1	Impacts of the East Asian summer monsoon on interannual variations of					
2	summertime surface-layer ozone concentrations over China					
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25 Abstract

We apply a global three-dimensional Goddard Earth Observing System 26 (GEOS) chemical transport model (GEOS-Chem) driven by the NASA/GEOS-4 27 assimilated meteorological fields to quantify the impacts of the East Asian 28 summer monsoon (EASM) on interannual variations of June-July-August (JJA) 29 surface-layer O₃ concentrations over China. With anthropogenic emissions fixed 30 at year 2005 levels, model simulation for years 1986-2006 shows that the 31 changes in meteorological parameters alone lead to interannual variations in JJA 32 surface-layer O_3 concentrations by 2–5% over central eastern China, 1–3% in 33 northwestern China, and 5–10% over the Tibetan Plateau as well as the border 34 and coastal areas of South China, as the interannual variations are relative to the 35 average O_3 concentrations over the 21-yr period. Over 1986–2006, O_3 36 concentration averaged over the whole China is found to correlate positively with 37 the EASM index with a large correlation coefficient of +0.75, indicating that JJA O₃ 38 concentrations are lower (or higher) in weaker (or stronger) EASM years. Relative 39 to JJA surface-layer O_3 concentrations in the strongest EASM years (1990, 1994, 40 1997, 2002, and 2006), O₃ levels in the weakest EASM years (1988, 1989, 1996, 41 1998, and 2003) are lower over almost whole China with a national mean lower 42 O_3 concentration by 2.0 ppbv (or 4%). Regionally, the largest percentage 43 differences in O₃ concentration between the weakest and strongest EASM years 44 are found to exceed 6% in northeastern China, southwestern China, and over the 45

46	Tibetan Plateau. Sensitivity studies show that the difference in transboundary
47	transport of O_3 is the most dominant factor that leads to lower O_3 concentrations
48	in the weakest EASM years than in the strongest EASM years, which, together
49	with the enhanced vertical convections in the weakest EASM years, explain about
50	80% of the differences in surface-layer O_3 concentrations between the weakest
51	and strongest EASM years. We also find that the impacts the EASM strength on
52	JJA surface-layer O_3 can be particularly strong (comparable in magnitude to the
53	impacts on O_3 by changes in anthropogenic emissions over 1986–2006) for
54	certain years. The largest increases in O_3 by anthropogenic emissions are
55	simulated over southeastern China, whereas the largest impacts of the EASM on
56	O ₃ are found over central and western China.

57 **1** Introduction

Tropospheric O_3 is an air pollutant harmful to human health and ecosystems 58 (Shindell et al., 2012). It is also (after CO₂ and CH₄) the third most important 59 anthropogenic greenhouse gas (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change 60 (IPCC), 2007). High O₃ concentrations have been observed in many Chinese 61 sites, with seasonal mean concentrations of 20-60 ppbv (Tang et al., 1995; Yan 62 et al., 1997, 2003; Cheung and Wang, 2001; Zhu et al., 2004; Gao et al., 2005; 63 Shao et al., 2006; H. Wang et al., 2005; Chou et al., 2006; Ding and Wang, 2006; 64 T. Wang et al., 2006a, 2009; Takami et al., 2006; Tu et al., 2007; Ding et al., 2008; 65 Lin et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2008; Yang et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2008; Y. Wang et 66 al., 2011) and episodic concentrations of exceeding 100 ppbv (T. Wang et al., 67 2006b; Z. Wang et al., 2006; Duan et al., 2008). Concentrations of O₃ are driven 68 by a combination of precursor emissions and the regional meteorological 69 conditions. 70

Meteorological parameters in summer in eastern China vary with the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM). The EASM prevails in May–September every year, with strong southerlies bringing clean, warm, and moist air from the oceans to eastern China and rain belts that stretch for thousands of kilometers in the west–east direction in eastern China (Tao and Chen, 1987; Wang and Ding, 2008). Previous observational and modeling studies have shown that such patterns of winds and precipitation of the EASM influence the seasonal variations

of O_3 in China (Chan et al., 1998; Li et al., 2007; He et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011) 78 and in the west Pacific region (Pochanart et al., 2002; Tanimoto et al., 2005; 79 Yamaji et al., 2006). He et al. (2008) analyzed the seasonal variations of O_3 80 concentrations measured over 2004–2006 and found that O₃ concentrations peak 81 in spring and autumn with a summer trough in central eastern China and the west 82 Pacific, the areas that are influenced by clean air from the southern oceans during 83 the summer monsoon. Studies by Wang et al. (2008), Lin et al. (2009), and Zhao 84 et al. (2010) reported that the increasing clouds associated with the EASM rainfall 85 suppress photochemical production of O_3 by altering solar radiation, which also 86 contribute to the minimum O_3 concentrations in summer. 87

