



# **O<sub>3</sub>–NO<sub>x</sub>–VOC, Sensitivity in Major Chinese Regions: Detailed Insights from GEMS Satellite Hourly Observations**

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## **Abstract**

Ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) pollution continues to pose a severe environmental and public health challenge in China. Identifying whether ozone formation is more sensitive to nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) or volatile organic compounds (VOCs) is therefore fundamental to designing effective control strategies. This study investigates the diurnal evolution of O<sub>3</sub> formation sensitivity across major regions of China, utilizing high-temporal-resolution observations from the Geostationary Environment Monitoring Spectrometer (GEMS) from 2021 to 2023. By analyzing the formaldehyde-to-nitrogen dioxide ratio (HCHO/NO<sub>2</sub> or FNR) at an hourly scale (09:00–16:00 LST) during the warm season alongside ground-level O<sub>3</sub> measurements and meteorological reanalysis, we capture the dynamic daytime transitions in O<sub>3</sub>–NO<sub>x</sub>–VOC chemistry. Results show distinct diurnal patterns: O<sub>3</sub> and HCHO concentrations generally increase through the afternoon, peaking around 15:00–16:00, while NO<sub>2</sub> declines with a morning rebound. Spatially, elevated precursor levels and complex sensitivity regimes are concentrated in key urban agglomerations (BTH, YRD, SC, PRD). The analysis reveals a systematic shift from VOC-limited regimes in the morning toward transitional or NO<sub>x</sub>-limited regimes in the afternoon, driven by intensified photochemistry. A comparative city-level analysis demonstrates that Beijing's strong radiation under NO<sub>x</sub>-rich conditions sustains a morning VOC-limited regime, Nanjing remains in a complex transitional state, Chengdu's basin topography reinforces a persistent VOC-limited condition, and Guangzhou's active VOC emissions promote a shift toward NO<sub>x</sub> limitation. This study provides the first regional-scale, diurnally-resolved insight into O<sub>3</sub> formation sensitivity dynamics in China, offering a critical scientific basis for designing temporally precise and regionally tailored emission control strategies.

## **1 Introduction**

Near-surface ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) pollution has emerged as a major environmental challenge in rapidly urbanizing countries such as China. Ozone is not only an important greenhouse gas that influences climate change (Akimoto, 2004), but also poses direct threats to regional air quality, public health, and ecosystems by altering atmospheric oxidizing capacity (Feng et al., 2022). Previous studies have shown that long-term exposure to O<sub>3</sub> has led to a substantial increase in premature mortality from respiratory and cardiovascular diseases in China (Maji and Namdeo, 2021), and has caused considerable yield losses in major crops such as rice and wheat (Feng et al., 2019). Ozone formation depends on complex



43 and nonlinear photochemical reactions between its precursors, nitrogen oxides ( $\text{NO}_x$ ) and volatile  
44 organic compounds ( $\text{VOC}_s$ ) (Sillman, 1995; Kleinman et al., 2005). Accordingly, ozone formation  
45 regimes are commonly classified into  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited, VOC-limited, and transitional regimes (Sillman and  
46 He, 2002). Therefore, accurately diagnosing the sensitivity of ozone formation to its precursors is a  
47 fundamental scientific prerequisite for the development of effective air pollution control strategies.

48 The column concentration ratio of formaldehyde to nitrogen dioxide ( $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$ , FNR) is one of  
49 the most widely used metrics for diagnosing ozone formation sensitivity (Chen et al., 2023; Wang et al.,  
50 2023). This indicator plays an important role in advancing the understanding of ozone formation  
51 mechanisms and in informing the design of region-specific air pollution control strategies (Jin et al.,  
52 2020). At present, FNR values are mainly derived from three types of data sources: instantaneous  
53 overpass observations from polar-orbiting satellites, chemical transport model simulations, or  
54 ground-based monitoring measurements. Numerous studies have employed FNR values calculated  
55 from these datasets to investigate their correspondence with ozone formation sensitivity, where higher  
56 FNR values generally indicate a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime, whereas lower FNR values suggest a  
57 VOC-limited regime (Souri et al., 2020; Acdan et al., 2023). For example, in East Asia, Itahashi et al.  
58 (2022) reported an overall increasing trend in FNR values over Japan and South Korea based on Ozone  
59 Monitoring Instrument (OMI) satellite observations. In South Asia, Mahajan et al. (2015) compared  
60 observations from four different satellite instruments and found relatively high FNR values over India,  
61 implying that ozone formation is more likely to be  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited, while urban and industrialized regions  
62 exhibit distinct sensitivity characteristics. Jin et al. (2017) combined satellite observations with  
63 chemical transport modeling to reveal pronounced regional-scale differences in ozone formation  
64 sensitivity across major urban agglomerations in North America. For typical urban clusters in China,  
65 Zhou et al. (2024) reported, based on ground-based observations during April–September 2020, that  
66 urban Beijing was predominantly VOC-limited. Using OMI satellite data, Xu et al. (2025) found that  
67 ozone formation in the Sichuan–Chongqing (SC) region during summer was mainly characterized by a  
68 VOC– $\text{NO}_x$  transitional regime, accounting for approximately 42.42% of the area. Pan (2023),  
69 integrating OMI satellite observations with ground-based measurements, demonstrated that northern  
70 parts of the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) had long been dominated by a transitional regime, with an  
71 areal fraction consistently around 50.0%, substantially higher than those of the VOC-limited and  
72  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regimes. Similarly, Liang et al. (2024), using OMI satellite data combined with grey  
73 relational analysis, reported that in 2020 the Pearl River Delta (PRD) exhibited areal fractions of 1.6%,  
74 42.4%, and 56.0% for the VOC-limited, transitional, and  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regimes, respectively; at the  
75 provincial scale of Guangdong, the  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime further increased to 86.4%. In contrast, Du et al.  
76 (2022b), employing the Comprehensive Air quality Model with extensions (CAMx), emphasized that  
77 the Chengdu metropolitan area was predominantly  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited and highlighted the critical role of  
78 industrial and mobile-source emission reductions in ozone mitigation. Collectively, these studies  
79 indicate that urban areas are more often characterized by VOC-limited or transitional regimes, whereas  
80 rural and background regions tend to be  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited, and that major urban agglomerations worldwide  
81 exhibit broadly similar patterns of regional differentiation in ozone formation sensitivity.

82 In addition to spatial heterogeneity, ozone formation sensitivity also exhibits pronounced temporal  
83 variability. Changes in meteorological conditions, surface characteristics, and anthropogenic emissions  
84 jointly drive transitions in ozone sensitivity across different time scales (Liu and Shi, 2021). On the  
85 interannual scale, the implementation of emission control policies has led to shifts in ozone sensitivity  
86 from VOC-limited regimes toward transitional or  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regimes in many regions of China (Min



et al., 2021). At seasonal and monthly scales, ozone sensitivity also shows systematic variations; for example, under high-temperature and strong-radiation conditions in summer,  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited or transitional regimes are more prevalent, whereas VOC-limited regimes tend to dominate in spring and autumn (Li, 2023; Jing et al., 2025; Yang et al., 2025; Du et al., 2022a). Furthermore, studies based on observations and chemical transport modeling indicate that ozone sensitivity exhibits more complex behavior at the monthly scale, characterized by pronounced interconversions among different regimes. For example, Wu et al. (2018) found, through an analysis of ozone formation mechanisms in the Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei (BTH) region, that the area classified as VOC-limited increased markedly in September, while regions that were predominantly  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited during June–August gradually transitioned to a transitional regime in September, and portions of the transitional regime further shifted toward a VOC-limited regime. Xu et al. (2025) further pointed out that in the SC region, the fraction of VOC-limited areas gradually decreased from June to August, reaching a minimum in August with an areal proportion of only 4.02%. Similarly, Li (2021), based on numerical modeling and FNR threshold analysis, reported that in July most of the PRD region was characterized by a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime, whereas by October, western Dongguan, western Shenzhen, the Nansha District of Guangzhou, and southeastern Foshan transitioned to a VOC-limited regime, with some areas further evolving into a transitional regime. These studies provide important support for a deeper understanding of ozone formation mechanisms. However, a key question that remains insufficiently addressed is whether ozone formation sensitivity—given the pronounced diurnal variability of ozone—also undergoes systematic and regular transitions on the diurnal timescale.

