



An Observation-Based Methodology and Application for Future Atmosphere Secondary Pollution Control via an Atmospheric Oxidation Capacity Path Tracing Approach

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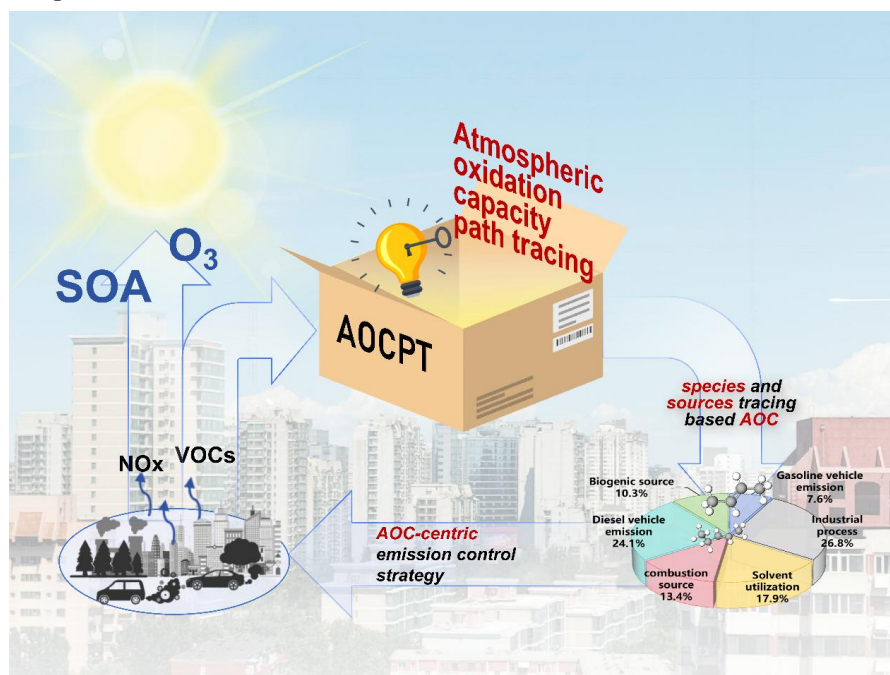
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Graphical abstract





22 Abstract

23 As China's emission reduction efforts enter a plateau phase due to the slow decline of
24 secondary pollutants, existing control strategies face diminishing returns. Atmospheric
25 Oxidation Capacity (AOC), a key driver of secondary pollutant formation, represents
26 a critical yet underutilized target for more effective control. The Atmospheric
27 Oxidation Capacity Path Tracing (AOCPT) approach was proposed in this study. This
28 approach quantitatively traces AOC to its precursors and sources, thereby facilitating
29 the coordinated control of secondary pollution, by integrating three modules: a
30 Radiation Equivalent Oxidation Capacity (REOC) method to quantify precursor
31 species contributions, a Relative Incremental AOC (RIA) metric derived from a
32 coupled box-receptor model to assess source impacts, and a modified source
33 apportionment technique to resolve the respective contributions of both precursor
34 species and sources to AOC. Successfully validated in a field study in Changzhi,
35 China, AOCPT identified industrial processes (26.8%) and diesel vehicle emissions
36 (24.1%) as the dominant AOC sources in a case city, driven largely by their
37 trans-2-butene emissions (49.3% and 20.6% of total trans-2-butene, respectively).
38 Crucially, secondary organic aerosols (SOA) were inadvertently enhanced by ozone
39 (O_3)-targeted abatement, an AOC-centric strategy enables the co-mitigation of both
40 pollutants. By enabling the precise regulation of AOC through direct quantification of
41 precursor and source roles, the AOCPT approach facilitates the synergistic control of
42 secondary pollutants. It provides a robust technical pathway and theoretical
43 foundation to overcome current challenges in air quality management.

44 **Key words:** atmospheric oxidative capacity; secondary pollutants control; ozone;
45 self- reactions; methodological; observational study

47 1 Introduction

48 Atmospheric Oxidation Capacity (AOC), which comprises reactive oxidants such as
49 hydroxyl radicals ($OH\cdot$), ozone (O_3), and nitrate radicals ($NO_3\cdot$), etc. acts as the
50 chemical engine that governs the transformation efficiency of precursors such as
51 volatile organic compounds (VOCs), nitrogen oxides (NO_x) and sulfur dioxide (SO_2)
52 into secondary pollutants including O_3 , secondary organic aerosols (SOA), sulfates,
53 and nitrates, etc. (Yu et al., 2022). Modulation of AOC, which directly affect the
54 secondary pollutant formation potential.

55
56 In recent years, the Chinese government has achieved substantial reductions in
57 primary pollutant emissions, yet air quality challenges stemming from secondary
58 pollutants remain unaddressed. With the implementation of “the Air Pollution
59 Prevention and Control Action Plan” and “the Three-Year Action Plan on Defending
60 the Blue Sky”, the NO_x and CO, etc. concentrations of China were reduced by 31%
61 and 33.3% respectively in 2024 compared to 2018 (Mep, 2024). However, the
62 environmental and health risks caused by secondary pollutants remain a major
63 concern. In 2024, the concentrations of O_3 -8H in the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei and its
64 surrounding areas, the Yangtze River Delta, and the Fenwei Plain, which are the main



65 population, economic, and industrial clusters in China, were still as high as $187 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
66 $169 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and $182 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively (Mep, 2024). From 2013 to 2020, there was a
67 significant decrease in primary organic aerosols (POA) in China, but the decrease in
68 secondary organic aerosols (SOA) was relatively small (Chen et al., 2024).
69 Anthropogenic sources have dominant contributors to SOA in central and eastern
70 China (Hu et al., 2017). Furthermore, the high contribution of secondary pollutants
71 during haze events in China has been shown to be directly correlated with strong AOC
72 (Huang et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2022a). Not only the photochemical formation of O_3
73 is driven by the AOC, but a contribution of up to 80% to fine particulate matter
74 pollution was also attributed to the AOC-driven formation of SOA (Huang et al., 2014;
75 Zhao et al., 2020). Meanwhile, previous studies have shown that environmental issues
76 caused by secondary pollutants result in increased mortality from respiratory and
77 cardiovascular diseases (Zhang et al., 2022), a consequence that further entails
78 socioeconomic losses including medical costs, productivity declines, and analogous
79 economic burdens (Xie et al., 2017). It can be seen that current precursor emission
80 control policies have failed to substantially mitigate the environmental, health, and
81 economic impacts stemming from secondary pollution.

82
83 Studies have indicated that refined emission control strategies for primary pollutants,
84 which implement source-specific mitigation measures, demonstrate greater
85 environmental efficacy than broad reduction policies. Wu and Xie et al. (2017)
86 achieved refined control of O_3 pollution by constructing a speciated emission
87 inventory and analyzing the emission contributions of different species in different
88 emission sources (Wu and Xie, 2017). Ding et al. (2022) highlighted the necessity of
89 simultaneous VOCs and NO_x emission source control for relieve secondary pollution
90 (Ding et al., 2022). Liang et al. (2024) employed $\text{RO}_2\cdot$ radicals to identify critical
91 VOCs species that significantly influence O_3 generation, further highlighting the
92 mainly emission source contributors of ozone formation (Liang et al., 2024). Most of
93 these studies neglected the importance of AOC. However, due to the uncertainty of
94 emission inventories and the complex chemical mechanisms of secondary pollutant
95 formation (Reis et al., 2009). It is necessitating prioritized investigation of AOC,
96 which the principal driver of secondary pollution generation (Li et al., 2024). Studies
97 demonstrate elevated SOA concentrations in densely populated regions (e.g., North
98 China Plain, Yangtze River Delta), where SOA strongly correlates with precursor
99 pollutants and enhanced AOC (Chen et al., 2024). However, North China Plain
100 maintains persistently high SOA levels despite substantial precursor pollutants
101 emission reductions. Especially the challenge of coordinated secondary pollution
102 control became evident, as previous studies showed that attempts to control O_3 could
103 unexpectedly increase SOA levels due to the non-linear relationship with their
104 precursors (Niu et al., 2024; Lyu et al., 2022). Therefore, emission control that
105 focusing solely on single secondary pollutant impacts while overlooking source
106 contributions to AOC, may lead to deviations in the formulation of emission reduction
107 strategies (Le et al., 2020; Galbally, 2007). Culminating in substantial precursor
108 pollutants reductions yet persistent secondary pollution severity. Existing studies of



AOC predominantly focus on chemical mechanisms and radical interactions (Yu et al., 2022; Mochida et al., 2003), with limited exploration of emission-driven oxidation dynamics. Compared with relying on source analysis and control strategies for individual secondary pollutants, direct traceability analysis of AOC may be more representative and regulatory efficacy for secondary pollution control.

