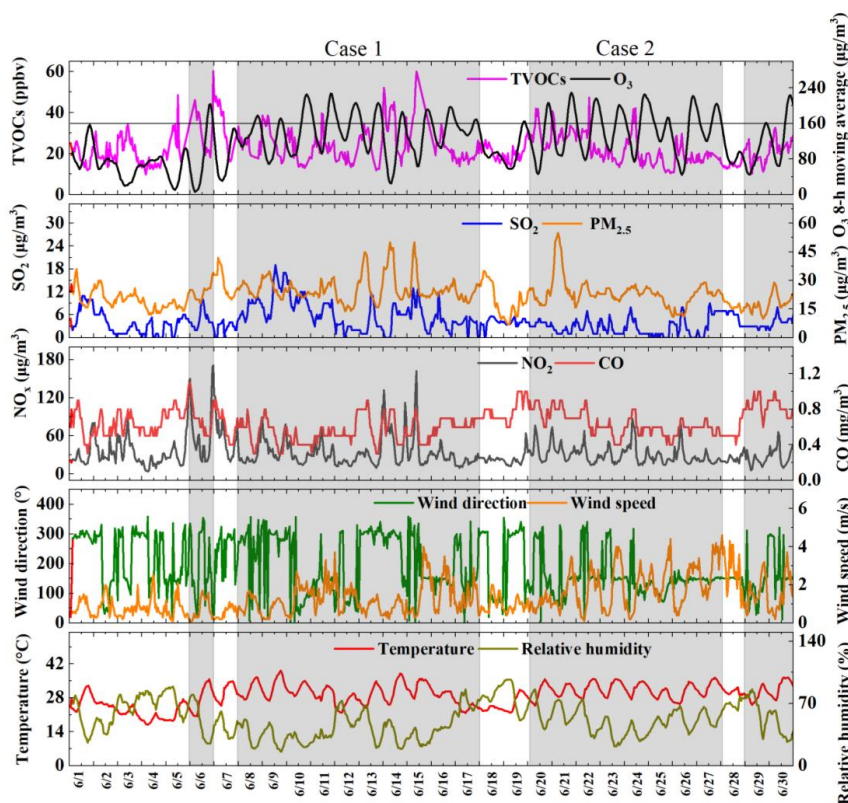
194 During the observation period, the average wind speed ( $1.3 \pm 0.9$  m/s) was relatively low, which was not  
195 conducive to the dispersion. The mean RH ( $52 \pm 19\%$ ) was low, and the mean temperature ( $28.9 \pm 4.6$  °C)  
196 was high. The meteorological conditions of high temperature and low humidity were conducive to the  
197 occurrence of photochemical pollution. The maximum daily 8-h moving average (MDA8) of  $O_3$  reaching 229  
198  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . The mean concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ , CO,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  were  $4.4 \pm 3.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ,  $26.5 \pm 17.9 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ,  
199  $0.6 \pm 0.2 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ ,  $59.6 \pm 26.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and  $22.9 \pm 7.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , respectively. All of them were lower than the  
200 ambient air quality standard value. The average concentration of TVOCs was  $22.8 \pm 8.3$  ppbv.

201 During the Case 1 process,  $O_3$  pollution continued for 10 days. The average RH and temperature were 41  
202  $\pm 16\%$  and  $29.9 \pm 4.1$  °C, respectively, and the average WS was  $1.3 \pm 0.8$  m/s. The concentration of MDA8  
203  $O_3$  reached a maximum of  $228 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  (June 11) during the pollution period, which was higher than the grade  
204 II threshold of MDA8  $O_3$ . In Case 1, the mean concentrations of  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_2$ , CO,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  were  $6.1 \pm$   
205  $4.1 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ,  $27.4 \pm 19.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ,  $0.6 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ ,  $69.1 \pm 31.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  and  $25.6 \pm 6.8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , respectively. The  
206 average concentration of TVOCs during this process was  $24.1 \pm 8.9$  ppbv. In Case 2,  $O_3$  pollution occurred  
207 continuously for 8 days. The average RH and average temperature were  $50 \pm 14\%$  and  $31.2 \pm 2.9$  °C. The  
208 average concentrations of TVOCs ( $22.5 \pm 7.4$  ppbv),  $\text{SO}_2$  ( $2.7 \pm 2.1 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ ),  $\text{NO}_2$  ( $24.9 \pm 12.3 \text{ mg}/\text{m}^3$ ), CO



209  $(0.6 \pm 0.1 \text{ mg/m}^3)$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$  ( $61 \pm 19 \text{ mg/m}^3$ ), and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  ( $24 \pm 7 \text{ mg/m}^3$ ) in Case 2 were all lower than those in  
 210 Case 1 process.

211 The average RH ( $65 \pm 17\%$ ) on clean days was higher than those during Case1 and Case2 events, while  
 212 the average temperature ( $26.0 \pm 4.8 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ) was lower than those during Case1 and Case2 events. High  
 213 temperature and low humidity are more conducive to  $\text{O}_3$  pollution (Chen et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2015). In  
 214 addition to  $\text{SO}_2$  and CO, the average concentration of TVOCs,  $\text{NO}_2$ ,  $\text{PM}_{10}$ , and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  was lower than that of  
 215 the  $\text{O}_3$  pollution processes.



216  
 217 **Fig. 1.** Hourly concentrations of TVOCs,  $\text{O}_3$  8-h moving average,  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ , CO, and meteorological  
 218 parameters (WD, WS, T, and RH) during the sampling period (gray regions represent  $\text{O}_3$  pollution processes).

