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Mechanisms of high-temperature ozone suppression in Eastern China: a meteorological perspective

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Abstract

Ozone (O₃) is a typical secondary photochemical pollutant, whose production typically increases under high temperature and radiation. However, emerging observational evidences reveal a notable alteration in the O₃-temperature relationship under extremely heat conditions (referred to as O₃ suppression) in 20%–30% cities of China, yet the underlying mechanisms and driving forces remain unclear. This study provides a comprehensive investigation of the meteorological mechanisms driving high-temperature O₃ suppression in Eastern China, with particular emphasis on regional disparities between suppression and non-suppression areas. Our analysis revealed distinct spatial patterns of O₃ suppression across major Chinese regions. The Yangtze River Delta (YRD) and Pearl River Delta (PRD) regions exhibit significant O₃ suppression, with the O₃-temperature relationship decreasing by 3–5 μg m⁻³ °C⁻¹ at high temperatures. In contrast, the Beijing–Tianjin–Hebei (BTH) region rarely illustrates this phenomenon. Through integrated statistical analysis and machine learning approaches, we identified radiation, relative humidity (RH), and planetary boundary layer height (PBLH) as the key meteorological drivers. Mechanistic analysis demonstrated that RH was the dominant factor accounting for regional differences in O₃ suppression, primarily owing to the contrasting effects of dry heat (BTH) and wet heat (YRD and PRD). PBLH emerged as a secondary influential factor that modulates O₃ concentration through the competitive effects of diffusion and transport processes. Cluster analysis further revealed that the occurrence frequency of inhibitory meteorological conditions (high RH and low PBLH) during high-temperature days in the YRD and PRD regions (25%–35%) significantly exceeded that in the BTH region (2%). This study provides crucial insights into the regional disparities in meteorological mechanisms underlying high-temperature O₃ suppression and offers valuable scientific support for region-specific O₃ pollution control strategies in the context of climate warming and increasingly frequent heatwaves.

1. Introduction

Surface ozone (O₃) is a typical secondary gaseous pollutant produced by the photochemical oxidation of volatile organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen

oxides (NO_x) in the presence of sunlight (Wang *et al* 2017, 2022). High O₃ concentrations significantly affect human health (Atkinson *et al* 2016, Murray *et al* 2020, Sun *et al* 2022) and agricultural production (Tai *et al* 2014, Feng *et al* 2019, 2022, Wang

et al 2023) because of its strong oxidative properties. Over the past few decades, air pollution in China has become severe (Pu *et al* 2017, Lu *et al* 2018). Since 2017, ground-level O₃ has surpassed particulate matter as the primary pollutant affecting air quality during summer in China. Notably, megacities such as Beijing, Shanghai, Nanjing, and Guangzhou have witnessed rapid increases in O₃ concentrations, leading to severe photochemical pollution (Li *et al* 2019, Liu *et al* 2020, Mousavinezhad *et al* 2021, Xu *et al* 2021).

In general, O₃ concentration increases with increasing temperature at an approximate rate of 2–8 ppb °C^{−1}, which is primarily attributed to more intense solar radiation and enhanced chemical reaction at high temperatures (Gu *et al* 2020, Han *et al* 2020, Hu *et al* 2021). However, the direct correlation between O₃ and temperature may change under extremely high temperatures, resulting in a noticeable slowdown or even decrease in this trend (Ning *et al* 2022). In urban areas over central China, the O₃ concentration starts to decline at an approximate rate of −1.5 ~ −2.0 µg m^{−3} °C^{−1} when air temperature exceeds 32 °C (Fu *et al* 2024). Similarly, in the Yangtze River Delta (YRD) region, the O₃ concentration reaches a peak at 38 °C during the months of June to August, then gradually declines (Pu *et al* 2017). Comprehending the attributes and mechanisms of O₃ suppression is a key area of research particularly against the backdrop of global warming and increasingly frequent heatwaves (Meehl *et al* 2018, Romer *et al* 2018).

Several studies have attempted to explain the potential driving forces behind O₃ suppression at high temperatures. Steiner *et al* (2010) focused on chemical factors and hypothesized that O₃ suppression in California could be attributed to a combination of reduced NO_x sequestration by peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN) and decreased emissions of biogenic isoprene under extremely high-temperature conditions. In a broader investigation encompassing the entire U.S., Shen *et al* (2016) showed that O₃ suppression cannot be fully explained by the hypothesis of Steiner *et al* (2010), instead predominantly arising from meteorological processes, such as solar radiation, synoptic circulation, and stagnation. In China, research has focused on the nature of O₃ suppression at high temperatures (Pu *et al* 2017, Ning *et al* 2022), with few studies investigating the mechanism and driving forces behind the phenomenon.

In this study, we explore and compare the attributes of O₃ suppression under high-temperature conditions during 2016–2020 in three typical regions of Eastern China: Beijing–Tianji–Hebei (BTH), Pearl River Delta (PRD) and YRD. We then identify the meteorological factors driving this phenomenon and compare distinct regional disparities, using surface air

quality data, meteorological observations and ERA5 reanalysis data.

2. Data and methods

2.1. Air quality and meteorological data

We obtained surface air quality data from 2016 to 2020 for 63 cities in BTH, YRD and PRD (table S1) from the public website of the Ministry of Ecology and Environment (MEE) of China (<https://air.cnemc.cn:18007/>), which provides hourly O₃, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, NO₂, and CO data. We converted O₃ concentrations after August 2018 to the original standard state (273 K and 101.325 kPa) to ensure longitudinal comparability (www.mee.gov.cn/xxgk/2018/xxgk/xxgk01/201808/t20180815_629602.html).

