



Long-term trends of ozone and precursors from 2013 to 2020 in a megacity (Chengdu), China: Evidence of changing emissions and chemistry



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ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Ozone

Emission inventory

OMI

TROPOMI

Meteorological variability

ABSTRACT

Elevated ozone (O_3) pollution in the warm season is an emerging environmental concern affecting global highly urbanized megacities. In southwestern China, full characterization of causes for O_3 pollution has been stymied by limited observations and the dominant factors that influence O_3 variability on a long-term basis still lack understanding. Herein, we identified O_3 variations and inferred trends in precursor emissions in Chengdu over 2013–2020 based on extensive ambient measurements, emission inventory, and satellite data. Numerical models were used to investigate the changes in meteorological variability and biogenic emissions. Trends of O_3 in urban areas show deterioration ($+14.0\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) between 2013 and 2016 followed by a slight decrease over 2017–2020, while O_3 levels in rural areas generally show a downward trend ($-2.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) during 2014–2020. Both emission inventory ($-3.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and OMI satellite columns ($-4.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) depict strong decline trends in NO_x emissions, while satellite HCHO columns exhibit a flattened downward trend of VOC emissions ($-1.8\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$), which caused rural areas shifted from VOCs-limited to transitional or NO_x -limited regime since 2016. Considering metropolitan Chengdu remains VOCs-limited regime over time, the existing regulatory framework involving simultaneous NO_x and VOCs control would result in evident O_3 improvements in the near future. Despite benefits from anthropogenic emission reductions, we demonstrate that meteorological conditions and enhanced biogenic emissions over the warm season could partially or even fully offset effects attributed to emission changes, making the net effects obscure. This finding provides robust evidence of reductions in NO_x and VOCs emission and informs effective O_3 mitigation policies for megacities which undergo similar emission pathways in Chengdu.

1. Introduction

Ground-level ozone (O_3) is a criteria air pollutant formed through photochemical reactions of precursors including volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides ($\text{NO}_x = \text{NO} + \text{NO}_2$) in the presence of sunlight (Trainer et al., 2000). As a pollutant with strong oxidizing properties, elevated O_3 levels are detrimental to human health, biodiversity, and ecosystems (Liu et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2020). Exposure to high levels of ambient O_3 caused over 0.25 million premature deaths and 4.1 million disability-adjusted life years (DALYs) globally per year (Cohen et al., 2017), and the global mortality burden attributed to

tropospheric O_3 is projected to continuously increase under the changing climate (Orru et al., 2013; Stowell et al., 2017; Westervelt et al., 2019). Although the anthropogenic emissions of NO_x have been reduced substantially attributed to strict emission control strategies (Air Pollution Prevention and Control Action Plan, APPCAP) implemented by the Chinese government since 2013, the major city clusters in China including the North China Plain (NCP) (Lyu et al., 2019), Yangtze River Delta (YRD) (Gao et al., 2017; Zhan and Xie, 2022), Pearl River Delta (PRD) (He et al., 2019) and Sichuan Basin (SCB) (Yang et al., 2020) still frequently suffer from excessive regional O_3 episodes, which has become a prominent threat to public health (Liu and Wang, 2020a, 2020b).

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The Sichuan Basin (SCB) is a region situated in southwest China. Owing to the intense anthropogenic activities and frequent stagnant conditions in combination with the complex basin landscape, elevated O₃ levels have been frequently observed throughout the SCB from 2013 to 2020 (Wu et al., 2022). As the capital city of Sichuan Province, Chengdu is a highly urbanized megacity with vehicle ownership over 5 million and 20.9 million residents at the end of 2020 (Fig. S1). The fossil-fuel-dependent industrial infrastructure and strong traffic mobility within the 14,335 km² Chengdu city emit substantial primary air pollutants (NO_x, VOCs, primary particle matter (PM), etc.), posing enormous challenges to air quality management and calling for more aggressive mitigation efforts (Zhou et al., 2019). In addition to anthropogenic emissions, strong biogenic VOC (BVOC) emissions emitted from urban green spaces and densely forested surrounding rural areas also contribute to the elevated O₃ levels over Chengdu (Wu et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2022). Epidemiologic studies reported that the probability of exposure to excessive O₃ pollution is even above 70% for the residents of Chengdu (Meng et al., 2021). There remains an urgent need for identifying the governing factors which contribute to the elevated O₃ levels to design effective O₃ control strategy over Chengdu.

Prior studies have examined the variations of O₃ levels and the formation mechanism of O₃ episodes over Chengdu based on ambient measurements and chemical transport models. In field studies, Wu et al. (2017) pointed out the deteriorated O₃ pollution in Chengdu from 2014 to 2016. Tan et al. (2018) utilized an observation-based box model (OBM) to investigate the O₃-VOC-NO_x sensitivity, and reported that alkenes contribute over 50% of the O₃ production in Chengdu. Deng et al. (2019) found that elevated alkenes and aromatics emissions at night are the dominant reasons for O₃ episodes over Chengdu. In terms of numerical modeling, Yang et al. (2020) used the Weather Research and Forecasting and Community Multiscale Air Quality (WRF-CMAQ) model to probe the causes of elevated O₃ concentrations in Chengdu and identified two typical O₃ episodes with dominant effects of regional transport and local emissions, respectively. By using the WRF-CMAQ model coupled with the Integrated Source Apportionment Method (ISAM) module, Yang et al. (2021a) demonstrated that transportation and industrial sectors were governing contributors to O₃ formation in Chengdu, accounting for over 60% of the maximum daily 8 h average (MDA8) O₃ concentration during spring O₃ episodes. Existing studies have identified the roles of elevated anthropogenic emissions and typical meteorological conditions on O₃ levels over Chengdu. However, these studies were mainly focused on examining the changes of O₃ levels in a short period or typical O₃ episodes while the long-term trend remains elusive. Furthermore, the dominant factors that influence the O₃ variability on a long-term basis are still lack of understanding, which crucially limits our ability to deploy systematic O₃ controls in Chengdu.

In this study, we investigate the long-term trends (2013–2020) of O₃ levels across Chengdu and infer the precursor emissions by satellite data derived from OMI and TROPOMI, as well as anthropogenic emission inventory. Furthermore, the WRF and the Model for Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) model are then adopted to probe the impacts of meteorology and BVOC emissions on O₃ air quality in Chengdu over 2013–2020. In Section 2, the details of ambient measurements, emission inventories, satellite retrievals, and model configurations are presented. The features of emission changes and meteorological variabilities, as well as their effects on O₃-VOCs-NO_x sensitivity and O₃ levels are discussed in Section 3.

2. Methodology

2.1. Air quality and meteorological observations

Hourly observations of air pollutants over Chengdu were collected from the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC, <http://www.cnemc.cn/>) (Locations are shown in Fig. 1c). There are 5 urban stations (JQLH, DSXL, JPJ, SHP and SWY), 2 traffic stations (LJX