A key challenge is that the three prevailing approaches mentioned above for calculating FNR all have inherent limitations in investigating diurnal variability. (1) Polar-orbiting satellite products (such as OMI and TROPospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI)) provide only a single overpass “instantaneous snapshot” per day, which is insufficient to capture the continuous diurnal evolution of ozone formation sensitivity (Lyu et al., 2024; Bhartia et al., 2002; Grytsai and Milinevsky, 2013; Zhang et al., 2018; Peng et al., 2024). In addition, these observations are highly susceptible to cloud contamination, leading to data gaps and spatial discontinuities that can introduce biases in satellite-derived products (Li and Chen, 2021). (2) Numerical models can deliver hourly data products, but their results depend strongly on the accuracy of meteorological inputs, emission inventories, and chemical mechanisms. Even the most recent chemical mechanisms (such as Mechanism for Atmospheric Chemistry eXtended 1 (MAX1)) are still being continuously refined to improve simulation performance (Liu et al., 2025; Pan, 2023; Chen et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2022). Moreover, uncertainties associated with meteorological forcing, emission magnitudes and temporal allocation, chemical reactions among pollutants and deposition processes can further propagate substantial uncertainties in model results (Georgiana et al., 2016; Yu et al., 2020). (3) Ground-based observations offer high temporal resolution but suffer from sparse and uneven station coverage, resulting in limited spatial representativeness and an inability to depict complete regional-scale diurnal patterns (Yang et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2024; Klára et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2025b; Bin et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2020; Han et al., 2023). For individual sites, ozone research relies primarily on longitudinal time-series analyses, in which comparisons with satellite observations are used to validate data accuracy or to identify temporal patterns for assessing long-term trends in local ozone levels. Indeed, Wang et al. (2019), when analyzing the spatiotemporal variability of surface ozone column concentrations in China using data from six stations, also highlighted these limitations and emphasized the need for broader spatial coverage to robustly evaluate ozone. Consequently, none of these three mainstream approaches can



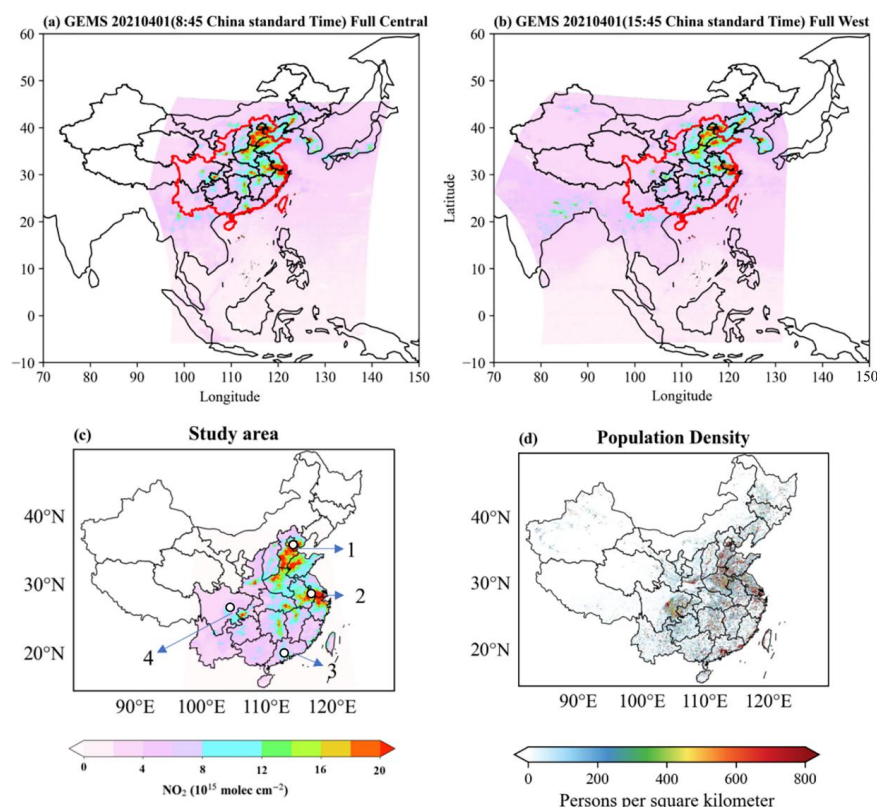
simultaneously provide high temporal resolution and extensive spatial coverage to directly and reliably characterize the true diurnal evolution and spatial patterns of O<sub>3</sub> formation sensitivity.

This study leverages observations from the Geostationary Environment Monitoring Spectrometer (GEMS) to fill the knowledge gap regarding the diurnal dynamics of ozone formation sensitivity. Unlike the “instantaneous snapshots” provided by polar-orbiting satellites, GEMS enables continuous “staring” observations over Asia, thereby allowing, for the first time, the investigation of the FNR at an hourly resolution on a regional scale. Building on this capability, we systematically examine the hourly spatiotemporal evolution of FNR across China from morning to afternoon, with the aim of elucidating the diurnal transitions in ozone formation mechanisms and identifying their driving factors. Specifically, this study addresses two key questions: (1) What spatiotemporal patterns characterize the diurnal evolution of ozone formation sensitivity (FNR) across different regions of China during daytime (09:00–16:00 LST)? (2) Do these diurnal transition patterns differ among major urban agglomerations in China, and what are the dominant factors driving these differences? The findings of this work enable the identification of ozone-sensitive periods and key regions with unprecedented spatiotemporal detail, providing direct scientific support for the implementation of dynamic, time-resolved, region-specific, and category-based emission reduction strategies. More importantly, they contribute to a fundamental understanding of the diurnal dynamics of nonlinear photochemical processes governing ozone formation, facilitating a paradigm shift in regional air quality management from “static control” toward “dynamic regulation”. This study provides crucial insights into the temporal dynamics of O<sub>3</sub> pollution, offering a scientific basis for its coordinated management in China.

## 2 Data and Methods

### 2.1 Dataset

To enhance air quality monitoring and climate change forecasting in East and Southeast Asia, the National Institute of Environmental Research (NIER) of South Korea developed the new-generation and first GEMS aboard the Geostationary (GEO) Korea Multi-Purpose Satellite 2B (GEO-KOMPSAT-2B). This satellite was successfully launched in February 2020. GEMS operates at a spectral resolution of 0.6 nm, covering a wavelength interval of 0.2 nm across the 300–500 nm range (Kim et al., 2020). It provides hourly observations across Asia, from 5°S to 45°N and 75°E to 145°E, with a spatial resolution of 7 × 8 km. This instrument primarily tracks key atmospheric components, including NO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, HCHO, and aerosols. GEMS offers significant advantages over other satellites with its exceptional temporal resolution, collecting data eight times daily (00:45 to 07:45 UTC) (Kim et al., 2020; Baek et al., 2023). As depicted in Fig. 1, GEMS covers most of China from 08:45 LST to 15:45 LST with an interval of 1 hour. LST was used for all study times in this paper if not otherwise stated. The study area for GEMS eight observation periods is defined as 17–43°N, 97–127°E, with a spatial resolution of 0.07° × 0.08°. Additionally, the observation window has been adjusted to 09:00 to 16:00, crucial for monitoring photochemical activities and urban emissions in major Chinese cities (BTH, YRD, PRD, SC, in Fig. 1c. GEMS level-2 tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> and HCHO data from 2021 to 2023 are free to download at <https://nesc.nier.go.kr/ko/html/index.do>. It has also demonstrated high correlation coefficients (R) of 0.9 with the NO<sub>2</sub> data of TROPOMI and 0.81 with ground-based HCHO observations, affirming its reliability and effectiveness in capturing accurate atmospheric data (Lee et al., 2024; Kim and Kim, 2023; Oak et al., 2024).



**Figure 1.** (a)  $\text{NO}_2$  in the Full Central (FC) region as inverted by GEMS satellite at 8:45 LST on April 1, 2021. (b)  $\text{NO}_2$  in the Full West (FW) region as inverted by GEMS satellite at 15:45 LST on April 1, 2021, and (c) the study area of this study (the red combined region in panel (a)), where regions 1 – 4 denote the BTH, YRD, PRD, and SC regions, respectively. The white circular symbols from north to south indicate Beijing, Nanjing, Chengdu, and Guangzhou. (d) Spatial distribution of population density in China, 2017, the population data for the study area (the red ensemble area) represents approximately 87% of the country's total population.

