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# Impact of Intercontinental Pollution Transport on North American Ozone Air Pollution: An HTAP Phase 2 Multi-model Study

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### 26 Abstract

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28 The recent update on the US National Ambient Air Ouality Standards of the ground-level 29 ozone  $(O_3)$  can benefit from a better understanding of its source contributions in different US 30 regions during recent years. In the Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution experiment Phase 1 31 (HTAP1), various global models were used to determine the O<sub>3</sub> source-receptor relationships 32 among three continents in the Northern Hemisphere in 2001. In support of the HTAP Phase 2 33 (HTAP2) experiment that studies more recent years and involves higher-resolution global models 34 and regional models' participation, we conduct a number of regional scale Sulfur Transport and 35 dEposition Model (STEM) air quality base and sensitivity simulations over North America during 36 May-June 2010. STEM's top and lateral chemical boundary conditions were downscaled from 37 three global chemical transport models' (i.e., GEOS-Chem, RAQMS, and ECMWF C-IFS) base 38 and sensitivity simulations in which the East Asian (EAS) anthropogenic emissions were reduced 39 by 20%. The mean differences between STEM surface O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities to the emission changes 40 and its corresponding boundary condition model's are smaller than those among its boundary 41 condition models, in terms of the regional/period mean (<10%) and the spatial distributions. An 42 additional STEM simulation was performed in which the boundary conditions were downscaled 43 from a RAQMS simulation without EAS anthropogenic emissions. The scalability of O<sub>3</sub> 44 sensitivities to the size of the emission perturbation is spatially varying, and the full (i.e., based on 45 100% emission perturbation) source contribution obtained from linearly scaling the North 46 American mean O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities to a 20% reduction in the EAS anthropogenic emissions may be 47 underestimated by at least 10%. The three boundary condition models' mean O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities to 48 the 20% EAS emission perturbations are ~8% (May-June 2010)/~11% (2010 annual) lower than 49 those estimated by eight global models, and the multi-model ensemble estimates are higher than 50 the HTAP1 reported 2001 conditions. GEOS-Chem sensitivities indicate that the EAS 51 anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions matter more than the other EAS O<sub>3</sub> precursors to the North 52 American O<sub>3</sub>, qualitatively consistent with previous adjoint sensitivity calculations.

53 In addition to the analyses on large spatial/temporal scales relative to the HTAP1, we also 54 show results on subcontinental- and event-scale that are more relevant to the US air quality 55 management. The EAS pollution impacts are weaker during observed O<sub>3</sub> exceedances than on all 56 days in most US regions except over some high terrain western US rural/remote areas. Satellite O<sub>3</sub> 57 (TES, JPL-IASI, and AIRS) and carbon monoxide (TES and AIRS) products, along with surface measurements and model calculations, show that during certain episodes stratospheric O<sub>3</sub> 58 59 intrusions and the transported EAS pollution influenced O<sub>3</sub> in the western and the eastern US 60 differently. Free-running (i.e., without chemical data assimilation) global models underpredicted 61 the transported background O<sub>3</sub> during these episodes, posing difficulties for STEM to accurately 62 simulate the surface O<sub>3</sub> and its source contribution. Although we effectively improved the modeled 63 O<sub>3</sub> by incorporating satellite O<sub>3</sub> (OMI and MLS) and evaluated the quality of the HTAP2 emission 64 inventory with the KNMI OMI nitrogen dioxide, using observations to evaluate and improve  $O_3$ source attribution still remains to be further explored. 65

### 66 1. Introduction

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68 Tropospheric ozone  $(O_3)$ , a short-lived trace gas with a lifetime ranging from hours in the 69 boundary layer to weeks in the free troposphere, affects tropospheric chemistry, harms human and ecosystem health, and induces climate change on local, regional and global scales (Jerrett et al., 70 71 2009; Smith et al., 2009; Anenberg et al., 2010; Mauzerall and Wang, 2001; Avnery et al., 2011a, 72 b; Shindell et al., 2009, 2013; Bowman and Henze, 2012; Stevenson et al., 2006, 2013; Monks et 73 al., 2015). It has been recognized that the uneven distributions of tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> can be attributed 74 to the stratosphere as well as local, regional and distant emission sources, through complicated 75 processes that occur on synoptic, meso- and micro-scales (Task Force on Hemispheric Transport 76 of Air Pollution (HTAP), 2010; National Research Council (NRC), 2009; Maas and Grennfelt, 77 2016). The mitigation of O<sub>3</sub>'s climate and health impacts would benefit from efforts to control the 78 emissions of its precursors from the various emission sources (United Nations Environment 79 Programme (UNEP) and World Meteorological Organization (WMO), 2011), such as nitrogen 80 oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>), and non-methane volatile organic 81 compounds (NMVOCs).

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83 Ground-level O<sub>3</sub> is one of the six criteria air pollutants regulated by the US Environmental 84 Protection Agency (EPA), and the US National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) has 85 recently been lowered to 70 ppbv to better protect Americans' health and the environment. Issues 86 regarding making accurate estimates of the total O<sub>3</sub> as well as the background O<sub>3</sub> level (defined as 87 the concentration that is not affected by recent locally-emitted or produced anthropogenic pollution) 88 (e.g., McDonald-Buller et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2011; Fiore et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2015), 89 have been recently discussed as part of the implementation of the new US O<sub>3</sub> standard (US EPA, 90 2016a, b). This includes assessing the impacts of various components of the background O<sub>3</sub>, such 91 as stratospheric O<sub>3</sub>, local natural sources such as biogenic, lightning and wildfire emissions, as 92 well as the long-range transport (LRT) of pollution. The impact of the trans-Pacific pollution 93 transport on US air quality has been evaluated in numerous studies over the past decades (e.g., 94 Fiore et al., 2009; Reidmiller et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2008, 2009; Huang et al., 2010, 2013a; Lin 95 et al., 2012a, 2015, 2016; US EPA, 2016a). It has been found that the increasing trends of pollution 96 in the upwind continents, especially the populated East Asia (e.g., Zhang et al., 2014; Susaya et 97 al., 2013; Wang et al., 2012), may partially offset the US air quality improvements in recent 98 decades due to the regional and local emission controls (e.g., Jacob et al., 1999; Verstraeten et al., 99 2015; Ambrose et al., 2011; Wigder et al., 2013; Cooper et al., 2010; Parrish et al., 2009, 2012; 100 Gratz et al., 2014). A better understanding of the processes that determine the O<sub>3</sub> pollution levels, 101 as well as an improved capability of attributing the air pollution to nearby or distant sources is 102 needed to assist with designing and implementing effective local emission control strategies to 103 comply with the tighter air quality standards.

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105 Chemical transport models are often used to reproduce and attribute the observed  $O_3$  levels, 106 including assessing the impacts of the internationally transported  $O_3$  on the US air quality. In the 107 HTAP modeling experiment Phase 1 (HTAP1), various global models with horizontal resolutions 108 ranging from 1°×1° to 5°×5°, only around half of which are finer than 3°×3°, were used to 109 determine the  $O_3$  source-receptor (SR) relationships among three continents in the Northern 110 Hemisphere in 2001 (Chapter 4 in HTAP, 2010). The global model based SR relationships in

111 HTAP1 determined using the emission perturbation approach (i.e., calculating the changes of O<sub>3</sub>

112 at the receptor regions in response to a 20% reduction in the emission inputs in a given source 113 region) were reported as either monthly 24h mean values or policy-relevant metrics such as the 114 maximum daily 8h average (MDA8) for the US (e.g., Fiore et al., 2009; Reidmiller et al., 2009). 115 Large intermodel diversity was found in the simulated total O<sub>3</sub> and the intercontinentally 116 transported pollution for the chosen SR pairs in the northern midlatitudes, indicating the challenges 117 with model simulations to accurately represent the key atmospheric processes. Multi-model mean 118 results were the foci of in these studies with the assumption that this approach can reduce the 119 uncertainty from the single model estimates for monthly or seasonal means. "Ensemble" model 120 analyses have been suggested by some US stakeholders as one of the methods for helping with the 121 characterization of the background O<sub>3</sub> components (US EPA, 2016b). Although the multi-model 122 approach can help identify some of the weaknesses of the individual models and may produce 123 more reliable estimates, it is necessary to well understand the uncertainties inherent in using the 124 same set of anthropogenic emissions in all these model simulations. Satellite observations over the 125 regions with limited in-situ measurements such as the East Asia can be particularly helpful for 126 quantifying such uncertainties.

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128 The 20% emission perturbation in the HTAP1 modeling experiment was chosen to produce 129 a sizeable (i.e., larger than numerical noise) and realistic impact, but small enough in the assumed 130 near-linear atmospheric chemistry regime. The scalability of the modeled O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities to the 131 size of the emission perturbations has been assessed on continental scale (Wu et al., 2009; Fiore et 132 al., 2009; HTAP, 2010; Wild et al., 2012; Emmons et al., 2012). The receptor O<sub>3</sub> responses to the 133 source-region emission perturbations are found to be fairly linear within ~50% of the perturbations. 134 However, due to the chemical non-linearity, the full source contribution obtained by linearly 135 scaling the receptor regional mean O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity to the 20% reduction in the source region 136 emissions may be underestimated, and the scalability depended on seasons and the perturbed 137 emission species. Huang et al. (2013b) investigated the scalability of the O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity between 138 the southern California-US intermountain west SR pair for May 2010, in which study the southern 139 California anthropogenic emissions were perturbed by multiple amounts of +50%, -50%, -100%. 140 They reported that the scalability of the  $O_3$  sensitivities changed with the distance from the source 141 regions. Further analyses on the scalability of these modeled O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities during recent years 142 especially for the East Asia-NAM SR pair, as well as their spatial variability, are still needed. 143 Furthermore, results generated using the emission perturbation approach need to be compared with 144 those based on the other methods (e.g., tagged tracers, adjoint sensitivity).

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146 Previous studies have demonstrated the advantages of high resolution chemical transport 147 modeling for understanding SR relationships (e.g., Lin et al., 2010 for Europe and the East Asia; Lin et al., 2012a; Huang et al., 2010, 2013a for Asia and NAM). Using observations (satellite, 148 149 sondes, aircraft) along with single model simulations, a few studies have reported that the US O<sub>3</sub> 150 sensitivities to extra-regional sources is time- and region-dependent (e.g., Lin et al., 2012a, b; 151 Langford et al., 2011; Ott et al., 2016), and therefore the necessity of evaluating the extra-regional source impacts on event scale has been emphasized in these studies as well as in US EPA (2016a, 152 153 b). The HTAP Phase 2 (HTAP2) multi-model experiment, initiated in 2012, is designed to advance 154 the understanding of the impact of intercontinental pollution transport during more recent years 155 (i.e., 2008-2010) involving a number of global and regional models' participation (Galmarini et 156 al., 2017; Koffi et al., 2016). The regional models are anticipated to help connect the analyses over 157 global and regional scales and enable discussions on small spatial (e.g., subcontinental) and

158 temporal scales (i.e., event based analyses). The use of satellite products for identifying the 159 transport events as well as for quantitative model evaluation is also encouraged in the work plan. 160 The HTAP2 modeling experiment was sequentially conducted in two steps. First, similar to the HTAP1 experiment, a group of global models with different resolutions conducted base and 161 emission perturbation sensitivity simulations to determine the pollutants' SR relationships. All 162 163 models in their base simulations used the same set of harmonized sector-based global 164 anthropogenic emissions developed specifically for the HTAP2 modeling experiment (Janssens-165 Maenhout et al., 2015). Most of these global models recorded only key chemical species from their 166 base and sensitivity simulations in varied temporal frequencies. Several global models saved the 167 three-dimensional (3D) chemical fields of more species with a 3- or 6-hour interval, which are suitable for being used as regional models' chemical boundary conditions. In the second step, 168 169 regional models conducted base and sensitivity simulations to analyze the pollutants' SR 170 relationships in greater detail. The regional model simulations used the same set of anthropogenic 171 emissions as the global models within their simulation domains, and the chemical boundary 172 conditions in these regional simulations were downscaled from the base and sensitivity simulations 173 from the selected boundary condition model outputs. For regional simulations over the North 174 America and Europe, boundary conditions were mostly taken from a single model such as the 175 ECMWF C-IFS or GEOS-Chem.