Herein, we developed and applied an Atmospheric Oxidation Capacity Pathway Tracing (AOCPT) approach to advance secondary pollution control. This approach quantifies standardized precursor impacts on atmospheric oxidation capacity (AOC) using a metric, the Radiation Equivalent Oxidation Capacity (REOC). It then directly links emission sources to AOC by defining the Relative Incremental Atmospheric Oxidation Capacity (RIA) through coupled observation box model (OBM) - positive matrix factorization model (PMF) analysis. Finally, a refined source apportionment method was proposed to quantitatively resolve the contributions of both specific precursors and emission sources to total AOC. By applying this approach, our study comprehensively evaluates emission source contributions and explicitly traces their critical formation pathways through AOC, providing a scientific basis for the synergistic control of both O₃ and SOA through targeted AOC regulation.

2 Methodology

2.1 Site description and data collection

To test and apply the proposed methodology for secondary pollution control, a continuous field campaign was carried out in Changzhi, a typical industrial city in China, from August 21 to 28, 2024. A detailed description of the study site's industrial characteristics and the specific sampling locations is provided in Supplementary Material Text S1. The Environmental Monitoring Station of Changzhi provided hourly data for key trace gases, including O₃, NO, NO₂, and CO, as well as for meteorological parameters (temperature, relative humidity, and atmospheric pressure, etc.).

A total of 81 VOCs species were continuously sampled at 2 hours sampling frequency by using 3 L stainless steel canisters (SUMMA canister, Entech Instruments Inc., California, USA), and were then stored at indoor temperature and analyzed within a week of sampling. The ambient samples were analyzed using a pre-concentrator (Entech 7200A Instruments Inc., USA) coupled with a gas chromatograph–mass selective detector/flame ionization detector (GC–MSD/FID, Agilent 7890GC/5975MSD/FID, USA). The detailed samplings and analysis steps were presented in Text S2.

2.2 Atmospheric oxidation capacity path tracing approach (AOCPT)

Part 1: Calculation of the initial concentration of VOCs

In this study, initial VOCs (InVOCs) were considered as VOCs directly emitted from



sources, calculated by Eq. (1) (Wang et al., 2022b).

152

$$[VOC_i]_{In} = [VOC_i]_M + \exp(k_i[OH]\Delta t) \quad (1)$$

154

155 where $[VOC_i]_{In}$ and $[VOC_i]_M$ were initial VOCs and measured VOCs concentration
156 for specie i , respectively (ppbv); k_i denotes reaction rate constant between VOC_i and
157 $OH\cdot$ radicals ($\text{cm}^3\cdot\text{molecule}^{-1}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$); $[OH]$ represents the $OH\cdot$ radicals concentration
158 ($\text{molecule}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$), which was simulated by box model; and Δt represents the
159 photochemical age or time that VOC_i 's reaction with $OH\cdot$ radicals (s), detail
160 information for k_i and Δt calculation are presented in Text S3.

161

162 ***Part 2: Quantifying radical-specific contributions to AOC: A novel unified*** 163 ***approach via OBM and radical cycling analysis***

164 **Step 1:** The AOC and the formation of secondary pollution O_3 was simulated using
165 the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) in Framework for 0-D Atmosphere
166 Modeling (F0AM) software (Jenkin et al., 2015; Wolfe et al., 2016). This open-source,
167 zero-dimensional (0-D) box model has been widely used (Nault et al., 2024), and a
168 detailed introduction to its application can be found in our previous research (Niu et
169 al., 2024).

170

171 The AOC could be represented by the sum of the reaction rates of VOCs, CO, etc.
172 with $OH\cdot$, O_3 , and $NO_3\cdot$ (Yu et al., 2022).

$$AOC = \sum_i k_{Y_i}[X][Y_i] \quad (2)$$

174 where $[X]$ and $[Y_i]$ are the number concentrations of molecule oxidant X and Y_i ,
175 respectively, and k_{Y_i} is the bimolecular rate constant of molecule Y_i with oxidant X .

176 The oxidants included $OH\cdot$, $NO_3\cdot$, and O_3 (Chapleski et al., 2016). The AOC attributed
177 to each reaction rates was extracted during observation box model (OBM) simulations
178 using the model's built-in extract rates function. Analyzing the atmospheric chemical
179 reactions of typical secondary pollutant O_3 based on the same principle.

180

181 **Step 2:** Tracing and identified key precursor material species influencing AOC by
182 examining their roles in photochemical reaction pathways. As a key oxidant and
183 primary driver of AOC, $OH\cdot$ initiates VOC oxidation to produce $HO_2\cdot$ and
184 $RO_2\cdot$ radicals, which subsequently participate in O_3 formation and SOA generation
185 (Chen et al., 2022; Tadic et al., 2021). Controlling $OH\cdot$, $HO_2\cdot$, and $RO_2\cdot$ radicals is
186 critical for regulating AOC, particularly through modulating $OH\cdot$ concentrations. The
187 study of Yang et al. (2024) demonstrated that alkene- O_3 reactions generate criegee
188 intermediates (CI), which enhance $OH\cdot$, $HO_2\cdot$, and $RO_2\cdot$ radical concentrations and
189 accelerate $RO_x\cdot$ cycling (Yang et al., 2024). Elevated $RO_2\cdot$ and $HO_2\cdot$ concentrations
190 during $RO_x\cdot$ cycling enhances $OH\cdot$ production, which is the primary driver of AOC.



We introduce the radiation equivalent oxidation capacity (REOC) metric based on radical generation pathways from intermediate species. REOC quantifies precursor contributions to $\text{OH}\cdot$, $\text{HO}_2\cdot$, and $\text{RO}_2\cdot$ radicals by normalizing their production to equivalent $\text{OH}\cdot$ oxidation capacity, providing a unified measure of VOCs species oxidative impacts. The REOC can be calculated by Eq. (3) - (5).

$$\text{REOC} = d[\text{OH}\cdot]_t + \alpha \times d[\text{HO}_2\cdot]_t + \beta \times d[\text{RO}_2\cdot]_t \quad (3)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\sum_1^r ([\text{HO}_2\cdot] \rightarrow [\text{OH}\cdot])}{\sum_1^p P[\text{HO}_2\cdot]}$$

$$(4)$$

$$\beta = \frac{\sum_1^r ([\text{RO}_2\cdot] \rightarrow [\text{OH}\cdot])}{\sum_1^p P[\text{RO}_2\cdot]}$$

$$(5)$$

Where the $d[\text{OH}\cdot]_t$, $d[\text{HO}_2\cdot]_t$ and $d[\text{RO}_2\cdot]_t$ are the directly generated rates of $\text{OH}\cdot$, $\text{HO}_2\cdot$ and $\text{RO}_2\cdot$ radicals at time t . Parameters α and β represent the conversion efficiencies of $\text{HO}_2\cdot$ and $\text{RO}_2\cdot$ to $\text{OH}\cdot$, respectively, which can be calculated through dividing the rate of conversion of all $\text{HO}_2\cdot$ and $\text{RO}_2\cdot$ to $\text{OH}\cdot$ by the rate of generation of all $\text{HO}_2\cdot$ and $\text{RO}_2\cdot$, respectively. Reaction pathway tracing and analyzing enables systematic quantification of $\text{OH}\cdot$ radical production from VOCs, more effectively characterizing precursor-specific contributions to atmospheric oxidation processes.