219 The means and standard deviations of VOCs groups during different processes were listed in Table 1.  
 220 During the entire period, the concentration of TVOCs varied from 10 to 60 ppbv, with an average mean of  
 221  $23.0 \pm 8.0$  ppbv. A similar level of VOCs concentration was observed between Case 1 ( $24.0 \pm 9.0$  ppbv) and  
 222 Case 2 ( $23.0 \pm 7.0$  ppbv). The TVOCs concentrations on clean days were relatively low ( $21 \pm 7$  ppbv).  
 223 Furthermore, nearly all VOCs groups in  $\text{O}_3$  pollution events were higher than those on clean days.

224 As for the entire sampling period, alkanes ( $10.0 \pm 4.4$  ppbv), OVOs ( $4.5 \pm 1.3$  ppbv), and halocarbons  
 225 ( $4.3 \pm 1.9$  ppbv) were the most abundant VOC groups, accounting for 44, 20 and 19% of the TVOCs,





226 respectively, followed by alkenes (9%), aromatics (5%), alkenes (5%), OVOCs (7%), alkyne (7%) and sulfide  
 227 (1%). During the two O<sub>3</sub> pollution events, alkanes being the highest VOCs group contributed 41% (Case 1),  
 228 and 43% (Case 2) to the TVOCs, respectively. Alkanes were the most abundant VOCs during the observation  
 229 period, in part due to the presence of alkanes emission sources around the observation site (e.g., civilian  
 230 combustion and motor vehicle emissions) and the low photochemical reactivity of alkanes (Mozaffar et al.,  
 231 2020). Even if on clean days, alkanes (9.6 ± 3.9 ppbv) were also the highest group (46%), and halocarbons  
 232 (19%) and OVOCs (19%) were another two major groups.

233

234 **Table 1.** Concentrations of VOCs during different processes in Zhengzhou, ppbv.

Species	Entire period (n = 652)		Case 1 Jun. 8 - 17 (n = 201)		Case 2 Jun. 20 - 27 (n = 184)		Clean days (n = 224)	
	Range	Average ± SD	Range	Average ± SD	Range	Average ± SD	Range	Average ± SD
Alkanes	3.6 - 30.7	10.0 ± 4.4	4.2 - 28.3	10.0 ± 4.6	3.6 - 24.6	9.6 ± 4.1	4.6 - 22.2	9.6 ± 3.9
Alkenes	0.4 - 10.7	2.0 ± 1.2	0.6 - 10.7	1.9 ± 1.2	0.6 - 10.7	2.5 ± 1.4	0.4 - 4.0	1.7 ± 0.7
Aromatics	0.3 - 5.0	1.1 ± 0.7	0.4 - 4	1.2 ± 0.8	0.3 - 3.1	1.1 ± 0.6	0.3 - 4.4	1.1 ± 0.6
Halocarbons	1.8 - 31.1	4.3 ± 1.9	2.0 - 10.6	4.5 ± 1.8	2.2 - 8.8	4.2 ± 1.4	1.8 - 31.1	3.9 ± 2.2
OVOCs	1.8 - 9.7	4.5 ± 1.3	3.4 - 9.7	5.3 ± 1.2	2.0 - 8.1	4.4 ± 1.1	1.8 - 8.6	3.9 ± 1.2
Sulfide	0.0 - 1.5	0.1 ± 0.2	0.0 - 1.5	0.2 ± 0.3	0.0 - 0.5	0.1 ± 0.1	0.0 - 1.0	0.1 ± 0.1
Alkyne	0.1 - 3.7	1.1 ± 0.6	0.2 - 3.2	1.1 ± 0.6	0.2 - 3.2	1.0 ± 0.5	0.1 - 3.7	1.0 ± 0.7
TVOCs	9.9 - 60.3	22.8 ± 8.3	0 - 60.0	24.1 ± 8.9	10.5 - 47.3	22.5 ± 7.4	9.9 - 48.5	20.8 ± 7.2

