

## Response to Anonymous Referee #1

(Note: Reviewer comments are listed in grey, and responses to reviewer comments are in black. Pasted text from the new version of the paper is in italics.)

Yi et al. have addressed most of the concerns raised by the reviewers. I have only one suggestion that may help in better highlighting the value of those idealized experiments: The authors have performed the additional experiment in which the SST changes are applied over the entire tropical regions. However, the authors barely present it in the manuscript. I think the authors should discuss it more, in particular, in my opinion, it would make more sense to have this simulation as the main experiment. Then the authors can use the other sensitivity studies to understand the changes seen in the main experiment. Otherwise, it is difficult to understand the rationale behind the warming of only in one basin rather than another.

We really appreciate the reviewer's thoughtful and valuable suggestions. We agree that the additional experiments with SST changes superimposed onto all three ocean basins provide valuable complements for our study. The results from these additional experiments indicate that the effect of a generalized SST warming on surface O<sub>3</sub> can be decomposed into individual regional SST forcings. It also helps to understand the responses of surface O<sub>3</sub> to a global-wide SST change. In our revised manuscript, we have expanded our discussion about these additional experiments (See Page 10-11, L295-304; P20-21, L584-595).

*“Our simulations reveal that different oceans can exert distinct region-specific effects on the O<sub>3</sub> distribution. The effects of three individual warming/cooling cases (i.e., Pacific-W, Atlantic-W and Indian-W/ Pacific-C, Atlantic-C and Indian-C) on surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions are further summed up to compare with the combined warming/cooling (i.e., ALL-W/ALL-C). The responses of surface O<sub>3</sub> to a hemispheric SST anomaly generally resemble the sum of responses to individual regional SST changes (see Figures S3 and S4 in the supplementary material). This indicates that the effect of a generalized SST warming on surface O<sub>3</sub> can be decomposed into individual regional SST forcings.”*

...

*“Additionally, the sensitivity tests with 1°C SST warming and cooling superimposed onto all three ocean basins further show in general that the SST forcing on O<sub>3</sub> distribution is geographically additive. A number of studies have used the decomposed SST anomalies for different regions to identify their relevant roles in a particular climate response (e.g., Sutton and Hodson, 2005; Camargo et al., 2013; Ueda et al., 2015). A linear assumption that the influence of large-scale SST anomaly pattern on the atmosphere can be generally constructed by the linear combination of the influences of individual SST patches have been verified by previous studies, especially for the tropical regions where the signal-to-noise is higher (e.g., Fan et al., 2016; Seager and Henderson, 2016). Therefore, our study also helps to understand the roles of different*

*ocean basins in the Northern Hemisphere played in modulating surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions in a global-wide SST warming condition associated with climate change.”*

Few minor suggestions:

L98 SST changes affect solar radiation indirectly through changes in atmospheric circulation and cloud cover. How it is written it seems that SST directly affect solar radiation. (same in LL360-361)

Thanks for pointing it out. We have rephrased this for clarification (P4, L95-102).

*“Sea surface temperature (SST) is an important indicator that characterizes the state of the climate system. Its variations strongly perturb the mass and energy exchange between the ocean and atmosphere (Small et al., 2008; Gulev et al., 2013), which influence atmospheric circulation, atmospheric temperature and specific humidity (Sutton and Hodson, 2005; Frankignoul and Sennéchael, 2007; Li et al., 2008) from regional to global scales (Glantz et al., 1991; Wang et al., 2000; Goswami et al., 2006). It also affects cloud formation and consequently influences incoming solar radiation (Deser et al., 1993; Fallmann et al., 2017). ”*

As for L362-364 (original L360-361), we stated “As emissions are fixed in all simulations, the change in net O<sub>3</sub> production is driven by SST induced meteorological changes (e.g., air temperature, air humidity, and solar radiation).” Here we just listed some meteorological variables that may affect by SST anomalies. Therefore, we think that it is unnecessary to distinguish weather it is directly or indirectly.

LL101-102 “Numerous studies have shown that SST changes over different oceans and at different latitudes lead to significantly different meteorological sensitivities ...” what do the authors mean by “meteorological sensitivities”?

Here we mean that the sensitivities of meteorological conditions to SST changes are quite different over different oceans. In our revised manuscript, we rephrased this sentence for clarification (see P4, L102-105):

*“Numerous studies have shown that SST changes over different oceans and at different latitudes lead to significantly different meteorological and climate responses (Webster, 1981; Lau and Nath, 1994; Lau, 1997; Sutton and Hodson, 2007; Sabeerali et al., 2012; Ueda et al., 2015). ”*

LL117-118 “The North Atlantic Ocean pronounces various modes of low-frequency SST variability” what do the authors mean by “pronounces”?

We have replaced “pronounces” with “exhibits” (P4, L120-121):

*“...The North Atlantic Ocean exhibits various modes of low-frequency SST variability (Kushnir, 1994; Wu and Liu, 2005; Fan and Schneider, 2012; Taboada and Anadon, 2012).”*

LL126-136 The authors stated that ozone stratospheric intrusions associated with ENSO for winter and spring. However, the authors mentioned “Stratospheric intrusion events, which lead to vertical down mixing of ozone-rich air, can significantly elevate surface O<sub>3</sub> during spring and summer” (LL60-61). Is there any study relating tropical SST and O<sub>3</sub> stratospheric intrusion in summer?

Actually to my knowledge in summer stratospheric intrusions are few and not very important. Taken from Lin et al. 2012 cited by the authors in L62:

*“The impacts of deep STT events on surface O<sub>3</sub> are strongest at Northern Hemisphere extratropical latitudes in late winter and spring, likely reflecting a combination of peak O<sub>3</sub> abundances at the tropopause [e.g., Prather et al., 2011], more frequent storms [e.g., Holton et al., 1995] and a longer O<sub>3</sub> lifetime than in summer, and stronger surface heating that enhances the turbulent mixing between the free troposphere (FT) and the planetary boundary layer (PBL) compared to early winter.”*

Good comment. There are several studies that reveals O<sub>3</sub> stratospheric intrusion events during summertime (e.g., Ding and Wang, 2006; Zanis et al., 2014). However, these phenomena are mainly happened over Central Asia. We agree that compared with spring, stratospheric intrusions are few and less important in summer over most regions. We have revised this sentence in L61 to avoid confusion:

*“Stratospheric intrusion events, which lead to vertical down-mixing of ozone-rich air, can significantly elevate surface O<sub>3</sub> during spring (Grewe, 2006; Lin et al., 2012; Zhang et al., 2014).”*

LL192-193 Specify climatological monthly SSTs.

Thanks! We revised this sentence in P7, L196-197:

*“We first conduct a control simulation, hereafter referred to as CTRL, with prescribed climatological monthly SSTs averaged from 1981 to 2010 (see Hurrell et al. (2008)).”*

Section 2.2

The author should present the all-basin experiments here rather than in LL282-291.

Good suggestion. We have moved the description of the all-basin experiments to Section 2.2 (see P7-8, L210-213):

*“We further conduct two sensitivity tests with 1 °C SST warming and 1 °C SST cooling superimposed onto all three ocean basins (i.e., the North Pacific, North Atlantic and North Indian Ocean) in the Northern Hemisphere, denoted as “All-W” and “All-C”,*

respectively.”

LL264-266 “Surface O<sub>3</sub> changes in response to positive and negative SST anomalies generally pronounce a consistent spatial pattern but are opposite in sign, suggesting robust relationships between surface O<sub>3</sub> levels and SST anomalies (Figure 1).” What do the authors mean by “pronounce”? produce?

We have replaced “pronounce” with “exhibit” (P10, L277-279):

*“Surface O<sub>3</sub> changes in response to positive and negative SST anomalies generally exhibit a consistent spatial pattern but are opposite in sign, suggesting robust relationships between surface O<sub>3</sub> levels and SST anomalies (Figure 1).”*

LL297-316 This part should go on the methods section 2.3

Good suggestion. We have moved this part below to the Section 2.3 (see P9, L242-253).

*“The IPR method has been widely used in air quality studies to examine the cause of pollution episodes (Wang et al., 2010; Li et al., 2012). When applied in climate sensitivity analysis (usually measuring the difference between two equilibriums), the net change of all IPRs approaches zero. Typically, the positive changes in IPRs are mainly responsible for the increase in surface O<sub>3</sub>, which may further induce O<sub>3</sub> removal to balance this forcing in a new equilibrium. Therefore, here, the IPR analysis is used not to budget the SST-induced O<sub>3</sub> concentration changes but rather to help examine the relative importance of different transport and chemical processes in driving the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> to SST forcing.”*

L367 “at the continent below” change to “surface”

We revised this sentence in P13, L368-370:

*“Associated with this temperature decrease is a remarkable reduction in the solar radiation received at the surface (more than 15 W/m<sup>2</sup>, Figure S10).”*

L375 Clouds do not block but reduce solar radiation at the surface.

Thanks for pointing out this. We have rephrased this in the revised manuscript (P13, L377-379).

*“Meanwhile, the corresponding increase in cloud cover reduces the solar radiation reaching the surface of the Indian subcontinent and thus the air temperature of lower troposphere in that region.”*

L504 “The corresponding anomalous cyclone should be responsible” change to read as



something like:

“The corresponding anomalous cyclonic circulation may be responsible”

We have rephrased this sentence in P18, L506-508:

*“The corresponding anomalous cyclonic circulation may be responsible for the dipole of the South Asian CO tracer changes over the source region depicted in Figure 8e.”*

L528 again “pronounce” that I believe should be “produce”

We have replaced “pronounce” with “produce” for clarification (P18, L529-531)

*“The regionally and seasonally averaged surface O<sub>3</sub> changes over four continental regions (i.e., NA, EU, EA and SA) produce wide seasonal and regional variability (varying from 1 to 3 ppbv).”*

## Response to Anonymous Referee #2

(Note: Reviewer comments are listed in grey, and responses to reviewer comments are in black. Pasted text from the new version of the paper is in italics.)

Second review of: “Title: Response of the Global Surface Ozone Distribution to Northern Hemisphere Sea Surface Temperature Changes: Implications for Long-Range Transport” by Yi et al.

This paper reports on the response of continental ozone distributions to basin-wide increases or decreases in SST. For the most part it is well written and clear and represents a thorough analysis. Nevertheless at this point I cannot recommend publication for essentially the same reasons articulated in my first review. It is too bad the authors did not design their simulations to be more relevant to the atmosphere-ocean system. In their reply the authors essentially re-articulated again what initially stated in the paper. They did include a few additional sensitivity simulations, but overall my main objections remain the same.

My main objection has to do with the size and justification for the SST modifications the authors use in their study. They state in their reply that “in previous studies, idealized, uniform SST anomalies have been widely used to explore ocean-atmosphere relationships in the climate systems (e.g., Taschetto et al., 2016; Fan et al., 2016; Hu and Veres, 2016, Kushnir et al., 2002 and so on)”. I have briefly examined the studies listed and in none of them did the authors use basin wide SST perturbations. Taschetto et al., added warming patches to understand the atmospheric teleconnections associated with El Nino. In addition to: “further facilitate this comparison, two additional “semi-realistic experiments were carried out ...”. Fan et al. (2016) changed the SST in small patches to understand the impact on the Asian monsoon. Hu and Veres (2016) examined the patches of SST in relation to the AMO oscillation. The patches were relevant to those seen during the AMO. Kushnir et al. (2002) used SST perturbations from idealized GCM experiments to “capture only the salient features of observed anomaly patterns.” “The prescribed SST anomalies are stripped of details to capture the “essential features” of the observed patterns”. In each of these cases: (i) the SST was prescribed to capture in a basic way observed SST patterns and the resulting atmospheric dynamics and (ii) the authors could relate their simulations to observations. In the present paper the SST perturbations are not related to any observed pattern. Furthermore the key results showing differences in upwind and downwind responses are not related specifically to observed changes.

I had originally thought that the results might possibly relate to the SST changes expected in a future climate. In climate change experiments large-scale SST forcing is sometimes used (e.g. Shaw and Voigt, 2015: Nature Geoscience 8, 560–566 (2015) doi:10.1038/ngeo2449). However, in these simulations the climate response is a “tug of war” between that due to changes in the SST and that due to direct radiative forcing.

In the present simulations the direct radiative forcing due to climate change is not simulated. Moreover, even in the case of climate induced SST warming I don't see why the SST perturbations would only include the N.H.

Furthermore, it is apparent the results are sensitive to the SST perturbation used. For example, the authors claim that when the SST perturbation raises the ocean temperature above 29°C the increased convection changes the circulation. What if the ocean temperatures had only been modified north of 25°: would the same results be expected? The authors state in the response that their SST forcing is straightforward since their objective is to examine mid-latitude air quality. However, in fact mid-latitude circulation patterns are sensitive to tropical SSTs through well known teleconnection patterns.