Part 3: Novel framework for source-resolved AOC sensitivity and attribution:

Integrating PMF with precursor-specific quantification

Step 1: VOC and NO_x source apportionments were calculated by the PMF model (US EPA 5.0). This study selected thirty-eight InVOCs species and NO_x for PMF analysis, and applies its core principle of decomposing the sampling data matrix into two constituent matrices to estimate VOC species contributions (He et al., 2019; Yu et al., 2022; Liu et al., 2025).

$$X_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij} \quad (6)$$

where x_{ij} represents the concentration of species j in sample i ; g_{ik} is the contribution of source k in the sample i ; source profile f_{kj} is the mass percentage of species j in source k ; e_{ij} is the residual for species j in sample i ; and p is the total number of source categories. For other relevant calculation formulas of the PMF model can be found in Text S4.

Step 2: The sensitivity of AOC to various emission sources was analyzed by calculating their Relative Incremental Atmospheric oxidation capacity (RIA). This was accomplished by integrating the OBM - PMF models to simulate AOC changes under various emission reduction scenarios. Through this systematic scenario



modeling, we quantified source-specific sensitivity coefficients to identify the most influential sources. This methodology identifies dominant AOC-controlling emission sources through response quantification. The calculation equations of relative incremental reactivity (RIR) and RIA are shown in Eq. (7) and Eq. (8), respectively.

$$RIR_t = \frac{Net(X) - Net(X - \Delta X) / Net(X)}{\Delta S(X) / S(X)} \quad (7)$$

$$RIA = \frac{\sum_1^n RIR_t \times AOC}{\sum_1^n AOC} \quad (8)$$

where RIR_t represents the sensitivity of different emission sources after emission reduction at time t , $Net(X)$ represents the net production rate of a specific species X , Group X , or source X . $Net(X - \Delta X)$ refers to the net production rate of X caused by the hypothetical emission change ΔX . $S(X)$ is the total observed mixing ratio of precursor X . $\Delta S(X)$ is the total mixing ratio change of precursor X caused by the hypothetical emission change (assumed to be 20 % in this study), n is the number of emission sources derived from PMF.

Step 3: We further establish a quantification framework assessing both emission source contributions and species-specific impacts on AOC. Integrating PMF source apportionment with relative AOC reactivity metrics, this method systematically determines (1) source-level AOC contributions and (2) within-source VOC species oxidation capacity, identifying dominant emission sources and pollutant species. The species and emission source contribution of AOC are shown in Eq. (9) and Eq. (10).

$$SCAOC_{ij} = \frac{RIA \times kOH_{ij}}{\sum_1^n RIA \times kOH_{ij}} \quad (9)$$

$$CAOC_i = \frac{RIA \times AOC_i}{\sum_1^n RIA \times AOC_i} \quad (10)$$

Where $SCAOC_{ij}$ is the contribution of species j in source i to AOC, kOH_{ij} is the reaction rate constant between VOCs species and $OH\cdot$ radicals of species j in source i , which used to characterize the contribution of VOCs species to the chain reaction of free radicals, $CAOC_i$ is the contribution of source i to AOC, AOC_i is the AOC of source i derived from OBM-PMF, n is the number of emission sources derived from PMF.

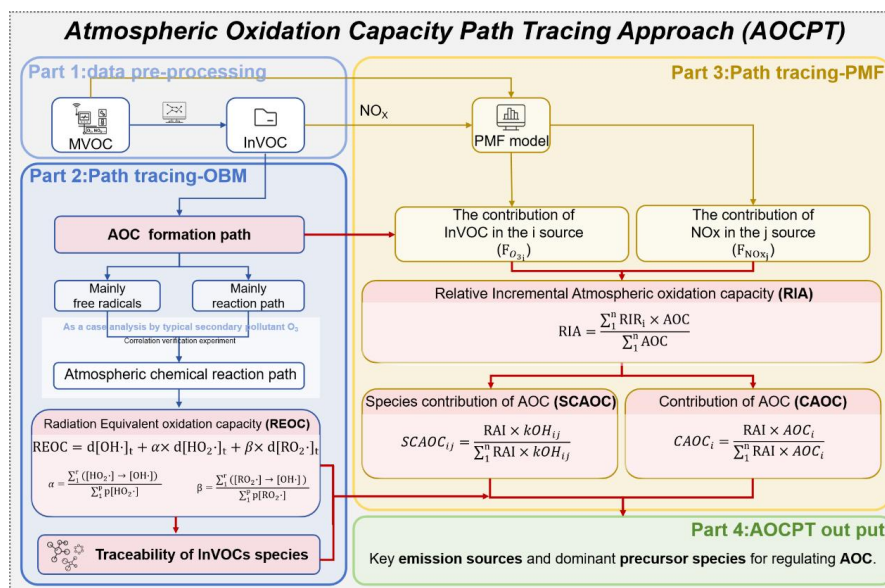
Part 4: The regulation results of AOC

Fig. 1. shows the workflow of the AOCPT method. Briefly, (1) the AOC of each time steps during the study period was quantified by OBM, and identified the reactions and oxidants that contribute significant to AOC. (2) Through pathway tracing and analyzing of atmospheric chemical reactions, we developed the REOC metric to systematically quantify VOCs-driven $OH\cdot$ radical production, identifying key reactive VOCs species. (3) The PMF-based source apportionment identifies emission source



271 sensitivities influencing AOC, while quantitatively assessing source-specific
272 contributions from individual VOC species and NO_x to AOC variations, and analyzed
273 the contributions of different emission sources to AOC. Overall, achieving path
274 tracing and traceability of AOC. Compared to existing studies, the AOCPT method
275 proposed in this study conducts quantitative and qualitative analysis from the
276 perspective of secondary pollutant formation, rather than focusing solely on
277 individual secondary pollutant. It provides a methodological basis and research
278 direction for the synergistic control and management of secondary pollutants.

279



280

281 Fig. 1. The workflow of the AOCPT method.

282

283 3 Results and discussion

284 3.1 Overview characteristics

285 Studies have indicated that the concentration of measured volatile organic compounds
286 (MVOCs) was lower than Initial VOCs (InVOCs) (Wang et al., 2022b). Therefore, the
287 InVOCs have been analyzed in this study (Text S5 and Fig. S1.). During the daytime
288 (8:00 to 18:00), the average concentration of InVOCs (20.1 ± 1.0 ppbv) was higher
289 than MVOCs (15.3 ± 2.6 ppbv) 30.0%. Especially, undervalued the concentration of
290 alkene (Isoprene and anthropogenic alkene was undervalued 34.8% and 29.9%,
291 respectively), which play an important role in photochemical reaction processes (Yang
292 et al., 2024). This difference was defined as consumed VOCs, which the VOCs
293 consumed to participated in atmospheric photochemical reactions (Wang et al.,
294 2022b).