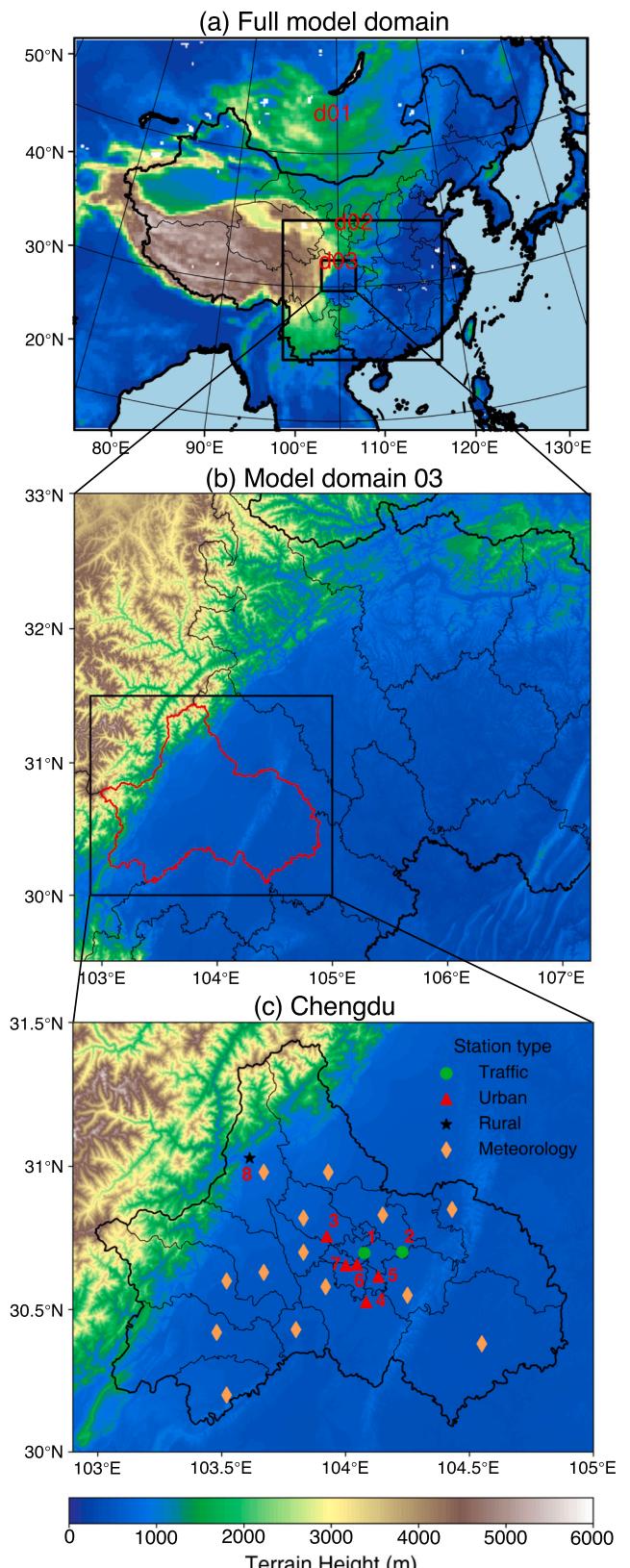


Fig. 1. (a) Map of three nested WRF model domains, (b) the innermost domain and (c) locations of the traffic (green circle), urban (red triangle), rural sites (black pentagram), and meteorological stations (yellow rhombus) over Chengdu. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

and SLD), and 1 rural station (LYS) throughout the Chengdu city. A detailed description of these monitoring sites is presented in Fig. S2 and Table S1. It should be noted that the O_3 measurements are reported in the unit of $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ at the standard atmospheric conditions (273.15 K, 1 atm) before September 2018, and at 298.15 K conditions afterwards (MEE, 2012, 2018). To ensure the units of O_3 levels are consistent during 2013–2020, the O_3 concentrations after September 2018 were converted to the standard atmospheric condition.

Surface meteorological observations in Chengdu are provided by the China Meteorological Data Service Center (CMDSC, <http://data.cma.cn/>) and Sichuan Provincial Weather Service with rigorous data accuracy checks. The hourly data of meteorological parameters including 2-m temperature (T2), 2-m relative humidity (RH2), 10-m wind speed (WS10), and 10-m wind direction (WD10) are used to evaluate the model performance of WRF.

2.2. ERA5 reanalysis

The ERA5 is the fifth generation European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) reanalysis with a resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$ (Urraca et al., 2018), which has been widely used for investigating meteorological processes in SCB due to its accurate representation of meteorological parameters (Chen et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021b).

2.3. Anthropogenic emission inventory

The Multi-resolution Emission Inventory of China (MEIC, <http://meicmodel.org/>) is a bottom-up emission model developed by Tsinghua University that tracks the variability of anthropogenic emissions in China (Li et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2018, 2021). The anthropogenic sources were aggregated into five sectors including agriculture, industry, transportation, residential, and power with a spatial resolution of $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$. Here, the MEIC emission inventory from 2013 to 2020 was used to probe the long-term changes of anthropogenic NO_x and VOC emissions over Chengdu.

2.4. NO_2 and HCHO columns

To explicitly investigate the trends of NO_x and VOCs emissions over Chengdu, we further adopt the OMI NO_2 and HCHO columns generated by the European Quality Assurance for Essential Climate Variables project (QA4ECV, <http://www.qa4ecv.eu/>) to characterize spatial changes of NO_x and VOCs (Boersma et al., 2018). The OMI instrument on aboard the NASA's EOS Aura spacecraft measures backscattered solar radiation from the earth in the spectral range 270–500 nm, with a spatial resolution of $13 \times 24 \text{ km}^2$ and a bandwidth of 2600 km. OMI provides daily global measurements of NO_2 and HCHO columns with good performance in inferring the trend of NO_x and VOC emissions (De Smedt et al., 2021; Shah et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2019). In addition, the ratio of HCHO and NO_2 columns (FNR) reflects the relative availability of NO_x and VOCs to peroxy radicals, which has been widely used as a metric of regional O_3 -VOCs- NO_x sensitivity (Duncan et al., 2010).

The Tropospheric Monitoring Instrument (TROPOMI) instrument is onboard Copernicus Sentinel-5 Precursor platform and was launched in October 2017. The satellite has a sun-synchronous orbit with a daily crossing time at around 13:30 local solar time. The TROPOMI tropospheric NO_2 columns are retrieved with a resolution of $3.5 \times 5.5 \text{ km}$ in nadir ($7 \times 5.5 \text{ km}$ before August 2019) with algorithms based on the OMI QA4ECV heritage (De Smedt et al., 2018; van Geffen et al., 2020). In addition, TROPOMI Level 2 NO_2 columns are oversampled to $0.01^\circ \times 0.01^\circ$ based on the algorithm developed by Sun et al. (2018), with cloud fraction lower than 30% and quality assurance value higher than 0.75.

2.5. WRF and MEGAN model configurations

Meteorological fields are simulated using the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRFv3.9.1) model. Fig. 1 shows the three nested model

domain with horizontal resolutions of 27, 9, 3 km, respectively. The innermost domain covers the Chengdu Plain. There are 30 vertical layers from the ground to 100 hPa, with a surface layer depth of nearly 20 m. The initial and boundary conditions for meteorological fields were obtained from the National Centers for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Final (FNL) reanalysis data with a resolution of $1.0^\circ \times 1.0^\circ$. To minimize the influence of initial conditions and cumulative error of the model, the simulations were initialized monthly, treating the 3 days before that month as spin-up. The physical parameterization schemes selected in the WRF model are listed in Table S2. The evaluation of WRF model performance is presented in Text S1 and Table S3.

MEGANv2.1 was driven by meteorological fields from WRF model to estimate the BVOC emissions for the innermost domain (Guenther et al., 2012). Plant function types (PFTs) are adopted from the MODIS MCD12Q1 product and emission factors are obtained from global database based on PFT-specific emission factors tabulated in MEGAN. The leaf area index (LAI) is derived from Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) MOD15A2H LAI product (Wu et al., 2020). It should be noted that urban LAI is not considered in this work due to the limitation of MODIS LAI products.

2.6. Definition of heat wave and air stagnation

Heat waves (HWs) refer to extremely hot periods that last for several consecutive days, which could lead to severe O_3 episodes by enhancing photochemical reactions and BVOC emissions (Zhao et al., 2019). In this study, the HWs is defined as a period of at least 3 consecutive days with the daily maximum temperature $> 34^\circ\text{C}$ (Huang et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021).

Air stagnation is characterized by meteorological conditions that impede the scavenging of air pollutants (Xie et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2022). Here, the air stagnation index (ASI) defined by Horton et al. (2012) is used as an indicator of stagnant conditions. A grid cell is considered stagnant on a given day if three conditions are simultaneously met: the daily average wind speed at 10 m $< 3.2 \text{ m/s}$, the wind speed at 500 hPa $< 13 \text{ m/s}$, and daily total precipitation $< 1.0 \text{ mm}$.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. NO_2 and O_3 trends over Chengdu during 2013–2020

Fig. 2 presents the April–September averaged MDA8 O_3 and daytime NO_2 concentrations (09:00–18:00 LST) across Chengdu during 2013–2020 around a map of TROPOMI tropospheric NO_2 columns with ambient measurements in 2020. Spatially, both satellite NO_2 columns and ambient measurements observed elevated NO_2 levels ($30.1 \mu\text{g/m}^3$) over metropolitan area of Chengdu due to intense anthropogenic emissions, while NO_2 concentrations are comparatively low ($11.2 \mu\text{g/m}^3$) at the rural site. More pronounced negative trends in NO_2 levels ($-2.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) are detected at traffic stations than monitors in urban ($-1.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and rural ($-1.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) areas over the period. It is important to note that average daytime NO_2 concentrations at traffic sites are even lower than at urban sites since 2018 (Fig. 3a), which provides direct evidence of regulations efforts on reducing traffic NO_x emissions over time.

