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# Variations of Surface Ozone at leodo Ocean Research Station in the East China Sea and influence of Asian Outflows

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24 **Abstract**

25 Ieodo Ocean Research Station (IORS), a research tower (~40 m a.s.l.) for atmospheric and  
26 oceanographic observations, is located in the East China Sea (32.0°N, 125.10°E). The IORS  
27 is almost equidistant from South Korea, China, and Japan and, therefore, it is an ideal place to  
28 observe Asian outflows without local emission effects. The seasonal variation of ozone was  
29 distinct, with a minimum in August (37 ppbv) and two peaks in April and October (62 ppbv),  
30 and was largely affected by seasonal wind pattern over East Asia. At IORS, six types of air  
31 masses were distinguished with different levels of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations by the cluster analysis of  
32 backward trajectories. Marine air masses from the Pacific Ocean represent a relatively clean  
33 background air with a lowest ozone level of 32 ppbv, which was most frequently observed in  
34 summer (July ~ August). In spring (March~April) and winter (December ~ February), the  
35 influence of Chinese outflows was dominant with higher ozone concentrations of 62 ppbv and  
36 49 ppbv, respectively. This study confirms that the influence of Chinese outflows was the  
37 main factor determining O<sub>3</sub> levels at IORS, of which extent was dependent on meteorological  
38 state, particularly at a long-term scale.

39

## 40 1. Introduction

41 Ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and its photochemical derivative, OH, are primary oxidants and key players  
42 determining oxidation capacity within the troposphere (e.g., Berchet et al., 2013; Seinfeld and  
43 Pandis, 2006). A short-lived greenhouse gas, O<sub>3</sub> also affects climate change and air quality  
44 (e.g., Berchet et al., 2013; Brasseur et al., 1999; IPCC 2013; Jacobson, 2012). Exposure to  
45 high O<sub>3</sub> levels is known to increase human mortality rates (Bell and Dominici, 2008; Chang et  
46 al., 2010), reduce agricultural yields, and damage natural ecosystems (e.g., Bell et al., 2011;  
47 Karnosky et al., 2007; Schaub et al., 2005; Wang and Mauzerall, 2004). [Tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> is](#)  
48 [primarily transported from the stratosphere upon tropopause folding and produced by \*in situ\*](#)  
49 [photochemical reactions involving carbon monoxide \(CO\) and hydrocarbons in the presence](#)  
50 [of nitrogen oxides \(NO<sub>x</sub>\) \(Brasseur et al., 1999\). Ozone is also lost by photochemical](#)  
51 [reactions and deposition to the Earth's surface.](#) As a result, the lifetime of O<sub>3</sub> ranges from  
52 about a week in summer to several months in winter, which permits O<sub>3</sub>, along with other  
53 pollutants, to be transported over long distances. In previous studies, ozone levels were  
54 observed to be enhanced episodically in polluted air masses from continental outflow in  
55 remote regions of the North Atlantic and North Pacific Oceans (e.g., Fischer et al., 2011; Lin  
56 et al., 2012; Parrish et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2008).

57 Particularly, East Asia has experienced a rapid development in economy and industry, from  
58 which emissions of O<sub>3</sub> precursors such as NO<sub>x</sub> and VOCs have gradually increased (Huang et  
59 al., 2013; Monks et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2013) and the emission of O<sub>3</sub> and its precursors in  
60 East Asia is expected to increase further in the near future (Zhao et al., 2013; Ohara et al.,  
61 2007). As a result, the study region became a hot spot for high O<sub>3</sub> and intensive measurements  
62 have been performed there to chart O<sub>3</sub> and the effects it has in conjunction with climate  
63 change. Over the North Pacific Ocean, ozone has been measured on remote islands (Kato et  
64 al., 2001; Parrish et al., 2012; Tanimoto et al., 2009; Wada et al., 2011), from ships (Ridder et

65 al., 2012; Watanabe et al., 2005) and by aircraft (Dupont et al., 2012; Kotchenruther et al.,  
66 2001; Walker et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2008).

67 The impact of continental outflow upon the background  $O_3$  is substantial in Northeast Asia  
68 (Akimoto et al., 1996; Kondo et al., 2008; Tanimoto et al., 2008; Wada et al., 2011; Yamaji et  
69 al., 2006). This impact has similarly been detected near the western U.S (Fischer et al., 2011;  
70 Lin et al., 2012; Parrish et al., 2009). Walker et al. (2010) estimated that Asian anthropogenic  
71 outflow and lightning-derived  $NO_x$  emissions contributed at least 7.2 ppbv and 3.5 ppbv to  $O_3$   
72 concentration, respectively, in the North Pacific Ocean and western North America. In  
73 addition, Zhang et al. (2008) assessed that  $O_3$  in western North America was increased by  
74 Asian outflow 5-7 ppbv during spring 2006. The results of these studies indicate  $O_3$   
75 concentrations in the North Pacific-rim are regularly affected by Asian outflow. Therefore, it  
76 is critical to understand the impact of continental outflows from East Asia on  $O_3$  and  
77 oxidizing power over the North Pacific Ocean. Since IORS is located in the East China Sea  
78 (32.07°N, 125.10°E) (Fig. 1) and almost equidistant from nearby South Korea, China, and  
79 Japan, it is an ideal place to observe Asian outflows without local effects (Hwang et al., 2008;  
80 Shin et al., 2007). In this study, we present long-term measurements of  $O_3$  at IORS, located in  
81 the boundary zone between the Yellow and East China Sea. Then, we describe their  
82 characteristic variations and evaluate the continental influence on the regional background  
83 concentrations of  $O_3$ .

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## 85 **2. Methodology**

86 Jeodo Ocean Research Station is an unmanned research tower (~40 m a.s.l.) for  
87 atmospheric and oceanographic observations. It was built on rock 36 m below sea level by the  
88 Korea Institute of Ocean Science and Technology (KIOST) in 2003 (Moon et al., 2010; Shim  
89 et al., 2004).  $O_3$  has been measured at IORS since June 2003. In addition, meteorological

90 parameters have been monitored, which include air pressure, air temperature, relative  
91 humidity, wind speed and direction, and visibility. O<sub>3</sub> was measured by an UV photometric  
92 analyzer (49C, Thermo Inc., U.S.A.) using the absorption of UV radiation at 253.7 nm by O<sub>3</sub>  
93 molecules. The analyzer was installed in a dry lab of the main deck, which is 29 m above sea  
94 level. Ambient air was pulled underneath the main deck through a 7 m PFA tubing (6 mm-  
95 OD). The detection limit of the instrument was 1.0 ppbv. Calibration was done about once  
96 every two months with an internal ozonator. In addition, the ozone analyzer was inter-  
97 compared with an identical instrument, which was calibrated against the Primary Standard.  
98 The two instruments were run side-by-side using a common inlet. The correlation coefficient  
99 of the two measurements was 0.99 in the range between 10 and 90 ppbv and ambient  
100 measurements were scaled using the relationship between the two.

101 The data logger stored 10-min averages. There were power failures and system malfunction  
102 at IORS when it was hit by typhoon several times. Thus, raw data were first filtered manually  
103 and then the measurements bigger and smaller than 2 $\sigma$  (standard deviation) of the average for  
104 10 neighboring values were eliminated. This method is widely used to remove local effects  
105 for long-term period measurement (Cvitaš et al., 2004). Statistical analysis was conducted  
106 using R (v.3.0.1) (R Core Team, 2014).

107 Backward trajectories arriving at 100 and 1500 m a.s.l. were calculated for 40 h every 00,  
108 06, 12, and 24 UTC (03, 09, 18, and 21 local time) using the NOAA Air Resources  
109 Laboratory (ARL) Hybrid Single-Particle Lagrangian Integrated Trajectory (HYSPLIT)  
110 model (version 4) (Draxler and Rolph, 2003, <http://www.arl.noaa.gov/ready/hysplit4.html>) with  
111 NCEP Final Analyses (FNL) six-hourly archived data. Isentropic trajectory was selected as it  
112 was believed to reflect a more realistic vertical motion for an adiabatic atmosphere. Forty  
113 hours were selected because it was long enough to capture regional transport patterns in the

114 northwestern Pacific and short enough to keep trajectory errors. The results for 100 and 1500  
115 m showed no meaningful differences and so the following discussion will be based on 1500 m.  
116

### 117 **3. Ozone variations**

118 The mean concentration of 10 min O<sub>3</sub> measurements was 52 ppbv with a maximum of 128  
119 ppbv. The variation of monthly means is presented for eight years, from June 2003 to  
120 December 2010 (Fig. 2), during which O<sub>3</sub> increased ~2.8% year<sup>-1</sup> until 2009 and slightly  
121 decreased afterwards. The long-term trend of O<sub>3</sub> at IORS is consistent with recent findings of  
122 slowdown in the increase of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations observed in Japanese background stations at  
123 Mt. Happo and others (Parrish et al., 2012). This hemispheric baseline likely affects O<sub>3</sub>  
124 distributions at IORS. Additionally, the vertical column density of tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> was  
125 reported to be decreased over East Asia in 2009, as observed by satellites GOME-2 and  
126 SCIAMACHY (Itahashi et al., 2014). In the same context, emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> sharply  
127 increased in East Asia after 2000 mostly from China, but then slowed down in 2009  
128 (Tanimoto et al., 2009; Zhao et al., 2013). Gu et al. (2013) pointed out that the stagnation of  
129 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in 2009 were associated with an economic recession in China.