295

296 The average concentrations and diurnal variation characteristics of atmospheric



pollutants (O_3 , InVOCs, CO and NO_2) from study period were analyzed (Fig. 2.). O_3 is a typical representative of secondary pollutants in summer. During pollution period ($O_3 > 160 \mu g/m^3$), the average concentration of NO_2 , CO, O_3 and InVOCs was higher than clean period ($O_3 \leq 160 \mu g/m^3$) 21.9%, 21.7%, 22.9% and 77.2%, respectively. The increase in concentration of oxidants (NO_2 , CO and O_3 etc.), which can helps to enhance the AOC capability (Liu et al., 2021). The CO and NO_2 showed unimodal variation characteristics (the highest in 8:00), and the concentration of pollution period were higher than clean period during 8:00 to 12:00 46.7% and 119.6%, respectively. However, the InVOCs showed bimodal variation characteristics (the highest in 8:00 and 14:00), and the concentration of pollution period were higher than clean period during 8:00 to 12:00 49.7% and 89.8%, respectively. This shown that the precursors were accumulation in the morning and increased in daytime, which may promote strong photochemical reactions, especially in the afternoon (12:00 to 16:00), promote the enhancement of AOC capability and leading to O_3 pollution (Liu et al., 2022). The highest d-value of InVOCs and MVOCs was in 14:00 (50.1%), which also indicated the strong photochemical reactions in afternoon (Fig. S1.). Especially Isoprene and anthropogenic alkene between InVOCs and MVOCs, which d-value were largest, due to the strong photochemical reactions during 12:00 to 16:00. Diurnal variation patterns demonstrate that enhanced precursor emissions coupled with chemical depletion drive summer secondary pollution events, which substantiating the implementation basis for the secondary pollution control methods in this study.

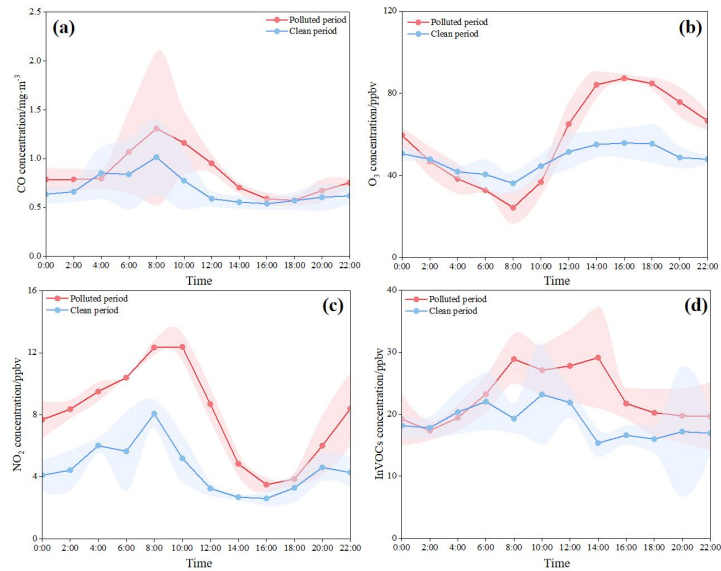


Fig. 2. Diurnal variations in concentrations of atmospheric pollutants during polluted period and clean period ((a), (b), (c) and (d) were CO, O_3 , NO_2 and InVOCs, respectively)



324 **3.2 Species tracing and analyzing of atmospheric oxidizing capacity**

325 **3.2.1 Quantification of atmospheric oxidizing capacity**

326 The AOC during the sampling periods was quantified, as shown in Fig. 3. The
327 calculated averaged value of total AOC was $5.5 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, with a pollution
328 period AOC of $7.7 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$, which was 126.3% higher than the clean
329 period ($3.4 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$). The AOC from pollution period was higher than
330 Zhengzhou ($6.2 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$ in 2020) (Yu et al., 2022), Shanghai (approx.
331 $3.7 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) (Zhu et al., 2020) and Hongkong (approx.
332 $6.78 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) (Xue et al., 2016). Higher AOC serves as an important driver
333 of secondary pollution incidents in summertime (Zhu et al., 2020). Meanwhile, this
334 establishes favorable operational parameters for AOC investigations within the study
335 framework. During pollution period, $\text{OH} \cdot$ exhibited the highest average concentration
336 ($3.8 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) in AOC, followed by O_3 ($2.8 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$) and
337 $\text{NO}_3 \cdot$ ($1.2 \times 10^7 \text{ molec} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$), contributing 48.7%, 35.7%, and 15.5%, respectively.
338 Thus, $\text{OH} \cdot$ was the main contributor of atmospheric oxidation, aligning with findings
339 from other studies in diverse geographical regions (Yu et al., 2022; Guo et al., 2022;
340 Zhang et al., 2021).

341
342 Our further mechanistic analysis of AOC associated reactions elucidates summertime
343 secondary pollution formation (Fig. 3). The average contribution of $\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2$
344 reactions to AOC during pollution period (36.2%) exceeds that during clean period
345 (25.9%), particularly between 8:00 to 12:00, where it exceeded clean periods by an
346 average of 20.7%. Elevated ambient NO_2 concentrations (Fig. 2c) combined with
347 attenuated O_3 titration establish critical preconditions for this reaction mechanism
348 (Dong et al., 2023). The $\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2 \cdot$ promotes O_2 generation, facilitating $\text{RO} \cdot + \text{O}_2$ to
349 $\text{HO}_2 \cdot$, which enhances the production of $\text{OH} \cdot$ radical from $\text{HO}_2 \cdot + \text{NO}$ reaction and
350 exacerbates the AOC (Wang et al., 2017). Diurnal NO_2 decline and VOCs
351 accumulation (Fig. 2), coupled with enhances photochemical activity driving
352 intensified the $\text{OH} \cdot + \text{VOCs}$ reactions. Especially polluted periods exhibit an 18.3%
353 higher daytime average in $\text{OH} \cdot + \text{VOCs}$ reactions compared to clean periods, which
354 directly supports the reactions of $\text{RO}_2 \cdot + \text{NO}$. That's also why the maximum reaction
355 rates of $\text{HO}_2 \cdot + \text{NO}$ and $\text{RO}_2 \cdot + \text{NO}$ during the pollution period were 85.5% and
356 113.9% higher than those during the clean period, respectively (Fig. S2.). During the
357 cleaning period, VOCs emissions are more prominent than NO_x emissions (Fig. 2),
358 make the daytime $\text{OH} \cdot + \text{VOCs}$ dominate $\text{OH} \cdot$ reactions contributions of AOC during
359 clean period (37.9%). Overall, $\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2$ and $\text{OH} \cdot + \text{VOCs}$ were the mainly reaction
360 of AOC, which collectively accounted for 48.5 to 56.1% of daytime AOC during the
361 sampling period. Therefore, controlling NO_2 and InVOCs emissions were essential to
362 mitigated AOC and secondary pollution incidents in summer. However, the emission
363 sources and species of InVOCs were complex. Thus, it is important to tracking and
364 identifying key VOCs that have a significant impact on AOC through free radical
365 chemistry.