The strength of the EASM exhibits large interannual variations as a result of 88 the interactions between the atmosphere and oceans (Webster et al., 1998). No 89 previous studies, to our knowledge, have systematically examined the impacts of 90 91 the EASM on interannual variations of summertime O_3 in China. Recently, Zhou et al. (2013) analyzed 2000–2010 ozonesonde data from Hong Kong and found a 92 close link between lower tropospheric O₃ and the East Asian monsoon on 93 interannual scales, but their analyses were focused on O_3 in Hong Kong in spring 94 95 and autumn. We present here a study to examine the impacts of the EASM on interannual variations of summertime surface-layer O_3 concentrations over China, 96 based on 1986–2006 simulations of O_3 concentrations using the global chemical 97 transport model GEOS-Chem driven by the assimilated meteorological fields. This 98

work is a companion study to the work of Zhu et al. (2012), which investigated the
 impacts of the EASM on interannual to decadal variations of summertime
 aerosols in China.

The GEOS-Chem model and numerical experiments are described in Sect. 2. Section 3 presents simulated interannual variations of summertime O_3 in China. Section 4 shows simulated impacts of the EASM on interannual variations of summertime O_3 , and Sect. 5 examines the mechanisms through which the EASM influences the interannual variations. Section 6 compares the impacts of changing monsoon strength with those of changing anthropogenic emissions on O_3 concentrations in China.

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110 2 Model description and experimental design

111 2.1 GEOS-Chem model

We simulate tropospheric O_3 using the global chemical transport model 112 113 GEOS-Chem (version 8.2.1, http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos) driven by the assimilated meteorological fields from the Goddard Earth Observing System 114 (GEOS) of the NASA Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO). The 115 version of the model used here has a horizontal resolution of 2° latitude by 2.5° 116 longitude and 30 vertical layers from the surface to 0.01 hPa. The GEOS-Chem 117 model includes a fully coupled treatment of tropospheric O₃-NOx-VOC chemistry 118 and aerosol components. Tropospheric O₃ is simulated with about 80 species and 119 over 300 chemical reactions (Bey et al., 2001). Photolysis rates are computed 120

using the Fast-J algorithm (Wild et al., 2000). The cross-tropopause O_3 flux in this version of GEOS-Chem is specified with the synthetic ozone ("Synoz") method (McLinden et al., 2000) as implemented by Bey et al. (2001), which includes a passive, ozone-like tracer released into the stratosphere at a constant rate equivalent to that of the prescribed cross-tropopause ozone flux of 499 Tg O_3 yr⁻¹.

126 2.2 Emissions

Global emissions of O₃ precursors, aerosol precursors, and aerosols in the 127 GEOS-Chem model follow Park et al. (2003, 2004), but anthropogenic emissions 128 of NO_x, CO, SO₂, and NH₃ over East Asia are overwritten by the emissions 129 inventory of Streets et al. (2003). Global anthropogenic emissions of nonmethane 130 hydrocarbons are from the GEIA inventory (Piccot et al., 1992). Biomass burning 131 emissions are taken from the GFED-2 inventory (van der Werf et al., 2006). These 132 inventories are then scaled for 2005 on the basis of economic data and energy 133 statistics as described by van Donkelaar et al. (2008). The biogenic emissions in 134 the GEOS-Chem model are simulated using the MEGAN module (Guenther et al., 135 2006; Wiedinmyer et al., 2007). Soil NO_x emissions are computed using a 136 modified version of the algorithm proposed by Yienger and Levy (1995). Lightning 137 emissions follow Price and Rind (1992), with the NO_x vertical profile proposed by 138 Pickering et al. (1998). 139

The simulations of tropospheric O₃ by the GEOS-Chem model have been evaluated in previous studies for the United States (Fiore et al., 2005; Wu et al., 2008; H. Wang et al., 2009) and China (Y. Wang et al., 2008, 2011; Jeong and

Park, 2013; Lou et al., 2014). The model was found to be able to capture the magnitude and spatial distribution of O_3 in China.

145 **2.3 Experiments**

In this study concentrations of O_3 in China for years 1986–2006 are simulated using the GEOS-4 meteorological fields. To identify the key processes that influence O_3 concentrations in different monsoon years, we perform the following simulations:

(1) O3_TOT: The standard simulation of O_3 concentrations for years 1986–2006.

Global anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions of NO_x, CO, nonmethane hydrocarbons, aerosols and aerosol precursors are fixed at year 2005 levels. Meteorological fields are allowed to vary over 1986–2006. The cross-tropopause O_3 flux is set to 499 Tg yr⁻¹ using the "Synoz" scheme.

(2) O3_TB: The sensitivity simulation of O₃ concentrations for years 1986–2006
to quantify the role of transboundary transport of O₃ in different monsoon
years. The model setups are the same as those in O3_TOT except that all
natural and anthropogenic emissions in China are turned off.

(3) O3_ST: The sensitivity simulation of O₃ concentrations for years 1986–2006
 to quantify the impact of cross-tropopause O₃ flux on surface-layer O₃
 concentrations. The model setups are the same as those in O3_TOT except
 that natural and anthropogenic emissions are turned off globally.