To conclude: (i) I don't see a physical justification to the SST perturbations applied in this study (in contrast to the above referenced studies). (ii) I don't see how the present study sheds light on any observed phenomena, neither interannual variability or climate change. Or the authors did not clearly point out the connections. (iii) As the SST perturbations are rather arbitrary (why not put the southern boundary at 25° N, or at the equator?) the results may differ in unknown ways when other SST perturbations are used or when more realistic SST perturbation patterns are used.

We appreciate the reviewer's thoughtful comments. Those references (i.e., Hu and Veres, 2016; Kushnir et al., 2002; Fan et al., 2016; Taschetto et al., 2016) listed in our previous reply are a few examples showing the approach used in this study, i.e., applying idealized, uniform SST anomalies to explore ocean-atmosphere relationships, has been used previously. Besides these examples, a lot more similar references exist which conducted idealized model experiments. For example, Li et al., (2008) superimposed an idealized SST warming spreading the whole Indian Ocean basin (from 30 °N–30 °S) to explore the influence of this warming on the East Asian summer monsoon. Chen et al., (2013) raised the SST uniformly in an idealized aquaplanet model to analysis the mechanisms of the atmospheric response to climate forcing. Hu et al., (2014) conducted two experiments—one with uniformly increased global SSTs, the other with linearly increased global SSTs—to explore the relevant atmospheric responses using a coupled chemistry-climate model. These references show that model experiments with prescribed idealized SST anomalies are widely approved for scientific study and not all of them were based on observed SST patterns. As we stated in our previous reply, the realistic SST is undergoing a variety of changes in different spatial and temporal scales. Instead of focusing on the responses of surface O<sub>3</sub> to a specific real SST signal, our study is designed to show the broad picture of how regional surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations response to SST anomalies in individual ocean basins and understand the mechanisms that govern this SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationship. In our model experiments, we uniformly increased/decreased SST over different ocean basins in the Northern Hemisphere. It quite difficult to reach our goal if applying the observed SST anomalies since the perturbation patterns are changing from one decade to another and there is no

representative SST patterns we can use to derive some implications for future environmental policy. As a theoretical analysis, the method we used here is consistent with our research objective. Therefore, we don't think that our study is lack of foundations compared with other studies.

On the other hand, basin-scale warming or cooling anomalies are actually existed in different ocean basins. For example, the Atlantic Multidecadal Oscillation (AMO) exhibits periodical warming or cooling SST anomaly over the whole North Atlantic (Sutton and Hodson, 2005, 2007). El Niño has been revealed to induce a basin-wide SST increase in the Indian Ocean, especially over the North region (Du et al., 2009; Roxy et al., 2014). Our study could provide valuable implications (though not perfect) for the responses of surface O<sub>3</sub> to these observed SST anomalies. We agree that the teleconnection effects of tropical SSTs on mid-latitude climate has been well-documented in previous studies (e.g., Roxy et al., 2015; Lau, 1997; Lau et al., 1997). However, how surface O<sub>3</sub> responses to tropical SST anomalies is still questionable owing to complex chemical and physical processes existed in the O<sub>3</sub> formation. The connection between O<sub>3</sub> distribution and tropical SST anomalies can't be established directly without further investigations. In this study, we successfully explored the roles of different chemical and physical processes played in governing the SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationships in different oceans. We further showed that the tropical SST warming may suppress intercontinental O<sub>3</sub> transport and lead to opposite surface O<sub>3</sub> responses over upwind and downwind regions. Based on the solid theoretical foundations and a state-of-art climate-chemistry model, our study revealed a general mechanism for the SSTs over different oceans on modulating the surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions.

What's more, as we stated in our previous reply, sensitivity tests with 1°C SST warming and cooling superimposed onto all three ocean basins showed in general that the SST forcing on O<sub>3</sub> distribution is geographically additive. Therefore, this study also aids in understanding the roles of different ocean basin in the Northern Hemisphere on surface O<sub>3</sub> distribution in a global-wide SST warming condition associated with climate changes. We only focused on ocean basins over the Northern Hemisphere because that these are close to the most populated and polluted regions in the world (i.e., NA, EU, EA, SA). We will study the more remote effects from the Southern Hemispheric oceans in the follow-up works.

In our model experiments, we imposed idealized SST anomalies onto three different ocean basins in the North Hemisphere, individually. The boundaries of the prescribed SST anomalies generally align with the edge of the ocean basins that constrained by the continental line except for the southern side. We defined a southern boundary of 15°N for the North Pacific and North Atlantic oceans and 5°N for the North Indian Ocean. In each perturbation simulation, we further linearly smoothed the southern boundaries of these SST anomalies toward the equator to remove the sharp SST anomaly gradients at the edge. This method helps us to constrain our prescribed SST anomalies in the Northern Hemisphere, which is consistent with the goal of this study. We believe that it

is a suitable approach to conduct our experiments. Previous studies have shown that the atmospheric response to extratropical SST anomalies is small compared to internal (unforced) atmospheric variability (Kushnir et al., 2002). In our study, we also found that the SST changes over the tropical regions play a more dominant role on modulating the surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions than extratropical regions. If the SST perturbation was only prescribed over extratropical regions (e.g., above 25 °N), it is more likely to exert insignificant effects on the surface O<sub>3</sub>. On the other hand, as we showed in our previous reply, the responses of surface O<sub>3</sub> to different SST perturbations are broadly consistent in spatial patterns. Previous studies (e.g., Zhou et al., 2017; Li et al., 2015; Lau et al., 1997 and references therein) showed that the atmospheric response to SST changes over the tropical oceans are mainly locally driven and thermally direct owing to deep convection. The atmospheric responses are generally linearly related to tropical SST anomalies (Fan et al., 2016; Seager and Henderson, 2016). Therefore, if we expand the southern boundary to the equatorial line, the atmospheric response would be more significant. Directly expanding the southern boundary to the equatorial line without any smoothness will produce sharp SST anomaly gradient at the edge, which may not be a proper way to prescribe the SST anomaly, referring to previous studies (e.g., Sutton and Hodson, 2007; Hu and Veres, 2016; Seager and Henderson, 2016; Taschetto et al., 2016). As a model experiment, the magnitude of the signal may always change along with the forcing we imposed to the model. However, the mechanisms driving the O<sub>3</sub>-SST relationships are solid, which are independent to ways how the SST are prescribed.

In summary, this study mainly focuses on exploring the sensitivity of surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions to SST anomalies in different ocean basins and investigating the general mechanisms that govern this SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationship rather than a specific realistic phenomenon. We believe that the SST perturbations applied in this study is a suitable way to attain our purpose. Similar approaches have been widely applied in previous studies to conduct scientific research. Basin-scale SST warming or cooling anomalies were also observed in the real world. As an idealized model study, our analysis is based on solid theoretical foundations and a state-of-art model. Therefore, the mechanism that governs the SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationship, as revealed in this study, is also applicable in the real world. It could provide valuable implications for the responses of surface O<sub>3</sub> to potential regional or hemispheric SST changes. However, cautions should be taken in interpreting our results in the real world since that observed surface O<sub>3</sub> and SST variabilities are much more complicated. In our revised manuscript, we add more discussions to explain our approach and caveat the uncertainties of our findings (Please see P20-21, L570-605).

*“This study highlights the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> evolution to basin-wide SST changes in the Northern Hemisphere and identifies the key chemical or dynamical factors that control this evolution. Idealized and spatially uniform SST anomalies are used to explore the general mechanisms governing the regional SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationships. We find that the SST*

*changes over tropical regions exert considerable impacts on surface O<sub>3</sub> levels. The increase in tropical SST over different ocean basins enhances deep convection, which further trigger large-scale subsidence over nearby and remote regions. These enhanced convective activities also tend to release more latent heat over the upper troposphere and significantly increase the air temperature there. These processes influence large-scale circulation patterns and lead to opposite surface O<sub>3</sub> responses over upwind and downwind regions related to a specific ocean basin. These findings provide valuable implications for the potential surface O<sub>3</sub> change in response to future warming or cooling of individual oceans.*

*Additionally, the sensitivity tests with 1°C SST warming and cooling superimposed onto all three ocean basins further show in general that the SST forcing on O<sub>3</sub> distribution is geographically additive. A number of studies have used the decomposed SST anomalies for different regions to identify their relevant roles in a particular climate response (Sutton and Hodson, 2005; Camargo et al., 2013; Ueda et al., 2015). A linear assumption that the influence of large-scale SST anomaly pattern on the atmosphere can be generally constructed by the linear combination of the influences of individual SST patches have been verified by previous studies, especially for the tropical regions where the signal-to-noise is higher (e.g., Fan et al., 2016; Seager and Henderson, 2016). Therefore, our study also helps to understand the roles of different ocean basins in the Northern Hemisphere played in modulating surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions in a global-wide SST warming condition associated with climate change.*

*Overall, this study may guide the management of regional O<sub>3</sub> pollution by considering the influence of specific SST variability. However, cautions should be taken in interpreting our results in the real world since observed surface O<sub>3</sub> variabilities are induced by various factors including O<sub>3</sub> precursor emissions and atmospheric conditions. Realistic SST anomalies over different oceans are more complicate (usually not uniformly distributed) and often inter-correlated with each other (Fan et al., 2016). They may exert jointly effects on modulating surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions. To provide more*

*precise understanding about the SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationship over a specific region, additional sensitivity tests regarding smaller patches of SST variability are also necessary. ”*

### Response to Anonymous Referee #3

(Note: Reviewer comments are listed in grey, and responses to reviewer comments are in black. Pasted text from the new version of the paper is in italics.)

This paper has undergone much improvement and the authors have invested a good deal of time to carefully consider and respond to all the reviewer comments, and write an authoritative paper. My one recommendation is not send a response to reviewers file that is 2000 MB in size as I was unable to download the file. You need only show revised figures once and refer back to them.

We greatly appreciate the reviewer for these detailed and valuable comments. We will pay attention to this problem and avoid providing large files afterward.

Minor comments (pages/line numbers refer to the revised document with track changes):

Generally I'm not sure so many (26) supplementary figures are needed, if their sole purpose is to show a spatial pattern on a different projection.

Good suggestion! Considering that figures using polar projection are distinguishable enough in our manuscript, we decided to remove the same plots using the Mercator projection in the supplementary material. The number of supplementary figures has been reduced from 26 to 14.

Spaces after ; throughout.

Thanks! we have carefully revised these typos existed in the manuscript.

Page 2, line 58- reference Organisation 2013? Perhaps WHO 2013?

We have revised this citation (P2, L50-52):

*“High ground-level ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) concentrations adversely impact human health by inducing respiratory diseases and threaten food security by lowering crop yields (Brown and Bowman, 2013; WHO, 2013; Chuwah et al., 2015).”*

Page 4, line 120- IPCC chapter 2 is not the correct way to cite this chapter. The citation will be given at the start of the IPCC chapter.

Thanks! We have revised it (P4, L109-111):

*“The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Fifth Assessment Report (IPCC, 2013) provides strong evidence in Chapter 2 that global SSTs are generally increasing due to the impacts of anthropogenic forcings on global climate change.”*



Page 10, line 283- perhaps omit the season definitions here and leave only in the figures caption, as otherwise this detracts from finding the main point of the first sentence in the results.

Good suggestion. We moved the season definitions from this sentence (P9, L259-261) to the Caption of Table 1.

*“Seasonally and regionally averaged surface O<sub>3</sub> changes in each SST perturbation simulation for the four highly populated continental regions and three ocean basins defined in our study are given in Tables 1 and S1, respectively.”*

**“Table 1.** *Seasonally (i.e., DJF (December, January, February), MAM (March, April, May), JJA (June, July, August) and SON (September, October, November)) and regionally averaged (only land grid boxes are included) changes in surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (ppbv) for basin-scale SST perturbation cases relative to the control simulation.”*

Page 11, line 319- for consistency, rephrase “Similarly in the Atlantic W case” as the previous sentence does not use that same type of terminology.

We have rephrased this sentence in P10, L285-287:

*“Similarly, the SST warming over the North Atlantic decrease the surface O<sub>3</sub> levels by 1~2 ppbv over the North Atlantic and Europe but increase (~1 ppbv) that over North America and the North Pacific.”*

Page 13, line 360- Add “VDIF” after “through diffusion”

We have revised it in P11, L312-313.

*“The downward transport of O<sub>3</sub> through diffusion (VDIF) is an important source of surface O<sub>3</sub>, while DRYD acts as a sink.”*

Page 21, line 613, rephrase “should”.