The China National Air Quality Monitoring Network provides hourly surface  $\text{O}_3$  measurements through an extensive network of over 1,400 ground-based stations in more than 330 cities across China. This invaluable data can be accessible through the official website at <https://air.cnemc.cn:18007/>. Our analysis includes data from 642 stations located in 210 cities, with all  $\text{O}_3$  concentrations recorded in micrograms per cubic meter ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ). Many scholars have studied Ozone- $\text{NO}_x$ -VOCs sensitivity using satellite-observed tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  and HCHO concentrations along with near-surface  $\text{O}_3$  data, and therefore the above GEMS data and site data were selected for this study (Jin et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2022). Additionally, this study incorporates hourly ERA5 reanalysis data, provided by the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF). The ERA5 dataset includes critical meteorological variables such as 2-meter temperature ( $T_{2m}$ ), relative humidity (RH), near-surface net radiation flux (SSR), and boundary layer height (BLH). These variables provide comprehensive insights into the meteorological conditions affecting ozone formation and its diurnal variations across the study area, enhancing the understanding of  $\text{O}_3$ - $\text{NO}_x$ -VOCs interactions.



## 2.2 Methodology

The Locally Estimated Scatterplot Smoothing (LOESS) method is a non-parametric regression technique used to capture the underlying patterns in data, particularly useful for modeling complex relationships. It works by fitting simple models (usually linear or quadratic) to localized subsets of the data, rather than the entire dataset at once. This approach helps to smooth out fluctuations and reveal trends by applying different weights to data points based on their distance from a target point. In this study, LOESS was employed to analyze the diurnal variations of the HCHO/NO<sub>2</sub> ratio, which serves as an indicator of O<sub>3</sub> formation sensitivity. By focusing on hourly shifts in this ratio, the method effectively highlights local trends and transitions in the O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOC<sub>s</sub> sensitivity regimes throughout the day. Its ability to reveal intricate patterns makes LOESS particularly valuable in examining ozone formation processes, which are known to exhibit non-linear dynamics and significant spatiotemporal variability. This adaptive smoothing approach thus provides a clearer understanding of diurnal changes in O<sub>3</sub> precursors and their interactions, contributing to more accurate interpretations of GEMS satellite observations.

## 3 Results and Discussion

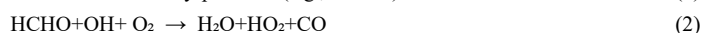
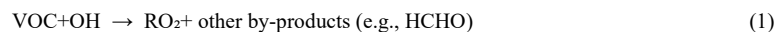
### 3.1 Spatial distribution of HCHO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>

Figure. 2 based on GEMS data and ground monitoring, shows daily variations in atmospheric pollutants in China during the warm season (April to September) from 2021 to 2023, including the tropospheric column concentration of HCHO and NO<sub>2</sub>, as well as the ground-level concentrations of O<sub>3</sub>. At 09:00, higher initial concentrations of HCHO relative to NO<sub>2</sub> are apparent, likely from reduced nighttime dispersion and increased morning emissions (Yang et al., 2017). The majority of HCHO is produced through photo-oxidation of VOC<sub>s</sub>, while relatively little is emitted directly (Sun et al., 2021). As the day progresses, increases in temperature and radiation intensity promote the conversion of VOC<sub>s</sub> to HCHO (Eq. 1), significantly increasing HCHO levels, especially in densely populated urban areas (Fig. 1) with larger concentrations of VOC<sub>s</sub> such as BTH, YRD, PRD, and SC. Wu et al. (2023) demonstrated that HCHO concentration increased with increasing photochemical activity, especially in the afternoon when solar radiation is strongest. The HCHO peaks around 16:00, correlating with findings by Lee et al. (2024). Although the reaction of HCHO with OH radicals serves as a consumption mechanism (Eq. 2), in regions with high VOC emissions, the continuous conversion of both biogenic and anthropogenic VOC<sub>s</sub>, driven by increasing temperature and radiation, may result in a net production rate of HCHO that surpasses its consumption rate, thereby leading to a sustained increase in HCHO concentrations during the afternoon period (Li et al., 2021; Javed et al., 2019). HCHO increases steadily for the day, reaching approximately 1.3 times the 9:00 level by 16:00. Simultaneously, NO<sub>2</sub> levels show significant diurnal fluctuations, with high morning levels from traffic and industrial activities and minimal photochemical reduction due to low solar intensity (Fig. 3) (Xie et al., 2016). As sunlight and temperatures rise, intensified photochemical activities facilitate NO<sub>2</sub> consumption (Eqs. 3 and 4), leading to a gradual decline in its levels throughout the day. The most rapid reduction of NO<sub>2</sub> during the 13:00-14:00 hours is mainly due to rapid photochemical transformations and a strong diffusion effect due to the highest boundary layer height (Fig. 3). However, after 16:00, as photochemical activity diminishes and traffic increases in some cities due to school dismissals and varying work shifts, NO<sub>2</sub> levels rise again (Zhang and Batterman, 2009; Kelly et al., 1984). This trend is consistent with observations by Kim et al. (2020) and Elise and Tracey (2020). NO<sub>2</sub> peak in the morning and then gradually decline, reaching around 70% of their initial level by