(4) O3_EMIS: The sensitivity simulations to compare the impacts of changing

anthropogenic emissions with those of changing monsoon strength. Two sensitivity simulations are conducted with 1986 and 2006 anthropogenic emissions, respectively. The emissions in year 1986 are simulated using the default scaling factors in the model (van Donkelaar et al., 2008). Year 2006 meteorological parameters are used to drive both simulations. The cross-tropopause O_3 flux is set to 499 Tg yr⁻¹ using the "Synoz" scheme.

170 2.4 East Asian summer monsoon index

The interannual variations in strength of the EASM are commonly represented by 171 the EASM index (EASMI). The EASMI introduced by Li and Zeng (2002) is used in 172 this study. The formulation for calculating EASMI based on the GEOS-4 173 meteorological parameters was given in Zhu et al. (2012). Positive values of 174 EASMI indicate strong monsoon years whereas negative values indicate weak 175 monsoon years. Physically, a strong summer monsoon in China is characterized 176 by strong southerlies extending from southern China to northern China, a deficit of 177 rainfall in the middle and lower reaches of the Yangtze River, and large rainfall in 178 northern China. On the contrary, in a weak summer monsoon year, China 179 experiences weak southerlies, large rainfall in southern China, and a deficit of 180 rainfall in northern China. The movement of the rain belts is associated with the 181 strength of the southerlies. 182

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3 Simulated interannul variations of summertime O₃ in China

Figure 1a shows the simulated spatial distribution of June-July-August (JJA) 185 surface-layer O_3 concentrations averaged over 1986–2006 from the O_3 TOT 186 simulation. Over eastern China, simulated O₃ concentrations are 50–65 ppbv in 187 northern China and 25–50 ppbv in southern China. Such pattern of higher O₃ 188 concentrations in northern China than in southern China results from that the 189 strong southerlies bring clean air from the oceans to southern China during the 190 summer monsoon season (Chan et al., 1998; Yamaji et al., 2006; Li et al., 2007; 191 He et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). In western China, simulated O_3 exhibits 192 maximum concentrations of 65 ppbv. Our simulated surface-layer concentrations 193 of O_3 are high in both western and eastern China, which agree with the modeling 194 studies of Wang et al. (2011), Jeong and Park (2013), and Lou et al. (2014). The 195 high O3 concentrations in western China are associated with the downward 196 transport of O_3 from the stratosphere to troposphere (Wild and Akimoto, 2001; T. 197 Wang et al. 2006a; Ding and Wang, 2006), and the high O_3 concentrations in 198 eastern China result from anthropogenic emissions (Wang et al., 2011). 199

The interannual variations in simulated JJA O₃ concentrations can be quantified by mean absolute deviation (MAD) and absolute percent departure from the mean (APDM) defined as $MAD = \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left|P_i - \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}P_i\right|$ and APDM = $100\% \times MAD / \left(\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}P_i\right)$, where P_i is the simulated JJA mean O₃ concentration of year *i*, and *n* is the number of years examined (*n*=21 for years 1986–2006). Therefore MAD represents the absolute interannual variation and APDM

represents the interannual variation relative to the average of O₃ concentration 206 over the *n* years. The MAD values of JJA surface-layer O_3 concentrations (Fig. 207 1b) are 1.0–4.0 ppbv in China, with the largest values exceeding 2 ppbv found 208 over northeastern China, coastal areas of South China, and the Tibetan Plateau. 209 As shown in Fig. 1c, the APDM values are in the range of 2–5% over central 210 eastern China where summer monsoon prevails, 1-3% in northwestern China, 211 and 5-10% over the Tibetan Plateau as well as the border and coastal areas of 212 South China. These interannual variations in O_3 are significant as compared to 213 the impacts of reductions in emissions of O_3 precursors. Han et al. (2005) showed 214 by modeling studies that, in eastern China, reductions in NO_x or total VOCs 215 (anthropogenic plus biogenic VOCs) by 50% lead to changes in JJA O_3 216 concentrations by 10-20%. 217

The GEOS-Chem simulations of present-day surface-layer O₃ concentrations 218 in China have been evaluated in Wang et al. (2011) and Lou et al. (2014). Wang 219 et al. (2011) demonstrated that the model captured well the magnitude and 220 seasonal variation of surface-layer concentrations and column burdens of O₃ in 221 China. Lou et al. (2014) reported that the simulated O_3 in China agreed fairly well 222 223 with measurements collected from the literature with an average high bias of 9%. Because of the lack of long-term O_3 measurements in China, we evaluate the 224 simulated interannual variations of JJA surface-layer O₃ concentrations at two 225 sites (Fig. 2): Hok Tsui in Hong Kong (22°13' N, 114°15' E) and Ryori in Japan 226