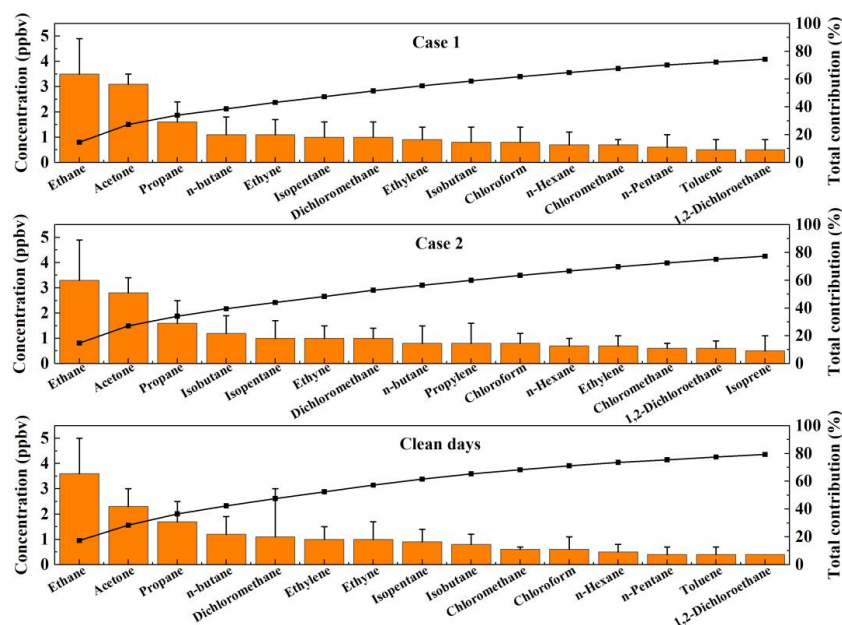
235

n: Total sampling numbers for each period

236 Figure 2 illustrates the top fifteen VOCs species during two O<sub>3</sub> pollution events and clean days. Ethane,  
 237 propane, n-butane, isopentane, isobutane, n-hexane, and n-pentane were the most abundant of the alkanes  
 238 during each of the entire observation period. Ethane is a major component of natural gas (NG) (Thijsse et al.,  
 239 1999), propane, n-butane, and isobutane are important tracers of liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) (Tsai et al.,  
 240 2006; An et al., 2014). N-hexane is mainly from solvent emissions. Ethylene, propylene, and isoprene were  
 241 the most abundant of the alkenes. Ethylene and propylene mainly come from biomass burning (Andreae and  
 242 Merlet, 2001). Isoprene mainly comes from plants (Brown et al., 2007). Acetylene also had a high level, which  
 243 is the tracer of incomplete combustion (Blake and Rowland, 1995). Benzene and toluene were the most  
 244 abundant of the aromatics, which are mainly from solvent emissions, vehicular exhaust, and industry processes  
 245 (Seila et al., 2001; Mo et al., 2015). Dichloromethane was the most abundant species of the halohydrocarbons,  
 246 which is an important species in solvent usage (Huang et al., 2014). The acetone was the most abundant species  
 247 in OVOCs, which has complex atmospheric sources and is mainly attributed to vehicular emission and  
 248 secondary formation (Guo et al., 2013; Watson et al., 2001). The concentration of acetone in the two pollution  
 249 processes was significantly higher than that in the clean day as also reported by others (Guo et al., 2013),



250 indicating that the pollution process had a strong photochemical reaction e.g., photo-oxidation of i-butene to  
 251 acetone (Guo et al., 2013). Therefore, vehicle exhaust, solvent use, combustion, biogenic emission, and  
 252 industrial processes are important sources of VOCs at observation sites, as also illustrated in the following  
 253 PMF source apportionment.



254  
 255 **Fig. 2.** Comparisons of the top fifteen VOCs during different processes, ppbv. Error bars are standard  
 256 deviations.

### 257 3.1.2 Diurnal variations of VOCs, O<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub>

258 The concentration characteristics of pollutants in the atmosphere are affected by the atmospheric boundary  
 259 layer variation pattern, photochemical reaction intensity, and emission of pollution sources (Wang et al.,  
 260 2023a). Major VOCs, O<sub>3</sub>, and NO<sub>x</sub> were selected, and their daily changes were analyzed, as shown in Fig. S3.  
 261 The diurnal variation of O<sub>3</sub> concentration shows unimodal characteristics. During the day, with the increase  
 262 in temperature and light intensity, the concentration of O<sub>3</sub> gradually increased and reached a peak at about  
 263 14:00, and then the concentration gradually decreased. Higher O<sub>3</sub> production during the day indicates a strong  
 264 photochemical reaction. The diurnal variation of ethane, propane, isobutane, n-butane, isopentane, n-pentane,  
 265 ethylene, propylene, acetylene, benzene, and toluene were similar, showing low concentrations in the daytime  
 266 and high concentrations in the evening. This is associated with a higher boundary layer and strong  
 267 photochemical reactions during the day (Tang et al., 2007). The elevated boundary layer is conducive to the  
 268 dispersion of VOCs and other pollutants (Bon et al., 2011; Chen et al., 2022a), while the strong photochemical  
 269 reaction will consume VOCs (Xia et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2018). In addition, the peak concentration of these



270 VOCs appeared in the morning and evening (7:00-8:00 and 23:00-24:00), and the daily change was consistent  
271 with  $\text{NO}_x$ , indicating that the emission of these VOCs was greatly affected by motor vehicle emissions and  
272 fuel combustion. Higher VOCs and  $\text{NO}_x$  concentrations at night may be caused by heavy traffic emissions for  
273 traditional nighttime activities in the city. Isoprene is a typical tracer of plant emissions, which are highly  
274 dependent on temperature and solar radiation (Pacífico et al., 2009). Therefore, the concentration of isoprene  
275 increases significantly during the day (7:00-20:00) and decreases significantly at night. It is worth noting that  
276 the concentration of isoprene showed a bimodal characteristic. Two peaks occur at 10:00 AM and 15:00 PM  
277 (local standard time). Previous studies have shown that the rate at which plants emit isoprene decreases when  
278 temperatures exceed 40 °C (Guenther et al., 1993). Therefore, the drop in isoprene concentrations seen at noon  
279 may be due to excessive temperatures affecting biogenic emissions. Acetone is a common VOC and comes  
280 from a wide range of sources, mainly from vehicle emissions, industrial production, and secondary formation  
281 (Sha et al., 2021). Acetone remained in high concentration throughout the day, and there was no obvious  
282 diurnal variation, suggesting that there might be primary acetone sources near the site, which concealed the  
283 acetone peak at the daytime produced by photochemical reaction (Guo et al., 2013). Dichloromethane mainly  
284 comes from solvent use, and its high concentration was mainly concentrated at night (23:00-5:00), which  
285 might be related to the longer atmospheric lifetime of dichloromethane and the lower boundary layer height  
286 at night (Li et al., 2018; Chen et al., 2022a).