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177 This study aims to address: 1) comparing the differences in O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities generated from 178 the HTAP2 and HTAP1 experiments, which could help address how the LRT impacts on NAM 179 changed through time; 2) how the refined modeling experiment design in HTAP2 can help advance 180 our understanding of the LRT impacts on NAM, particularly the involvement of regional models 181 and the inclusion of small spatial/temporal scale analysis during high O<sub>3</sub> episodes that are more 182 relevant to air quality management; 3) the usefulness of satellite observations for better 183 understanding the sources of uncertainties in the modeled total O<sub>3</sub> (e.g., from the emission and 184 regional models' boundary condition inputs) as well as for reducing the uncertainties in some of these model inputs via chemical data assimilation. We performed a number of regional scale 185 186 STEM (Sulfur Transport and dEposition Model) base and sensitivity simulations over the NAM 187 during May-June 2010, during which period strong trans-Pacific pollution transport were shown 188 to episodically impact the US (Lin et al., 2012a). Extending the HTAP2 regional simulations' basic 189 setup, the STEM top and lateral chemical boundary conditions were downscaled from three global 190 models' (i.e., the Seoul National University (SNU) GEOS-Chem, RAQMS, and the ECMWF C-191 IFS) base and sensitivity simulations in which the East Asian anthropogenic emissions were 192 reduced. The STEM surface O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities over the NAM region based on different boundary 193 condition models were inter-compared, in terms of the regional averages and the spatial patterns 194 on monthly basis and during a selected event identified by satellite O<sub>3</sub> and CO products. These 195 were also compared with the sensitivities estimated by their corresponding boundary condition 196 models as well as all HTAP2 participating global models and the results from HTAP1.

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# **198 2. Methods**

199 200 2.1. Anthropogenic emission inputs

Identical anthropogenic emissions were used in all global and regional chemical transport
 models' base and sensitivity simulations. This monthly-varying harmonized sectoral (i.e., power,
 industry, transportation, residential, shipping, aircraft, agriculture) emission inventory was

provided on a gridded 0.1°×0.1° resolution for the years of 2008 and 2010, by compiling the 204 205 officially reported emissions at the national scale (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015; 206 http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/htap v2). The temporal profiles for developing the monthly-varying 207 emissions differ by region and sector. The amount of emissions of key  $O_3$  precursors (CO, NO<sub>x</sub>, 208 NMVOCs) from both years are summarized in Table S1 for the four major emissions sectors, over 209 the NAM (US+Canada, based on data from the US EPA and the Environmental Canada, which 210 shows lower emissions from the previous years as also discussed in Pouliot et al., 2015), MICS-211 Asia regions (south, southeast, and east Asia, based on country inventory for China and from the 212 Clean Air Policy Support System and the Regional Emission inventory in ASia 2.1, more 213 information also in Li et al., 2017), and for over the world. For all of these species, global total 214 emissions in 2008 and 2010 are similar. The NO<sub>x</sub>, NMVOC, and CO emissions decreased from 215 2008 to 2010 over the NAM by 10.7%, 9.4%, and 15.7%, respectively. In 2008, NAM NO<sub>x</sub>, 216 NMVOC and CO contributed to 18.0%, 11.7% and 11.9% of the global total, respectively, and in 217 2010, these contributions became 15.8%, 10.5% and 10.2%. For 2010, the transportation sector contributed more than the other sectors to NAM anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> and CO emissions; industrial 218 219 sector contributed more than the other sectors to NMVOCs emissions. Over East Asian countries, these emissions are ~2-5 times higher than the US emissions, and the NO<sub>x</sub>, NMVOC and CO 220 emissions increased over Asia by 7.3%, 7.2% and 1.0%, with the dominant emission sectors in 221 222 2010 of transportation, industry, and residential, respectively. For both years, the emissions over 223 the MICS-Asia regions contribute to over 40% of the global emissions. For these key O<sub>3</sub> precursors, 224 the East Asian countries contribute to 45% (NMVOCs)-70% (NO<sub>x</sub>) of the emissions in the MICS-225 Asia domain in both years, and the south Asian countries contribute to  $\sim 22\%$  (NO<sub>x</sub>)-34% 226 (NMVOCs) of the MICS-Asia emissions. The uncertainty of the emission estimates differs by emission sector and species: i.e., the emissions from large-scale combustion sources (e.g., NOx 227 228 and CO from power and industry sectors) are less uncertain than those from small-scale and 229 scattered sources (e.g., CO and NMVOCs from transportation and residential sources). Non-230 anthropogenic emission inputs used in different models' simulations may differ, and their impacts 231 on the modeled total  $O_3$  and the SR relationships will be compared in detail in future studies.

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### 2.2. Region definitions for the SR study and the model base and sensitivity simulations

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# 2.2.1. Base and 20% emission perturbation simulations from global and regional models

235 The HTAP2 simulations from eight global models, used in this study, are listed in Table 236 1a, including the relevant references. Horizontal and vertical resolutions of these models range from finer than 1° to coarser than 2.5°, and from 20 to 60 layers, respectively. Overall these 237 resolutions are higher than the HTAP1 participating models'. Figure 1 defines the source regions 238 239 used in the HTAP2 SR relationship study and we will focus in this study on assessing the East 240 Asia (EAS), S Asia (SAS), Europe (EUR), and non-NAM anthropogenic source (interchangeable 241 in this paper with "(all) foreign") impacts on the NAM O<sub>3</sub> levels in 2010. Specifically, each model 242 performed a base simulation and a number of sensitivity simulations in which the original HTAP2 243 anthropogenic emissions for all species and sectors in a defined source region were perturbed by 244 a certain amount (referring to 20% as in most cases) and these cases are defined in Table 1a-b as 245 \*source region\*ALL(\*perturbation\*), where "ALL" refers to "all species and sectors", consistent with HTAP1 and HTAP2's naming convention. The O<sub>3</sub> differences R(O<sub>3</sub>, \*source region\*, 246 247 \*perturbation\*) over the NAM were then calculated between each model's base and sensitivity 248 simulations:

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250	$R(O_3, EAS, 20\%) = BASE O_3 - EASALL(-20\%) O_3$	(1a)
251	$R(O_3, SAS, 20\%) = BASE O_3 - SASALL(-20\%) O_3$	(1b)

(1c)

252  $R(O_3, EUR, 20\%) = BASE O_3 - EURALL(-20\%) O_3$ 

253  $R(O_3, \text{non-NAM}, 20\%) = \text{NAMALL}(-20\%) O_3 - \text{GLOALL}(-20\%) O_3$  (1d)

- 254 Where "GLO" stands for the "global" source region.
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256 The monthly-mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, \*source region\*, 20%) values were averaged over the NAM 257 region for the analysis and compared with the findings in the HTAP1 study (e.g., Fiore et al., 2009). 258 It is worth mentioning that the rectangular source regions defined in HTAP1 were modified in 259 HTAP2 to align with the geo-political borders. For EAS and SAS, the regions not overlapped by 260 HTAP1 and HTAP2 are mostly in the less populated/polluted regions such as the northwestern 261 China, according to the HTAP2 emission maps (http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/htap v2/index.php). 262 HTAP2's EUR domain excludes certain regions in Russia/Belarussia/Ukraine, Middle East and 263 North Africa that are included in HTAP1's EUR domain. The impact of emissions over these 264 regions on comparing the NAM R(O<sub>3</sub>, EUR, 20%) values in HTAP1 and HTAP2 will be discussed 265 in Section 3.2.1.

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A unitless "Response to Extra-Regional Emission Reductions (RERER)" metric (Galmarini et al., 2017), as defined in eq. (2), was also calculated to measure the importance of local versus non-local sources to NAM's O<sub>3</sub> levels:

270 RERER (O<sub>3</sub>, NAM) =  $\frac{R(o3, non - NAM, 20\%)}{R(o3, global, 20\%)} = \frac{(NAMALL(-20\%) O3 - GLOALL(-20\%) O3)}{(BASE O3 - GLOALL(-20\%) O3)}$  (2)

The denominator and numerator terms of RERER represent the impacts of global and non-NAM anthropogenic emissions on NAM O<sub>3</sub>, respectively. The higher the NAM RERER value is, the stronger impact from non-local sources on NAM is indicated. The RERER value can exceed 1, when emission reductions led to increasing concentrations (e.g. O<sub>3</sub> titration by nitrogen monoxide (NO)).

277 The STEM (version 2K3) regional simulations were then performed on a 60 km×60 km 278 horizontal resolution (a typical coarse regional model resolution) grid over NAM within the 279 domain defined in Figure 2a during May-June 2010. The meteorological conditions in spring 2010 280 were compared with the climatology from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis data for the 1981-2010 281 period (Kalnay et al., 1996) in Huang et al. (2013b), concluding that this spring represents a period 282 of stronger-than-climatological average spring trans-Pacific transport, based on a stronger 283 meridional gradient in the North Pacific and higher Pacific/North American (PNA) indexes. This 284 is consistent with the findings by Lin et al. (2014) that the El Niño conditions during the 09/10 285 winter strengthened the trans-Pacific transport of Asian pollution in spring 2010. The mean near-286 surface air temperatures in the western US in this spring were lower than the climatology, with 287 larger anomalies in the mountain states, which may have led to weaker local O<sub>3</sub> production and 288 decomposition of the transported peroxyacyl nitrates (PAN). In contrast, higher-than-normal 289 temperatures were found in the eastern US that favored anomalously strong local O<sub>3</sub> production.

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STEM has been used to interpret the observations collected by satellites and during aircraft
campaigns in the past decade (e.g., Carmichael et al., 2003a, b; Huang et al., 2010, 2013a, b, 2014,
2015). STEM calculates gas-phase chemistry reactions based on the SAPRC 99 gaseous chemical
mechanism (Carter, 2000) with thirty photolysis rates calculated online by the Tropospheric
Ultraviolet-Visible radiation model (Madronich et al., 2002). Most of the key configurations of the

296 60 km base simulations are the same as those described in Lapina et al. (2014), i.e., meteorological 297 fields were pre-calculated by the Advanced Research Weather Research and Forecasting Model 298 (WRF-ARW, Skamarock et al., 2008) version 3.3.1 forced by the North American Regional 299 Reanalysis data (Mesinger et al., 2006), using a similar set of the physics configuration to those in Huang et al. (2013a). Biomass burning emissions are from the Fire INventory from NCAR (FINN) 300 301 inventory version 1.0 (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011). Biogenic emissions were calculated by the Model 302 of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) version 2.1 (Guenther et al., 2012), 303 driven by the WRF meteorology. Lightning NO<sub>x</sub> emissions are generated following the method in 304 Allen et al. (2012), with the flash rates determined by the WRF convective precipitation and scaled 305 to the National Lightning Detection Network flash rates. A major difference of the STEM 306 simulations in this study from the Lapina (2014) study is that the anthropogenic emissions were 307 replaced with the monthly-mean HTAP2 inventory with no weekday-weekend variability applied, 308 rather than the earlier National Emission Inventory (NEI) 2005 in which the weekday-weekend 309 variability exists. This change can introduce uncertainty for some US regions where weekday-310 weekend variability of some O<sub>3</sub> precursors' emissions was notable during the studied period (e.g., 311 weekend NO<sub>x</sub> emissions in southern California during spring/summer 2010 were 0.6-0.7 of the 312 weekday emissions as reported by Kim et al. (2016) and Brioude et al. (2013)), but this was done 313 to ensure consistency with the HTAP2 global model simulations, that also didn't use daily variable 314 emissions for any regions in the world. The VOC speciation for the SPRAC 99 chemical 315 mechanism in the NEI 2005 (ftp://aftp.fsl.noaa.gov/divisions/taq/emissions data 2005) were 316 applied to break down the total NMVOC emissions provided in the HTAP2 inventory. The VOC 317 speciation based on the year of 2005 can be unrealistic for 2005 as well as 2010 as studies have 318 reported variable temporal changes of different VOC species in some US cities (e.g., Warneke et 319 al., 2012). The time-varying lateral and top boundary conditions in the STEM base simulations 320 were downscaled from three global models (i.e., 3 hourly SNU GEOS-Chem, 3 hourly ECMWF 321 C-IFS, and 6 hourly RAQMS) base simulations. In support of the SR relationship study to quantify 322 the East Asia anthropogenic impacts on the NAM, three STEM sensitivity simulations were also 323 conducted in which the STEM boundary conditions were downscaled from the EASALL(-20%) 324 sensitivity simulations by these three global models (Table 1b). All STEM simulated 3D chemical 325 fields were saved hourly for the convenience of calculating the US primary O<sub>3</sub> standard metric 326 MDA8 as well as the quantitative comparisons against the satellite Level 2 (L2) O<sub>3</sub> products. The 327 STEM base case surface O<sub>3</sub> performance and its O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities were also compared with those of 328 its boundary condition models as well as the multi- global model means. The latitude/longitude 329 ranges (20-50°N/130-65°W) of NAM for the global and regional model based sensitivity 330 calculations were selected to mainly account for the coverage of the STEM domain, which are 331 slightly different from the definition of North America in HTAP1.

