

# 1 Aggravating O<sub>3</sub> pollution due to NO<sub>x</sub> emission control in eastern China

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## 14 15 **Abstract**

16 China has been suffering from increasing ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) pollution even though nitrogen  
17 oxides undergoes a notable drop during past five years. Since that O<sub>3</sub> pollution has a  
18 nonlinear and close link to both NO<sub>x</sub> and VOC emission intensity, recent dramatic  
19 control on emissions in China would inevitably pose significant perturbations on O<sub>3</sub>  
20 sensitivity to its precursors. To shed more light on current situation of O<sub>3</sub> pollution and  
21 get in-depth understandings on how to scientifically control NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and VOCs  
22 emissions spatially and temporally, we integrated continuous satellite retrievals,  
23 ground-based measurements together with chemical transport modeling in this study.  
24 By analyzing statistical data, China has addressed much efforts in controlling NO<sub>x</sub>  
25 emissions and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions did decrease by ~ 25% from 2012 to 2016, corresponding  
26 to a noticeable drop in tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column concentrations in eastern China  
27 (reduced by ~ 30%). Based on multiple sensitivity simulation using a chemical transport  
28 model, we explored the characteristics and variations of O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity with  
29 special focus on developed regions such as Jing-Jin-Ji (JJJ), Yangtze River Delta region  
30 (YRD) and Pearl River Delta region (PRD), respectively, in eastern China. In spatial,  
31 all the regions demonstrated the variations of O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities changing from VOCs  
32 sensitive dominated regimes to mixed sensitive dominated regimes, indicating O<sub>3</sub>  
33 formations were becoming sensitive to both NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs. In temporal, a diurnal shift  
34 of O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity existed in all the 3 regions with VOCs sensitive regimes dominated in  
35 the morning shifting to mixed sensitive dominated regimes in the afternoon. Due to the  
36 transition in O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity, the diurnal peak of net O<sub>3</sub> formation rate was  
37 ~1-1.5h earlier in 2016 compared to 2012. Our O<sub>3</sub> isopleth studies suggested that  
38 relatively high levels of O<sub>3</sub> are in mixed sensitive regimes?? and eastern China would  
39 suffer from deteriorating O<sub>3</sub> pollution at least in a short-term or even in a long-term if  
40 following the past control tendency. By conducting different reduction ratios of  
41 AVOCs/NO<sub>x</sub> scenarios, it was found NO<sub>x</sub>-targeted emission control would lead to O<sub>3</sub>

42 increments in Beijing and Shanghai, whereas VOCs-targeted control could benefits for  
43 all the three regions. The study provides scientific supports for future emission control  
44 strategy in China.

45

## 46 **1. Introduction**

47 Characterized by high levels of particulate matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub>), high mixing  
48 ratio of ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and low visibility, air pollution in China has attracted  
49 lots of attention worldwide. In fact, China has been dedicating to fight  
50 against air pollution in the past decades. Due to the continuous efforts on  
51 emission control and restriction, the increase of PM<sub>2.5</sub> has been somehow  
52 mitigated and even reversed (He et al., 2017; Song et al., 2017). However,  
53 photochemical O<sub>3</sub> pollution is still serious (annual increasing rate is 6.5  
54 ug/m<sup>3</sup> from 2013 to 2017) and frequently deteriorate atmospheric  
55 environment especially in eastern China, where highly developed city  
56 clusters such as the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (JJJ) area, Yangtze River Delta  
57 (YRD) region and Pearl River Delta (PRD) region are located.

58 Tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> is produced by emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub> = NO  
59 + NO<sub>2</sub>) and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) in the presence of sunlight  
60 (Atkinson 2000). Tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> is not only harmful to human health but  
61 also poses adverse impact on plants and even ecosystem (Booker et al.,  
62 2009; Fann et al., 2011; Brauer et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2018). As one of the  
63 greenhouse gases, O<sub>3</sub> also affects global climate (Watson et al., 1990;  
64 Shindell et al., 2004; de\_Richter 2011;). The control of O<sub>3</sub> is of great

65 challenge due to the complicated non-linear relationship between  $O_3$  and  
66 its precursors (Xing et al., 2011; Ou et al., 2016). Briefly, net  $O_3$  is  
67 accumulated when the photo-stationary reaction chains, i.e.,  $NO_2 + O_2 + M$   
68  $\rightleftharpoons NO + O_3 + M$ , are unbalanced by the intervention of alkylperoxyl ( $RO_2$ )  
69 and hydroperoxyl ( $HO_2$ ) from VOCs and CO, which lead to the oxidization  
70 of NO to  $NO_2$  ( $RO_2 + NO + O_2 \rightarrow HO_2 + NO_2$ ;  $HO_2 + NO \rightarrow OH + NO_2$ ),  
71 and finally resulting in net  $O_3$  accumulation via  $NO_2$  photolysis (Atkinson  
72 2000). The relationship between  $O_3$  and its precursors is usually identified  
73 as VOCs-sensitive,  $NO_x$ -sensitive or mix-sensitive. In general, VOCs-  
74 sensitive regime means that reducing VOCs emissions could lead to the  
75 reduction of  $RO_2$ , which accordingly decrease the transition of NO to  $NO_2$   
76 and finally result in lower concentration of  $O_3$ ; In  $NO_x$ -sensitive regime,  
77 cutting  $NO_x$  emissions lead to the reduction of  $NO_2$  photolysis, causing the  
78 decrease of O1D (activated oxygen atom) which react with  $O_2$  to generate  
79  $O_3$ . Mix-sensitive regime has the characteristics that reducing either VOCs  
80 or  $NO_x$  emissions would result in the reduction of  $O_3$  (Sillman., 2002;  
81 Sillman 2003; Sillman and West 2009; Sillman., 2012; Xie et al., 2014;  
82 Xue et al., 2014; Jin et al., 2015).

83 Current methods of mainstream to split  $O_3$ - $NO_x$ -VOCs sensitivity covers  
84 observation-based methods, satellite retrievals and models. Usually, site  
85 observations can directly provide information of  $O_3$  and its precursors and  
86 it is feasible to calculate  $O_3$  sensitivity by complementing observe-based

87 models. For example, [Ling et al. \(2013\)](#) investigated O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity in Hong  
88 Kong with a photochemical box model constrained by observed VOCs and  
89 NO<sub>x</sub> data. The method can provide accurate in-situ diagnoses but is limited  
90 in temporal and spatial extent ([Wang et al., 2017](#)). Satellite retrievals, based  
91 on the ratio of formaldehyde (HCHO) to NO<sub>2</sub>, are also widely used. It  
92 overcomes the limit of site measurements and provide data in time and  
93 space. [Martin et al. \(2004\)](#) adopted the retrievals from GOME (Global  
94 Ozone Monitoring Experiment) and investigated O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity of Northern  
95 Hemisphere. However, the top-down observation is influenced by clouds,  
96 aerosols, precipitations and ground reflectivity thus contains uncertainties  
97 itself ([De Smedt et al., 2012](#)). Besides, most satellites provide only once-  
98 a-day observations, which could not reflect the diurnal variation.  
99 Modelling approaches, based on air quality simulations, provide explicit  
100 calculations in terms of chemical species and chemical sensitivities to  
101 precursors across time (from hourly to yearly) and space (from ~1 km to  
102 ~100 km). Though air quality model involves uncertainties from emission  
103 inventories, they are powerful regulatory tools especially in evaluating  
104 emission control strategies and policy decisions ([Xing et al., 2011](#); [Li et al.,](#)  
105 [2013](#); [Wang et al., 2016](#)).

106 In eastern China, there has been several studies conducted to explore O<sub>3</sub>-  
107 NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity. Due to the abundance of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from  
108 sources like transportation and local industries/plants, most previous

109 studies concluded that urban areas are VOCs sensitive (Shao et al., 2009;  
110 Wang et al., 2009; Chou et al., 2009; Sun et al., 2011). For example, Wang  
111 et al., (2010) used the ratio of O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>z</sub> as the indicator to split O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-  
112 VOCs sensitivity and reported that Beijing (in JJJ) was under a strong  
113 VOCs-sensitive regime. Ding et al. (2013) suggested that Nanjing, a  
114 developed city in YRD, was located in VOCs sensitive regimes according  
115 to observations of NO<sub>y</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> and CO. Shao et al. (2009) found that urban  
116 areas of Guangzhou in PRD was also sensitive to VOCs through an  
117 observation-based model. With regard to rural areas in eastern China,  
118 studies concluded that O<sub>3</sub> formation was generally controlled by NO<sub>x</sub>  
119 sensitive regimes (Wang et al., 2009; Xing et al., 2011).

