



1 **Measurement report: Characterizing O₃-NO_x-VOC sensitivity and O₃**
2 **formation in a heavily polluted central China megacity using multi-methods**
3 **during 2019–2021 warm seasons**

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29 **Abstract**

30 This study investigated the high ozone pollution in Zhengzhou City from 2019 to
31 2021 using observational data and model simulations, focusing on volatile organic
32 compound (VOC) pollution and its impact on ozone formation. Using online VOC
33 data and statistical analyses, the results showed that VOC concentration increased
34 with ozone pollution level, with average values of 84.7 ± 51.0 , 96.6 ± 53.4 and
35 $105.3 \pm 59.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ for non-pollution, mildly polluted and moderately polluted periods,
36 respectively. Source apportionment of ozone and its precursor VOCs was performed
37 using CMAQ and PMF models. The results demonstrated that reducing vehicle
38 emissions should be prioritized to mitigate ozone pollution in Zhengzhou, as
39 transportation emissions accounted for 64% and 31% of ozone and VOC emissions,
40 respectively. In addition, local ozone production rates and HOx base budgets were
41 calculated using an observation-based model (OBM). The ozone production rates on
42 non-pollution, mildly polluted, and moderately polluted days were respectively 2.0,
43 4.5, and 6.9 ppbv/h on average. The HOx radical concentration on polluted days was
44 1.5-6.4 times higher than that on non-pollution days, which is indicative of more
45 efficient radical cycling during photochemical pollution. The O₃-NO_x-VOC
46 sensitivity was analyzed using the OBM model, CMAQ model and ratio method. The
47 results showed that ozone generation in Zhengzhou was mainly limited by VOCs,
48 suggesting that the reduction of VOCs should be focused on aromatic hydrocarbons
49 and olefins. The optimal reduction ratio of anthropogenic VOCs to NO_x was about
50 2.9:1. This study will offer deeper insights for formulating effective ozone pollution
51 prevention and control strategies.

52 **Keywords:** Volatile organic compounds; the Observation-based model; the
53 Community multiscale air quality; the Source apportionment; the O₃-NO_x-VOCs
54 sensitivity.



55 **1. Introduction**

56 Tropospheric ozone (O_3) is a secondary pollutant generated from precursors such as
57 volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x) through complex
58 photochemical reactions driven by solar radiation (Meng et al., 2023; Ye et al., 2023).
59 Its strong oxidizing properties can trigger multi-dimensional ecological health risks
60 such as human respiratory damage, oxidative stress in plant leaves, and enhanced
61 greenhouse effects in the troposphere (Jia et al., 2024; Kittipornkul et al., 2023; Zhao
62 et al., 2023). The distinct nonlinear characteristics of ozone generation have posed
63 significant challenges to the analysis of relevant pollution causes and the formulation
64 of corresponding prevention and control strategies (Wang et al., 2023). However, it
65 remains unclear about the contribution of motor vehicle exhaust, industrial emissions,
66 and other anthropogenic sources of pollution to ozone generation and their driving
67 mechanisms in the context of accelerated urbanization. Therefore, there is an urgent
68 demand for systematic investigation to resolve the key issue in the field of
69 atmospheric environment.

70 Recent research has advanced our understanding of VOCs, key precursors to ozone.
71 As revealed by global monitoring data, there are substantial geographical differences
72 in the concentration and composition of VOCs. For example, alkanes dominate
73 accounts for over 80% of VOCs in Colorado, USA; while oxygenated VOCs
74 (OVOCs), particularly acetone and acetic acid, are predominant in Athens, Greece
75 (Abeleira et al., 2017; Kaltsonoudis et al., 2016). In China, VOCs pollution shows
76 complex spatial and temporal patterns, with concentrations ranging from 27.0 ppbv in
77 Nanjing to 92.0 ppbv in Tianjin during the summer (An et al., 2017; Han et al., 2015).
78 Besides, alkanes take a sizeable proportion in urban regions like the North China
79 Plain and Yangtze River Delta, though aromatic hydrocarbons and OVOCs exhibit
80 higher photochemical activity in some areas (Mozaffar et al., 2020). Some regional
81 differences have been highlighted in VOCs source analysis. Specifically, in Paris,
82 VOCs largely come from liquefied petroleum gas (LPG) and solvents, while in
83 Punjab, India, biomass burning is the major contributor to VOCs (Baudic et al., 2016;
84 Pallavi et al., 2019). In the North China Plain, fossil fuel combustion, solvent use, and



85 LPG account for significant VOCs emissions; while in the Yangtze River Delta, the
86 petrochemical industry is a major source of VOCs emissions (Mozaffar et al., 2020).
87 Despite extensive research on VOCs sources, most studies focus on short-term
88 pollution events and lack continuous tracking of VOCs component dynamics across
89 varying ozone pollution levels. Furthermore, there is a lack of coordinated traceability
90 research on ozone and its precursors. Traditional studies are commonly conducted
91 based on single models, which may result in uncertainty in emission reduction
92 strategies and hinder precise ozone pollution control.

93 Sensitivity studies of O₃ and its precursors are essential for developing effective
94 control policies (Liao et al., 2024; Liu et al., 2021); however, existing methods have
95 notable limitations. For example, the empirical kinetic modeling approach (EKMA, a
96 model that establishes the relationship between reaction rates and concentrations
97 based on experimental data) and air quality models simplify photochemical
98 mechanisms, which may induce bias-related risks (Liu et al., 2021). Besides,
99 uncertainties in emission inventories and aerosol-ozone interactions pose challenges
100 to air quality models (Sharma et al., 2017). Additionally, observational methods like
101 photochemical indicators lack universality across regions with differing
102 photochemical conditions (Sillman, 1995). Moreover, the fluctuations in emission
103 sources during events like the COVID-19 epidemic and the complexity of
104 aerosol-ozone interactions further highlight the demand for more comprehensive
105 approaches (Liu et al., 2020). Facing these methodological dilemmas, ozone
106 formation mechanisms vary significantly in different regions. Ozone formation is
107 typically categorized into NO_x-controlled, VOCs-controlled, and transition zones
108 (Sillman, 2021). Urban areas, such as New York (Tran et al., 2023), London (Tudor,
109 2022), Mexico City (Santiago et al., 2024), Beijing (He et al., 2022), Shanghai (Liu et
110 al., 2021), Guangzhou (Hong et al., 2022), and Chengdu (Tan et al., 2018), are
111 predominantly classified into VOCs-controlled zones. Contrarily, remote rural areas,
112 such as Okinawa, Japan (Martin et al., 2004), Taian in Shandong Province (Li et al.,
113 2024), and Wangdu in Hebei Province (Ran et al., 2011), are primarily classified into
114 Nox-controlled zones. Temporal variations also add complexity, with seasonal and



115 diurnal shifts in O₃–NO_x–VOCs sensitivity (Liu et al., 2010; Pan et al., 2015). Given
116 these spatial and temporal variations, a multi-method, data fusion approach is required
117 for better capturing the dynamics of O₃ generation, thus providing more policy
118 guidance for pollution control.

119 To address these scientific challenges, Zhengzhou, a megacity in central China, is
120 selected in this study. As of 2023, there are over 13 million residents and 5 million
121 registered vehicles in the metropolitan area of Zhengzhou, facing severe haze and
122 photochemical pollution from intensive anthropogenic emissions (Wang et al., 2021;
123 Zhang et al., 2023). Although the Central Plains urban cluster centered on Zhengzhou
124 has achieved significant progress in controlling primary pollutants, the paradoxical
125 situation of persistently rising ozone levels still exists in this area, necessitating urgent
126 investigation into its formation mechanisms (Jia et al., 2024; Li et al., 2020; Min et al.,
127 2022; Yu et al., 2021). In this study, based on VOCs monitoring data (2019 - 2021),
128 some advanced modeling approaches including the Ozone Box Model (OBM) and
129 Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model are employed to: (1) analyze the
130 pollution characteristics of atmospheric VOCs in Zhengzhou and clarify the
131 differences in their temporal distributions; (2) identify the sources of O₃ and VOCs;
132 (3) investigate the local O₃ photochemical generation and removal pathways.
133 Furthermore, the O₃ isoconcentration curve in Zhengzhou is plotted to elucidate the
134 relationship between O₃ generation, VOCs, and NO_x. On that basis, targeted O₃
135 pollution control measures are proposed. The findings of this study can help
136 Zhengzhou and other similar cities formulate targeted O₃ pollution control measures
137 and also contribute to regional and global atmospheric environment research and
138 pollution control theory.

139 **2. Observation and methodology**

140 **2.1 Monitoring stations and instruments**

141 Zhengzhou, the capital of Henan Province, is located in central China. The region
142 faces severe air pollution, with its air quality ranking among the bottom twenty of
143 major cities in China from January to September 2024. Although significant progress



144 has been made in air pollution control, resulting in a noticeable reduction in pollutant
145 concentrations, the region still faces the dual pressure of winter smog and summer
146 ozone pollution, making it a prominent high-pollution area (Wang et al., 2021; Zhang
147 et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2022).

148 The municipal environmental monitoring station (MEM; 113°36'E, 34°45'N) was
149 selected as the study site to obtain real-time online data, covering May to September
150 during the period from 2019 to 2021 (Fig. S1). Located on the roof of a four-story
151 building at the municipal environmental monitoring station, the area of the sampling
152 site is predominantly commercial and residential, with no significant industrial
153 sources nearby. The station is situated 300 m west of Qinling Road and 200 m south
154 of Zhongyuan Road, both of which experience heavy traffic. Thus, mobile sources
155 may significantly contribute to the VOCs concentration of the site. The MEM station
156 is part of the air monitoring network operated by the Zhengzhou Environmental
157 Monitoring Center. Simultaneously observed meteorological parameters include
158 temperature, relative humidity, atmospheric pressure, wind direction, wind speed, and
159 trace gases, such as O₃, NO, and NO_x.

160 Here, VOCs data with a temporal resolution of 1 h were collected using a Wuhan
161 Tianhong online monitoring system (TH-300B), comprising two main modules (a
162 cryogenic preconcentration system and gas chromatography/mass spectrometry
163 (GC/MS) system). The cryogenic preconcentration unit employs an electronic
164 refrigeration technique, achieving an extreme internal temperature of -150°C in the
165 cold trap, effectively capturing the target compounds. This low-temperature empty
166 tube trapping method is advantageous over traditional techniques because it
167 minimizes the disadvantages of adsorbent adsorption, reduces VOCs loss, and
168 enhances data accuracy. Teflon tubes were used to prevent chemical interference from
169 adsorbents. Prior to air sample collection, a water removal device was used to
170 eliminate excess moisture, preventing VOCs loss during low-temperature
171 preconcentration. A particulate removal device was installed at the inlet of the
172 sampling tube to filter out airborne particulate matter.

173 The complete workflow of the monitoring system includes sample collection, freeze
174 trapping, thermal desorption, GC-flame ionization detector (FID)/MS analysis, and
175 heating. To ensure the accuracy of the data obtained during the observation, rigorous
176 quality assurance and quality control measures were implemented (Wang et al., 2022).
177 Prior to analytical testing, the GC-FID/MS system was periodically calibrated using



an external standard gas across five concentration gradients (0.8, 1.6, 2.4, 4.0, and 8.0 ppbv), generating five-point calibration curves for each analyte. Four internal standard gases (bromochloromethane, 1,4-dichlorobenzene, chlorobenzene, and fluorobromobenzene) were used to ensure instrument stability. The instrument quantified a total of 108 VOCs species, including PAMs and TO-15 (Linde Spectra Environment Gases, USA). The linear correlation coefficients (R^2) for the VOCs measured using the instrument exceeded 0.99, and the method detection limits (MDLs) were in the range of 0.003–0.121 ppbv (Yu et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022). Notably, 90% of the target compounds exhibited a quantification accuracy within 25%, and the measurement precision, as indicated by the relative standard deviation of the peak area, was maintained below 5%.

2.2 Analytical model for O₃ formation mechanism

2.2.1 Relative incremental reactivity

Here, we employed the OBM, commonly used in transformation studies of atmospheric VOCs to investigate the formation of O₃, free radicals, and intermediates (Niu et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2024). The atmospheric chemistry framework employed here was based on the Master Chemical Mechanism (MCM) v3.3.1 (<http://mcm.leeds.ac.uk/mcm/>), which describes the degradation processes of methane and 142 non-methane VOCs, encompassing over 17000 reactions and 5800 substances and radicals (Chen et al., 2023; Fu et al., 2024).