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Note that non-anthropogenic emission inputs used in STEM and its boundary condition models differed, as summarized in Table 1c. Figure S1 shows detailed comparisons between STEM and GEOS-Chem's non-anthropogenic (i.e., soil, lightning, biomass burning)  $NO_x$ emission inputs, and their impacts on the modeled NAM background  $O_3$  were included in Lapina et al. (2014). Such quantitative comparisons will also be carried out between STEM and its other boundary condition models in future studies.

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- 340 <u>2.2.2.</u> Additional base and sensitivity simulations from selected models
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342 In addition to the base and 20% EAS all-category emission perturbation simulations, the 343 global RAQMS model conducted a sensitivity simulation in which the East Asian anthropogenic 344 emissions were zeroed out, which was also used as STEM's boundary conditions (Table 1b). We 345 calculate the " $S_{O3}$ " metric (eq. (3)) using the O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities in STEM and RAQMS at the receptor regions in response to both 20% and 100% of emission reductions, to explore the relationships 346 347 between the O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity and the size of the emission perturbation. A closer-to-one "S<sub>O3</sub>" value 348 indicates higher scalability of the sensitivity based on the 20% emission perturbation method for 349 obtaining the full "contribution" of the East Asian anthropogenic emissions on the NAM O<sub>3</sub>.

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352 353  $S_{O3} = R(O_3, EAS, 100\%)/R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)/5$ Where:  $R(O_3, EAS, 100\%) = BASE O_3 - EASALL(-100\%) O_3$  (3)

The RAQMS model also provided a base simulation that assimilated satellite O<sub>3</sub> products from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI, Levelt et al., 2006) and Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS, Livesey et al., 2008) (Pierce et al., 2007), which was used to help better understand the regional model base run error sources, as well as for demonstrating the use of satellite observations to help improve the representation of the trans-boundary pollution.

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We also used a number of sensitivity simulations produced by the GEOS-Chem adjoint model v35f in which the emissions from selected anthropogenic emission sectors (power&industry, transportation, residential) or individual O<sub>3</sub> precursor chemical species (NO<sub>x</sub>, VOC, CO) over the East Asia were reduced by 20%. Additional simulations for the 2008-2009 periods by the SNU GEOS-Chem were also utilized to quantify the East Asia and non-NAM anthropogenic source impacts in comparison with the 2010 conditions that we mainly focus on in this study.

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# 367 2.3. In-situ and satellite observations

# 368 <u>2.3.1</u>. In-situ observations

369 Over the receptor NAM, the hourly  $O_3$  observations at the Clean Air Status and Trends 370 Network (CASTNET, http://epa.gov/castnet/javaweb/index.html) sites were used to evaluate the global and regional models' base simulations in four subregions: western US (i.e., the EPA regions 371 372 8, 9, 10); southern US (i.e., the EPA regions 4 and 6), the Midwest (i.e., the EPA regions 5 and 7), 373 and the northeast (i.e., the EPA regions 1-3). The numbers of sites used in global and regional 374 models' evaluation in each US subregion are summarized in Tables 2-3. The locations of these 375 sites and the subregions they belong to are indicated in Figure 2a, overlaid on a model-based terrain height map. A majority of the CASTNET sites in the western US are located at high elevation (>1 376 377 km) remote or rural regions, more susceptible to the trans-boundary pollution (e.g., Jaffe, 2011). 378 Most of the sites in the other three subregions are located in low elevation regions, mainly affected 379 by local and regional pollution. The model-based terrain heights fairly well represent the reality 380 on subregional scale – the differences between the actual and model-based subregional mean 381 terrain heights at the CASTNET sites are smaller than 0.1 km (Table 3).

382

During May-June 2010, intense ozonesonde measurements were made at multiple California locations (Cooper et al., 2011), in support of the NOAA "California Nexus (CalNex): Research at the Nexus of Air Quality and Climate Change" field experiment (Ryerson et al., 2013). They have been used to evaluate the simulated O<sub>3</sub> vertical profiles by the HTAP2 participating 387 models. The detailed evaluation results have been shown by Cooper et al. (2016), and will be 388 covered by subsequent publications.

389

Over HTAP2's EAS source region, the global models' O<sub>3</sub> performance was evaluated against the monthly-mean surface in-situ O<sub>3</sub> measurements at 11 sites within the Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia (EANET, http://www.eanet.asia) that had data throughout the year of 2010. These include eight Japanese and three Korean sites (Figure 3a), all of which are located at low elevation regions (2-150 m). The reported monthly mean observations at these sites were based on weekly or daily sampled data, varying among sites.

396

# 397 <u>2.3.2. Satellite products</u> 398

399 In two case studies of high  $O_3$  episodes, L2 and L3  $O_3$  and CO retrievals from several 400 satellite instruments were used to assess the impacts of trans-Pacific pollution transport and 401 stratospheric O<sub>3</sub> intrusions on NAM O<sub>3</sub> levels in early May. These include: 1) the early afternoon 402 O<sub>3</sub> and CO profiles version 5 from the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) (Beer et al., 403 2001; Beer, 2006) on the Aura satellite; 2) the mid-morning O<sub>3</sub> profiles from the METOP-Infrared 404 Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI), which were retrieved using the Jet Propulsion 405 Laboratory (JPL) TES optimal estimation retrieval algorithm (Bowman et al., 2006) for selected 406 areas including the western US (Oetjen et al., 2014, 2016); as well as 3) the early afternoon L3 O<sub>3</sub> 407 and CO maps (version 6, 1°×1°) from the Aqua Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) instrument. 408 The TES tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> retrieval is often sensitive to the mid- to lower free troposphere, and O<sub>3</sub> 409 at these altitudes in the Eastern Pacific is known to possibly impact the downwind US surface air quality at later times (Huang et al., 2010; Parrish et al., 2010). TES O<sub>3</sub> is generally positively 410 411 biased by <15% relative to high accuracy/precision reference datasets (e.g., Verstraeten et al., 412 2013). Although IASI is in general less sensitive than TES due to its coarse spectral resolution, the 413 681–316 hPa partial column-averaged O<sub>3</sub> mixing ratios in the JPL product agree well with TES 414 O<sub>3</sub> for the 2008–2011 period with a -3.9 ppbv offset (Oetjen et al., 2016). Note that IASI O<sub>3</sub> data 415 are processed operationally in Europe using a different algorithm. For this work we used  $O_3$ 416 profiles from TES and IASI processed using a consistent algorithm at JPL, although the latter set 417 of data represents only a small subset of the full set of the IASI radiance measurements. The IASI 418 and TES L2 O<sub>3</sub> profiles (screened by the retrieval quality and the C-Curve flags) were used to 419 evaluate the STEM O<sub>3</sub> vertical distributions in the different base simulations, and the satellite 420 observation operators were applied in these comparisons. Taking TES as an example, its 421 observation operator  $h_z$  for O<sub>3</sub> is written in (4):

422 
$$h_z = z_c + A_{\text{TES}} (\ln(F_{\text{TES}}(c)) - z_c)$$

(4)

423 where  $z_c$  is the natural log form of the TES constraint vector (a priori) in volume mixing ratio. A<sub>TES</sub> is the averaging kernel matrix reflecting the sensitivity of retrieval to changes in the true state 424 425 (Rodgers, 2000). F<sub>TES</sub> projects the modeled O<sub>3</sub> concentration fields c to the TES grid using spatial and temporal interpolation. The exponential of  $h_z$  is then used to compute the mismatches between 426 427 the model and TES O<sub>3</sub> retrievals as the model evaluation. A small mismatch between model with 428 the satellite observation operators and the satellite retrievals may indicate either good model 429 performance or may be the low sensitivity of the retrievals to the true O<sub>3</sub> profile. AIRS O<sub>3</sub> is 430 sensitive to the altitudes near the tropopause, with positive biases over the ozonesondes in the 431 upper troposphere (e.g., Bian et al., 2007); AIRS CO is most sensitive to 300-600 hPa (Warner et 432 al., 2007) and is frequently used together with the AIRS  $O_3$  to distinguish the stratospheric  $O_3$ 

intrusions from long-range transported anthropogenic or biomass burning pollution. We use the
 L3 AIRS products in this study to get a broad overview of the areas that are strongly impacted by
 the stratospheric O<sub>3</sub> intrusions or/and LRT of pollution.

436

437 The bottom-up NO<sub>x</sub> emissions from the HTAP2 inventory were assessed on a monthly base 438 by comparing the GEOS-Chem nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>) columns with the de-striped KNMI (Royal 439 Netherlands Meteorological Institute) OMI column NO<sub>2</sub> product version 2.0 (Boersma et al., 440 2011a, b). For this model evaluation against the OMI L2 products, the NO<sub>2</sub> fields calculated by the 441 GEOS-Chem adjoint model were saved daily at 13:30 local solar time, roughly coinciding with 442 the Aura and Aqua overpassing times. Other parameters used in the model column calculations 443 came from the GEOS-5/GEOS-Chem monthly mean conditions. The OMI data that passed the 444 tropospheric quality flag at 13-14 local time were selected based on the following screening criteria: 445 surface albedo<0.3; cloud fraction<0.2; solar zenith angle <75°; and viewing zenith angle <45°. 446 The averaging kernels (Eskes and Boersma, 2003) and Air Mass Factors (AMFs) in the KNMI 447 product were used to calculate the modeled tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> vertical columns comparable to the 448 OMI's. Details of the method to compare the model-based NO<sub>2</sub> columns with the KNMI OMI's 449 can be found in Huang et al. (2014).

450

# 451 **3. Results and Discussions**

452

3.1. Evaluation of the HTAP2 bottom-up  $NO_x$  emissions and the model base simulations

453 <u>3.1.1. Evaluation of the bottom-up  $NO_x$  emissions</u>

454

455 The comparison of the GEOS-Chem adjoint NO<sub>2</sub> columns with the OMI product was used to help assess the bottom-up HTAP2 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. Figure 4 shows that NO<sub>2</sub> columns from 456 GEOS-Chem's base simulations over the US are overall overestimated. While grid-scale 457 458 differences in NO<sub>2</sub> columns may not be directly indicative of emissions biases (Qu et al., 2016), 459 these discrepancies are possibly due to a positive bias in the bottom-up emissions, mainly from the 460 anthropogenic sources, which have also been pointed out by Anderson et al. (2014) and Travis et 461 al. (2016). Larger OMI-model disagreement was found over the central/eastern US in June 2010 462 than in May, likely also due to the uncertainty in GEOS-Chem's soil or lightning NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, 463 which appear to be high over these regions (Figure S1). The NO<sub>2</sub> columns in the GEOS-Chem 464 base simulation were overestimated in many northern China rural areas and underpredicted in a 465 few urban areas in the East Asia as well as a broad area in the southwestern China. The mismatches 466 between model and OMI NO<sub>2</sub> fell within the ranges of the comparison between the GOME2 NO<sub>2</sub> column product and six models' simulations over China in summer 2008 (Quennehen et al., 2016). 467 468 Also, the use of monthly-mean anthropogenic emissions as well as the overall rough treatment of 469 emission height and temporal profiles can be sources of uncertainty. These global model 470 evaluation results suggest that the EAS-NAM SR relationships analyzed using this inventory may 471 overall overestimate the NAM local contribution and underestimate the EAS contribution-Under 472 different chemical regimes, this statement would also rely on the quality of other O<sub>3</sub> precursors' 473 emissions in the HTAP2 inventory, and they may be associated with variable uncertainties 474 depending on the species or emission sector as introduced in Section 2.1. Therefore, careful 475 assessment of other key O<sub>3</sub> precursors' emissions in the inventory is needed in the future work. It 476 is important to note that uncertainty in satellite retrievals can prevent us from producing accurate 477 assessment on emissions (e.g., van Noije et al., 2006), and this comparison does not account for 478 the biases in the used OMI data, and would be further validated by using other OMI NO<sub>2</sub> products

as well as the bias-corrected (if applicable) in-situ NO<sub>2</sub> measurements. We also recommend more
global models to save their calculations more frequently, at least near the satellite overpassing
times, for a more comprehensive assessment of the emission inventory and a better understanding
of the model biases.