We have rephrased this sentence in P18, L506-508:

*“The corresponding anomalous cyclonic circulation may be responsible for the dipole of the South Asian CO tracer changes over the source region depicted in Figure 8e.”*

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1                   **Response of the Global Surface Ozone Distribution to**  
2                   **Northern Hemisphere Sea Surface Temperature Changes:**  
3                   **Implications for Long-Range Transport**  
4

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17

18 **Abstract**

19 The response of surface ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) concentrations to basin-scale warming and cooling  
20 of Northern Hemisphere oceans is investigated using the Community Earth System  
21 Model (CESM). Idealized, spatially uniform sea surface temperature (SST) anomalies  
22 of +/- 1 °C are individually superimposed onto the North Pacific, North Atlantic, and  
23 North Indian Oceans. Our simulations suggest large seasonal and regional variability  
24 of surface O<sub>3</sub> in response to SST anomalies, especially in the boreal summer. The  
25 responses of surface O<sub>3</sub> associated with basin-scale SST warming and cooling have  
26 similar magnitude but are opposite in sign. Increasing the SST by 1 °C in one of the  
27 oceans generally decreases the surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations from 1 to 5 ppbv. With fixed  
28 emissions, SST increases in a specific ocean basin in the Northern Hemisphere tend to  
29 increase the summertime surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations over upwind regions, accompanied  
30 by a widespread reduction over downwind continents. We implement the integrated  
31 process rate (IPR) analysis in CESM and find that meteorological O<sub>3</sub> transport in  
32 response to SST changes is the key process causing surface O<sub>3</sub> perturbations in most

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33 cases. During the boreal summer, basin-scale SST warming facilitates the vertical  
34 transport of O<sub>3</sub> to the surface over upwind regions while significantly reducing the  
35 vertical transport over downwind continents. This process, as confirmed by tagged CO-  
36 like tracers, indicates a considerable suppression of intercontinental O<sub>3</sub> transport due to  
37 increased tropospheric stability at lower mid-latitudes induced by SST changes. On the  
38 other hand, the responses of chemical O<sub>3</sub> production to regional SST warming can exert  
39 positive effects on surface O<sub>3</sub> levels over highly polluted continents, except South Asia,  
40 where intensified cloud loading in response to North Indian SST warming depresses  
41 both the surface air temperature and solar radiation, and thus photochemical O<sub>3</sub>  
42 production. Our findings indicate a robust linkage between basin-scale SST variability  
43 and continental surface O<sub>3</sub> pollution, which should be considered in regional air quality  
44 management.

45

46 **Keywords:** SST anomaly, Surface O<sub>3</sub>, Process analysis, Transport, CESM

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48

## 49 **1. Introduction**

50 High ground-level ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) concentrations adversely impact human health by  
51 inducing respiratory diseases and threaten food security by lowering crop yields  
52 (Brown and Bowman, 2013; [WHO Organization](#), 2013; Chuwah et al., 2015).  
53 Considering the eco-toxicity of O<sub>3</sub>, understanding the physical and chemical  
54 mechanisms that control atmospheric O<sub>3</sub> concentrations is of great importance. Surface  
55 O<sub>3</sub> is produced in the atmosphere via photochemical processing of multiple precursors  
56 including volatile organic compounds (VOCs), carbon monoxide (CO) and nitrogen  
57 oxides (NO, NO<sub>2</sub>). These precursors originate from both natural and anthropogenic  
58 sources (Vingarzan, 2004; Simon et al., 2014; Jiang et al., 2016). In addition to local  
59 production, transport of O<sub>3</sub> and its precursors from upwind regions and the upper  
60 atmosphere can also influence surface O<sub>3</sub> abundance. Stratospheric intrusion events,  
61 which lead to vertical down-mixing of ozone-rich air, can significantly elevate surface

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62 O<sub>3</sub> during spring ~~and summer~~ (Grewe, 2006; Lin et al., 2012b; Zhang et al., 2014). The  
63 long-range transport of O<sub>3</sub> and its precursors has been extensively studied, and their  
64 inter-continental impacts have been evaluated using measurements and model  
65 simulations (Parrish et al., 1993; Fehsenfeld et al., 1996; Wild and Akimoto, 2001;  
66 Creilson et al., 2003; Simmonds et al., 2004; Fiore et al., 2009; Brown-Steiner and Hess,  
67 2011; Lin et al., 2012a; Lin et al., 2014).

68  
69 Both photochemistry and dynamic transport collectively affect surface O<sub>3</sub> levels.  
70 Important meteorological factors that can impact both photochemistry and transport  
71 include atmospheric circulations, solar radiation, air temperature, and relative humidity.  
72 Atmospheric circulation considerably determines the timescale and pathway of O<sub>3</sub>  
73 transport (Bronnimann et al., 2000; Auvray and Bey, 2005; Hess and Mahowald, 2009).  
74 The efficiency of O<sub>3</sub> transport varies coherently with atmospheric circulations on  
75 different scales. Knowland et al. (2015) demonstrated the important role of mid-latitude  
76 storms in redistributing O<sub>3</sub> concentrations during springtime. The North Atlantic  
77 Oscillation (NAO) significantly affects surface and tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> concentrations over  
78 most of Europe by influencing the intercontinental transport of air masses (Creilson et  
79 al., 2003; Christoudias et al., 2012; Pausata et al., 2012). Lamarque and Hess (2004)  
80 indicated that the Arctic Oscillation (AO) can modulate springtime tropospheric O<sub>3</sub>  
81 burdens over North America. The shift in the position of the jet stream associated with  
82 climate change was found to strongly affect summertime surface O<sub>3</sub> variability over  
83 eastern North America (Barnes and Fiore, 2013). Increases in solar radiation and air  
84 temperature can increase the rate of the chemical production of O<sub>3</sub> and modulate the  
85 biogenic emissions of O<sub>3</sub> precursors (Guenther, 1993; Sillman and Samson, 1995;  
86 Peñuelas and Llusia, 2001), especially over highly polluted regions (Ordóñez et al.,  
87 2005; Rasmussen et al., 2012; Pusede et al., 2015). Increases in humidity can enhance  
88 the chemical destruction of O<sub>3</sub> and shorten its atmospheric lifetime (Johnson et al., 1999;  
89 Camalier et al., 2007). Therefore, changes in meteorological conditions on various  
90 spatial and temporal scales play key roles in determining the surface O<sub>3</sub> distribution.  
91 Understanding the mechanisms and feedbacks of the interactions between O<sub>3</sub> and

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92 climate has received increasing attention and will be essential for future surface O<sub>3</sub>  
93 mitigation (Jacob and Winner, 2009; Doherty et al., 2013).

94  
95 Sea surface temperature (SST) is an important indicator that characterizes the state of  
96 the climate system. Its variations strongly perturb the mass and energy exchange  
97 between the ocean and atmosphere (Small et al., 2008; Gulev et al., 2013), which ~~further~~  
98 influence atmospheric circulation, ~~solar radiation~~, atmospheric temperature and specific  
99 humidity (Sutton and Hodson, 2005; Frankignoul and Sennéchaël, 2007; Li et al., 2008)  
100 from regional to global scales (Glantz et al., 1991; Wang et al., 2000; Goswami et al.,  
101 2006). It also affects cloud formation and consequently influences incoming solar  
102 radiation (Deser et al., 1993; Fallmann et al., 2017). Numerous studies have shown that  
103 SST changes over different oceans and at different latitudes lead to significantly  
104 different meteorological and climate responses (Webster, 1981; Lau and Nath, 1994;  
105 Lau, 1997; Sutton and Hodson, 2007; Sabeerali et al., 2012; Ueda et al., 2015). Details  
106 on the SST-climate relationships over individual oceanic regions are summarized in  
107 Kushnir et al. (2002).

108  
109 The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Fifth Assessment Report (IPCC, 2013)  
110 provides strong evidences in Chapter 2 that global SSTs are generally increasing due to  
111 the impacts of anthropogenic forcings on global climate change (~~IPCC, 2013, Chapter~~  
112 ~~2~~). In addition, regional SST exhibits natural periodic or irregular oscillations with  
113 timescales ranging from months to decades. The El Niño/Southern Oscillation (ENSO)  
114 is the most influential natural SST variability that originates in the tropical Pacific and  
115 has worldwide climate impacts (Philander, 1983; Wang et al., 2012). The Pacific  
116 decadal oscillation (PDO), defined by ocean temperature anomalies in the northeast and  
117 tropical Pacific Ocean, is another long-lived, El Niño-like pattern that persists for  
118 several decades (Mantua and Hare, 2002). Over the Indian Ocean, SST anomalies  
119 feature a seesaw structure between the western and eastern equatorial regions, known  
120 as the Indian Ocean Dipole (IOD) mode (Saji et al., 1999). The North Atlantic Ocean  
121 ~~pronounce~~exhibits various modes of low-frequency SST variability (Kushnir, 1994;



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122 Wu and Liu, 2005; Fan and Schneider, 2012; Taboada and Anadon, 2012). The  
123 mechanisms responsible for SST variability includes ocean circulation variability, wind  
124 stress, and ocean-atmosphere feedbacks (Frankignoul, 1985; Deser et al., 2010).  
125 Aerosols and greenhouse gases (GHGs) emitted from anthropogenic and natural  
126 sources also contribute to regional SST variability through modulation of the solar  
127 radiation received by the ocean surface (Rotstayn and Lohmann, 2002; Wu and Kinter,  
128 2011; Hsieh et al., 2013; Ding et al., 2014; Meehl et al., 2015).

129

130 Considering the distinct roles of regional SST variability in modulating regional climate  
131 systems, the impact of regional SST changes on the surface O<sub>3</sub> distribution needs to be  
132 explored. Lin et al. (2015) found that more frequent deep stratospheric intrusions appear  
133 over the western US during strong La Niña springs because of the meandering of the  
134 polar jet towards this region. This process can remarkably increase surface O<sub>3</sub> levels in  
135 the western US. The La Niña-like decadal cooling of the eastern equatorial Pacific  
136 Ocean in the 2000s weakened the long range transport of O<sub>3</sub>-rich air from Eurasia  
137 towards Hawaii during spring (Lin et al., 2014). Liu et al. (2005) revealed that El Niño  
138 winters are associated with stronger transpacific pollutant transport, which also has  
139 implications for the long-range transport of O<sub>3</sub>. Except for the ENSO impacts, very few  
140 studies to date have directly addressed the linkage between SST and O<sub>3</sub>. Therefore, a  
141 comprehensive understanding of the response of surface O<sub>3</sub> to SST changes in  
142 individual ocean basins is lacking and necessary.

143

144 To fill this gap, this study focuses on examining the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> evolution over  
145 four polluted continental regions in the Northern Hemisphere (i.e., North America (NA,  
146 15°N–55 °N; 60°W–125°W), Europe (EU, 25°N–65 °N; 10°W–50 °E), East Asia (EA,  
147 15 °N–50 °N; 95°E–160 °E) and South Asia (SA, 5 °N–35 °N; 50 °E–95°E), defined  
148 in Fiore et al. (2009)) with respect to nearby basin-scale SST changes. We describe the  
149 design of numerical experiments and model configuration in Section 2. Surface O<sub>3</sub>  
150 responses to regional SST changes are given in Section 3. Relevant mechanisms  
151 governing the SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationships are discussed in Section 4. The impact of basin-

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152 scale SST changes on inter-continental transport of O<sub>3</sub> is described in Section 5.  
153 Conclusions are drawn in Section 6.

## 154 **2. Methodology**

### 155 **2.1 Model description and configuration**

156 The Community Earth System Model (CESM, v1.2.2) developed by the National  
157 Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR) is used in this study, configured with the  
158 Community Atmosphere Model version 5.0 (CAM5) and the Community Land Model  
159 version 4.0 (CLM4). The ocean and sea ice components are prescribed with  
160 climatological SST and sea ice distributions. Moist turbulence is parameterized  
161 following the Bretherton and Park (2009) scheme. Shallow convection is parameterized  
162 using the Park and Bretherton (2009) scheme. The parameterization of deep convection  
163 is based on Zhang and McFarlane (1995) with modifications following Richter and  
164 Rasch (2008), Raymond and Blyth (1986), and Raymond and Blyth (1992). The cloud  
165 microphysical parameterization is following a two-moment scheme described in  
166 Morrison and Gettelman (2008) and Gettelman et al. (2008). The microphysical effect  
167 of aerosols on clouds are simulated following Ghan et al. (2012). The parameterization  
168 of cloud macrophysics follows Conley et al. (2012).