Hourly surface meteorological data, including air temperature (*T*), pressure (*P*), wind speed (WS), wind direction (WD), relative humidity (RH) and precipitation were obtained from the meteorological monitoring network (<http://data.cma.cn/>). Planetary boundary layer height (PBLH), radiation, and 500 hPa geopotential height and wind data were obtained from the ERA5 (fifth generation of European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts) reanalysis dataset. ERA5 is a global atmospheric reanalysis dataset with a horizontal resolution of 0.25° × 0.25° and a temporal resolution of 1 h.

To ensure a more robust analysis of O₃-temperature relationship, we implemented the following preprocessing steps on the observational data. Air quality or meteorological data that were missing for more than 6 h on a certain day were classified as missing data. When either daily O₃ or temperature data were missing, the results were excluded from the analysis of O₃-temperature correlations. All rainy days were excluded from the dataset.

2.2. Machine learning model

We employed the random forest (RF) model (Breiman 2001) to build an O₃ prediction model and further analyzed the relationships between different driving factors and O₃ concentrations. The RF model is an ensemble machine learning method based on decision trees, which mostly focuses on variable splitting or nonlinear feature combinations (Breiman 2001), and is widely used for both classification and regression tasks. The RF model employs an ensemble approach that enhances robustness and prediction accuracy, while minimizing overfitting.

In this study, we established an O₃ prediction model based on the RF model, incorporating meteorological factors, pollutant concentrations, and the latitude and longitude of urban centers as input variables. Preliminary feature screening was conducted on the input variables by removing missing values. The data were then randomly divided into training

and testing sets in a 7:3 ratio. Hyperparameter optimization was performed using a grid search combined with cross-validation, ultimately constructing an O₃ concentration prediction model. The model demonstrated good predictive capability for O₃ concentrations, as illustrated in figure S1, showing strong agreement with the observed data ($r = 0.97$).

We further used feature importance and meteorological averaging methods to assess the influence of various meteorological parameters on O₃ prediction. The feature importance was quantified through the mean decrease in impurity (Gini importance). During tree construction, the algorithm tracks the total reduction in node impurity (measured by mean squared error for regression) attributable to each variable across all trees. Higher importance scores indicate stronger predictive contributions to O₃ concentration forecasts. The meteorological averaging method uses the average value of each meteorological variable to replace the original meteorological variable sample, thus forming a new average meteorological variable sample. This new sample is then used to train the optimized RF model for prediction. The difference between the predicted values obtained using the original sample (baseline) and the averaged meteorological sample (climatology) reflects the contribution of each variable to O₃ prediction performance.

2.3. Identification of ozone suppression

In general, O₃ suppression was defined as a significant reduction in the O₃- T slope at high temperature (Steiner *et al* 2010, Shen *et al* 2016, Ning *et al* 2022). In this study, we employed the Z test (Paternoster *et al* 1998) to evaluate the stationarity of O₃- T slopes for each city as follows,

$$Z = \frac{S_H - S_N}{\sqrt{SE_H^2 + SE_N^2}}$$

where S_H and S_N are the O₃- T slopes under high- and normal-temperature regimes, respectively, and SE_H and SE_N are the standard errors of the slopes associated with the two regimes. $|Z| > 1.96$ suggests a significant reduction in the O₃- T slope and consider it as evidence to confirm O₃ suppression in the city. We tested the threshold temperature distinguishing high- and normal-temperature using increments of 0.5 °C from the 70th to 98th percentile of the ranked T series and took the temperature with the minimum p value < 0.05 as the cut-off temperature (T_c) of the city.

In this study, we analyzed O₃ suppression on a daily scale using the maximum 8 h average (MDA8) O₃ concentration and daily maximum temperature (T_{max}). We excluded data from days with precipitation or a daily maximum temperature less than 15 °C. We also detrended the observed O₃ concentration and

temperature during 2016–2020 to avoid the influence of shared interannual upward trends in O₃ and temperature which would amplify their apparent positive correlation. Statistical significance in this study was evaluated using a t test with $\alpha = 0.05$.

3. Result and discussion

3.1. Observations of ozone suppression at high temperature

We analyzed the phenomenon of O₃ suppression at high temperature for 13 cities in the BTH region, 41 cities in the YRD region and nine cities in the PRD region (table S1) from 2016 to 2020.

Pronounced O₃ suppression at high temperatures was observed in the YRD and PRD regions (figure 1). Specifically, when air temperatures exceeded 30 °C and 32 °C, the O₃- T relationship exhibited a significant decline, from $4.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ to $-1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ in the YRD region and from $4.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ to $2.9 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$ in the PRD region. This trend was accompanied by a decrease in O₃ concentration. The regional average O₃ concentration declined from $155 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to $140 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ between 31 °C and 35 °C in the YRD region and from $135 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ to $117 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ between 30 °C and 33 °C in the PRD region. In contrast, the O₃- T trend was relatively stable in the BTH region; O₃ concentrations consistently increased with temperatures at a rate of $\sim 6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$, with no significant reduction at high temperatures.

Most cities mirrored the overall trends of their respective regions. Specifically, 39 of the 41 cities in the YRD region exhibited high-temperature O₃ suppression, with a cut-off temperature of 28.0 °C–34.5 °C. Notably, coastal cities experienced a lower cut-off temperature, approximately 2 °C–4 °C less than their inland counterparts. In the PRD region, high-temperature O₃ suppression was identified in 6 of the 9 cities, with cut-off temperatures of 29.0 °C–32.5 °C. Again, coastal cities such as Dongguan, Zhongshan and Zhuhai exhibited lower cut-off temperatures, approximately 2 °C lower than those of other cities. In contrast, only 4 of the 13 cities in the BTH region, Beijing, Tianjin, Baoding and Langfang, demonstrated high-temperature O₃ suppression at the city level, with notably higher cut-off temperatures of 31.0 °C–35.5 °C, approximately 4 °C higher than those observed in the PRD and YRD regions.