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### 3.1.2. Evaluation of the global model $O_3$ performance in NAM and EAS

486 The monthly-mean surface O<sub>3</sub> from multiple global models' free runs was evaluated with 487 the CASTNET observations, at the stations with 95% of the hourly O<sub>3</sub> observation completeness 488 for the 1 May-30 June 2010 period. The mean biases and RMSEs for these two months were 489 summarized in Table 2a by US subregions. The three boundary condition-model as well as the 490 eight-model ensembles overall underpredicted  $O_3$  in the western US (by ~3-6 ppbv), similar to the HTAP1 model performance over these regions for May-June 2001 presented in Fiore et al. (2009). 491 This can be due to the underestimated trans-boundary pollution (as indicated by the evaluation of 492 493 modeled O<sub>3</sub> profiles with ozonesondes and satellite O<sub>3</sub> products). In addition, the coarser model 494 resolutions are less capable of resolving the local features that influence the pollutants' import 495 processes, chemical transformation, as well as regional processes such as the cross-state pollution 496 transport over complex terrains. The global RAQMS base simulation with satellite assimilation 497 improved the free tropospheric  $O_3$  structure as its comparisons with the ozonesondes shows, which 498 also enhanced the simulated monthly-mean surface O<sub>3</sub> by up to >10 ppbv in the western US and 499 some coastal areas in the southeastern US (Figure S2, left). The global models overall significantly 500 overestimated O<sub>3</sub> in the other three subregions (by 8-12 ppbv), close to HTAP1 model performance for May-June 2001 over the similar areas (Fiore et al., 2009) and in the Lapina et al. (2014) study 501 502 for 2010, in large part due to the uncertainties in the bottom-up emissions as discussed in Section 503 3.1.1. Satellite assimilation led to 2-6 ppbv higher RAQMS surface O<sub>3</sub> in the 504 central/southern/eastern US than in its free simulation, which are associated with higher positive 505 biases.

506

507 The surface  $O_3$  performance by individual global models varies significantly, e.g., with the 508 RMSEs at all CASTNET sites ranging from ~9 ppbv to >15 ppbv (Table 2b). As reported in the 509 literature (e.g., Geddes et al., 2016; Travis et al., 2016), the representation of land use/land cover, 510 boundary layer mixing and chemistry can be sources of uncertainty for certain global model (i.e., 511 GEOS-Chem), but how serious these issues were in the other models need to be investigated 512 further. Some other possible reasons include the variation of these models' non-anthropogenic 513 emission inputs and chemical mechanisms (Table 1c). Future work should emphasize on 514 evaluating and comparing all models on process level to better understand their performance. 515 Except in the northeastern US, the eight-model ensembles show better agreement with the 516 CASTNET O<sub>3</sub> observations than the three boundary condition-model ensemble. Overall the threemodel ensemble only outperforms one model but the eight-model ensemble outperforms seven 517 518 individuals. This reflects that averaging the results from a larger number of models in this case 519 more effectively cancelled out the positive or negative biases from the individual models.

520

521 The monthly-mean surface  $O_3$  from multiple global models' free runs was also evaluated 522 with the EANET observations. Among the three boundary condition models, GEOS-Chem 523 produced higher  $O_3$  than the other two throughout the year, and C-IFS  $O_3$  is the lowest from April 524 to December. The three-model and eight-model ensembles are lower than the surface  $O_3$  525 observations by <10 ppbv during high O<sub>3</sub> seasons (winter/spring), but show substantial (>10 ppbv) 526 positive biases during low O<sub>3</sub> seasons especially in July and August (Figure 3b), similar to the HTAP1 model performance over Japan in 2001 (Fiore et al., 2009). During May-June 2010, 527 528 generally the models performed better at the Japanese sites than at the Korean sites (Table 2c), 529 with significant positive biases occurring at low O<sub>3</sub> regions (e.g., in central Japan) and negative 530 biases found at high O<sub>3</sub> regions, mainly owing to the uncertainty in the local and upwind emissions. 531 The different approaches to generate the monthly-mean modeled and the observed  $O_3$  data may 532 have also contributed to these model-observation discrepancies. Overall O<sub>3</sub> performance by 533 individual models varies less significantly than at the CASTNET sites, with RMSEs ranging from 534 8.6 ppbv to ~13 ppbv (Table 2b). The three-model ensemble outperforms two individual models, 535 and the eight-model ensemble outperforms six individual models. Unlike at the CASTNET sites, 536 the three-model ensemble agrees better with the observations than the eight-model ensemble 537 (Table 2c).

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### 3.1.3. Evaluation of the STEM regional base simulations w/ three sets of boundary conditions

541 The three STEM base simulations using different boundary conditions were evaluated with 542 the hourly O<sub>3</sub> observations at the CASTNET sites in the four US subregions. The evaluation 543 included the 8 May-30 June 2010 period to exclude the results during the one-week spin-up period. 544 The time series plots of observed and modeled O<sub>3</sub> at the western US CASTNET sites show that 545 STEM was capable of capturing several high O<sub>3</sub> periods, and it produced larger biases during the 546 nighttime (Figure 2c), as a result of the poorer WRF performance. Figure 2c and the evaluation 547 statistics in Table 3a-b indicate that STEM/C-IFS O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are associated with the highest positive bias and RMSE, while the STEM/GEOS-Chem and STEM/RAQMS predictions were 548 549 positively and negatively biased by less than 2 ppby, respectively, with similar RMSEs and 550 correlations with the observations. The quality of the three STEM simulation mean is closest to 551 the STEM/GEOS-Chem run, with the mean bias/RMSE of ~1.6/4.9 ppby, much better than the 552 three-boundary model ensemble (-5.7/10.4 ppbv). However, this good performance can be a net 553 effect of incorrect partitioning between the trans-boundary and local source contributions, with the 554 former being underestimated and offsetting the overestimation of the latter. Switching the STEM 555 chemical boundary conditions to the assimilated RAQMS base simulation led to increases in the 556 simulated surface  $O_3$  concentrations by >9 ppbv in the western US (Figure S2, right), associated 557 with higher positive biases (due to several factors discussed in the next paragraph). Regional-scale 558 assimilation could further reduce uncertainties introduced from regional meteorological and 559 emission inputs to obtain better modeled total O<sub>3</sub> and the partitioning of trans-boundary versus US 560 contributions (e.g., Huang et al., 2015).

561

562 The three STEM base simulations all significantly overpredicted O<sub>3</sub> over the rest of the US in part due to the uncertainties in NO<sub>x</sub> emissions, with the STEM/RAQMS associated with the 563 lowest RMSEs and mean biases, but STEM/C-IFS correlated best with the observations (Table 564 565 3b). These positive biases are higher than the global model ensembles', which can partially result 566 from the possible unrealistic VOC speciation of the emission inventory and the SAPRC 99 567 chemical mechanism: Although SAPRC mechanisms have been used in air quality modeling for 568 regulatory applications in some US states such as California, they usually produced higher O<sub>3</sub> than 569 other mechanisms such as the CB04 and the CB05 (which were used by some HTAP2 global models, see Table 1c) over the US, and the comparisons between SAPRC 99 and SAPRC 2007 570

571 are still in progress (e.g., Luecken et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2012; Cai et al., 2011). It is important 572 to timely update the chemical mechanisms in the chemistry models, and we also suggest to timely 573 upgrade the VOC speciation in the bottom-up emission inventories in the US to benefit the air 574 quality modeling. Additionally, the uncertainty from non-anthropogenic emissions, such as the biogenic VOC emissions from WRF/MEGAN which is known to often have positive biases, can 575 576 be another cause: As Hogrefe et al. (2011) presented, the MEGAN emissions resulted in a higher 577  $O_3$  response to hypothetical anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission reductions compared with another set of 578 biogenic emission input. Huang et al. (2017) showed that MEGAN's positive biases are in part 579 due to the positively-biased temperature and radiation in WRF, and reducing ~2°C in WRF's 580 temperature biases using a different land initialization approach led to  $\sim 20\%$  decreases in 581 MEGAN's isoprene emission estimates in September 2013 over some southeastern US regions. 582 These temperature and radiation biases, can also be important sources of uncertainty in the 583 modeled  $O_3$  production. Quantifying the impacts of overestimated biogenic emissions and the 584 biased weather fields that contributed to the biases in emissions on the modeled O<sub>3</sub> is still an 585 ongoing work. Some existing studies also reported  $O_3$  and  $NO_2$  biases from other regional models 586 in the eastern US, due to the chemical mechanism and biases in NO<sub>x</sub> and biogenic VOC emissions 587 (e.g., Canty et al., 2015). We anticipate that the results from the Air Quality Model Evaluation 588 International Initiative (AQMEII) experiment (e.g., Schere et al., 2012; Solazzo et al., 2012; 589 Galmarini et al., 2015, 2017), which involves more regional model simulations over the US with 590 the similar set of boundary conditions but different chemical mechanisms and non-anthropogenic 591 emission inputs, can help better understand the causes of errors in the simulated total O<sub>3</sub>.

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3.2. The NAM surface  $O_3$  sensitivity to extra-regional anthropogenic pollutants

594 <u>3.2.1.</u> Global model ensembles

596 The impact of all foreign (i.e. non-NAM) anthropogenic sources on NAM surface O<sub>3</sub> was 597 first explored, including the spatial distributions of the RERER metric (eq. (2)) based on various 598 global models' simulations (Figure 5), and the domain wide mean sensitivities R (O<sub>3</sub>, non-NAM, 599 20%) (eq. (1d)) (Figure 6). Across the NAM, the strongest impacts were found in spring time 600 (March-April-May, larger than 1.5 ppbv in average over the domain) and the weakest impacts are 601 shown during the summertime (June-July-August, 1.0-1.3 ppbv), consistent with the existing 602 knowledge on the seasonal variability of the non-local pollution impacts on NAM for other years 603 (e.g., Fiore et al., 2009; Reidmiller et al., 2009). All global models indicate strong non-NAM 604 anthropogenic source impacts on the western US mainly due to the impact of its high elevation, 605 and also near the US-Mexico border areas, especially southern Texas, due to their vicinity to the 606 Mexican (not included in the NAM source regions, see Figure 1) emission sources. Over the 607 western states, stronger non-local impacts were reflected from the results based on higher-608 horizontal resolution global models (e.g., the >0.6 RERER values from the half degree EMEP model, corresponding to its higher R(O<sub>3</sub>, non-NAM, 20%) values than the other models'), similar 609 to the findings in previous modeling studies (Lin et al., 2010, 2012a). Although on a coarse 610 horizontal resolution of 2.8°, OsloCTM3 suggests stronger extra-regional source influences on the 611 612 northwestern US and the US-Canada border regions than the other models. Its largest number of 613 vertical layers among all global models might be a cause. Larger-than-1 RERER values are often 614 seen near the urban areas and large point sources due to the titration, especially evident from the 615 higher resolution model results. The R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values are larger than 1/3 of the R(O<sub>3</sub>, non-NAM, 20%) (0.2-0.5 ppbv from April to June), more than 3-4 times higher than R(O<sub>3</sub>, EUR, 20%) 616

and R(O<sub>3</sub>, SAS, 20%). Note that all eight models contributed to the R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) calculations,
but one or two models did not provide all necessary sensitivity runs to compute the RERER, R(O<sub>3</sub>,
non-NAM, 20%), R(O<sub>3</sub>, EUR, 20%), or R(O<sub>3</sub>, SAS, 20%).

620

621 Comparing to the HTAP1 modeling results, the magnitudes of R(O<sub>3</sub>, EUR, 20%) from this 622 study are smaller by a factor of 2-3; In contrast, the R(O<sub>3</sub>, non-NAM, 20%) and R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) 623 values are >50% higher than the HTAP1 modeling results. The different HTAP1 and HTAP2 624 results are possibly due to the following three reasons: 1) the substantial improvement in the 625 European air quality over the past decades that is shown in Crippa et al. (2016) and Pouliot et al. 626 (2015), which contrasts with the growing anthropogenic emissions from the East Asia and other developing countries during 2001-2010; 2) the changes in the HTAP2 experiment setup from 627 628 HTAP1. This includes the differences in the participating models, and the different region 629 definitions, e.g., EUR by HTAP1's definition includes regions in Russia/Belarussia/Ukraine, 630 Middle East and North Africa that are excluded from the HTAP2's EUR domain. For EAS and 631 SAS, however, the regions not overlapped by HTAP1 and HTAP2 are mostly in the less 632 populated/polluted regions; 3) the stronger trans-Pacific transport in 2010 than in 2000-2001, as 633 first introduced in Section 2.2.1. Interannual variability of R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) and R(O<sub>3</sub>, non-NAM, 634 20%) is also found between 2010 and 2008-2009, based on the SNU GEOS-Chem calculations 635 (Figure S3). Foreign anthropogenic pollution impact on NAM was stronger in 2010 than in 2008-636 2009, especially in April-May. This can be in part due to the higher O<sub>3</sub> precursors' emissions in 637 2010 from extra-regions including the East Asia (Table S1), as well as the spring 2010 638 meteorological conditions that favored the trans-Pacific pollution transport.