130 The O<sub>3</sub> concentrations of IORS were compared with those of other remote sites in East  
131 Asia and the North Pacific for the same period: Gosan in Korea (National Institute of  
132 Environmental Research) and Ryori, Yonagunijima, and Minamitorishima in Japan (World  
133 Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG), <http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/>) (Fig. 1).  
134 The diurnal and seasonal variations of eight-year averaged O<sub>3</sub> are presented here in Fig. 3.  
135 The averaged O<sub>3</sub> concentrations of IORS, Gosan, Ryori, Yonagunijima, and Minamitorishima  
136 were 52, 39, 40, 39, and 27 ppbv, respectively. In these remote sites, the level of averaged O<sub>3</sub>  
137 concentrations decreased with increased distance from China. At IORS, O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios  
138 show the minimum at 9 a.m. and reached to the broad maximum at 5 p.m. The daytime build-

139 up of O<sub>3</sub> was 5 ppbv, which was much smaller than that in urban areas, but implied in-situ  
140 photochemical production for O<sub>3</sub> in the marine boundary layer of the remote site (Fig. 3a).  
141 While diurnal patterns of O<sub>3</sub> concentration stayed unchanged through seasons, their  
142 background concentrations were clearly different with being the highest in spring and the  
143 lowest in summer monsoon season. The daytime build-up of O<sub>3</sub> at Gosan in southern island of  
144 Korea and Ryori, located at the northeasterly edge of Japan, were 8 ppbv and 6 ppbv,  
145 respectively, significantly greater than 2 ppbv at Yonagunijima (Fig. 3b). Among the five sites,  
146 O<sub>3</sub> concentration was reduced in the afternoon only at Minamitorishima, implying O<sub>3</sub>  
147 destruction. Considering O<sub>3</sub> loss is generally observed under low NO<sub>x</sub> conditions in the  
148 remote marine boundary layer (MBL) (Ayers et al. 1996), these variations indicate that IORS  
149 including other remote sites in East Asia were influenced by continental outflows. In the study  
150 region, the high concentration of O<sub>3</sub> was reported to be attributed to transport of ozone or its  
151 precursors mainly from China (Tanimoto et al., 2008).

152 At IORS, the monthly averaged O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were the highest in April and October  
153 (62 ppbv) and lowest in August (37 ppbv) (Fig. 3c). The O<sub>3</sub> concentrations remained high  
154 during March ~ May, resulting in a broad spring peak which was in contrast to a sharp fall  
155 peak. This is in accordance with a typical pattern that has been observed in other remote sites  
156 over Northeast Asia during the past decades (Chan et al., 2002; Jaffe et al., 1996; Kanaya et  
157 al., 2015; Kondo et al., 2008; Oltmans and Levy II, 1994; Tanimoto et al., 2005; Tanimoto et  
158 al., 2009; Watanabe et al., 2005; Weiss-Penzias et al., 2004). In particular, the second peak of  
159 O<sub>3</sub> was the most noticeable at IORS along with Gosan in October, of which tendency was  
160 observed in previous studies (Kanaya et al., 2015; Tanimoto et al. 2005). It is also noteworthy  
161 that outlier levels were the highest and the maximum concentration (128 ppbv) was observed  
162 in July (Fig. 4a). In summer, the study region is under influence of Asian monsoon system  
163 which brings moist air from the Pacific Ocean. Meteorological parameters including relative

164 humidity, wind speed, and visibility indicate a clear shift in air mass from pre-monsoon to  
165 monsoon season (Fig. 4b). At IORS, O<sub>3</sub> concentration was noticeably decreased during  
166 summer, even though temperature was high. Likewise, the O<sub>3</sub> level of Gosan was reduced  
167 down to the minimum in summer, when the levels of precursors were the lowest with heavy  
168 rainfall. To examine seasonal characteristics of O<sub>3</sub> distributions, all measured species were  
169 divided into five seasons: March–April, May–June (pre-monsoon period), July–August,  
170 September–November, and December–February. The seasonal wind patterns are presented in  
171 Figure 5.

172 All O<sub>3</sub> measurements showed bimodal distribution, with a little shoulder on the larger peak  
173 (Fig. 6a). In seasonal distributions, the smaller peak (25 ppbv) was the main mode of summer  
174 monsoon season. As shown in Figure 5, southerly winds were dominant during July–August  
175 (82%) under the influence of North Pacific High. This pattern reveals that the decrease in O<sub>3</sub>  
176 was associated with the aged marine air masses brought by the North Pacific High or tropical  
177 cyclones (Fig. 5c). In addition to aged air masses, precipitation had scavenged O<sub>3</sub> precursors,  
178 possibly leading to lowered O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (Hou et al., 2015). It was also observed that O<sub>3</sub>  
179 was decreased in Beijing and Shanghai during the summer monsoon season (Safieddine et al.,  
180 2013). In May–June, the mode concentration was the highest at 65 ppbv with the least  
181 frequency (Fig. 6c). It is a transition period from continental air mass to oceanic air mass and,  
182 as a result, the stagnant conditions which had developed under high temperature without  
183 prevailing wind (Fig. 5b), led to elevated O<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The mode concentration was the  
184 second highest (59 ppbv) in spring, which is characterized by the most effective transport of  
185 Chinese outflow by the passage of frontal system (Hou et al., 2014; Kondo et al., 2008; Lim et  
186 al., 2012). The mode frequency was the greatest in winter, which was due to prevailing  
187 northerly winds accounting for ~87% of that period. The main mode of winter and fall, and  
188 the second mode of summer monsoon season displayed similar concentrations, which



189 comprised the primary mode of O<sub>3</sub> distributions observed at IORS. O<sub>3</sub> levels are known to  
190 exhibit lower variability at remote sites and rural areas (McKendry et al., 2014; Oltmans and  
191 [Levy II, 1994](#)). However, the results of this study challenge those of previous studies. O<sub>3</sub>  
192 concentrations of IORS were highly dependent on air masses, upon which anthropogenic  
193 influence was in a wide variation. This finding emphasizes the significant role of continental  
194 outflows in determining O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the Northeast Asian region.

195

## 196 **4. Source signatures of O<sub>3</sub>**

### 197 **4.1. Cluster analysis of air mass trajectories**

198

199 Trajectories were divided into several groups using an agglomerative and hierarchical  
200 clustering algorithm with an average linkage function. Average linkage minimizes the within-  
201 cluster variance while maximizing between-cluster variance and has been identified as an  
202 effective method for categorizing different synoptic situations (Kalkstein et al., 1987). Within  
203 a cluster, the root mean square deviation (RMSD) of each trajectory from the cluster center  
204 was quantified and then summed to give the total root mean square deviation (TRMSD) (Cape  
205 et al., 2000). As a result, six trajectories were identified. The cluster analysis was performed  
206 using the Openair package in R (Carslaw and Ropkins, 2012, 2014). The distance matrix was  
207 calculated by the Euclidean distance.

208 The averaged backward trajectories of each cluster are presented in a map (Fig. 7). Among  
209 the six clusters, W was the most dominant (23.0 %), followed by NW1 (19.9 %), N (17.9 %),  
210 SE (16.6 %), SW (13.4 %), and NW2 (9.2 %). The average O<sub>3</sub> concentration was the highest  
211 for N (60 ppbv) and lowest for SE (40 ppbv). For the four clusters of continental air masses,  
212 the mean O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were similar to the mean (52 ppbv) of the entire measurement set.

213 In contrast, the marine air masses of SE and SW were characterized by low O<sub>3</sub> concentrations,  
214 particularly during summer (32 ppbv).

215

#### 216 **4.2. Source signature by CWT (Concentration Weighted Trajectory) analysis**

217 The CWT (Concentration Weighted Trajectory) method was employed to figure out the  
218 potential source of O<sub>3</sub> observed at IORS. The concentration of O<sub>3</sub> for each grid-cell was  
219 calculated using the following equation (Carslaw, 2013):

$$220 \quad \ln(\bar{C}_{ij}) = \frac{1}{\sum_{l=1}^N \tau_{ijl}} \sum_{l=1}^N \ln(c_l) \tau_{ijl} \quad (1)$$

221 where,  $i$  and  $j$  indicate the indices of grid,  $N$  shows the entire number of backward trajectories,  
222  $l$  represents the index of trajectory,  $c_l$  signifies the concentration of O<sub>3</sub> observed upon arrival  
223 of trajectory  $l$ , and  $\tau_{ijl}$  is the residence time of trajectory  $l$  in the grid-cell  $(i, j)$  (Carslaw, 2013;  
224 Cheng et al., 2013). In Fig. 8, the average O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were presented over each grid-  
225 cell. The O<sub>3</sub> concentration was notably higher for NW1 when air mass passed through the  
226 Beijing region. The trajectory of NW2 was similar to that of NW1 except for vertical  
227 movement, which is typical for air masses laden with Asian dusts (e.g., Kang et al., 2013).