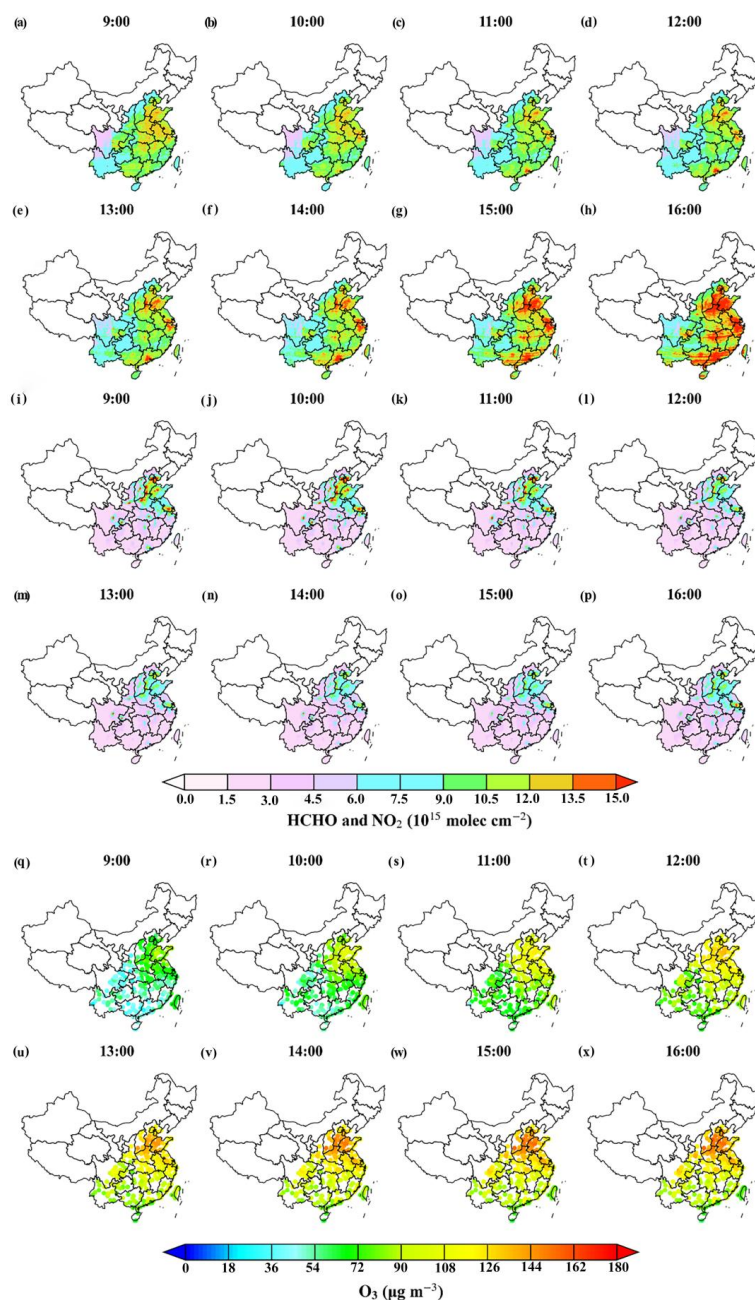




235 15:00, followed by a slight rebound in the late afternoon. Although NO<sub>2</sub> is also regenerated during this  
236 process (Eqs. 5-7), increased photolytic activity and the conversion of NO<sub>2</sub> to nitric acid (Eq. 8)  
237 typically decrease NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations throughout the daytime (Tan et al., 2019). The peak of O<sub>3</sub> occurs  
238 between 15:00 and 16:00, with concentrations gradually increasing throughout the day, starting from a  
239 morning average of 56.29 µg/m<sup>3</sup> and reaching a peak of 122.32 µg/m<sup>3</sup> around 15:00. Liu and Wang  
240 (2020) and Xia et al. (2021) also reported that high O<sub>3</sub> concentrations during the warm season peak  
241 around 15:00 in major city clusters in China. Overall, the spatial distribution of HCHO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and O<sub>3</sub>  
242 concentrations reveals significant regional differences across China. In the morning, high  
243 concentrations of HCHO and NO<sub>2</sub> are primarily concentrated in urban clusters, reflecting the impact of  
244 industrial activities and traffic emissions on the precursors of O<sub>3</sub>. Meanwhile, O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are  
245 predominantly concentrated in the northern regions. In the afternoon, both HCHO and ozone  
246 concentrations increase significantly, with their distribution range notably expanding compared to the  
247 morning, particularly in high-population-density urban areas. However, high concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>  
248 remain primarily concentrated in northern China, but due to the influence of local meteorological  
249 conditions, industrial emissions, and the involvement in O<sub>3</sub> formation, NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations gradually  
250 decrease.



251 Here, VOC<sub>s</sub> react with hydroxyl radicals (OH), producing peroxy radicals (RO<sub>2</sub>) and by-products  
252 like HCHO. RO<sub>2</sub> and HCHO can further react with nitrogen monoxide (NO), forming NO<sub>2</sub>. NO<sub>2</sub>  
253 undergoes photolysis (hν), breaking down into NO and atomic oxygen (O), which combines with  
254 molecular oxygen (O<sub>2</sub>) to form O<sub>3</sub>. O<sub>3</sub> can react with NO to regenerate NO<sub>2</sub>, maintaining the NO<sub>x</sub> (NO  
255 + NO<sub>2</sub>) cycle. Meanwhile, HCHO can photolyze into carbon monoxide (CO) and more hydroperoxyl  
256 radicals (HO<sub>2</sub>), accelerating O<sub>3</sub> formation. NO<sub>2</sub> can also react with OH and a third body (M) to form  
257 nitric acid (HNO<sub>3</sub>), reducing NO<sub>x</sub> levels and limiting further O<sub>3</sub> production.



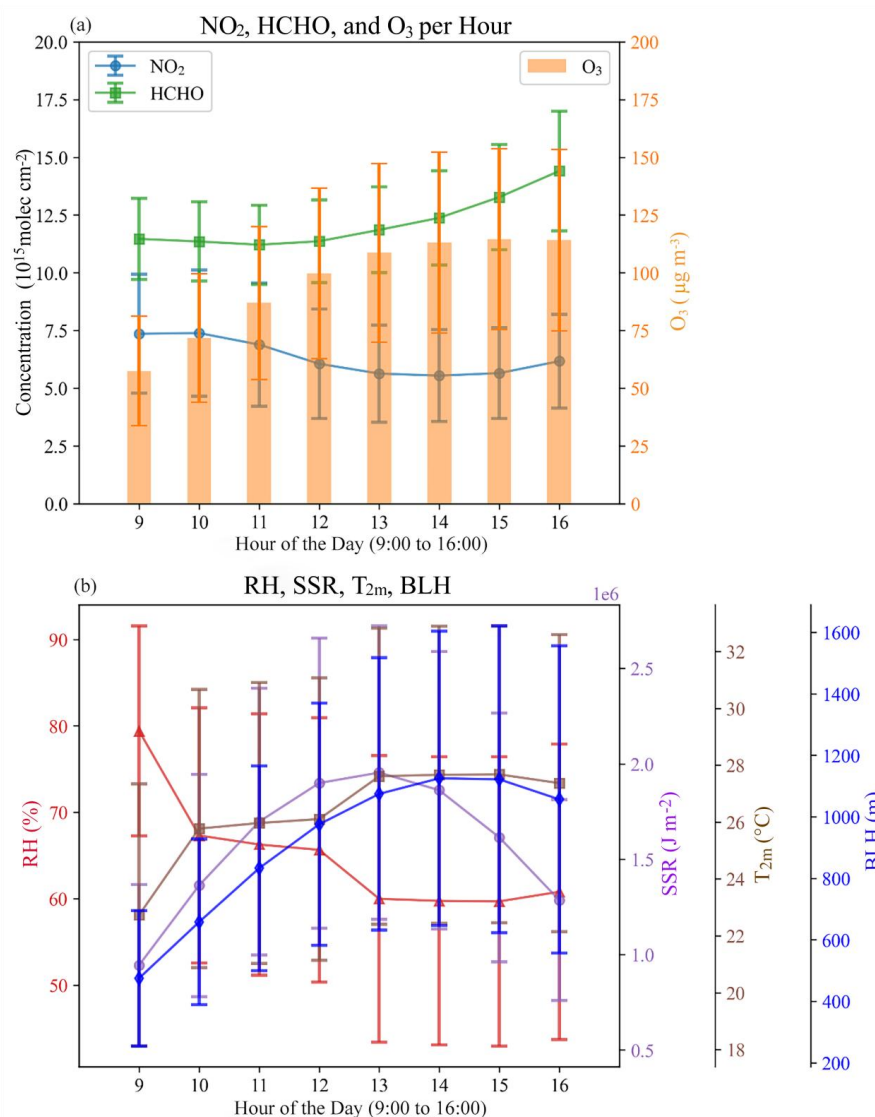
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259 **Figure 2.** Hourly atmospheric monitoring in China during the warm season (April to September 2021-2023). (a-h) and (i-p) Spatial

260 distribution of hourly mean HCHO and NO<sub>2</sub> levels retrieved from GEMS satellite data. (q-x) Temporal variations in ground-level mean

261 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations, observed at various monitoring stations.





**Figure 3.** (a) Warm-season hourly ozone averages and deviations for all stations in the study area, with corresponding HCHO and NO<sub>2</sub> from GEMS. (b) and ERA5 corresponding to T<sub>2m</sub>, RH, SSR, and BLH at the closest point site.

### 3.2 O<sub>3</sub>–NO<sub>x</sub>–VOC<sub>s</sub> chemistry captured by GEMS satellite-based HCHO/NO<sub>2</sub>

Figure 4 displays the daily relationship between HCHO and NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations and ground-level O<sub>3</sub> utilizing LOESS fitting method to highlight trends and high O<sub>3</sub> concentration events. The distributions of HCHO and NO<sub>2</sub> at 09:00 are dispersed. The concentration of O<sub>3</sub> is relatively low in Fig. 4a, so the photochemical reaction required for O<sub>3</sub> formation has not yet started completely because of the low temperature and radiation (Fig. 3). At this time, data points (NO<sub>2</sub> > 20 × 10<sup>15</sup> molec · cm<sup>-2</sup>) are concentrated in the upper left corner, suggesting a NO<sub>x</sub>-saturated state with VOC<sub>s</sub> (represented by HCHO) as the limiting factor. In addition, a small amount of O<sub>3</sub> reacts with NO to form new NO<sub>2</sub> at