### 287 **3.2 Sources of VOCs**

#### 288 **3.2.1 Diagnostic ratios**

289 Ratios of specific VOCs can be used to assess the initial emission source of VOCs or the degree of  
290 photochemical reaction (Miller et al., 2012; An et al., 2014). The ratios of isobutane/n-butane, toluene/benzene  
291 (T/B), and m-p-xylene/ethylbenzene (X/E) are discussed in this study (Fig. 3).

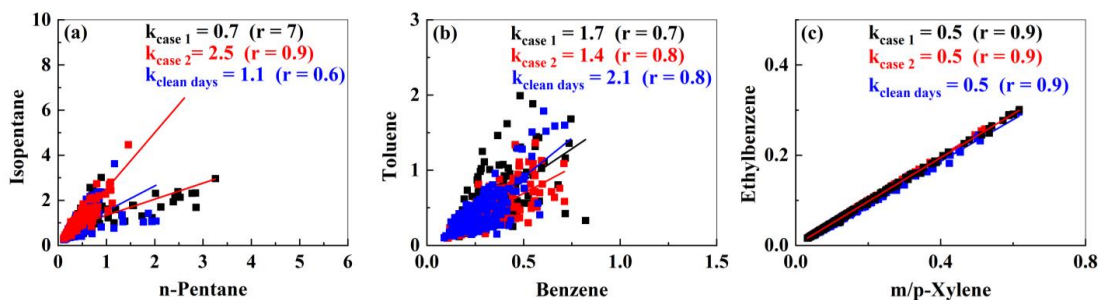
292 In Case 1, Case 2, and clean days, the Pearson coefficients of isopentane and n-pentane were 0.7, 0.94,  
293 and 0.6, respectively, indicating a strong correlation that the two substances had a common emission source.  
294 Isopentane/n-pentane ratios of 0.8-0.9, 2.2-3.8, 1.5-3.0 and 1.8-4.6 (Fig. 3a), indicate that isopentane and n-  
295 pentane come from natural NG, vehicle emissions, liquid gasoline, and fuel evaporation, respectively (Zhang  
296 et al., 2016; An et al., 2014). In this study, the ratios of case 1, case 2, and clean days were 0.7, 2.5, and 1.1,  
297 respectively. It suggests that isopentane and n-pentane may come from NG emissions, vehicular exhaust, and  
298 liquid gasoline, respectively.

299 The T/B ratio can be used to distinguish between coal and biomass combustion (0.2-0.6), motor vehicle  
300 emissions (~2.0) (Liu et al., 2008), industrial processes (3.0-6.9) (Zhang et al., 2016) and fuel evaporation



301 (~4.1) (Dai et al., 2013). In this study, the T/B ratio of the two O<sub>3</sub> pollution events was 1.7 and 1.4 (Fig. 3b),  
 302 respectively, indicating that combustion and vehicle emissions were the main sources of benzene and toluene  
 303 emissions (Hong et al., 2019).

304 Since m/p-xylene and ethylbenzene share a common source, but differ from the OH radical reaction rate  
 305 constant, X/E can be used to determine the photochemical age of air masses and the transport path (Miller et  
 306 al., 2012; Yurdakul et al., 2018). During the pollution events and clean days, m, p-xylene, and ethylbenzene  
 307 showed a strong positive correlation ( $r = 0.9$ ) (Fig. 3c), indicating that m/p-xylene and ethylbenzene came  
 308 from a common emission source. Previous studies have shown that VOCs are transported from inner urban  
 309 areas when the E/X ratio is 0.3-0.4, and VOCs are transported from distant sources when the ratio is  
 310 significantly higher than 0.3 (Monod et al., 2001). In this study, the E/X ratios of the two pollution events and  
 311 clean days were 0.5, indicating that the air mass measured at the observation point was affected by air mass  
 312 transport.



313

314 **Fig. 3.** Correlations ( $k = \text{slope}$ ) between compounds with different observation periods.

### 315 3.2.2 Source apportionment

316 In this study, EPA PMF5.0 was used to analyze the source profile and species percentage of each source  
 317 during the observation period to determine the relative contribution of each potential source, as shown in Fig.  
 318 4. Seven factors were determined by the model, namely combustion, industrial production, biogenic emission,  
 319 vehicular exhaust, LPG/NG, solvent use 1, and solvent use 2. Detailed analysis is followed.

320 Factor 1 was characterized by high percentages of acetylene (76%), ethane, propane, ethylene benzene,  
 321 and toluene. Acetylene is a typical tracer of coal burning (Barletta et al., 2005). Ethane, propane, and ethylene  
 322 are typically tracers of incomplete combustion (Guo et al., 2011; Ling et al., 2011). Therefore, Factor 1 was  
 323 classified as combustion. The CPF plots indicate that the contributing direction was northwest at about 2 m/s  
 324 (Fig. S4a).

325 Factor 2 was rich in C4-C6 alkanes, aromatics, (toluene, ethylbenzene, m/p-Xylene, o-xylene, and 1,2,4-  
 326 trimethylbenzene, and halocarbons (1, 2-dichloroethane and 1, 2-dichloropropane). Previous studies have



327 shown that these species were all related to industrial production. Therefore, Factor 2 was classified as  
328 industrial production. The CPF plots indicated that a local source under a low wind speed of  $< 1$  m/s was the  
329 dominant source (Fig. S4b).