228 Because the trajectory length is inversely proportional to the residence time of air in a grid-  
229 cell, the clusters N and W represent stagnant conditions, which was favorable for O<sub>3</sub> to build  
230 up. These two trajectories were constantly observed through the year with relatively less  
231 seasonal variation at IORS (Fig. 9b). Although the air masses of SW and SE originated from  
232 the Pacific Ocean, they were likely to pick urban emissions up when passing through the  
233 Southeastern China and South Japan, respectively. The result of CWT analysis confirms that  
234 the outflows from nearby lands were the source of O<sub>3</sub> observed at IORS, of which the Chinese  
235 influence was the most dominant.

236

### 237 4.3. Influence of Asian continental outflows

238 For all clusters, the monthly variations of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were compared (Fig. 9a). In  
239 general, six clusters were similar in their annual pattern of O<sub>3</sub>, with higher concentrations in  
240 spring and fall and lower concentrations in summer. In contrast, for NW1, which passes  
241 through the Beijing metro area, O<sub>3</sub> concentrations stayed high over 60 ppbv during July–  
242 August without considerable decrease (Fig. 9a). Although the summer concentrations in SE  
243 were low, below 30 ppbv, in spring and fall the O<sub>3</sub> concentration were high and comparable to  
244 those of NW1.

245 The influence of Chinese outflows, represented by NW1, NW2, and W, was highest in  
246 winter, with a maximum occurrence (86%) in December. The study region is under influence  
247 of Asian monsoon and is characterized by winds southerly in summer and northerly in winter.  
248 The occurrence of maritime air, SE and SW, was the most frequent in summer monsoon  
249 season. The westerlies prevalent in this region are coupled with the steady occurrence of W  
250 through the year, implying a constant influence of Chinese outflows. The cluster N was  
251 commonly observed before and after summer monsoon season, during which a stagnant  
252 condition often developed under the influence of migratory anticyclone systems. It used to  
253 park over the Yellow Sea, accumulating pollutants from nearby lands including China, Japan  
254 as well as Korea. In fact, the high concentrations of O<sub>3</sub> turned out to be associated with air  
255 trajectories from Chinese coastal regions. The model results of Zhao et al. (2009) also showed  
256 that the high concentration of O<sub>3</sub> can be expanded under a high pressure system in East Asia.

257 The annual variation of each cluster was examined (Fig. 10a). As the O<sub>3</sub> measurement  
258 began in June 2003, the measurements of 2003 were not included in this analysis. The yearly  
259 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations increased from 49 ppbv in 2004 to 55 ppbv in 2009 and then decreased to  
260 49 ppbv in 2010 (Fig. 2). This pattern was not reflected in NW1 and NW2, for which annual  
261 means were the highest in 2004 and lowest in 2010. Marine air masses, including SE and SW,

262 showed the most visible change during this period. Particularly, their annual frequencies  
263 increased in 2010, while those of clusters W, N, NW1 decreased (Fig. 10b). These results  
264 imply that marine air masses were likely to play a significant role in decreasing O<sub>3</sub>  
265 concentration in 2010. The causes underlying increased occurrence of marine air masses  
266 needs to be further investigated. These results suggest that a decrease in O<sub>3</sub> concentrations  
267 after 2009 was not only associated with the decrease in NO<sub>x</sub> emission from China, but also a  
268 change in meteorological state in the study region.

269 Considering that Chinese influence is implicit in N and SW, Chinese emission was the  
270 predominant factor determining the concentrations of O<sub>3</sub> at IORS. The impact of Korean and  
271 Japanese emissions were incorporated in N and SE, apparent in spring and fall, respectively.

272

## 273 **5. Conclusion**

274 Surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were determined at Jeodo Ocean Research Station (IORS) in the  
275 East China Sea (32.07N, 125.10°E) from June 2003 to December 2010. The IORS is a 40 m  
276 research tower roughly equidistant from Korean, Chinese, and Japanese shores. The average  
277 concentration of O<sub>3</sub> for the entire period was of  $52 \pm 16$  ppbv. It is higher than those of remote  
278 sites in the Northeast Asia and implies the steady influence of continental outflows.  
279 Particularly, the seasonal differences were prominent, with **two peaks in April and October**  
280 **(62 ppbv) and a minimum in August (37 ppbv)**, which are greatly dependent on synoptic scale  
281 circulation of the atmosphere which, except for summer, expedites effective transport of  
282 Asian outflows into the Northwest Pacific region. The diurnal variation of O<sub>3</sub> showed a broad  
283 maximum in late afternoon, resulting in 5 ppbv of daytime build-up.

284 The cluster analysis of backward trajectories identified the six air masses affecting O<sub>3</sub>  
285 concentrations at IORS. Among the six, four types of air masses originated from Asian  
286 continents, carrying their outflows (NW1, NW2, W, and N) and the other two were aged

287 marine air from the Pacific Ocean (SE, SW). The O<sub>3</sub> concentration of these continental and  
288 marine air masses was the maximum (62 ppbv) in spring and minimum (32 ppbv) in summer,  
289 respectively. Particularly, the three clusters of NW1, NW2, and W, coming directly from  
290 mainland China, comprised 53% of all air masses which arrived at IORS, their contribution  
291 increasing up to ~86% in winter. The clusters N and W were the most frequent under stagnant  
292 condition before and after summer monsoon. In summer, the occurrence of marine air reached  
293 the maximum (~74%). These results confirm that Chinese emissions were the dominant  
294 source of O<sub>3</sub> observed at IORS.

295 The annual O<sub>3</sub> concentrations increased until 2009, and then slightly decreased in 2010,  
296 which is in good accordance with NO<sub>x</sub> observed in East Asia, where a slowdown of NO<sub>x</sub>  
297 emission occurred in 2009 as a result of economic recession in China. In addition, the cluster  
298 analysis of air masses highlighted the increased contribution of marine air masses also played  
299 a role in decreasing mean concentration of O<sub>3</sub> in 2010.

300

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529 **Figure Captions**

530

531 Figure 1. Geographical locations of (a) Jeodo Ocean Research Station and (b) Gosan, Korea,  
532 and (c) Ryori, (d) Yonagunijima, and (e) Minamitorishima, Japan.

533 Figure 2. Monthly mean O<sub>3</sub> concentrations at IORS, from June 2003 to December 2010, with  
534 smoothed trend (thick line) and estimated 95% confidence interval (gray shade).

535 Figure 3. Comparison of diurnal and seasonal variations of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations at remote sites  
536 in the Northwest Pacific region including IORS, Gosan, Yonagunijima, Ryori, and  
537 Minamitorishima. All data were averaged for 8 years (2003–2010) and seasons  
538 were divided into spring (May–April), dry summer (May–June), wet summer (July–  
539 August), fall (September–November), and winter (December–February). a) diurnal  
540 variations of O<sub>3</sub> at IORS in different seasons, b) diurnal variations of O<sub>3</sub> at five sites,  
541 and b) monthly variations of O<sub>3</sub> at five sites.

542 Figure 4. a) Monthly variations of O<sub>3</sub> presented with median, interquartile range (IRQ),  
543 1.5IRQ, and outliers and b) monthly distributions of temperature, relative humidity,  
544 wind speed, and visibility at IORS.

545 Figure 5. The left panel for contour maps presenting NCEP/NCAR reanalysis wind speed in  
546 color and wind vector at 850 mb in East Asia from 2004 to 2010 and the right panel  
547 for windroses measured at IORS during (a) March–April, (b) May–June, (c) July–  
548 August, (d) September–November, and (e) December–February.

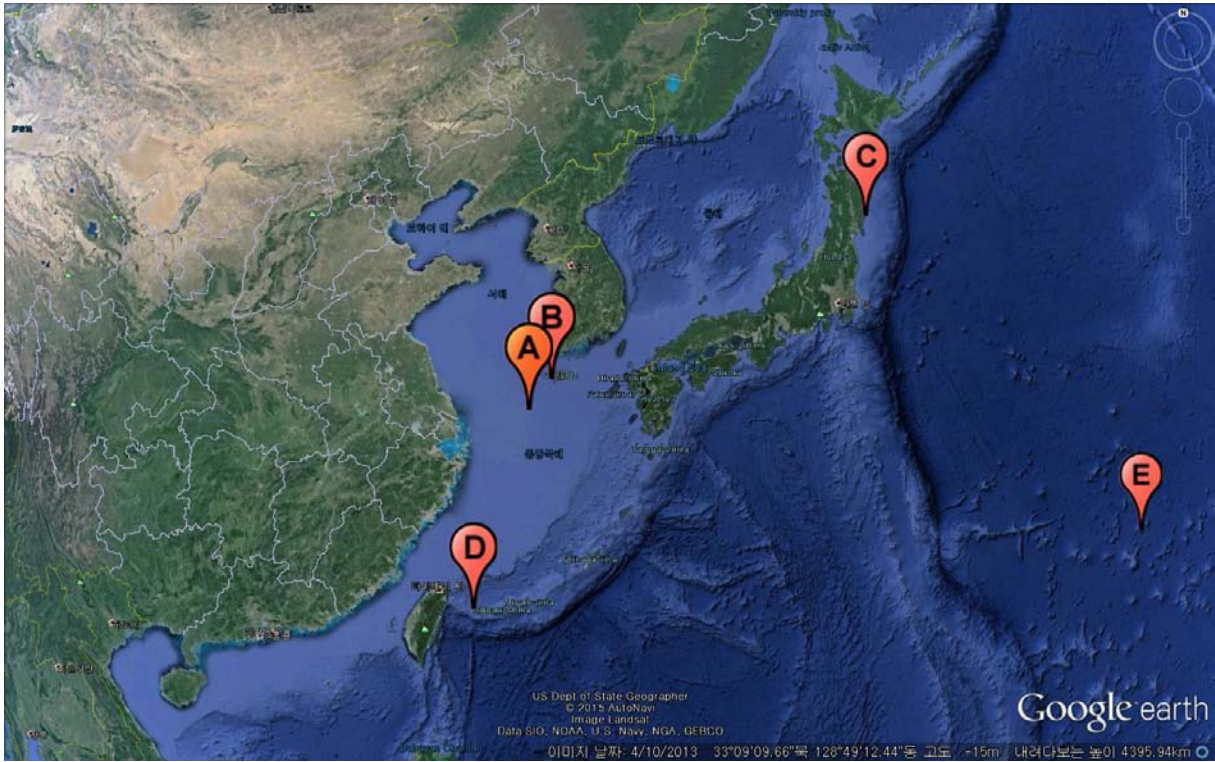
549 Figure 6. Frequency distributions of 10 min averaged O<sub>3</sub> concentrations at IORS for a) all data,  
550 b) spring, c) dry summer, d) wet summer, e) fall, and f) winter with mode  
551 concentrations given.