Unlike continuous decreases in NO_2 levels, O_3 levels exhibit strong inter-annual variability given the non-linear dependence on precursor emissions. For urban and traffic sites, deteriorated trend ($+14.0\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) of average MDA8 O_3 is observed during 2013–2016 and O_3 levels endure weak reductions with notable interannual variability afterwards. In particular, O_3 concentration descended by -14.1% from 2016 to 2017 and increased by 6.8% during 2019–2020. In contrast, O_3 concentrations at the rural site generally show a downward trend ($-2.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) during 2014–2020. The reasons for these inconsistent O_3 trends between metropolitan and rural areas could be related to the combined effects of emission changes and different O_3 -VOC- NO_x sensitivity (discussed

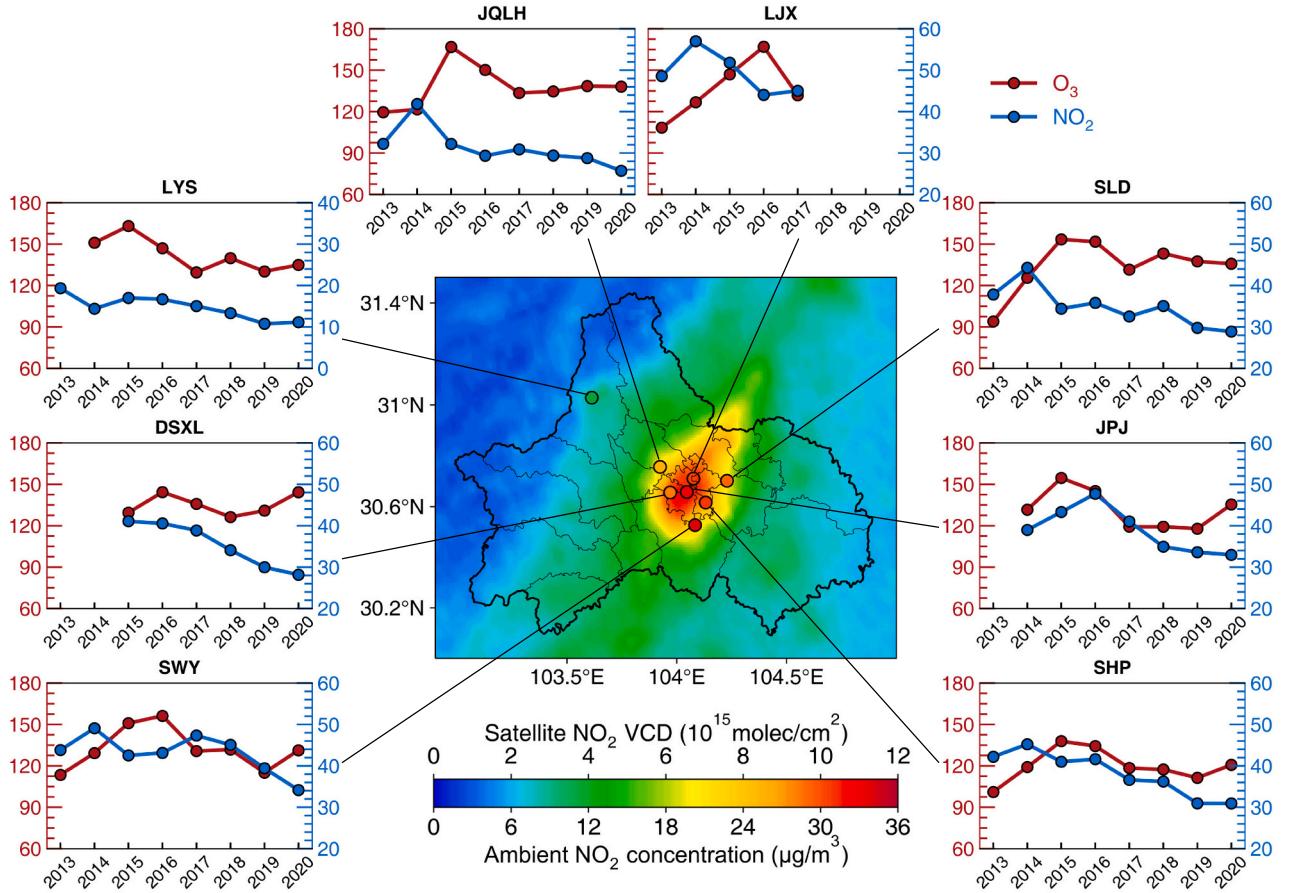


Fig. 2. (Middle panel) TROPOMI NO₂ column densities overlaid with averaged (April–September) ambient measured daytime NO₂ concentrations for 2020 in Chengdu. Time series of averaged (April–September) daytime NO₂ and MDA8 O₃ in µg/m³ for each site over April–September in Chengdu from 2013 to 2020.

later). It is worth noting that O₃ level at the rural station is comparable or even higher than urban and traffic stations in the spring season, reflecting the effects of regional transport and contribution from background O₃. Furthermore, the monthly average MDA8 O₃ concentrations generally show bimodal distribution for the months between April and September, with peaks in May (Fig. 3b). This pattern could be linked to the O₃ subsidence from the upper troposphere governed by synoptic-scale force, which has been reported in Liu et al. (2019) and Yang et al. (2021a). Following Kalabokas et al. (2017), the specific humidity anomaly and vertical wind speed at 850 hPa from the ERA5 dataset were used as an indicator of the tropospheric subsidence. Fig. S3 illustrates the occurrence frequencies of positive omega vertical velocity accompanied by negative specific humidity anomalies in May are significantly higher than in other months over the SCB, suggesting that strong subsidence from the upper troposphere could contribute to the elevated O₃ levels in May over Chengdu.

3.2. Trends of anthropogenic NO_x and VOC emissions over Chengdu

To further explore the variations of NO_x and VOC emissions in Chengdu, the sectoral trends of anthropogenic NO_x and VOC emissions from MEIC during 2013–2020 are presented in Fig. 4. In addition, emission changes of NO_x and VOCs attributed to each anthropogenic sector are shown in Fig. 5. For NO_x emissions, the MEIC inventory indicates a remarkable decreasing pattern from 283.2 to 206.5 kt, with a reduction ratio of $-3.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$ during 2013–2020, which is slightly higher than the reduction rate ($-3.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) over the SCB (Wu et al., 2022). This significant decreasing trend is in line with the national emission controls (APPCAP: standard GB 13223–2011) since 2013

(Zheng et al., 2018). Furthermore, the government of Chengdu has further developed the local strategies to combat air pollution, and put great emphasis on controlling the emission of motor vehicles (Fig. 5) (Gao et al., 2020). Therefore, the contribution of transportation sector decreases from 48.4% to 45.2% during 2013–2019, and industrial sector has been the largest contributor to NO_x emissions since 2015. However, a sharp drop in industrial NO_x emissions was found in 2020 (Fig. 6a) due to the substantial suspend of industrial activities during the Covid-19 pandemic (Zheng et al., 2021), which leads to the contribution of transportation sector rebounded to 48.0% in 2020.

For anthropogenic VOC emissions, the trend shows a fluctuation pattern with a slight increase from 404.8 to 419.3 kt in 2014 and remains at high levels during 2014–2017. Since August 2017, a stringent VOC emissions standard (DB51/2377–2017) was adopted by the government of Sichuan to tackle the elevated anthropogenic VOCs emissions. As a result, the VOC emissions followed an evenly paced reduction with a prominently descending trend ($-5.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) throughout 2017–2020. More specifically, anthropogenic VOC emissions are dominated by industrial (228.3 kt), transportation (125.7 kt), and residential sectors (50.7 kt), which account for 56.4%, 31.1%, and 12.5% of total emissions in 2013, respectively. It is important to note that contributions of residential and transportation sectors continuously decreased from 2013 to 2017 (8.4% and 25.5%, respectively in 2017), while the contribution from industrial sector increased to 66.5% in 2017 and maintained as the largest source over 2018–2020. Indeed, the industrial sector is the major source of VOC emissions as well as the driver of total emissions changes (Fig. 5), which highlights the importance of controlling industrial VOC emissions over Chengdu. It is worth mentioning that anthropogenic VOC emissions derived from MEIC lie