(39°03'N, 144°82'E). The measurements at Hok Tsui are taken from T. Wang et al. 227 (2009), and those at Ryori site are from the WMO World Data Center for 228 Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG, http:// http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/). At Hok 229 Tsui, simulated O_3 concentrations are higher than the observations in JJA. This 230 discrepancy may due to the model's overestimate of O₃ in marine boundary layers 231 in summer (Liu et al., 2006). Interannually, the model captures well the peaks and 232 troughs of the observed JJA O₃ concentrations, with a high correlation coefficient 233 of +0.87. The model underestimates JJA O₃ concentrations at Ryori, probably due 234 to the uncertainties with local emissions, but captures mostly the years with 235 maximum or minimum O_3 levels with a correlation coefficient of +0.47. The 236 simulated APDM values at Hok Tsui and Ryori are both 7%, smaller than the 237 observed interannual variations of 22% and 8% at these two sites, respectively, 238 which can be attributed to the fixed anthropogenic emissions of O₃ precursors in 239 our O3 TOT simulation. 240

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4 Impacts of the EASM on interannual variations of summertime O₃ in
 China

Simulated JJA surface-layer O_3 concentration averaged over the whole China (defined by the national borders of China) is shown in Fig. 3a for years 1986–2006 based on the O_3 _TOT simulation. Summertime O_3 concentrations show large interannual variations, with high (or low) O_3 concentrations in strong (or weak)

monsoon years. Concentrations of O₃ are found to correlate positively with the 248 EASMI; the correlation coefficient is +0.75 and is statistically significant at the 249 95th percentile. The spatial distribution of the correlation coefficients between the 250 EASMI and O_3 concentrations from the O_3 TOT simulation is presented in Fig. 3b. 251 Positive correlations are found in almost the whole China, and large positive 252 correlation coefficients that exceed +0.5 are found over the region between 90°E 253 and 110°E. Since anthropogenic emissions of O_3 precursors are kept unchanged 254 in the simulation for 1986–2006, these strong positive correlations demonstrate 255 that the EASM strength has large impacts on JJA O_3 concentrations over China. 256 In order to quantify the impacts of the EASM on O₃ concentrations over China, 257 we show in Figs. 4a and 4b, respectively, the absolute and percentage differences 258 between O_3 concentrations averaged over five weakest EASM years (1988, 1989, 259 1996, 1998, and 2003) and those averaged over five strongest EASM years (1990, 260 1994, 1997, 2002, and 2006). These weakest (or strongest) monsoon years are 261 selected within 1986–2006 based on the five largest negative (or positive) values 262 of the normalized EASMI as shown in Fig. 3a. Relative to the concentrations in the 263 strongest monsoon years, O₃ levels in the weakest monsoon years are lower over 264 almost the whole China, with the largest reductions of exceeding 3 ppbv (or 6%) in 265 northeastern and southwestern China and over or near the Tibetan Plateau. 266 Concentrations of O₃ in the weakest monsoon years are simulated to be higher 267 than those in the strongest monsoon years by 3–5 ppbv (or 6–15%) over the East 268

China Sea. The pattern of the differences in O_3 concentrations agrees with the 269 spatial distribution of the correlation coefficients (Fig. 3b). Averaged over China, 270 O_3 level in the weakest monsoon years is lower than that in the strongest 271 monsoon years by 2.0 ppbv (or 4%). Note that the monsoon region covers almost 272 the whole China except for the northwestern China (Gao, 1962; An et al., 2000). 273 Our simulated monsoon-induced changes in O_3 in China (Fig. 4) are mostly within 274 the monsoon region. The changes in O_3 over the Siberia are large, which can be 275 explained by the anomalous northerlies over the north border of China between 276 the five weakest and strongest EASM years (weakest-strongest) (Fig. 5) that 277 transport O_3 to China. 278

Figures 4c and 4d are pressure-longitude plots of the differences in O_3 279 averaged over the latitude range of 20°-46°N. From the surface to 250 hPa 280 altitude, O_3 levels in the weakest monsoon years are lower by up to 5 ppbv (or 8%) 281 over 80°–115°E and are higher by 1–3 ppbv (or 3–6%) over 120°–135°E relative 282 to the concentrations in the strongest monsoon years. Concentrations of O_3 at 283 130-250 hPa altitudes exhibit increases in the weakest monsoon years, with 284 maximum increases of 4–7 ppbv (3–6%) over 80°E and 130°E, as a result of the 285 anomalous horizontal convergence at these layers. 286

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5 Mechanisms of the impacts of the EASM on summertime O₃

5.1 Impacts of the EASM on transboundary transport of O₃

Considering that O₃ concentrations in almost whole China are lower in the 290 weakest monsoon years than in the strongest monsoon years and that 291 tropospheric O_3 has a relatively long lifetime of 3–4 weeks (Seinfeld and Pandis, 292 2006), we examine firstly the impacts of the EASM on transboundary transport of 293 O₃. Figure 5 shows JJA horizontal winds at 850 hPa and 500 hPa averaged over 294 1986–2006 as well as the composite differences in JJA horizontal winds between 295 the five weakest and five strongest EASM years at these two layers. The typical 296 features in winds during the EASM can be seen in Figs. 5a and 5b. The 297 southerlies prevail in southeastern China in the lower and middle troposphere in 298 JJA. Figs. 5c and 5d also present the differences in winds between the weakest 299 and strongest EASM years (weakest minus strongest). In JJA, anomalous 300 southerlies are found in southern China and anomalous westerlies are found in 301 southeastern China, as the winds in the five weakest monsoon years are 302 compared with those in the five strongest monsoon years. Such differences in 303 winds between weak and strong EASM years were also reported in Li and Zeng 304 (2002) and Huang (2004). 305