552 Figure 7. Mean trajectories of air masses classified into 6 groups. Air masses of 1500 altitude  
553 were traced backward for 40 h.

554 Figure 8. Concentration Weighted Trajectory (CWT) analysis of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (ppbv).

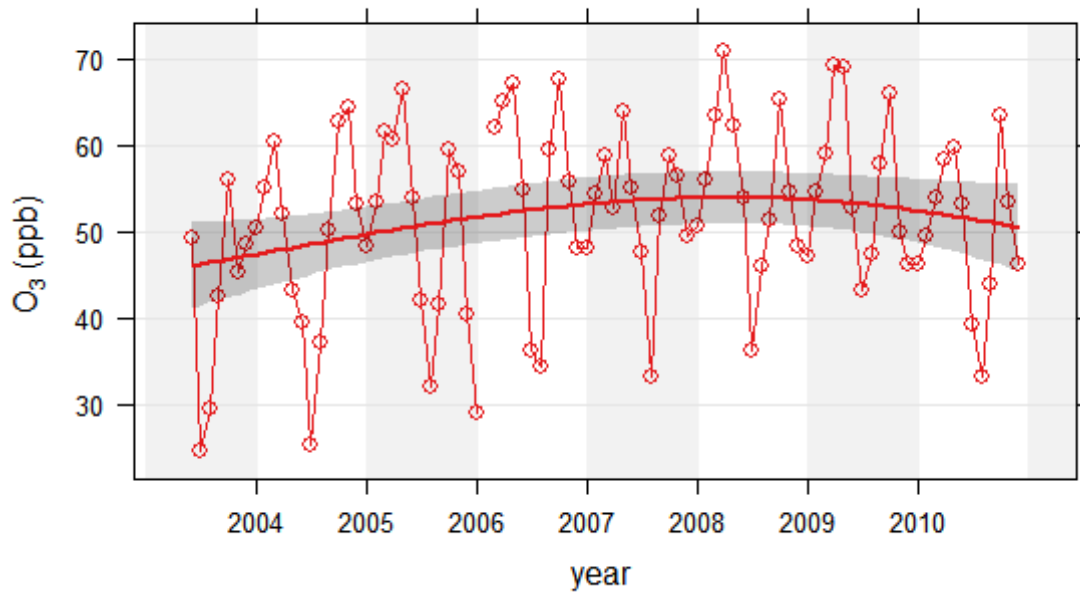
555 Figure 9. Monthly variations of a) O<sub>3</sub> concentrations of six clusters and b) their monthly  
556 frequency.

557 Figure 10. Annual variations of a) O<sub>3</sub> concentrations for six clusters, b) their frequency.



558

559 Figure 1. Geographical locations of (a) Ieodo Ocean Research Station and (b) Gosan, Korea,  
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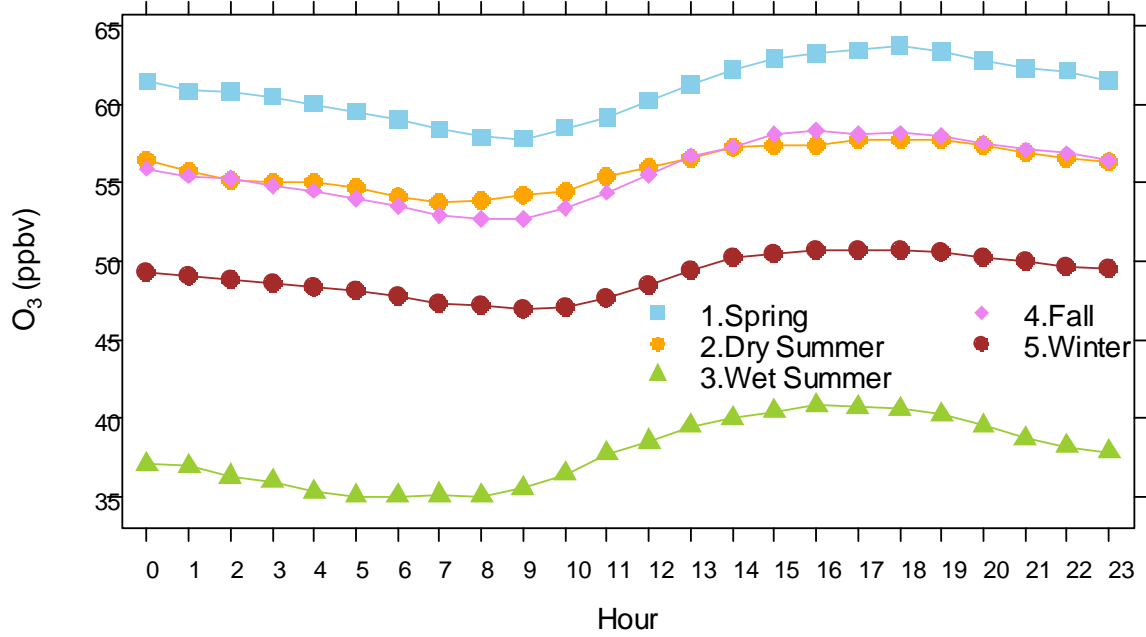


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562 Figure 2. Monthly mean O<sub>3</sub> concentrations at IORS, from June 2003 to December 2010, with  
 563 smoothed trend (thick line) and estimated 95% confidence interval (gray shade).

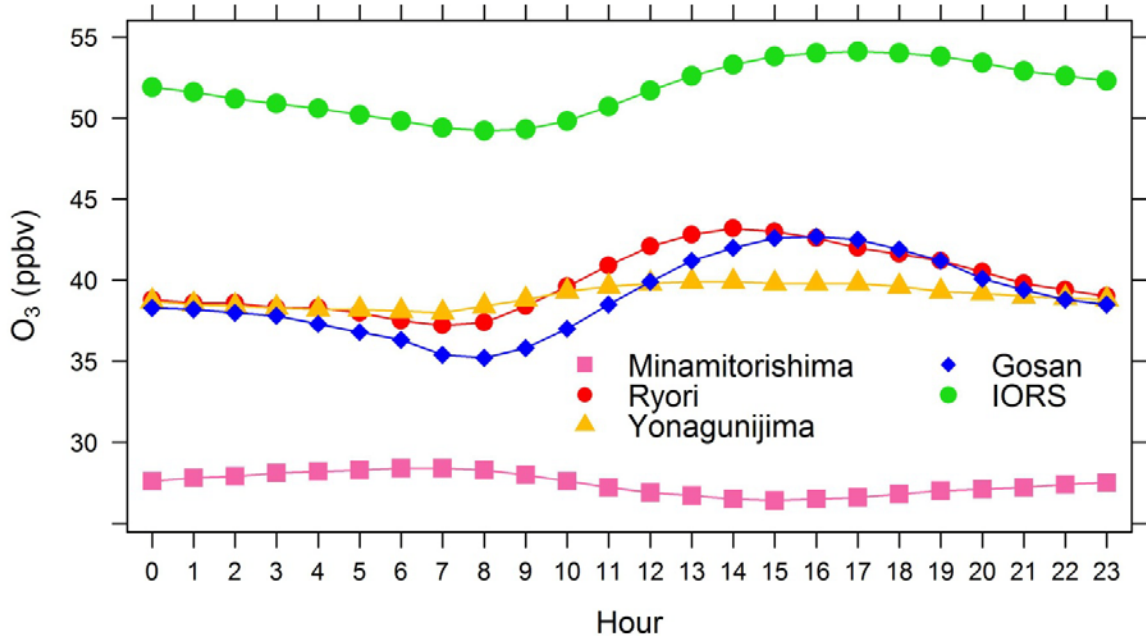


564 a)