169

170 The chemistry coupled in the CAM5 (i.e., CAM5-chem) is primarily based on the  
171 Model for O<sub>3</sub> and Related chemical Tracers, version 4 (MOZART-4), which resolves  
172 85 gas-phase species, and 196 gas-phase reactions (Emmons et al., 2010; Lamarque et  
173 al., 2012). A three-mode (i.e., Aitkin, accumulation and coarse) aerosol scheme for  
174 black carbon (BC), primary organic matter (POM), second organic aerosol (SOA), sea  
175 salt, dust and sulfate was used in our simulations following Liu and Ghan (2010). The  
176 lightning parameterization is modified according to Price et al. (1997) and tropospheric  
177 photolysis rates are calculated interactively following Tie et al. (2005). Gaseous dry  
178 deposition is calculated using the resistance-based parameterization of Wesely (1989),  
179 Walmsley and Wesely (1996), and Wesely and Hicks (2000). The parameterizations of  
180 in-cloud scavenging and below-cloud washout for soluble species are described in

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181 detail by Giorgi and Chameides (1985) and Brasseur et al. (1998), respectively.  
182 Anthropogenic emissions of chemical species are from the IPCC AR5 emission datasets  
183 (Lamarque et al., 2010), whose injection heights and particle size distributions follow  
184 the AEROCOM protocols (Dentener et al., 2006). The emissions of natural aerosols  
185 and precursor gases are prescribed from the MOZART-2 (Horowitz et al., 2003) and  
186 MOZART-4 (Emmons et al., 2010) datasets. All emission datasets are available from  
187 the CESM data inventory (<https://svn-ccsm-inputdata.cgd.ucar.edu/trunk/inputdata/>).  
188 The performance of CESM in simulating tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> has been validated by  
189 comparing with ozonesondes and satellite observations (Tilmes et al., 2014). The  
190 deviations between model and observations are within the range of about 25%. In  
191 general, the model can capture the surface ozone distribution and variability well, but  
192 may overestimate O<sub>3</sub> over the Eastern US and Western Europe in the summer (Tilmes  
193 et al., 2014).

194

## 195 **2.2 Numerical experiments**

196 We first conduct a control simulation, hereafter referred to as CTRL, with prescribed  
197 climatological monthly SSTs averaged from 1981 to 2010 (see Hurrell et al. (2008)).  
198 We then conduct six perturbation simulations with monthly SSTs that are uniformly  
199 increased or decreased by 1°C in three ocean basins in the Northern Hemisphere: the  
200 North Pacific (15°N-65°N; 100°E-90°W), North Atlantic (15°N-65°N; 100°W-20°E)  
201 and North Indian Oceans (5°N-30°N, 30°E-100°E; here 5°N is used to attain a relatively  
202 larger domain size). The simulations are denoted as “Pacific-W”, “Atlantic-W” and  
203 “Indian-W” for the three warming cases and “Pacific-C”, “Atlantic-C” and “Indian-C”  
204 for the three cooling cases. We defined the latitudinal and longitudinal ranges of these  
205 ocean basins mainly based on their geographical features. The boundaries of the  
206 prescribed SST anomalies generally align with the edge of the ocean basins, except  
207 along the southern side. In each perturbation simulation, we ~~further~~ linearly smooth the  
208 southern boundaries of these SST anomalies towards the equator to remove the sharp  
209 SST anomaly gradients at the edge, ~~—~~ following a previous approach (e.g., Taschetto et  
210 al., 2016; Seager and Henderson, 2016). We further conduct two sensitivity tests with

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211 1 °C SST warming and 1 °C SST cooling superimposed onto all three ocean basins (i.e.,  
212 the North Pacific, North Atlantic and North Indian Ocean) in the Northern Hemisphere,  
213 denoted as “All-W” and “All-C”, respectively. Air pollution emissions, including  
214 biogenic emissions of VOCs, are fixed to distinguish the impacts of SST variation on  
215 O<sub>3</sub> transport and photochemistry. All simulations are run for 21 years with the first year  
216 used for model spin-up.

217

218 To explore the impacts of SST changes on inter-continental transport, an explicit  
219 emission tagging technique is used in our simulations following previous studies  
220 (Shindell et al., 2008; Doherty et al., 2013). Artificial CO-like tracers emitted from four  
221 continental regions, i.e., North America (NA, 15°N–55 °N; 60°W–125°W), Europe  
222 (EU, 25°N–65 °N; 10°W–50 °E), East Asia (EA, 15 °N–50 °N; 95°E–160 °E) and South  
223 Asia (SA, 5 °N–35 °N; 50 °E–95°E), are tracked individually. These tracers are  
224 idealized with a first-order decay lifetime of 50 days, which is similar to O<sub>3</sub> (Doherty  
225 et al., 2013) and used to single out changes in O<sub>3</sub> transport induced by SST anomalies.

226

### 227 **2.3 Integrated process rate (IPR) analysis**

228 To provide a process-level explanation for the response of surface O<sub>3</sub> to regional SST  
229 changes, the IPR method is applied. This method calculates the accumulated  
230 contributions of individual processes (e.g., chemical production and loss, advection,  
231 vertical diffusion, dry deposition, etc.) to O<sub>3</sub> predictions during the model simulation  
232 and has been widely used for air pollution diagnostics (Li et al., 2012; Zhang and Wu,  
233 2013; Tao et al., 2015). In this study, we added the IPR scheme to the CESM framework  
234 to track the contribution of six physicochemical processes (i.e., gas-phase chemistry  
235 (CHEM), advection (ADVE), vertical diffusion (VDIF), dry deposition (DRYD),  
236 shallow convection (SHAL) and deep convection (DEEP)) to O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in  
237 every grid box. Wet deposition and aqueous-phase chemistry are ignored here due to  
238 the low solubility and negligible chemical production of O<sub>3</sub> in water (Jacob, 1999).  
239 Therefore, CHEM represents the net production (production minus loss) rate of O<sub>3</sub> due  
240 to gas-phase photochemistry. DRYD represents the dry deposition fluxes of O<sub>3</sub>, which

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241 is an important sink for O<sub>3</sub>. The other IPR terms (i.e., ADVE, VDIF, SHAL and DEEP)  
242 represent contributions from different transport processes. The IPR scheme tracks and  
243 archives the O<sub>3</sub> flux in each grid from every process during each model time step. The  
244 sum of the O<sub>3</sub> fluxes from these six processes matches the change in the O<sub>3</sub>  
245 concentration. The IPR method has been widely used in air quality studies to examine  
246 the cause of pollution episodes (Wang et al., 2010; Li et al., 2012). When applied in  
247 climate sensitivity analysis (usually measuring the difference between two  
248 equilibriums), the net change of all IPRs approaches zero. Typically, the positive  
249 changes in IPRs are mainly responsible for the increase in surface O<sub>3</sub>, which may  
250 further induce O<sub>3</sub> removal to balance this forcing in a new equilibrium. Therefore, here,  
251 the IPR analysis is used not to budget the SST-induced O<sub>3</sub> concentration changes but  
252 rather to help examine the relative importance of different transport and chemical  
253 processes in driving the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> to SST forcing. ~~The IPRs~~ performance is  
254 verified by comparing the predicted hourly O<sub>3</sub> changes with the sum of the individual  
255 fluxes from the six processes. As shown in Figure S1, the hourly surface O<sub>3</sub> changes  
256 are well represented by the sum of these fluxes in the model.

257

### 258 **3. Response of surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations to SST changes**

259 Seasonally (~~i.e., DJF (December, January, February), MAM (March, April, May), JJA~~  
260 ~~(June, July, August) and SON (September, October, November)~~) and regionally  
261 averaged surface O<sub>3</sub> changes in each SST perturbation simulation for the four highly  
262 populated continental regions and three ocean basins defined in our study are given in  
263 Tables 1 and S1, respectively. The responses of the surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations to basin-  
264 scale SST changes (i.e.,  $\pm 1$  °C) are mainly below 3 ppbv in the Northern Hemisphere  
265 (Tables 1 and S1), though larger anomalies (i.e., up to 5 ppbv) are also observed over  
266 the eastern coast of China, the Indian subcontinent, and certain oceanic areas (Figures  
267 1 and ~~S3S2~~). This SST-O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity is comparable to previous findings. For instance,  
268 Bloomer et al. (2009) reported a positive O<sub>3</sub>-temperature relationship of 2.2~3.2  
269 ppbv/°C across the rural eastern United States. Wu et al. (2008) found that summertime

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270 surface O<sub>3</sub> may increase by 2-5 ppbv over the northeastern United States in the 2050s.  
271 Additionally, Fiore et al. (2009) demonstrated an intercontinental decrease in surface  
272 O<sub>3</sub> of no more than 1 ppbv in response to 20 % reductions in anthropogenic emissions  
273 within a continental region. Our study indicates that basin-scale SST changes alone may  
274 exert significant effects on the surface O<sub>3</sub> above specific ocean basin and its  
275 surrounding continents.

276

277 As shown in Figure 1, seasonal changes of up to 5 ppbv in the mean surface O<sub>3</sub>  
278 concentration are observed during boreal summers, mainly in coastal regions and  
279 remote oceans. Surface O<sub>3</sub> changes in response to positive and negative SST anomalies  
280 generally ~~pronounce~~exhibit a consistent spatial pattern but are opposite in sign,  
281 suggesting robust relationships between surface O<sub>3</sub> levels and SST anomalies (Figure  
282 1). An increase in summertime SST over a specific ocean basin tends to increase the  
283 surface O<sub>3</sub> concentration over the upwind regions but reduce this concentration over  
284 downwind continents. For instance, a 1 °C warming over the North Pacific leads to a  
285 widespread decrease in surface O<sub>3</sub> over the North Pacific, North America and the North  
286 Atlantic of approximately 1 ppbv (Table S1) but may enhance the surface O<sub>3</sub> by nearly  
287 3 ppbv over South China. Similarly, ~~in the “SST warming over the North Atlantic-W”~~  
288 ~~ease, decrease~~ the surface O<sub>3</sub> levels ~~decrease~~ by 1~2 ppbv over the North Atlantic and  
289 Europe but increase (~1 ppbv) that over North America and the North Pacific. For the  
290 North Indian Ocean, positive SST anomalies tend to increase the surface O<sub>3</sub> over the  
291 Indian Ocean and Africa but decrease the surface O<sub>3</sub> over South and East Asia (Figure  
292 1). During the boreal winter, a widespread decrease in surface O<sub>3</sub> associated with the  
293 warming of different oceans is observed. Significant changes (e.g., up to 5 ppbv) mainly  
294 occur over remote ocean areas. Over populated continents, the response of the surface  
295 O<sub>3</sub> to basin-scale SST changes is typically insignificant. Details are shown in Figure  
296 ~~S3S2~~ in the supplementary material.

297

298 Our simulations reveal that different oceans can exert distinct region-specific effects on  
299 the O<sub>3</sub> distribution. The effects of three individual warming/cooling cases (i.e., Pacific-

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300 W, Atlantic-W and Indian-W/Pacific-C, Atlantic-C and Indian-C) on surface O<sub>3</sub>  
301 distributions are further summed up to compare with the combined warming/cooling  
302 cases(i.e., ALL-W/ALL-C).~~We further conduct two sensitivity tests with 1 °C SST~~  
303 ~~warming and 1 °C SST cooling superimposed onto all three ocean basins (i.e., the North~~  
304 ~~Pacific, North Atlantic and North Indian Ocean) in the Northern Hemisphere, denoted~~  
305 ~~as “All-W” and “All-C”, respectively. The effects of these combined warming and~~  
306 ~~cooling cases on surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions are respectively compared with the sum of the~~  
307 ~~three individual warming cases (i.e., Pacific W, Atlantic W and Indian W) and three~~  
308 ~~individual cooling cases (i.e., Pacific C, Atlantic C and Indian C).~~ The responses of  
309 surface O<sub>3</sub> to a hemispheric SST anomaly generally resemble the sum of responses to  
310 different individual regional SST changes (see Figures S5S3 and S7S4 in the  
311 supplementary material). This indicates that the effect of a generalized SST warming  
312 on surface O<sub>3</sub> can be decomposed into individual regional SST forcings. We now  
313 analyze the processes that impact the dependence of SST on the O<sub>3</sub> distribution using  
314 simulations that increase the SST.