The model inputs include 61 VOCs and 8 oxygenated VOCs (including acrolein, acetone, 2-butanone, 4-methyl-2-pentanone, 2-hexanone, 2-propanol, ethyl acetate, methyl tert-butyl ether (MTBE), and 1,4-dioxane), along with inorganic trace gases (NO_x, SO₂, and CO) and relevant meteorological factors (temperature, barometric pressure, and relative humidity) to constrain the model. Owing to the unavailability of measured photolysis rate parameters (j values), we simulated these parameters using the Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible (TUV) model (TUVv5.2, <http://cprm.acom.ucar.edu/models/TUV>), which is widely employed for such applications. The simulation period was set to 05:00–19:00 within the observation time frame.

The relative importance ratios (RIRs) were computed using the OBM to assess the relationship between O₃ precursors (Chai et al., 2023; Hu et al., 2023), as follows:



$$RIR^S(X) = \frac{[P_{O_3}^S(X) - P_{O_3}^S(X - \Delta X)] / P_{O_3}^S(X)}{\Delta S(X) / S(X)} \quad (1)$$

where X is a specific precursor, S(X) is the actual concentration of substance X, and $\Delta S(X)$ is the theoretical change in S(X). $P_{O_3}^S(X)$ and $P_{O_3}^S(X - \Delta X)$ refer to the simulated O_3 yields based on varying the concentration of species X in baseline and theoretical scenarios, respectively.

Net O_3 production was simulated based on the OBM model. The net O_3 production rate ($P_{O_3}^S$) is the difference between the gross O_3 production rate ($G_{O_3}^S$) and destruction rate ($D_{O_3}^S$).

$$P_{O_3}^S = G_{O_3}^S - D_{O_3}^S. \quad (2)$$

$G_{O_3}^S$ was calculated by accumulating the oxidation rates of NO by HO_2 and RO_2 .

$$G_{O_3}^S = k_{HO_2+NO} [HO_2][NO] + \sum k_{RO_{2i}+NO} [RO_{2i}][NO] \quad (3)$$

In addition, $D_{O_3}^S$ was calculated based on O_3 photolysis, reactions between HO_2 and olefins, and reactions between O_3 and OH and between NO_2 and OH.

$$D_{O_3}^S = k_{O(^1D)+H_2O} [O(^1D)][H_2O] + k_{OH+NO_2} [OH][NO_2] + k_{OH+O_3} [OH][O_3] + k_{HO_2+O_3} [HO_2][O_3] + k_{alkenes+O_3} [alkenes][O_3] \quad (4)$$

The values of the intermediates and radicals were obtained from the output of the OBM model. Constants k in Eqs. (3) and (4) are the rate coefficients for the matching reactions, respectively.

2.2.2 Empirical kinetic modeling approach

The empirical kinetic modeling approach (EKMA) was developed based on OBM calculations, commonly employed to assess the sensitivities of O_3 to NO_x and VOCs (Liang et al., 2023; Liu et al., 2022). This approach was employed to characterize the nonlinear relationship between O_3 and its precursors. Considering that the mixing ratio of VOCs does not accurately reflect the amount of O_3 produced, the VOCs concentration was substituted with the total OH reactivity of anthropogenic hydrocarbons in generating the EKMA curves. The reactivity was calculated using the hydroxyl radical (OH) reaction constants corresponding to the concentrations of VOCs and NO_x in the model. By varying the concentrations and reactivities of the



VOCs and NO_x, the precursors were identified as a function of the O₃ production rate P_{O₃}^S, leading to the generation of the EKMA curves. The net O₃ production rate P_{O₃}^S, O₃ generation rate G_{O₃}^S, and O₃ depletion rate D_{O₃}^S were calculated using Eqs. (2)–(4), respectively.

2.2.3 Decoupled direct method

The decoupled direct method (DDM) is simulated using the WRF/CMAQ model, with detailed configuration information provided in the papers published by our research group (Su et al., 2021). Additionally, the WRF/CMAQ setup is summarized in Table S1. In brief, the WRF/CMAQ model was configured with four nested domains: 36 km for East Asia, 12 km for central and eastern China, 4 km for Henan Province, and 1 km for Zhengzhou (Fig S2). WRF provided meteorological inputs for CMAQ, using 6-h FNL global reanalysis data for initial and boundary conditions. The CMAQ model utilized the SAPRC-99 gas-phase photochemical mechanism and AERO6 aerosol module, with modified heterogeneous chemistry for SO₂ to sulfate and NO₂ to nitrate conversion (Hu et al., 2014). The 36-km simulation used clean continental IC/BC, and nested domain IC/BC were derived from the parent domains. The first five days of CMAQ output were discarded to minimize IC influence. Anthropogenic emissions for China were based on the 2016 MEIC inventory (0.25° × 0.25° resolution), while emissions from other regions used the REAS2 inventory. Emissions from Henan (4-km domain) were based on local data from Bai et al. (2020). Biogenic emissions for all domains were generated using MEGAN version 2.10, with windblown dust emissions generated online in CMAQ simulations.

The decoupled direct method (DDM) can be employed to analyze the sensitivity of O₃ to its precursors. By directly solving the sensitivity equations of the air quality model, various sensitivity coefficients can be obtained, enabling comprehensive sensitivity analyses. The primary objective of this study was to calculate the semi-normalized first- and second-order sensitivities of O₃ concentration with respect to anthropogenic VOCs and NO_x emissions.

$$S_V = \frac{\partial C_{O_3}}{\partial V}. \quad (5)$$



266
$$S_N = \frac{\partial C_{O_3}}{\partial N}. \quad (6)$$

267
$$S_{VV} = \frac{\partial^2 C_{O_3}}{\partial V^2}. \quad (7)$$

268
$$S_{NN} = \frac{\partial^2 C_{O_3}}{\partial N^2}. \quad (8)$$

269
$$S_{VN} = \frac{\partial^2 C_{O_3}}{\partial V \partial N}. \quad (9)$$

270 In the model, V, N, and O₃ represent VOCs, NO_x, and O₃, respectively. C_{O₃} is the O₃
271 concentration, whereas ε_V and ε_N are the relative perturbations in total anthropogenic
272 VOCs and NO_x emissions from sources in Henan Province. The first-order
273 sensitivities of the O₃ concentration to NO_x and VOCs emissions are denoted by S_N
274 and S_V, respectively. S_{NN} and S_{VV} denote the second-order sensitivities.

275 For model calibration using CMAQ-DDM, the pollutants considered for validation
276 included routinely observed meteorological parameters and pollutant concentration
277 data. Table S2 shows that the simulated PM_{2.5} concentrations were slightly
278 overestimated, with an overall overestimation of approximately 20%, closely aligning
279 with the actual air quality conditions. The simulation results for O₃ revealed a better
280 performance than those for PM_{2.5}, achieving an overall correlation (R) of 0.74, which
281 met the requirements for targeted research on O₃ during the study period. However,
282 the O₃ concentrations were slightly underestimated, with an overall underestimation
283 of 17%. On the contrary, the simulation of nitrogen dioxide is generally more accurate,
284 as NO₂ is directly emitted, leading to better model performance in simulating NO₂.
285 This consistent underestimation of O₃ suggests that VOCs emission sources may be
286 underestimated to an extent, although NO₂ simulations are largely accurate.

287 Overall, the simulation results effectively reproduced the spatial and temporal
288 distribution characteristics of air pollution in Henan Province and Zhengzhou City,
289 providing a solid foundation for research (Su et al., 2021).



290 **2.3 Pollutant source attribution**

291 **2.3.1 O₃ source apportionment**

292 Traceability analysis is employed to uniquely label or add tracer ions to single
 293 emission substances from different regions or industries within the emission source
 294 inventory (Xian et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2023). Thus, our CMAQ (Source Oriented
 295 CMAQ v5.3.2) model, which includes a source apportionment function,
 296 independently computed the scientific processes affecting pollutants marked with
 297 unique industry or regional labels (Su et al., 2023). By analyzing the concentration
 298 results of these labeled species, we determined the contribution of each pollutant.
 299 In the regional traceability simulation, we quantified the contributions of various
 300 emission sources in Zhengzhou through industry traceability (as shown in Fig. S2).
 301 Specifically, we simplified the emission sources (originally categorized into 16 types)
 302 into seven categories based on a refined 1-km inventory of Zhengzhou City. Thus, the
 303 contributions of local emissions to O₃ formation from different industries were
 304 determined, facilitating more accurate industry and regional control.

305 **2.3.2 VOCs source apportionment**

306 The Positive Matrix Factorization (PMF) model (version 5.0) developed by the U.S.
 307 Environmental Protection Agency was used for the source apportionment of VOCs
 308 (Farhat et al., 2024; Frischmon et al., 2024). PMF is a multivariate factor analysis tool
 309 that decomposes measurement data into source profile and source contribution
 310 matrices. As shown in Eq. (10), the concentration of species can be determined using
 311 the contribution of the source to the target source and the species distribution of each
 312 source:

$$313 \quad X_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj} + e_{ij} . \quad (10)$$

314 X_{ij} is the concentration of the j th substance measured in the i th sample, g_{ik} is the
 315 contribution of the k th source to the i th sample, f_{kj} is the proportion of the j th
 316 substance in the k th source, and e_{ij} is the residual amount of the j th substance in the
 317 j th sample.

318 The results obtained using Eq. 10 typically present uncertainty (UNC) because of the
 319 error fraction of the species concentration and MDL. PMF analysis relies on the
 320 objective function (Q) to minimize residuals and uncertainties.



$$Q = \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^m \left[\frac{x_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^p g_{ik} f_{kj}}{u_{ij}} \right]^2 \quad (11)$$

where n and m are the numbers of species and samples, respectively, and u_{ij} is the UNC of the j th species in the i -th sample. Q (true) is the fitting parameter calculated when all the data are included, whereas Q (robust) is calculated when the model excludes inappropriate data. Q can be used to select the best mathematical result.

The calculation method for UNC related to the PMF model is as follows:

If the sample concentration is less than or equal to the MDL, the UNC is calculated using Eq. (12):

$$unc = \frac{5}{6} \times MDL. \quad (12)$$

If the concentration exceeds the MDL, UNC is calculated using Eq. (13):

$$unc = \sqrt{(ErrorFraction \times Conc.)^2 + (0.5 \times MDL)^2} \quad (13)$$

where unc refers to the UNC of species in the sample, MDL refers to the minimum limit of the detection method, and $ErrorFraction$ refers to the sample error (typically 10%–20%, set to 10% here).

The species selection of PMF is performed based on the following principles: (1) prioritizing VOC species with higher concentrations for effective signal separation; (2) selecting emission tracers like isoprene to accurately trace pollution sources; (3) excluding species with over 25% missing data or concentrations below the method detection limit (MDL) to avoid bias; (4) excluding species with a signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) below 0.5 to ensure adequate signal strength. The final selection comprised 37 VOCs species. The total concentrations of these VOCs accounted for 82% of the overall VOCs concentration, indicating that they effectively represented the main VOCs situation. In this study, a six-factor solution was chosen in the PMF analysis based on two parameters (Ulbricht et al., 2009): (1) Q_{true}/Q_{robust} values and (2) $Q_{true}/Q_{theoretical}$ values (Fig. S3). As shown in Table S3, the stability assessment of the six-factor solution of PMF by Bootstrap resampling (BS) and parametric displacement test (DISP) shows that the solution has high statistical robustness.

2.4 Machine Learning and SHAP Analysis

To accurately capture the complex nonlinear relationship among meteorological



350 variables, pollutant concentrations, and O₃ levels, two mainstream ensemble learning
351 algorithms, XGBoost and Random Forest (RF), were selected in this study to
352 construct a prediction model. The strong robustness and high prediction accuracy of
353 these two methods in dealing with nonlinear regression problems make them an ideal
354 choice for environmental pollutant concentration prediction (Fan et al., 2025).
355 XGBoost, as a scalable tree-based boosting algorithm, has the core advantage of
356 optimizing the differentiable loss function through gradient descent and introducing
357 regularization term to effectively control the complexity of the model, significantly
358 reducing the risk of over fitting and enhancing the generalization ability of the model.
359 The algorithm can also automatically process missing values, support parallel
360 computing and efficiently prune trees, especially for structured table data processing
361 in this study (Li et al., 2025). With its strong ability to deal with the complex
362 correlation between ozone concentration and multiple characteristics such as
363 temperature, humidity, nitrogen dioxide (NO₂), and fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}),
364 XGBoost has become the main modeling framework of this study with its excellent
365 performance and computational efficiency (Tabo et al., 2025).
366 RF is constructed using the bagging method, which introduces sample randomness
367 through bootstrap sampling. Moreover, it incorporates a feature selection mechanism
368 during the node splitting process of each decision tree to reduce inter-tree correlation
369 effectively, enhancing model stability and robustness against interference. In
370 regression tasks, the model consolidates predictions from multiple decision trees to
371 generate the final output, striking a balance between predictive performance and
372 practicality (Wang et al., 2024).
373 Both models are implemented using tools from the Python ecosystem: the XGBoost
374 model is built using the XGBoost library, and the RF model is developed with the
375 scikit-learn library. To achieve optimal performance, a grid search strategy combined
376 with cross-validation is used to systematically optimize the models' hyperparameters.
377 By traversing predefined parameter combinations and assessing the models'
378 generalization ability, the optimal parameter configuration is ultimately identified to
379 ensure the reliability of the prediction results (Khan et al., 2025).