The differences in winds in different monsoon years lead to differences in transboundary transport of O_3 . We show in Fig. 6 the differences in simulated horizontal mass fluxes of O_3 at the four lateral boundaries of the selected box of (85° -120°E, 20°-46°N, the surface to 250 hPa) and in Table 1 the summary of the composite analysis on fluxes of O_3 in and out of this box, based on simulation

O3 TOT. This box is selected to capture the features of transboundary O_3 311 transport that influence O₃ concentrations in China. The location of the box is 312 shown in Fig. 5d. Relative to the strongest monsoon years, the weakest monsoon 313 years have less inflow by 0.1 Tg season⁻¹ at the west boundary, larger inflow 314 fluxes of O_3 by 4.2 Tg season⁻¹ at the south boundary and by 5.5 Tg season⁻¹ at 315 the north boundary, and larger outflow by 12.9 Tg season⁻¹ at the east boundary 316 (Table 1 and Fig. 6), as mass fluxes are summed over JJA. The net effect is a 317 larger transboundary outflow of O_3 by 3.3 Tg season⁻¹ in the weakest monsoon 318 years than in the strongest monsoon years. The anomalous westerlies in 319 southeastern China are especially important, which bring polluted air with high O_3 320 concentrations to the coastal areas and the East China Sea (Fig. 6d), leading to 321 reductions in O₃ concentration in China. 322

The role of changes in transboundary transport of O₃ can be further quantified 323 by the simulation O3 TB with natural and anthropogenic emissions of O_3 324 precursors in China turned off. The spatial distribution of O₃ from simulation 325 O3 TB (referred to as TBO₃ hereafter) is presented in Fig. 7a. TBO₃ 326 concentrations show a distinct spatial gradient over China, decreasing from about 327 55 ppbv in northwestern China to about 10 ppbv in southeastern China. The JJA 328 TBO₃ concentration averaged over the whole China is 30 ppbv, which is about 62 %329 of the average concentration simulated in O3 TOT, indicating that a significant 330 fraction of surface-layer O₃ over China is from transboundary transport. The 331

differences in TBO₃ concentrations between the weakest and strongest monsoon 332 years (Fig. 7d) are, to a large extent, similar to those from simulation O3 TOT (Fig. 333 4a), in terms of both distributions and magnitudes. Averaged over China, the 334 difference in TBO₃ between the weakest and strongest monsoon years is -1.6 335 ppbv, which accounts for 80% of the corresponding difference obtained in 336 O3 TOT. The JJA mass fluxes of TBO3 for the selected box of (85°-120°E, 20°-337 46°N, the surface to 250hPa) are also similar to those simulated in O3 TOT 338 (Table 1), with a net horizontal outflow of 2.8 Tg season⁻¹. These model results 339 indicate that the differences in transboundary transport of O_3 is a dominant 340 mechanism through which the EASM influences interannual variations of JJA O₃ 341 concentrations in China. 342

5.2 Impacts of the EASM on vertical transport of O₃

Vertical circulations in China have some unique features during the EASM. In 344 summer, two major ascending branches of winds (or strong convections) are 345 observed throughout the entire troposphere (Fig. 8a). One branch is located over 346 the Yangtze River valley, associated with the Mei-yu front (rain belt) of the EASM 347 (Ding and Chan, 2005). The other branch is over the Tibetan Plateau, because 348 the Tibetan Plateau during summer serves as a large heat source, which uplifts 349 heated air to the upper troposphere and even to the stratosphere (Ye, 1981). Fig. 350 8a shows JJA vertical velocity and simulated vertical mass flux of O₃ at 500 hPa 351 averaged over 1986-2006. Since vertical velocity is not available from the 352

reanalyzed GEOS-4 meteorological fields, vertical winds presented here are from the NCEP/NACR reanalysis data. The simulated mass fluxes are obtained in O3_TOT. The largest vertical mass fluxes of O₃ are simulated to occur over northern China and western China where surface-layer O₃ concentrations are high, and to occur over the Tibetan Plateau and its surrounding areas as a result of the strong convections here.

Figure 8b shows the differences in JJA vertical wind velocity and simulated vertical mass flux of O_3 at 500 hPa between the weakest and strongest monsoon years. Relative to the strongest monsoon years, anomalous convections are found over central and western China in the weakest monsoon years, leading to enhanced upward transport of O_3 from the surface to upper troposphere at these locations. The differences in vertical winds shown in Fig. 8b agree with those reported in Huang (2004).