These results are consistent with those of previous studies (Ning *et al* 2022, Ou *et al* 2023, Fu *et al* 2024). However, minor discrepancies were observed in the results of specific cities and precise cut-off temperatures. These differences were primarily attributed to variations in the selection of representative days, such as precipitation days, and the inclusion of detrending processes.

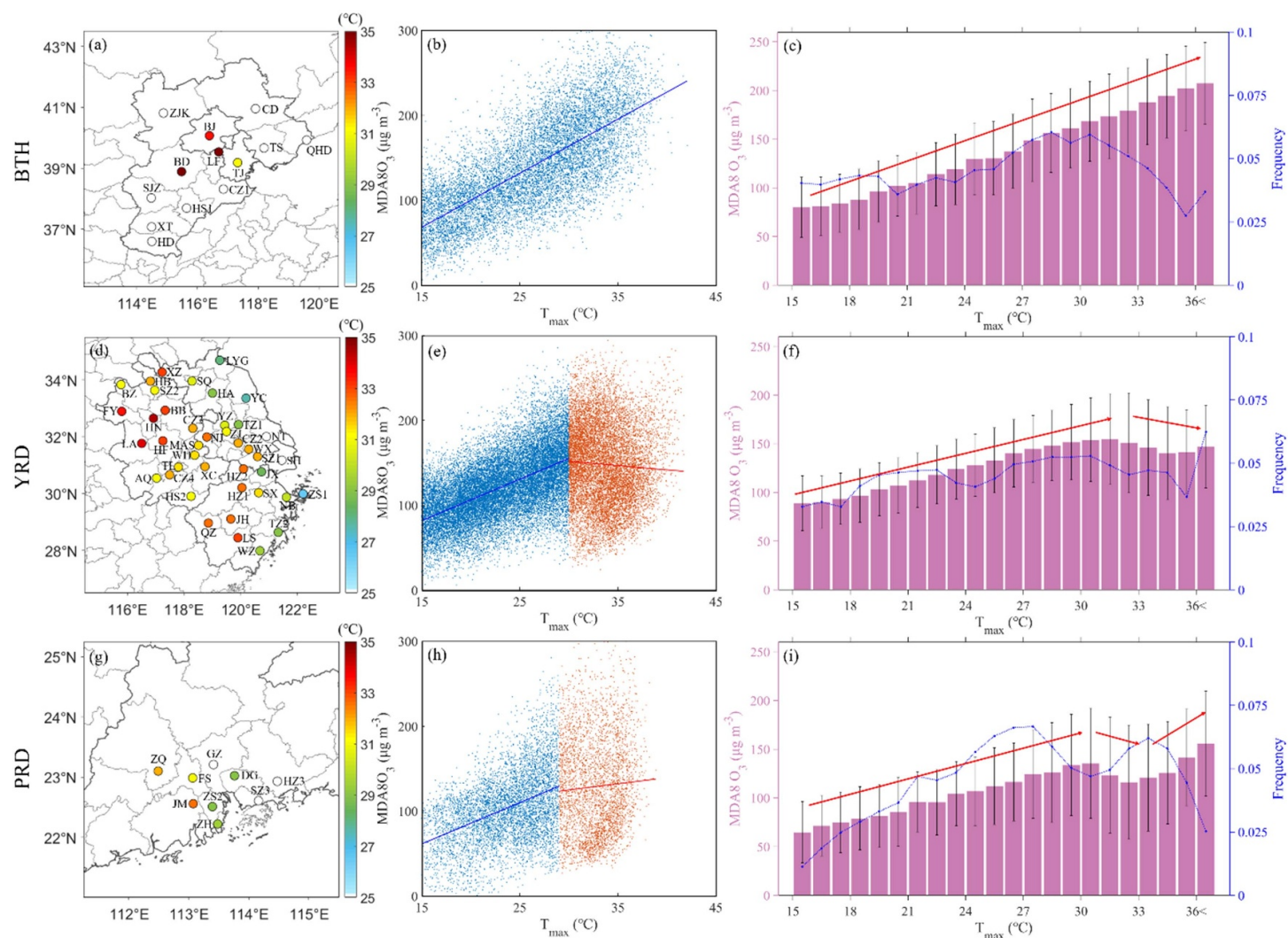
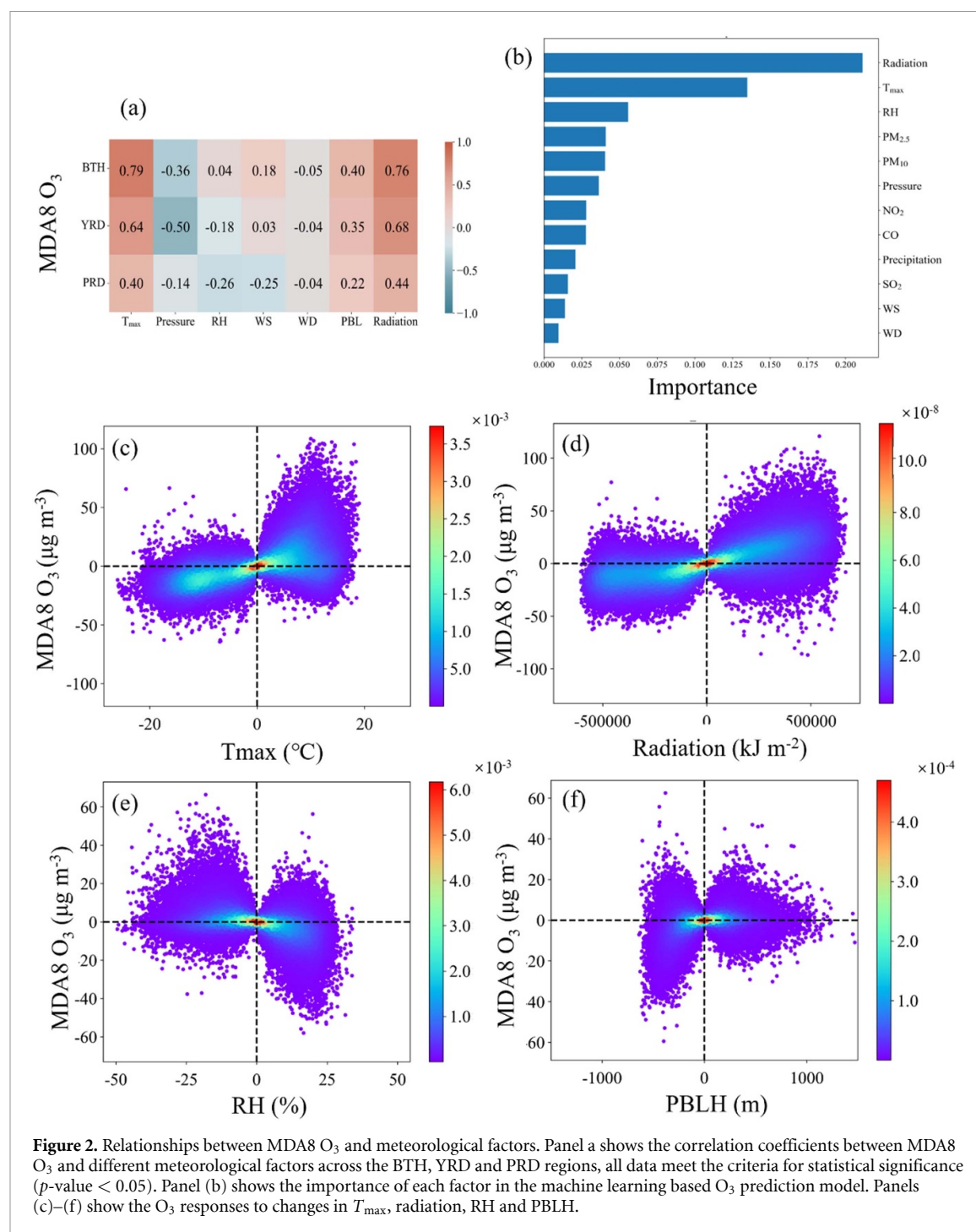