380 **2.4.2 Interpretability Analysis Using SHAP**

381 To overcome the "black box" limitation of machine learning, it is necessary to
382 quantitatively calculate and understand the importance of the role of each influence
383 factor on the prediction of ozone concentration, as well as its influencing direction
384 and size (Liu et al., 2024). Therefore, SHAP (Shapley Additive exPlanations) value
385 analysis method was used for interpretation of machine learning model in this study.
386 This method uses Shapley value theorem of cooperative game theory, to judge which
387 factors or variable values play important and fair roles both globally (the sum of all
388 samples' predicting results) and individually (every sample's single prediction),
389 making up the deficiencies of the traditional parameter analysis in dealing with
390 complex nonlinear relationship between variables (Takefuji 2025).

391 In the specific analysis process, SHAP values are first calculated for all observed
392 samples. By taking the absolute values of the SHAP values and averaging them, the
393 global importance ranking of meteorological elements, pollutants, and other features
394 affecting ozone concentration is determined (Zhang et al., 2024). Meanwhile, based
395 on the sign of the SHAP values (positive or negative), the direction of each feature's
396 influence on ozone concentration is clarified: positive values indicate that the feature
397 promotes ozone concentration increase, while negative values suggest an inhibitory
398 effect (Yao et al., 2024). This analytical framework provides data-driven support for
399 identifying key driving factors behind ozone concentration changes and elucidating
400 their mechanisms of action.

401 **2.4.3 Model Performance Evaluation**

402 To comprehensively evaluate model fitting and generalization performance, three
403 standard regression metrics were used: the coefficient of determination (R^2), mean
404 squared error (MSE), and mean absolute error (MAE). Both XGBoost and RF models
405 were assessed on training and testing sets (Liu et al., 2024).

406 In terms of overall performance metrics (Table S4), the XGBoost model significantly
407 outperforms the RF model: Regarding fitting capability, XGBoost achieves a higher
408 training set R^2 (0.93) than RF (0.91), along with lower MSE (0.07) and MAE (0.20),
409 indicating more precise capture of data patterns and reduced training error. In terms of



410 generalization capability, the XGBoost model achieved a higher test set R^2 (0.86) than
411 the random forest model (0.84), along with lower MSE (0.13) and MAE (0.27),
412 demonstrating superior prediction stability on new data. Furthermore, the XGBoost
413 model exhibits a smaller gap between training and test metrics, indicating more
414 effective control over overfitting. In summary, the XGBoost model demonstrates
415 superior performance across fitting accuracy, generalization capability, and error
416 control (Yan et al., 2025).

417 Beyond its superior simulation performance, XGBoost showed slight advantages in
418 scalability, computational speed, and ability to capture complex feature interactions.
419 Therefore, the XGBoost model was selected as the core method for subsequent factor
420 identification and SHAP-based interpretability analysis (Takefuji et al., 2025).

421 **3. Results and discussion**

422 **3.1 General characteristics**

423 **3.1.1 Levels of air pollutants and meteorological parameters**

424 The results indicate severe photochemical pollution in the period from May to
425 September during the years 2019-2021 (in Fig. 1). According to the GB 3095-2012
426 standard, the maximum daily average 8 h (MDA8) O_3 concentrations exceeding 160
427 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and 160 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ are categorized as light pollution and moderate pollution,
428 respectively. The proportion of days with O_3 concentrations exceeding 160 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ was
429 as high as 45%, with days classified as moderate or higher pollution accounting for
430 7%. The MDA8 was recorded on June 6, 2021 (285 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), with a severe pollution
431 level. The proportion of MDA8 O_3 concentrations exceeding the standard during
432 sampling periods from 2019 to 2021 was 53%, 37%, and 36%, showing a downward
433 trend but still indicating severe O_3 pollution.

434 O_3 concentrations are significantly influenced by meteorological factors. As shown in
435 Fig. S3, Pearson correlation coefficients between O_3 concentrations and various
436 meteorological factors reveal that O_3 concentrations are positively correlated with
437 temperature and wind speed, with correlation coefficients of 0.66 and 0.43 ($p < 0.01$),
438 respectively. It is negatively correlated with relative humidity ($p < 0.01$), with a



correlation coefficient of -0.23 . The generation of ozone is intricately tied to the emissions of its precursor gases. As illustrated in Fig. S3, O_3 concentrations show significant correlations with its precursors—VOCs, NO, and NO_2 —with correlation coefficients (r) of -0.28 , -0.30 , and -0.57 , respectively. In contrast, $PM_{2.5}$ demonstrates notable positive correlations with these same three precursors, exhibiting r values of 0.36 , 0.17 , and 0.38 , respectively. This positive relationship between $PM_{2.5}$ and its precursor emissions suggests that regulating these emissions could effectively mitigate particulate matter concentrations (Shao et al., 2024).

Since the Pearson correlation coefficient primarily measures linear relationships, it is sensitive to outliers and cannot detect non-linear associations. To address this limitation, Spearman and Kendall statistical methods were also employed in this study to assess potential non-linear correlations (see Tables S5 and S6), and the results were consistent with those obtained using the Pearson correlation coefficient. Furthermore, when analyzing the relationship between O_3 and different VOCs components, a significant positive correlation was found between O_3 and OVOCs ($r = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that OVOCs concentrations in Zhengzhou are influenced by secondary formation processes. In contrast, significant negative correlations were observed with other VOCs components, with the strongest correlation found between O_3 and reactive aromatic hydrocarbons ($r = 0.32$, $p < 0.01$).

In summary, the formation of ozone is highly complex and closely related to the concentration of precursor substances as well as meteorological factors. Unlike $PM_{2.5}$ pollution, reducing precursor emissions may not necessarily alleviate photochemical pollution, which presents a greater challenge for control efforts and highlights the complexity of managing ozone pollution (Wang et al., 2024). Therefore, this paper will provide a comprehensive analysis of the formation mechanisms and sensitivity of O_3 -NO_x-VOCs.

3.1.2 Quantitative evaluation of influencing factors via machine learning and SHAP analysis

To move beyond the limitations of traditional correlation analysis, which only measures the strength and direction of linear associations, this study used XGBoost to



469 model the nonlinear relationships between O₃ concentrations and meteorological
470 factors (e.g., temperature, humidity, wind speed) as well as pollutants (e.g., NO_x,
471 VOC species, PM_{2.5}) (Razavi et al., 2024). SHAP values were employed to quantify
472 the contribution and directional influence of each factor (Zhang et al., 2024). The
473 XGBoost model demonstrated strong performance, with R² values of 0.93 on the
474 training set and 0.86 on the test set, indicating high predictive accuracy and
475 generalization ability.

476 As illustrated in the corresponding Fig. 2a, meteorological factors and pollutants
477 contributed nearly equally to ozone formation, accounting for 52% and 48% of the
478 total influence, respectively. This suggests that meteorological conditions play a
479 dominant role in ozone pollution episodes. Specifically, temperature was the most
480 influential factor (21.93%), primarily promoting photochemical reactions through
481 enhanced solar radiation and radical activity. Humidity (17.74%) generally inhibited
482 ozone formation by suppressing radical generation and affecting boundary layer
483 structure. Wind speed and direction contributed 5.01% and 4.71%, respectively, by
484 regulating pollutant transport and dispersion.

485 Among pollutants, NO_x was the most significant precursor, with a total contribution of
486 24.77%. NO₂ accounted for 17.57%, largely due to its photolysis being a direct source
487 of ozone. NO contributed 7.20%; although it can titrate ozone, its net effect during the
488 study period was promotive via oxidation to NO₂. The total contribution of VOCs was
489 13.04%, with substantial variation among species: highly reactive aromatics (4.10%)
490 and alkenes (1.88%) strongly promoted ozone formation by facilitating NO-to-NO₂
491 conversion. Low-reactivity species such as alkanes and alkynes each contributed less
492 than 1%. OVOCs, halogenated hydrocarbons, and sulfides showed limited influence
493 due to their secondary reaction pathways. PM_{2.5} contributed 7.35%, indirectly
494 promoting ozone formation through heterogeneous reactions on particle surfaces that
495 enhance NO conversion and through radiative warming effects.

496 SHAP analysis further revealed complex nonlinear behaviors (Fig. 2b): high
497 temperature and low humidity generally promoted ozone formation. NO₂ exhibited
498 concentration-dependent effects, promoting ozone at low levels but inhibiting it at



499 high concentrations due to titration. PM_{2.5} also showed a promotive effect at elevated
500 concentrations. Highly reactive VOCs consistently correlated with increased ozone.
501 By integrating machine learning, this study overcomes the constraints of traditional
502 statistics, enabling quantitative identification of key drivers and elucidating the
503 mechanisms of ozone formation under multi-factor synergy and antagonism
504 (Garbagna et al., 2025). The findings emphasize the need for coordinated control of
505 NO_x and highly reactive VOCs, as well as integrated management of PM_{2.5} and ozone,
506 providing a scientific basis for targeted air pollution policies.

507 **3.1.3 O₃ vs. non-O₃ episode days**

508 Meteorological conditions are a significant factor in O₃ pollution. High temperatures,
509 low relative humidity, and weak winds facilitate photochemical pollution (Xu et al.,
510 2023). Apart from meteorological factors, O₃ precursors significantly affect O₃
511 formation. Table 1 shows that NO_x concentrations during pollution periods
512 significantly exceeded those during non-pollution periods, and the concentration
513 increased as pollution intensified. PM₁₀ exhibited a pattern similar to that of NO_x,
514 suggesting that during photochemical pollution periods, the emission intensity of
515 atmospheric pollutants is relatively high (Saqr et al., 2024). Daily average PM_{2.5}
516 concentrations on ozone-polluted days exceeded those on non-polluted days. During
517 the sampling period, the average PM_{2.5} concentration on moderate pollution days was
518 $35.5 \pm 16.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, closed to the annual average ambient air quality standard (GB
519 3095-2012) Grade II standard of $35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ and 1.3 times higher than that during
520 non-pollution periods. NO concentration decreased with increasing pollution severity.
521 On moderately polluted days, the average NO was $1.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, which was lower than
522 7% of the levels observed on non-polluted days. This may be attributed to the fact that,
523 under O₃-polluted conditions, atmospheric oxidation capacity could potentially be
524 enhanced, with possibly elevated concentrations of both O₃ and free radicals that
525 might accelerate NO consumption. (Shao et al., 2024).
526 The average VOCs concentrations for non-pollution, light pollution, and moderate
527 pollution periods were 84.7 ± 51.0 , 96.6 ± 53.4 and $105.3 \pm 59.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively.



528 Considering the numerous VOCs types and sources, the top 20 substances for the
529 three stages were analyzed. Table 2 and Fig. S4 show that during the observation
530 period, higher concentrations of small-molecule hydrocarbons, such as ethane and
531 propane, suggest a significant influence of LPG/natural gas (NG) at the monitoring
532 site (Derwent et al., 2017). The acetylene and 1,2-dichloroethane concentrations
533 increased as pollution intensified, indicating a substantial impact from combustion,
534 particularly during photochemical pollution (Zuo et al., 2024). The concentrations of
535 C4–C5 alkanes and benzene series compounds were high, suggesting an association
536 with vehicle emissions (Han et al., 2024). Furthermore, on moderate pollution days,
537 vehicle tracer substances were more concentrated. The concentrations of n-hexane,
538 dichloromethane, trichloromethane, tetrachloroethylene, and ethyl acetate were high,
539 indicating emissions from solvent use. During pollution periods, the isoprene,
540 2-butanone, and 2-hexanone concentrations exceeded that during non-pollution
541 periods, indicating a significant impact of plants and more photochemical secondary
542 products during high O₃ periods.