Table 1 also summarizes the composite analysis on vertical fluxes of O_3 366 through the top side of the selected box (85°-120°E, 20°-46°N, the surface to 367 250hPa). In simulation O3 TOT, the upward flux of O_3 through the top plane of 368 the box in the weakest monsoon years is larger than that in the strongest 369 monsoon years by 1.4 Tg season⁻¹. This anomalous vertical outflow of 1.4 Tg 370 season⁻¹ is smaller than the anomalous horizontal transboundary outflow of 3.3 371 Tg season⁻¹ (Section 5.1), indicating that the differences in vertical transport of O_3 372 also contribute to lower JJA O₃ concentrations in China in the weakest monsoon 373 18

years than in the strongest monsoon years, but the impact of the differences in vertical transport is smaller than that of the differences in transboundary transport of O_3 .

377 5.3 Impact of cross-tropopause transport on surface-layer O₃ 378 concentrations

The cross-tropopause transport of O_3 from the stratosphere is an important 379 source of tropospheric O₃. Simulation O₃ ST is performed to quantify the impact 380 of cross-tropopause transport on JJA surface-layer O₃ concentrations. The 381 simulated JJA concentrations of O_3 in simulation O_3 ST (referred to as STO₃) at 382 the surface-layer averaged over 1986–2006 are presented in Fig. 7b. STO₃ 383 shows maximum concentrations of 15-20 ppbv over northwestern China, 384 contributing to the high O₃ concentrations in western China simulated in O3 TOT. 385 Averaged over China, the surface-layer concentration of JJA STO₃ is 8 ppbv, 386 which is about 17% of that of JJA O₃ simulated in O3 TOT. Concentrations of 387 STO_3 increase with altitude; the ratio of STO_3 to O_3 simulated in O3 TOT is about 388 50% at 200 hPa and about 80% at 100 hPa. Figure 7e shows the differences in 389 surface-layer STO₃ concentrations between the weakest and strongest monsoon 390 vears. 391 Relative to the strongest monsoon years, surface-layer STO₃ concentrations are lower by 1–2 ppby over central China and the Tibetan Plateau 392 in the weakest monsoon years. Averaged over China, the difference in STO₃ 393 between the weakest and strongest monsoon years is -0.45 ppbv, which only 394

accounts for 23% of the corresponding difference in TOTO₃ and hence indicates 395 that the variations in O_3 transported from the stratosphere in different monsoon 396 years are not the major factors that drive the interannual variations of JJA 397 surface-layer O_3 concentrations in China. Note that the cross-tropopause O_3 flux 398 in O3 TOT and O3 ST is specified with the synthetic ozone ("Synoz") method 399 (McLinden et al., 2000) with a constant cross-tropopause ozone flux of 499 Tg O_3 400 yr⁻¹. The latest version of the GEOS-Chem model also has an option of using the 401 linearized ozone ("Linoz") parameterization scheme of McLinden et al. (2000) to 402 represent O_3 in the stratosphere, in which the ozone vertical profiles across the 403 tropopause are relaxed back toward climatological profiles and hence 404 cross-tropopause O₃ flux varies with time step and location. We have tested using 405 "Linoz" instead of "Synoz" and found that these two schemes obtain same 406 conclusion about the impact of cross-tropopause O₃ on JJA surface-layer O₃ in 407 China. 408

409 5.4 Impacts of the EASM on local chemical production of O₃

The differences in O_3 concentrations between O_3 _TOT and O_3 _TB simulations are attributed to the enhancement of O_3 due to Chinese emissions, referred to as Chinese local O_3 (LOCO₃). Figure 7c shows that high concentrations of LOCO₃ are located in eastern China where the emissions of O_3 precursors are large. The maximum LOCO₃ concentrations reach 40–45 ppbv. The LOCO₃ concentration averaged over the whole China is 18 ppbv, which is about 38% of the value

simulated in O3 TOT. Figure 7f presents the differences in simulated LOCO₃ 416 between the weakest and strongest EASM years. Relative to the strongest 417 monsoon years, LOCO₃ concentrations in the weakest monsoon years are lower 418 by 2–5 ppbv over southern China and slightly higher by up to 1 ppbv over central 419 China. Averaged over China, the difference in LOCO₃ between the weakest and 420 strongest monsoon years is -0.4 ppbv, which accounts for 20% of the 421 corresponding difference in TOTO₃ and hence reflects the small impacts of 422 monsoon strength on local chemical production of O₃. 423

The small impacts of monsoon strength on local chemical production of O_3 can be further justified by examining the net chemical production of O_3 within the selected box (85° -120°E, 20°-46°N, the surface to 250hPa). Sum over the selected box, the net chemical production (chemical production – chemical loss) averaged over the weakest monsoon years is 39.0 Tg season⁻¹ in JJA, which is smaller than that averaged over the strongest monsoon years by 0.5%.