120 Though lots of studies have been made, most of these studies were based  
121 on in-situ study or on a small region, there is few studies conducted on a  
122 mesoscale in both temporal and spatial. More importantly, most of them  
123 were conducted using earlier data, which could not reflect the current  
124 situation of China, especially after the period of 12<sup>th</sup> *Five Year Plan* (FYP ,  
125 2010-2015) and *Atmospheric Prevention and Protection Action Plan*  
126 (APPAP, 2012-2017) when intensive efforts on NO<sub>x</sub> emission abatement  
127 were made whereas the control of VOCs emissions was almost neglected.  
128 With the rising trend of O<sub>3</sub> year by year, governments and policymakers  
129 are keen to know the up-to-date O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities. In this study, we firstly  
130 went over the past NO<sub>x</sub> abatement policy/strategies in China. Observations,

131 including both satellite retrievals and ground-based air quality monitoring  
132 data were combined with emission inventories to help understand NO<sub>x</sub>  
133 abatement in China. Further, multiple numerical simulations based on a  
134 chemical transport model (CTM) was used to investigate the difference of  
135 O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity between 2012 (when NO<sub>x</sub> emissions reached the  
136 peak) and 2016 (when NO<sub>x</sub> emissions noticeably reduced). The  
137 characteristics and variations of O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity were compared  
138 and discussed. Finally, we probed deeply into understanding O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-  
139 VOCs regime in 2016 with the aim to provide theoretical support for future  
140 emission control policy making in China.

141

## 142 **2.Method and Material**

### 143 2.1 Data

144 We used the operational Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI) NO<sub>2</sub> product  
145 to identify tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> variations in eastern China. OMI incorporates  
146 one visible region (349-504nm) and two UV region (264-311 nm and 307-  
147 383nm) with a spectral resolution between 0.42 to 0.63 nm and a spatial  
148 resolution of 13 × 24 km<sup>2</sup> at nadir ([Levelt et al.](#), [Jin et al.](#)). As a nadir-  
149 viewing spectrometer, OMI provides daily global coverage product with a  
150 local time around 13:30. In this study, we used tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> products  
151 between 2005-2017 (DOMINO v2.0), which were developed by the Royal  
152 Netherlands Meteorological Institute. Generally, the DOMINO retrieval

153 involves three steps. Firstly, using Differential Optical Absorption  
154 Spectroscopy (DOAS) technique to access NO<sub>2</sub> slant columns from OMI  
155 instrument; Secondly, separating the tropospheric and stratospheric  
156 contribution to the slant column; Finally, using the tropospheric air mass  
157 factor (AMF) to convert tropospheric slant column into a vertical column  
158 (Boersma et al., 2004; 2007;2011). To be noted that OMI data was affected  
159 by row anomalies since 2007, the DOMINO algorithm followed the Row  
160 Anomaly Flagging Rules and discarded the affected rows which introduce  
161 pollution. More details are given by Boersma et al (2011).

162 Emissions of O<sub>3</sub> precursors, namely, NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs, were obtained from  
163 Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC, available at  
164 <http://www.meicmodel.org/>). MEIC refers to a series of Chinese  
165 anthropogenic emission inventories with spatial resolution of 1°×1° , 0.5°  
166 ×0.5° and 0.25°×0.25°, respectively. Developed by Tsinghua University,  
167 MEIC has been openly accessible to public since 2010 and has been  
168 keeping updated for providing recent emission benchmark in China. It  
169 involves major atmospheric pollutants including SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, CO, NMVOC,  
170 NH<sub>3</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, BC and OC from sources like transportation, power  
171 plants, agriculture, residential and industry (He et al., Zhang et al.,). In this  
172 study, NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs emissions from 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014 and 2016  
173 were analyzed aiming to understand variations of O<sub>3</sub> precursors in the past.  
174 In addition, the 2012-based and 2016-based MEIC emission inventories

175 were adopted to drive CTM modeling for the exploration of O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity  
176 in eastern China.

177 Ground-based monitoring data of NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> were collected from China  
178 Statistical Yearbook by National Bureau of statistics (2013-2017, available at  
179 <http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjsj/ndsj/>, in Chinese, last access: 23 Nov. 2018),  
180 which originated from Ministry of Environmental Protection (MEP) of  
181 China. Since 2013, national MEP had enlarged the operational air quality  
182 monitoring sites from 31 cities to 74 cities in China in order to provide  
183 more detailed monitoring information (GB3095-2012). Therefore, we  
184 showed yearly averages of NO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> from 74 cities between 2013-2017  
185 in this study. Besides, hourly values of meteorological parameters  
186 (temperature, relative humidity, wind) and trace gases (NO<sub>x</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>) were  
187 used to evaluate model performance (site distributions are illustrated in Fig  
188 1). Meteorological data and trace gases were obtained from operational  
189 surface monitoring stations maintained by China Meteorological  
190 Administration (CMA) and China Environmental Monitoring Center,  
191 respectively (CEMC). Our previous studies have demonstrated the good  
192 quality of these data (Wang et al., Xu et al., Huang et al).

## 193 2.2 Model and methods

194 In this study, a chemical transport model, i.e., Weather Research Forecast  
195 – Community Multiscale Air Quality (WRF-CMAQ) modelling system,  
196 was employed to investigate O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity in Eastern China. A two-nested



197 domain was chosen with a grid resolution of  $36 \times 36$  km and  $12 \times 12$  km,  
 198 respectively. The outer domain covered most area of China, parts of  
 199 Southern China Sea and Western Pacific. The inner domain covered eastern  
 200 China with JJJ, YRD and PRD being highly focused (Fig). Vertically, there  
 201 were 30 sigma levels based on terrain-following hydrostatic-pressure  
 202 coordinate, with the lowest level from the ground surface to the top of 100  
 203 hPa.

204

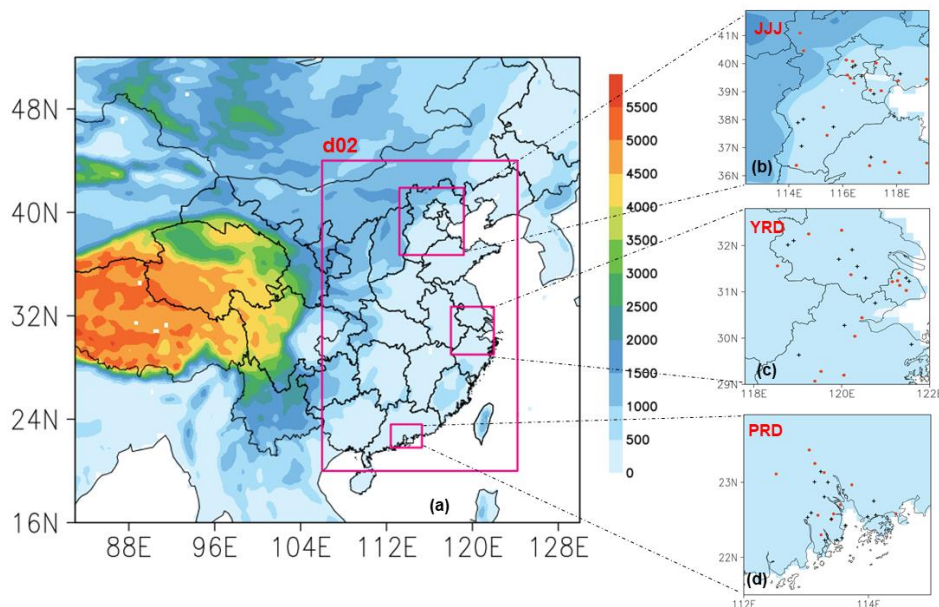
205 Table 1 Configuration and settings of WRF-CMAQ modeling system

Item	Domain1	Domain2
Number of grids	170,130	199, 256
Horizontal resolution	36 km	12 km
Microphysics	WRF single-moment 5-class microphysics	
Short-wave radiation		Goddard
Long-Wave radiation		RRTM
Observation nudging		Yes
Boundary Layer		ACM2
Gas-phase Chemistry		CB05
Aerosol option		AERO5
Anthropogenic		MEIC
Emissions		
Natural Emissions		MEGAN

206

207 The WRF model (version 3.9.1) was performed to simulate weather  
 208 conditions by using the  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$  NCEP (National Centers for Environmental  
 209 Prediction) FNL Operational Global Analysis data (ds083.2). Meanwhile,  
 210 the NCEP ADP Global Upper Air Observational Weather Data (ds351.0)  
 211 was assimilated via nudging technique to improve meteorological

212 simulations. The key configurations of WRF-CMAQ involved that, the  
213 Rapid Radioactive Transfer Model (RRTM) for short and long wave  
214 radiation scheme, the Noah Land Surface Model for land-atmospheric  
215 interactions, the ACM2 boundary layer scheme, the Lin microphysics  
216 scheme, the Kain-Fritsch scheme for cumulus parameterization and the  
217 Carbon Bond 05 (CB05) combined with AERO5 for gas-phase and aerosol  
218 chemistry (summarized in Table 1). Anthropogenic emission inventories  
219 were obtained from MEIC as aforementioned. Biogenic emissions  
220 including BVOCs and NO were calculated offline using the Model of  
221 Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN, Guenther et al.,  
222 2006).