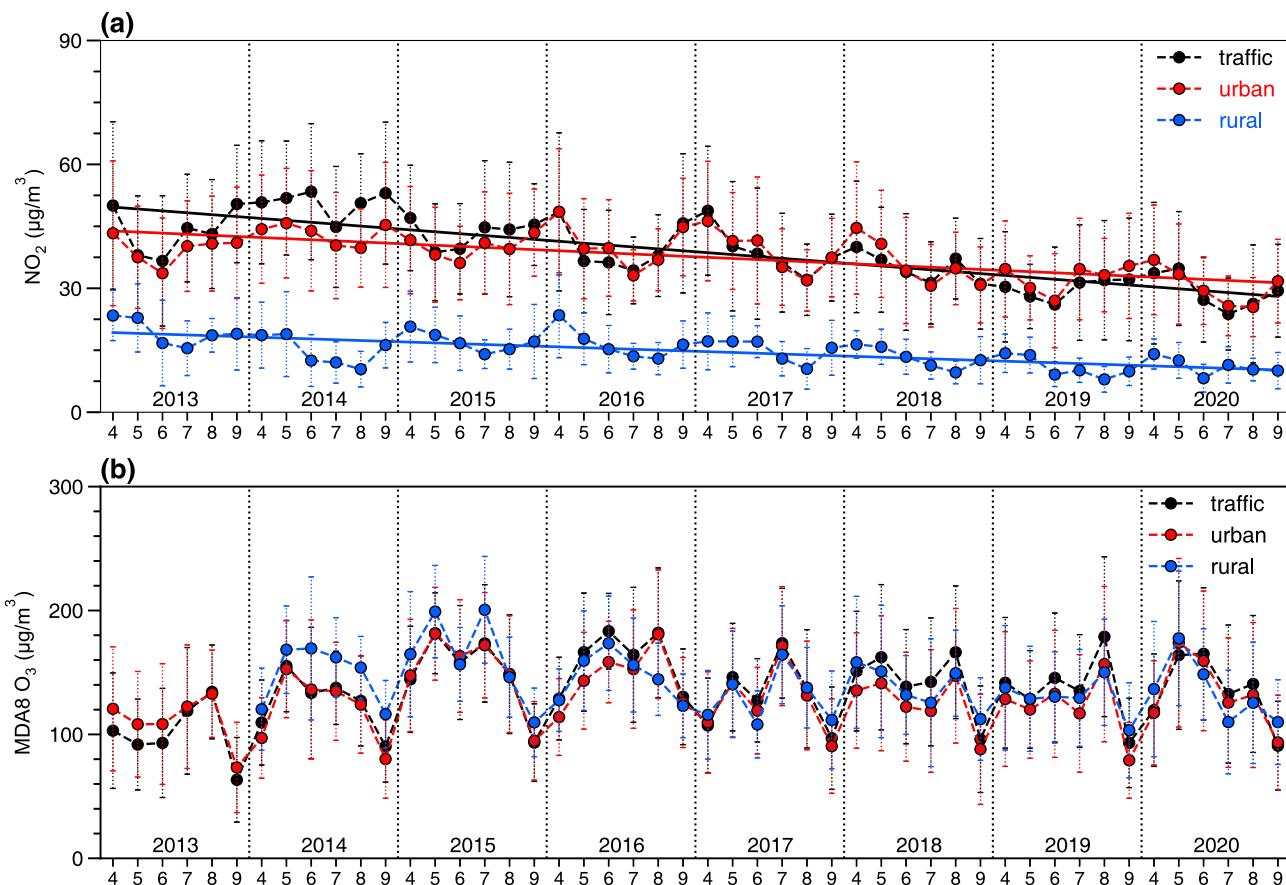


Fig. 3. Monthly averaged concentration of daytime NO_2 and MDA8 O_3 for traffic, urban and rural sites over April–September in Chengdu during 2013–2020.

remarkably close to estimations from Sichuan Academy of Environmental Sciences (Xu et al., 2020) and Simayi et al. (2020), supporting the reliability and robustness of MEIC inventory.

3.3. O_3 -VOCs- NO_x sensitivity over Chengdu

3.3.1. Trend of NO_2 and HCHO columns

Uncertainties in bottom-up emission inventory limit the capability of

probing accurate emission changes. Here, we further examine the changes of NO_x and VOCs emissions over time by using satellite-derived NO_2 and HCHO columns. The comparison is shown in Fig. S4 with an extended period from 2010 to 2020. Furthermore, the spatial distribution of NO_2 columns observed by OMI and TROPOMI are presented in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8, respectively. Despite the discrepancy in 2014, the trend in OMI NO_2 columns closely tracks the NO_x emissions from MEIC inventory and accurately captures the decrease of NO_x emissions (-3.7%

█ Industry █ Power █ Residential █ Transportation

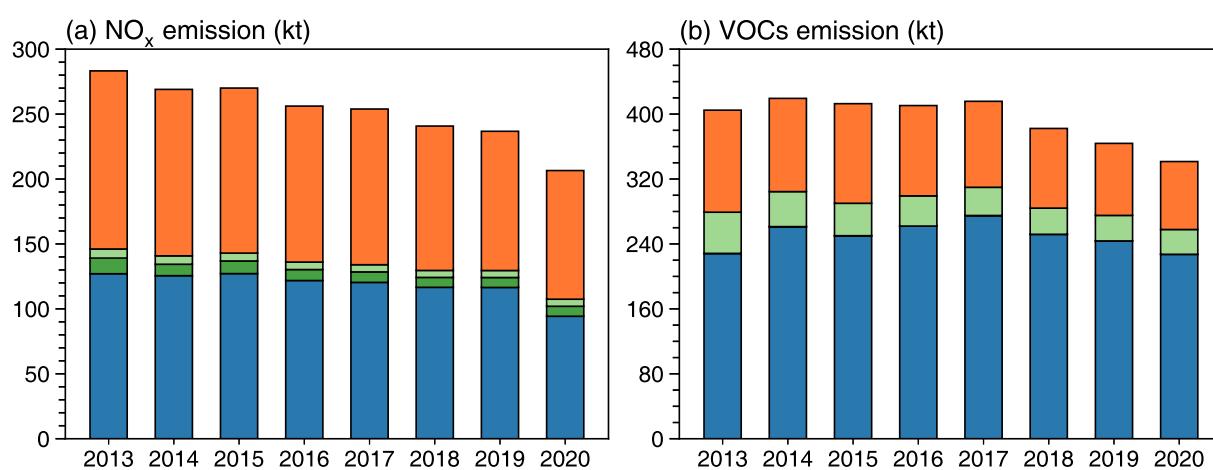


Fig. 4. Anthropogenic NO_x and VOCs emissions in Chengdu by source category for 2013–2020.



Fig. 5. Emission changes of NO_x and VOCs attributed to each anthropogenic sector for (a) 2013–2017 and (b) 2017–2020.

yr⁻¹) with a steeper trend ($-4.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) during 2013–2020. This steeper slope has also been found by Shah et al. (2020) over central-eastern China, which might be related to the changes of NO_x lifetime due to decrease in NO_x emissions and meteorological variabilities. The OMI NO₂ columns exhibited a steady decrease since 2014, especially for the metropolitan and suburban areas over Chengdu with a more pronounced trend than the SCB ($-3.1\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) (Wu et al., 2022), suggesting successful regulation efforts in reducing anthropogenic NO_x emissions in Chengdu. Interestingly, OMI NO₂ columns in metropolitan Chengdu in 2020 are slightly higher than in 2019, which could be attributed to the economic rebound after COVID-19 lockdown. It is worth noting that the spatial variability and magnitude change of OMI NO₂ column is in excellent agreement with TROPOMI NO₂ columns, and both depict a notable decrease during 2018–2020.

Fig. 9 presents the comparison of anthropogenic and BVOC emissions and OMI HCHO columns during 2010–2020, with the spatial distributions shown in Fig. S5-S6. Following Bauwens et al. (2022) and Shen et al. (2019), the impacts of temperature variabilities on HCHO columns were eliminated by regressing the HCHO columns onto monthly averaged daily maximum 2 m-temperature from the WRF model in each model grid, then the fitted temperature dependency is subtracted from the original data. The temperature-correction algorithm is detailed in Zhu et al. (2017). A weaken correlation is depicted between HCHO columns and BVOC emissions by surmounting temperature dependence. The corrected OMI HCHO columns show a downward trend ($-1.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) with obvious fluctuations during 2010–2020. In the period from

2010 to 2017, despite the inconspicuous increase of anthropogenic VOC emissions ($+1.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$), the HCHO columns illustrate a descending trend ($-1.6\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) with large interannual variability, which could be attributed to significant variations of BVOC emissions. In contrast, the reduction rate of HCHO columns ($-6.0\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) is coincident with the decline of anthropogenic VOC emissions ($-5.4\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) during 2018–2020, indicating that the reduction of anthropogenic VOC emissions may act as the major driver for the declining HCHO columns since 2018. Furthermore, it is worth noting that a field campaign with an intensive VOCs measurement network over Chengdu was carried out by Tan et al. (2020) in August 2017 to investigate the response of ambient O₃ and precursors levels to short-term strict emission control. It is found that OMI HCHO column decreased by -24.8% during the control period (Fig. S7), which precisely depicted the reductions of ambient VOCs levels ranging from -18.1% to -33.9% based on ground measurements, adding support to the feasibility of inferring trend of VOC emissions using OMI HCHO columns. Overall, both the regulation of anthropogenic VOCs since August 2017 and BVOC emissions modulated by meteorological conditions present essential roles in determining the trend of HCHO columns, which makes Chengdu a notable exception with a negative trend while the trends observed over China are mostly positive (Bauwens et al., 2022). Spatially, apart from the metropolitan area, the elevated HCHO columns were also observed at the north-eastern Chengdu (Fig. S6). This phenomenon could be attributed to the local oil refinery industry “China Petroleum Sichuan Petrochemical Corporation” which contributes approximately 8.9 kt VOC emissions