543 Table S7 presents a comparison between the concentration characteristics of VOCs in
544 this study and those reported in domestic and international literature. The
545 concentration of VOCs in Zhengzhou ($90.3 \pm 52.8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; 2019-2021) is higher than
546 that of most international urban regions, aligning with other regions in China, such as
547 Beijing ($101.5 \pm 65.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; 2016) (Liu et al., 2021). In contrast, cities like Istanbul
548 ($40\text{--}60 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), Athens ($50.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; 2016-2017), and Vitória, Brazil (24.1 ± 29.6
549 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$; 2022-2024) show significantly lower levels in the concentration of VOCs,
550 reflecting regional disparities in emission control and industrial development (Thera
551 et al., 2019; Panopoulou et al., 2021; Galvão et al., 2025). The VOCs in Zhengzhou
552 are mainly composed of dichloromethane, acetone, ethane, isopentane, and n-hexane,
553 indicating mixed sources from solvents and vehicular emissions, different from other
554 cities where industrial and traffic emissions are more specialized. This finding
555 suggests that there is an urgent need for targeted abatement efforts to reduce the
556 concentration of VOCs and alleviate ozone pollution in a rapidly growing city like
557 Zhengzhou.



558 3.1.4 Diurnal variation

559 Fig. S5 illustrates the O₃ diurnal cycle divided into the suppression phase (P1) of O₃
560 by midnight and early morning NO emissions, photochemical generation phase (P2)
561 of O₃, and titration phase (P3) of O₃ by precursor substances prior to the evening peak
562 (Du et al., 2024). To reflect the photochemical processes, we examined the ratios of
563 compounds with different reaction rates of K_{OH} radicals but similar sources. Fig. S5
564 shows the relationship between ethylbenzene and xylene, revealing their homogeneity
565 ($R^2 > 0.9$). Ethylbenzene has a lifetime of 3 days, whereas the lifetime of xylene is 1
566 day. During the observation period, the diurnal variation trends of O₃ and the
567 ethylbenzene/xylene ratio were similar. The strong correlation between the age
568 indicator (the ratio of both compounds) and O₃ provides strong evidence linking O₃
569 with the photochemical processes of non-methane hydrocarbons (Hui et al., 2019).
570 The mean O₃ concentrations on non-polluted, lightly polluted, and moderately
571 polluted midnights are 82.9 ± 50.3 , 121.4 ± 78.2 , and 149.4 ± 80.7 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively.
572 As shown in Fig. S5, on polluted days, high fresh NO emissions at midnight
573 significantly reduced the O₃ levels. The O₃ concentration decreased to a minimum in
574 the early morning because of the high fresh NO emissions during the morning rush
575 hour. Contrarily, on non-polluted days, the NO concentration was lower at night,
576 leading to a weaker titration effect. Thus, the O₃ concentration remained relatively
577 stable at midnight and decreased to its minimum with the morning peak. Fig. 3
578 demonstrate the daily variation trends of characteristic VOCs. In stage P1, the
579 concentrations of NO, NO₂, and n-pentane increase on polluted days, whereas these
580 pollutants remain relatively stable on non-polluted days. Furthermore, benzene series
581 compounds (toluene, ethylbenzene, and meta/para-xylene) exhibit similar patterns.
582 Thus, we can infer that on polluted days, nighttime emissions are significantly
583 influenced by motor vehicle emissions (Song et al., 2023).
584 Stage P2 is the accumulation phase of O₃ (08:00–16:00). Photoreactions generate
585 many peroxy radicals (such as HO₂ and RO₂), converting sufficient NO into NO₂
586 (Fittschen, 2019). With increasing solar radiation, a large amount of NO₂ is
587 photolyzed to generate O₃, causing peak O₃ levels in this phase. The increase in O₃



588 during polluted periods significantly exceeded that during non-polluted periods. For
589 example, at 08:00 in non-polluted periods, the O_3 concentration was $47.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
590 increasing to $59.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ the next moment. During lightly and moderately polluted
591 periods, the O_3 concentration ranges were $56.4\text{--}81.5$ and $70.8\text{--}104.2 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,
592 respectively. This is because higher NO concentrations at night during polluted
593 periods contributed to the formation of more OH and peroxy radicals. Furthermore,
594 O_3 began to accumulate with increasing light intensity. Owing to the higher radical
595 content, the photochemical reaction activity was strong, and the high concentration of
596 peroxy radicals further oxidized NO to NO_2 , leading to higher O_3 generation
597 efficiency during polluted periods. The minimum value of O_3 during moderately
598 polluted periods was observed at 07:00, and although the NO concentration remained
599 high ($13.6 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), the O_3 concentration had already accumulated and rapidly
600 increased at 09:00. This indicated that the radical concentration was high, rendering it
601 advantageous in competing with NO for O_3 , leading to an increase in the O_3
602 concentration. As the NO titration weakened and photochemical activity increased, O_3
603 rapidly accumulated. Throughout the P2 stage, the concentrations of O_3 precursors
604 decreased because of the consumption in photochemical reactions. As shown in Fig. 3,
605 the concentrations of certain VOCs (particularly benzene series compounds) and NO
606 were lower on polluted days than on non-polluted days in this stage. It should be
607 noted that isoprene peaks around noon, owing to temperature- and light-dependent
608 emission rates. For the sensitivity of daily variation patterns, the ratio gradually
609 increased in P2, suggesting that the increase in the surrounding biogenic VOCs
610 (BVOCs) may shift the O_3 generation mechanism from VOCs to transition zones at
611 noon (Chen et al., 2022).

612 With the arrival of the evening peak and a gradual decrease in light intensity, the O_3
613 sources were less than the sinks, resulting in a continuous decrease in O_3
614 concentration in P3. The NO concentration during P3 was significantly lower than
615 that during P1. Owing to the effective NO titration, the O_3 concentration during P3 on
616 polluted days exceeded that on non-polluted days. For example, at 20:00 on a
617 moderately polluted day, the average O_3 concentration remained high at $176.3 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$,



618 decreasing to $131.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ by 23:00. This resulted in stronger atmospheric oxidation
619 at midnight and higher radical reaction activity (An et al., 2024). This influenced the
620 O_3 generation the next day, contributing to consecutive O_3 pollution days.

621 **3.2 Source apportionment of O_3 and VOCs**

622 **3.2.1 Source contributions to O_3**

623 Fig. 4 shows the spatial distribution of anthropogenic O_3 emissions in Zhengzhou. As
624 shown in Fig. 4a, local anthropogenic emissions contribute significantly to O_3 levels
625 in Zhengzhou, with the overall MDA8- O_3 (8-hour maximum daily average ozone
626 concentration) exceeding 28 ppbv ($55 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$), and concentrations exceeding 40 ppbv
627 observed in urban areas. Fig. 4b shows the anthropogenic contributions in other
628 regions of Henan Province, revealing that areas surrounding Zhengzhou also have
629 relatively high O_3 concentrations, reflecting the regional nature of ozone pollution.
630 This phenomenon suggests that controlling ozone pollution is challenging and
631 requires cross-regional mitigation measures.

632 To identify the main sources of the significant increase in MDA8- O_3 , we categorized
633 the total contributions into six sectors: industries, solvents, transportation, electricity,
634 residential areas, and other sources (Fig. 4c–h). The results indicate that transportation
635 is the largest contributor to O_3 formation in Zhengzhou, with the highest
636 concentrations exceeding 30 ppbv in the eastern part of the city. This area is
637 characterized by a dense road network, including several national expressways, which
638 suggests a close relationship between transportation emissions and high ozone levels
639 (Gu et al., 2019). Industrial emissions are the second largest source, with high ozone
640 concentrations primarily found in the northern and northwestern parts of Zhengzhou,
641 aligning with the city's industrial layout. The power sector also contributes to ozone
642 formation in Zhengzhou, with a concentration peak observed in the southwestern part
643 of the city.

644 Fig. S6 shows the contributions of various sources to O_3 formation during both
645 polluted and non-polluted periods of the observation. Transportation accounted for
646 63.6% of total contributions, but this decreased to 57.4% on polluted days. Traffic



sources are the largest contributors to O₃, consistent with previous research findings (Cheng et al., 2019; Su et al., 2023). Industrial sources contributed 30.4% on average and 26.4% on polluted days, indicating a slight reduction during pollution events. Electricity contribution significantly increased on polluted days, reaching 3.3 times the average. Simulation results suggest that more aggressive control measures are required in the transportation and industrial sectors during the summer. Attention should also be given to the electricity due to its increased emissions on polluted days.

3.2.2. Source apportionment of ambient VOCs

Fig. 5 shows the source apportionment factor spectrum for high O₃ pollution periods. Six factors were identified.

Factor 1 is characterized by dominant species, including acetylene (63%), chloromethane (25%), benzene (15%), and certain lower-carbon hydrocarbons (isobutane, n-pentane, ethylene, propylene, and trans-2-pentene, etc.). Acetylene, ethylene, and chloromethane are important indicators of fossil fuel and biomass combustion (Liu et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2016). Fixed combustion sources are major sources of C₂–C₃ lower-carbon alkanes and benzene (Li et al., 2024); thus, Factor 1 is identified as a combustion source.

Factor 2 mainly comprises C₂–C₅ alkanes, including ethane (56%), propane (48%), n-butane (37%), isobutane (31%), n-pentane (15%), and isopentane (19%). These substances are tracers for fuel evaporation (gasoline and LPG/NG) (Zhang et al., 2019). Pentane is one of the most abundant VOCs species associated with gasoline evaporation (Zhang et al., 2019), and butane has been reported as a tracer for LPG (Liu et al., 2008; Shen et al., 2018). Furthermore, the aromatic content in this source is extremely low; thus, this source is identified as LPG/NG.

Factor 3 is characterized by high MTBE levels (54%), small-molecule hydrocarbons (C₂–C₆), and benzene series compounds. C₂–C₆ alkanes, alkenes, and benzene series compounds are typical tracers of motor vehicle exhaust (Xiao et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023). MTBE is commonly used as an additive in gasoline, which improves the octane rating, enhances engine performance, and reduces exhaust emissions, making



676 it a tracer for motor vehicle exhaust (Schifter et al., 2017). Thus, Factor 3 is
677 determined to be a motor vehicle emission source.

678 Factor 4 is characterized by high C6–C8 alkane levels, such as n-hexane (68%),
679 3-methylpentane (29%), 2-methylpentane (30%), and n-heptane (26%). This factor
680 features high levels of acetone (59%), dichloromethane (45%), chloroform (31%),
681 carbon tetrachloride (69%), and benzene series compounds. Studies have shown that
682 benzene series compounds commonly originate from solvent-use emissions (Zhou et
683 al. 2019, Wang et al. 2021). Carbon tetrachloride, n-hexane, and dichloromethane are
684 commonly used chemical reagents. The content of highly volatile small-molecule
685 hydrocarbons in Factor 4 is low. Thus, Factor 4 is identified as a solvent source.

686 Factor 5 is characterized by pollutants, mainly comprising small-molecule
687 hydrocarbons (propane, butane, ethylene, and propylene, etc.), BTEX (VOCs group
688 including benzene, toluene, ethylbenzene, and xylene), carbon disulfide, and
689 halogenated hydrocarbons (carbon tetrachloride, dichloromethane, chloromethane,
690 and 1,2-dichloroethane, etc.). These substances are widely used in manufacturing,
691 furniture, shoe, and rubber industries (Hui et al., 2018; Yu et al., 2021); thus, Factor 5
692 is identified as an industrial source.

693 Factor 6 has the highest proportion of isoprene (89%), which is a marker of plant
694 emissions (Cheun et al., 2014; Khruengsai et al., 2024;); thus, Factor 6 is identified as
695 a plant source.