Figure 1. The observed O₃ suppression in the BTH (a)–(c), YRD (d)–(f) and PRD (g)–(i) regions of China. The left panel shows the distribution of cities across the three regions, with the colors of the dots representing the cutoff temperature at which O₃ suppression occurs at high temperatures. The middle panel shows scatter plots of T_{\max} and MDA8 O₃ for each region. The right panel shows the temperature-binned MDA8 O₃ averaged for each region.



3.2. Relationships between ozone concentrations and meteorological factors

O₃ formation and transportation are intricately linked to meteorological conditions (Chen *et al* 2019). We employed three methods to analyze the relationships between O₃ and multiple meteorological factors (T , solar radiation, P , RH, WS, WD, and PBLH). (1) We calculated the correlations between meteorological factors and O₃ concentration. (2) We established a machine learning based meteorological-O₃ model, and assessing the importance of each meteorological

factor in explaining changes in O₃ concentration. (3) We used the meteorological-O₃ model to perturb each meteorological factor individually and evaluate the resulting changes in O₃ concentration. By integrating these three approaches, we identified the key meteorological factors that influencing O₃ levels.

The results showed that T , radiation, P , RH, and PBLH were most closely associated with changes in O₃ concentration (approach 1, figures 2(a) and S2). O₃ demonstrated a significant positive correlation with T , radiation and PBLH, but a significant

negative correlation with RH and P (p -value < 0.05). The meteorological- O_3 model corroborated these findings. The importance ranking result identified radiation, T , RH and P as the top four factors (approach 2, figure 2(b)).

Sensitivity analysis using the meteorological- O_3 model showed a significant positive feedback between O_3 concentration and perturbations in T and radiation (approach 3, figures 2(c) and (d)), particularly during O_3 polluted periods. Despite the strong collinearity between these two meteorological variables, their impacts on O_3 formation operate through distinct chemical mechanisms: radiation primarily affects photolysis rates directly, whereas temperature predominantly influences O_3 production by modulating radical reactions and balance.

We also observed a notable positive feedback between O_3 concentration and perturbations in PBLH, which contradicts the conventional understanding that a higher PBLH facilitates pollutant diffusion (Nair *et al* 2018, Su *et al* 2018, Miao *et al* 2022). The primary reason for this counterintuitive result is that, unlike other pollutants, peak O_3 formation and further concentration typically occur not at the surface, but at altitudes of approximately 0.6–1.0 km above the ground level, as suggested by unmanned aerial vehicle, O_3 LiDAR and model simulations (He *et al* 2020, Liu *et al* 2022, Guo *et al* 2024, Wang *et al* 2024). Consequently, an increased PBLH enhances the downward transport of O_3 from higher altitudes, increasing surface O_3 concentrations (Zhang and Rao 1999, Rappenglück *et al* 2008). However, the diffusion effect also plays a role; if the dilution effect exceeds the transport effect as the PBLH continues to increase, surface O_3 concentrations are ultimately reduced.

In contrast, O_3 concentration showed a significant negative feedback with perturbations in RH. Ambient humidity significantly inhibits O_3 pollution (Tong *et al* 2017, Chen *et al* 2019) through the following pathways: (1) directly scattering incoming solar radiation and indirectly increasing cloud coverage, thereby reducing the amount of O_3 reaching the surface (Noelia *et al* 2021); (2) enhancing the absorption of O_3 by plant leaves (Kavassalis and Murphy 2017, Li *et al* 2021), and (3) promoting the partitioning of NO_2 — and ONO_2 -containing products into the particle phase, thereby contributing to O_3 loss (Jia and Xu 2013).