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640 These monthly- and regional-mean  $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$  values suggest that despite dilution 641 along the great transport distance, the EAS anthropogenic sources still had distinguishable impact 642 on the NAM surface O<sub>3</sub>. Similar to the findings from the HTAP1 studies, the large intermodel 643 variability (as indicated in Table 4) in the estimates of intercontinental SR relationships indicates 644 the uncertainties of these models in representing the key atmospheric processes which needs more 645 investigations in the future. Figure 6b compares the R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) estimated by individual 646 boundary condition models, their ensemble mean sensitivities, and the eight-global model mean. 647 The averaged  $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$  from the boundary condition model results are smaller than the eight-global model mean, and except for July-October 2010, GEOS-Chem gives higher R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 648 649 20%) than RAQMS and C-IFS, consistent with its highest O<sub>3</sub> prediction in the EAS source region 650 (Figure 3b). Overall, R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) and its intermodel differences are much smaller than the 651 biases of the modeled total O<sub>3</sub> in NAM. Other factors can contribute more significantly to the biases in the modeled total O<sub>3</sub>, such as the stratospheric O<sub>3</sub> intrusion and the local O<sub>3</sub> formation, 652 and assessing the impacts from these factors would be also helpful for understanding the 653 654 uncertainties in the modeled O<sub>3</sub>.

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The  $O_3$  sensitivities in response to the perturbations of individual species or sector emissions in East Asia, estimated by the GEOS-Chem adjoint model, were also analyzed (Figure S3). These sensitivities show similar seasonal variability to R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%), with the values ~twice as high in the spring than in summer, also consistent with the results on previous years based on the 20% emission perturbation approach (e.g., Fiore et al., 2009; Brown-Steiner and Hess, 2011; Emmons et al., 2012). However, this seasonal variability is weaker than the results based on the tagged tracer approach for earlier years: Using the CAM-Chem model, Brown-Steiner and 663 Hess (2011) reported that during the springtime, Asian O<sub>3</sub> created from the anthropogenic/biofuel 664 NO<sub>x</sub> emissions affected NAM O<sub>3</sub> ~three times as strongly as in summer. This is because the 665 nonlinear  $O_3$  chemistry, which is stronger outside of summer, caused larger  $O_3$  responses to a 100% 666 reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions than 5 times of the  $O_3$  responses to a 20% reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions. The EAS anthropogenic  $NO_x$  emissions more strongly impacted the NAM surface  $O_3$  than the 667 other major O<sub>3</sub> precursors, similar to the findings in Fiore et al. (2009) and Reidmiller et al. (2009) 668 669 using the perturbation approach, as well as the conclusions in Lapina et al. (2014) based on the 670 adjoint sensitivity analyses. Emissions from the power&industrial sectors are higher in East Asia 671 than the other sectors (Table S1), resulting in its stronger influences on the NAM surface  $O_3$ . As 672 the observed NO<sub>2</sub> columns started to drop since 2010 due to the effective denitration devices implemented at the Chinese power and industrial plants (e.g., Liu et al., 2016), depending on the 673 674 changes in the VOC emissions, it is anticipated to see different R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values for the 675 vears after 2010. Therefore, continued studies to assess the East Asian anthropogenic pollution 676 impacts on NAM during more recent years is needed. As emissions from various source sectors 677 can differ by their emitted altitudes and temporal (from diurnal to seasonal) profiles, efforts should 678 also be placed to have the models timely update the heights and temporal profiles of the emissions 679 from those various sectors.

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### 3.2.2. Regional model sensitivities and their connections with the boundary condition models'

683 The monthly-mean STEM surface R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) sensitivities based on different 684 boundary condition models were inter-compared, and also compared with the R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) 685 estimated by their boundary condition models as well as the global model ensemble mean (Figure 686 7). For both May and June 2010, the domain-wide mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values from 687 STEM/RAQMS were higher than the estimates from RAQMS by 0.03 ppbv; the STEM/GEOS-Chem R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values are lower than those of GEOS-Chem by 0.01-0.06 ppbv, and the 688 689 STEM/C-IFS R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) is 0.02 ppbv higher than C-IFS's in June but slightly (<<0.01 ppbv) 690 lower in May. These differences are overall smaller than the inter-global model differences, and 691 can be due to various factors including the uncertainties in boundary condition chemical species 692 mapping, and the different meteorological/terrain fields/chemistry in the global and regional model 693 pairs. The STEM R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) ensemble mean values, however, are less than 0.02 ppbv 694 different from its boundary condition model's ensemble mean for both months. The STEM  $R(O_3, O_3)$ 695 EAS, 20%) ensemble mean value in June is also close to the eight-global model ensemble mean, 696 but is ~0.05 ppbv lower than the eight-model mean in May. Choosing other/more global model 697 outputs as STEM's boundary conditions may lead to different STEM ensemble mean  $R(O_3, EAS_3)$ 698 20%) estimates. We also found that the period mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) of ~0.2 ppbv sampled only 699 at the CASTNET sites (Table 3a) are smaller than those averaged in all model grids. This indicates 700 that currently the sparsely distributed surface network (especially over the western US that is more strongly affected by the extra-regional sources than the other US regions) may miss many LRT 701 702 episodes that impact the NAM. The planned geostationary satellites with ~2-5 km footprint sizes 703 and hourly sampling frequency (Hilsenrath and Chance, 2013; Zoogman et al., 2017) will help 704 better capture the high O<sub>3</sub> and LRT episodes in these regions.

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The spatial patterns of the monthly-mean STEM surface R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) sensitivities based on the three boundary condition models are notably different, but overall resemble what's estimated by the corresponding boundary condition model, and the STEM sensitivities show more 709 local details in certain high elevation regions in the US west (Figure 8 shows the June 2010 710 conditions as an example). These different sensitivities were investigated further, by examining 711 the R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values near the source regions (i.e., East Asia) as well as near the receptor 712 regions (Figure 9). More East Asian anthropogenic  $O_3$  seems to be transported at the upper troposphere in RAOMS than in the other two models. GEOS-Chem and RAOMS R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) 713 714 sensitivities are similar over the EAS as well as the 500-900 hPa near the receptor in the eastern 715 Pacific (at  $\sim 135^{\circ}$ W), the altitudes US surface O<sub>3</sub> are most strongly sensitive to during the 716 summertime as concluded from previous studies (e.g., Huang et al., 2010, 2013a; Parrish et al., 717 2010). Despite the close NAM domain-wide mean values from the STEM/GEOS-Chem and 718 STEM/RAQMS, the spatial patterns of R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) over NAM differ in these two cases, 719 with the latter case showing sharper gradients especially in the western US, partially due to the 720 impact of its higher horizontal resolution. The R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values from STEM/C-IFS are 721 lower than from the other two cases both near the sources and at (near) NAM. The STEM surface 722 (also near surface, not shown in figures) R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) does not spatially correlate well with 723 the column R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%), the latter of which contributed more to the base case O<sub>3</sub> columns, 724 indicating that a good portion of the transported East Asian pollution did not descend to the lower 725 altitudes to impact the boundary layer/ground level air quality. An additional regional simulation was performed in which the STEM boundary conditions were downscaled from a RAQMS 726 727 simulation without the East Asian anthropogenic emissions. The non-linear emission perturbation-728  $O_3$  response relationships, as the larger-than-1  $S_{03}$  metric (eq. (3)) indicate, are seen across the 729 domain, for both the surface and column  $O_3$  (Figure 8).  $S_{03}$  for column  $O_3$ , ranging from 1.15-1.25 730 in most regions, are overall ~0.05 higher than  $S_{03}$  for the surface  $O_3$ . Therefore, the full source 731 contribution obtained by linearly scaling the receptor regional mean O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity to the 20% 732 reduction in the source region emissions may be underestimated by at least  $\sim 10\%$ .

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# 734 <u>3.2.3.</u> Regional model MDA8 sensitivities on all days and during the O<sub>3</sub> exceedances

735 The temporal variability of the STEM  $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$  ensemble sensitivities were also studied. For most US subregions, 3-6 LRT episodes (defined as when the sensitivities are above 736 737 the period mean) were identified during May-June. Only in certain regions, we find that the 738 planetary boundary layer heights (PBLHs) were higher during the LRT episodes (i.e., the daily 739 daytime-mean R( $O_3$ , EAS, 20%) and PBLHs show medium/strong positive correlations (r > 0.5)), 740 as these correlations may have been complicated by the relationships between the PBLHs and the 741 local influences. Throughout this period, the hourly  $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$  and the observed  $O_3$  at the 742 surface CASTNET sites are weakly correlated (Table 3a), but they display similar diurnal cycles 743 (e.g., Figures 2c and 2d for the western US sites), possibly because the deeper boundary layer 744 depth during the daytime enhanced entrainment down-mixing of the extra-regional pollutants to 745 the surface. The identified diurnal variability of the R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) can cause differences in the 746 calculated MDA8 and all-hour mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values. Figure S4 shows that the mean 747 R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) values, usually at daytimes, are higher than the all-hour averaged  $R(O_3, C_3, C_3)$ 748 EAS, 20%) in most STEM model grids during both months. Therefore, it is important for more 749 HTAP2 participating models to save their outputs hourly in order to conveniently compute the 750 policy-relevant metrics for the O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities. Also, the hourly sampling frequency of the planned geostationary satellites is anticipated to be more helpful for evaluating the impacts of the LRT 751 752 episodes.

753

The STEM R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) in all model grids within the four US subregions were averaged on all days during May-June 2010 and only on the days when the simulated total MDA8  $O_3$  is over 70 ppbv (Figure 10). These sensitivities also show appreciable spatial variability: from 0.35-0.58 ppbv in the western US (also with the largest standard deviations, not shown), which is slightly higher than the HTAP1 results reported by Reidmiller et al. (2009) for Spring 2001, to ~0.1-0.25 ppbv in the rest three subregions, which is close to the Reidmiller et al. (2009) results.

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766

Comparing the solid bar plots in Figures 10-11, we found that on all days in the three nonwestern subregions, R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) values sampled at CASTNET sites are slightly smaller than those computed for all model grids, while in the non-western states the opposite differences are seen. This again suggests that expanding observation network would help better capture the high O<sub>3</sub> and LRT episodes.

767 Figure 10 suggests smaller R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) values during the high O<sub>3</sub> days in all 768 subregions. However, STEM's total O<sub>3</sub> concentrations at CASTNET sites during the O<sub>3</sub> 769 exceedances were substantially overpredicted in non-western US regions while significantly 770 underpredicted in the western US (see mean biases above the bar plots in Figure 11). Therefore, 771 the R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) values shown in Figure 10 during the model-based periods of O<sub>3</sub> 772 exceedances can represent the sensitivities during the actual periods of O<sub>3</sub> compliance in non-773 western US regions, and may not represent the sensitivities during all actual O3 exceedances in the 774 western US. Figures 11-12 show that if calculated only at the CASTNET sites during the 775 exceedances, in non-western US regions, R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) is 0.02-0.07 ppbv smaller during the high O<sub>3</sub> total days. This is qualitatively consistent with the findings in Reidmiller et al. (2009), 776 777 and is possibly because that the LRT impacts were stronger on some days with good dispersion 778 conditions when the NAAQS was not exceeded, but weaker on some high O<sub>3</sub> days under stagnant 779 conditions. In contrast, western US R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) at CASTNET sites was ~0.05 ppbv 780 higher on high O<sub>3</sub> days than for all days, and this differences are larger in rural/remote areas where 781 local influences are less dominant. As a result, the medium/strong positive correlations are found 782 between modeled LRT of pollution and the total O<sub>3</sub> in these regions (Table 3a; Lin et al., 2012a).

783

784 3.3. Case studies of spring (9 May) and summer (10 June) LRT events mixed with stratospheric
 785 O<sub>3</sub> intrusions

786

787 Lin et al. (2012a, b) and Neuman et al. (2012) showed that the trans-Pacific pollution 788 transport intensely impacted the western US during 8-10 May, 2010, intermingled with a 789 stratospheric intrusion that contributed to at least 1/3 of the total  $O_3$  in some high elevation regions. 790 This episode is indeed indicated by the O<sub>3</sub> and CO products from AIRS and TES at ~500 hPa over the Eastern Pacific (Figure 13), and the observed TES and IASI O<sub>3</sub> profiles over the western US 791 792 indicated elevated O<sub>3</sub> levels (>80 ppbv) at 700-900 hPa. Huang et al. (2013b) found that the 793 meteorological conditions during this period (i.e., a strong jet at  $\sim$ 700 hPa with wind speed >20 794 m/s shifted southwesterly when passing the southern California and continued to travel towards 795 the mountain states), along with the orographic lifting, efficiently exported the southern California 796 anthropogenic pollution, which was chemically coupled with the extra-regional pollution and 797 significantly enhanced the O<sub>3</sub> levels in the US intermountain west.