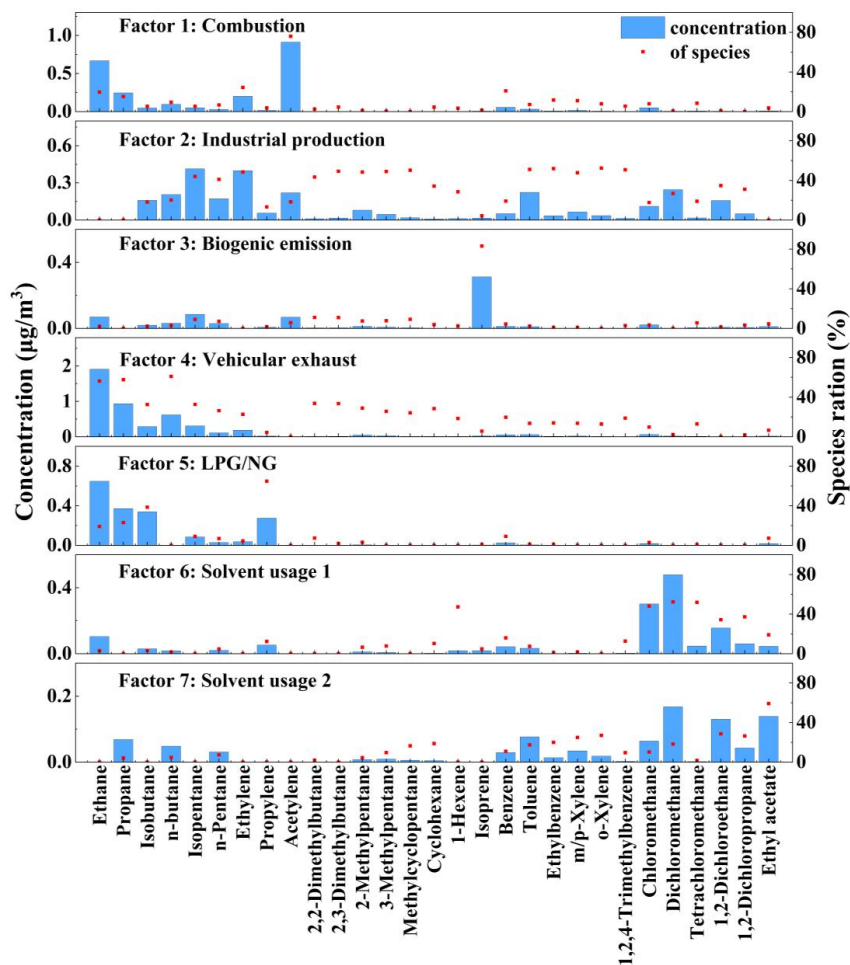
330 Factor 3 was characterized by high percentages (83%) of isoprene, a typical tracer of biogenic emission  
331 (Brown et al., 2007). The high temperature and strong radiation in summer are more conducive to the biogenic  
332 emission of isoprene (Liu et al., 2016). Therefore, Factor 3 was classified as a biogenic emission. The CPF  
333 plots indicated that the southwest was the dominant source direction under wind speeds below 2 m/s (Fig.  
334 S4c).

335 Factor 4 was characterized by high percentages of C2-C6 alkanes (such as ethane, propane, isobutane, n-  
336 butane, isopentane, n-pentane, 2, 2-dimethylbutane, and 2, 3-dimethylbutane), benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene,  
337 and m/p-xylene), which are related to vehicular emission (Jorquera and Rappenglück, 2004; Song et al., 2007;  
338 Chen et al., 2014). Therefore, Factor 4 was classified as vehicular exhaust. The CPF plots indicated that a local  
339 source under a low wind speed was the dominant source, which might be related to the large amount of traffic  
340 on the main roads in the southern and western directions direction (Fig. S4d).

341 Factor 5 was characterized by high percentages of ethane, propane, isobutane, and propylene, which are  
342 the main components of LPG/NG (Shao et al., 2016; Song et al., 2007; Na et al., 2001). Therefore, Factor 5  
343 was classified as LPG/NG source. The CPF plots showed the dominant source directions of this factor were  
344 east at 1-2 m/s (Fig. S4e).

345 Factor 6 was characterized by high percentages of chloromethane, dichloromethane, tetrachloromethane,  
346 1,2-dichloroethane, 1,2-dichloropropane, ethyl acetate, which are typical solvents for industrial applications  
347 (Li et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2014). Therefore, Factor 6 was assigned to solvent usage 1. The CPF plots of  
348 this factor indicated that the northeast and southeast were the dominant directions (Fig. S4f).

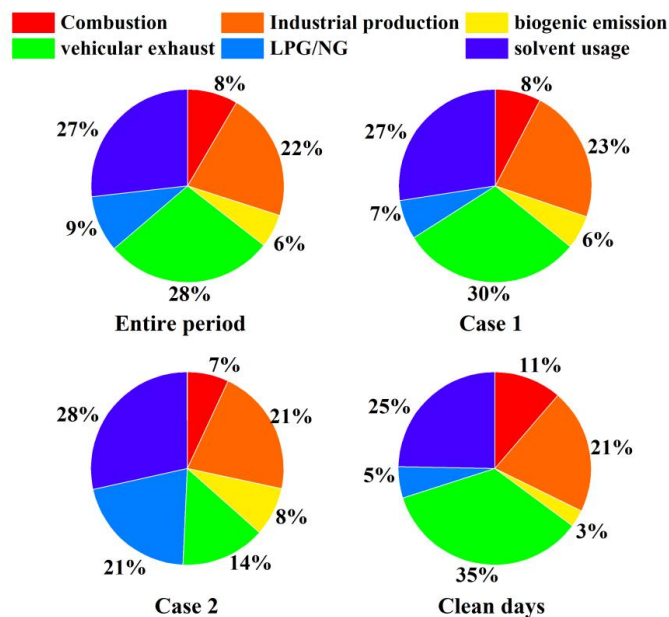
349 The Factor 7 was dominated by methylcyclopentane, cyclohexane, TEXs (Toluene, Ethylbenzene, m/p-  
350 Xylene, and o-Xylene), 1,2-Dichloroethane, 1,2-Dichloropropane, and Ethyl acetate. Methylcyclopentane  
351 and cyclohexane were commonly used as solvents in industrial processes (Lyu et al., 2016; Yuan et al., 2013).  
352 TEX is the main component of organic solvents (Guo et al., 2011; Watson et al., 2001). Therefore, Factor 7  
353 was assigned to solvent usage 2. The CPF plots of this factor indicate that the high CPF values were found  
354 near the center when the wind speed was low ( $\leq 1$  m/s). This finding indicates that local emissions was the  
355 dominant source (Fig. S4g).