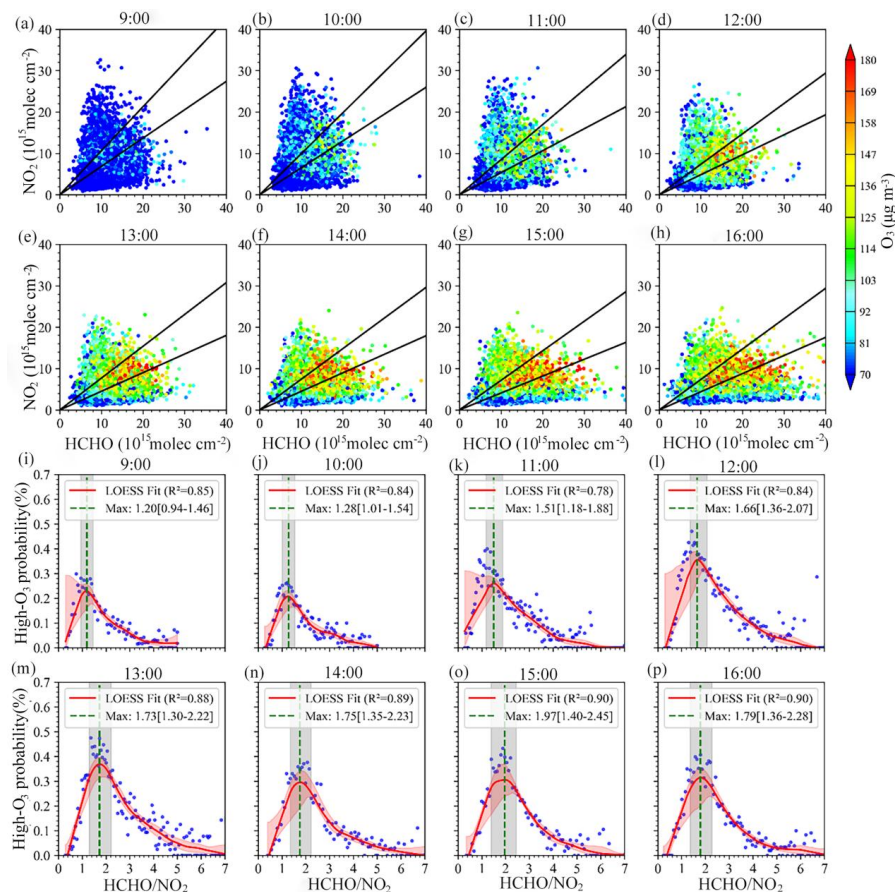


this time (Eq. 5), but its contribution is smaller than the impact of direct emissions and the effect of nighttime accumulation (Paul et al., 2018). From 10:00 to 12:00, as sunlight and temperature rise, data points move towards the lower right, significantly increasing  $O_3$  concentration. During this period, three typical states of  $O_3$ - $NO_x$ - $VOC_s$  chemical processes can be identified: the VOC-limited regime, the transition zone, and the  $NO_x$ -limited regime. In the afternoon, data are mostly in areas of high HCHO and low  $NO_2$ , efficient  $O_3$  production in HCHO-rich environments, even with low  $NO_2$ , resulting in the day's highest  $O_3$  levels. The photochemical reaction of  $VOC_s$  is accelerated with increasing solar radiation (peak at 13:00) and temperature, generating more free radicals and intermediates (e.g., HCHO). The increase of these free radicals will further promote the photolysis of  $NO_2$  and accelerate the generation of  $O_3$ . At the same time, the photolysis of  $NO_2$  not only produces  $O_3$  directly but also reduces the concentration of  $NO_2$ , reducing the  $O_3$  consumption reaction (Yang et al., 2021). In addition, the lower relative humidity reduces the involvement of water vapor, which usually consumes  $O_3$ , and this reduction favors the accumulation of  $O_3$  (Zhang et al., 2022). Since the reaction of  $VOC_s$  and  $NO_2$  photolysis are mutually reinforcing,  $O_3$  production in this environment shows a nonlinear enhancement, which is particularly evident under conditions of abundant  $VOC_s$  but low  $NO_2$ . Although there are some differences in the concentration and spatial distribution of HCHO and  $NO_2$  between the GEMS and TROPOMI satellite data (Fig. 5), they all exhibit similar distribution characteristics of high values in the four major urban agglomerations (BTH, YRD, SC, and PRD). Specifically, the areas of high concentrations of HCHO and  $NO_2$  are the same in both data, while the HCHO/ $NO_2$  ratio also exhibits a similar spatial pattern. This similarity is further verified by the difference values (Fig. 5i), which show that the difference between the two ratios in major urban agglomeration regions is relatively small, indicating that both GEMS and TROPOMI data are effective in capturing the nonlinear relationship of precursors in the  $O_3$  formation mechanism.

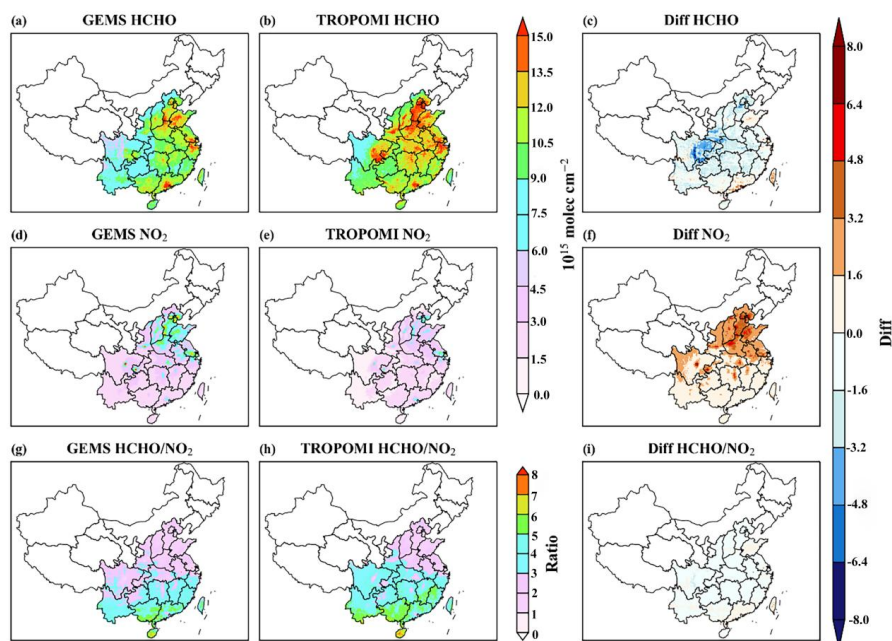
After establishing these nonlinear relationships across most of China, we further explored the diurnal variation characteristics of the quantitative relationship between high  $O_3$  event probabilities and FNR observed by GEMS satellites, as shown in Fig. 4(i-p). Compared to cubic polynomial fitting (Fig. 6), we found that LOESS fitting performed better in identifying peak probabilities of high  $O_3$  events with minimal uncertainty. During the morning hours (from 09:00 to 12:00),  $O_3$  concentrations gradually increase within the transition ranges of [0.94, 1.46] to [1.36, 2.07], with fitting curves that are steep and closely aligned to the y-axis, indicating a rapid shift from a VOC-limited to a regime significantly influenced by HCHO and  $NO_2$ . As solar radiation intensifies and emissions from traffic and industrial sources continue,  $O_3$  gradually accumulates near the ground. Note that the maximum FNR position gradually shifts rightward, indicating the growing importance of  $NO_2$  in  $O_3$  formation. In the afternoon (after 12:00), the fitted regimes, with broader transition zones spanning [1.30, 2.22] to [1.36, 2.28], more accurately captured the nonlinear relationship of  $O_3$ - $NO_x$ - $VOC_s$  ( $R^2 > 0.88$ ) than those in the morning. The afternoon typically meets peak radiation and temperatures (Fig. 3), accelerating chemical reactions, especially photochemical reactions, thus enhancing  $O_3$  production (Coates et al., 2016). Besides, the stable emissions and atmospheric chemical processes lead to consistent  $O_3$  sensitivity curves from 13:00 to 16:00. Throughout the day, the maximum high-probability  $O_3$  values from GEMS LOESS fitting increase, peaking at 1.97 at 15:00, before declining at 16:00. The  $O_3$  sensitivity thresholds at 13:00 in this study align with previous findings, such as [1.0, 2.0] by Jin and Holloway (2015), and [1.5, 2.3] by Chang et al. (2016). Furthermore, GEMS data further revealed that the hourly variability in  $O_3$ - $NO_x$ - $VOC_s$  sensitivity throughout the day was more complex and dynamic compared to previous studies, which primarily reported diurnal



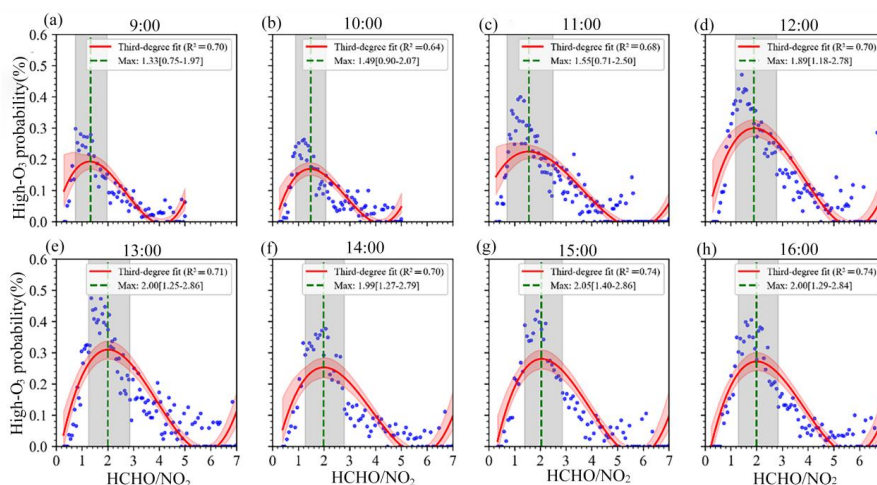
changes limited to a single time period, as observed by polar-orbiting satellites.