#### 315 **4. Mechanism of SST-induced surface O<sub>3</sub> changes**

##### 316 **4.1 Process-level response to SST changes**

317 In this study, IPR analysis is used to evaluate the contribution of different  
318 physicochemical processes to O<sub>3</sub> evolution. ~~This type of analysis has been widely used~~  
319 ~~in air quality studies to examine the cause of pollution episodes (Wang et al., 2010; Li~~  
320 ~~et al., 2012)~~~~The.~~ ~~When applied in climate sensitivity analysis (usually measuring the~~  
321 ~~difference between two equilibriums), the net change of all IPRs approaches zero.~~  
322 ~~Typically, the positive changes in IPRs are mainly responsible for the increase in surface~~  
323 ~~O<sub>3</sub>, which may further induce O<sub>3</sub> removal to balance this forcing in a new equilibrium.~~  
324 ~~Therefore, here, the IPR analysis is used not to budget the SST-induced O<sub>3</sub>~~  
325 ~~concentration changes but rather to help examine the relative importance of different~~  
326 ~~transport and chemical processes in driving the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> to SST forcing.~~ In this  
327 study, the SST-induced, process-level O<sub>3</sub> changes are spatially averaged over four  
328 populated continental regions (i.e., NA, EU, EA and SA, Figure 2) and three ocean

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329 basins (i.e., the North Pacific, North Atlantic and North Indian Oceans, Figure [S9S5](#)).  
330 In most cases, VDIF and DRYD are the key processes controlling the O<sub>3</sub> variation. The  
331 downward transport of O<sub>3</sub> through diffusion ([VDIF](#)) is an important source of surface  
332 O<sub>3</sub>, while DRYD acts as a sink. Both processes are simultaneously determined by the  
333 strength of turbulence. Here, we define a new term TURB as the sum of DRYD and  
334 VDIF, which can capture the overall effect of turbulence changes on surface O<sub>3</sub>  
335 concentrations. In addition, we merge SHAL and DEEP as CONV to represent the total  
336 contribution of convective transport to surface O<sub>3</sub> (Figures 2 and [S9S5](#)). More detailed  
337 IPR results are shown in Figures [S10S6](#) and [S11S7](#) in the supplementary material.

338  
339 In the “Pacific-W” case, a 1 °C SST warming over the North Pacific increases VDIF  
340 over eastern China in JJA (Figure [S12S8](#)), which is insignificant if averaged over the  
341 whole East Asia region. Meanwhile, this Pacific warming considerably reduces VDIF  
342 over North America (Figure [S10S6](#)). The corresponding decrease in TURB over North  
343 America mainly determines the surface O<sub>3</sub> reduction in JJA and SON, while the  
344 reduction in CONV exerts an additional negative impact (Figure 2). In the “Atlantic-  
345 W” case, increases in VDIF are also observed over the upwind regions (i.e., North  
346 America) in JJA. However, these increases are accompanied by commensurate  
347 decreases in DRYD, resulting in an insignificant overall change in TURB (Figure 2).  
348 Therefore, the increase in CHEM is mainly responsible for the surface O<sub>3</sub> increase over  
349 North America in JJA. TURB is more relatively important over Europe (only in JJA  
350 and SON), leading to reduced surface O<sub>3</sub> abundance. In the “Indian-W” case, both  
351 CHEM and CONV are reduced over South Asia in JJA, leading to overall reductions in  
352 surface O<sub>3</sub> over the Indian subcontinent (Figure 2). The IPR analysis over the ocean  
353 basins shows that the warming of the North Pacific or North Atlantic induces reductions  
354 in VDIF and CHEM, which are responsible for the significant decrease in surface O<sub>3</sub>  
355 above these regions in JJA (Figure [S11S7](#)). The North Indian Ocean warming, on the  
356 other hand, enhances DEEP and VDIF, leading to a local increase in surface O<sub>3</sub> in JJA.

357  
358 The IPR analysis indicates that, in general, an SST increase in the North Pacific or



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359 North Atlantic is more likely to enhance the vertical diffusion of O<sub>3</sub> over upwind  
360 regions (i.e., East Asia or North America, respectively) but suppress this diffusion over  
361 the ocean basin as well as downwind continents in JJA (Figure S12S8). These opposite  
362 changes in VDIF over upwind and downwind regions lead to distinct surface O<sub>3</sub>  
363 responses. Changes in CHEM enhance surface O<sub>3</sub> formation in most cases. An  
364 exception is in South Asia, where CHEM and DEEP dominate the reduction in surface  
365 O<sub>3</sub> over the region in JJA associated with the North Indian Ocean warming. In the  
366 following subsections, the mechanisms of the SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationship for the four polluted  
367 continents are further explored. Here we focus on boreal summers since the surface O<sub>3</sub>  
368 response to SST changes is more robust during this period than other seasons.

369

#### 370 **4.2 Response of photochemical O<sub>3</sub> production to SST increases**

371 Changes in the net production rate (i.e., chemical production rate minus loss rate) of O<sub>3</sub>  
372 at the surface in JJA associated with basin-scale SST increases are shown in Figure 3.  
373 The peak changes are mainly confined to regions where O<sub>3</sub> precursors are abundant  
374 (e.g., South and East Asia and North America). For example, a warmer North Pacific  
375 SST exerts a positive (negative) impact on net O<sub>3</sub> production in the northern (southern)  
376 regions of East Asia. Similarly, the warming of the North Atlantic promotes a dipole  
377 impact on the surface O<sub>3</sub> production over North America, while the warming of the  
378 North Indian Ocean significantly decreases the net O<sub>3</sub> production rate over South Asia.

379

380 As emissions are fixed in all simulations, the change in net O<sub>3</sub> production is driven by  
381 SST induced meteorological changes (e.g., air temperature, air humidity, and solar  
382 radiation). An increase in SST of 1 °C in any ocean basin leads to a widespread  
383 enhancement of the surface air temperature (i.e., the air temperature at 2 m) over most  
384 continental areas (Figure 4). An exception is the North Indian Ocean, where an increase  
385 in SST tends to cool the Indian subcontinent by 1-2 °C. This temperature decrease is  
386 not only limited to the surface but also spreads to 600 hPa (Figure S16S9). Associated  
387 with this temperature decrease is a remarkable reduction in the solar radiation received

---

388 at the continent below surface (more than 15 W/m<sup>2</sup>, Figure [S17S10](#)). Previous studies  
389 have indicated that moist convection is more sensitive to the SST changes in the tropical  
390 oceans than in mid- or high- latitude oceans (Lau and Nath, 1994; Lau et al., 1997;  
391 Hartmann, 2015). The SST increase over the North Indian Ocean tends to strengthen  
392 the moist convection that eventually facilitates cloud formation in the upper troposphere  
393 (Roxy et al., 2015; Xi et al., 2015; Chaudhari et al., 2016). The latent heat released from  
394 convective activities significantly warms the air temperature over the upper troposphere  
395 (Sabeerali et al., 2012; Xi et al., 2015). Meanwhile, the corresponding increase in cloud  
396 cover blocks reduces the solar radiation reaching the surface of the Indian subcontinent  
397 and reduces thus the air temperature of lower troposphere in that region. These processes  
398 lead to opposite air temperature changes between upper and lower troposphere over  
399 South Asia in response to the North Indian warming (as shown in Figure [S16S9](#)), which  
400 may further suppress the development of deep convection over the Indian subcontinent.

401  
402 Previous studies have indicated that air temperature positively affects both O<sub>3</sub>  
403 production and destruction rates (Zeng et al., 2008; Pusede et al., 2015). As shown in  
404 Figure [S19S11](#), changes in the net O<sub>3</sub> production rate are mainly dominated by O<sub>3</sub>  
405 production over continents but by O<sub>3</sub> destruction over oceans. An increase in SST leads  
406 to a widespread enhancement of the air temperature, resulting in a positive change in  
407 the net O<sub>3</sub> production over most continental regions (Figure 3). However, a warmer SST  
408 also increases the air humidity (Figure [S21S12](#)), which enhances O<sub>3</sub> destruction over  
409 most coastal and oceanic areas. In addition, over South Asia, a warming of the North  
410 Indian Ocean decreases solar radiation and air temperature, and simultaneously  
411 increases air humidity, which jointly exert negative effects on O<sub>3</sub> production in that  
412 region.

### 414 **4.3 Response of physical O<sub>3</sub> transport to SST increases**

415 In Section 4.1, our IPR analysis highlights multiple physical processes (i.e., vertical  
416 diffusion, convection and advection) that are important in modulating surface O<sub>3</sub>

---

417 concentrations. However, the role and relative importance of each process exhibit large  
418 spatial heterogeneity. In this section, we explore the key factors controlling physical O<sub>3</sub>  
419 transport in response to basin-scale SST changes.

420

421 The changes in the surface pressure and wind pattern induced by a basin-wide SST  
422 increase are shown in Figure 5. Generally, a warming of any ocean basin will lead to a  
423 low-pressure anomaly centered to its west at low-latitudes, which is caused by SST-  
424 induced convective activity. Additionally, the warming of the Indian Ocean induces an  
425 anticyclonic anomaly over the subtropical western Pacific, which has been documented  
426 in previous studies (Yang et al., 2007; Li et al., 2008). As shown in Figure 6, the surface  
427 pressure reduction induced by SST warming in any ocean basin is closely associated  
428 with enhanced upward motions, suggesting a substantial enhancement in deep  
429 convection over tropical oceans. Previous studies have identified an SST threshold  
430 (approximately 26°–28°C) to generating deep convection (Graham and Barnett, 1987;  
431 Johnson and Xie, 2010). Therefore, the sensitivity of deep convection to an SST  
432 anomaly is strongly dependent on the distribution of base SST. The enhanced upward  
433 motion in response to a uniform increase in basin-scale SST mainly occurs over regions  
434 with high climatological SST (Figure 6). Regions with a low climatological SST have  
435 little effects on the vertical movement of air masses.

436

437 Strengthened deep convection will trigger large-scale subsidence over nearby regions  
438 through the modulation of large-scale circulation patterns, which may suppress  
439 convective transport (Lau et al., 1997; Roxy et al., 2015; Ueda et al., 2015). This effect  
440 is verified by the decreases in upward velocity at 500 hPa. As depicted in Figure 6,  
441 significant decreases in upward velocity occur over regions adjacent to the strengthened  
442 deep convection. Similar effects are also observed over higher latitudes or remote  
443 oceans (Figure [S23S13](#)). Meanwhile, the air temperature increase in response to  
444 regional SST warming is more significant above the lower troposphere, which leads to  
445 a decrease in the vertical temperature gradient (Figure [S16S9](#)). These factors tend to  
446 restrain the vertical exchange of air pollutants at mid-latitudes, which facilitates surface

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447 O<sub>3</sub> accumulation over polluted continental regions in JJA but may weaken the intrusion  
448 of O<sub>3</sub> from the upper troposphere to the surface in most unpolluted areas. This process  
449 helps to explain the widespread decrease in surface O<sub>3</sub> over unpolluted regions  
450 associated with an SST increase, as described in Section 3, and can be further verified  
451 by the wide-spread reduction in VDIF shown in Figure S12S8.

452  
453 The surface pressure anomalies induced by SST changes can play a dominant role in  
454 modulating surface O<sub>3</sub> transport at specific locations. For example, the low-pressure  
455 anomaly centered over the subtropical northwestern Pacific in the “Pacific-W” case  
456 causes the convergence of wind in the lower troposphere (Figure 5a). Consequently,  
457 surface O<sub>3</sub> pollution is enhanced in southern China due to an increase in O<sub>3</sub> transport  
458 from more polluted northern China (Figure 7a). The vertical distribution of the  
459 corresponding O<sub>3</sub> changes also shows that the increase in O<sub>3</sub> over southern China occurs  
460 below 700hPa, accompanied by noticeable decreases above 700hPa as well as over  
461 nearby northern China (Figure 7d). The IPR analysis also indicates that the increases in  
462 advective transport and downward turbulent transport are mainly responsible for the  
463 surface O<sub>3</sub> increase in southern China.

464  
465 In the “Atlantic-W” case, the SST warming-induced surface pressure anomalies lead to  
466 substantial O<sub>3</sub> redistribution, especially over the North Atlantic Ocean (Figure 7b). For  
467 North America, the changes in horizontal O<sub>3</sub> fluxes have no significant effect on the O<sub>3</sub>  
468 concentration increase. In addition, O<sub>3</sub> changes are observed to be larger in the upper  
469 troposphere than at the surface (Figure 7e). As demonstrated in Section 4.1, the  
470 response of lower-altitude O<sub>3</sub> over North America to the North Atlantic warming is  
471 mainly caused by enhanced chemical production, rather than physical transport.

472  
473 The North Indian SST warming leads to a low-pressure anomaly centered over the  
474 Arabian Sea (Figure 5c). The warming of the North Indian Ocean strengthens the  
475 upward motion of air at low-latitudes and further induces a convergence of highly  
476 polluted air over the Indian Ocean. The effects of this process on O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are

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477 observed to be more significant in the upper troposphere (Figure 7f). According to the  
478 IPR analysis, the surface O<sub>3</sub> increase over the Indian Ocean is mainly caused by the  
479 enhanced vertical transport of O<sub>3</sub> to the surface through deep convection and vertical  
480 diffusion processes (Figure S4S7). However, over the nearby Indian subcontinent, the  
481 suppressed convection tends to decrease surface O<sub>3</sub> in that region (Figure 2).