356

357 **Fig. 4.** Source profiles and contributions of VOCs during the observation period.

358 Figure 5 shows the proportion of each VOCs source during the observation process. In the entire  
 359 observation period, vehicular exhaust is the main contributor, accounting for 28%, followed by solvent usage  
 360 (27%) and industrial production (22%). Other sources including LPG/NG (9%), combustion sources (8%),  
 361 and biogenic emission (6%) contributed little. In Case 1, vehicular exhaust (30%) was the largest contributor,  
 362 followed by solvent usage (27%) and industrial production (23%). Compared with the Case 1 event, the  
 363 contribution of solvent usage and industrial production in the Case 2 event did not change much, and the  
 364 contribution of LPG/NG increased by 14%, which became an important source. On clean days, vehicular  
 365 exhaust (35%), solvent usage (25%), and industrial production (21%) were the most significant contributors.  
 366 Compared with clean days, the contribution of solvent usage, industrial production, biogenic emission, and  
 367 LPN/NG in both pollution events increased, while the contribution of combustion sources and vehicular  
 368 exhaust decreased. In summary, vehicular exhaust, solvent usage, and industrial production were major  
 369 contributors to both O<sub>3</sub> pollution events and clean days.



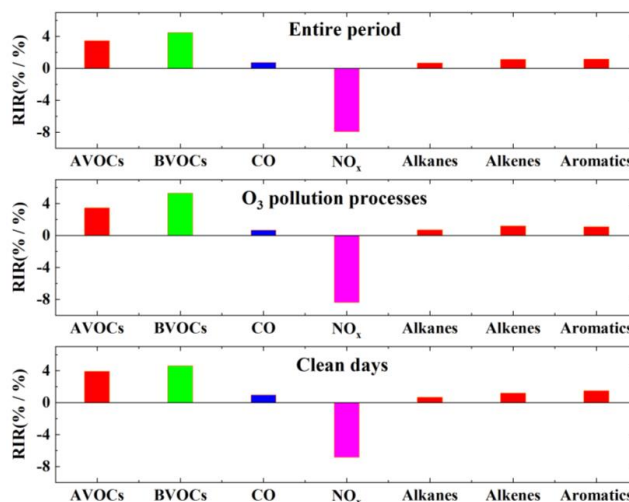
370

371 **Fig. 5.** Source contributions to VOCs concentration during different periods.

372 **3.3 Contribution to O<sub>3</sub> formation**

373 **3.3.1 O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity analysis**

374 In this study, the RIR of AVOCs, biogenic VOCs (BVOCs), CO, NO<sub>x</sub>, alkanes, alkenes, and aromatics  
 375 were calculated (Fig. 6). The RIR values of VOCs were all positive during the entire period, indicating that  
 376 O<sub>3</sub> generation is most sensitive to VOCs reduction. In comparison, the RIR value of NO<sub>x</sub> was negative,  
 377 indicating that reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> would cause the increasing of the O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. Among AVOCs,  
 378 aromatics had the highest RIR value, followed by alkanes and aromatics. For both O<sub>3</sub> pollution events and  
 379 clean days, the RIR value of NO<sub>x</sub> was negative, and the RIR of VOCs and CO were positive. The absolute  
 380 value of RIR of each group and species in the pollution events was smaller than that in the non-pollution  
 381 events, indicating that the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> to VOCs, NO<sub>x</sub>, and CO on clean days was higher than that in the  
 382 O<sub>3</sub> pollution events. During the entire period, especially in the pollution events, the RIR of AVOCs was lower  
 383 than that of BVOCs, indicating that biogenic emission was more sensitive to O<sub>3</sub> formation.



384

385 **Fig. 6.** Average RIR values of the O<sub>3</sub> for different species/groups during different processes in Zhengzhou.

386 **3.3.2 Empirical kinetics modeling approach (EKMA) results**

387 Given the current inability to implement appropriate control measures for BVOCs, the following analysis  
 388 considers only the impact of AVOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> on O<sub>3</sub> formation. The EKMA curve drawn based on the OBM  
 389 model is shown in Fig. 7. It can be seen from the EKMA curve that O<sub>3</sub> generation presents a highly nonlinear  
 390 relationship with its precursor compounds AVOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>, and the same O<sub>3</sub> concentration can be generated  
 391 by different concentration combinations of AVOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>. In the figure, AVOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> = 100% is the  
 392 base case, and the horizontal and vertical axes represented the percentages of VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> relative to the  
 393 actual observed mixture ratio (100%). The straight lines in the figure are called ridgeline and is formed by the  
 394 junction of turning points of O<sub>3</sub> concentration lines (Dodge, 1977).