**Figure 4.** The relationship between hourly surface  $O_3$  levels and GEMS HCHO/ $NO_2$  from 2021 to 2023, analyzed using LOESS. **(a-h)**  $O_3$  concentrations versus GEMS HCHO and  $NO_2$ . All surface hourly  $O_3$  observations (9:00-16:00 LST) during the warm season from 2021 to 2023 were aggregated according to the corresponding GEMS HCHO and  $NO_2$ . The black line represents the hourly LOESS fit FNR values for GEMS data. **(i-p)** show the relationship of HCHO/ $NO_2$  (x-axis) to high  $O_3$  probability (y-axis), with data organized into 200 bins. Each bin represents a half-monthly average matched with corresponding hourly  $O_3$  levels. Defined high  $O_3$  event thresholds: 9:00 > 80  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , 10:00 > 100  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , 11:00 > 110  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , 12:00 > 120  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , 13:00 > 130  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ , 14:00 and later > 140  $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . The red line indicates the LOESS fit, with shading showing the 95% confidence interval. Bootstrap analysis with 1000 iterations was performed to ensure robustness, with each iteration involving random sampling and LOESS fitting. A vertical line and shading mark the peak and initial 15% transition range of the fitted curve, respectively.



**Figure 5.** Mean values of HCHO, NO<sub>2</sub>, and HCHO/NO<sub>2</sub> at 13 p.m. LST from 2021 to 2023 retrieved from GEMS and TROPOMI satellite data and their respective differences.



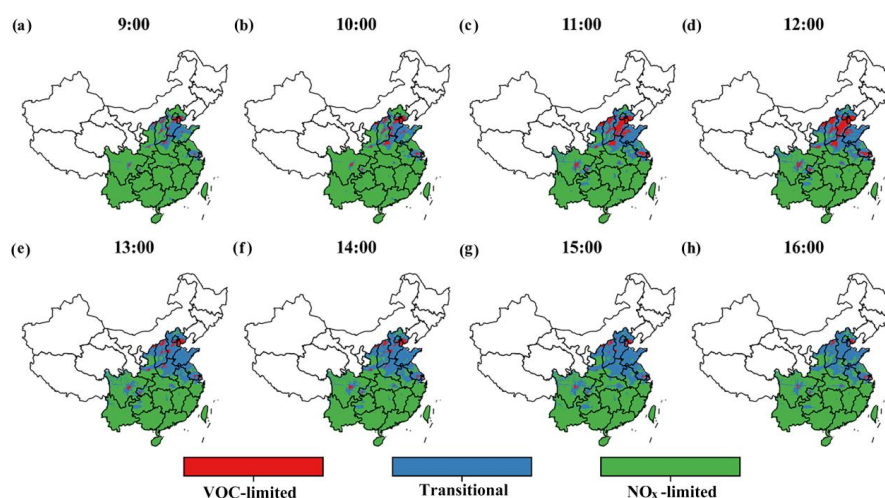
**Figure 6.** Similar to Figure 4(i-p), but with a third-order polynomial fit.

### 3.3 Spatiotemporal distribution of O<sub>3</sub> production regimes

In the afternoon (from 13:00), many urban areas initially VOC-limited in the morning start shifting to transition regimes (Fig. 7). The photochemical reactions of VOC<sub>s</sub> are accelerated with increasing sunlight (peaking in the late afternoon), temperature (Fig. 3) and these reactions produce more free radicals and intermediates (Eqs. 1 and 9), such as HCHO. In addition, NO<sub>2</sub> is also rapidly photolyzed to NO and O (Eq.3), which not only contributes directly to O<sub>3</sub> production but also leads to a



339 further reduction in  $\text{NO}_2$  concentration. Altogether, these conditions may accelerate the transition from  
340 VOC-limited to a state influenced by both  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{VOC}_s$  (transition regimes) in many urban areas.  
341 Specifically at 13:00, VOC-limited regimes are primarily concentrated in downtown areas, aligning  
342 with former findings from TROPOMI-based studies (Li et al., 2024; Ren et al., 2022). However, the  
343 regimes are less extensive. In specific city clusters, apart from the PRD, the other three primarily  
344 maintain VOC-limited regimes in the morning but begin transitioning by the afternoon. It is worth  
345 noting that the PRD region exhibits specific photochemical changes throughout the day, with transition  
346 regimes in the morning and  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regimes in the afternoon. The higher temperature and  
347 humidity conditions in the PRD may accelerate the reactions of  $\text{VOC}_s$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ , thereby affecting the  
348 formation of  $\text{O}_3$ . This hypothesis aligns with the findings of Wang et al. (2024) regarding the  
349 photochemical reaction rates in the PRD. In addition, air quality policies in the PRD in recent years  
350 have significantly reduced the concentrations of  $\text{VOC}_s$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ , which may contribute to the region's  
351 shift from a VOC-limited to a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime (Li et al., 2024). Combined with Fig. 8 (same as  
352 Fig.7, but for 2021 and 2022), it is also evident that the PRD has recently begun transitioning from  
353 VOC-limited to  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited and transitional regimes in the morning. In addition, most urban centers  
354 are VOC-limited in the morning and start transitioning to  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited at the urban edge by the  
355 afternoon. Furthermore, the geographical characteristics of the SC may contribute to limited  
356 atmospheric circulation, fostering the formation of a pronounced temperature inversion layer. This  
357 phenomenon partially inhibits the dispersion of air pollutants, resulting in the region predominantly  
358 experiencing a VOC-limited regime during the daytime (Yang et al., 2020). Notably, the intensity of the  
359 VOC-limited regimes in the SC diminishes in the afternoon and is not particularly strong in the  
360 morning, likely influenced by the solar intensity and its effects on atmospheric dynamics.



361

362 **Figure 7.** Diurnal photochemical-regime classification over study areas in  $\text{O}_3$  pollution period from April to September 2023. (a-h) the  
363 analysis utilizes eight-hourly  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$  ratio data from the GEMS satellite to classify the regional  $\text{O}_3$  formation dynamics in polluted  
364 areas (regions with GEMS  $\text{NO}_2$  columns exceeding  $1.0 \times 10^{15} \text{ molec}\cdot\text{cm}^{-2}$ ). The classification thresholds for VOC-limited, transitional,  
365 and  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited conditions are based on the relationship between hourly surface high  $\text{O}_3$  occurrence probabilities and GEMS  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$ ,





as shown in Figure 4.