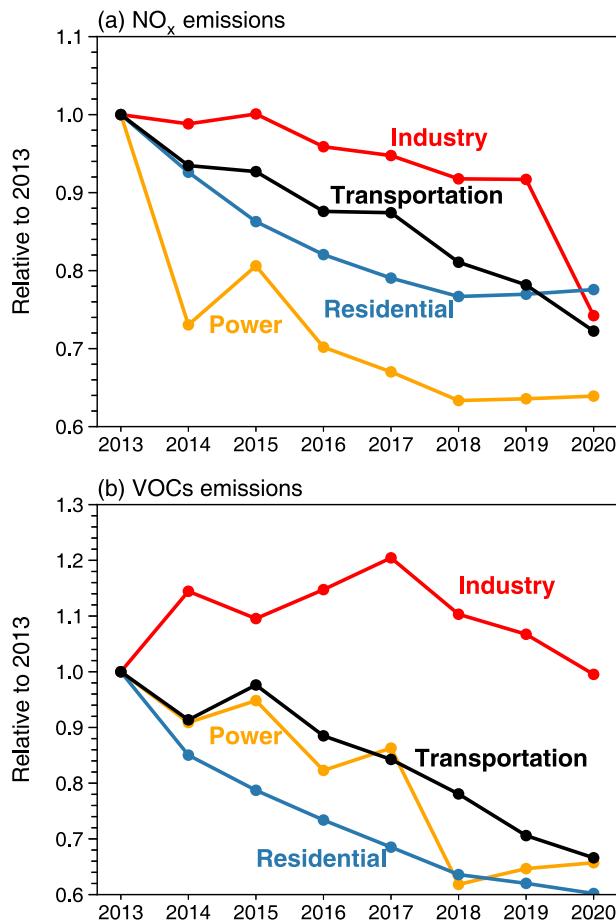


Fig. 6. Trends of NO_x and VOCs emissions for each anthropogenic sector during 2013–2020. The trends are normalized to a value of 1 in 2013.

each year. It should be noted that the changes between VOC emissions and HCHO columns are inconsistent during 2012–2013 and 2017–2018. Possible reasons for these discrepancies including uncertainty in emission inventory and satellite retrievals, as well as the potential impact of meteorological variability (Shah et al., 2020). However, detailed causes of this phenomenon warrant further investigation.

3.3.2. FNR and O₃ concentrations

Fig. 10 presents monthly averaged MDA8 O₃ concentrations plotted against OMI HCHO/NO₂ (FNR) for all environmental monitoring sites during 2013–2020. Following the method developed by Jin et al. (2020), a third-order polynomial model is used to fit the data with a high correlation coefficient ($R = 0.75$), and the transitional regime is defined as the top 20% of the fitted curve. This model clearly captures the nonlinearities in O₃ chemistry with MDA8 O₃ concentration peaks at FNR = 2.75, and the FNR of transitional regime is ranging from 2.27 to 3.26. As NO₂ columns decreased over time, the ratio of HCHO to NO₂ columns continuously increased from 2014 to 2016, indicating that the extent of VOCs-limited regime gradually shrunk in Chengdu (Fig. 11). In terms of MDA8 O₃ concentrations, the urban and traffic sites present steady increasing trends ($+13.2\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) during 2013–2016, while a sharp decrease of O₃ concentration ($-10.0\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) was observed at rural site in 2016. Furthermore, we also found a strong urban-rural gradients of FNR in 2016, indicating that the metropolitan area of Chengdu remains VOCs-limited regime, while the rural area has shifted from VOCs-limited to transitional or NO_x-limited in 2016 (Fig. 12). Interestingly, the average O₃ concentration decreased by 14.0% from 2016 to 2017, and then rebounded in 2018. The reason for this drop could be inferred from the consistent decreasing trends of BVOC emissions and HCHO

columns combined with the expansion of VOCs-limited regime in 2017, indicating that the reductions of BVOC emissions which are modulated by meteorological variability play a crucial role in the decrease of O₃ levels. After 2017, the anthropogenic NO_x and VOC emissions are jointly regulated, and the decreasing trends of NO₂ and HCHO columns are identified over 2018–2020. These emission regulations resulted in the decrease of O₃ concentrations at all monitoring sites from 2018 to 2019, while the O₃ levels were observed to slightly increase in 2020, which should be linked to the unfavorable meteorological conditions in 2020 (discussed in Section 3.4).

3.3.3. Trend of O₃-VOCs-NO_x sensitivity

Compared with the O₃-VOCs-NO_x sensitivity of Chengdu reported in previous studies (Table 1), our results are generally consistent with them. Before the implementation of emission controls, the extent of transitional and VOC-limited regime continuously extended due to the rapid increase of NO_x emissions from 2005, and most areas of Chengdu have been characterized as VOC-limited in 2013 (Jin and Holloway, 2015). During 2013–2020, we found the urban area remains at VOC-limited regime, which is further verified by existing evidence from field measurement and chemical transport models (CTMs). For instance, Tan et al. (2018) found the negative effect of NO_x reduction on O₃ control by conducting field measurements combined with a box model (OBM) in 2016. Based on the O₃ isopleth derived from the CMAQ model, Shen et al. (2021) reported that Chengdu city metropolitan area shows a NO_x-saturated O₃ regime, where the O₃ production was sensitive to VOC emissions in 2017. Han et al. (2020) also revealed that O₃ formation had negative sensitivity to NO_x over urban Chengdu in 2019. For suburban areas, Deng et al. (2019) carried out the field measurement at the central north suburb of Chengdu (Pixian district: black circle in Fig. 12b), and reported that the sampling site is under VOC-limited in 2016, while the north suburb of Chengdu (Pengzhou district: black pentagram in Fig. 12b) is identified as transitional regime (Tan et al., 2018). The discrepancy between these two studies is linked to the elevated VOC emissions from local petroleum industry in Pengzhou. In particular, when compared to a recent study by Du et al. (2022), which also explored the spatial distribution of O₃-VOCs-NO_x sensitivity from June to September in 2019 over Chengdu by using the comprehensive air quality model with extensions (CAMx)-high-order decoupled direct method (HDDM). The O₃ formation sensitivity inferred by OMI HCHO/NO₂ is consistent with their results, both clearly present the shift of VOC-limited to transitional or NO_x-limited between urban and suburban areas. These studies illustrate the complex variabilities of O₃-VOCs-NO_x sensitivity over the Chengdu city. Therefore, future work should consider using more comprehensive field measurements and numerical models to quantitatively identify the most effective reduction magnitude for jointly controlling of NO_x and VOC emissions to improve O₃ pollution over Chengdu.

3.4. Relationship between O₃ variability and meteorological conditions

Heatwaves and stagnant events are the most critical meteorological phenomenon that governs variations in O₃ levels (Yang and Shao, 2021). Fig. S8 shows the monthly occurrence frequencies of HWs and stagnation derived from the WRF model, as well as their co-occurrence over 2013–2020. There is a high probability of HWs occurrence in summer, with peak frequency in July. The similar feature was also found in the earlier work by Huang et al. (2021) for SCB. In terms of the air stagnation, our result shows relatively less occurrence in July and August, which could be attributed to the frequent rainfalls over the SCB in summer (Qian et al., 2015). Over the warm season, the co-occurrence frequencies of stagnant conditions and HWs ranging from 1.2% to 4.6% for the whole city during 2013–2020, and Chengdu is most susceptible to HWs and stagnant in 2019 and 2020, with co-occurrence frequencies higher than 8.0% at the metropolitan area (Fig. S9), indicating that the HWs and stagnant conditions might become more