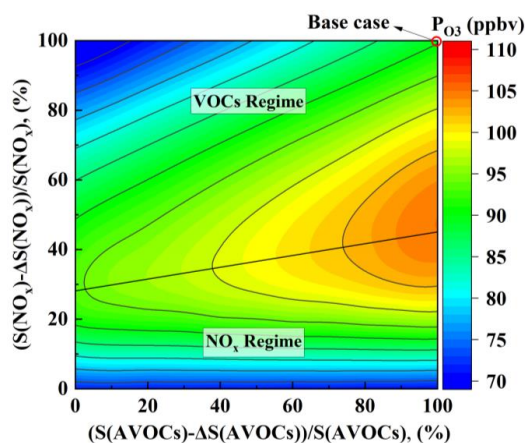
395 The ridge divides the graph into the upper left and the lower right parts, and there are also large differences  
 396 in O<sub>3</sub> generation between these two parts. In the lower right part, each O<sub>3</sub> concentration line and the horizontal  
 397 coordinate show a parallel relationship. If the NO<sub>x</sub> concentration is maintained unchanged, the O<sub>3</sub>  
 398 concentration does not change with the change of AVOCs concentration. When the AVOCs concentration is  
 399 unchanged, the concentration of O<sub>3</sub> decreases with the decrease of NO<sub>x</sub> concentration. Therefore, in this part  
 400 of the region, O<sub>3</sub> generation is controlled by NO<sub>x</sub>. In the upper left part, if the concentration of AVOCs is  
 401 reduced alone, the concentration of O<sub>3</sub> will decrease significantly; if only the concentration of NO<sub>x</sub> is reduced,  
 402 the concentration of O<sub>3</sub> will first rise and then decrease. In this region, O<sub>3</sub> generation is in the control region  
 403 of AVOCs. In the area near the ridge line, when NO<sub>x</sub> and AVOCs are reduced at the same time, the O<sub>3</sub>  
 404 concentration will decrease, and the O<sub>3</sub> generation in the cooperative control area of AVOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>.

405 The ridgeline slope of this EKMA curve was about 6:1, that was, the reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> and AVOCs along





406 this ridge was the fastest way to reduce the O<sub>3</sub> concentration. As can be seen from the figure, Zhengzhou was  
 407 a typical AVOCs control area, and O<sub>3</sub> was very sensitive to the changes of AVOCs. Therefore, reducing AVOCs  
 408 can effectively reduce the generation of O<sub>3</sub>.



409

410 **Fig. 7.** Isopleth diagram of modeled P(O<sub>3</sub>) on S(VOCs) and S(NO<sub>x</sub>) remaining percentages.

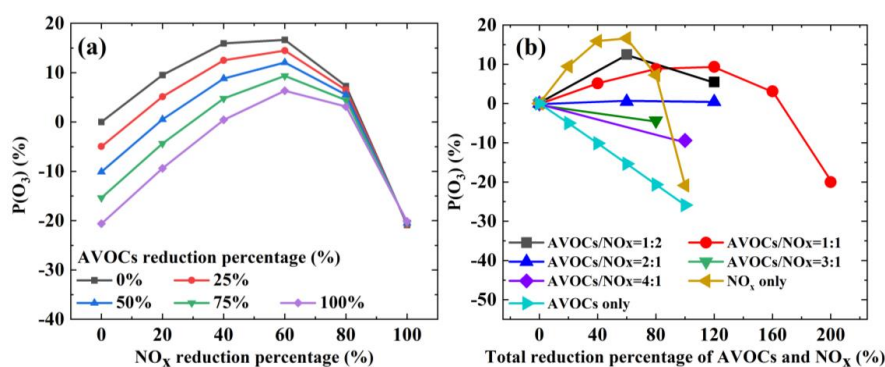
411 **3.3.3 Control strategies of O<sub>3</sub>**

412 The above analysis based on single species (NO<sub>x</sub> or AVOCs) is only used to discuss the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub>  
 413 concentration to precursor, but such extreme control is difficult to achieve. Usually in the actual operation, the  
 414 method of simultaneously controlling NO<sub>x</sub> and AVOCs emissions is usually adopted to reduce the  
 415 concentration of O<sub>3</sub>. To establish a reasonable and effective VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction plan, we  
 416 further conducted a series of simulations to calculate the net O<sub>3</sub> production rate (P(O<sub>3</sub>)) by adjusting the ratio  
 417 of input VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>. The following analyzes the reduction cases of O<sub>3</sub> control at 10 a.m. to 4 p.m. during  
 418 the observation period.

419 Figure. 8 shows different reduction schemes. In Fig. 8, the horizontal and vertical axes corresponded to  
 420 the reduction percentages of NO<sub>x</sub> or NO<sub>x</sub> + VOCs and the incremental in P(O<sub>3</sub>) (positive and negative values  
 421 represent the increase and decrease of P(O<sub>3</sub>) compared to the base case). The results show that P(O<sub>3</sub>) will  
 422 eventually decline regardless of the reduction method, but the trend of change varies (Fig. 8a). As can be seen  
 423 from Fig. 8b, if only NO<sub>x</sub> was reduced, when the emission reduction was less than 60%, the change in P(O<sub>3</sub>)  
 424 shows an increasing trend; when the emission reduction was greater than 60%, the change of P(O<sub>3</sub>) shows a  
 425 decreasing trend. Therefore, only NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction was not conducive to the reduction of P(O<sub>3</sub>). When  
 426 the reduction ratio of AVOCs/NO<sub>x</sub> was 1:2 and 1:1, the change in P(O<sub>3</sub>) shows a similar trend as that of NO<sub>x</sub>  
 427 emission reduction only, and P(O<sub>3</sub>) increases first and then decreases. When the reduction ratio of AVOCs/NO<sub>x</sub>  
 428 was 2:1, P(O<sub>3</sub>) increases to a certain extent. When the emission reduction ratio of AVOCs/NO<sub>x</sub> was 3:1 or 4:1,