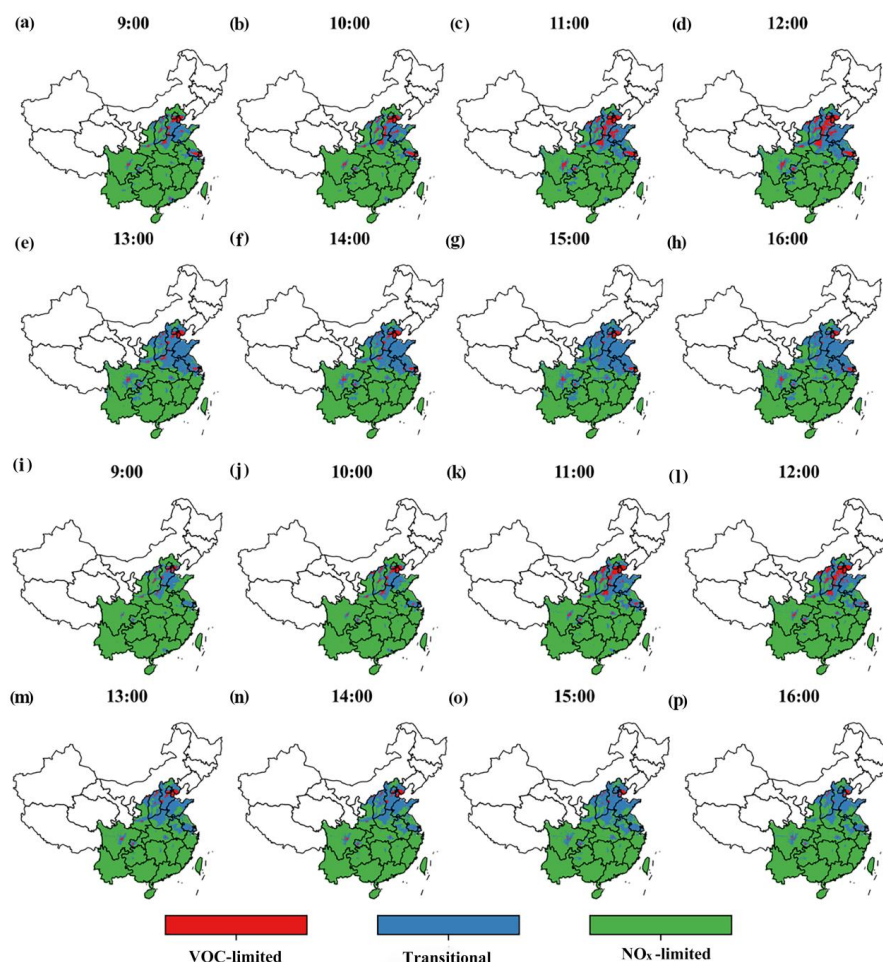


Figure 8. Similar to Figure 7, but for 2021 (a-h) and 2022 (i-p).

### 3.4 Analysis of O<sub>3</sub> Formation Mechanisms in Representative Cities

Four representative cities — Beijing, Nanjing, Chengdu, and Guangzhou — were selected to represent the BTH, YRD, SC and PRD regions, respectively. As shown in Fig. 9(a-d), except for Guangzhou, the other three cities exhibit a high proportion of VOC-limited regimes during daytime. Notably, the VOC-limited fraction in Beijing and Chengdu peaks around noon (12:00). The changes in  $\Delta\text{HCHO}$  and  $\Delta\text{NO}_2$ , along with their rate-of-change ratio ( $|\Delta\text{HCHO}/\Delta\text{NO}_2|$ ), serve as a robust indicator for tracking the dynamic response of relative precursor conversion intensities. With this analytical framework, we integrate hourly meteorological conditions (Fig. 9(e-h)) with the rates of change in  $\Delta\text{HCHO}$  and  $\Delta\text{NO}_2$  (Fig. 9(i-l)) to conduct a comparative analysis of ozone formation mechanisms and their diurnal evolution.

Beijing is characterized by the coexistence of VOC-limited and transitional regimes between





09:00 and 16:00, reflecting a  $\text{NO}_2$ -abundant environment. More specifically, Beijing remains predominantly VOC-limited from 09:00 to 13:00, after which the fractions of the  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited and transitional regimes gradually increase. Notably, taking 12:00 as a turning point, the VOC-limited fraction increases hourly before noon while the other regimes decrease, whereas after 12:00 the VOC-limited fraction declines sharply and reaches a minimum at 16:00, accompanied by a concurrent increase in the other two regimes, which peak at the same time. Strong SSR, particularly between 12:00 and 13:00, together with a rapidly increasing BLH, substantially enhances  $\text{NO}_2$  photolysis and weakens the titration of  $\text{O}_3$  by NO. As a result, even under high- $\text{NO}_x$  emission conditions, ozone formation is unlikely to enter a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime and is instead more strongly constrained by  $\text{VOC}_s$  availability. Previous studies have shown that under  $\text{NO}_x$ -rich conditions, ozone production is more sensitive to  $\text{VOC}_s$ , and that boundary layer development and enhanced radiation further amplify this sensitivity (Ren et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2025a). Consistently, Fig. 9i shows a relatively large net loss rate of  $\text{NO}_2$ , whereas the increase in HCHO is comparatively limited, leading to low values of  $\Delta \text{HCHO} / \Delta \text{NO}_2$  in the morning and further indicating VOC-limited ozone formation under a  $\text{NO}_x$ -abundant background. In the afternoon,  $\Delta \text{HCHO} / \Delta \text{NO}_2$  begins to increase, suggesting a transition toward a transitional regime with emerging  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited characteristics.

$\text{O}_3$  formation in Nanjing exhibits a more complex diurnal evolution, characterized by a predominantly transitional regime jointly controlled by  $\text{VOC}_s$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ , alongside a non-negligible contribution from the VOC-limited regime. During 09:00 – 11:00, the fractions of the  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited and transitional regimes decrease, whereas the VOC-limited fraction increases. Taking 13:00 as a turning point, the former two regimes show an increase followed by a decrease, while the VOC-limited regime displays the opposite pattern. Compared with Beijing, the growth rate of the BLH in Nanjing is substantially weaker, whereas  $T_{2m}$  and RH are considerably higher. Such meteorological conditions may affect the efficiency of  $\text{HO}_2/\text{RO}_2$  chain reactions, rendering ozone production more nonlinearly responsive to precursor changes and thereby leading to more complex dynamic behavior (Lu et al., 2019b). Consistent with this interpretation, the rates of change in  $\Delta \text{HCHO}$  and  $\Delta \text{NO}_2$  (Fig. 9j) increase synchronously after 12:00, resulting in a transient rise in  $\Delta \text{HCHO} / \Delta \text{NO}_2$ ; however, this elevated ratio is not sustained. This indicates that Nanjing does not stably enter a single-precursor-limited regime but instead remains largely within a transitional state characterized by joint VOC- $\text{NO}_x$  control, reflecting strong photochemical activity under a  $\text{NO}_2$ -rich background.

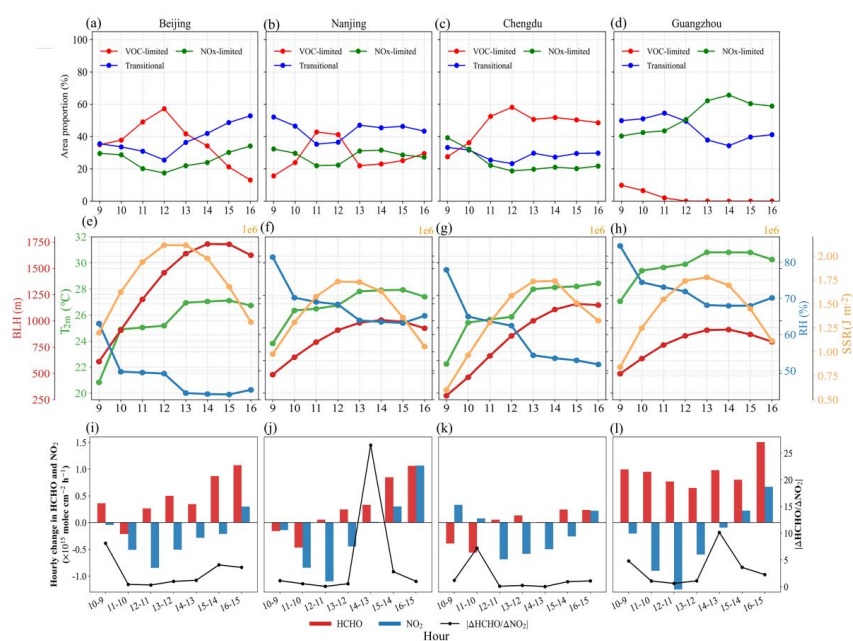
In contrast, Chengdu is dominated by a VOC-limited regime, followed by the transitional regime, while the  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime accounts for the smallest fraction. Before 12:00, the fractions of the  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited and transitional regimes decrease hourly, accompanied by a continuous increase in the VOC-limited fraction. After 12:00, although the VOC-limited fraction decreases slightly, it remains substantially higher than the other two regimes. Ozone formation in Chengdu is strongly influenced by basin-induced meteorological conditions: the enclosed topography restricts atmospheric dispersion and suppresses photochemical intensity, while sustained traffic and industrial emissions maintain relatively high  $\text{NO}_x$  levels, making ozone production more strongly constrained by VOC availability (Lu et al., 2019a). The rate-of-change characteristics of  $\Delta \text{HCHO}$  and  $\Delta \text{NO}_2$  further support this interpretation. Compared with the other three cities, Chengdu exhibits the smallest variability in both  $\Delta \text{HCHO}$  and  $\Delta \text{NO}_2$ . During the morning (09:00 – 11:00),  $\text{NO}_2$  continues to increase, whereas HCHO does not show a corresponding enhancement, limiting the amplification of radical chain reactions and thereby suppressing rapid ozone formation. Even in the afternoon, when  $\text{NO}_2$  experiences sustained net loss and HCHO increases concurrently,  $\Delta \text{HCHO} / \Delta \text{NO}_2$  remains persistently low, indicating that ozone



formation in Chengdu is consistently dominated by a VOC-limited regime.