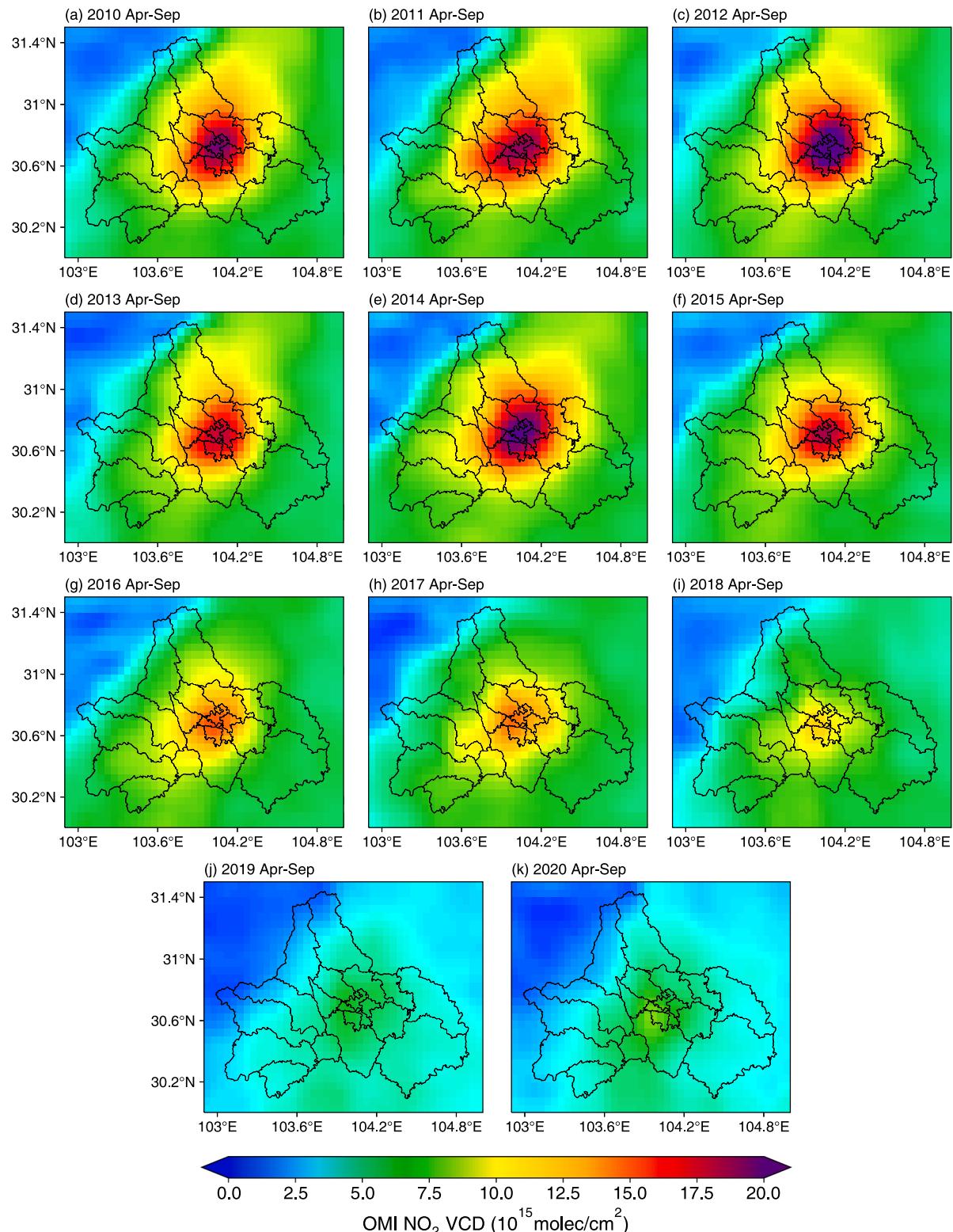


Fig. 7. OMI NO₂ vertical column densities averaged over a 6-month period April–September from 2010 to 2020 in Chengdu.

frequent under the changing climate.

By comparing the trends of extreme meteorological events and O₃ levels, we find a high degree of correlation between monthly O₃ variations and the occurrence of HWs and stagnation over Chengdu. Fig. 13 depicts several periods that abovementioned meteorological phenomenon could well explain anomalous high or low O₃ levels over time.

Specifically, enhanced rural O₃ levels in July 2015 are closely associated with frequent stagnations over rural areas (frequency in excess of 30%). Similarly, elevated O₃ levels in June and August in 2016 are clearly linked to profound HWs (frequency higher than 30%) occurrence during the period which triggered intense photochemical reactions. Furthermore, severe O₃ pollution in August 2019 is largely determined by the

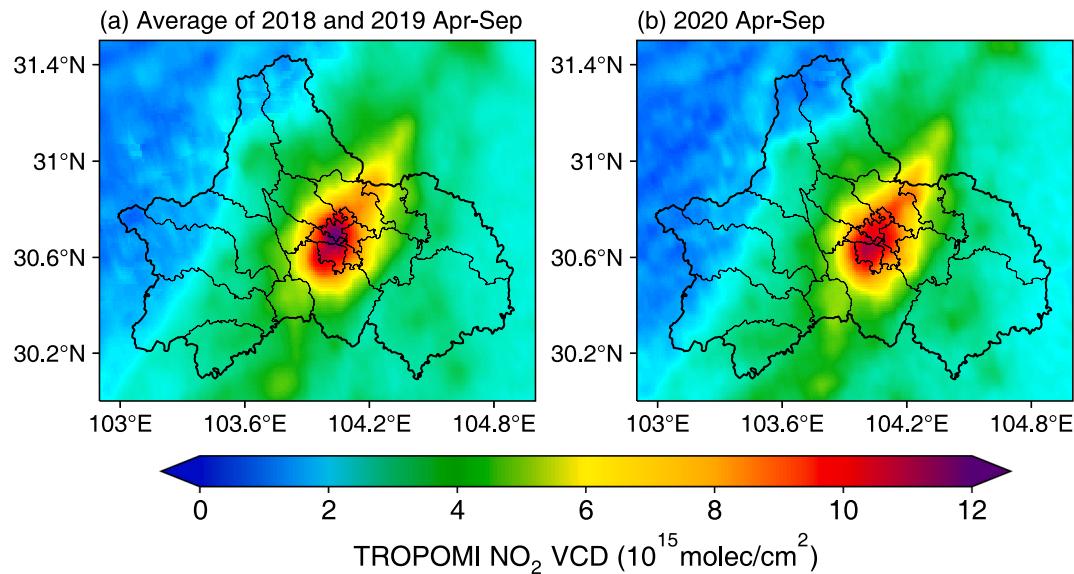


Fig. 8. TROPOMI NO₂ vertical column densities averaged over a 6-month period April–September from 2018 to 2020.

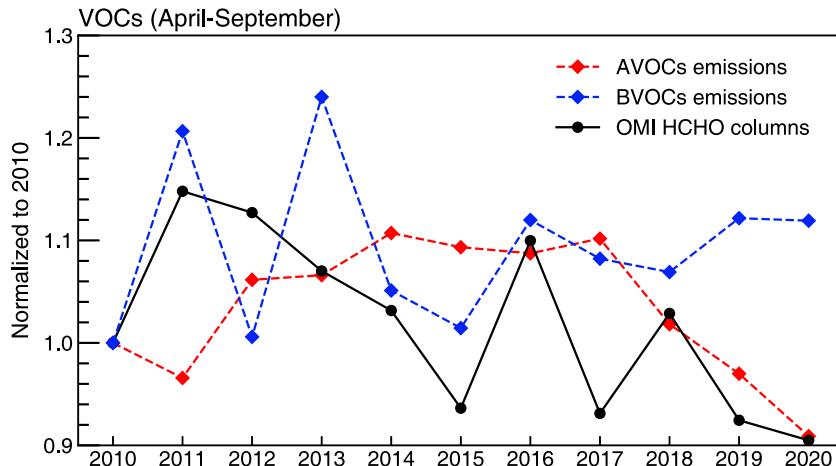


Fig. 9. The trends of anthropogenic VOCs (AVOCs) and biogenic VOCs (BVOCs) emissions and corrected OMI HCHO columns over April–September in Chengdu during 2010–2020. The trends are normalized to a value of 1 in 2010.