482

### 483 **5. Implications for O<sub>3</sub> long-range transport**

484 The above findings indicate that, in general, a basin-scale SST increase in the Northern  
485 Hemisphere is more likely to enhance atmospheric stability at mid-latitudes, which may  
486 suppress air pollutants from lofting to the free troposphere. This process potentially has  
487 large effects on O<sub>3</sub> intercontinental transport. Following previous work (e.g., Doherty  
488 et al., 2013; Fang et al., 2011), we use passive CO-like tracers to demonstrate the  
489 potential effect of regional SST changes on long-range O<sub>3</sub> transport. A warming of  
490 North Pacific SSTs by 1°C tends to increase the East Asian CO tracer concentrations  
491 by nearly 6% at the surface (Figure 8b), which is accompanied by a significant  
492 reduction (~4%) in eastward transport to North America. Similarly, for the North  
493 American tracer, a warming of North Atlantic SSTs by 1°C increases (~1%) the  
494 concentrations in North America but decreases (3-4 %) the concentrations over  
495 downwind Europe (Figure 8d). The response of the South Asian CO tracer to North  
496 Indian Ocean warming also shows a decreasing tendency over downwind regions, but  
497 the patterns are more complicated over the source region in this case (Figure 8e).  
498 Because the CO-like tracers added in the simulation have a fixed decay lifetime, their  
499 concentration changes are completely caused by the SST-induced transport anomalies.  
500 The decrease in CO tracer concentrations over downwind regions suggests that the  
501 warming of basin-scale SST tends to suppress the long-range transport of air pollutants.  
502 Additionally, in the “Pacific-W” case, changes in the East Asian CO tracer (Figure 8a)  
503 generally resemble the changes in surface O<sub>3</sub> over East Asia (Figure 7a), indicating the  
504 dominant effect of physical transport on the O<sub>3</sub> distribution over East Asia. Regarding  
505 the North American CO tracer in response to the North Atlantic warming or the South

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506 Asian CO tracer in response to the North Indian Ocean warming, their concentration  
507 changes are spatially inconsistent with those of O<sub>3</sub> (see Figures 7 and 8). This further  
508 indicates the distinct roles that different basin-scale SSTs play in nearby air quality.

509

510 Further investigations of zonal wind suggest that an increase in SST over different  
511 oceans consistently decreases the westerly winds at lower mid-latitudes (25°N - 45 °N)  
512 in the Northern Hemisphere but increases these winds at higher latitudes (Figure 9). In  
513 general, increases in the geopotential height induced by basin-scale SST warming are  
514 more significant at mid-latitudes than at other latitudes, which is consistent with the air  
515 temperature changes. Consequently, the meridional geopotential height gradient is  
516 decreasing at lower latitudes but increasing at higher latitudes, leading to corresponding  
517 changes in the westerly winds. The latitude band at 25°N - 45 °N covers many polluted  
518 regions (i.e., North America and East Asia). A weakened westerly wind may reduce  
519 long-rang O<sub>3</sub> transport. As demonstrated in Section 4.3, the basin-scale SST increases  
520 also exert negative effects on the upward transport of air masses at mid-latitudes.  
521 Therefore, the decreases in CO tracer concentrations over downwind regions (Figure  
522 8a and 8c) can be explained by both suppressed vertical transport and weakened  
523 westerly winds. In the “Indian-W” case, the SST increase over North India leads to a  
524 low-pressure anomaly above the Arabian Sea due to the enhanced deep convection (as  
525 discussed in Section 4.3). The corresponding anomalous ~~eyelone should be~~cyclonic  
526 circulation may be responsible for the dipole of the South Asian CO tracer changes over  
527 the source region depicted in Figure 8e.

528

529 In addition, we also find a hemispheric-scale decrease in peroxyacetyl nitrate (PAN), a  
530 reservoir of O<sub>3</sub> precursors (NO<sub>x</sub> and HO<sub>x</sub>) that facilitates the long-range transport of  
531 O<sub>3</sub>, during the warming of different oceans (Figure ~~S25~~S14). This decrease is likely  
532 caused by the increase in the thermal decomposition of PAN in response to the air  
533 temperature increase (Jacob and Winner, 2009; Doherty et al., 2013).

534

535 Thus, it is reasonable to infer that, in general, the increased thermal decomposition of

---

536 PAN, the weakened mid-latitude westerlies, and the reduced vertical air transport may  
537 exert a joint reducing effect on the intercontinental transport of O<sub>3</sub> during basin-scale  
538 SST increases.

539

## 540 **6. Summary**

541 In this paper, we investigate the responses of surface O<sub>3</sub> to basin-scale SST anomalies  
542 in the Northern Hemisphere. The latest version of CESM (version 1.2.2) is used in our  
543 simulation, forced with climatological and stationary SST anomalies ( $\pm 1$  °C) in the  
544 North Pacific, North Atlantic and North Indian Oceans, respectively. The responses of  
545 surface O<sub>3</sub> associated with these SST changes are evaluated. Results of similar  
546 magnitude but opposite sign are observed for the SST warming versus cooling  
547 simulations for each ocean basin, suggesting robust connections between the SST  
548 anomalies and surface O<sub>3</sub> changes. The regionally and seasonally averaged surface O<sub>3</sub>  
549 changes over four continental regions (i.e., NA, EU, EA and SA) ~~pronounneeproduce~~  
550 wide seasonal and regional variability (varying from 1 to 3 ppbv). The warming of the  
551 North Pacific leads to nearly 3 ppbv increases in the surface O<sub>3</sub> over southern China in  
552 summer, with corresponding decreases over North America (~1 ppbv). Similarly, the  
553 North Atlantic SST warming elevates the surface O<sub>3</sub> pollution over North America  
554 while reducing the surface O<sub>3</sub> (nearly 1-2 ppbv) over Europe. Changes in the North  
555 Indian SST exert significant impacts (1-3 ppbv) over South and East Asia during the  
556 entire year.

557

558 Process analysis indicates that dry deposition and vertical diffusion are two major  
559 processes governing the surface O<sub>3</sub> balance. The increase in SST in different ocean  
560 basins tends to increase the contributions of vertical diffusion to surface O<sub>3</sub> over upwind  
561 regions while greatly restraining that over downwind continents. These processes  
562 generally lead to widespread decreases in surface O<sub>3</sub>, which are partially offset by  
563 increases in air temperature-dependent chemical production rates. Specifically, the  
564 chemical production changes are mainly responsible for the surface O<sub>3</sub> increases over

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565 North America in response to the North Atlantic SST warming but exert a negative  
566 effect on South Asia in response to the North Indian SST warming. Decreases in the  
567 convective transport of O<sub>3</sub> to the surface associated with North Indian warming are  
568 significant over South Asia and exert a negative impact on surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations.  
569 Advective transport has a positive effect on surface O<sub>3</sub> in southern China in the “Pacific-  
570 W” case.

571

572 We further show that air temperature is an important factor controlling the surface O<sub>3</sub>  
573 responses to SST anomalies. Reductions in the surface O<sub>3</sub> chemical production in South  
574 Asia associated with North Indian SST warming can be explained by the corresponding  
575 SST-induced decreases in ground-level air temperature and solar radiation. Meanwhile,  
576 the widespread increase in air temperature associated with basin-scale SST warming is  
577 more likely to promote O<sub>3</sub> production over other highly polluted regions.

578

579 On the other hand, SST increases at low latitudes over different oceans enhance deep  
580 convection in summer, which promotes convergence at the surface, as well as upward  
581 motions at low latitudes. The corresponding surface pressure anomalies centered over  
582 the east coast of East Asia associated with the North Pacific warming and over the  
583 Arabian Sea associated with the North Indian warming tend to increase the surface O<sub>3</sub>  
584 above through exchanges with the surrounding highly polluted air. The basin-scale SST  
585 increases in the Northern Hemisphere reduce the tropospheric temperature gradient at  
586 mid-latitudes that restrains vertical transport of O<sub>3</sub> over continents and weakens the  
587 westerlies at lower mid-latitudes. The response of the CO-tracer also suggests that these  
588 factors may jointly exert a negative effect on the intercontinental transport of O<sub>3</sub>.

589

590 ~~Overall, our~~This study highlights the sensitivity of O<sub>3</sub> evolution to basin-wide SST  
591 changes in the Northern Hemisphere and identifies the key chemical or dynamical  
592 factors that control this evolution. Idealized and spatially uniform SST anomalies are  
593 used to explore the general mechanisms governing SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationships. We find that  
594 the SST changes over tropical regions exert considerable impacts on surface O<sub>3</sub> levels.



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595 The increase in tropical SST over different ocean basins enhances deep convection,  
596 which further trigger large-scale subsidence over nearby and remote regions. These  
597 enhanced convective activities also tend to release more latent heat over the upper  
598 troposphere and significantly increases the air temperature there. These processes  
599 influence large-scale circulation patterns and lead to opposite surface O<sub>3</sub> responses over  
600 upwind and downwind regions related to a specific ocean basin. These finding provides  
601 valuable implications for the potential surface O<sub>3</sub> change in response to future warming  
602 or cooling of individual oceans.

603  
604 Additionally, the sensitivity tests with 1°C SST warming and cooling superimposed  
605 onto all three ocean basins further show in general that the SST forcing on O<sub>3</sub>  
606 distribution is geographically additive. A number of studies have used the decomposed  
607 SST anomalies for different regions to identify their relevant roles in a particular  
608 climate response (e.g., Sutton and Hodson, 2005; Camargo et al., 2013; Ueda et al.,  
609 2015). A linear assumption that the influence of large-scale SST anomaly pattern on the  
610 atmosphere can be generally constructed by the linear combination of the influences of  
611 individual SST patches have been verified by previous studies, especially for the  
612 tropical regions where the signal-to-noise is higher (e.g., Fan et al., 2016; Seager and  
613 Henderson, 2016). Therefore, our study also helps to understand the roles of different  
614 ocean basins in the Northern Hemisphere played in modulating surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions  
615 in a global-wide SST warming condition associated with climate change.

616  
617 Overall, this study may guide the management of regional O<sub>3</sub> pollution by considering  
618 the influence of specific SST variability. However, to provide a more comprehensive  
619 understanding of the SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationship, further studies using realistic SST variability  
620 are necessary. This study may aid in the management of O<sub>3</sub> pollution by considering  
621 the influence of specific SST variability. cautions should be taken in interpreting our  
622 results in the real world since observed surface O<sub>3</sub> variabilities are induced by various  
623 factors including O<sub>3</sub> precursor emissions and atmospheric conditions. Realistic SST  
624 anomalies over different oceans are more complicate (usually not uniformly distributed)

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625 and often inter-correlated with each other (Fan et al., 2016). They may exert jointly  
626 effects on modulating surface O<sub>3</sub> distributions. To provide more precise understanding  
627 about the SST-O<sub>3</sub> relationship over a specific region, additional sensitivity tests  
628 regarding smaller patches of SST variability are necessary.

629

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636

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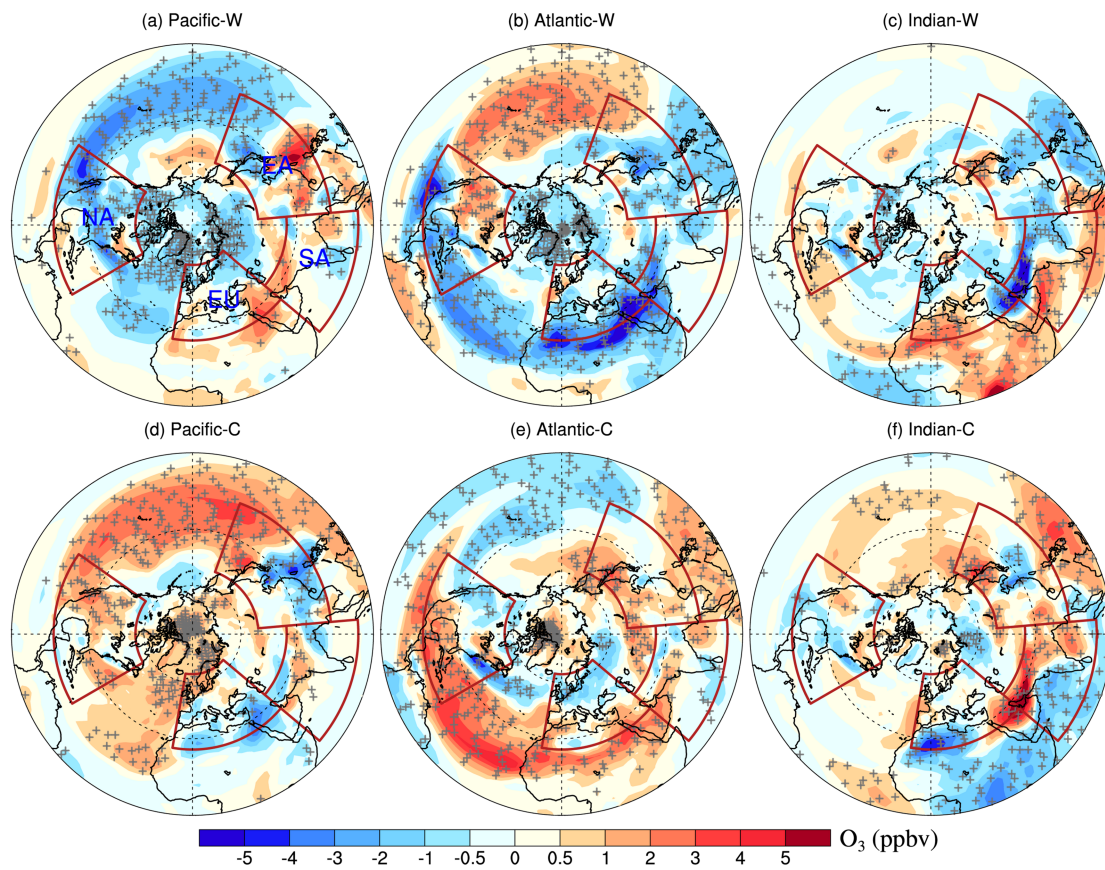
928