696 Fig. 6 shows the source apportionment of VOCs at different O₃ pollution levels from
697 June to September. The results indicate that the motor vehicle emissions gradually
698 increased as O₃ pollution intensified. On moderately polluted days, this source
699 accounted for up to 35%; thus, during high O₃ pollution periods, it is crucial to
700 enhance the control of motor vehicle emissions. The proportion of combustion
701 sources is significantly higher on moderately polluted days compared with other
702 periods. Therefore, combustion sources must be controlled during O₃ pollution
703 periods. On moderately polluted days, the proportion of plant sources is relatively
704 high, closely related to high temperatures and strong radiation. During the observation
705 period, the proportion of solvent-use sources was high but decreased with increasing



706 pollution. It is speculated that solvent emissions, which include highly active aromatic
707 hydrocarbons, are consumed more because of the high photochemical activity during
708 O₃ pollution periods. Summarily, during high O₃ pollution periods, attention should be
709 focused on controlling motor vehicle, solvent use, and combustion sources.
710 Table S8 presents a comparison of source apportionment between Zhengzhou and
711 other cities. During the observation period, the main sources of VOCs in Zhengzhou
712 comprise vehicle emissions (31%), solvent use (24%), and industrial processes (21%),
713 collectively accounting for 76% of the total pollution, highlighting the dominant role
714 of traffic and industrial pollution. In contrast, cities like Paris and Turkey have
715 significantly lower proportions of vehicle emissions (15% and 15.8%, respectively)
716 (Baudic et al., 2016; Thera et al., 2019). The proportion of solvent use in Zhengzhou
717 (21%) is similar to that in the cities of the Yangtze River Delta but higher than that in
718 Turkey and other regions (Zhang et al., 2025; Thera et al., 2019). The severity of
719 biogenic pollution in Zhengzhou is lower, a phenomenon particularly evident in cities
720 with richer vegetation cover, such as Athens (Kaltsonoudis et al., 2016). The source
721 apportionment structure in Zhengzhou reflects its typical characteristics as an
722 industrial city, with significant pressure from traffic emissions, as well as notable
723 contributions from solvent use and industrial processes, while biogenic sources
724 contribute relatively little.

725 3.3 Differences in photochemical reactivity

726 3.3.1 In situ net O₃ production

727 As shown in Fig. 7, the mean of net P(O₃) during daytime (05:00–19:00) in
728 Zhengzhou City during the observation period was 3.1 ppbv/h. This was lower than
729 that of Beijing (5.8 ppbv/h) (Xue et al., 2014), Wuhan (6.2 ppbv/h) (Lu et al., 2017),
730 and Taishan (4.2 ± 0.9 ppbv/h) (Kanaya et al., 2009), and higher than that of Shanghai
731 (Liu et al., 2021) (2.8 ± 0.7 ppbv/h), etc. Fig. 7 shows the daily P(O₃) trends for
732 different pollution periods. The average net P(O₃) during the daytime averages were
733 2.0 (non-polluted), 4.5 (mildly polluted), and 6.9 ppbv/h (moderately and highly
734 polluted), which were converted into the O₃ daytime chemical accumulation, with



735 values of 30, 67, and 103 ppbv, respectively. To elucidate the local O₃ photochemical
736 generation and removal pathways, the source–sink pathways and their corresponding
737 shares in the O₃ generation process were investigated.

738 As shown in Table 3, the mean F(O₃) in Zhengzhou was 3.8 ppbv/h, mainly controlled
739 by three pathways, with contributions of 84% (RO₂+NO), 16% (HO₂+NO), and <1%
740 (MO₂+NO), respectively. The mean O₃ removal rate D(O₃) was 0.7 ppbv/h; the
741 contribution of OH+NO₂ and O₃+alkenes contributed the most to the D(O₃) with 56%
742 and 33%, respectively. The distribution of O₃ generation and removal pathways in
743 different periods and years were statistically analyzed, and the results showed that
744 RO₂+NO and OH+NO₂ dominated local O₃ generation and removal, respectively.
745 This shows that atmospheric free radicals play a key role in localized O₃ generation in
746 Zhengzhou City (Wang et al., 2022). The next subsection describes the free radical
747 chemistry for an in-depth investigation.

748 **3.3.2 HO_x budget**

749 The OH concentration was calculated using the OBM. The simulation results showed
750 (Fig. S6) that the mean daily peak values of OH and HO₂ radicals in Zhengzhou were
751 5.6×10^6 and 3.8×10^8 molecule/cm³, respectively. A comparison of the results with
752 those of Tan et al. (2019) showed that the OH concentration in Zhengzhou was
753 slightly lower than those in Beijing and Shanghai and higher than those in Chongqing
754 and Guangzhou. However, the concentration of HO₂ radicals was lower than that in
755 Chongqing, consistent with the results of Beijing, Shanghai, and Guangzhou. Previous
756 experiments based on comprehensive field observations in China have shown that OH
757 concentrations may be underestimated under low NO_x conditions (Fuchs et al., 2017;
758 Hofzumahaus et al., 2009). Here, the NO_x concentration was high; thus, the model
759 reproduced the OH concentration relatively well (Rohrer et al., 2014). The prominent
760 feature of the high NO_x state is the underestimation of HO₂ (Tan et al., 2017), which
761 has been observed at urban sites outside China (Dusanter et al., 2009; Kanaya et al.,
762 2007), partially explaining the low HO₂ radicals in Zhengzhou City.

763 Fig. 8 demonstrates the daily trends of HO_x radicals under different O₃ pollution



conditions. The results showed that the HO_x concentration significantly increased with an increase in photochemical pollution. The average daily peak concentration of OH radicals on non-polluted days was 4.2×10^6 molecule/cm³, with peaks increasing 1.5 and 2.7 times under mild and moderate pollution conditions, respectively. For the HO₂ results, the peaks increased 3.6 and 6.4 times, respectively. The aforementioned phenomena indicate a more active radical cycle during high O₃ periods (Zhu et al., 2020), and the HO_x radical source–sink cycle was investigated.

HO_x radicals trigger VOCs oxidation and promote O₃ formation. Fig. S7 illustrates the formation and loss pathways of OH radicals during the observation period. For OH, the generation pathways are mainly HO₂ + NO and O₃ + VOCs, with 43% and 56%, respectively. The removal pathways are mainly based on OH + VOCs. Although the air pollution problems are visually extremely similar, the free radical chemistry, particularly the primary radical sources, significantly varies across different metropolitan areas. For example, Lanzhou had a higher OH contribution from O₃ + VOCs (32%) (Jia et al., 2018), whereas Wuhan had a higher contribution of HO₂ + NO (Zhu et al., 2020). O₃ photolysis is the main source of OH in Nashville (Martinez et al., 2003). Nitrous acid (HONO) photolysis plays a dominant role in New York City (Ren et al., 2003), Paris (Michoud et al., 2012), and Wangdu, China (Tan et al., 2017). Formaldehyde photolysis is an important source of OH in Milan (Alicke et al., 2002).

Fig. S7 shows the simulated average generation and loss rates of OH for the three periods. The OH formation or loss rate increased with increased photochemical pollution, implying a higher efficiency of free radical cycling during photochemical pollution. The situation of the source–sink pathways of OH in different pollution periods was similar to that in the observation period, and VOCs and NO_x significantly impacted the HO_x free radical cycling.

HONO is an important source of HO_x, playing a crucial role in atmospheric chemistry (Xue et al., 2014). Considering that we did not measure the HONO mixing ratio, the results may be underestimated. Thus, the current OBM-MCM results may have underestimated the daytime HO_x concentration to an extent, and supplemental HONO is required to better determine the HO_x balance.



794 **3.4 O₃–NO_x–VOCs sensitivity**

795 **3.4.1 VOCs/NO_x ratio**

796 The influence of O₃ precursors on O₃ formation can be defined as the VOCs and NO_x
797 control zones, which are critical in developing effective strategies for reducing
798 regional O₃ pollution. The VOCs/NO_x ratio has been widely used to determine the
799 state of O₃ formation. Generally, at a VOCs/NO_x ratio below 10 (ppbC/ppbv), a
800 VOCs-sensitive zone is observed. However, when the ratio exceeds 20, it is in a
801 NO_x-sensitive state. At a ratio between 10 and 20, the reduction of VOCs and NO_x can
802 effectively reduce O₃ concentrations (Hanna et al., 1996; Sillman et al., 1999).

803 MEM was selected as the study site to investigate the VOCs/NO_x (ppbC/ppbv) during
804 the high O₃ hours from 2019 to 2021. As shown in Table S9, the VOCs/NO_x at this
805 site was 6.2 ± 7.1 during the observation period. The ratio increased with an increase
806 in the photochemical pollution levels, i.e., 5.9 ± 7.3 for non-polluted days, 7.0 ± 6.6
807 for mildly polluted days, and 7.3 ± 6.7 for moderately and highly polluted days. In
808 addition, the fraction of O₃-polluted days with VOCs/NO_x > 10 increased. The
809 proportions of mildly and moderately/highly polluted days were 15% and 18%,
810 respectively, indicating that the proportion of O₃ generation in Zhengzhou subject to
811 the transition zone increased with increasing photochemical pollution (Zhu et al.,
812 2020).

813 Fig. 9(b) shows the daily trends of the VOCs/NO_x ratios for different photochemical
814 pollution periods. The ratios for the three periods exhibited similar daily variations.
815 Higher ratios were observed at midnight (1:00–6:00), after which the ratios rapidly
816 decreased, indicating that NO_x concentrations increased more rapidly than VOCs in
817 terms of the effect of vehicle emissions (Gu et al., 2019). Thereafter, the VOCs/NO_x
818 ratio increased with the O₃ concentrations. In the afternoon (12:00–16:00), at a high
819 O₃ concentration, the VOCs/NO_x was high in all the periods (moderate and high
820 pollution > light pollution > non-pollution). During moderate and high O₃ pollution,
821 the ratio of VOCs/NO_x exceeded 10, characterized by the transition zone. synergistic
822 emission reduction of VOCs and NO_x to effectively mitigate photochemical pollution.
823 The VOCs/NO_x ratios are only a preliminary determination of O₃ sensitivity and were



824 subsequently validated by the CMAQ model and OBM.

825 **3.4.2 Relative importance ratio and empirical kinetic modeling approach using** 826 **the box model**

827 RIR is a key parameter for determining the relationship between O_3 and its precursors.
828 Thus, RIR values are important for developing science-based O_3 pollution control
829 strategies. Higher positive RIR values indicate that the precursors are more sensitive
830 to O_3 production, whereas substances with negative RIR values play a negative role in
831 O_3 formation (Niu et al., 2024; Zhang et al., 2024). Here, we quantified the RIR
832 values of NO_x , CO, and different fractions of VOCs and further classified
833 anthropogenic VOCs (AHCs) into aromatic hydrocarbons, olefins, and alkanes to
834 better understand the effects of different sources on O_3 .

835 The city monitoring station was selected as the target site. The acquired observation
836 data for the high O_3 period (May–September) for 2019–2021 were used to determine
837 the RIR in Zhengzhou (Fig. 9a). The results showed that the RIR of AHCs was larger
838 during the observation period, indicating that anthropogenic sources significantly
839 contribute to local O_3 generation, and the reduction of anthropogenic sources of VOCs
840 can effectively mitigate local O_3 pollution. The contribution of BVOCs to local O_3
841 generation was high owing to the high reactivity of BVOCs and the higher emission
842 intensity caused by the high temperature and strong radiation in May–September. The
843 RIR of CO was low, indicating that the mitigation of O_3 pollution through CO
844 reduction was ineffective. The negative RIR for NO_x indicated that reducing NO_x
845 contrarily promoted O_3 production.

846 Fig. 9a illustrates the distribution of RIR on O_3 non-pollution, mild pollution, and
847 moderate and heavy pollution days. RIR_{AHC} exhibited high values in the three periods;
848 therefore, VOCs control must be strengthened in the region, particularly olefins and
849 aromatic hydrocarbons during the O_3 pollution hours. The RIR values of BVOCs were
850 high and tended to increase with an increase in pollution. The values of O_3
851 non-pollution, mild pollution, and moderate and heavy pollution days were 0.4, 0.5,
852 and 0.7, respectively. The RIR_{NO_x} values were negative on O_3 non-pollution and mild



853 pollution days, indicating that it was in the VOCs control zone at this time. The
854 RIR_{NO_x} value became positive (0.4) with an increase in pollution levels. Thus, the
855 synergistic control of NO_x and VOCs effectively reduced the photochemical pollution
856 on high O_3 days.

857 Owing to the use of the reactivity concept, EKMA can be employed as a standardized
858 framework for investigating the sensitivity of regional O_3 production to VOCs and
859 NO_x (Liu et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2022). Thus, based on the study period, when the
860 photochemical pollution was more severe, the pollutant information and values of
861 meteorological factors from Zhengzhou monitoring stations were inputted into the
862 OBM. As shown in Fig. 10, the O_3 contours show the local maximum concentration
863 of O_3 as a function of the initial NO_x and VOCs concentrations. The relationship
864 between O_3 and its precursors was highly nonlinear. At low NO_x concentrations, the
865 O_3 concentration increased almost linearly with increasing NO_x concentration. The
866 increase in the O_3 concentration gradually slowed with an increase in the NO_x
867 concentration, reaching a local peak. The line connecting the localized peaks in O_3
868 concentration is called a “ridge” (Fig. 10). The ridge divides the O_3 formation into
869 two photochemical states. Below the ridge is the NO_x control zone, and the VOCs
870 control zone is above the ridge.