In Guangzhou, ozone formation is dominated by the transitional regime before 12:00, followed by the  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited and VOC-limited regimes. After 12:00, the VOC-limited regime disappears, and ozone formation gradually shifts toward a pattern dominated by the  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime, with the transitional regime as secondary. Guangzhou exhibits the  $T_{2m}$  and RH among the four cities, reflecting a typical hot and humid coastal climate in southern China. Under emission conditions characterized by the coexistence of high  $\text{NO}_x$  levels and abundant reactive VOCs, together with strong photochemical activity,  $\text{NO}_2$  is rapidly photolyzed, while the continuously increasing emissions and oxidation of biogenic and anthropogenic VOCs in the southern coastal region sustain high HCHO concentrations. This feature results in a persistently low fraction of the VOC-limited regime (Wang et al., 2021b; Wei et al., 2023). After 12:00, the net loss rate of  $\text{NO}_2$  weakens rapidly, whereas HCHO maintains stable positive production, leading to a pronounced short-term enhancement in the marginal sensitivity of ozone formation to  $\text{NO}_x$  and a progressive transition toward a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited regime. Overall, Guangzhou is characterized by an HCHO-abundant regime driven by strong biogenic and anthropogenic VOC emissions. These features are consistent with previous understandings of ozone formation mechanisms in eastern and southern Chinese cities (Wang et al., 2021a; Wang et al., 2025c).

Therefore, effective ozone pollution control should avoid single-precursor strategies and instead implement coordinated and time-dependent reductions of VOCs and  $\text{NO}_x$  tailored to different regions and meteorological conditions to achieve stable and effective ozone mitigation.



**Figure 9.**  $\text{O}_3$  formation regimes and hourly variations in meteorological conditions and precursors for representative cities (Beijing(a,e,i), Nanjing(b,f,j), Chengdu(c,g,k), and Guangzhou(d,h,l)). (a-d) fractional contributions of  $\text{O}_3$  formation regimes. (e-h) hourly time series of meteorological variables (BLH,  $T_{2m}$ , RH, SSR). (i-l) hourly rates of change in  $\Delta\text{HCHO}$  and  $\Delta\text{NO}_2$ .

## 4 Conclusions and Outlook



HCHO is a key intermediate in photochemical reactions involving VOCs and serves as a precursor for ozone formation. Here, utilizing GEMS satellite technology and ground-based monitoring stations, we analyzed the relationship between meteorological factors and the spatiotemporal distribution of O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs from 9:00 to 16:00 in major Chinese regions, based on daily O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>2</sub>-HCHO data and meteorological parameters from the warm seasons of 2021–2023. In addition, the sensitivity characteristics of the HCHO-to-NO<sub>2</sub> relationship were examined to analyze the spatiotemporal characteristics of O<sub>3</sub> formation and the differences in formation mechanisms across major regions of China and representative cities (Beijing, Nanjing, Chengdu, and Guangzhou). The main conclusions are summarized as follows:

O<sub>3</sub> and HCHO concentrations generally exhibited an upward trend from 09:00 to 16:00, peaking at 15:00 and 16:00, respectively. In contrast, NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations generally declined, with a notable rebound only at 10:00. Spatially, elevated levels of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> and HCHO were concentrated in the BTH, YRD, SC and PRD regions. Meteorologically, both T<sub>2m</sub> and SSR exerted positive effects on ozone and HCHO concentrations. Meanwhile, enhanced photochemical activity and increased boundary layer height occasionally led to a reduction in nitrogen dioxide levels.

The scatter plot indicates that NO<sub>x</sub> reaches saturation at 09:00. During the afternoon period (after 12:00), the ozone formation environment exhibits a distinct non-linear trend characterized by high VOC concentrations and low NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Moreover, compared to cubic polynomial fitting, LOESS fitting better highlights the diurnal variation characteristics of the quantitative relationship between FNR. Particularly after 12:00, the nonlinear relationship between O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs exhibits  $R^2 \geq 0.88$ . The O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity curve remains consistent, peaking at 15:00 (1.97) with values ranging between [1.40–2.45].

From the spatio-temporal distribution of ozone formation mechanisms, China's primary regions remain predominantly NO<sub>x</sub>-limited, with VOC-limited and transitional zones concentrated in the northern study area and parts of SC. Temporally, VOC-limited zones peak between 11:00 and 12:00, while transitional zones expand after 13:00. Additionally, the PRD region gradually transitioned from a VOC-limited pattern towards NO<sub>x</sub>-limited and transitional modes between 2021 and 2023.

With respect to the dominant drivers of the diurnal variation in ozone formation sensitivity across major urban regions, Beijing, Nanjing, Chengdu, and Guangzhou are selected as representative cities for the BTH, YRD, SC and PRD regions, respectively. The results show that Beijing, under a NO<sub>x</sub>-rich emission background, exhibits a VOC-limited regime driven by strong solar radiation and rapid boundary layer development, and transitions toward a transitional regime in the afternoon. Nanjing is dominated by a transitional regime jointly controlled by VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub> under hot and humid meteorological conditions, with complex diurnal variability arising from the nonlinear photochemical response of ozone formation to its precursors. Chengdu is dominated by a VOC-limited regime, primarily driven by basin-induced constraints on atmospheric dispersion that lead to persistent NO<sub>x</sub> accumulation and relatively weak photochemical activity, resulting in a comparatively stable diurnal pattern. Guangzhou, under hot and humid climatic conditions, experiences persistently high HCHO levels driven by active biogenic and anthropogenic VOC emissions, which promote a transition of ozone formation toward a NO<sub>x</sub>-limited regime.

It should be noted that this study still has some limitations in characterizing ozone formation mechanisms. On the one hand, the formation processes of ozone precursors within the study regions have not been explicitly examined, including anthropogenic sources (such as industrial, traffic, and power generation emissions) as well as other influencing factors such as atmospheric pressure,



precipitation, and vegetation, and a detailed source apportionment of ozone over major regions of China is lacking. On the other hand, the suppressive effects of aerosols on ozone formation—through the attenuation of solar radiation and the reduction of photolysis rates—are not considered, which may further influence the diagnosis of ozone sensitivity to  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{VOC}_s$ . Future research will integrate regional air quality models, high-resolution anthropogenic VOC emission inventories, and aerosol-radiation interaction processes to systematically analyze the nonlinear response characteristics of  $\text{O}_3$ -VOC- $\text{NO}_x$ , in order to support the formulation of precise emission reduction and coordinated control strategies for different periods and regions.

**Data availability.** GEMS satellite data (level-2 tropospheric  $\text{NO}_2$  and HCHO data) are accessible via the National Institute of Environmental Research (NIER) website (<https://nesc.nier.go.kr/ko/html/Index.do>). Ground-based ozone station data originate from the China National Atmospheric Environment Monitoring Network (<https://air.cnemc.cn:18007/>). Land use type remote sensing data (30-metre resolution) can be found at <https://www.resdc.cn/DOI/doi.aspx?DOIid=54>. 2-metre temperature (T2m), relative humidity (RH), near-surface net radiation flux (SSR), and boundary layer height (BLH) can be downloaded from the ERA5 database (<https://psl.noaa.gov/data/gridded/data.ncep.reanalysis.html>).

**Author contributions.** Conceptualization: FQ and MM. Methodology: FQ. Investigation: CH, JW and YJ. Visualization: YJ and MM. Supervision: QF and JK. Writing—original draft: YJ, CH and MM. Writing—review & editing: MM. and JK.

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