929 **Table 1. Regionally and seasonally (i.e., DJF (December, January, February), MAM**  
 930 **(March, April, May), JJA (June, July, August) and SON (September, October,**  
 931 **November)) and regionally averaged (only land grid boxes are included) changes in**  
 932 **surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (ppbv) for basin-scale SST perturbation cases relative to the**  
 933 **control simulation. Positive (negative) changes that are significant at the 0.05 level**  
 934 **evaluated by Student's t-test are marked in red (blue).**

Ozone (ppbv)		DJF	MAM	JJA	SON	
North Pacific	+1° C	North America	-0.27*	-0.42*	-0.92*	-1.03*
		Europe	-0.50*	-0.26	0.10	-0.29
		East Asia	-0.88*	-0.71*	0.20	0.17
		South Asia	-1.00*	0.30	0.43	0.43*
	-1° C	North America	0.00	0.57*	0.55*	0.82*
		Europe	0.19	0.15	-0.47*	0.47*
		East Asia	0.30	-0.17	-0.22	-0.67*
		South Asia	0.04	-0.24	0.03	-0.40
North Atlantic	+1° C	North America	0.03	0.49	0.50*	0.53*
		Europe	0.30*	0.06	-1.61*	-0.89*
		East Asia	-0.52*	-0.68*	-0.62*	-0.25
		South Asia	-0.20	-1.46*	-1.28*	-0.82*
	-1° C	North America	-0.07	-0.10	0.10	-0.17
		Europe	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.06
		East Asia	0.16	-0.08	0.80*	-0.60*
		South Asia	-0.20	-0.40	0.30	-0.10
North India	+1° C	North America	-0.25	-0.04	-0.16	-0.10
		Europe	-0.30	0.08	-0.12	0.19
		East Asia	-0.53*	-0.77*	-0.28	-1.78*
		South Asia	-1.00*	0.14	-1.67*	-2.75*
	-1° C	North America	0.04	0.17	0.04	0.25
		Europe	0.05	-0.07	-0.13	-0.24
		East Asia	-0.06	0.15	0.55*	0.33
		South Asia	-0.03	0.57	1.70*	1.31*

935 \*Significant at the 0.05 level from Student's t-test using 20 years of model results.

936



938

939 **Figure 1.** Changes in the summertime (June-August) surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (ppbv)

940 in the Northern Hemisphere induced by 1°C warming (top) and 1°C cooling (bottom)

941 in the North Pacific Ocean (left), North Atlantic Ocean (center), and North Indian

942 Ocean (right) relative to the CTRL. The four major regions of interest (i.e., NA (15°N–

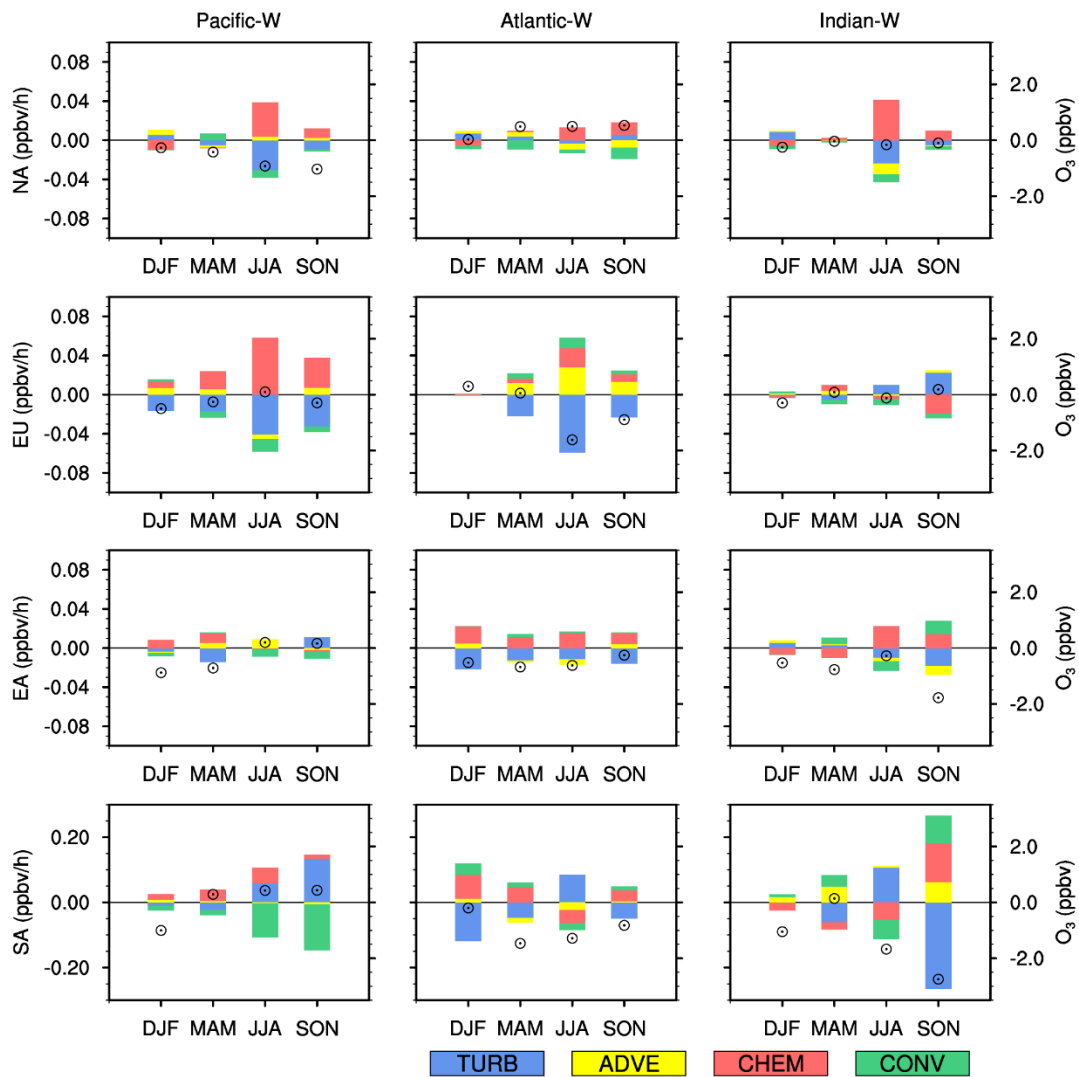
943 55°N; 60°W–125°W), EU (25°N–65°N; 10°W–50°E), EA (15°N–50°N; 95°E–160°E)

944 and SA (5°N–35°N; 50°E–95°E)) are marked with red polygons. The + symbols denote

945 areas where results are significant at the 0.05 level, evaluated by Student's t-test using

946 20 years of data ~~(plots using the Mercator projection are shown in Figure S2 in the~~947 ~~supplementary material).~~

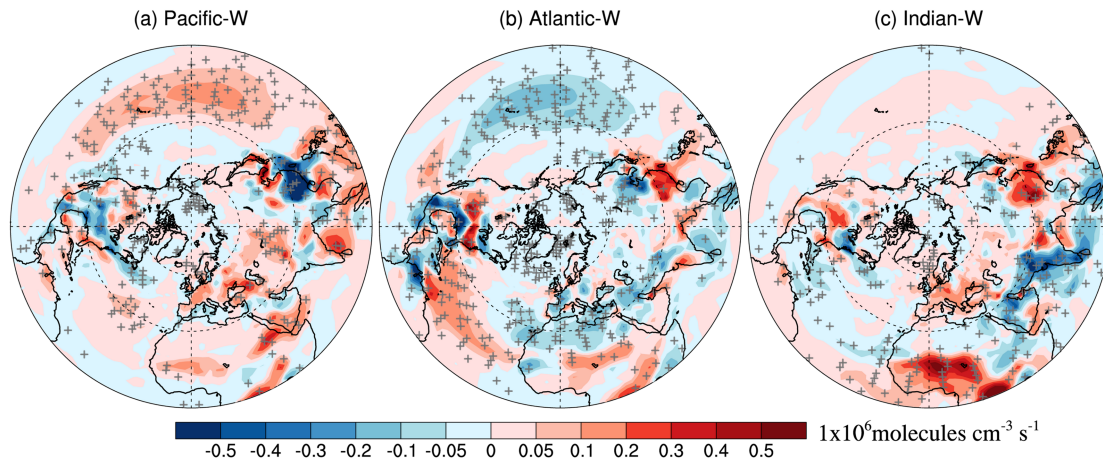
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949

950 **Figure 2.** Seasonally averaged changes in the IPR contributions (bars, ppbv/h, left scale)  
 951 and surface O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (hollow circles, ppbv, right scale) for Pacific-W (left),  
 952 Atlantic-W (middle) and Indian-W (right) relative to the CTRL. Values are regionally  
 953 averaged over NA (first row), EU (second row), EA (third row) and SA (last row).  
 954 TURB is defined as the sum of VDIF and DRYD. CONV is the sum of DEEP and  
 955 SHAL. IPR contributions from the four processes (i.e., TURB, ADVE, CHEM and  
 956 CONV) are represented by different colors. A more detailed IPR result is shown in  
 957 Figure S610 in the supplementary material.

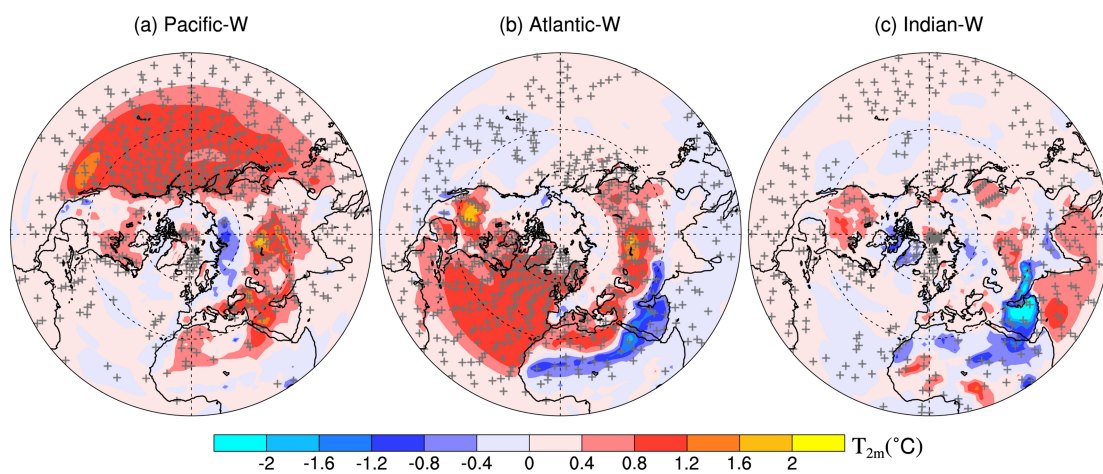
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959

960 **Figure 3.** Perturbations of the surface net O<sub>3</sub> production rate ( $1 \times 10^6$  molecules cm<sup>-3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) for (a) Pacific-W, (b) Atlantic-W, and (c) Indian-W relative to the CTRL in the boreal summer. The + symbols denote areas where the results are significant at the 0.05 level, evaluated by Student's t-test using 20 years of data (plots using the Mercator projection are shown in Figure S14 in the supplementary material).