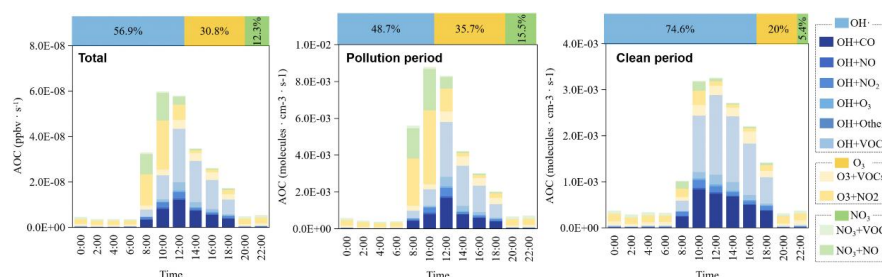
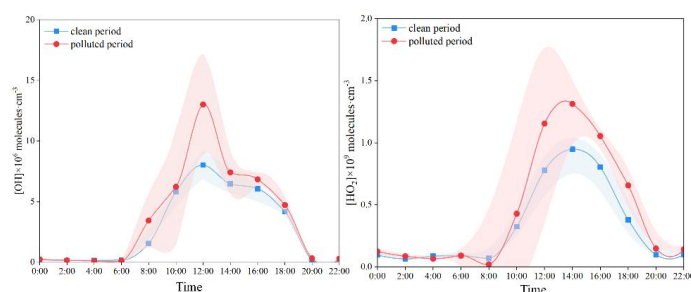
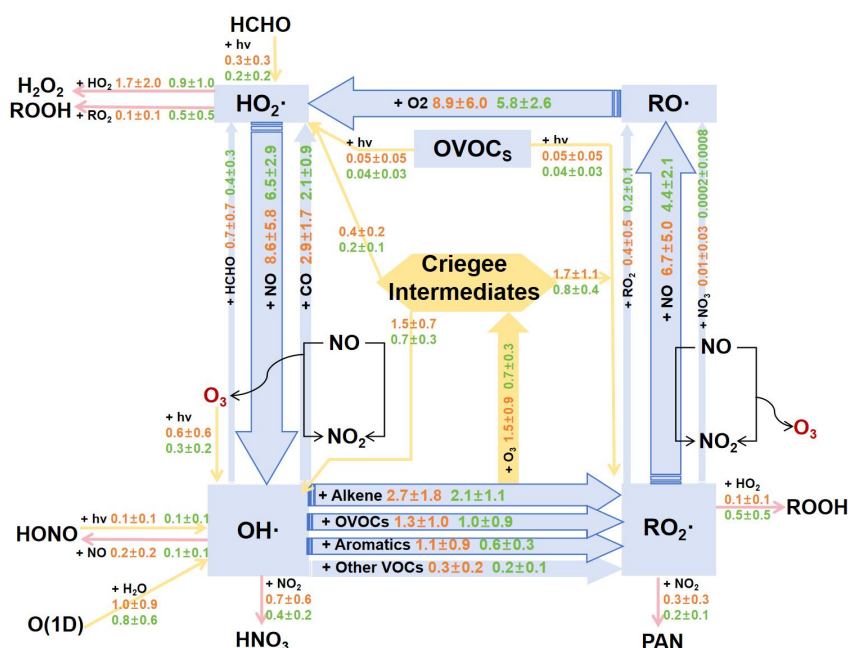


Fig. 3. Diurnal patterns of AOC simulated

3.2.2 Free radical budget analysis

The free radicals during different pollution periods in the study period were analyzed through the F0AM model (Fig. 4.). The OH· and HO₂· showed unimodal variation characteristics during the pollution period, average concentration were 3.6×10^6 molecules·cm⁻³ and 0.4×10^9 molecules·cm⁻³, which higher than clean period 62.3% and 38.6%, respectively. During the pollution period, the maximum of OH· in this study (13.0×10^6 molecules·cm⁻³) was higher than Shanghai (approx. 9.5×10^6 molecules·cm⁻³) (Zhang et al., 2021), Lanzhou (4.5×10^6 molecules·cm⁻³) (Guo et al., 2022), and Beijing (2.7×10^6 molecules·cm⁻³) (Slater et al., 2020), and the maximum of HO₂· (1.31×10^9 molecules·cm⁻³) was higher than Beijing (7.3×10^8 molecules·cm⁻³) (Jia et al., 2023) and Shanghai (approx. 3.77×10^8 molecules·cm⁻³) (Zhu et al., 2020). The OH· constitute the predominant regulator of atmospheric oxidation processes (Yu et al., 2022), governing the initiation and propagation of radical chain reactions in the troposphere (George et al., 2023). Meanwhile, OH· contributed to the decomposition of precursor VOCs, which was important to the secondary pollution incidents in summer. Moreover, the reaction of HO₂· + NO can further promote the generation of OH· radicals. The higher free radicals concentrations in this study indicated higher atmospheric oxidation, which the linear relationships between AOC and OH· radicals with a fitting degree of $R^2=0.77$ (Text S7). Thus, the reaction pathways of OH· radicals in photochemical processes were employed to trace critical VOCs and primary emission sources, which enabled the regulation of AOC and thereby subsequent reduction of secondary pollution, establishing this approach as a viable control strategy.







419 Fig. 5. The average daytime (8:00 to 18:00) budget of the RO_x· radical cycle, with
420 reaction rates shown in ppbv·h⁻¹. Primary radical sources and sinks are highlighted in
421 yellow and pink. Blue arrows denote RO_x· recycling pathways. Reaction rates for
422 polluted and clean periods are displayed in orange and green text, respectively.

423

424 This study employed the REOC concept (Eq. (3)), which was used to unify
425 quantification the contribution of InVOCs to radical generation (Fig. 6.). Due to the
426 predominance of OH·-related reactions in AOC (as also shown in 3.2.1), we used
427 REOC to normalizes the ability of InVOCs to generate different radicals as the ability
428 to generate OH· radicals, which indirectly reflecting the contribution of InVOCs to
429 AOC. The reaction of alkene + O₃ influenced the concentrations of RO₂·, OH· and
430 HO₂· contributing 93.4%, 73.9% and 58.0%, respectively. Trans-2-butene was
431 identified as a key source species, contributing 76.3% and 60.3% to the formation of
432 RO₂·, and OH·, respectively. Previous studies have demonstrated that
433 trans/cis-2-butene and pentenes readily react with O₃, generating CH₃CHOOB
434 criegee intermediates, which rapidly decompose into CH₃O₂, OH·, and CO (Yang et
435 al., 2024). This process propagates the RO_x· cycle, especially the OH· and CO are
436 both key oxidants in the AOC reaction (Fig. 3), which ultimately drives significant
437 AOC and secondary pollution formation in summertime. Therefore, to better assess
438 direct InVOCs contributions to AOC, we developed the REOC metric, which
439 quantifies radical-mediated oxidative impacts by normalizing VOC-derived RO₂· and
440 HO₂· production to OH·-equivalent values through chemical reaction pathways. This
441 framework identifies localized InVOCs species critically influencing AOC, with
442 trans-2-butene demonstrating predominant REOC contributions (71.1%) followed by
443 trans-2-pentene (12.5%). Although the species identified by the method of REOC may
444 have a relatively small proportion in TVOC, but high reactivity allows it to have a
445 significant impact on atmospheric photochemical pollution even at lower
446 concentrations (Yang et al., 2020). Thus, precursor emission control strategies must
447 prioritize emission sources, that release key components and species demonstrating
448 considerable impacts on AOC, rather than focusing solely on total emission reduction
449 targets. The methodology of REOC establishes a reactivity-based prioritization
450 system for targeted precursor species management.