The sensitivity analysis revealed no significant feedback between O_3 concentrations and perturbations in P (figure S3), despite P being identified as an important factor in both approaches 1 and 2. This lack of feedback was attributed to the inherent negative correlation between P and T , which may induce an extrinsically negative relationship between P and O_3 .

3.3. Meteorological driving factors of the ozone suppression

T , radiation, RH, and PBLH were identified as the key meteorological factors influencing O_3 concentration. Therefore, we analyzed how these factors affect O_3 suppression at high temperatures and compared their impacts between regions with and without O_3 suppression.

Figure 3 illustrates the relationship between RH and O_3 in the BTH, YRD and PRD regions. In all three regions, O_3 concentrations initially remained stable then declined as RH increased (figures 3(a), (d) and (g)). According to Z test calculations (similar to those in section 2.3), O_3 concentrations exhibited a rapid decline once RH exceeded 65%–70% in the YRD and PRD regions. In contrast, O_3 concentrations in the BTH region only significantly declined once RH exceeded 80%, indicating a higher RH threshold. In addition to RH thresholds, we also observed significant regional differences in overall humidity levels and RH variations between high-temperature days (HTDs) (defined as days exceeding the cut-off temperature for cities experiencing O_3 suppression) and non-HTDs (defined as days below the cut-off temperature). In the YRD and PRD regions, the dominant RH values were 75%–80%, which surpassed the threshold for O_3 reduction, and the RH on HTDs was higher than that on non-HTDs (p -value < 0.05). This suggests a significant role of RH in O_3 suppression in these regions. Conversely, the BTH region was generally drier, with RH on most days remaining below the threshold for O_3 decline. Moreover, RH tended to be even lower on HTDs than on non-HTDs, indicating no substantial contribution to O_3 suppression.

We also examined the effects of radiation (figure S4) and PBLH (figure S5) on O_3 suppression at high temperatures across the three regions. The influence of radiation was clear and stable; O_3 concentrations increased linearly with radiation intensity, and were markedly higher on HTDs than on non-HTDs (p -value < 0.05). Thus, radiation promoted O_3 formation in all regions. The relationship between PBLH and O_3 is more complex because it is influenced by both vertical diffusion and transport effects. In general, lower PBLH values were correlated with increased O_3 concentrations due to vertical transport. However, once the PBLH exceeded a specific threshold (calculated by Z tests as: 650 m for BTH, 750 m for YRD, and 600 m for PRD), the response became more region-specific. In the BTH and PRD regions, O_3 concentrations plateaued then declined as PBLH increase, whereas O_3 levels remained stable or increased slightly as PBLH increased in the YRD region. PBLH values were higher on HTDs than on non-HTDs in all regions: $\sim 30\%$ higher in the BTH region and 10%–15% higher in the YRD and PRD regions. As a result, PBLH changes during HTDs