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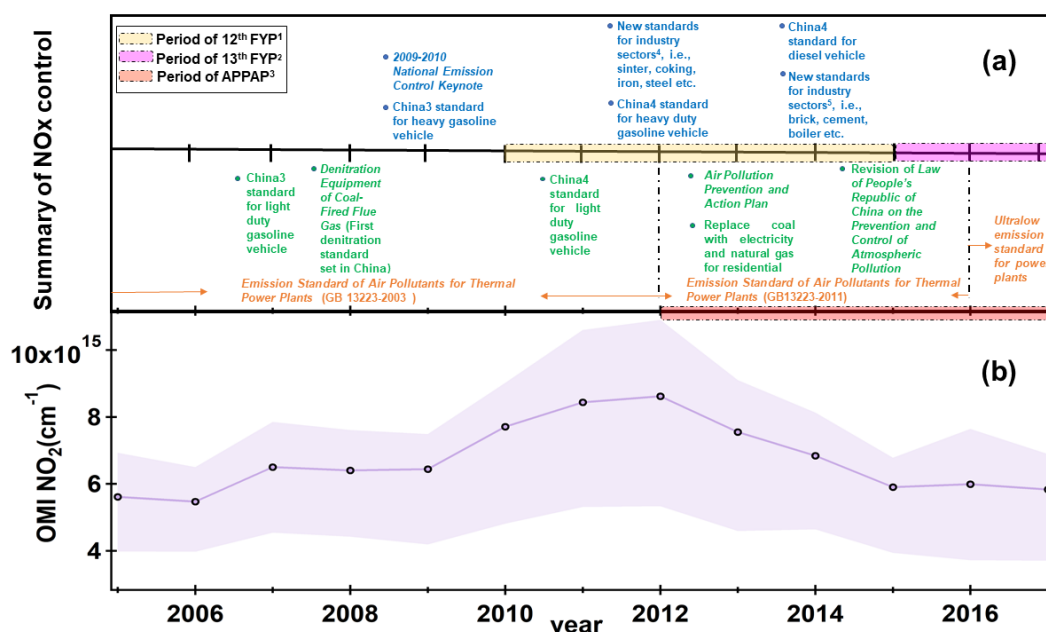
225 Fig 1 Modeling domains and the 3 focused regions in eastern China (a), the contour is terrain  
226 height; and JJJ (b), YRD (c) and PRD (d). The red and black dots in b-d represents air quality  
227 monitoring stations (from CEMC) and weather monitoring stations (from CMA).

228 We used WRF-CMAQ to investigate  $\text{NO}_x$  abatement on  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity  
229 during  $\text{O}_3$  season, namely, August, when  $\text{O}_3$  pollution gets extremely  
230 frequent throughout the country (Ding et al., 2013; 2016; Wang et al., 2017).  
231 Here, we studied  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity regime in 2012 and 2016 since these two  
232 year featured  $\text{NO}_x$  emission peaks and a noticeable decrease in  $\text{NO}_x$   
233 concentration, respectively. Two numerical experiments were designed,  
234 both of which shared exactly same model configuration and input except  
235 for anthropogenic emissions. Sensitivity runs were conducted using the  
236 2012-based and the 2016-based MEIC by reducing AVOCs or  $\text{NO}_x$   
237 emissions, respectively. In this study,  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity regime was identified  
238 in equivalent scenarios with 50% reductions in AVOCs and in  $\text{NO}_x$   
239 emissions as suggested by Sillman and West (2009). The results are  
240 discussed in Section. Moreover, the relative incremental reactivity (RIR),  
241 reflecting the relative change of  $\text{O}_3$  formation rate response to perturbations  
242 in precursors (Cardelino and Chameides, 1995), was also calculated to  
243 verify method mentioned above in diagnosing  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity. Usually, a  
244 larger positive RIR of  $\text{NO}_x$  (or VOCs) indicates a higher probability that  
245  $\text{O}_3$  production will be more sensitive to  $\text{NO}_x$  (or VOCs). The definition and  
246 verification using RIR are provided in supplementary.  
247 Further, we conducted  $\text{O}_3$  isopleth simulations in eastern China to improve  
248 our understanding of  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity in 2016. Sensitivity simulations were  
249 conducted for 10 days (Aug 20-29) which covered both  $\text{O}_3$  polluted and

250 non-polluted days representing a general level of O<sub>3</sub> season in eastern  
 251 China. Generally, scenario simulations were undertaken with reducing NO<sub>x</sub>  
 252 or AVOCs emissions by 0%, 25%, 50%, 75% or 100%, respectively. In  
 253 particular, more intensive reduction scenarios were conducted within the  
 254 range of 0% and 50% reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> or AVOCs emissions, aiming to  
 255 provide more detailed O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities to precursor perturbations. As a  
 256 result, we performed 40 cases as depicted in the scenario matrix (FigureS  
 257 XX).

### 258 3. Result and Discussion

#### 259 3.1 NO<sub>x</sub> control in China



260  
 261 Figure 2 Timeline summarizing major NO<sub>x</sub> emission control strategies/policies in China

262 <sup>1</sup> The 12<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (2010-2015), a national goal set to reduce 10% national NO<sub>x</sub> emission with a result  
 263 of 18.6% reductions in national NO<sub>x</sub> emissions.

264 <sup>2</sup> The 13<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (2016-2020), a national goal set to reduce 15% national NO<sub>x</sub> emission, in progress.

265 <sup>3</sup> Air Pollution Prevention and Action Plan (2012-2017), aimed to reduce 25%, 20% and 15% PM<sub>2.5</sub> in JJJ,  
 266 YRD and PRD, respectively.

267 <sup>4</sup> New standards for industrial sectors including sinter (GB28662-2012), coking (GB16171-2012), iron  
 268 (GB28663-2012) and steel (GB28664-2012)

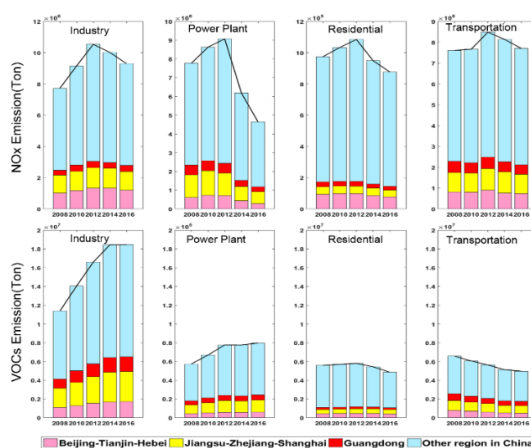
269 <sup>5</sup> New standards for industrial sectors including brick (GB29620-2013), cement (GB4915-2013) and boiler  
 270 (GB13271-2014).

271 During the past decade in China, the control of O<sub>3</sub> precursors was mainly  
272 focused on NO<sub>x</sub> emissions while there was little control on VOCs  
273 emissions. [Fig 2](#) summarized the major progress and milestone of NO<sub>x</sub>  
274 emission abatement policies/strategies during past decade in China.  
275 Generally, the whole period can be divided into two phases. The first phase  
276 (2005-2011) is characterized by dramatical increases in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions.  
277 Statistical results showed that NO<sub>x</sub> emissions were 19.48 Mt in 2005 while  
278 the amount accelerated to 26.05 Mt (1.33 times higher) in 2010 ([Zhao et  
279 al., 2013](#)). Observations from satellite instruments also confirmed this  
280 increment, tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column depicted an increasing rate of  $5 \times 10^{14}$   
281 molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> per year between 2005 and 2011 ([Fig 1b](#)). The increment  
282 could be attributed to that, on one hand, NO<sub>x</sub> emissions control within this  
283 period merely considered automobiles and power plants, the emission  
284 standards were relatively comfortable with GB13223-2003 for power  
285 plants and China III standard for vehicles ([Fig.1a](#)). On the other hand, there  
286 had been a noticeable increase of new-built power plants and automobile  
287 amount, which turned up by 195% and 300% according to [Wang et al.,  
288 \(2012\)](#). To mitigate air quality, Chinese government has taken more  
289 ambitious steps to control NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in the second phase. The 12<sup>th</sup>  
290 Five Year Plan (FYP) pledged to reduce NO<sub>x</sub> emissions by 10% between  
291 2010 and 2015, which was a first national goal set for NO<sub>x</sub> emission  
292 abatement. In particular, a more tightened standard ([GB13223-2011](#)) was

293 put into force for power plants since 2012. The limit value of NO<sub>x</sub>  
294 emissions was strengthened to be 100 mg/m<sup>3</sup> compared to the value of 450-  
295 1100 mg/m<sup>3</sup> based on the previous standard (GB13223-2003). In 2013, the  
296 State Council issued “Air Pollution Prevention and Action Plan” (APPAP),  
297 symbolizing the campaign entered into a more aggressive state. The plan  
298 aimed to reduce 25%, 20% and 15% PM<sub>2.5</sub> in JJJ, YRD and PRD between  
299 2012 and 2017, respectively. As one pollutant co-emitting with primary  
300 particle and also one major precursors of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> emissions would be  
301 inevitably controlled. Indeed, more stringent control measures were  
302 undertaken. For example, phasing out high-emitting industries, closing  
303 small/outdated factories, eliminating yellow label car, tightening industrial  
304 emission standard, improving fuel quality, speeding up the adjustment of  
305 energy structure, using laws/standards to force industrial transformation or  
306 upgrading and etc denitration? (Fig. 2a). Furthermore, ultra-low emission  
307 standard was initiated for large power plants since 2016, with NO<sub>x</sub>  
308 emission limit setting to 50 mg/m<sup>3</sup>. As a result, tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column  
309 concentrations in the second phase (2012-2016) decreased by ~31%, with  
310 the decreasing rate of  $-6 \times 10^{14}$  molecules/cm<sup>2</sup> per year.