798

799 We selected this episode to compare the STEM surface total  $O_3$  concentrations as well as 800 the R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) sensitivities based on the different HTAP2 boundary condition models. 801 Figure 14 evaluates the simulated O<sub>3</sub> profiles in the western US from several STEM base 802 simulations against the TES and IASI O<sub>3</sub> retrievals, and Figures 15a-d indicate the performance of 803 the daily surface total MDA8 O<sub>3</sub> from these simulations. We found that the underestimated free 804 tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> from the STEM simulations that used any single free-running chemical boundary 805 conditions contributed to the underestimated STEM surface  $O_3$  in the high elevation mountain 806 states: e.g., by 9-14 ppbv at three CASTNET sites (Grand Canyon National Park (NP), AZ; 807 Canyonlands NP, UT; and Rocky Mountain NP, CO) where O<sub>3</sub> exceedances were observed. The 808 unsatisfactory performance by free-running global models during high O<sub>3</sub> events would pose 809 difficulties for regional models (regardless of their resolutions and other configurations, 810 parameterization) to accurately estimate the SR relationships using boundary conditions 811 downscaled from these model runs. The STEM base simulation using the RAOMS assimilated 812 fields as the boundary conditions, agrees most with the observed O<sub>3</sub> at the CASTNET sites, as well 813 as the TES and IASI O<sub>3</sub> profiles in the western states. Similar to the conclusions drawn in Huang 814 et al. (2010, 2015) for summer 2008, we again demonstrated the robustness of satellite chemical 815 data assimilation for improving the boundary condition models' O<sub>3</sub> performance. As the 816 enhancement of O<sub>3</sub> due to the assimilation is much larger than the O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities to the EAS 817 anthropogenic emissions, the assimilation mainly improved the contributions from other sources, 818 possibly including the stratospheric O<sub>3</sub>.

819

820 The quality of the model boundary conditions only indicates how well the total "transported 821 background" component is represented, and can not be directly connected with the accuracy of the 822 model estimated R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) sensitivities, which also show notable intermodel differences: 823 The estimated R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) in the different STEM cases range from <1.0 ppbv to ~1.3 824 ppbv, at least 40% higher than the May-June period mean in Figures 10-11. The mean R(MDA8, 825 EAS, 20%) at three high O<sub>3</sub> CASTNET sites range from 0.73 (STEM/GEOS-Chem) to 0.98 ppbv 826 (STEM/C-IFS), with the mean  $S_{03}$  of ~1.14 at these sites based on the STEM/RAQMS runs due 827 to the nonlinear emission perturbation-O<sub>3</sub> response relationships (Figure 15e-h). The R(MDA8, 828 EAS, 100%) from the STEM/RAQMS case is as high as >7 ppbv over the high terrain regions. 829 These are of smaller magnitudes than the estimates in Lin et al. (2012a), possibly due to the 830 differences in the used models and the bottom-up emission inputs.

831

832 A stratospheric O<sub>3</sub> intrusion also affected the Northeast US on the same day, as revealed 833 by the satellite mid- tropospheric  $O_3$  and CO observations (Figure 13). This intrusion was mixed 834 with LRT East Asian pollution (Figure 15 and Figure S5). However, this intrusion did not enhance the NE boundary layer/surface O3 concentrations, which were actually anomalously low 835 836 (MDA8<40 ppbv) as indicated by the model base simulations and the CASTNET observations (Figure 15a-d). Similar characteristics during summertime stratospheric O<sub>3</sub> intrusion events 837 838 around this region have been discussed by Ott et al. (2016). The East Asian pollution less intensely 839 (<50%) affected the surface O<sub>3</sub> levels in these regions than in the US west, due to the greater 840 transport distances, stronger local emission influence on chemical production/loss, shallower 841 PBLHs, as well as the impact of the overall flat terrain in the US east.

842

A summertime LRT event on 9-10 June is analyzed to contrast with the 9 May case study. Lin et al. (2012b) showed that >80 ppbv of ozonesonde data in northern California at 2-6 km 845 measured the stratospheric  $O_3$  remnants during this episode, and the transported stratospheric  $O_3$ 846 contributed to as much as ~50% of the total O<sub>3</sub> in southern California based on their model 847 calculations. We show that on 10 June over 100 ppbv of O<sub>3</sub>, as well as <90 ppbv CO, was observed 848 by satellites at ~500 hPa above Nevada and northern California (Figure 16), which again was 849 substantially underestimated by all free-running models (Figure 17), resulting in the 850 underpredicted total O3 at two CASTNET sites in southern California (Converse Station and 851 Joshua Tree NP) that experienced  $O_3$  exceedances on this day (Figure 18a-c). The negative biases 852 in the "transported background" O<sub>3</sub> and surface MDA8 O<sub>3</sub> were successfully reduced by 853 incorporating satellite data (Figures 17 and 18d).

854

855 Figures 18e-h show that LRT of EAS anthropogenic pollution also strongly affected 856 southern California and Nevada. Notable intermodel differences are again found in the estimated 857 R(MDA8, EAS, 20%), but they are overall lower than on 9 May (<1.0 ppbv). The mean R(MDA8, 858 EAS, 20%) at the two high O<sub>3</sub> CASTNET sites range from 0.54 (STEM/C-IFS) to 0.86 ppbv 859 (STEM/RAQMS), with the mean  $S_{03}$  of ~1.13 at these sites based on the STEM/RAQMS runs 860 (Figure 18e-h). The R(MDA8, EAS, 100%) from the STEM/RAQMS case is as high as >6 ppbv over southern California and Nevada. Compared to the spring event, R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) in the 861 862 eastern US are discernable only over a limited region, due to weaker transport and stronger local 863 chemical production/loss.

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#### 4. **Conclusions and suggestions on future directions**

867 In support of the HTAP Phase 2 experiment that involved high-resolution global models and regional models' participation to advance the understanding of the pollutants' SR relationships 868 869 in the Northern Hemisphere, we conducted a number of regional scale STEM base and forward 870 sensitivity simulations over NAM during May-June 2010. STEM's top and lateral chemical 871 boundary conditions were downscaled from three global models' (i.e., GEOS-Chem, RAQMS, 872 and ECMWF C-IFS) base and sensitivity simulations (in which the East Asian anthropogenic 873 emissions were reduced by 20%). Despite dilution along the great transport distance, the East 874 Asian anthropogenic sources still had distinguishable impact on the NAM surface O<sub>3</sub>, with the 875 period-mean NAM O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities to a 20% reduction of the East Asian anthropogenic emissions 876 (i.e., R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%)) ranging from ~0.24 ppbv (STEM/C-IFS) to ~0.34 ppbv (STEM/RAQMS). 877 The spatial patterns of the STEM surface O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities over NAM overall resembled those from 878 its corresponding boundary condition model, with regional/period mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) differed 879 slightly (<10%) from its corresponding boundary condition model's, which are smaller than those 880 among its boundary condition models. The boundary condition models' two-month mean  $R(O_3, P_1)$ 881 EAS, 20%) was  $\sim$ 8% lower than the mean sensitivity estimated by eight global models. Therefore, 882 choosing other global model outputs as STEM's boundary conditions may lead to different STEM 883  $O_3$  sensitivities. The biases and RMSEs in the simulated total  $O_3$ , which differed significantly 884 among models, can partially be due to the uncertainty in the bottom-up NO<sub>x</sub> emission inputs 885 according to the model comparison with the OMI NO<sub>2</sub> columns, and future work on attributing the 886 intermodel differences on process level is particularly important for better understanding the 887 sources of uncertainties in the modeled total O<sub>3</sub> and its source contribution.

888

889 The HTAP2 multi-model ensemble mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values in 2010 were higher 890 than the HTAP1 reported 2001 conditions, due to a number of reasons including the impacts of 891 the growing East Asian anthropogenic emissions, the interannual variability in atmospheric 892 circulation (i.e., stronger trans-Pacific transport in spring 2010 following an El Niño event), and 893 the different experiment designs of HTAP1 and HTAP2. The GEOS-Chem O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities in 2010 894 were also higher than the 2008-2009 conditions due to the increasing Asian emissions and the 895 spring 2010 meteorological conditions that favored the trans-Pacific pollution transport. The 896 GEOS-Chem sensitivity calculations indicate that the East Asian anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emissions 897 mattered more than the other East Asian  $O_3$  precursors to the NAM  $O_3$ , qualitatively consistent 898 with previous adjoint sensitivity calculations. Continued research is needed on temporal changes 899 of emissions for different species and sectors in NAM and foreign countries as well as their impacts 900 on the SR relationships. As emissions from various source sectors can differ by emitted altitudes 901 and temporal profiles, efforts should also be placed to have the models timely update the height 902 and temporal profiles of the emissions from various sectors.

903

904 An additional STEM simulation was performed in which the boundary conditions were 905 downscaled from a RAQMS simulation without East Asian anthropogenic emissions (i.e., a 100% 906 emission reduction), to assess the scalability of the mean O<sub>3</sub> sensitivities to the size of the emission 907 perturbation. The scalability was found to be spatially varying, ranging from 1.15-1.25 for column 908  $O_3$  in most US regions, which were overall ~0.05 higher than the surface  $O_3$ 's. Therefore, the full 909 source contribution obtained by linearly scaling the NAM regional mean O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity to the 20% 910 reduction in the East Asian emissions may be underestimated by at least 10%. The underestimation 911 in other seasons of the HTAP2 study period may be higher and will need to be quantified in future 912 work. Also, motivated by Lapina et al. (2014), additional calculations will be conducted in future 913 to explore the scalability of different O<sub>3</sub> metrics in these cases. For future source attribution 914 analysis, in general it is recommended to directly choose the suitable size of the emission 915 perturbation based on the specific questions to address, and to avoid linearly scaling O<sub>3</sub> 916 sensitivities that are based on other amounts of the perturbations.

917

918 The STEM  $O_3$  sensitivities to the East Asian anthropogenic emissions (based on three 919 boundary condition models separately and averagely) were strong during 3-6 episodes in May-920 June 2010, following similar diurnal cycles as the total O<sub>3</sub>. Stronger East Asian anthropogenic 921 pollution impacts were estimated during the observed O<sub>3</sub> exceedances in the western US than on 922 all days, especially over the high terrain rural/remote areas; in contrast, the East Asian 923 anthropogenic pollution impacts were less strong during O<sub>3</sub> exceedances in other US regions. We 924 emphasized the importance of saving model results hourly for conveniently calculating policy-925 relevant metrics, as well as the usefulness of hourly sampling frequency of the planned 926 geostationary satellites for better evaluating the impacts of the LRT events.

927

928 Based on model calculations, satellite O<sub>3</sub> (TES, JPL-IASI, and AIRS), CO (TES and AIRS) 929 and surface O<sub>3</sub> observations on 9 May 2010, we showed the different influences from stratospheric 930  $O_3$  intrusions along with the transported East Asian pollution on  $O_3$  in the western and the eastern 931 US. This event was further compared with a summer event of 10 June 2010. During both events, 932 the unsatisfactory performance of free-running (i.e., without chemical data assimilation) global 933 models would pose difficulties for regional models (regardless of their resolutions and other 934 configurations, parameterization) to accurately simulate the surface O<sub>3</sub> and its source contribution 935 using boundary conditions downscaled from these model runs. Incorporating satellite (OMI and 936 MLS)  $O_3$  data effectively improved the modeled  $O_3$ . As chemical data assimilation techniques

937 keep developing (Bocquet et al., 2015), several HTAP2 participating global models have already 938 been able to assimilate single- or multi- constitute satellite atmospheric composition data (e.g., 939 Miyazaki et al., 2012; Parrington et al., 2008, 2009; Huang et al., 2015; Inness et al., 2015; 940 Flemming et al., 2017). Comparing the performance of the assimilated fields from different models, 941 and making the global model assimilated chemical fields in the suitable format for being used as 942 boundary conditions would be very beneficial for future regional modeling, as well as for better 943 interpreting the pollutants' distributions especially during the exceptional events. Meanwhile, 944 efforts should also be devoted to advancing and applying higher-resolution regional scale 945 modeling and chemical data assimilation. Furthermore, although satellite observations have been 946 applied for improving the estimated US background O<sub>3</sub> (e.g., Huang et al., 2015), using satellite (and/or other types of) observations to improve SR relationship studies also needs to be explored. 947 948 Some of the possible methods include: 1) The combination of data assimilation and the tagging 949 approach; 2) Introducing observation-constrained emission estimates in the emission perturbation 950 analyses.