451

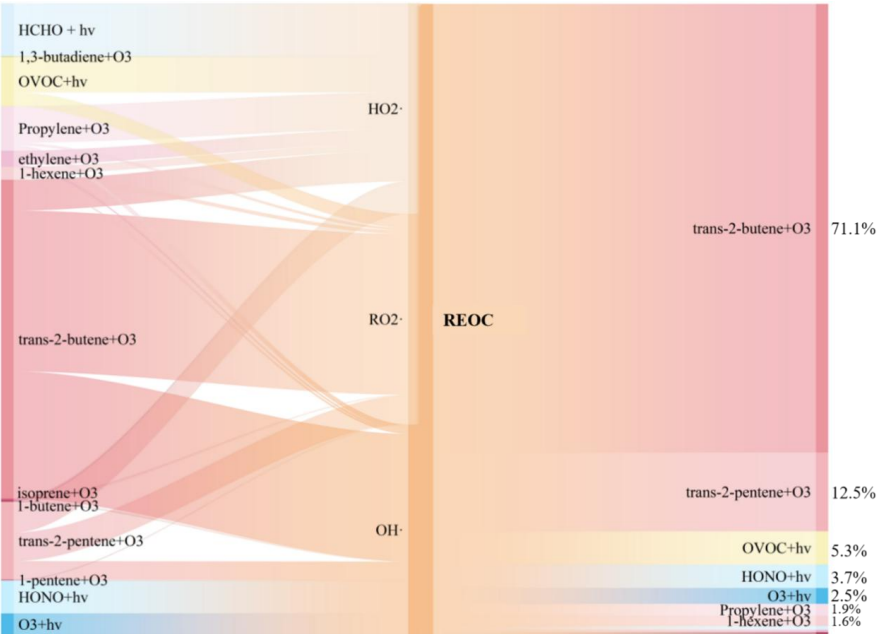


Fig. 6. Daytime (8:00 to 18:00) average contributions of initial sources to OH·, HO₂·, and RO₂· during the observation period

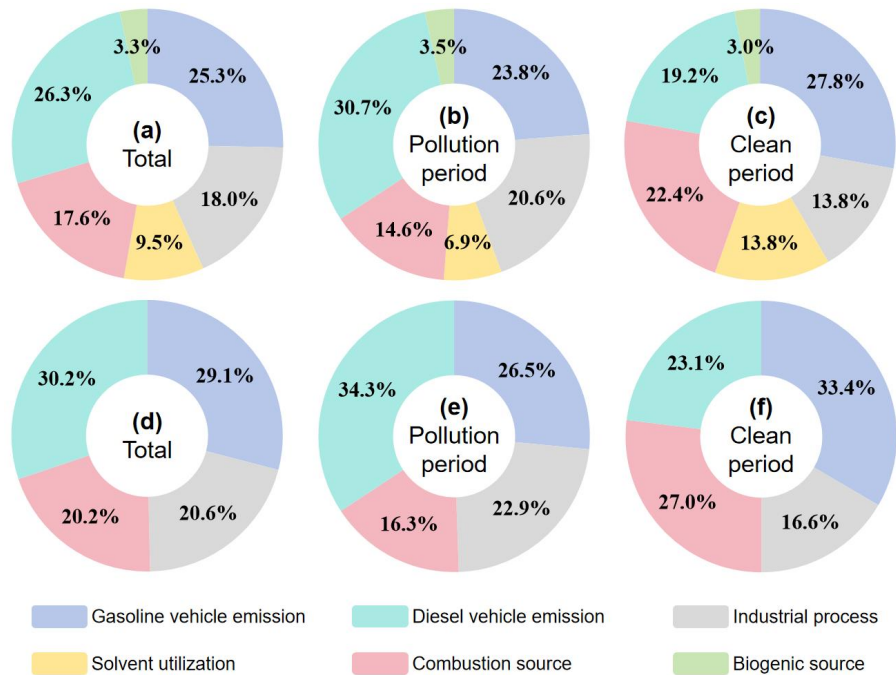
3.3 Source apportionment and emission reduction

3.3.1 Secondary pollutant precursors source apportionment

This study applied the PMF 5.0 model to analyze the secondary pollutant precursors sources (Fig. 7.). During the sampling period (Fig. 7. (a)), diesel vehicles emission (26.3%), gasoline vehicles emission (25.3%), and industrial process (18.0%) dominated InVOCs sources. Especially during pollution episodes (Fig. 7. (b)), the contribution of diesel vehicles emission (30.7%) was dominated to InVOCs, followed by industrial process (20.6%), and gasoline vehicles emission (23.8%). Notably, diesel vehicles emission and industrial process exhibited 11.5% and 6.8% higher InVOCs contributions during pollution periods than in clean periods, respectively. NO_x primarily originated from diesel vehicles emission (30.2%), gasoline vehicles emission (29.1%), industrial process (20.6%), and combustion source (20.2%) (Fig. 7. (d)). Contributions from diesel vehicles emission and industrial process to NO_x during pollution period exceeded clean periods by 11.2% and 6.3%, respectively. Collectively, diesel vehicles emission and industrial process contributed more to both InVOCs and NO_x, particularly during pollution period, likely driven by industrial expansion and heightened transport demands. In 2024, the mining industry (accounting for 76.2% of the industrial total) registering a 6.3% growth in Changzhi City, which the location of the research case (Czmbs, 2024). Coupled with an energy mix heavily reliant on thermal power (91.8% vs. 8.5% from renewables) intensified emission pressures (Czmbs, 2024). Thus, to mitigate the precursors of secondary pollution, industrial



477 cities should prioritize emission controls for heavy industries.
478
479



480
481 Fig. 7. Source contribution of secondary pollutant O₃ precursor from the PMF model.
482 a, b and c were InVOCs. d, e and f were NO_x
483

484 3.3.2 Species and source apportionment of AOC

485 Based on the source apportionment results (section 3.3.1), critical sources affecting
486 the AOC were identified (Fig. 8.), and the contributions of key InVOCs species from
487 these sources were analyzed (Fig. 9.). During the sampling period, industrial process
488 (26.8%) and diesel vehicle emission (24.1%) were the dominant contributors to AOC,
489 followed by solvent utilization (17.9%), combustion source (13.4%), biogenic source
490 (10.3%) and gasoline vehicle emission (7.6%). Especially the industrial process
491 (33.0%) and diesel vehicle emission (28.8%) during polluted periods demonstrate
492 17.8% and 13.5% elevation compared to cleaning period, respectively.
493

494 Among VOCs species contributions across emission sources, we prioritized alkenes,
495 which demonstrating significant impacts to AOC (section 3.2.3). Industrial process
496 exhibited the highest alkene contributions (31.0%), followed by diesel vehicles
497 emission (20.7%). Source-specific alkene contributions were significantly correlated
498 ($P < 0.05$) with their respective impacts on AOC. This finding accounts for why
499 industrial process and diesel vehicle emission exhibited higher contributions to AOC
500 in this study case, highlighting the critical role of alkene chemistry in oxidation



processes. Especially, with the analysis of the key alkene species trans-2-butene (section 3.2.3), which disproportionately affects AOC, revealed its highest impact from industrial process (49.3%), followed by diesel vehicle emission (20.6%). Trans-2-butene emission magnitudes across sources exhibited significantly correlations ($P < 0.05$, $R^2 \approx 0.91$) with their corresponding AOC contributions.

However, gasoline vehicle emission exhibited 41.1% higher total VOCs emissions than industrial process, primarily attributed to elevated contributions from ethane, propane, isopentane, and ethylene. But for trans-2-butene, which has a higher impact on AOC, gasoline vehicle emission exhibited 83.5% and 65.8% lower emissions compared to industrial process and diesel vehicle emission, respectively. While previous studies have shown that high emission levels may offset low chemical reactivity of VOCs species (Tang et al., 2018), the case of this study demonstrates that high-reactivity species remain critical concerns, particularly regarding their impacts on AOC. This also indicated that if the current secondary pollution control strategies focusing solely on high VOCs emission sources and neglecting the impact of source emissions on AOC, particularly for sources with lower aggregate emissions but elevated reactive species emissions, it may lead to survivorship bias in the implementation effectiveness of control measures. This discrepancy may underlie persistent summertime secondary pollution episodes despite substantial precursor reductions.

For NO_x , the predominantly influence AOC originate from diesel vehicle emission (52.0%) and industrial process (28.5%), followed by combustion source (9.8%) and gasoline vehicle emission (9.7%). A statistically significant correlation ($P < 0.05$) exists between source-specific NO_x contributions and their AOC impacts. This may be attributed to elevated NO_x emissions enhancing $\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2$ reactions, particularly during morning period (section 3.2.1), thereby increasing the source contributions to AOC. Therefore, necessitating integrated control strategies targeting both VOC and NO_x emission sources for effective AOC mitigation.