311 By investigating NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, we found similar variations (Fig 3). An  
312 increasing trend was found between 2008 and 2012 (increased by 21.1%).  
313 The annual NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in 2012 reached  $29.2 \times 10^6$  Ton, which was the  
314 peak during the last decade. After 2012, a decreasing trend was seen with

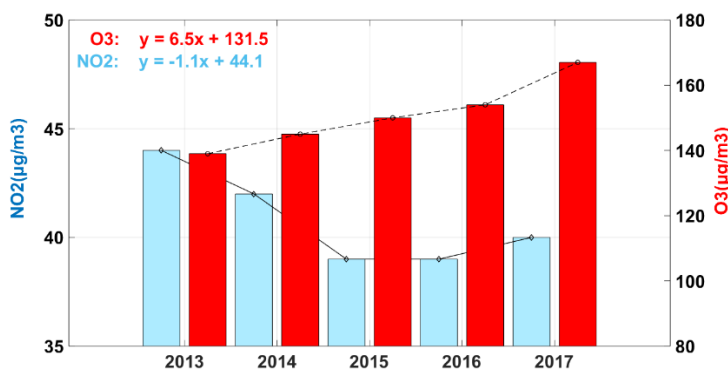
315 the annual NO<sub>x</sub> emissions reduced to 22.5×10<sup>6</sup> Ton in 2016 (reduced by  
 316 23%). It could be found that power plant was the sector with the most  
 317 reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, which took up 66.5% of NO<sub>x</sub> emission  
 318 reductions from 2012 to 2016, followed by industry (18.6%),  
 319 transportation (11.7%) and residential (3.1%), respectively. The noticeable  
 320 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions reductions were consistent with tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column  
 321 variations demonstrated in Fig 1b. Compared to NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, VOCs  
 322 emissions showed a slightly increase in the last decade because of the lack  
 323 of available VOCs emissions control in China. Fig 3 showed that VOCs  
 324 emissions were increased between 2008 and 2012 and then maintained in  
 325 a relatively stable level between 2012 and 2016. The annual VOCs  
 326 emissions were 23.6×10<sup>6</sup> Ton, 28.1×10<sup>6</sup> Ton and 28.4×10<sup>6</sup> Ton in 2008,  
 327 2012 and 2016, respectively.



328  
 329 Figure 3 NO<sub>x</sub> and anthropogenic VOCs emissions from industry, power plant, residential and  
 330 transportation from 2008 to 2016 in China.

332 Accordingly, surface monitoring data depicted that ambient NO<sub>2</sub>  
 333 concentrations decreased by 11.4% from 2013 to 2016 (Fig 4), reflecting

334 that the NO<sub>x</sub> emission control had taken good effect in China. However,  
 335 ambient O<sub>3</sub> concentrations showed an opposite trend, with annual  
 336 concentration increased from 139 ug/m<sup>3</sup> in 2013 to 167 ug/m<sup>3</sup> in 2017. The  
 337 increasing rate was 6.5 ug/m<sup>3</sup> per year, indicating that photochemical  
 338 pollution has becoming more and more stringent in China. Indeed, O<sub>3</sub>  
 339 problems have been frequently addressed by others ([Atkinson et al; Cheng  
 340 et al., 2010; Shao et al., 2009; Ding et al 2013; Wang et al., 2017;](#)).  
 341 Based on the analyses aforementioned, China has achieved some effects in  
 342 NO<sub>x</sub> emission control while is facing a more serious O<sub>3</sub> problem. As major  
 343 precursors of O<sub>3</sub>, the changes of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions would directly affect the  
 344 mechanism of O<sub>3</sub> formation. To ensure efficient abatement for O<sub>3</sub> control  
 345 in future work, it is of great importance to distinguish the variations of O<sub>3</sub>-  
 346 NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity and perceive the up-to-present characteristics in  
 347 China.



348 这里可以分区域，

349 和你后面的模拟讨论区域对应，再加三个小图

350 Figure 4 Variations of surface monitored O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> in 74 cities from 2013 to  
 351 2017



352 3.2 Responses of O<sub>3</sub> to NO<sub>x</sub>/VOCs emission perturbations

353

354

Table 2 Statistical comparisons of simulated and observed parameters

Region	Parameter	Obs <sub>mean</sub>	Sim <sub>mean</sub>	MB	NMB	NME	RMSE	IOA
JJJ	T (°C)	25.9	25.2	-0.74	-0.02	0.06	2.14	0.92
	RH (%)	75.1	73.3	-1.75	-0.02	0.11	10.60	0.89
	WS (m/s)	1.9	2.8	0.9	0.57	0.71	1.53	0.61
	O <sub>3</sub> (ppb)	34.1	33.2	-0.9	-0.01	0.45	19.4	0.84
	NO <sub>2</sub> (ppb)	13.0	18.2	5.2	0.38	0.7	12.7	0.63
YRD	T (°C)	29.3	28.5	-0.8	-0.03	0.05	2.06	0.91
	RH (%)	74.8	79.6	4.8	0.06	0.11	10.16	0.86
	WS (m/s)	2.1	3.1	1.0	0.74	0.86	1.52	0.63
	O <sub>3</sub> (ppb)	39.5	31.5	-8.0	-0.22	0.46	0.84	0.86
	NO <sub>2</sub> (ppb)	14.1	27.7	13.6	1.16	1.06	19.2	0.52
PRD	T (°C)	28.7	29.0	0.2	0.01	0.04	1.63	0.91
	RH (%)	83.5	82.6	-0.9	-0.01	0.07	8.21	0.88
	WS (m/s)	2.2	3.1	0.9	0.46	0.65	1.78	0.69
	O <sub>3</sub> (ppb)	31.0	29.3	-1.7	-0.04	0.46	19.2	0.87
	NO <sub>2</sub> (ppb)	12.9	18.7	5.8	0.44	0.85	15.2	0.60

355

356 We firstly present the evaluation of WRF-CMAQ model before exploring

357 O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity. Hourly observed data collected from CMA (temperature,

358 relative humidity and wind) and CEMC (trace gases) were used to compare

359 with those simulated. As summarized in Table 2, statistical calculations,

360 including mean values (Obs<sub>mena</sub> and Sim<sub>mean</sub>), mean bias (MB), normalized

361 mean bias (NMB), normalized mean error (NME), root mean square error

362 (RMSE), and the index of agreement (IOA), were introduced for

363 validations. It was found that all the meteorological parameters showed

364 high values of IOA (Table 2) in JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively, indicating

365 the good trend between observations and simulations. Meanwhile, the

366 magnitudes were also well matched as the biases were relatively small (i.e.,

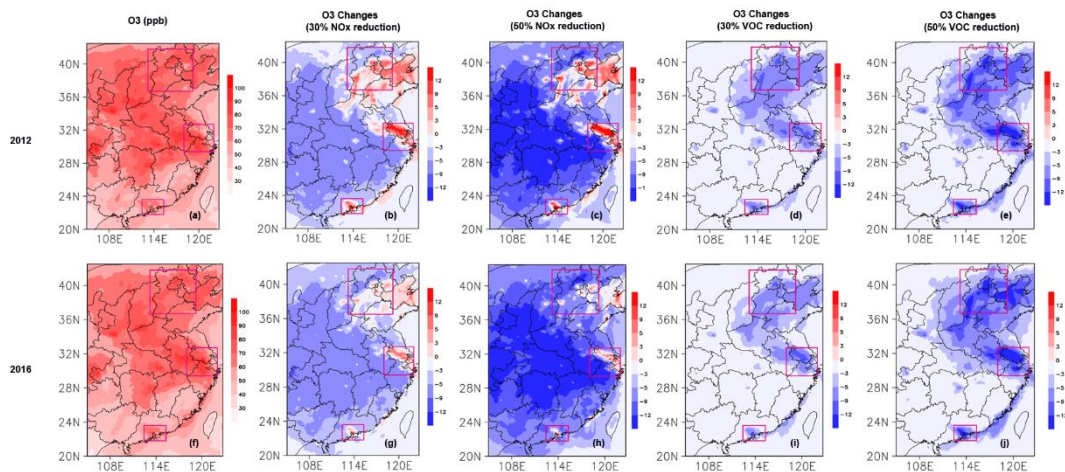
367 NMB, NME and RMSE). Therefore, the simulated weather conditions  
368 were well reproduced.

369 Simulated O<sub>3</sub> and NO<sub>2</sub> (Table 2) were also verified with field  
370 measurements. The mean bias of O<sub>3</sub> in JJJ, YRD and PRD were 5.2 ppb, -  
371 8.0 ppb and 5.8 ppb with IOA value equaled 0.84, 0.86 and 0.87,  
372 respectively, showing good simulations of O<sub>3</sub>. The simulations of NO<sub>2</sub>  
373 were slightly overestimated with MB of 5.2, 13.6 and 18.7 in JJJ, YRD and  
374 PRD, respectively. One possible reason was that NO<sub>2</sub> could be directly  
375 affected by local emissions in urbans, i.e., mobile vehicles, and such  
376 sources were a weakness of emission inventories. Besides, our model had  
377 the finest horizontal resolution of 12 km×12 km, thus it was difficult to  
378 reflect the topographic-induced effects which might affect air pollutants  
379 (Wang et al., Li et al., Jiang et al.,). Since the aim of the study is to reflect  
380 general conditions based on monthly scales, relatively well simulations of  
381 the trends and magnitudes could meet the demand. Moreover, by  
382 comparing with previous modeling studies, our results were within the  
383 typical ranges and thus could be accepted for further analyses (Ding et al.,  
384 Huang et al. 2016, Wang et al., XXXX).