871 Based on online data from the Zhengzhou monitoring station, an EKMA curve was
872 plotted (Fig. 10), and the results were consistent with the RIR. Zhengzhou was in the
873 VOCs control zone on O_3 non-pollution and mild pollution days. The local O_3
874 susceptibility was transformed into the transition zone as pollution increased. This
875 indicates that the summer O_3 pollution in the urban area of Zhengzhou was mainly in
876 the VOCs-sensitive zone, and reducing the VOCs concentration facilitated O_3
877 pollution control. As shown by the slope of the ridge in Fig. 10, the optimal reduction
878 ratio of VOCs to nitrogen oxides is 2.9:1, and it is recommended not to be lower than
879 2:1.

880 **3.4.3 Regional distribution of O_3 sensitivity based on CMAQ-DDM**

881 Based on the DDM method, the sensitivity of O_3 to its precursors was assessed across



different regions of Henan Province (Su et al., 2023; Yu et al., 2021). The province was categorized into various sensitivity regions according to the ratios of O₃ precursor concentration sensitivities (Fig. 11). The 3-year simulation results revealed that the VOCs-sensitive region in Henan Province encompassed the Anyang-Zhengzhou area along the Taihang Mountains, including three cities north of the Yellow River, and areas south of the river, such as Zhengzhou, Xuchang, and parts of Luoyang, Kaifeng, and Luohe. This aligns with conventional knowledge, as these areas experience high NO_x emissions; thus, VOCs concentration is critical in O₃ generation (Su et al., 2023). In Zhengzhou City, subregional sensitivity analysis indicated that all areas fell within the VOCs control zone, suggesting that O₃ management during summer should prioritize VOCs control measures. A comparison of sensitivities in 2021 with those from the previous 2 years showed a northward shift in the VOCs-sensitive area. This was largely attributed to a significant reduction in anthropogenic emissions owing to heavy precipitation in Henan in July 2021, which led to a 25% decrease in anthropogenic emissions in the affected areas. Natural VOCs emissions from plants remained largely unaffected, resulting in a marked increase in the VOCs/NO_x mass ratio. Consequently, the NO_x control area in Henan Province shifted northward, and the VOCs-sensitive area decreased relative to July 2021. However, in Zhengzhou City, the reduction in anthropogenic emissions did not impact VOCs sensitivity. This is because natural VOCs emissions from plants were not the dominant factor, even in the context of significant reductions in anthropogenic emissions in northern Henan. Therefore, the alteration in the VOCs/NO_x ratio resulting from the heavy rainfall was inadequate to alter O₃ sensitivity.

4 Summary and conclusions

The pollution characteristics of atmospheric VOCs in Zhengzhou City were analyzed using real-time VOCs data from May to September in the period of 2019-2021. The sources of atmospheric VOCs and O₃ were determined using PMF and CMAQ models. Factors affecting free radical equilibrium were investigated to highlight the major factors driving local ozone generation. The main conclusions are summarized



911 as follows:

912 **1. Pollution characteristics and source distribution of VOCs and ozone**

913 The study clarified the pollution characteristics and sources of ozone and its precursor
914 VOCs in Zhengzhou City. The city suffered severe photochemical pollution during
915 the observation period, with ozone concentration exceeding the standard value by
916 45% and average VOCs concentration of $90.3 \pm 52.8 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. Moreover, VOCs
917 concentration increased with the enhancement of ozone pollution. Their
918 concentrations during the non-pollution, mildly polluted, and moderately polluted
919 periods were 84.7 ± 51.0 , 96.6 ± 53.4 and $105.3 \pm 59.4 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, respectively. The PMF
920 modeling yielded six factors contributing to VOCs emissions, namely motor vehicle
921 exhaust, solvent use, industrial emissions, liquefied petroleum gas (LPG)/natural gas
922 (NG), stationary combustion, and biogenic sources, among which motor vehicle
923 exhaust was the largest source of VOCs. As ozone pollution became more intense, the
924 contribution of motor vehicles to VOCs was 30%, 31% and 35%, respectively.
925 Industrial emissions were the second largest source of VOCs, accounting for 21%.
926 Ultimately, the source apportionment of ozone was performed based on the CMAQ
927 model. The results showed that ozone formation in Zhengzhou was mainly attributed
928 to local anthropogenic emissions, with motor vehicle exhaust and industrial emissions
929 being the two largest sources.

930 **2. Mechanism and sensitivity of ozone formation**

931 The local ozone formation rate and its generation and removal pathways were
932 revealed, and the O_3 - NO_x -VOCs sensitivity of Zhengzhou City was comprehensively
933 evaluated. According to the OBM model analysis, the average $P(\text{O}_3)$ on non-pollution,
934 mildly polluted, and moderately/highly polluted days was 2.0, 4.5, and 6.9 ppbv/h,
935 respectively. The contribution of $\text{RO}_2 + \text{NO}$ to local ozone generation was more than
936 80%, indicating that atmospheric free radicals had a significant effect on local ozone
937 formation. The HOx radical concentration increased 1.5-6.4 times on polluted days
938 compared with non-pollution days. The results obtained by employing VOCs/ NO_x
939 ratio, RIR, EKMA and DDM methods indicated that Zhengzhou was located in the
940 control zone of VOCs and was shifting to the transition zone with the increase in the



941 intensity of ozone pollution. AHCs contributed greatly to local ozone formation. In
942 particular, reducing aromatic hydrocarbons and olefins helped to effectively mitigate
943 ozone pollution. The optimal reduction ratio of VOCs to NO_x was determined to be
944 2.9:1, which is recommended not to be lower than 2:1.

945 **3. Scientific contribution and policy implications**

946 Three years of observational data were combined with advanced modeling techniques,
947 such as the CMAQ and OBM model in this study to comprehensively explore ozone
948 pollution dynamics in Zhengzhou City. The significant impact of vehicle emissions on
949 ozone and its precursors is consistent with the results of other urban studies (Song et
950 al., 2018; Yu et al., 2022), reinforcing the key role of controlling mobile sources in
951 mitigating photochemical pollution. While PMF-based VOCs source apportionment is
952 widely used in urban studies (Farhat et al., 2024; Frischmon et al., 2024), the
953 inclusion of CMAQ in ozone source tracking provides new insights into the role of
954 anthropogenic emissions in ozone formation.

955 In addition, this study provided a comprehensive assessment of ozone sensitivity
956 using multiple diagnostic methods. The findings confirmed that Zhengzhou City was
957 located in the VOCs control zone, consistent with the results of other urban studies
958 (He et al., 2022; Santiago et al., 2024; Tran et al., 2023; Tudor, 2022). However,
959 notably, different diagnostic methods used for analyzing ozone formation sensitivity
960 have their inherent advantages and limitations. To accurately determine the
961 O₃-NO_x-VOCs sensitivity, high-resolution observations were combined with multiple
962 methods to ensure reliable, scientifically sound conclusions that help to identify key
963 factors controlling local ozone formation and provide actionable insights for
964 mitigating photochemical pollution.

965 In this study, the ozone sensitivity was evaluated using multiple methods, resulting in
966 a reliable understanding of the complex interactions between O₃, NO_x, and VOCs,
967 emphasizing the need for balanced emission control strategies. The proposed optimal
968 VOCs/NO_x reduction ratio was identified to be 2.9:1, which provides a practical
969 framework for the effective control of ozone pollution. This approach addresses the
970 limitations of single-pollutant abatement measures and ensures that emission control



971 policies are both scientific and practically feasible.
972 The results of this study are particularly relevant to rapidly urbanizing regions such as
973 Zhengzhou, where industrialization and motorization are driving significant changes
974 in air quality. By highlighting the importance of controlling transportation emissions
975 and optimizing the VOCs/NO_x emission reduction ratio, this study provides a solid
976 scientific basis for air quality management. And this study also emphasizes the need
977 for integrated emission control strategies that take into account the unique sources and
978 interactions of pollutants in such environments. These insights are of guiding
979 reference for the development of targeted policies to address photochemical pollution,
980 ultimately contributing to the long-term improvement of air quality in rapidly growing
981 urban areas.

982 **4. Limitations and future research directions**

983 This study has certain limitations. The accuracy of the OBM model depends on
984 high-quality input data, and the lack of measured HONO data potentially lead to
985 underestimated HO_x radical concentration. Future studies are advised to incorporate
986 measured HONO data and explore advanced techniques such as machine learning to
987 improve data quality and reduce model uncertainty. In addition, long-term monitoring
988 and modeling efforts are required to capture seasonal and inter-annual variations in
989 ozone formation mechanism.

990 **Author contributions**

991 YSJ: Writing-original draft, Methodology, Data curation, Investigation, Visualization,
992 Validation, Software, Formal analysis. LHY: Formal analysis, Data curation,
993 Investigation. WH: Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Funding
994 acquisition. SFC: Methodology, Software. YMH: Data curation, Resources. ZRQ:
995 Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Resources, Project administration, Funding
996 acquisition.

997 **Competing Interests**

998 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.



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1003 **Data availability**

1004 All the data presented in this article can be accessed through
 1005 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17214861> (Yu et al., 2025).

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1417 **Figure list**

1418 **Fig.1** Smoothing the time series of pollutants. Savitzky-Golay smoothing denoising
 1419 method was employed to facilitate a clearer and more intuitive observation of
 1420 pollutant trends, with the window size set to 50 points and the polynomial order
 1421 configured to 1.

1422 **Fig. 2** (a) Impacts of driving factors on O₃ formation derived from SHAP analysis
 1423 during the entire period; (b) Summary plots of SHAP interaction matrix values for O₃
 1424 in the entire episode.
 1425

1426 **Fig. 3** Diurnal variations in concentrations of some reactive VOCs species in
 1427 Zhengzhou under different pollution levels.

1428 **Fig. 4** O₃ sector contribution distribution in Zhengzhou:(a) local anthropogenic
 1429 emissions in Zhengzhou, (b) anthropogenic contributions from other regions in Henan
 1430 Province, (c) industry, (d) solvents, (e) transportation, (f) electricity, (g) residential, (h)
 1431 others.

1432 **Fig. 5** Source profiles of six factors derived from PMF modeling.

1433 **Fig. 6** Contributions (%) for the six sources identified by PMF model during the
 1434 sampling period.

1435 **Fig. 7** Diurnal patterns of O₃ production and destruction rates under different
 1436 pollution levels.

1437 **Fig. 8** Diurnal variation distribution of HOx radicals under different pollution levels.

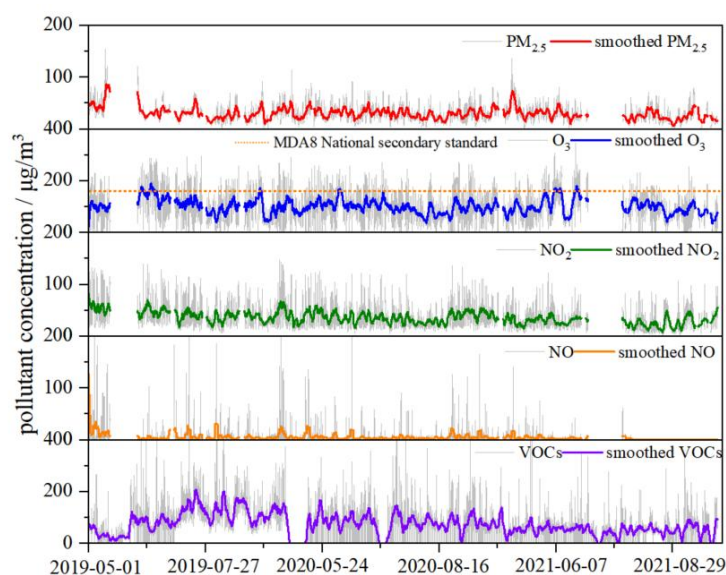
1438 **Fig. 9** Distribution of O₃-NO_x-VOCs sensitivity in Zhengzhou under different
 1439 pollution levels.