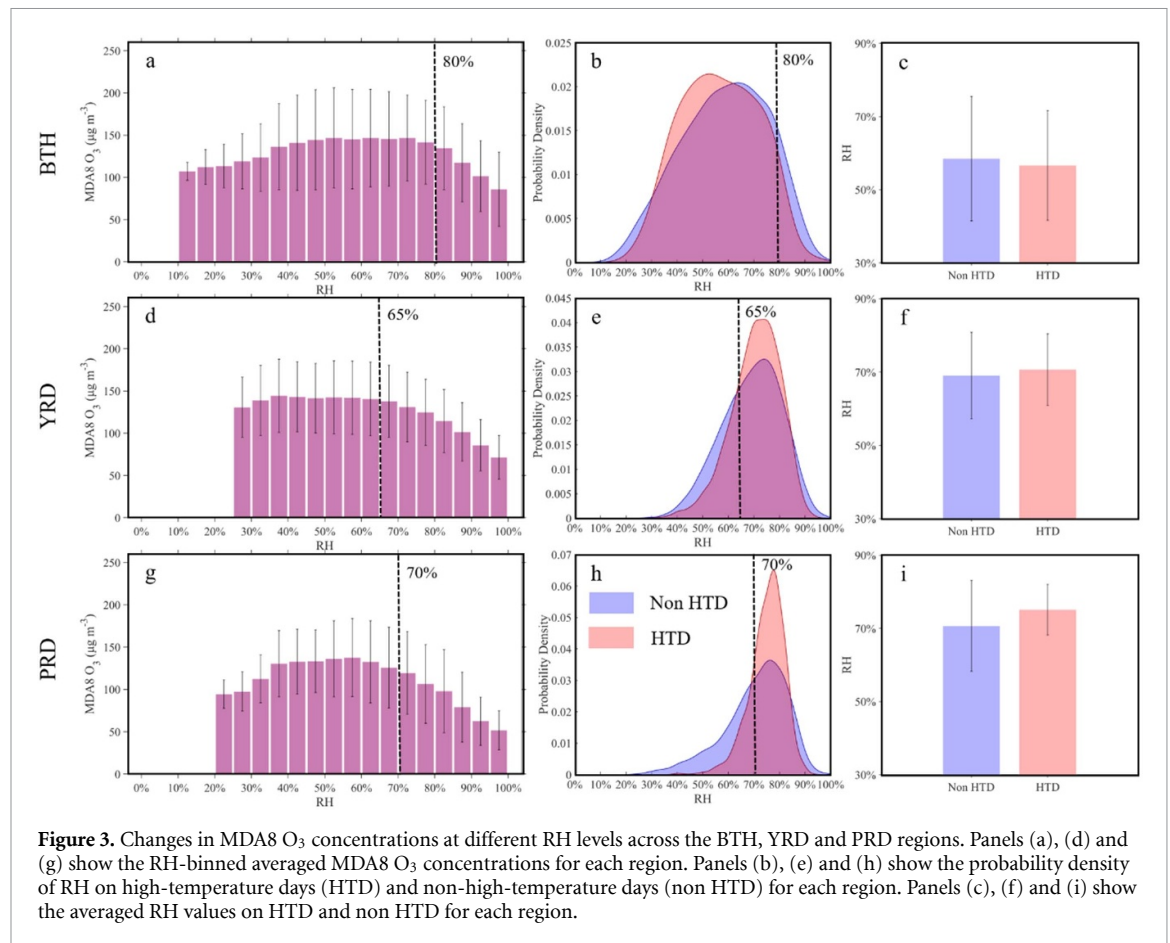


Figure 3. Changes in MDA8 O₃ concentrations at different RH levels across the BTH, YRD and PRD regions. Panels (a), (d) and (g) show the RH-binned averaged MDA8 O₃ concentrations for each region. Panels (b), (e) and (h) show the probability density of RH on high-temperature days (HTD) and non-high-temperature days (non HTD) for each region. Panels (c), (f) and (i) show the averaged RH values on HTD and non HTD for each region.

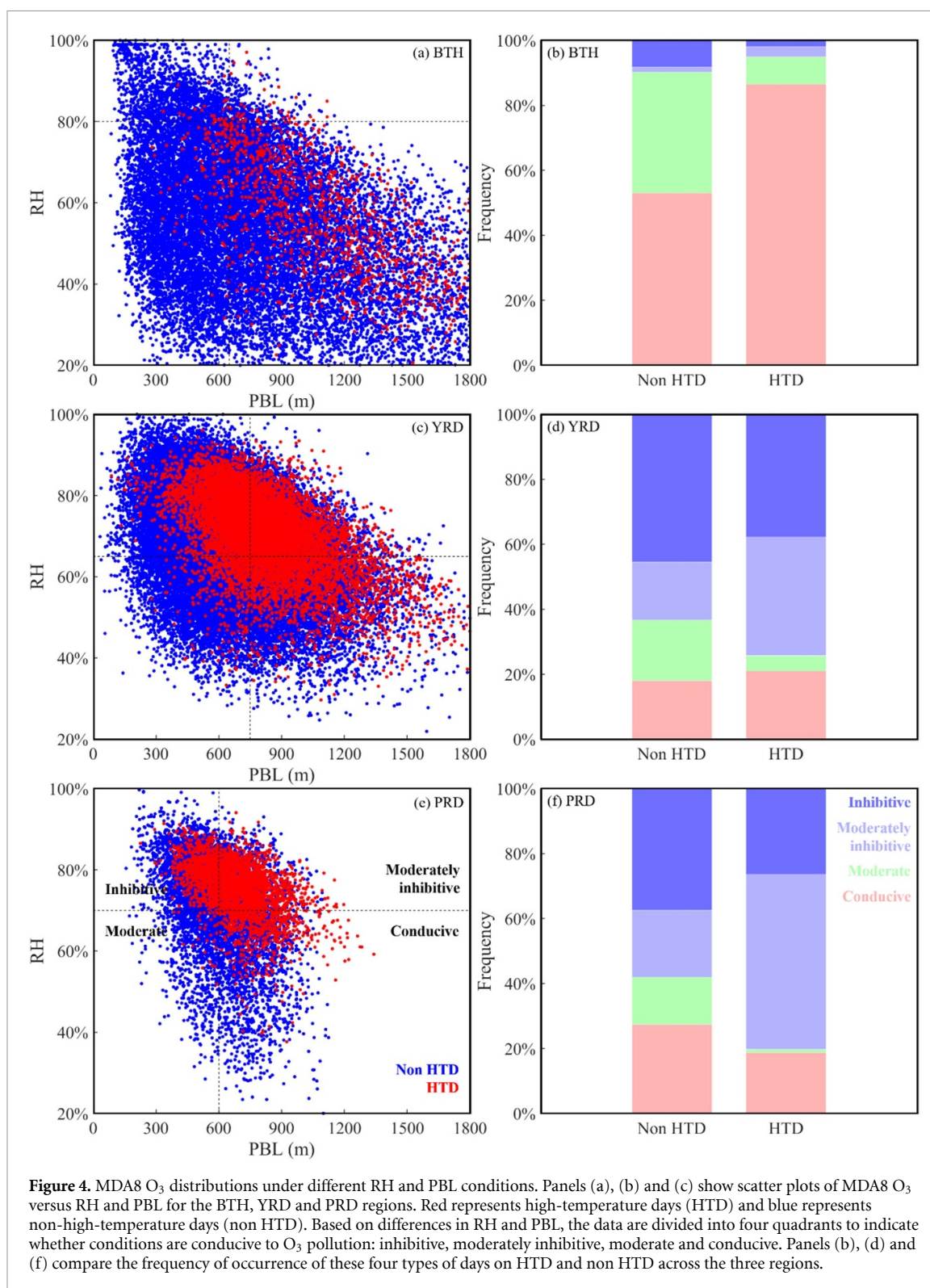
suppressed O₃ in the BTH region, but had relatively minor impacts in the YRD and PRD regions.