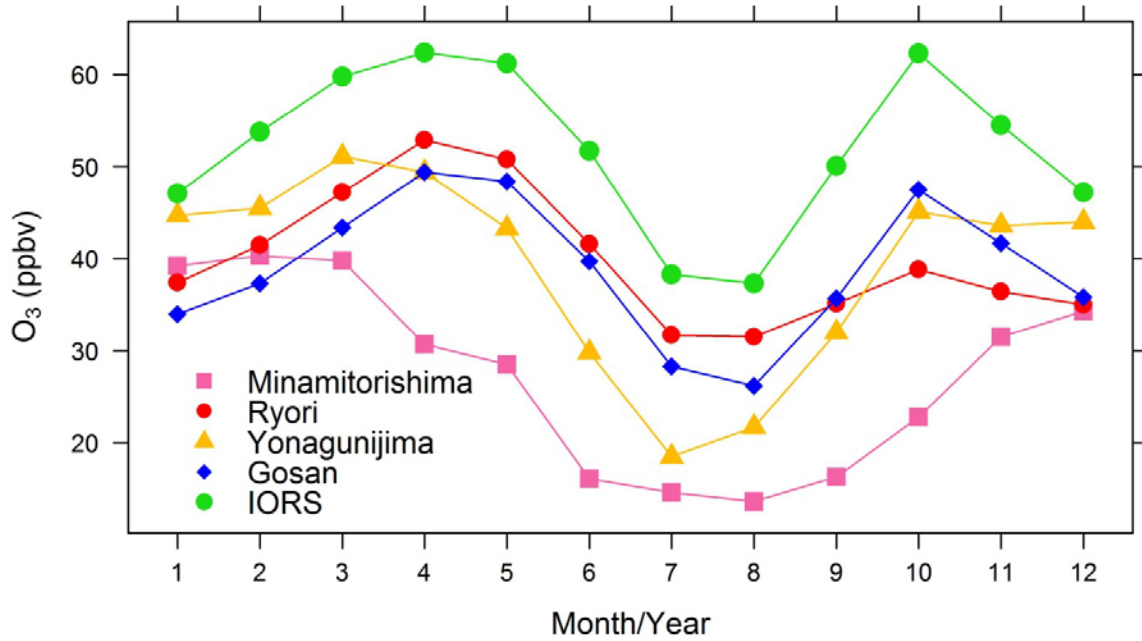
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566 b)



567

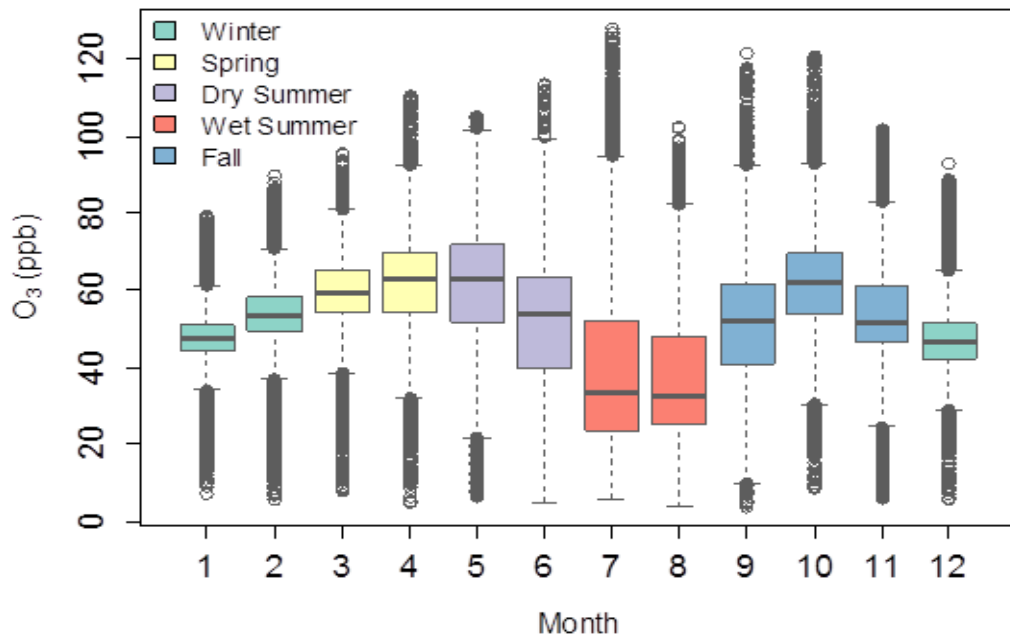
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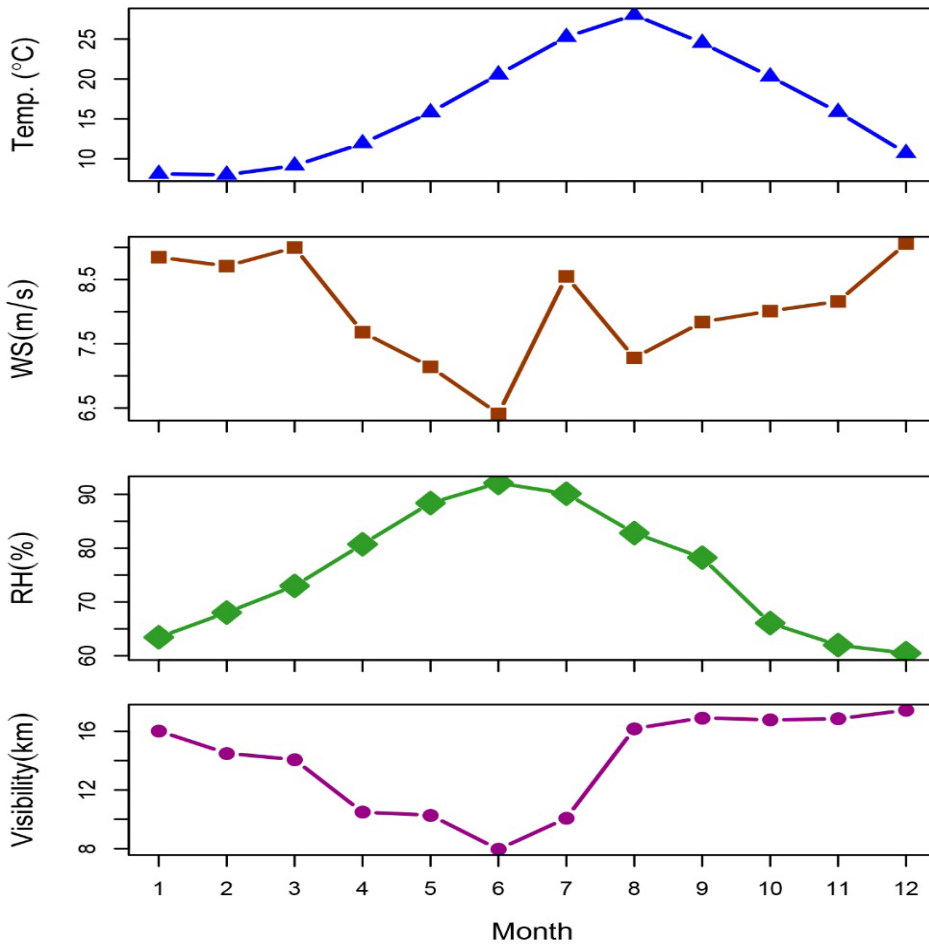
571 Figure 3. Comparison of diurnal and seasonal variations of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations at remote sites  
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578 a)



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580 b)



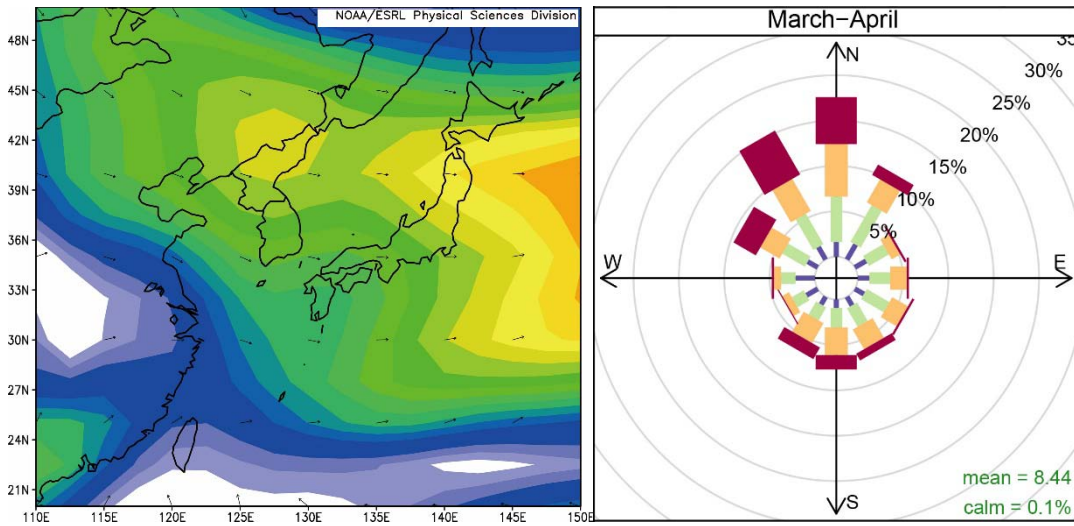
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582 Figure 4. a) Monthly variations of O<sub>3</sub> presented with median, interquartile range (IQR),  
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584 wind speed, and visibility at IORS.