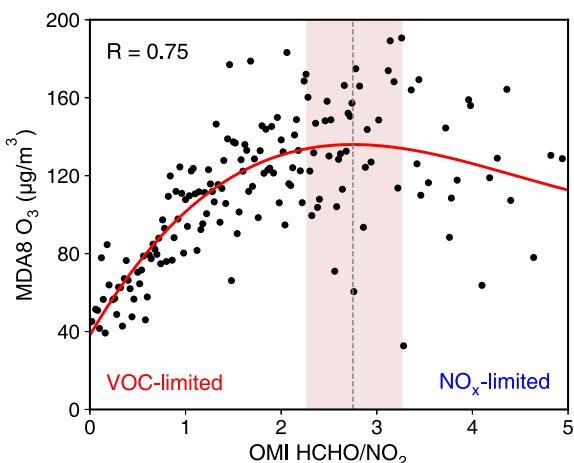


Fig. 10. Monthly averaged MDA8 O₃ concentrations are plotted against OMI HCHO/NO₂ for all environmental monitoring sites during 2013–2020. The solid lines are fitted third-order polynomial curve. The shaded area represents the range over the top 20% of the fitted curve (transitional regime).

co-occurrence of stagnant conditions and HWs (Fig. 13f). It is worth noting that the most prominent period that O₃ was affected by meteorological fields is May 2020. Fig. S10 presents the changes of simulated daytime 2-m temperature and precipitation in May 2020 relative to May 2019. The temperature increase (>4 °C) was also coincident with a sharp drop in precipitation (up to 60 mm or 35% reduction) over Chengdu in May 2020 compared with May 2019, while anthropogenic emissions of NO_x and VOCs reduced by 11.3% and 6.3% in Chengdu due to Covid-19 lockdown, respectively. Such a strong warming magnitude combined with droughty condition caused Chengdu endures profound heatwaves and air stagnations in May 2020, subsequently leading to numerous O₃ exceedances (as reflected by the spike in O₃ levels). This opposed phenomenon demonstrates the considerable contribution of persistent unfavorable meteorological fields on elevating O₃ concentrations which could even fully offset the effects of emission reductions. This is in agreement with Sun et al. (2021) and Wu et al. (2022), who use chemical transport models to quantitatively identify the role of unprecedented meteorological phenomenon on high levels of O₃ in May 2020.

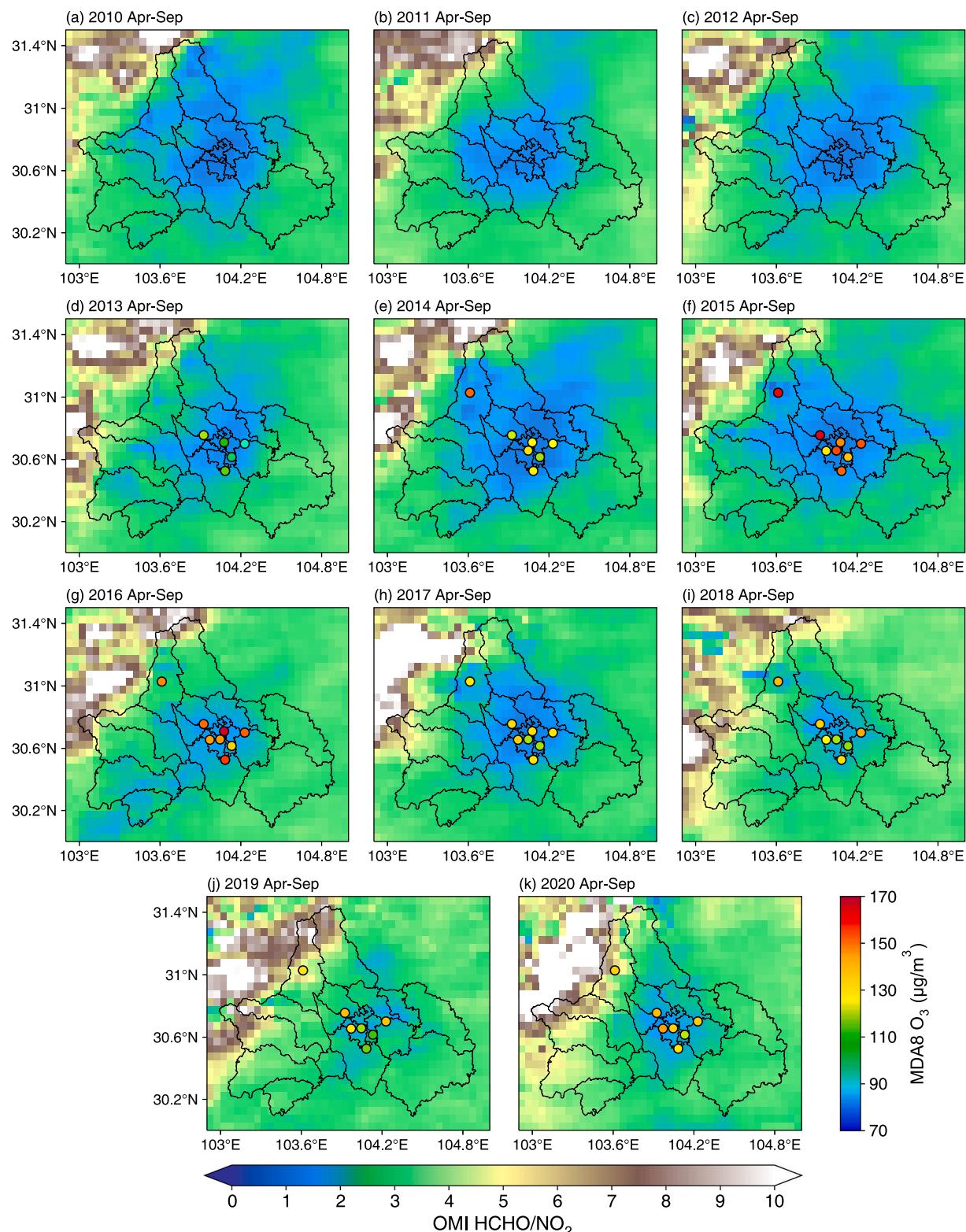


Fig. 11. Map of HCHO/ NO_2 (FNR) and O_3 levels averaged over a 6-month period April–September from 2010 to 2020 over Chengdu.

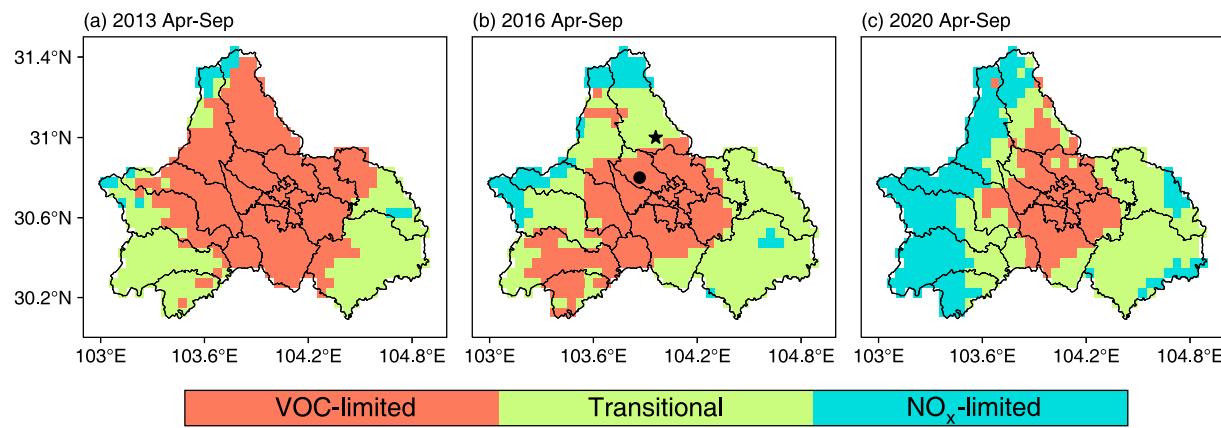


Fig. 12. O_3 -VOCS- NO_x sensitivity inferred by OMI HCHO/ NO_2 over a 6-month period April–September in 2013, 2016 and 2020 in Chengdu. In 2016, the black circle site is reported in VOC-limited regime (Deng et al., 2019), while the pentagram is in transitional regime (Tan et al., 2018).

Table 1
Comparisons of previous O_3 -VOCS- NO_x sensitivity over Chengdu.