1440 **Fig. 10** The nonlinear relationship between the local ozone production rate and the
 1441 activities of VOCs and NO_x under different pollution levels. The x-axis represents the
 1442 OH reaction activity of AHCs, while the y-axis represents the OH reaction activity of
 1443 NO_x. The black straight line indicates the ridge line, and the black contour lines
 1444 represent the local ozone production rate, measured in ppbv/h. The green pentagram,
 1445 orange four-pointed star, and red triangle correspond to non-pollution days, mild
 1446 pollution days, and moderate pollution days, respectively.

1447 **Fig. 11** Spatial comparison of O₃-NO_x-VOCs sensitive regime from 2019 to 2021 in
 1448 Zhengzhou.
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1452 **Fig.1** Smoothing the Time Series of Pollutants. Savitzky-Golay smoothing denoising method was
 1453 employed to facilitate a clearer and more intuitive observation of pollutant trends, with the
 1454 window size set to 50 points and the polynomial order configured to 1.

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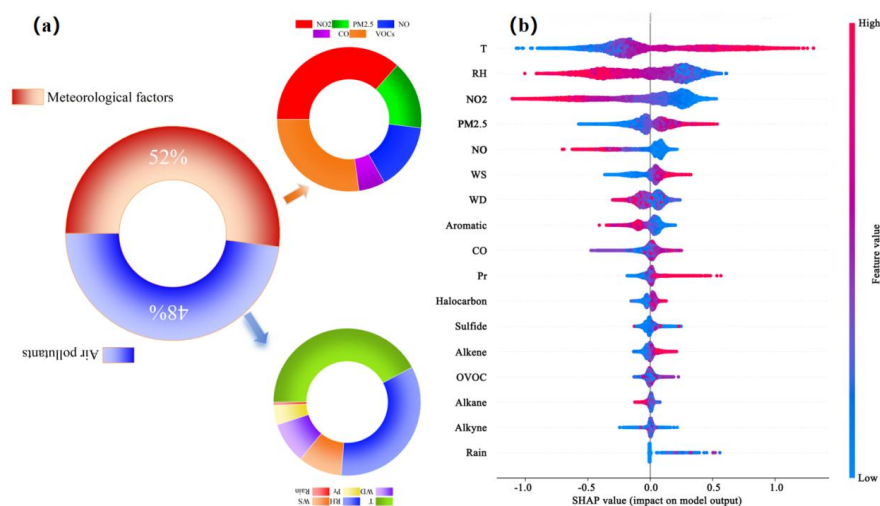
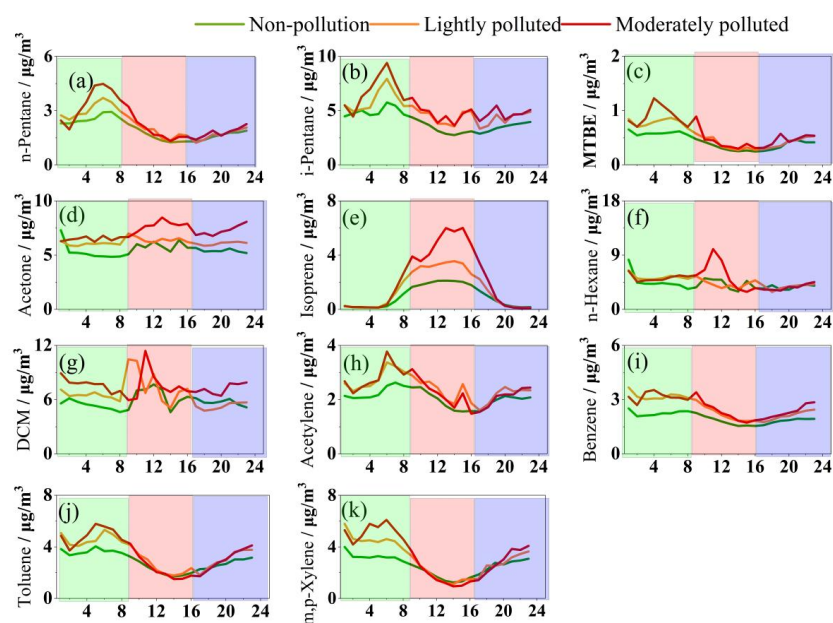


Fig. 2 (a) Impacts of driving factors on O₃ formation derived from SHAP analysis during the entire period; (b) Summary plots of SHAP interaction matrix values for O₃ in the entire episode.



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1462 **Fig. 3** Diurnal variations in concentrations of some reactive VOCs species in
 1463 Zhengzhou under different pollution levels. The light blue, light red, and light green
 1464 shadows represent stages P1, P2, and P3, respectively.
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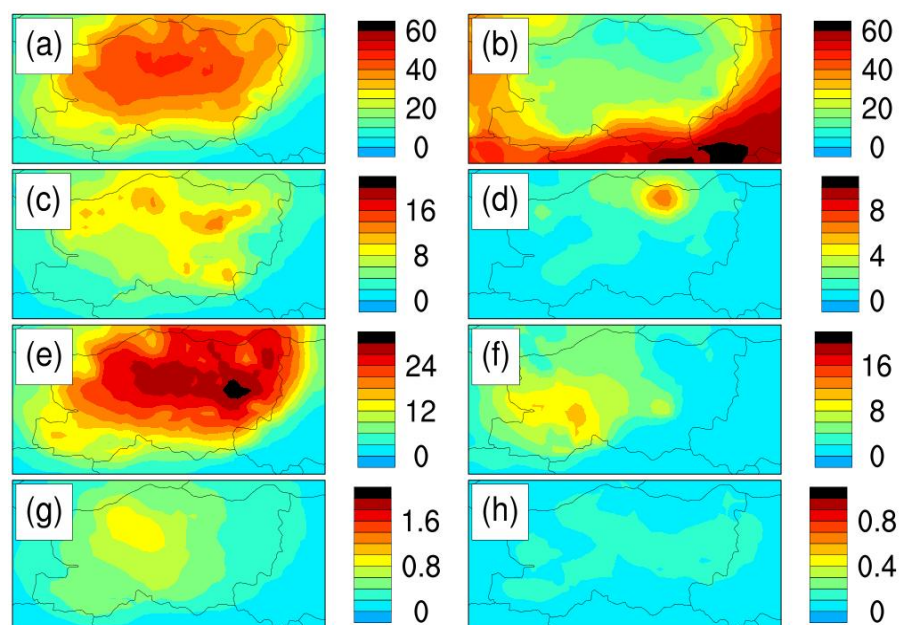
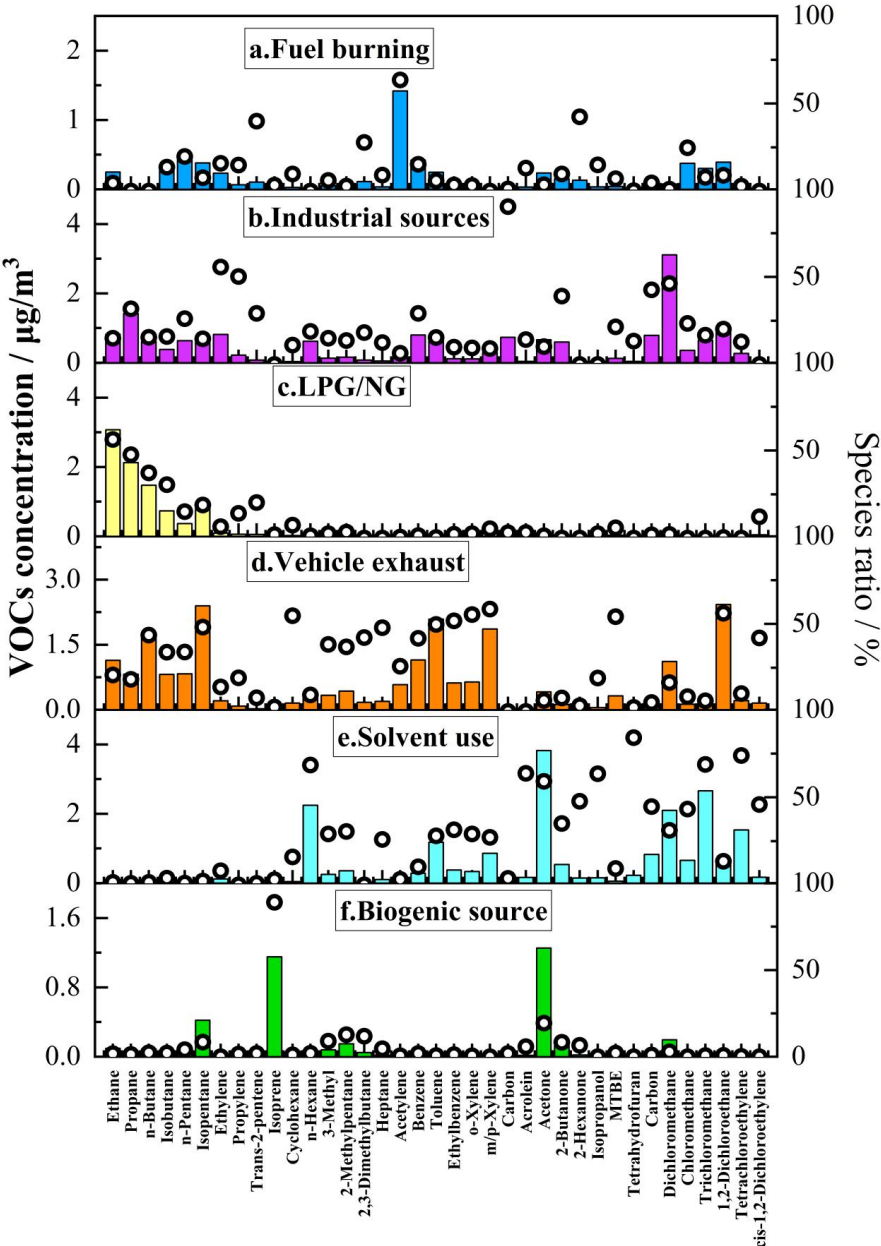


Fig. 4 O₃ sector contribution distribution in Zhengzhou:(a) local anthropogenic emissions in Zhengzhou, (b) anthropogenic contributions from other regions in Henan Province, (c) industry, (d) solvents, (e) transportation, (f) electricity, (g) residential, (h) others.



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Fig. 5 Source profiles of six factors derived from PMF modeling.

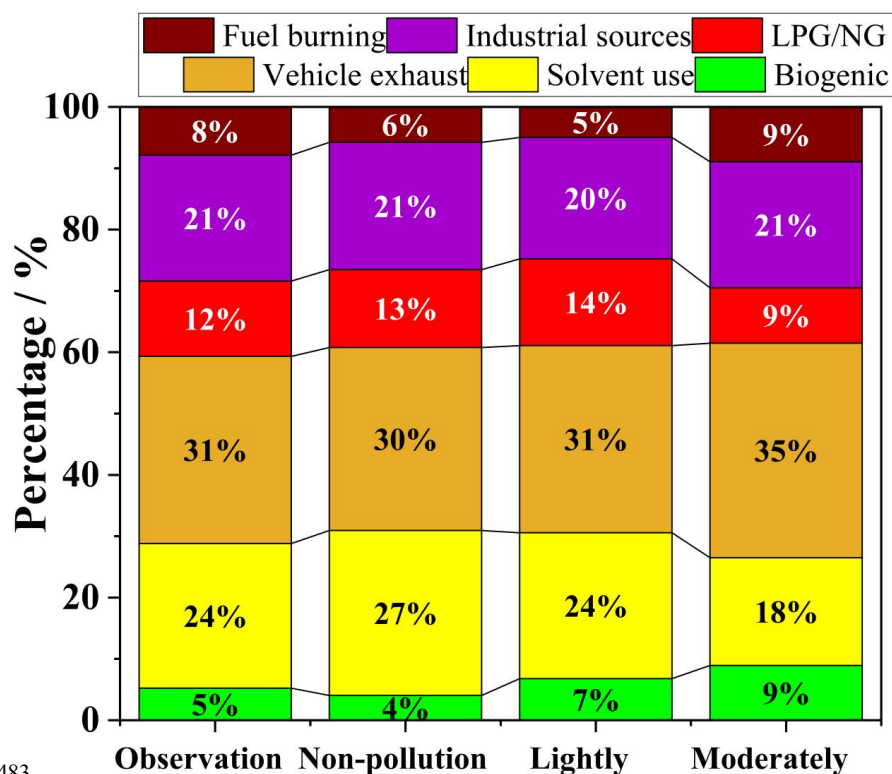


Fig. 6 Contributions (%) for the six sources identified by PMF model during the sampling period.