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431 6 Comparison of the impact of monsoon strength with the role of
432 changing emissions

We perform simulations O₃_EMIS to compare the impact of changing monsoon strength (Section 4) with that of changing anthropogenic emissions on JJA O₃ concentrations. Two sensitivity simulations are conducted with 1986 and 2006 anthropogenic emissions, respectively, and year 2006 meteorological parameters are used to drive both simulations. Relative to 1986, year 2006 emissions of NO_x,

CO, and NMVOCs in China increase by 111%, 56%, and 9%, respectively, 438 leading to increases in JJA surface-layer O₃ by 9–15 ppbv in southeastern China 439 (Fig. 9). Note the locations of large increases in O_3 here are different from those of 440 large differences in O_3 between the weakest and strongest monsoon years (Fig. 441 4b). Averaged over China, the change in JJA surface-layer O_3 concentration 442 owing to changes in emissions over 1986–2006 is +5.3 ppbv, which is larger than 443 the difference in JJA surface-layer O₃ of 2.0 ppbv between the selected weakest 444 and strongest monsoon years. However, the difference in surface-layer O_3 445 between the weak monsoon year 1998 and the strong monsoon year 1997 is -4.2 446 ppbv, indicating that the impacts of the EASM on JJA O_3 can be particularly strong 447 for certain years. 448

449

450 **7 Conclusions**

We examine the impacts of the East Asian summer monsoon (EASM) on 451 interannual variations of summertime surface-layer O₃ concentrations over China 452 using the GEOS-Chem model driven by the assimilated GEOS-4 meteorological 453 data. The interannual variations of O₃ concentrations are quantified by values of 454 mean absolute deviation (MAD) and absolute percent departure from the mean 455 (APDM), based on the simulation of O_3 for years 1986–2006 with changes in 456 457 meteorological parameters but fixed anthropogenic emissions at year 2005 levels. The MAD values of JJA surface-layer O_3 concentrations in China are in the range 458 of 1.0-4.0 ppbv, with the largest values exceeding 2 ppbv found over 459 460 northeastern China, coastal areas of South China, and the Tibetan Plateau. The

APDM values of JJA surface-layer O_3 concentrations are 2–5% over central eastern China, 1–3% in northwestern China, and 5–10% over the Tibetan Plateau as well as the border and coastal areas of South China.

With fixed anthropogenic emissions, simulated JJA O_3 concentrations 464 averaged over China exhibit strong positive correlation (with a correlation 465 coefficient of +0.75) with the East Asian summer monsoon index (EASMI) in the 466 time period of 1986–2006, indicating that JJA O₃ concentrations are lower (or 467 higher) in weaker (or stronger) EASM years. Relative to JJA surface-layer O₃ 468 concentrations in the strongest EASM years (1990, 1994, 1997, 2002, and 2006), 469 O₃ levels in the weakest EASM years (1988, 1989, 1996, 1998, and 2003) are 470 lower over almost whole China with the national mean O₃ concentration lower by 471 2.0 ppbv (or 4%). 472

Sensitivity studies are performed to identify the key processes through which 473 the variations in EASM strength influence interannual variations of JJA O₃ in 474 China. The difference in transboundary transport of O_3 is found to be the most 475 dominant factor that leads to lower O₃ concentrations in the weakest EASM years 476 477 than in the strongest EASM years. Relative to the strongest EASM years, the weakest EASM years have less inflow by 0.11 Tg season⁻¹ at the west boundary, 478 larger inflow fluxes of O_3 by 4.2 Tg season⁻¹ at the south boundary and by 5.5 Tg 479 season⁻¹ at the north boundary, and larger outflow by 12.9 Tg season⁻¹ at the east 480 boundary, as horizontal mass fluxes of O₃ at the four lateral boundaries of the 481 selected box (85°-120°E, 20°-46°N, the surface to 250 hPa) are calculated. As a 482

result, the weakest EASM years have larger outflow of O₃ than the strongest
EASM years, which, together with the enhanced vertical convections in the
weakest EASM years, explain about 80% of the differences in surface-layer O₃
concentrations between the weakest and strongest EASM years.

We also perform a sensitivity simulation O₃ EMIS to compare the impact of 487 changing monsoon strength with that of changing anthropogenic emissions on 488 JJA O_3 concentrations. Averaged over China, the change in JJA surface-layer O_3 489 concentration owing to changes in emissions over 1986–2006 is +5.3 ppbv, which 490 is larger than the difference in JJA surface-layer O_3 of 2.0 ppbv between the 491 selected weakest and strongest monsoon years. However, the difference in 492 surface-layer O₃ between the weak monsoon year 1998 and the strong monsoon 493 year 1997 is -4.2 ppby, indicating that the impacts of the EASM on JJA O₃ can be 494 particularly strong for certain years. Note that while the largest increases in O_3 by 495 anthropogenic emissions are located over southeastern China, the largest 496 impacts of EASM on O₃ are found over central and western China. 497

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Table 1. The composite analyses of horizontal and vertical fluxes of O_3 (Tg 763 season⁻¹) for the selected box of $(85^{\circ}-120^{\circ}E, 20^{\circ}-46^{\circ}N)$, the surface to 250 hPa) 764 based on simulations O3 TOT and O3 TB. The values are averaged over the five 765 weakest (1988, 1989, 1996, 1998, and 2003) and five strongest monsoon years 766 (1990, 1994, 1997, 2002, and 2006), and the differences are calculated as 767 (weakest-strongest). For horizontal fluxes, positive values indicate eastward or 768 northward transport and negative values indicate westward or southward 769 transport. For vertical fluxes, positive values indicate upward transport. 770