951

# 952 Acknowledgements

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954 The global and regional modeling results used in this study have been submitted to the 955 AeroCom database following the HTAP2 data submission guidelines (http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-956 juelich.de/HTAPWiki/HTAP-2-data-submission), or can be made available upon request. 957 Technical support from Anna Carlin Benedictow, Brigitte Koffi, Jan Griesfeller, and Michael 958 Schulz regarding formatting and submitting the data to the AeroCom is acknowledged. MH thanks 959 the research resources at the University of Iowa and JPL/Caltech that supported this study, as well 960 as the travel funding from the US EPA for attending the related HTAP2 workshops. DKH and YD 961 recognize support from NASA AQAST. FD Acknowledges support from the Administrative Arrangement. Part of this research was carried out at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California 962 963 Institute of Technology, under contract to the National Aeronautics and Space Administration. 964 Reference herein to any specific commercial product, process or service by trade name, trademark, 965 manufacturer or otherwise does not constitute or imply its endorsement by the United States 966 Government or the Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology. The views, 967 opinions, and findings contained in this report are those of the author(s) and should not be 968 construed as an official National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration or U.S. Government 969 position, policy, or decision. We also acknowledge the feedbacks from Dr. Gail Tonnesen, two 970 anonymous reviewers, and Dr. Meiyun Lin on earlier versions of this paper, that helped improve 971 its quality.

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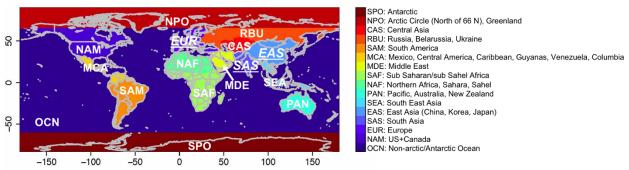
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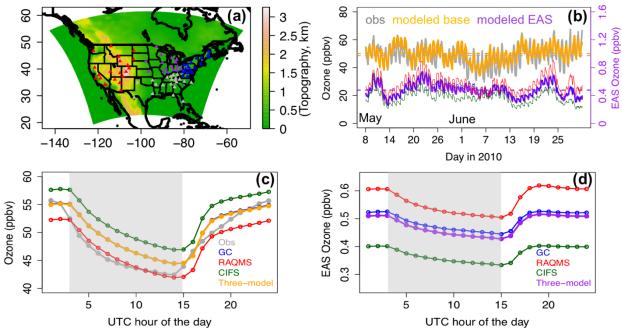
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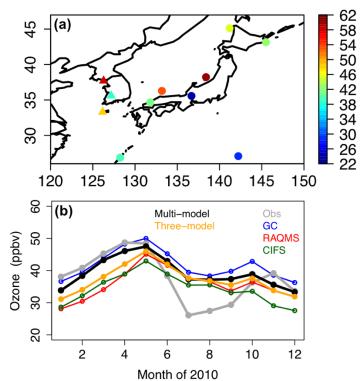
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<sup>-150</sup> -<sup>100</sup> -<sup>50</sup> 0 <sup>50</sup> 100 1<sup>50</sup>
Figure 1. Definitions of the 16 source regions used in HTAP2 SR relationship study (More details in Koffi et al., 2016). The map is plotted based on data on a 0.1°×0.1° resolution grid. We focus in this study on the impact of anthropogenic pollution from selected non-North American source regions (i.e., EAS, SAS, and EUR), whose names are underlined and in italic.



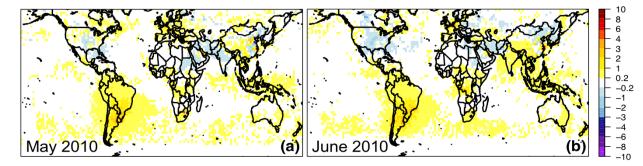
1489 1490 Figure 2. (a) The 60 km STEM NAM domain, colored by the model topography. The CASTNET 1491 sites used in the STEM base  $O_3$  evaluation are marked as triangles in different colors that identify 1492 the subregions they belong to (red: western US; grey: southern US; purple: Midwest; blue: 1493 northeastern US). (b) Evaluation of the STEM modeled (averaged from the three base simulations 1494 using the GEOS-Chem, ECMWF C-IFS, and RAQMS base runs as the chemical boundary conditions) hourly O<sub>3</sub> at the western US (i.e., EPA regions 8, 9, and 10) CASTNET sites. 1495 1496 Observations, modeled base O<sub>3</sub> and the modeled R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) are in grey, orange, and purple 1497 lines, respectively. The horizontal dashed lines indicate the period mean values. The R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 1498 20%) values from STEM calculations using three different chemical boundary conditions are 1499 shown separately in thin lines (blue: GEOS-Chem; red: RAOMS; green: C-IFS). The period-mean 1500 diurnal variability of the STEM modeled (c) base and (d) R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) at the western US 1501 CASTNET sites. The STEM calculations using three different chemical boundary conditions are 1502 shown separately as well as averagely. Light grey-shaded areas indicate the local standard 1503 nighttime (from 6/7 pm to 7/8 am).



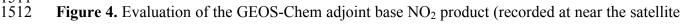


**Figure 3. (a)** May-June 2010 period mean surface  $O_3$  observations in ppbv at eight Japanese (filled circles) and three Korean (filled triangles) EANET sites. (b) Observed and modeled monthly-mean surface  $O_3$  in 2010 at all eleven EANET sites. The "Multi-model" and "Three-model" in the legend indicate the mean values of all eight global models and only of the three boundary condition models, respectively.

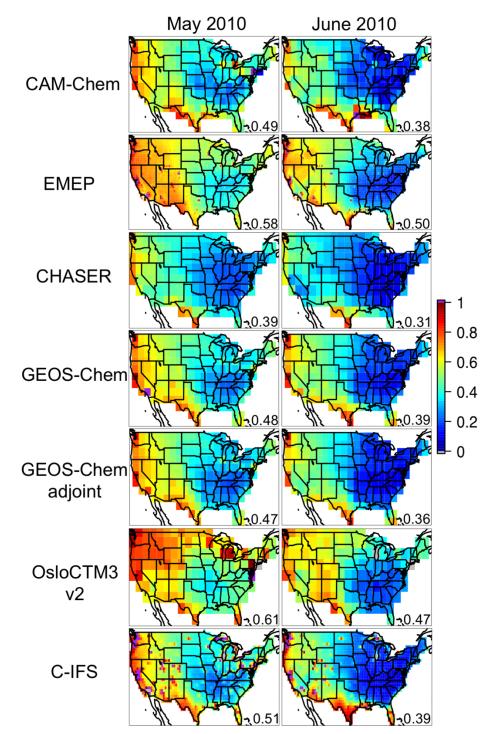
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- overpassing time) with the OMI NO<sub>2</sub> columns. The differences between OMI and GEOS-Chem (OMI-modeled) tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> columns ( $\times 10^{15}$  molec./cm<sup>2</sup>) are shown for (a) May and (b) June
- 1515 2010. Details of the comparison are included in Section 2.3.2.
- 1516



**Figure 5.** The RERER maps in May (left) and June (right) 2010 over the continental US, calculated based on the monthly mean  $O_3$  from multiple global models' base and emission sensitivity simulations. The RERER metric (unitless) was defined in eq. (2) in the text. Values larger than 1 and smaller than 0 are shown in purple and grey, respectively. The US (including continental US as well as Hawaii which is not shown in the plots) mean values are indicated for each panel at the lower right corner. All models show declining RERER values from May to June, and the 7-model mean RERER values for May and June 2010 are ~0.5 and ~0.4, respectively.

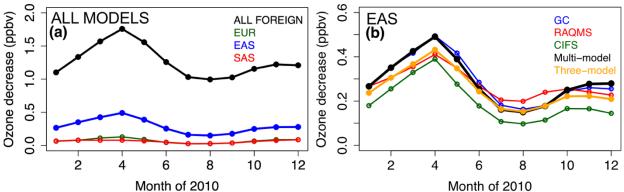
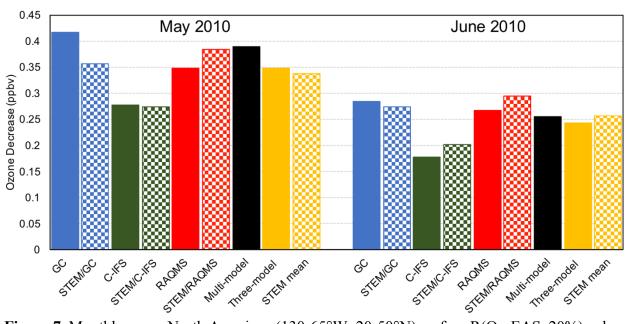




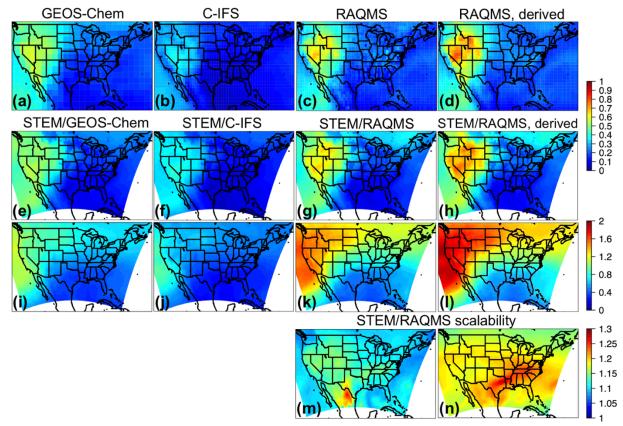
Figure 6. (a) North American (130-65°W; 20-50°N) mean O<sub>3</sub> sensitivity to 20% anthropogenic emission reductions in various non-North American regions, averaged from multiple (six-eight, see details in text) global models. (b) North American surface R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values, as estimated by single (the three STEM boundary condition models) or multi- global model means. The "Multi-model" and "Three-model" in the legend indicate the mean sensitivities of all eight global models and only of the three boundary condition models, respectively.



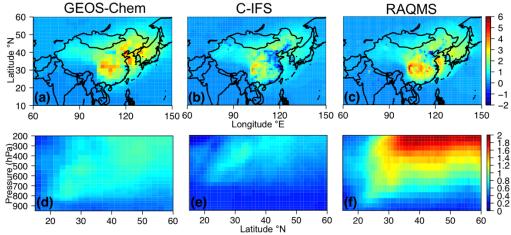
1533

**Figure 7.** Monthly-mean North American (130-65°W; 20-50°N) surface R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values from multiple global and regional model simulations for May (left) and June (right) 2010. STEM model mean values were calculated from its hourly output from 8 May and on. The "Multi-model"

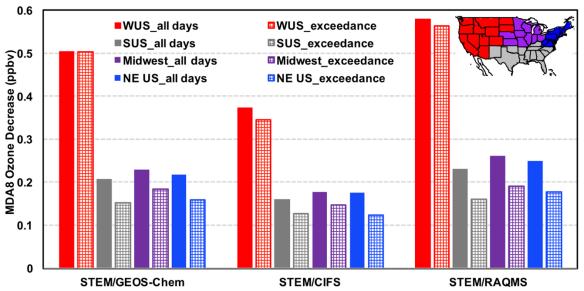
- and "Three-model" in the legend indicate the mean sensitivities of all eight global models and only
- 1538 of the three boundary condition models, respectively.



**Figure 8.** The monthly-mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) in June 2010 for: (**a**-**d**) surface O<sub>3</sub> (ppbv) from the three boundary condition models, (**e**-**h**) STEM surface O<sub>3</sub> (ppbv), and (**i**-**l**) STEM column O<sub>3</sub> (×10<sup>16</sup> molecules/cm<sup>2</sup>). R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) values from the simulations associated with GEOS-Chem, ECMWF C-IFS, and RAQMS are shown in (**a;e;i**), (**b;f;j**) and (**c;g;k**), respectively. (**d;h;l**) show 1/5 of the R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 100%) from the simulations related to RAQMS. STEM/RAQMSbased "Scalability" S<sub>O3</sub> (eq. (3)) values over the NAM are shown for (**m**) surface and (**n**) column O<sub>3</sub>.