385

386 Fig 5 Shows the results of modeled O<sub>3</sub> using different year-based emission  
387 inventories under multi scenarios, namely, baselines, 30% and 50%  
388 reductions in NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs emissions in 2012 and 2016, respectively.

389 By exploring the spatial distributions of O<sub>3</sub> in 2012 (Fig 5a), relatively high  
 390 levels of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations could be found in JJJ, YRD and PRD, with the  
 391 monthly area mean concentrations of 68 ppb, 69 ppb, and 61 ppb,  
 392 respectively. When it came to 2016, area mean concentration of O<sub>3</sub> in these  
 393 3 areas increased by 2.8 ppb, 3.7 ppb, and 4.1 ppb, respectively. The  
 394 increments were consistent with the increasing trends of monitored O<sub>3</sub> in  
 395 Fig 4.



396  
 397 Figure 5 Spatial distribution of max O<sub>3</sub> in 2012 and 2016 (a and f), respectively; O<sub>3</sub> changes  
 398 due to perturbations of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (b, c, g, h) and VOCs emissions (d, e, i, j) in 2012 and  
 399 2016, respectively.

400 For the year of 2012, 30% reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions led to O<sub>3</sub> increments  
 401 in most areas in JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively (Fig 5b). Though several  
 402 reduced areas (mainly rural areas) existed within the 3 regions, the area  
 403 mean concentrations of O<sub>3</sub> increased by 7.4%, 3.0% and 8.3% in JJJ, YRD,  
 404 and PRD, respectively. On the other hand, large areas of O<sub>3</sub> decreases could  
 405 be found in most of the rest eastern China (reduced by 10%) such as the  
 406 central, the southwestern and the northwestern (these areas were defined

407 as the rest areas in this paper). The responses became more significant both  
408 in the increased areas and the reduced areas if 50% NO<sub>x</sub> emissions were  
409 reduced (Fig 5c). Under the 50% NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction scenario in 2012,  
410 O<sub>3</sub> would be increased by 6.4%, 2.0% and 7.5% in JJJ, YRD and PRD, and  
411 decreased by 19.2% in the rest areas, respectively. Such responses implied  
412 that VOCs sensitivity controlled in most areas of the 3 developed city  
413 clusters, while NO<sub>x</sub> sensitivity dominated in the rest areas. In terms of 2016,  
414 the rebounds of O<sub>3</sub> due to NO<sub>x</sub> reductions shrank significantly in the 3 city  
415 clusters (see red areas in Fig 5g and Fig 5h). The increments of O<sub>3</sub> became  
416 weaker, with O<sub>3</sub> area mean changed by 1.1%, -1.4% and 0.5% in JJJ, YRD  
417 and PRD, respectively, in the 2016-based 30% NO<sub>x</sub> reduction scenario.  
418 And O<sub>3</sub> rebounds even turned to negative in the 2016-based 50% NO<sub>x</sub>  
419 reduction scenario, with O<sub>3</sub> area mean changed by -3.2%, -8.2% and -4.5%  
420 in JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively. Such variations implied that O<sub>3</sub>  
421 sensitivities in these developed areas had somehow changed in 2016. When  
422 it came to O<sub>3</sub> responses to VOCs emissions, areas showed sensitive to  
423 VOCs emissions were North China Plain (including JJJ), YRD and PRD.  
424 In 2012, the 30% VOCs reduction scenario showed that O<sub>3</sub> decreased by  
425 10.8%, 9.6%, and 12.0% in JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively. And the  
426 decrease became 14.8%, 14.0% and 17.8%, respectively, in terms of the  
427 50% VOCs reduction scenario in 2012. Similar variations could also be  
428 found in 2016 (Fig 5f and Fig 5j), indicating that these areas were VOCs

429 sensitive or at least mixed-sensitive. However, the rest areas showed little  
430 sensitive to VOCs emission perturbations with  $\Delta O_3$  less than 2 ppb under  
431 all the VOCs reduction scenarios, which confirmed the conjectures,  
432 namely  $NO_x$  sensitive, regarding to the analyses of  $NO_x$  emission  
433 perturbations.

434 By considering  $O_3$  responses to  $NO_x$  and VOCs emission reductions  
435 together, a common reducing area was found mainly located  $\sim 32^\circ N$ - $36^\circ N$   
436 of the east, implying a mix-sensitive area. Moreover, it might be inferred  
437 that JJJ, YRD and PRD were changing from a VOCs-sensitive dominated  
438 regime to a mix-sensitive dominated regime from 2012 to 2016 given the  
439 shrunken signals of  $O_3$  rebounds due to  $NO_x$  emission reductions and the  
440 responses of  $O_3$  to VOC emission perturbations as well.

441

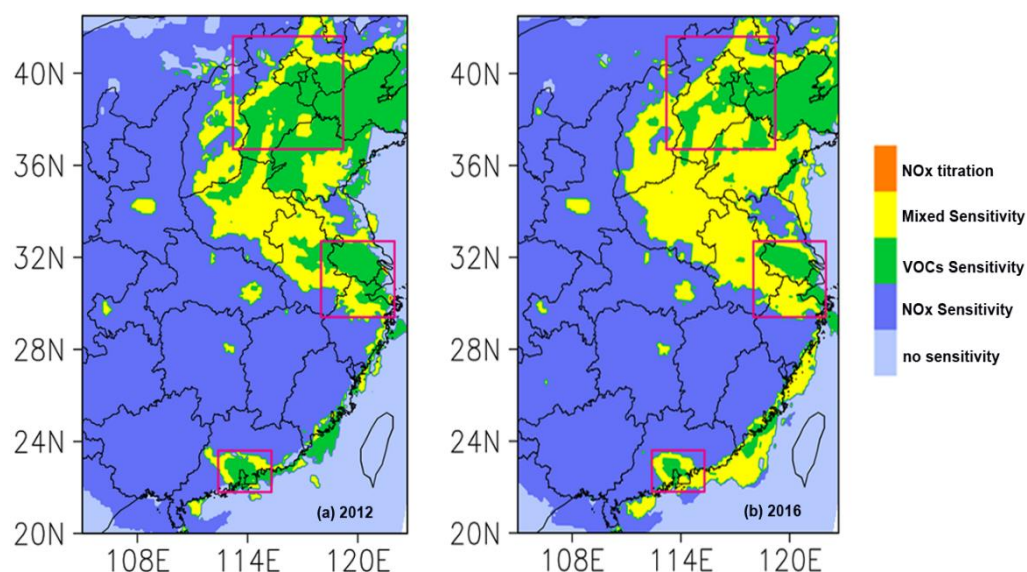
### 442 3.3 Transition of $O_3$ - $NO_x$ -VOCs sensitivity regime

443 In order to quantitatively identify the effect of  $NO_x$  emission abatement on  
444  $O_3$ - $NO_x$ -VOCs sensitivity in eastern China, the method proposed by  
445 Sillman and West (2002) were taken. Locations of  $O_3$  sensitivity were  
446 classified to  $NO_x$  sensitive, VOC sensitive, mixed sensitive,  $NO_x$  titration  
447 and no sensitive regimes. In particular, a location is defined as  $NO_x$   
448 sensitive (VOCs sensitive) regime if  $O_3$  decreases at least 5 ppb because of  
449 reducing  $NO_x$  emissions (VOCs emissions) and the decrease of  $O_3$  due to  
450  $NO_x$  emission reductions (VOCs emission reductions) is at least twice as

451 large as the decrease due to reduced VOCs emissions (NO<sub>x</sub> emissions). A  
452 place is treated as mixed sensitive regime if O<sub>3</sub> declines by more than 5ppb  
453 in response to either reducing VOCs or NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and the reduction  
454 of O<sub>3</sub> due to VOCs emission reductions and NO<sub>x</sub> emission reductions  
455 differ by less than a factor of two. A site is controlled by NO<sub>x</sub> titration if  
456 the O<sub>3</sub> increments are over 5 ppb due to NO<sub>x</sub> emission reduction and O<sub>3</sub>  
457 decreases less than 5 ppb due to VOC emission reductions. Finally, a site  
458 is considered to be no sensitive regime if O<sub>3</sub> decreases less than 5ppb in  
459 response to either VOCs emission or NO<sub>x</sub> emission reductions.  
460 Furthermore, an additional method using RIR of NO<sub>x</sub> (VOCs) emissions  
461 was also introduced to evaluate the results. The comparisons were provided  
462 in [FigS XX](#). The diagnosed patterns agreed well with each other indicating  
463 a convincing result by using the method from Sillman and West. (Detailed  
464 discussion were provided in supplementary file)

465

466 3.4.1 Spatial variations and characteristics



467  
468  
469

Figure 6 Spatial comparison of O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitive regime between 2012 and 2016 in eastern China