Area	Period	O_3 -VOCS- NO_x sensitivity	Method	Reference
Urban	2005	transitional or NO_x -limited	FNR from OMI	Jin and Holloway (2015)
	Mar, 2010	transitional or VOC-limited	WRF-CALGRID	Xie et al. (2014)
	2013	transitional or VOC-limited	FNR from OMI	Jin and Holloway (2015)
	Sep, 2016	VOC-limited	box model (OBM)	Tan et al. (2018)
	Aug-Sep, 2017	VOC-limited	field measurement	Tan et al. (2020)
	2017	VOC-limited	CMAQ model	Shen et al. (2021)
	Apr-Aug, 2019	VOC-limited	OBM	Han et al. (2020)
	Jun-Sep, 2019	VOC-limited	CAMx-HDDM model	Du et al. (2022)
Suburban	2013–2020	VOC-limited	FNR and field measurement	This study
	Aug-Oct, 2016	VOC-limited	field measurement	Deng et al. (2019)
	Sep, 2016	transitional	OBM	Tan et al. (2018)
Rural	Jun-Sep, 2019	transitional or NO_x -limited	CAMx-HDDM model	Du et al. (2022)
	2013–2015	VOC-limited	FNR and field measurement	This study
	2016–2020	transitional or NO_x -limited	FNR and field measurement	This study

4. Conclusion

Long-term O_3 and precursor observations from 2013 to 2020 in Chengdu, a megacity located in southwestern China, have provided insight into the changes of ambient O_3 and precursors levels in response to regulation efforts. We depicted deteriorated O_3 trends ($+14.0\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) at urban and traffic sites during 2013–2016 followed by a weak reduction with notable interannual variability afterwards. In contrast, O_3 concentration at rural areas generally shows a downward trend ($-2.9\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) during 2014–2020. Further analysis based on MEIC inventory ($-3.7\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) and OMI NO_2 columns ($-4.5\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$) reported strong evidence on the continuous reductions in NO_x emission from 2013 to 2020. However, OMI HCHO columns exhibit a weaker declining trend over time, with the most notable decrease in 2018–2020 ($-6.0\% \text{ yr}^{-1}$), implying the effectiveness of targeted legislature concerning VOC emissions in Chengdu. Noticing the discrepancies between the trends of NO_x and VOC emissions, which could lead to dramatic changes in O_3 -VOCS- NO_x sensitivity, we further analyze the relationship between FNR and field measurements to probe the transition of O_3 -VOCS- NO_x sensitivity over Chengdu. The results indicate that metropolitan Chengdu remains VOCs-limited regime during 2013–2020, while the rural area has shifted from VOCs-limited to transitional or NO_x -limited regime

since 2016. Given the well-supported identification of O_3 -VOCS- NO_x sensitivity, it is expected that the emission regulation framework involves joint control of NO_x and VOC emissions would lead to evident O_3 improvements in near future. Nevertheless, the variabilities of meteorological phenomenon and biogenic emissions should not be neglected, as modeling results indicate that extreme unfavorable meteorological conditions accompanied by enhanced BVOC emissions in a short period (May 2020) could even fully offset O_3 benefits over warm season. Thus, the potential perturbation induced by meteorological phenomenon and BVOC emissions under warming climate deserves further study for ensuring the effectiveness of O_3 abatement strategy not overestimated.

Recent studies have noted the steady reductions of NO_x emissions from 2013 throughout China attributed to regulation efforts introduced by APPCAP, but changes in anthropogenic VOCs emissions remain uncertain, particularly in highly urbanized megacities. Our analysis provides robust evidence derived from both emission inventory and satellite data which points to the success in reducing NO_x emissions since 2013 and cutting VOCs emissions after 2017 in Chengdu. However, the response of ambient O_3 levels is relatively weak due to the gradual transition of O_3 -VOCS- NO_x regime and increased emissions of biogenic precursors under a warming climate. Furthermore, the projected expansion in urban green spaces attributed to the implementation of

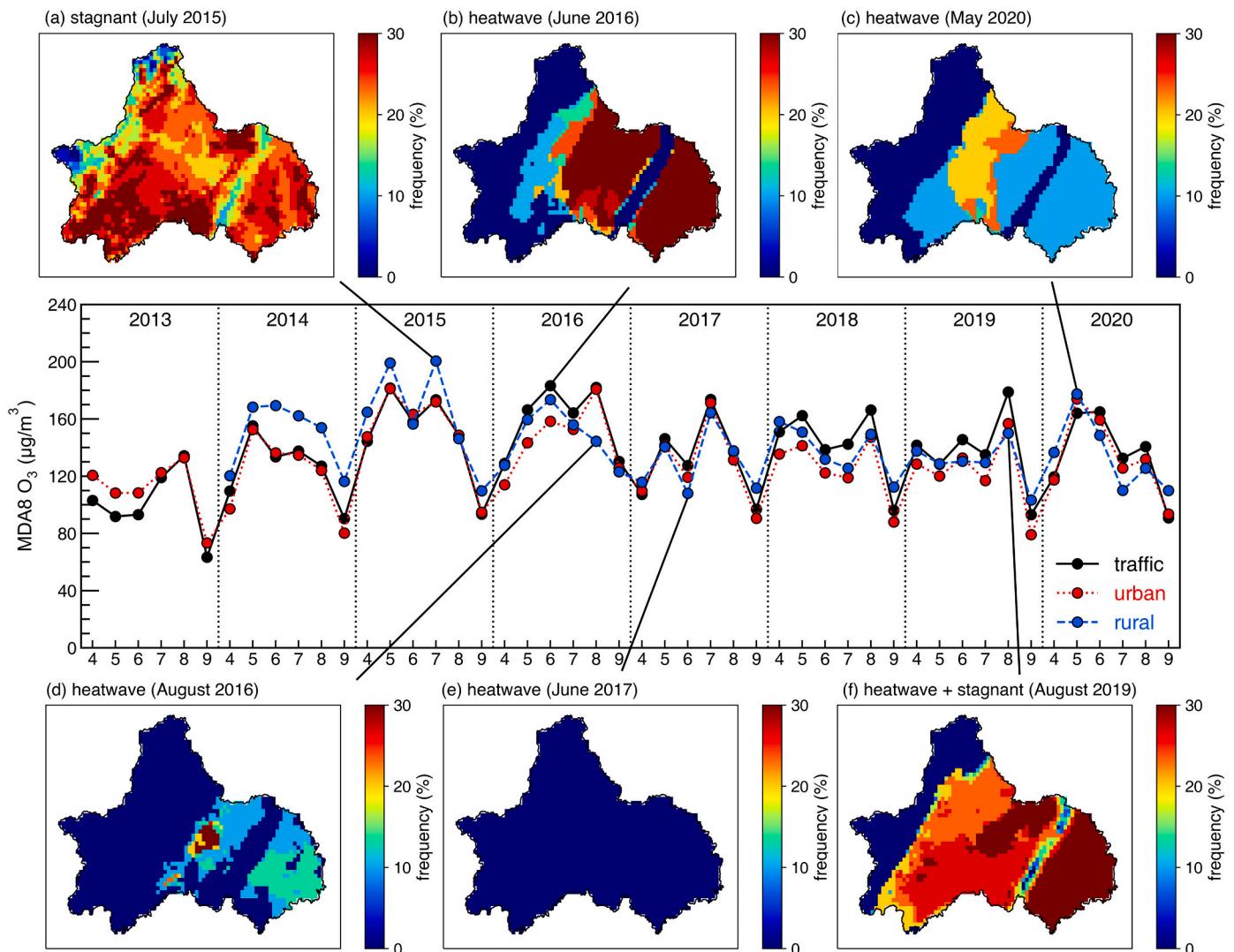


Fig. 13. (Middle panel) Monthly average concentration of MDA8 O₃ for traffic, urban and rural stations for April–September from 2013 to 2020, and occurrence frequency maps of heatwave and stagnant of extreme meteorological events over Chengdu.

urban greening strategies could result in substantial BVOC emissions in urban areas, thus posing challenges to O₃ regulation (Gu et al., 2021). While meteorological phenomena and enhanced BVOC emissions likely obscured the expected decline in O₃ concentrations, ongoing control strategies involving joint regulation of NO_x and VOCs would be increasingly effective in controlling O₃ pollution in Chengdu. This work may also be compelling to megacities in East Asia where anthropogenic emissions undergo similar pathways as Chengdu. Although the abundance of precursor emissions may differ slightly among megacities, this work provides an improved scientific basis for diagnosing O₃ variability and associated driving factors over time, thus showing important implications in developing reliable emission control strategies toward compliance of O₃ air quality standards.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Yurun Wang: Writing – original draft, Conceptualization, Methodology, Software. **Xianyu Yang:** Writing – review & editing, Supervision, Project administration. **Kai Wu:** Methodology, Software, Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing. **Han Mei:** Software, Writing – review & editing. **Isabelle De Smedt:** Writing – review & editing, Methodology, Software. **Shigong Wang:** Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Jin Fan:** Writing – review & editing. **Shihua Lyu:**

Supervision, Project administration, Funding acquisition. **Cheng He:** Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge the MEIC team and Dr. Bo Zheng from Tsinghua University for providing the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) and Chengdu Plain Urban Meteorology and Environment Observation and Research Station of Sichuan Province for providing ambient monitoring data. This work was funded by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No.42175174, No.42105167), Open Research Fund Program of Plateau Atmosphere and Environment Key Laboratory of Sichuan Province (No.PAEKL-2020-C6), and the Scientific Research Foundation of the Chengdu University of Information Technology (No.KYTZ201823). The authors thank EU FP7 QA4ECV project (No.607405) for providing OMI NO₂ and HCHO column data. This work contains modified Copernicus Sentinel-5

Precursor satellite data (2018–2020). The data used in this work is available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request.

Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2022.106309>.

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