Side of the	O3_TOT			O3_TB			
selected box	Weakest	Strongest	Difference	Weakest	Strongest	Difference	
Horizontal mass fluxes							
West	+83.7	+83.8	-0.1	+78.8	+78.9	-0.1	
East	+106.5	+93.5	+12.9	+84.1	+73.1	+11.0	
South	+13.4	+9.2	+4.2	+13.8	+10.5	+3.3	
North	-19.3	-13.7	-5.5	-20.0	-15.0	-5.0	
Vertical mass fluxes							
Тор	+22.1	+20.7	+1.4	+16.5	+15.5	+1.0	

- 772 Figure Captions
- 773

Fig. 1. (a) Simulated JJA surface-layer O_3 concentrations (ppbv) that are averaged over years 1986–2006 of simulation O3_TOT. (b) Mean absolute deviation (MAD, ppbv) and (c) absolute percent departure from the mean (APDM, %) calculated with 1986–2006 simulation of O_3 in O3_TOT.

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Fig. 2. Comparisons of observed and simulated JJA mean surface-layer O₃ concentrations at Hok Tsui (22°13' N, 114°15' E) in Hong Kong (left) and Ryori (39°03'N, 144°82'E) in Japan (right). Correlation coefficient between simulations and observations is shown at top right corner of each panel, which is calculated over the time period with observations available.

784

Fig. 3. (a) The normalized time series of EASMI (blue bars, left y-axis) and the simulated JJA surface-layer O_3 concentrations (black line, right y-axis, ppbv) averaged over China for years of 1986–2006. (b) Spatial distribution of the correlation coefficients between the EASMI and the JJA surface-layer O_3 concentrations. The dotted areas indicate statistical significance with 95% confidence from a two-tailed Student's t-test. The EASMI are calculated using the GEOS-4 assimilated meteorological data.

792

Fig. 4. Horizontal distributions of (a) absolute and (b) percentage differences in JJA surface-layer O₃ concentrations between the five weakest and strongest EASM years (weakest–strongest). Pressure-longitude cross sections averaged over 20°–46°N for (c) absolute and (d) percentage differences in JJA O₃ concentrations between the five weakest and strongest EASM years (weakest– strongest). Results are from simulation O3_TOT and unit is shown on top of each panel.

800

Fig. 5. The JJA mean horizontal winds at (a) 850 hPa and (b) 500 hPa averaged
over 1986–2006. The composite differences in horizontal winds between the five
weakest and strongest EASM years (weakest–strongest) at (c) 850 hPa and (d)
500 hPa. Horizontal winds are from the GEOS-4 assimilated meteorological data.
Unit is shown on top of each panel. The location of box (85°–120°E, 20°–46°N,
the surface to 250 hPa) selected to capture the features of transboundary O₃
transport is also shown in (d).

808

Fig. 6. The composite differences in horizontal O_3 fluxes (shades, kg s⁻¹) and winds (contours, m s⁻¹) at (a) south, (b) north, (c) west, and (d) east boundaries of the selected box of (85°–120°E, 20°–46°N, the surface to 250 hPa) between the five weakest and strongest EASM years (weakest–strongest). Fluxes and winds that are eastward or northward are positive, and those that are westward and southward are negative. Mass fluxes are from simulation O3_TOT. Longitudinal and meridional winds are from the GEOS-4 assimilated meteorological data.

816

Fig. 7. The JJA surface-layer O₃ concentrations (ppbv) from (a) simulation O3_TB (referred to as TBO₃), (b) simulation O3_ST (referred to as STO₃), and (c) simulation O3_TOT minus simulation O3_TB (referred to as LOCO₃). Panels (a), (b), and (c) are the averages over 1986–2006. Panels (d), (e), and (f) are the composite differences (ppbv) in TBO₃, STO₃, and LOCO₃, respectively, between the five weakest and strongest EASM years (weakest–strongest).

823

Fig. 8. (a) The spatial distributions of JJA mean vertical wind velocity (contours, Pa s⁻¹*1000) and simulated upward mass flux of O₃ (shades, kg s⁻¹) averaged over 1986–2006. (b) The composite differences in vertical wind (contours, Pa s⁻¹*1000) and simulated upward mass flux of O₃ (shades, kg s⁻¹) between the five weakest and strongest EASM years (weakest–strongest). Vertical winds are from the NCEP/NACR reanalysis data.

830

Fig. 9. The changes in simulated JJA surface-layer O₃ concentrations (ppbv) owing to the changes in anthropogenic emissions of O₃ precursors over 1986– 2006, based on simulations of O3_EMIS.

834



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881

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(a) OMEGA & O3 vertical mass flux at 500 hPa

900 901

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