470 By comparing O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities between 2012 and 2016, noticeable  
471 changes were observed in JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively (Fig 6). In  
472 2012, a widespread VOCs sensitive regime was found over the 3  
473 regions, and a NO<sub>x</sub> sensitive regime was dominated in the rest areas. In  
474 terms of 2016, however, mixed sensitive regimes seemed to draw equal  
475 with VOCs sensitive regimes or even dominated in the 3 regions.  
476 Besides, similar changes were also observed in Shandong province, a  
477 part of North China Plain. In JJJ, the percentage of total grids occupied  
478 by VOC sensitive regime reduced from 63.1% in 2012 to 40.0% in 2016  
479 whereas that of the mixed sensitive increased from 25.0% in 2012 to  
480 44.1% in 2016. Though the percentages of VOCs sensitive regimes  
481 were shrunken in 2016, VOC sensitive regimes were still found in  
482 central Beijing, Tianjin, Tangshan and some other cities in Hebei

483 Province. These cities are characterized by relatively high NO<sub>x</sub>  
484 emissions likely from mobile vehicles or power plants. In YRD, the  
485 percentage of mixed sensitive regime increased from 31.4% in 2012 to  
486 52.2% in 2016. In particular, mixed sensitive regimes were seen in cities  
487 such as Hangzhou, Nantong, Ningbo, Jiaxing and other cities in  
488 Zhejiang province after NO<sub>x</sub> emission abatements. However, VOC  
489 sensitive regimes were still found in some developed urban cities, such  
490 as Shanghai, Suzhou, Wuxi, most of Nanjing and other cities in Jiangsu  
491 Province. Moreover, a few grids indicating NO<sub>x</sub> titration occurred in  
492 2012 disappeared in 2016. Usually, grids depicting NO<sub>x</sub> titration  
493 regimes refer to places close to high NO<sub>x</sub> emissions sources, such as  
494 industries/power plants, the disappearances of NO<sub>x</sub> titration regimes  
495 implied the efforts of industrial transformations made in YRD. In PRD,  
496 the 2016-year pattern demonstrated that both VOCs sensitive regime  
497 (21.0%) and mixed sensitive regime (50.3%) controlled in Guangzhou,  
498 Shenzhen, Dongguan and Foshan, while NO<sub>x</sub> sensitive regimes  
499 dominated in rest cities of PRD. Moreover, clear differences were also  
500 found in those receptors of downwind areas, for example, coastlines. O<sub>3</sub>  
501 sensitivities along these areas were also changed from VOCs sensitive  
502 regimes to mixed sensitive regimes.

503 Previous studies based on observations (in-situ observations or satellite  
504 observations) and models have been conducted to study O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities



505 in eastern China ([Table 3](#)). Generally, our diagnosed results matched  
506 well with those results in eastern China. Specifically, [Jin et al., \(2015\)](#)  
507 employed OMI observations (HCHO/NO<sub>2</sub>) to split O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity and  
508 found that transitional regimes (mixed sensitive) dominated in most  
509 areas of JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively, whereas we found both VOCs  
510 sensitivity and mixed sensitivity were the dominated regimes. The  
511 discrepancy between the two studies can be attributed to the following  
512 aspects. One possible reason is that satellite measurements are based on  
513 optical properties which are affected by clouds, aerosols, precipitations,  
514 and surface reflectivity. The observation contains uncertainties itself.  
515 For example, the uncertainty of HCHO products range from ~30% to  
516 40% according to [De Smedt et al., \(2012\)](#). Besides, satellite  
517 observations provide vertical column concentrations which are different  
518 to ground-level concentrations ([Boersma et al., 2004](#)). More  
519 importantly, our further analysis showed that O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities depicted  
520 diurnal changes in the three regions with a shift of VOCs sensitive in  
521 the morning to mixed or NO<sub>x</sub> sensitive in the afternoon ([details refer to](#)  
522 [Section 3.4.3](#)). In fact, OMI observations only provide once-a-day  
523 observations and are limited to the early afternoon conditions ([Jin et al.,](#)  
524 [2015](#)).

525

526 Table 3 Comparisons with previous O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity studies

Study area	Site info	Study time	Method	O <sub>3</sub> sensitivity	References	This study
Beijing	Birds Nest, urban; PKU (urban); Urban and rural;	07-09 2008 ; 08.2014; 07.2005;	$\Delta\text{Ox}/\Delta\text{NO}_z$ ; VOC/O <sub>3</sub> ; CMAQ-RSM;	VOC-limited; VOC-limited; urban: VOC-limited, rural: NOx-limited; mixed-limited in most area	Sun et al., (2010) Shao et al., (2008) Xing et al., (2011)	VOC-limited in central areas and mixed-limited in suburban/rural
	Whole area;	2013 Summer;	Satellite retrievals;		Jin et al., (2015)	
Tianjin	Urban;	07-08 2010;	NCAR_MM;	mix-limited;	Ran et al., (2012)	VOC-limited dominated
JJJ	Whole area	2015	CMAQ-ISAM;	VOC-limited in urban and mixed/NOx-limited in suburban/remote;	Han et al., (2018)	VOC-limited in urban and mixed-limited in suburban/rural
	Whole area	2013 Summer	Satellite retrievals (HCHO/NO <sub>2</sub> )	Transitional dominated	Jin et al., (2015)	
Nanjing	SORPES (suburban); SORPES (suburban); 4 urban sites	2011-2012; 10. 2014; 06-08 2013;	$\Delta\text{O}_3/\Delta\text{NO}_y$ ; OBM (MCM); OBM (CB4);	VOC-limited; VOC-limited; VOC-limited;	Ding et al., (2013) Xu et al., (2017) An et al., (2013)	VOC-limited dominated
	Shanghai	Xujiahui (urban) Urban Urban Rural and urban	07-08 2009; 2006-2007; 09. 2009 07. 2007	NCAR_MM; NCAR_MM; WRF-Chem CMAQ;	NOx-inhibited; VOC-limited; VOC-limited Urban: VOCs-limited; Rural: NOx-limited	Ran et al., (2012) Geng et al., (2008); Tie et al., (2012) Li et al., (2011)
Hefei	Whole area	2015-2017	Satellite retrievals;	NOx-limited;	Sun et al., (2018)	NOx-limited
YRD	Whole area	2013 Summer	Satellite retrievals (HCHO/NO <sub>2</sub> )	Transitional dominated	Jin et al., (2015)	VOCs-limited and mixed-limited dominated
Guangzhou	WQS (suburban)	10-12 2007	OBM (MCM);	VOCs-limited	Cheng et al., (2010)	VOC-limited and mixed
	Urban	2000	OBM;	VOCs-limited	Shao et al., (2009)	limited
	Urban and suburban	2006 Summer;	OBM(CB4);	Urban: VOCs-limited Suburban: NOx-limited	Lu et al., (2010)	
Zhuhai	Wanshan (suburban)	2013 Autumn	PBM-MCM	Transitional (Mixed)	Wang et al., (2018)	Mixed limited;
PRD	Whole area	2012	CMAQ	Urban: VOCs-limited Remote: NOx-limited	Wang et al., (2017)	Urban: VOCs-limited and mixed limited ;
	Whole area	2013 Summer	Satellite retrievals (HCHO/NO <sub>2</sub> )	Transitional dominated	Jin et al., (2015)	Remote: NOx-limited

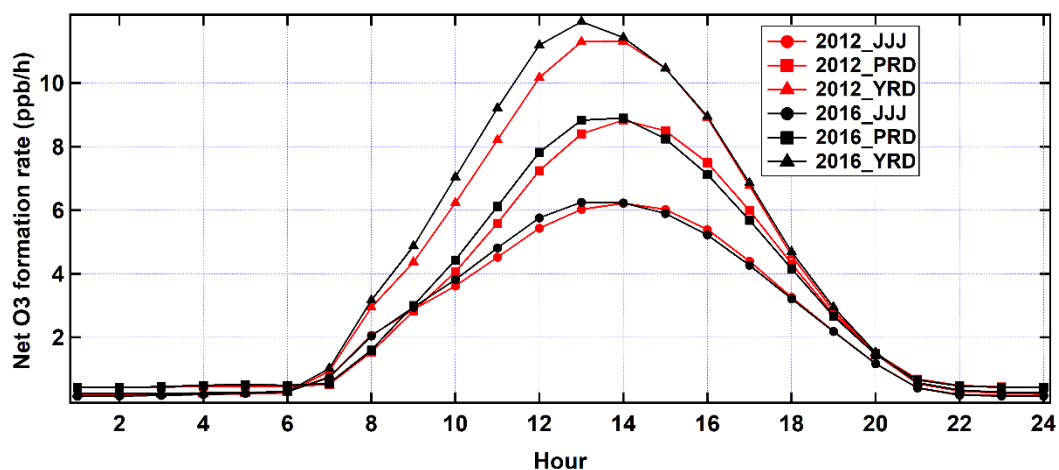
527

### 528 3.4.2 Diurnal variations and characteristics

529 We compared net O<sub>3</sub> formation rate between 2012 and 2016 (Fig 7). Net  
530 O<sub>3</sub> formation rate is calculated considering both O<sub>3</sub> production rate and O<sub>3</sub>  
531 destruction rate. In this study, O<sub>3</sub> production rate is retrieved from reactions  
532 of RO<sub>2</sub>+NO and HO<sub>2</sub>+NO, whereas O<sub>3</sub> destruction mainly considers  
533 reactions of O<sub>1</sub>D+H<sub>2</sub>O; O<sub>3</sub>+HO<sub>2</sub>; O<sub>3</sub>+OH; NO<sub>2</sub>+OH; and O<sub>3</sub>+VOCs. The  
534 difference of O<sub>3</sub> production rate and O<sub>3</sub> destruction rate is net O<sub>3</sub> formation  
535 rate. Similar method has been found in Wang et al., (2018). In this study,  
536 the Integrated Reaction Rate (IRR) module incorporated in CMAQ was  
537 triggered to acquire the above gas-phase reaction rates.