A comparison between AOC and O_3 source apportionment was conducted using summertime O_3 pollution of the case study (Fig. S5). The analysis of O_3 source apportionment, which identified industrial emission (22.6%), gasoline vehicle emission (22.1%), and combustion source (21.3%) as primary contributors, systematically underestimated diesel vehicle emission (8.3% underestimation) and industrial emission (4.2% underestimation) source impacts while overestimating others. The differences in source apportionment results may directly affect the direction of pollution emission control. Thus, compared to O_3 source apportionment approaches, AOC oriented source tracing may better facilitate coordinated secondary pollution control, through its comprehensive consideration of the conversion process from primary pollutants to secondary pollutants.

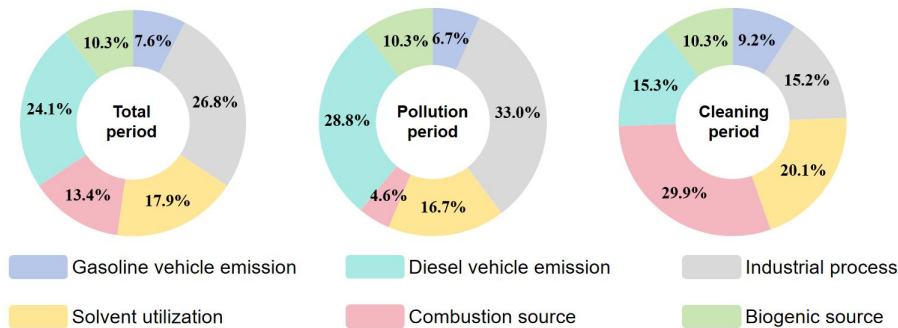


Fig. 8. Source contribution of key primary pollutants from AOC source apportionment.



Fig. 9. The contribution of various species in the emission source to AOC.

3.3.3 Analysis of emission reduction sensitivity

This study further analyzes source sensitivities of AOC, O₃, and secondary organic aerosols (SOA) to precursors (Fig. 10.). Given that the self-reaction rate between peroxy radicals (self-reaction) is typically used to characterize the formation potential of secondary organic aerosols (SOA) (Lyu et al., 2022), we used it as a marker to evaluate the generation of secondary pollutants (detailed calculation method of self-reaction showed in Text S9).



AOC demonstrates the highest source sensitivity to industrial process (0.041), followed by diesel vehicle emission (0.037) and solvent utilization (0.029). Compared to AOC source sensitivities (Fig. 10. a), O₃ sensitivity analysis (Fig. 10. b) exhibits 28.7%, 26.5%, and 48.5% underestimation for industrial process (0.029), solvent utilization (0.021), and diesel vehicle emission (0.019), respectively, while overestimating gasoline vehicle emission (0.018) and combustion sources (0.024) by 48.8% and 14.4%. Similarly, self-reaction sensitivity analysis (Fig. 10. c) shows 25.7%, 13.4%, and 5.6% underestimation for industrial process (0.030), solvent utilization (0.025), and diesel vehicle emission (0.035) compared to AOC, contrasted by 172% and 25% overestimation for gasoline vehicles (0.033) and combustion sources (0.026). Previous studies have identified industrial process and combustion sources have a significant impact on O₃ pollution, primarily due to their elevated precursor pollutants emissions that in promoting O₃ formation (Zhan et al., 2023). Additional research has also established industrial process and vehicular emissions of semivolatile and intermediate-volatility organic compounds (SVOCs and IVOCs) as dominant precursors in SOA formation (Tang et al., 2021; Miao et al., 2021). However, these studies remain confined to single secondary pollutant analyses, neglecting the control of secondary pollution from the perspective of AOC, especially the lack of analysis of alkenes like trans-2-butene etc., which crucially AOC. Thus, given that AOC quantifies secondary pollutant formation potential (Yu et al., 2022), the source sensitivity divergence with both AOC and individual secondary pollutants (e.g., O₃ and SOA) indicates that it was necessitates prioritizing emission sources' oxidation capacity impacts over their singular pollutant contributions (Wang et al., 2024).

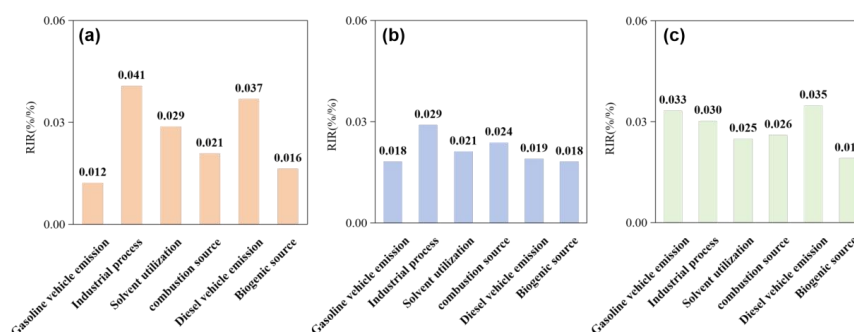


Fig. 10. source sensitivity analysis. (a), (b) and (c) represents the sensitivity of AOC, O₃, and SOA to different emission sources, respectively.

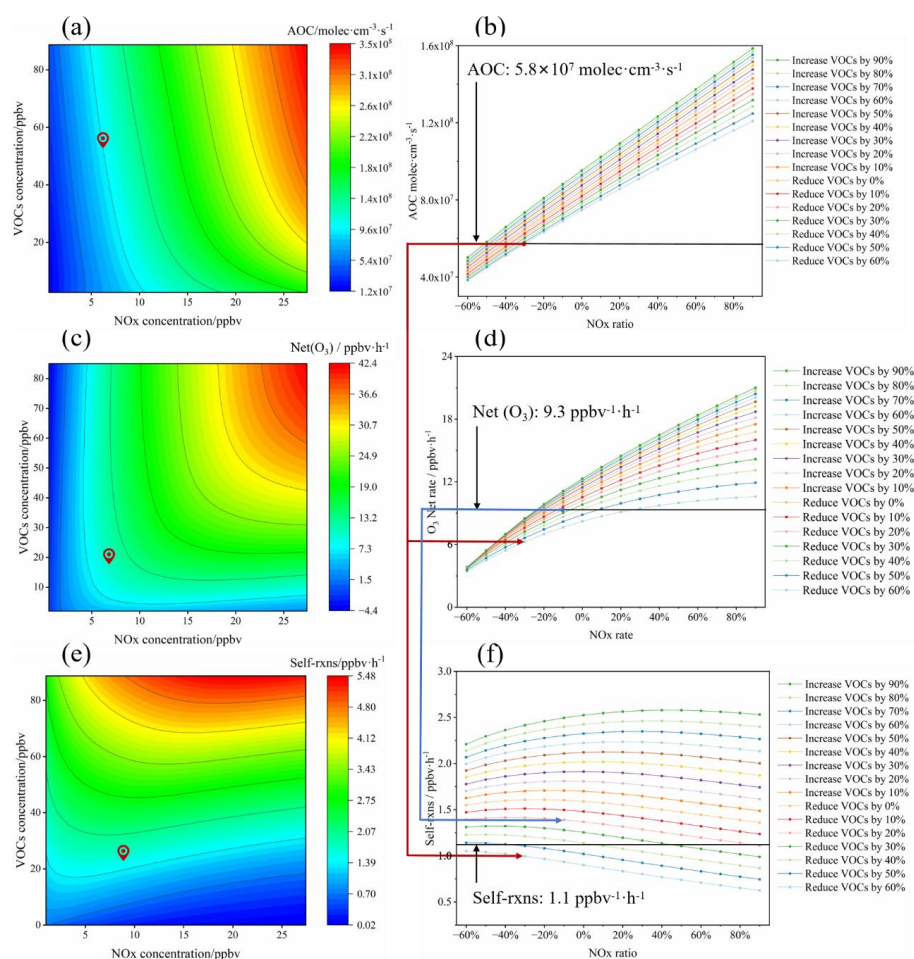
3.3.4 impact of reduction scenarios on secondary pollutant generation

The isopleth diagram was used in this study to quantify the nonlinear relationship between AOC, O₃ and SOA (Fig. 11.) with the precursors (InVOCs and NO_x), by using the F0AM-MCM model (Niu et al., 2024; Mozaffar et al., 2021). Initially, the average daytime concentrations of NO_x and VOCs are used as baseline. Subsequently,



VOCs and NO_x are varied at 10 % intervals, respectively, and a total of 441 analysis scenarios were constructed. Subsequently, VOCs and NO_x are varied from -60% to 90% at 10 % intervals, respectively, to construct the scenario matrix.