Based on the RH and PBLH thresholds determined through Z test, we categorized daily RH and PBLH values into four conditions (figure 4). Low RH combined with high PBLH represents a conducive environment for O₃, whereas high RH and low PBLH represents an inhibitory condition for O₃. Quadrant characterized by high RH and high PBLH exhibits moderate inhibition owing to the weak promotion from effect of PBLH. Quadrant with low RH and low PBLH is considered moderate. In the YRD and PRD regions, the proportion of HTDs with inhibitory and moderately inhibitory conditions was significantly higher (74%–80%) than moderate and conducive conditions (20%–26%). In contrast, the BTH region exhibited a higher proportion of HTDs in moderate and conducive conditions (95%). This discrepancy accounts for the marked O₃ suppression observed in the YRD and PRD regions, which are largely absent in the BTH region.

We also investigated the synoptic mechanisms responsible for differences in meteorological parameters between high-temperature and non-HTDs by conducting a comparative analysis of surface and 500 hPa weather conditions. On HTDs, both the YRD and PRD regions experienced a significant increase

in RH (figure 5), whereas the BTH region and much of northern China show a marked decline (p -value < 0.05 for most regions, figure S6). On HTDs, southwesterly and southerly winds intensified in the YRD and PRD regions, bringing moist air from the East and South China Sea, respectively, thereby increasing local RH. In contrast, HTDs in the BTH region witnessed anticyclonic anomalies at 500 hPa, that often involved sinking airflows. Descending air is compressed, which results in increase temperature and a corresponding decrease in RH. Additionally, strong heatwaves in the PRD region are often associated with the Western Pacific Subtropical High or typhoons. These synoptic systems induce subsiding air masses, enhanced solar radiation, and weak winds, all of which contribute to the accumulation of surface O₃ (Qi *et al* 2024, figure 1(i)).

Hence, we identified RH as the dominant factor accounting for regional differences in O₃ suppression, primarily through the contrasting effects of dry heat (BTH) versus wet heat (YRD and PRD) conditions. PBLH emerged as a secondary influential factor that modulates O₃ concentration through the competitive effects of diffusion and transport processes. The meteorological factors influencing high-temperature O₃ suppression and the distinct regional disparities are visualized in figure 6.



In addition to meteorological factors, chemical factors also play a crucial role in the high-temperature O₃ suppression. Notably, reduced NO_x sequestration by PAN and decreased biogenic isoprene emissions under extremely high-temperature conditions are significant contributors. However, the influence of these chemical factors exhibits high spatial variability

at the city level so is difficult to accurately assess. Nevertheless, we incorporated numerical simulations to briefly compare the relative contributions of meteorological and chemical factors by simulating O₃ in the YRD region from May to June 2018 using the WRF-CMAQ model. Detailed model methods can be found in supplementary text 1. According

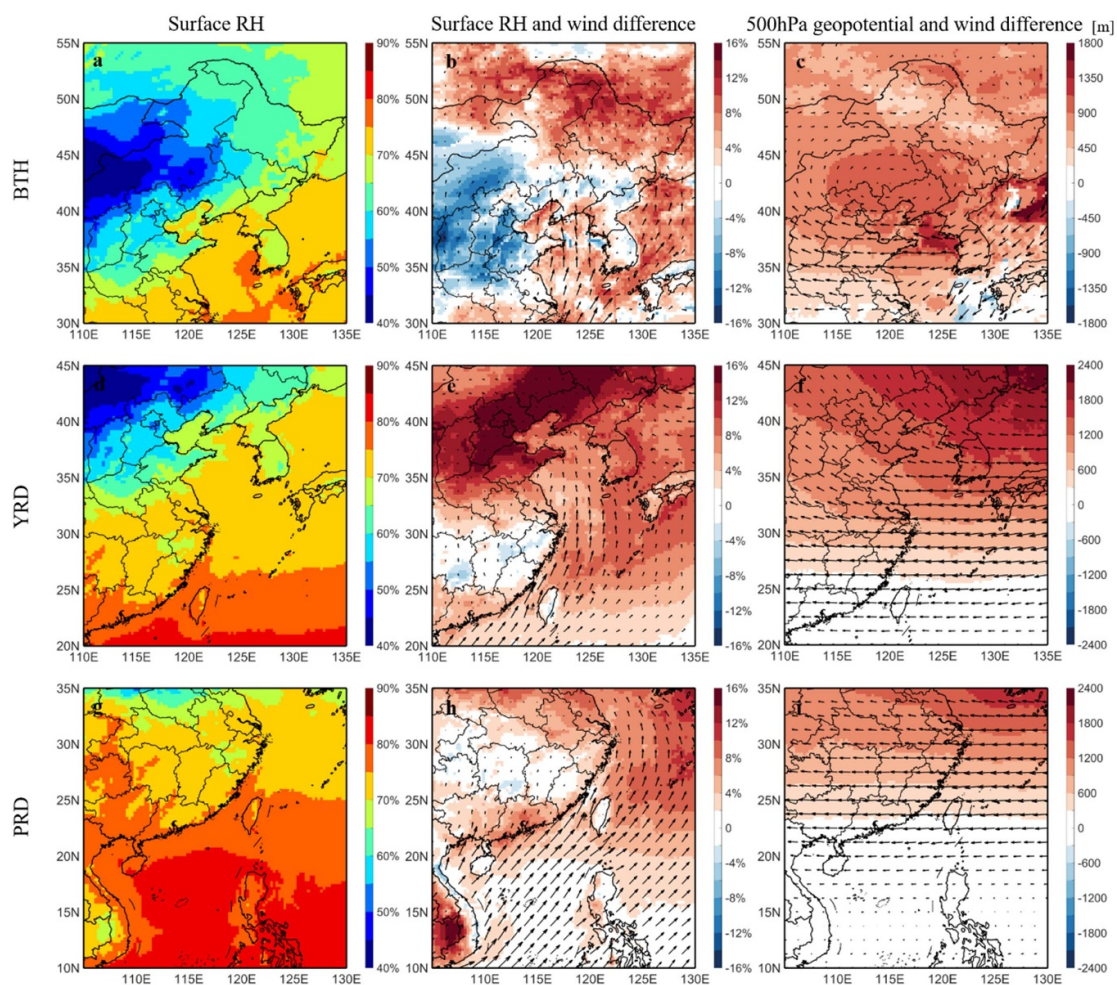


Figure 5. The spatial distributions of RH (a), (d) and (g) and the differences in RH between high-temperature days and non-high-temperature days at the surface (b), (e) and (h) and at 500 hPa (c), (f) and (i) across the BTH, YRD and PRD regions. The overlaid arrows represent the differences in wind patterns.