538 It was found that peak O<sub>3</sub> formation rate was about 1.5~3ppb/h higher in  
539 2016 than that in 2012. The change was reasonable as VOCs sensitive

540 regime dominated in the 3 regions in 2012, and abating NO<sub>x</sub> emission in  
 541 China led to the rebound of O<sub>3</sub> formation. Meanwhile, NO<sub>x</sub> emission  
 542 control resulted in the peak hour of net O<sub>3</sub> formation rate in 2016 about 1  
 543 ~ 1.5 hour earlier than that in 2012. In fact, O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity had  
 544 diurnal variations changing from VOCs sensitive regime in the morning to  
 545 mixed sensitive regime in the afternoon (as discussed in Fig 8). The  
 546 abatement of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in China has resulted in more mixed sensitive  
 547 regimes within the 3 regions (see Fig 6) and the O<sub>3</sub> peak hour usually  
 548 occurs in 13:00 ~ 15:00 when mixed sensitivity dominated. The mixed  
 549 dominated regimes led to the 1 ~ 1.5 hour earlier shift in 2016.  
 550



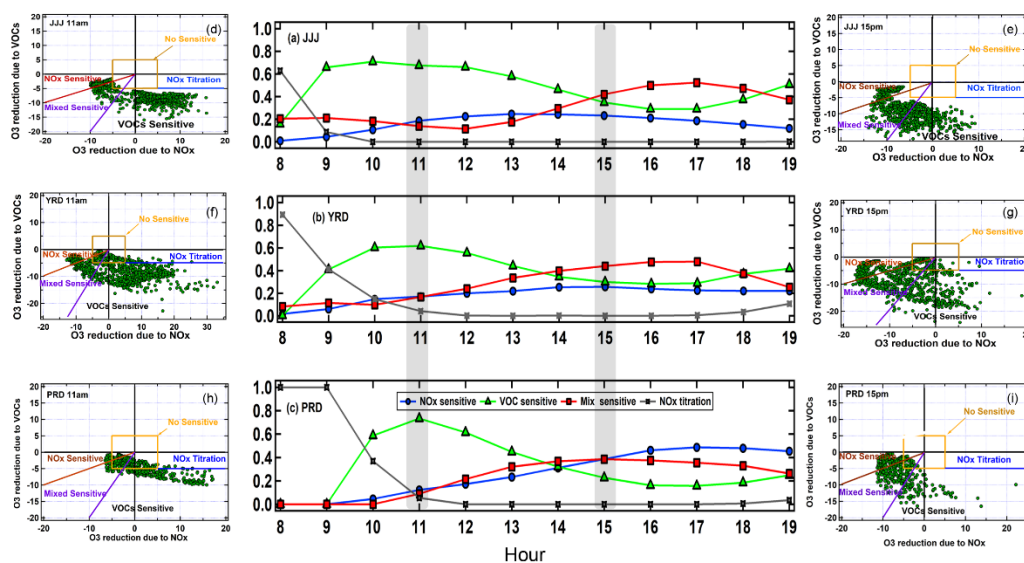
551  
 552 Figure 7 Comparison of O<sub>3</sub> net formation rate. (Net O<sub>3</sub> rate<sup>1\*</sup> is calculated using  
 553 O<sub>3</sub> production rate<sup>2\*</sup> to minus O<sub>3</sub> destruction rate<sup>3\*</sup>)

554 <sup>1\*</sup>Net O<sub>3</sub> rate= production rate – destruction rate;

555 <sup>2\*</sup>production rate considers reactions of: RO<sub>2</sub>+NO; HO<sub>2</sub>+NO;

556 <sup>3\*</sup>destruction considers reactions of: O<sub>1</sub>D+H<sub>2</sub>O; O<sub>3</sub>+HO<sub>2</sub>; O<sub>3</sub>+OH; NO<sub>2</sub>+OH; O<sub>3</sub>+VOCs  
 557 (ISOP/TOL/ETH/IOLE)

558



559

560 Figure 8 Percentages of O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitive regime in 3 regions from 08: am to 19:00 pm (a-c). The grey  
 561 shades highlight time at 11:00 am and 15:00 pm, respectively. Model grids sorted by precursor sensitivity at 11:00  
 562 am (d, f, h) and 15:00 pm (e, g, i) in 3 regions.

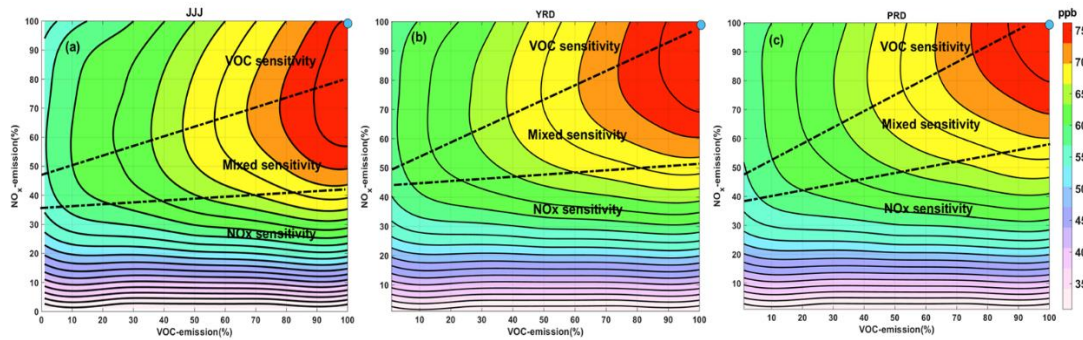
563 **Fig 8** illustrated the diurnal variations of O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity in 2016. All of the  
 564 three regions showed similar diurnal variations. Before 8:00 am, O<sub>3</sub> was  
 565 consumed via NO<sub>x</sub> titration. As the boundary layer gradually increased, O<sub>3</sub>  
 566 formation tended to be VOCs sensitive in most of model grids in the  
 567 morning. When it came to noon time (O<sub>3</sub> peak hours), mixed sensitive  
 568 regimes took over and last till the late afternoon. In particular, O<sub>3</sub> formation  
 569 turned to be NO<sub>x</sub> sensitivity in the afternoon in most PRD grids which was  
 570 not seen in the other 2 regions. Compared to JJJ and YRD, the effective  
 571 control of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions was earlier and could be traced back to 2003 due  
 572 to the joint efforts of Guangdong government and Hong Kong government  
 573 (Zhong et al and Wang et al., 2017). In addition, by comparing model grids  
 574 sorted by precursor sensitivity at 11:00 am and 15:00 pm (Fig 8d-Fig 8i),

575 in JJJ, YRD and PRD, we found grids controlled by VOCs sensitivity took  
576 up 65%, 61% and 73% at 11:00 am, respectively, and grids controlled by  
577 mixed sensitivity became 42%, 45% and 40% at 15:00 pm, respectively.  
578 The diurnal shift might be possibly due to that, the boundary was relatively  
579 low, together with an increase of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions during rush hours in the  
580 morning; and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions was gradually consumed after boundary  
581 layer expansion; besides, biogenic VOCs turned to increase in the  
582 afternoon (Ding et al., Huang et al., Sillman et al., Atkinson.,).

583 Such diurnal variations indicate that the O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity of a certain site at a  
584 given hour do not apply to other times. Therefore, it brings difficulty to  
585 formulate an effective O<sub>3</sub> control scheme. On one hand, controlling VOCs  
586 emissions would be very effective in the morning while it might be not as  
587 that effective as in the afternoon. On the other hand, controlling NO<sub>x</sub>  
588 emissions had already elevated O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in some urban cities in  
589 eastern China but it seemed to be helpful for reducing afternoon O<sub>3</sub>  
590 concentration. Considering the complicated non-linear relationship  
591 between O<sub>3</sub> and its precursors, we further investigated O<sub>3</sub> isopleth in JJJ,  
592 YRD and PRD.

593

594 3.4O<sub>3</sub> Implications for O<sub>3</sub> mitigation



595

596

Figure 9 O<sub>3</sub> isopleth in JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively.

597

The relationships of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs are shown in Fig 9. In this study,

598

O<sub>3</sub> isopleth was achieved by using linear regressions from 40 scenarios

599

based on 10-day simulations (Aug 16 -25). The selected periods covered

600

both non O<sub>3</sub> polluted days and O<sub>3</sub> polluted days, thus could be regarded as

601

general conditions in JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively. In Fig 10, the VOCs

602

sensitive, mixed sensitive and NO<sub>x</sub> sensitive regimes, corresponded to the

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maximum 1-hour O<sub>3</sub> concentration for given precursors, were separated by

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ridge lines (Ou et al., 2016). To be noted that the base scenarios were at the

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upper right corner (red dots) and represented the benchmarks without any

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NO<sub>x</sub> or VOCs emission reductions. It could be found that all the base

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scenarios in YRD and PRD were within the area of the mixed sensitive

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regimes, indicating that O<sub>3</sub> formation was sensitive to both VOCs and NO<sub>x</sub>.