585

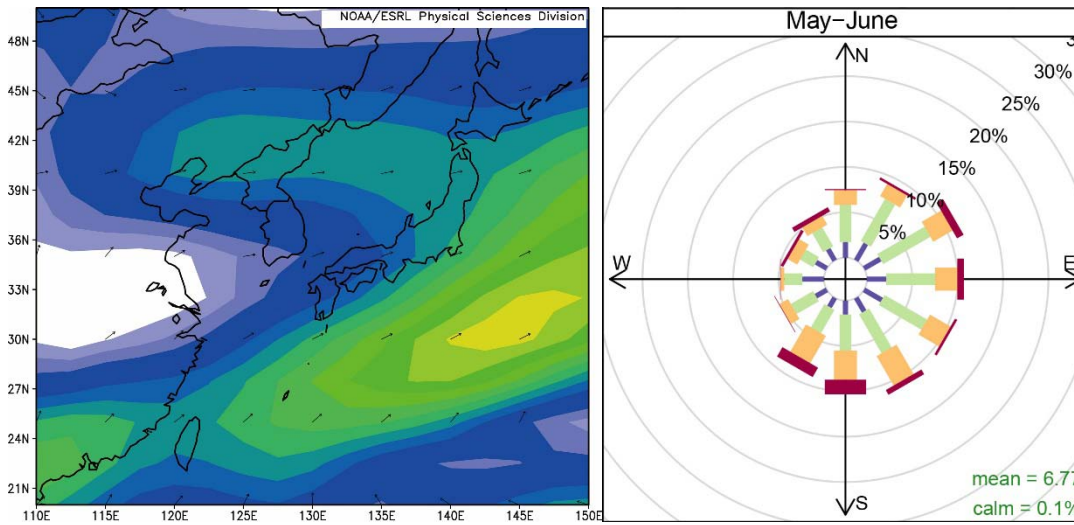
586

587 (a)



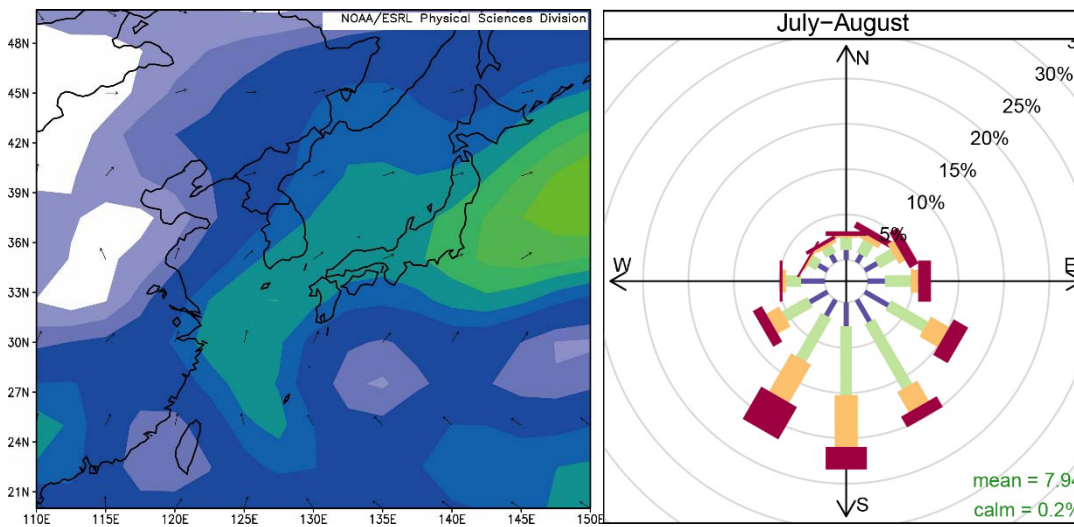
588

589 (b)



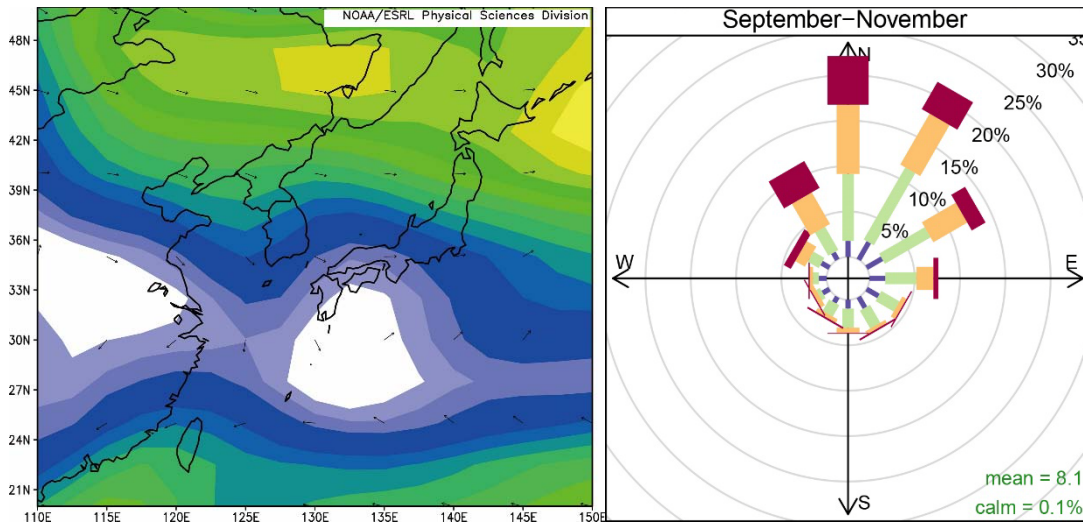
590

591 (c)



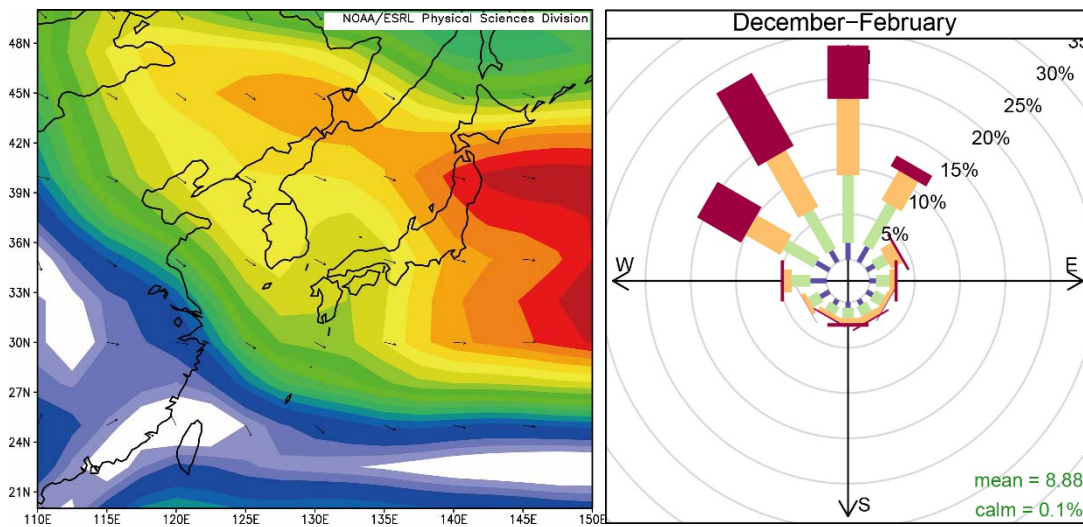
592

593 (d)

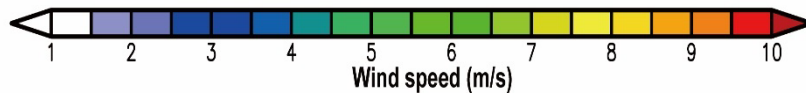


594

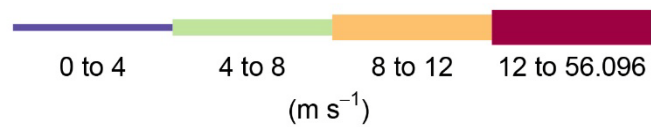
595 (e)