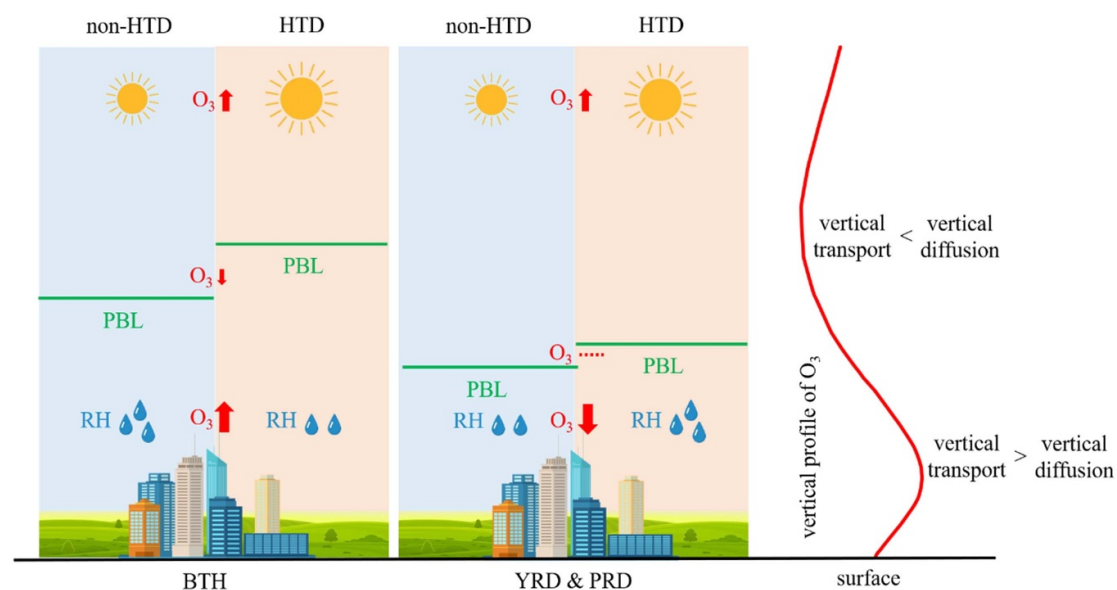


Figure 6. A conceptual scheme for meteorological mechanism of high temperature O_3 suppression in different regions. HTD represents high-temperature days.

to a process analysis of O₃ generation (figure S7), the contribution of horizontal and vertical transport processes (meteorologically driven) to the O₃ formation rate decreased by 1.91 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ hr}^{-1}$ during HTDs, whereas that of chemical processes (jointly influenced by chemistry and meteorology, e.g. radiation) increased by 1.41 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ hr}^{-1}$. Thus, we can infer that meteorological factors demonstrated greater influence on high-temperature O₃ suppression than chemical factors, although precisely quantifying their independent contributions remains challenging.

4. Conclusion and discussions

O₃ concentrations generally increase with increasing temperature and radiation. However, many observational evidences suggest that under extreme high-temperature conditions, O₃ pollution does not continue to rise with temperature but instead tends to plateau or even decline. Understanding the mechanisms underlying O₃ suppression at high temperatures is crucial for effective O₃ pollution control, particularly in the context of ongoing climate warming and increasingly frequent heatwaves.

In this study, we used surface air quality data, meteorological observations, and ERA5 reanalysis data from typical regions of Eastern China (BTH, YRD and PRD) for the period 2016–2020 to explore the attributes of O₃ suppression under high-temperature conditions and the meteorological factors driving this phenomenon in different regions. The results indicated significant high temperature O₃ suppressions in the YRD and PRD regions, with a cut-off temperature of 28.0 °C–34.5 °C. In contrast, high-temperature O₃ suppression was rarely observed in the BTH region, affecting only 4 of the 13 cities, and the cut-off temperature was ~ 4 °C higher than that in the YRD and PRD regions. According to statistical analysis and machine learning model, the key meteorological factors associated with changes in O₃ concentrations in Eastern China were *T*, radiation, RH, and PBLH. Among these, RH was the primary driver of regional differences in O₃ suppression, followed by PBLH. In the YRD and PRD regions, the influence of warm and humid air from the south increased the RH on HTDs relative to non-HTDs, which further contributed to notable high-temperature O₃ suppression in both regions. In contrast, HTDs in the BTH region were often associated with the presence of upper-level anticyclones, which resulted in dry, descending airflows that reduced the RH, thereby increasing O₃ concentrations. Furthermore, joint cluster analysis of RH and PBLH revealed that inhibitory conditions were more common on HTDs (74%–80%) than on non-HTDs (58%–63%) in YRD and PRD regions, whereas conditions that favorable for O₃ accumulation were more common on HTDs (86%) than on non-HTDs (53%) in the BTH region.

Data availability statement

All data that support the findings of this study are included within the article (and any supplementary files).

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Conflict of interest

Conflict of interest the authors declare no competing interests.

Open research

The air quality data used in this study are publicly available at the public website of the MEE of China (<https://air.cnemc.cn:18007/>). The meteorological data used in this study are publicly available at the public website of ECMWF (www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/ecmwf-reanalysis-v5).

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