As shown in Fig. 11, the isopleth analysis indicates that reductions in both VOCs and NO_x lead to a decrease in the AOC, net O_3 production rate (Net O_3), and self-reaction in the studied city. Notably, NO_x reduction has a more pronounced effect on the decrease in AOC. This may be associated with the high contributions of $\text{OH}\cdot + \text{VOCs}$ and $\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2$ in the specific reaction of AOC in the case (as shown in 3.2.1). Firstly, $\text{OH}\cdot + \text{VOCs}$ generates substantial $\text{RO}_2\cdot$ radicals, and NO acts as a catalyst to accelerate the regeneration of $\text{OH}\cdot$ radicals from $\text{RO}_2\cdot$ in the $\text{RO}_x\cdot$ cycle, while AOC is largely determined by $\text{OH}\cdot$ radicals. Secondly, NO_2 directly promotes the $\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2$ reaction. We established the reduction targets based on the average levels during the cleaning period for AOC ($5.8 \times 10^7 \text{ molec}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}\cdot\text{s}^{-1}$), Net (O_3) ($9.3 \text{ ppbv}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), and self-reaction ($1.1 \text{ ppbv}\cdot\text{h}^{-1}$), respectively. To achieve the AOC target, the VOCs reduction of at least 60% was required if NO_x emissions were unchanged, whereas the 40% NO_x reduction was necessary if VOCs emissions remain constant. However, achieving independent reductions is challenging due to the similarities in the sources of VOCs and NO_x emission. Therefore, to meet the target for AOC, a simultaneous reduction of 60% in VOCs and 30% in NO_x was required (Fig. 11, b). Meanwhile, to meet the target for the Net (O_3), a coordinated reduction of at least 20% in VOCs and 10% in NO_x was needed (Fig. 11, d). Previous research has shown that the co-reduction of VOCs and NO_x is critical for controlling O_3 pollution. Specifically, the reduction strategy targeting AOC results in a more pronounced decrease in the Net (O_3), as indicated by the red arrow from point (b) to (d) in Fig. 11. In contrast, a reduction strategy designed solely for O_3 was not sufficient to meet the reduction target for self-reaction, by the blue arrow from point (d) to (f) in Fig. 11. A notable complication is the observed negative correlation between self-reaction and NO_x . This implies that a substantial reduction in NO_x could counter-intuitively cause self-reaction to increase, which could be counterproductive for SOA control. Despite this, when we assess self-reaction using the AOC-based reduction scenario (at least 60% for VOCs and 30% for NO_x), it fully satisfies the reduction target for self-reaction (as indicated by the red arrow from point (b) to (f) in Fig. 11). This result provides compelling evidence that a reduction strategy based on AOC enables the simultaneous mitigation of both O_3 and SOA. Therefore, an AOC-centric approach offers a viable pathway for the synergistic control of secondary pollutants.



631

632 Fig. 11. Response of AOC, Net(O₃) and self-reaction to different VOCs and NO_x
633 reduction percentages derived from the empirical kinetic modeling approach. Red
634 dots from (a), (c), and (e) represent the baseline scenario (average levels without
635 precursor pollutant controls during the study period). Black lines from (b), (d), and (f)
636 indicate target levels to be achieved by precursor control schemes (average during
637 cleaning periods). Red arrows show the effects of the AOC reduction scheme on
638 achieving O₃ and SOA targets. Blue arrows show the effects of the O₃ reduction
639 scheme on achieving the SOA target.

640

641 4 Conclusion

642 This study developed and applied the atmospheric oxidation capacity formation path
643 tracing (AOCPT) approach, a framework for guiding secondary pollutant control.
644 This method employs the developed radiation equivalent oxidation capacity (REOC)
645 metric to systematically quantify VOCs driven OH[•] radical production, which
646 indirectly enables the standardized quantification of key precursor species influencing



AOC. The defined relative incremental atmospheric oxidation capacity (RIA) method directly quantifies the impact of emission sources on AOC. Furthermore, it further quantifies the contributions of different precursor species and emission sources to AOC, which using a refined AOC source analysis method. This AOCPT approach offers new insights for secondary pollution control from the perspective of AOC.

A field application of this methodology revealed that OH related reactions were the dominant driver of AOC (56.9%), and daytime contributions from $O_3 + NO_2$ and $OH \cdot + VOCs$ reactions being particularly prominent (48.5–56.1%). This underscores the necessity of co-reducing both VOCs and NO_x for effective AOC regulation. The REOC analysis identified trans-2-butene as a critical contributor to AOC (71.1%). Consequently, further analysis pinpointed industrial processes (26.8%) and diesel vehicle emissions (24.1%) as the primary AOC sources, largely attributed to their emissions of trans-2-butene (accounting for 49.3% and 20.6% of total trans-2-butene, respectively). These findings provide direct, quantifiable evidence linking specific VOCs species and emission sources to the overall AOC, offering clear and actionable targets for regulatory action. Critically, conventional sensitivity analyses based on ozone (O_3) and self-reaction were found to significantly underestimate the contributions from industrial processes (by 28.7% and 25.7%, respectively) and diesel vehicles (by 48.5% and 13.4%, respectively) compared to our AOC-based assessment. This discrepancy can introduce substantial bias into policymaking. Crucially, our scenario analysis reveals that O_3 -targeted abatement can inadvertently increase secondary organic aerosols (SOA) levels, leading to a skewed mitigation outcome akin to “survivor bias”. In contrast, an AOC-centric strategy achieves significant and simultaneous reductions in both O_3 and SOA. This provides definitive evidence that compared to traditional treatment of single secondary pollutants, pollution abatement strategy based on AOC regulation can achieve refined co-mitigation of secondary pollutants. Therefore, the AOC-based approach for secondary pollution control serves not merely an alternative but also enhances the comprehensiveness and effectiveness of control strategies to some extent.

As China confronts a plateau in air quality improvement, where significant reductions in primary pollutants have not yielded proportional decreases in secondary pollution, a new strategy is urgently needed. This study argues that breaking the current bottleneck requires a fundamental shift in perspective. This paradigm shift, from pollutant-specific control to regulating the atmosphere's overall oxidative capacity, represents a pivotal step forward, offering a scientifically robust path to overcome the current impasse and achieve sustainable, long-term air quality goals.

Author contributions

YK: Writing - original draft, Methodology, Investigation, Data curation. **YY:** Writing - review & editing, Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Methodology, Conceptualization. **YN:** Validation, Supervision, Investigation, Data curation. **CY:** Data curation, Project administration, Conceptualization. **JD & YZ & DW:**



Investigation, Data curation. **JL & ZL**: Validation, Methodology. **LP**: Validation, Supervision, Project administration, Conceptualization.

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