609

With regard to JJJ, the base scenario was above the ridge line, meaning a

610

VOCs sensitive regime dominated, while it was not far away to the mixed

611

sensitive regime. Though the O<sub>3</sub> isopleths were based on 10-day

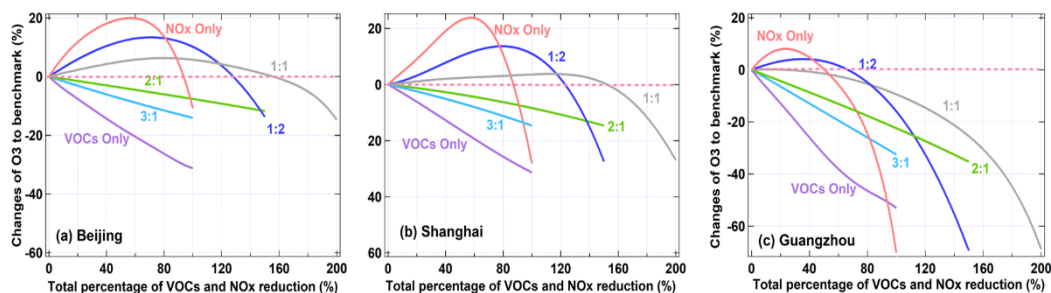
612

simulations, the results of base scenarios were generally consistent with the

613

monthly analyses in Fig 6, confirming again the convincing results.

614 Another important finding in Fig9 (a-c) is that relatively high O<sub>3</sub> mixing  
 615 ratios are gathered within the bands of mixed sensitive regimes in all of the  
 616 3 regions, which could explain the current high O<sub>3</sub> levels monitored in  
 617 recent year. In fact, a nationwide control against NO<sub>x</sub> emissions have been  
 618 taken steps while VOCs emission controls are ignored in the past. This  
 619 means that developed regions, particularly JJJ, YRD and PRD in eastern  
 620 China, are suffering from VOCs sensitive regimes to the high-O<sub>3</sub>-level  
 621 mixed sensitive regimes at least in a short-term. Suppose past control  
 622 tendency is maintained in the future (NO<sub>x</sub> control only), China would  
 623 experience a long time suffering from high O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratio as the band of  
 624 mixed sensitive regime is rather wide. However, if VOCs emissions could  
 625 be somehow controlled then followed by NO<sub>x</sub> abatements, the band of  
 626 mixed sensitive regime turns to be narrower. Therefore, to provide  
 627 scientific support for future emission control, we further explore the co-  
 628 benefit based on NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs reductions.



629  
 630 Figure 10 Changes O<sub>3</sub> due to different reduction of AVOC/NO<sub>x</sub> in Beijing, Shanghai and  
 631 Guangzhou.

632 Three typical cities, Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou, within the 3

633 regions were selected to study the changes of O<sub>3</sub> to different degrees of  
634 precursor reductions (Fig 10a-b). Six reduction schemes were included,  
635 with AVOC/NO<sub>x</sub> reduction ratio equaled to 3:1, 2:1, 1:1 and 1:2, the NO<sub>x</sub>  
636 emission reduction scenario (NO<sub>x</sub> Only), and the VOCs emission reduction  
637 scenario (VOCs Only), respectively. The horizontal axis in Fig 10a-b  
638 referred to the total reduction percentage of combined NO<sub>x</sub> and AVOCs  
639 emissions. For example, a reduction of 120% in the horizontal axis  
640 indicated that 120% reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs emissions with  
641 AVOC/NO<sub>x</sub> equaled to 3:1, 2:1, 1:1 or 1:2, or with only 120% NO<sub>x</sub>  
642 emission reduction for NO<sub>x</sub> Only and with only 120% VOCs emission  
643 reduction for VOCs Only, respectively. The results of NO<sub>x</sub> Only scenarios  
644 in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou were consistent with the analyses in  
645 JJJ, YRD and PRD, respectively. Controlling NO<sub>x</sub> emissions would  
646 degrade air quality with O<sub>3</sub> increments at least in the short-term, unless  
647 about more than 80% NO<sub>x</sub> emission reductions could be made in Beijing  
648 and Shanghai. Similar responses could be found for scenarios with the  
649 AVOC/NO<sub>x</sub>=1:2 and 1:1. It should be noted that the reversal of O<sub>3</sub>  
650 increments in Guangzhou could be met with relatively less efforts for those  
651 NO<sub>x</sub>-focused scenarios. The 1:1 abatement scenario was an example that  
652 Guangzhou could benefit in a short-term. Furthermore, things became  
653 more promising for the scenarios with AVOC/NO<sub>x</sub> = 2:1 and 3:1, and also  
654 the VOCs Only. All of the three cities demonstrated various degrees of O<sub>3</sub>



655 reduction. Speaking in a short-term, VOCs Only received the best profits  
656 for O<sub>3</sub> control, followed by the 3:1 scenario and the 2:1 scenario. Due to  
657 the fact that most urban areas of east China are changing from VOCs  
658 sensitive regimes to mixed sensitive regimes, it is strongly suggested that  
659 governments take VOCs-focused control in the future.

660

#### 661 **4. Summary and conclusions**

662 O<sub>3</sub> problems in China are becoming more stringent and have attracted  
663 worldwide attentions. In past years, China has implemented a serious of  
664 emission control measures, particularly with a focus on NO<sub>x</sub> emission  
665 control. As key precursors of O<sub>3</sub>, changes of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions would  
666 inevitably influence O<sub>3</sub> formation mechanism. A scientific control against  
667 O<sub>3</sub> needs our understandings whether to control NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, VOCs  
668 emissions or both spatially and temporally. From here, the study went over  
669 the past decade NO<sub>x</sub>-focused emission control strategies in China, analyzed  
670 concerning statistical data and used numerical simulations to investigate  
671 the variations and characteristics of O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity in eastern  
672 China.

673 With an increasing rate of  $5 \times 10^{14}$  molecules/(cm<sup>2</sup>·year) from 2005 to 2011,  
674 tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column concentration reached the peak in 2012, then a  
675 noticeable drop (declined by ~31%) was seen between 2012 and 2016.  
676 Consistently, NO<sub>x</sub> emission data also dropped ~ 25% during the same

677 periods. The effective NO<sub>x</sub> abatement was due to the stringent emission  
678 control measures represented by the nationwide policy plans like *FYP* and  
679 *APPAP*. However, monitored O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios have increased and are  
680 about 20.1% higher in 2017 than in 2013 (rising rate = 6.5 ug/m<sup>3</sup>·year),  
681 suggesting O<sub>3</sub> pollution is becoming more stringent even though NO<sub>x</sub>  
682 emissions is reduced.

683 A regional chemical transport model, WRF-CMAQ, was employed to  
684 explore the variations and characteristics of O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity in  
685 east China with special focus on developed regions such as JJJ, YRD and  
686 PRD. The simulations in perturbing of NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs emissions  
687 indicated that most of the inland areas, for example the central, the  
688 southwestern and the northwestern of eastern China were sensitive to NO<sub>x</sub>  
689 emissions, whereas those eastern developed areas, for example, JJJ, YRD  
690 and PRD, were sensitive to VOCs or both emissions. By qualitatively  
691 diagnosing O<sub>3</sub>-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity, we found JJJ, YRD and PRD were  
692 changing from VOCs sensitive dominated regimes to mixed sensitive  
693 dominated regimes. For example, total grids occupied by mixed sensitive  
694 regimes in JJJ, YRD and PRD increased from 25.0%, 31.4% and 30.1% in  
695 2012 to 42.1%, 52.2% and 50.4% in 2016, respectively. In temporal, a  
696 diurnal shift of O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity existed in all the 3 regions with VOCs  
697 sensitive regimes dominated in the morning shifting to mixed sensitive  
698 dominated regimes in the afternoon. In particular, PRD demonstrated NO<sub>x</sub>

699 sensitive regimes dominant in the afternoon. Due to the changing of O<sub>3</sub>-  
700 NO<sub>x</sub>-VOCs sensitivity, the diurnal peak of net O<sub>3</sub> formation rate was ~1-  
701 1.5h earlier in 2016 compared to 2012.

702 In an attempt to provide scientific support for future O<sub>3</sub> control, we  
703 conducted O<sub>3</sub> isopleth study. The results suggested that relatively high  
704 levels of O<sub>3</sub> were in mixed sensitive regimes. The up-to-now conditions in  
705 JJJ, YRD and PRD are situated in (or close to) the relatively wide zone of  
706 mixed sensitive regimes. This means that China would suffer from high O<sub>3</sub>  
707 concentrations at least in a short-term or even in a long-term if following  
708 the past control tendency. By conducting different reduction ratios of  
709 AVOCs/NO<sub>x</sub> scenarios, it was found NO<sub>x</sub>-focused emission control would  
710 lead to O<sub>3</sub> increments in Beijing and Shanghai. At last, it is strongly to  
711 apply VOCs-focused control measures in future control as all the three  
712 regions could receive benefits in terms of O<sub>3</sub> control.

713

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#### 717 **Reference**

718

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