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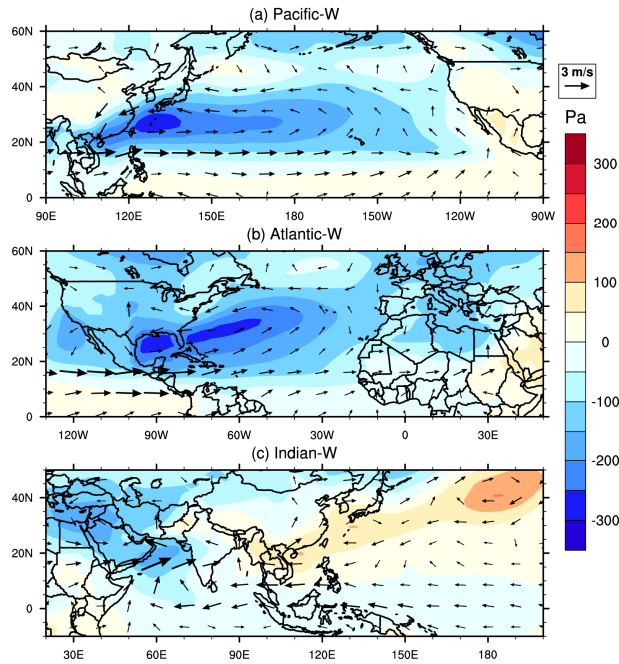


966

967 **Figure 4.** Changes in the surface air temperature (°C) for (a) Pacific-W, (b) Atlantic-W, and (c) Indian-W relative to CTRL in the Northern Hemisphere in the boreal summer. The + symbols denote areas where the results are significant at the 0.05 level, evaluated by Student's t-test using 20 years of data (plots using the Mercator projection are shown in Figure S15 in the supplementary material).

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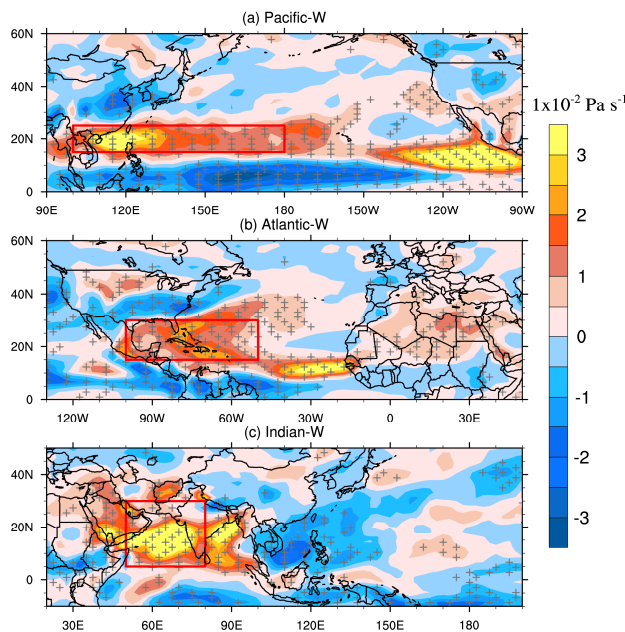
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974

975 **Figure 5.** Changes in the surface pressure (color contours, Pa) and 850-hPa wind  
 976 (arrows,  $\text{m s}^{-1}$ ) for (a) Pacific-W, (b) Atlantic-W, and (c) Indian-W relative to the CTRL  
 977 in the boreal summer.

978



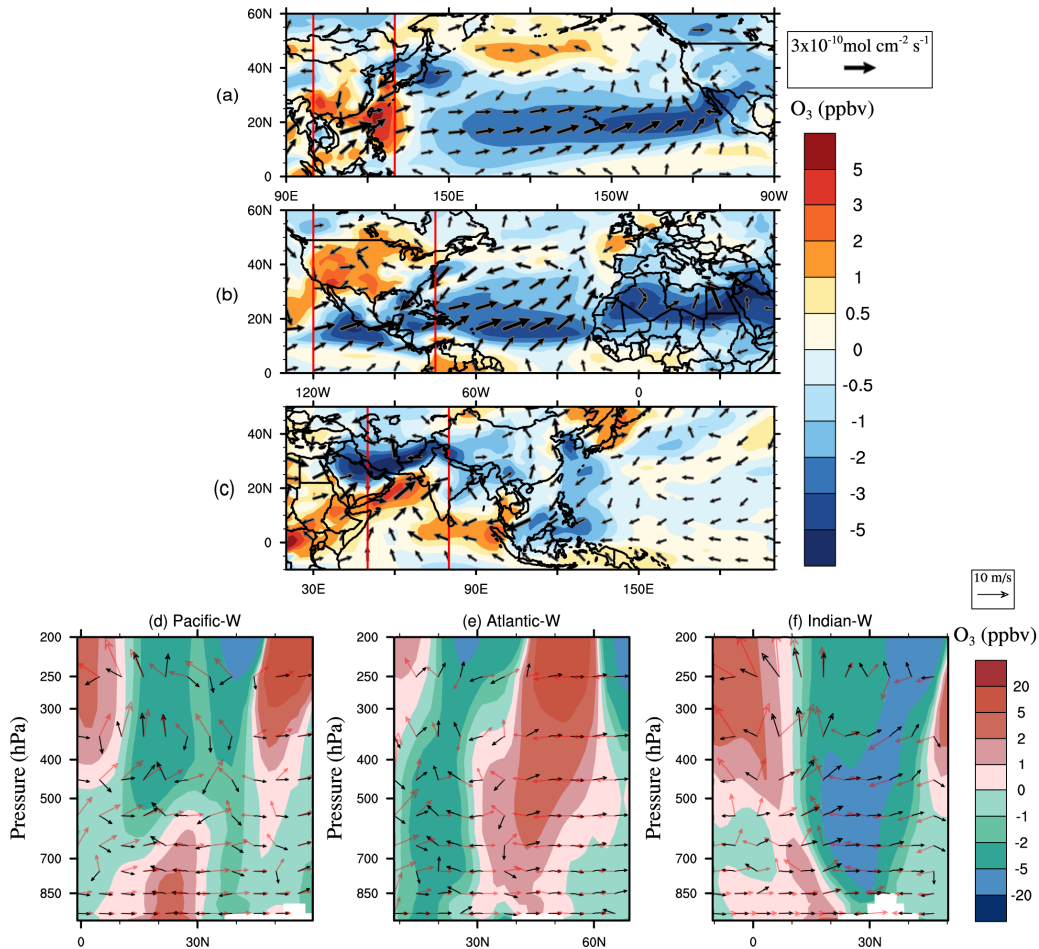
979

980 **Figure 6.** Spatial pattern of vertical velocity changes at 500 hPa (color contours,  $1 \times 10^{-2}$   
 981  $\text{Pa s}^{-1}$ ) for (a) Pacific-W, (b) Atlantic-W, and (c) Indian-W relative to the CTRL in the  
 982 boreal summer. Positive values indicate upward motion. Red polygons denote the  
 983 regions where the surface pressure responses to SST anomalies are significant (see



984 Figure 5 a-c). The + symbols indicate areas where the results are significant at the 0.05  
 985 level, evaluated by Student's t-test using 20 years of data.

986

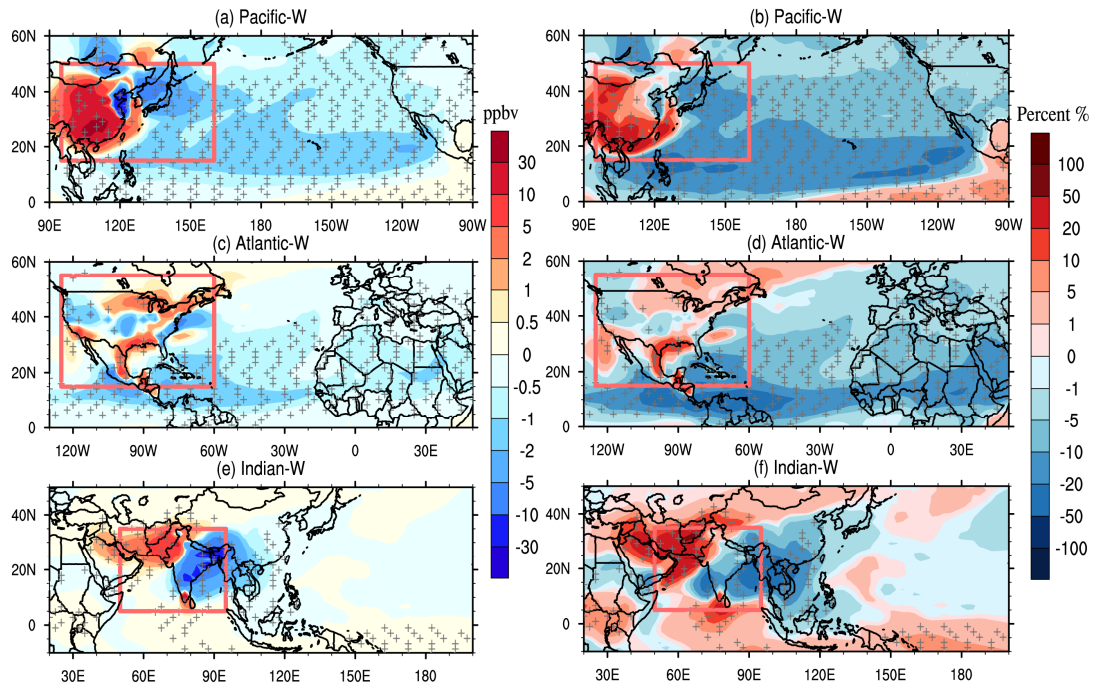


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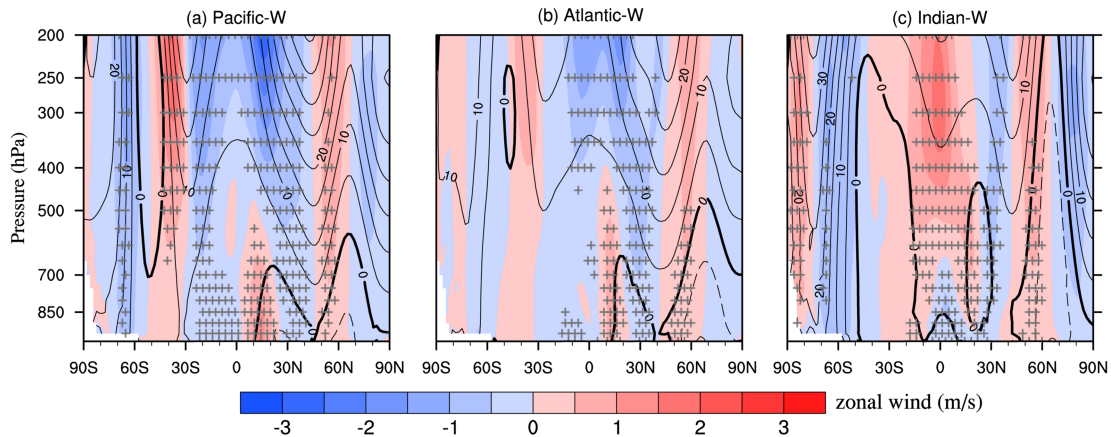
988 **Figure 7.** Top three rows: Changes in O<sub>3</sub> concentrations (color contours, ppbv) and  
 989 horizontal fluxes (arrows, mol cm<sup>-2</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>) at the surface level for (a) Pacific-W, (b)  
 990 Atlantic-W, (c) Indian-W relative to the CTRL in the boreal summer. Last row: zonal  
 991 average of the tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> changes (color contours, ppbv), wind fluxes in CTRL  
 992 (red arrows, m s<sup>-1</sup>) and the wind flux perturbation (black arrows, m s<sup>-1</sup>) in (d) Pacific-  
 993 W, (e) Atlantic-W, (f) Indian-W relative to the CTRL in the boreal summer. The red  
 994 rectangles in (a), (b) and (c) denote the longitudinal range used for the zonal averages  
 995 in (d), (e) and (f), respectively. The vertical wind velocity is amplified 1000 times to  
 996 make it comparable to the horizontal wind velocity.

997

998



999  
 1000 **Figure 8.** Left-hand panel: Difference in the surface concentration (ppbv) of a CO-like  
 1001 tracer emitted from (a) East Asia for Pacific-W, (c) North America for Atlantic-W and  
 1002 (e) the South Asia for Indian-W relative to the CTRL in the boreal summer. Right-hand  
 1003 panel: The percentage changes in the surface concentration of a CO-like tracer emitted  
 1004 from (b) East Asia for Pacific-W, (d) North America for Atlantic-W and (f) South Asia  
 1005 for Indian-W relative to the CTRL in the boreal summer. Red polygons denote the  
 1006 region where the CO-like tracer is emitted from. The + symbol denotes areas where the  
 1007 results are significant at the 0.05 level, evaluated by Student's t-test using 20 years of  
 1008 data.  
 1009



1010  
 1011 **Figure 9.** Zonally averaged changes in zonal wind (color contour, m/s) and geopotential

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1012 height (contour, m) for (a) Pacific-W, (b) Atlantic-W and (c) Indian-W relative to the  
1013 CTRL in the boreal summer. Black solid and dashed lines in the contours indicate  
1014 positive and negative geopotential height anomalies, respectively (contour interval: 5  
1015 m). The + symbol denotes areas where the zonal wind changes are significant at the  
1016 0.05 level, evaluated by Student's t-test using 20 years of data.