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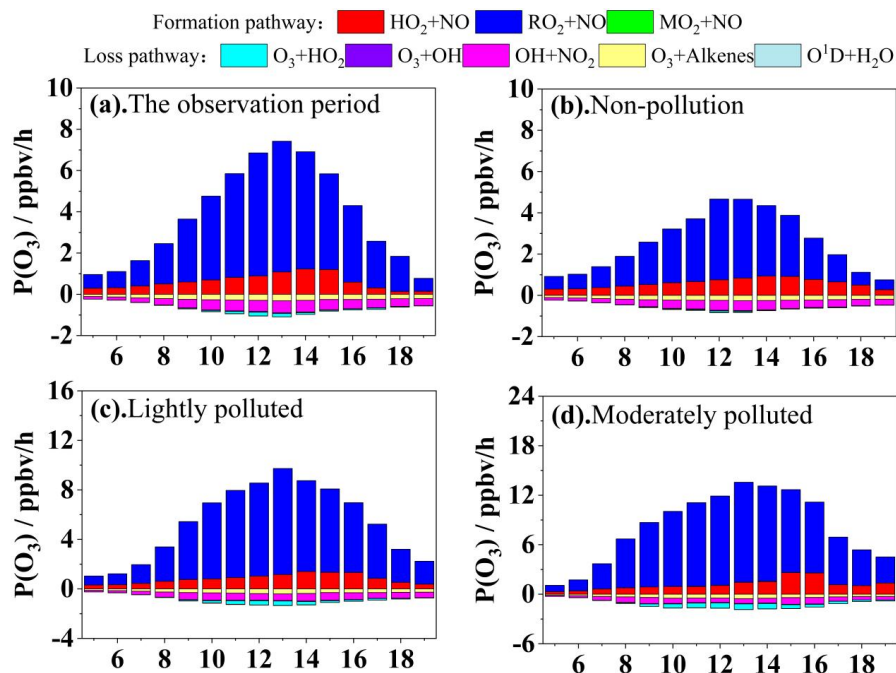
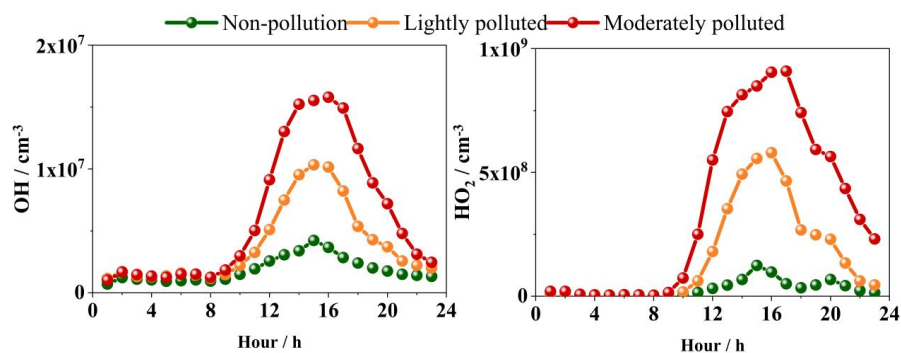


Fig. 7 Diurnal patterns of O₃ production and destruction rates under different pollution levels.

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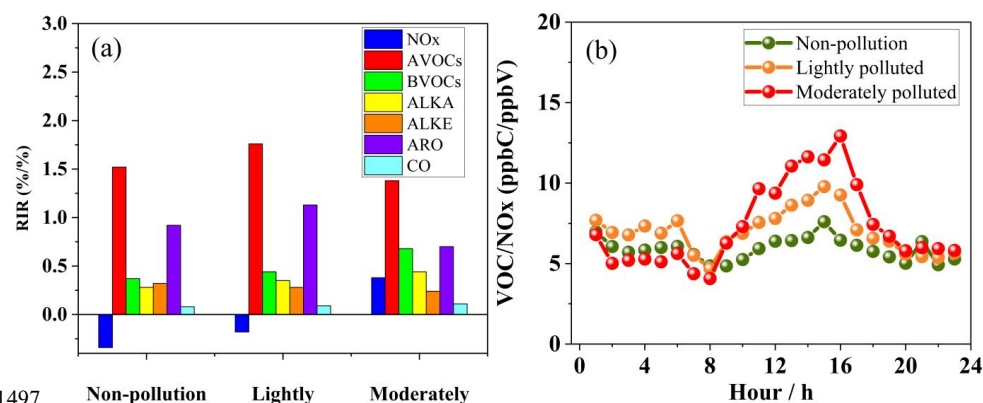
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Fig. 8 Diurnal variation distribution of HOx radicals under different pollution levels.

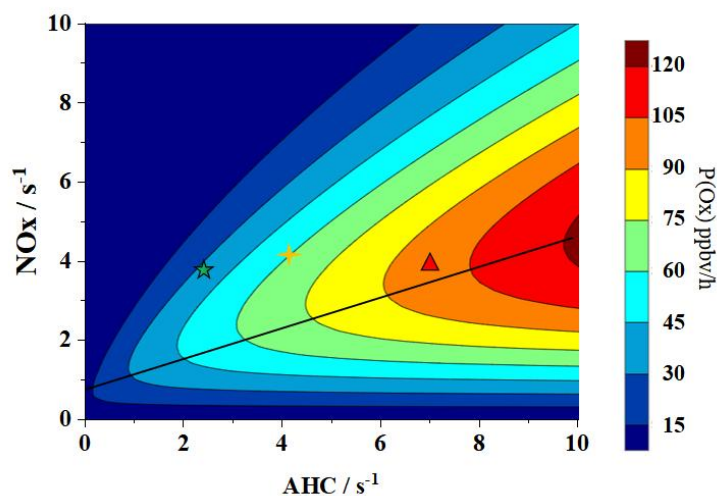


1497 Non-pollution Lightly Moderately
 1498 **Fig. 9** Distribution of O₃-NO_x-VOCs sensitivity in Zhengzhou under different
 1499 pollution levels.

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1505 **Fig. 10** The nonlinear relationship between the local ozone production rate and the
 1506 activities of VOCs and NOx under different pollution levels. The x-axis represents the
 1507 OH reaction activity of AHCs, while the y-axis represents the OH reaction activity of
 1508 NOx. The black straight line indicates the ridge line, and the black contour lines
 1509 represent the local ozone production rate, measured in ppbv/h. The green pentagram,
 1510 orange four-pointed star, and red triangle correspond to non-pollution days, mild
 1511 pollution days, and moderate pollution days, respectively.

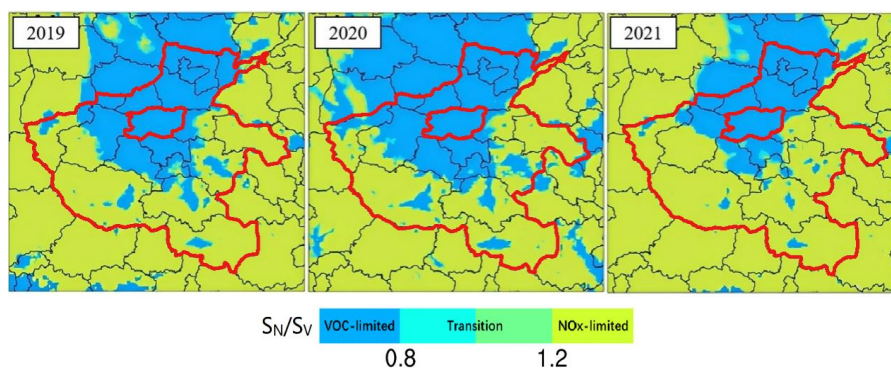


Fig. 11 Spatial comparison of O₃-NO_x-VOCs sensitive regime from 2019 to 2021 in Zhengzhou.



1518 **Table list:**

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1520 **Table 1** Meteorological factors and pollutant concentrations under different pollution
1521 levels.

1522 **Table 2** Concentrations and standard deviations of the Top 20 VOCs by concentration
1523 during different pollution periods ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) .

1524 **Table 3** Contribution proportions of O_3 formation and removal pathways during the
1525 observation Period (%).

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1527 **Table 1** Meteorological factors and pollutant concentrations under different pollution levels.

	Unit	Non-pollution	Lightly	Moderately	Average
Percentage of polluted days	%	48	45	7	--
WS	m/s	1.6 ± 1.1	1.8 ± 1.2	1.7 ± 1.1	1.7 ± 1.2
RH	%	74.9 ± 37.6	62.6 ± 30	56.7 ± 26.6	69.4 ± 34.8
T	°C	25 ± 11.2	27.9 ± 11.4	29.6 ± 12.1	26.3 ± 11.5
VOCs	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	84.7 ± 51	96.6 ± 53.4	105.3 ± 59.4	90.3 ± 52.8
NO	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	5.7 ± 18.3	6.2 ± 18.1	5.3 ± 13	5.8 ± 17.9
NO ₂	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	32.7 ± 25.6	38.7 ± 28.8	40.7 ± 25.9	35.3 ± 27
PM ₁₀	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	69.8 ± 61.9	88.3 ± 58.1	100.1 ± 54.5	78.3 ± 61.1
PM _{2.5}	$\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$	27.1 ± 20.9	32.8 ± 20.4	35.5 ± 16.4	29.7 ± 20.7

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Table 2 Concentrations and standard deviations of the Top 20 VOCs by concentration during different pollution periods ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$).

Non-pollution	Ave $\pm$ SD	Lightly	Ave $\pm$ SD	Moderately	Ave $\pm$ SD
Dichloromethane	6.7 ± 12.6	Dichloromethane	6.4 ± 15.6	Dichloromethane	7.6 ± 7.7
Ethane	5.5 ± 4	Acetone	6.2 ± 4.5	Acetone	7.2 ± 4.7
Acetone	5.1 ± 5.9	Ethane	5.4 ± 2.8	n-Hexane	6 ± 27.3
Propane	4.4 ± 3.2	Isopentane	4.9 ± 4.7	Ethane	5.5 ± 2.9
n-Hexane	4.1 ± 10.6	n-Hexane	4.5 ± 7.7	Isopentane	5.4 ± 4
Isopentane	4 ± 3.6	Propane	4.1 ± 3.5	1,2-Dichloroethane	4 ± 3.2
n-Butane	4 ± 3.5	n-Butane	3.8 ± 3.4	Propane	3.7 ± 2.2
1,2-Dichloroethane	3.6 ± 5.2	1,2-Dichloroethane	3.7 ± 3.4	Toluene	3.4 ± 2.9
Toluene	3.5 ± 3.7	Toluene	3.4 ± 3.5	n-Butane	3.3 ± 2.5
m/p-Xylene	3.2 ± 4.3	m/p-Xylene	3.1 ± 4	m/p-Xylene	3.3 ± 3.7
Trichloromethane	2.9 ± 5.3	Trichloromethane	2.8 ± 3.2	Trichloromethane	2.8 ± 1.8
Naphthalene	2.4 ± 4.7	Tetrachloroethylene	2.7 ± 3.6	Benzene	2.6 ± 1.8
Benzene	2.3 ± 1.7	Acetylene	2.5 ± 3	Tetrachloroethylene	2.6 ± 3
Acetylene	2.3 ± 1.9	Benzene	2.5 ± 2	n-Pentane	2.4 ± 1.9
Isobutane	2.2 ± 1.9	n-Pentane	2.3 ± 2	Acetylene	2.4 ± 1.5
n-Pentane	2.1 ± 1.7	Vinyl acetate	2.2 ± 3.3	Isoprene	2.3 ± 3.1
Ethylene	1.8 ± 1.2	Isobutane	2.2 ± 1.6	Vinyl acetate	2.2 ± 3.1
Tetrachloroethylene	1.8 ± 3.3	Carbon tetrachloride	1.8 ± 2.3	Isobutane	2.1 ± 1.1
Vinyl acetate	1.6 ± 4.1	Freon 12	1.6 ± 1.8	2-Methylpentane	1.9 ± 2.6
Freon 11	1.6 ± 0.7	Ethylene	1.6 ± 1.4	2-Butanone	1.8 ± 1

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Table 3 Contribution proportions of O₃ formation and removal pathways during the observation Period (%).

	The observation period	Non-pollution	Lightly	Moderately
HO ₂ +NO	16	23	15	14
MO ₂ +NO	<1	<1	<1	<1
RO ₂ +NO	84	77	85	85
O ₃ +alkenes	33	35	31	28
OH+NO ₂	56	58	51	43
O ₃ +OH	2	2	3	3
O ₃ +HO ₂	8	4	15	25
O ¹ D+H ₂ O	<1	1	1	1