429  $P(O_3)$  continues to decline, and the decline rate of  $P(O_3)$  of 4:1 was greater than 3:1. If only AVOCs emission  
 430 was reduced,  $P(O_3)$  shows a continuous downward trend, and the decline rate was very fast. However,  
 431 combined with actual production activities, only reducing AVOCs emissions cannot be achieved, which was  
 432 not conducive to policy implementation. Therefore, from the perspective of comprehensive emission reduction  
 433 effect, the reduction ratio of AVOCs/ $NO_x$  should be no less than 3:1, which will be conducive to the reduction  
 434 of  $P(O_3)$ .



435

436 **Fig. 8.** Response of the  $P(O_3)$  to different AVOCs and  $NO_x$  reduction percentages. Note: AVOCs/ $NO_x$  was the  
 437 ratio of the percentage reduction of AVOCs and  $NO_x$ .

438 In addition, this study analyzed  $O_3$  reduction schemes from 10 a.m. to 4 p.m. It can be seen from Fig. S5  
 439 that with the reduce of  $NO_x$ ,  $P(O_3)$  elevated and then decreased. When the reduction ratio of AVOCs was fixed  
 440 and the reduction ratio of  $NO_x$  was less than 60%,  $P(O_3)$  increases with the reduce of  $NO_x$ . In this case,  $P(O_3)$   
 441 increases by 30, 21, 16, 13, 13, 15, and 15% respectively (that is, under the AVOCs scenario without reduction).  
 442 When the  $NO_x$  reduction ratio was greater than 60%,  $P(O_3)$  decreases with the reduce of  $NO_x$ . When the  
 443 reduction was the greatest (that is, 100% reduction of  $NO_x$  and AVOCs),  $P(O_3)$  at 10 o'clock was still increased  
 444 compared with the atmospheric observation concentration, increased by 14%;  $P(O_3)$  at 11 a.m. to 4 p.m.  
 445 decreased by 2, 15, 25, 32, 36, and 36%, respectively.

446 Between the range of 10 a.m. to 4 p.m. in the day, when only  $NO_x$  was reduced,  $P(O_3)$  elevated and then  
 447 decreased. When only AVOCs were reduced,  $P(O_3)$  continued to decrease. When the reduction ratio of  
 448 AVOCs/ $NO_x$  was less than 2:1,  $P(O_3)$  elevated and then decreased. When the reduction ratio of AVOCs/ $NO_x$   
 449 was greater than 2:1,  $P(O_3)$  continues to decrease. When AVOCs/ $NO_x = 4:1$ ,  $P(O_3)$  decreases the most and the  
 450 fastest. According to the reduction ratio of AVOCs/ $NO_x = 4:1$ , the maximum reduction of  $P(O_3)$  at 10 a.m. to  
 451 16 p.m. during the day were 3, 6, 10, 11, 13, and 13%, respectively.

#### 452 4 Conclusions

453 This study investigated the characteristics and emission sources of VOCs in Zhengzhou from 1<sup>st</sup> to 30<sup>th</sup>



454 June 2023. The OBM was used to analyze the influence of precursors on the formation of O<sub>3</sub>, and the emission  
455 reduction strategy of precursors was proposed to control the concentration of O<sub>3</sub>. The major findings are  
456 discussed below.

457 During the entire period, the concentration of TVOCs varied from 9.9 to 60.3 ppbv, with an average value  
458 of 22.9 ± 8.3 ppbv. The average concentration of TVOCs during O<sub>3</sub> pollution was higher than that during  
459 clean days. Alkanes (44%), OVOCs (20%), and halocarbons (19%) were the most abundant VOCs group.  
460 Ethane, acetone, and propane were always the most abundant species.

461 Vehicular exhaust (28%), solvent usage (27%), and industrial production (22%) were the main emission  
462 sources of VOCs. The contribution of solvent use, industrial production, biogenic emission, and LPN/NG  
463 increased during pollution events compared with clean days.

464 The sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> formation to its precursor was studied by the OBM method. VOCs had the highest  
465 RIR value, while NO<sub>x</sub> had a negative RIR value. Olefins have the highest RIR value among AVOCs. It was  
466 worth noting that the RIR value of BVOCs was greater than that of AVOCs. The EKMA curve indicated that  
467 O<sub>3</sub> formations were in the AVOCs-limited regimes, which means reducing the concentration of AVOCs was  
468 an effective way to reduce O<sub>3</sub> concentration. According to the scenario analysis and considering the policy  
469 feasibility, the minimum reduction ratio of AVOCs/NO<sub>x</sub> should be no less than 3:1 to reduce O<sub>3</sub> production.

470

471 **Data availability.** Data can be obtained upon request from the authors.

472

473 **Authorship contributions.** DZ performed chemical modelling analyses of OBM-MCM and wrote the paper.  
474 XL collected the data and contributed to the data analysis. RZ designed and revised the paper. QX, FS, and  
475 SW contributed to discussions of results. MY and YX provided part of the data in Zhengzhou.

476

477 **Competing interests.** The contact author has declared that neither they nor their co-authors have any  
478 competing interests.

479

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482 **References**

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