596



597

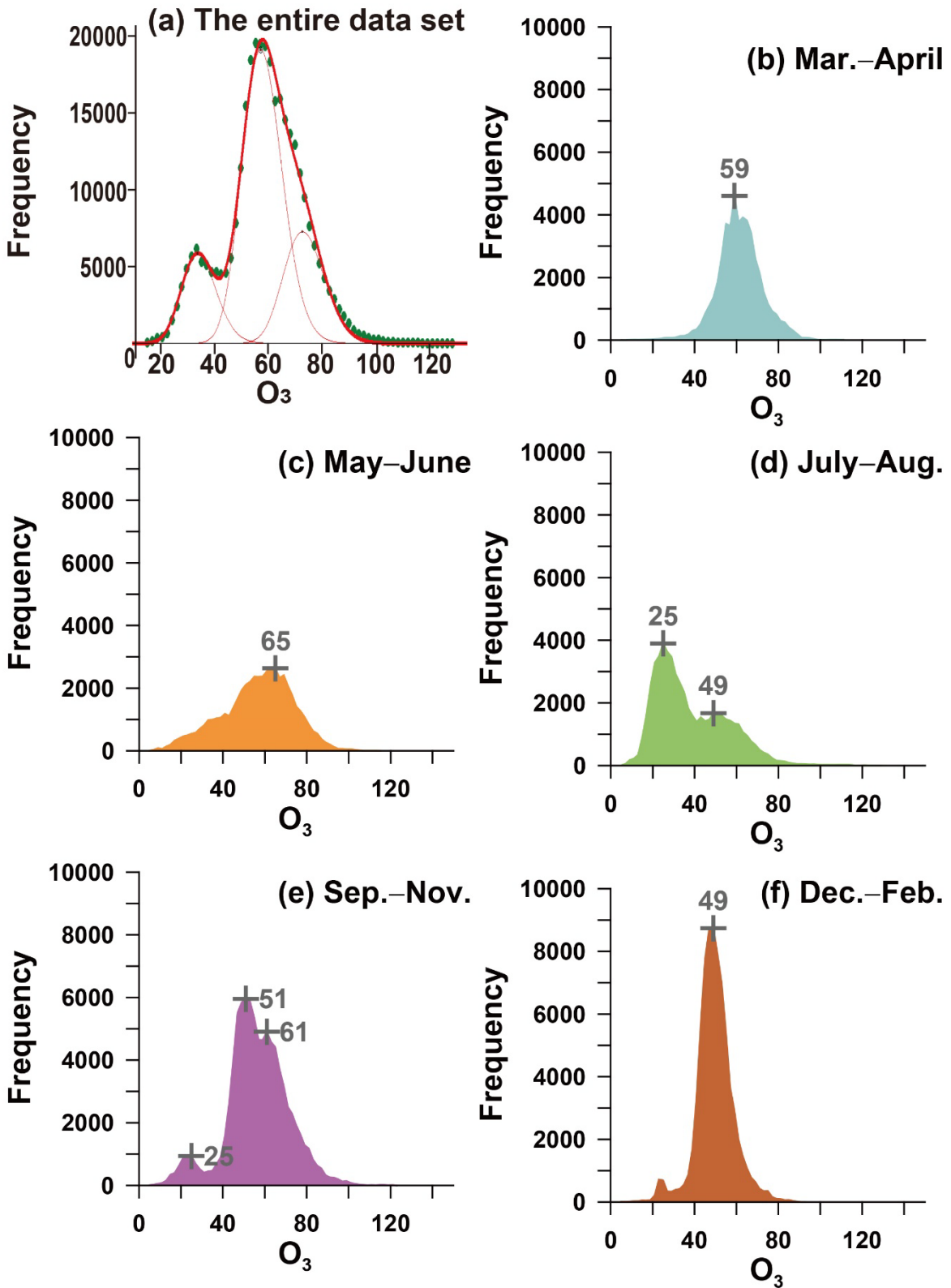


598

**Frequency of counts by wind direction (%)**

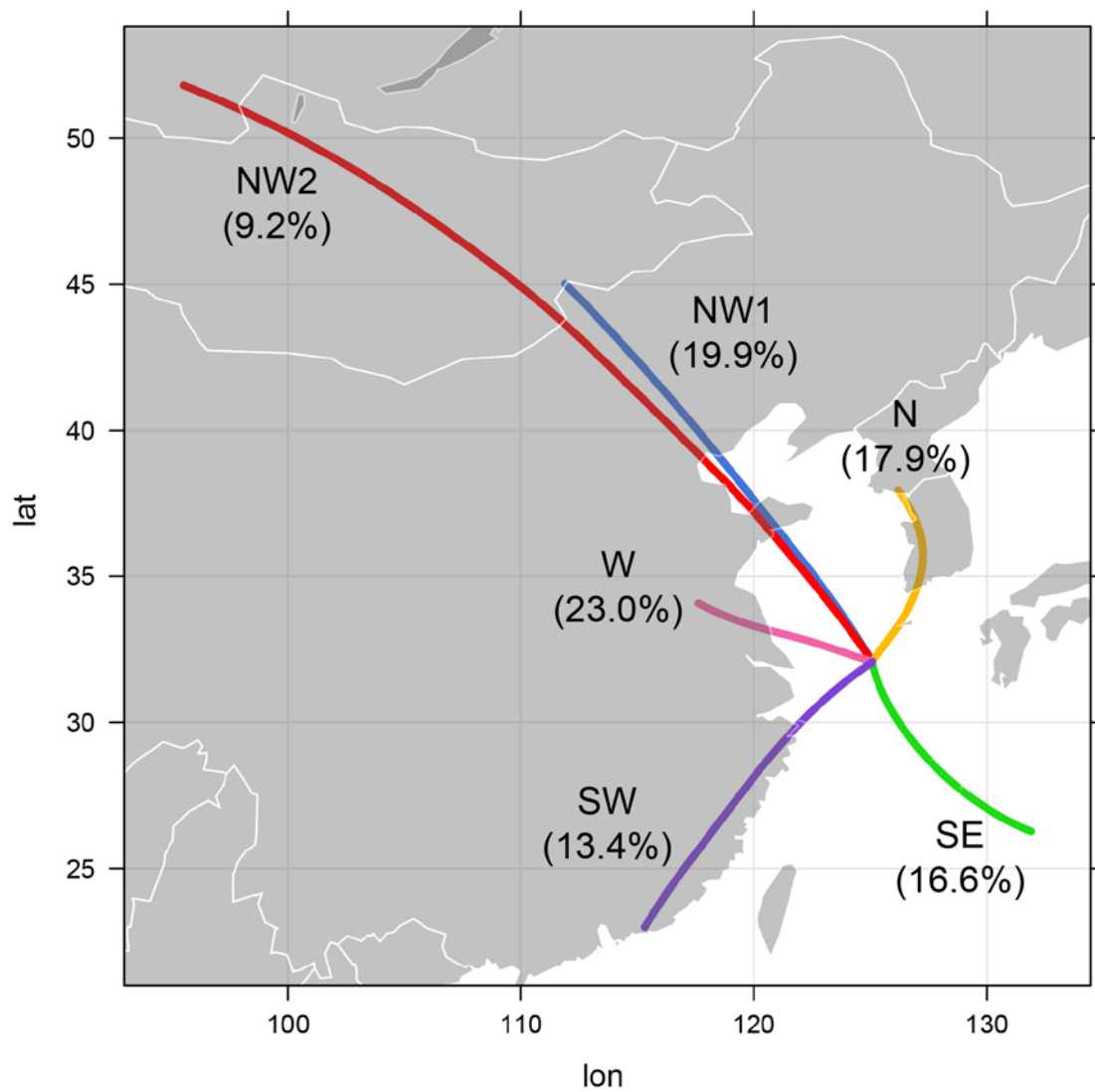
599 Figure 5. The left panel for contour maps presenting NCEP/NCAR reanalysis wind speed in  
600 color and wind vector at 850 mb in East Asia from 2004 to 2010 and the right panel  
601 for windroses measured at IORS during (a) March–April, (b) May–June, (c) July–  
602 August, (d) September–November, and (e) December–February.





603

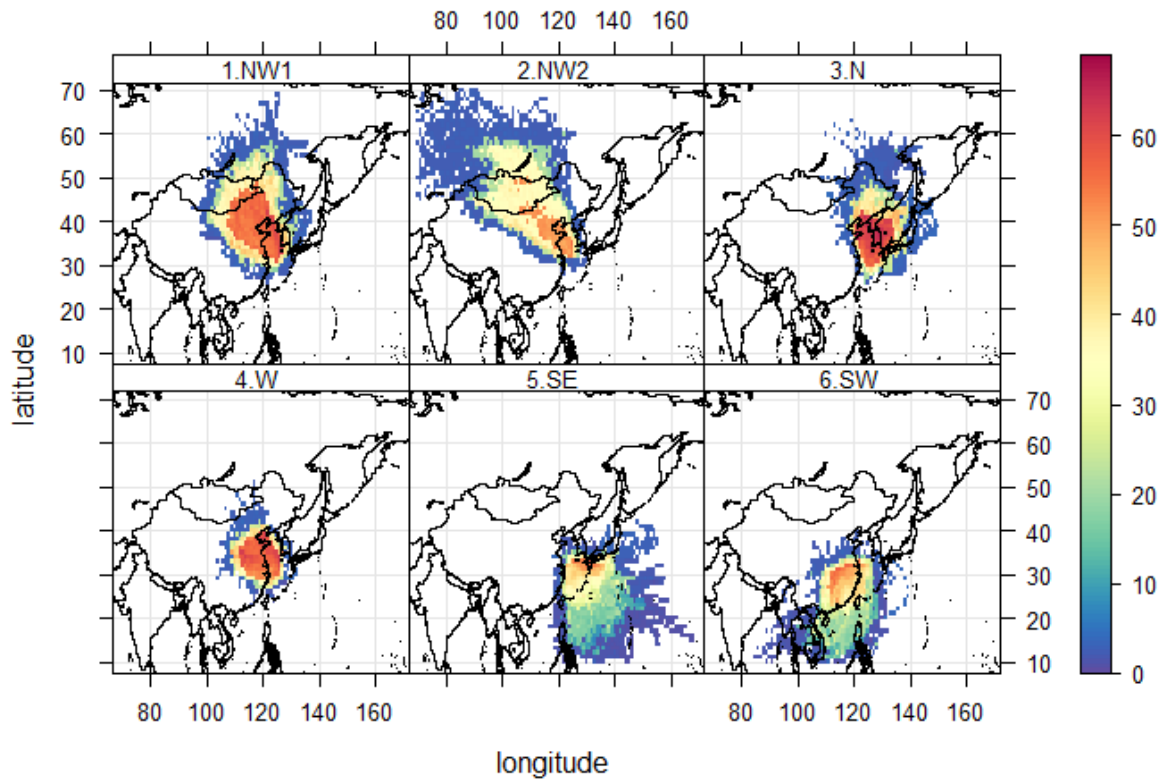
604 Figure 6. Frequency distributions of 10 min averaged  $O_3$  concentrations at IORS for a) all data,  
 605 b) spring, c) dry summer, d) wet summer, e) fall, and f) winter with mode  
 606 concentrations given.



607

608 Figure 7. Mean trajectories of air masses classified into 6 groups. Air masses of 1500 altitude  
 609 were traced backward for 40 h.

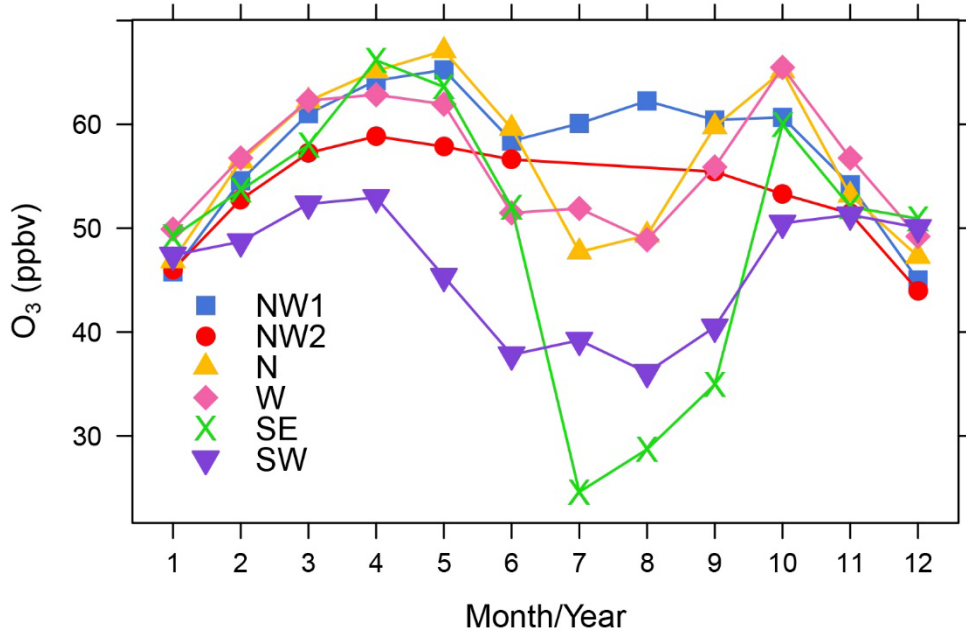




610

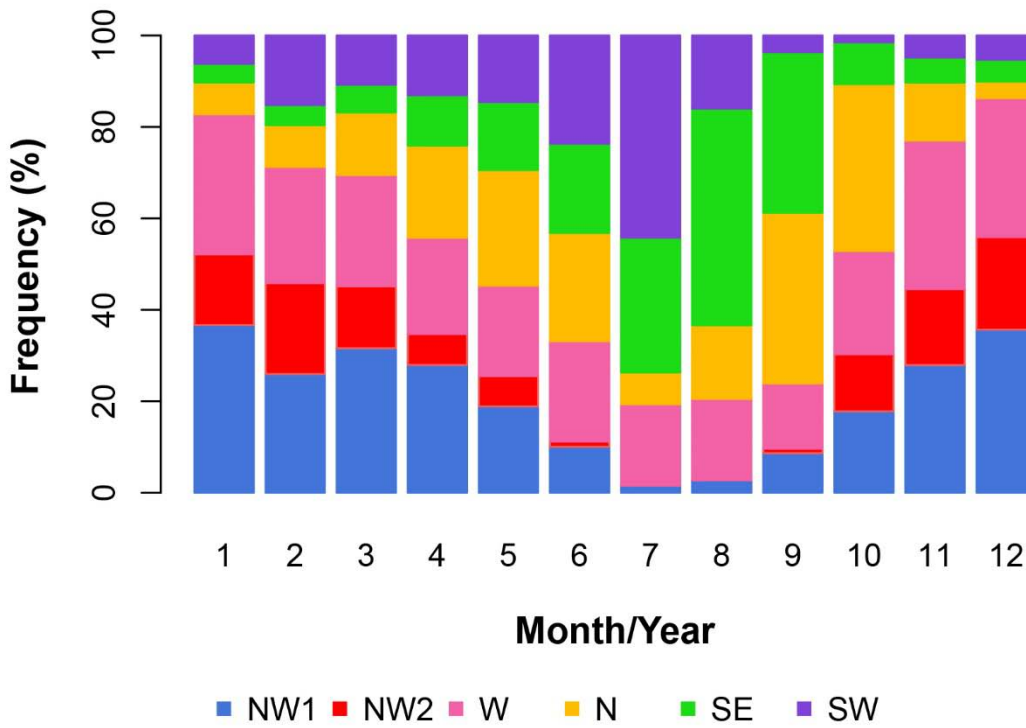
611 Figure 8. Concentration Weighted Trajectory (CWT) analysis of O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (ppbv).

612 a)



613

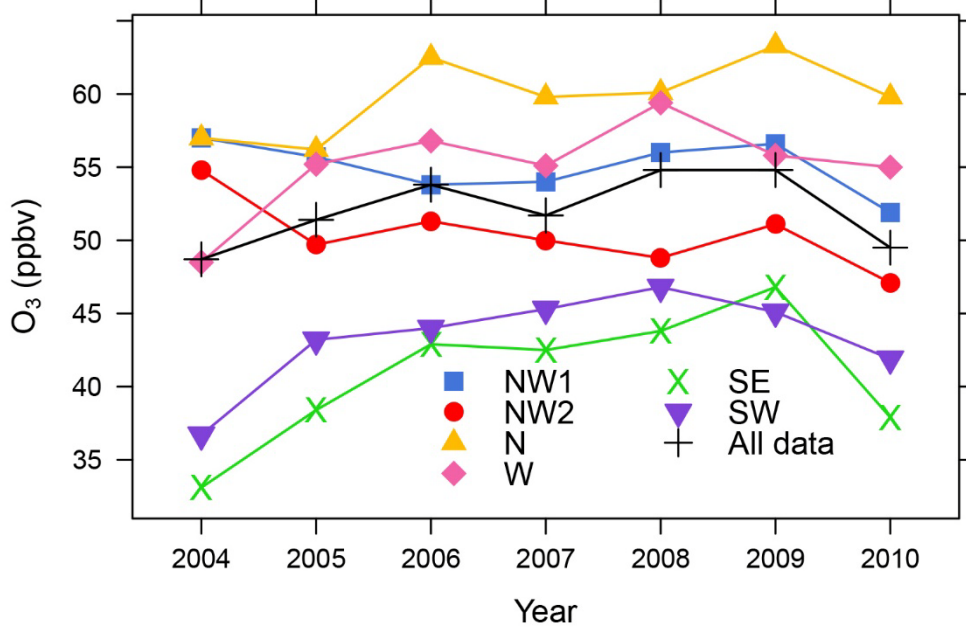
614 b)



615

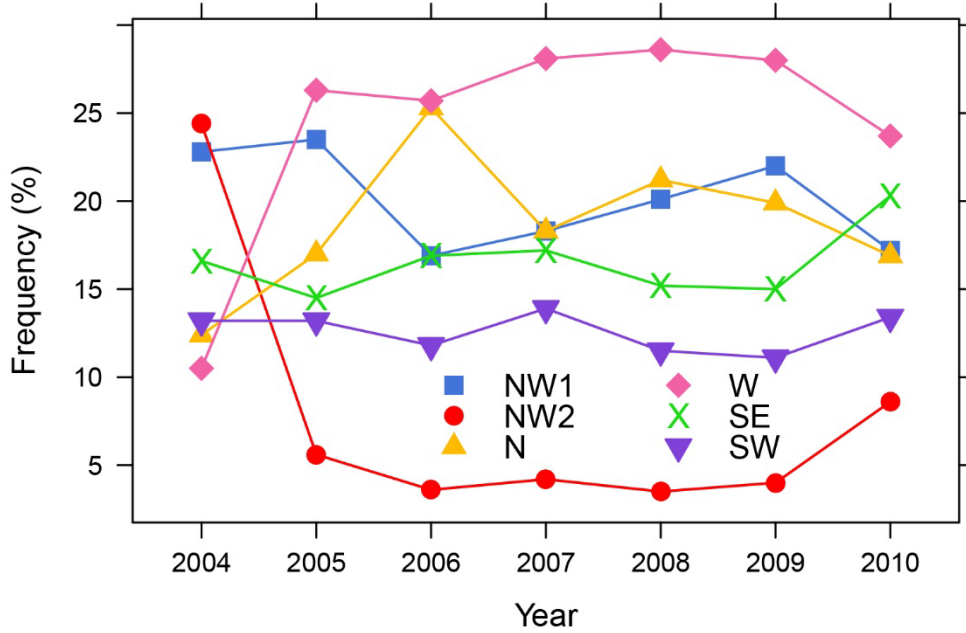
616 Figure 9. Monthly variations of a) O<sub>3</sub> concentrations of six clusters and b) their monthly  
617 frequency.

618 a)



619

620 b)



621

622 Figure 10. Annual variations of a) O<sub>3</sub> concentrations for six clusters, b) their frequency.

623