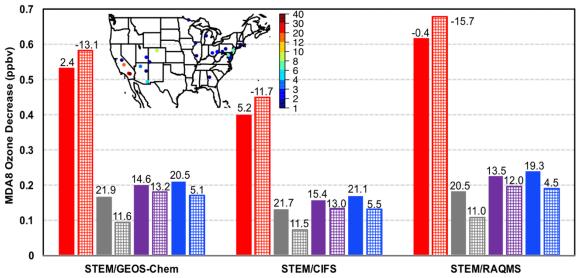


**Figure 9.** The monthly-mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 20%) in ppbv in June 2010 from the three boundary condition models at the source and near the receptor regions: **(a-c)** surface O<sub>3</sub> in the East Asia; and **(d)** O<sub>x</sub> (GEOS-Chem) or **(e-f)** O<sub>3</sub> (ECMWF C-IFS and RAQMS) along the cross section of 135°W (near the west boundary of the STEM model domain as defined in Figure 2a).

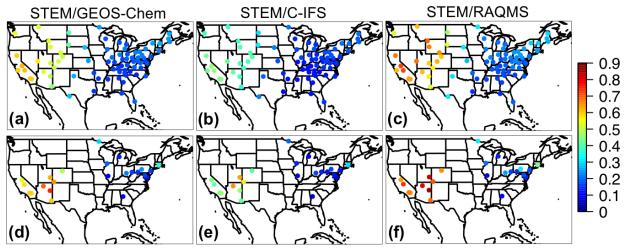


1552STEM/GEOS-ChemSTEM/CIFSSTEM/RAQMS1553Figure 10. STEM R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) for May-June 2010 in four US subregions (defined in the1554inset panel, also consistent with the definitions in Figures 2/S4 and Tables 2-3), averaged on all1555days (bars with solid fill) and only on the days when the simulated total MDA8 O3 concentrations1556were over 70 ppbv (bars with grid pattern fill). The results from the STEM runs using GEOS-1557Chem, ECMWF C-IFS and RAQMS boundary conditions are shown separately.





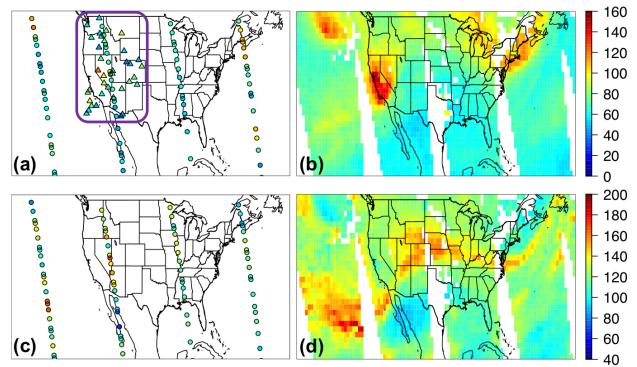
**Figure 11.** STEM R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) for May-June 2010 at the CASTNET sites in four US subregions (same definition as in Figure 10 inset), averaged on all days (bars with solid fill) and only on the days when the observed MDA8 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were over 70 ppbv (bars with grid pattern fill). The results from the STEM runs using GEOS-Chem, ECMWF C-IFS and RAQMS boundary conditions are shown separately. Biases for the corresponding model base runs are shown above the bar plots. Inset shows at various CASTNET sites the number of days when the observed MDA8 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were over 70 ppbv.



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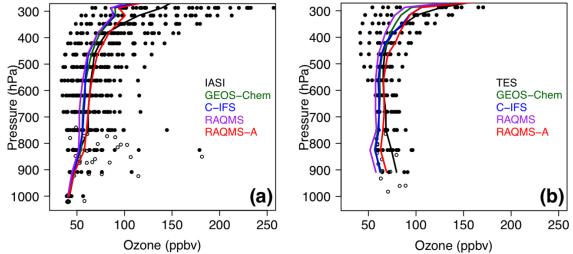
Figure 12. STEM R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) in ppbv for May-June 2010 at the CASTNET sites on (ac) all days and (d-f) the days when the observed MDA8 O<sub>3</sub> concentrations were over 70 ppbv. The
results from the STEM runs using (a;d) GEOS-Chem, (b;e) ECMWF C-IFS and (c;f) RAQMS
boundary conditions are shown separately.





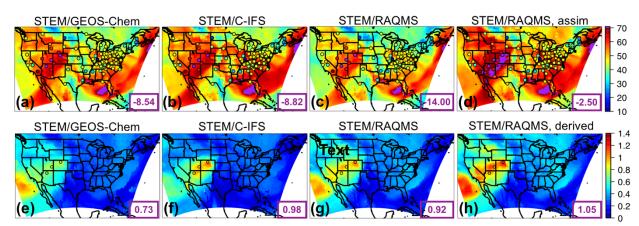


**Figure 13.** Case study of 9 May 2010: **(a-b)** Ozone (ppbv) and **(c-d)** CO (ppbv) at ~500 hPa from the L2 **(a;c)** TES retrievals (circles) and **(b;d)** L3 AIRS products at early afternoon local time. The L2 IASI O<sub>3</sub> (ppbv) at ~500 hPa retrieved using the TES algorithm (details in Section 2.3.2) at the mid- morning local times is shown on panel (b) as triangles. The O<sub>3</sub> profiles within the purple box in panel (a) were used in the model evaluation shown in Figure 14.



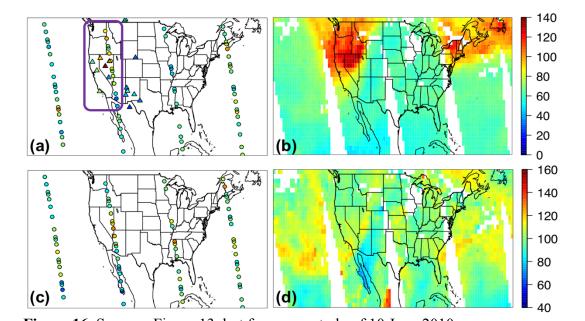
1580

1581 Figure 14. Case study of 9 May 2010: The comparisons between (a) IASI and (b) TES O<sub>3</sub> in the 1582 western US with the simulated  $O_3$  in the STEM runs using the GEOS-Chem (green), C-IFS (blue), 1583 RAQMS (purple), and assimilated RAQMS (red) boundary conditions. The O<sub>3</sub> profiles within the purple box in Figure 10a were used in the evaluation. Observation operators were applied in the 1584 1585 comparisons (details in Section 2.3.2). Solid and open dots are TES/IASI data at the TES retrieval 1586 reporting levels and at the variable surface pressure levels, respectively. Solid lines are median  $O_3$ 1587 profiles from the satellite observations and the different STEM simulations, calculated only on the 1588 TES retrieval reporting levels.



1590

Figure 15. Case study of 9 May 2010: (a-d) Surface MDA8 total O<sub>3</sub> and (e-h) surface R(MDA8, 1591 1592 EAS, 20%) from the STEM simulations using the (a;e) GEOS-Chem, (b;f) ECMWF C-IFS, and 1593 (c:g) RAOMS free run as the boundary conditions. (d) Surface MDA8 total  $O_3$  in a STEM base 1594 simulation using the RAQMS assimilation run as the boundary conditions. CASTNET 1595 observations are overlaid in filled circles in panels (a-d). (h) 1/5 of the surface R(MDA8, EAS, 1596 100%) from STEM/RAQMS simulations. The conditions at ~400-500 hPa are shown in Figure S5. 1597 Purple numbers at the lower right corners of (a-d) and (e-h) are mean model biases and mean 1598 R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) values in ppbv at the three mountain sites (Grand Canyon NP, AZ; 1599 Canvonlands NP, UT; and Rocky Mountain NP, CO) where O3 exceedances were observed on this day. The locations of these sites are shown in panel (e-h) as open circles. 1600



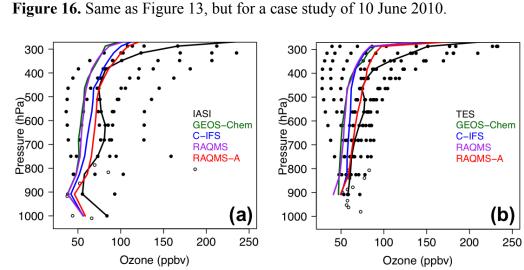




Figure 17. Same as Figure 14, but for a case study of 10 June 2010.

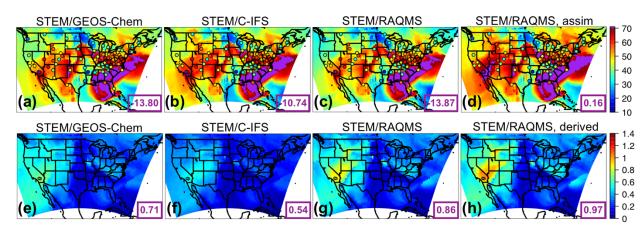


Figure 18. Same as Figure 15, but for a case study of 10 June 2010. The CASTNET sites with O<sub>3</sub> exceedances on this day are Converse Station and Joshua Tree NP in southern California. 

Table 1a. HTAP2 base and sensitivity simulations by various global models. The STEM boundary
 condition models are highlighted in bold.

	T				1		
Global model, Resolution:	DACE	EASALL	EASALL	GLOALL	NAMALL	EURALL	SASALL
lon×lat×vertical layer,	BASE	(-20%)	(-100%)	(-20%)	(-20%)	(-20%)	(-20%)
(References)		× ,	× ,	× ,	· · ·	× ,	, , ,
CAM-Chem, $2.5^{\circ} \times 1.9^{\circ} \times 56$	1	1		1			
(Tilmes et al., 2016)	-	•		•	•	•	-
CHASER T42,		_		_	_		
~2.8°×2.8°×32							
(Sudo et al., 2002)							
EMEP rv48, 0.5°×0.5°×20	1	1		1	1	1	
(Simpson et al., 2012)	•	~		~	~	~	
SNU GEOS-Chem							
v9-01-03, 2.5°×2°×47							
(Park et al., 2004;							
http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-							
juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP	<b>√</b>	~		✓			
2.3?action=AttachFile&do							
=view⌖= README							
_GEOS-Chem.pdf)							
CU-Boulder GEOS-Chem							
adjoint v35f, $2.5^{\circ} \times 2^{\circ} \times 47$	1	1		1	1	1	1
(Henze et al., 2007)	•	·		·	•	•	•
RAQMS, 1°×1°×35,							
free running	1	1	1				
(Pierce et al., 2007, 2009)	•	•	•				
RAQMS, 1°×1°×35, with							
satellite assimilation	1						
(Pierce et al., 2007, 2009)	•						
OsloCTM3 v2,							
~2.8°×2.8°×60	1	1		1	1	1	1
(Søvde et al., 2012)	•	•		•	•	•	•
ECMWF C-IFS,							
~0.7°×0.7°×54/1.125°×1.1							
25°×54, as the STEM							
chemical boundary				<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>	<ul> <li>✓</li> </ul>		
conditions							
(Flemming et al., 2015)							
( ,			1		1		1

1613 Acronyms:

- 1614 CAM-Chem: Community Atmosphere Model with Chemistry
- 1615 C-IFS: Composition-Integrated Forecasting System
- 1616 ECMWF: European Center for Medium range Weather Forecasting
- 1617 EMEP: European Monitoring and Evaluation Programme
- 1618 GEOS-Chem: Goddard Earth Observing System with Chemistry
- 1619 RAQMS: Realtime Air Quality Modeling System
- 1620 SNU: Seoul National University

Boundary condition model,	BASE	EASALL	EASALL
Resolution: lon×lat×vertical layer	DIAGL	(-20%)	(-100%)
SNU GEOS-Chem v9-01-03, 2.5°×2°×47	~	1	
RAQMS, 1°×1°×35, free running	>	1	1
RAQMS, 1°×1°×35, with satellite assimilation	1		
ECMWF C-IFS, 1.125°×1.125°×54	1	1	

1621 **Table 1b.** STEM regional simulations for HTAP2

**Table 1c.** STEM and its boundary condition models' key inputs and chemical mechanisms, with references. More details on the models can be found in Table 1a and the text.

Model	Meteorology	Biogenic	Lightning	Biomass	Chemical		
		VOCs; NO <sub>x</sub>	0 0	Burning	Mechanism		
GEOS- Chem	GEOS-5	MEGAN v2.1 (Guenther et al., 2012); Wang et al., 2009	based on GEOS-5 deep convective cloud top heights and climatological observations (Murray et al., 2012)	GFED v3.0 (van der Werf et al., 2010)	GEOS-Chem standard NO <sub>x</sub> -O <sub>x</sub> - hydrocarbon-aerosol (http://acmg.seas.har vard.edu/geos/doc/ar chive/man.v9-01- 03/appendix_1.html)		
RAQMS		CB-IV (Gery et al., 1989) with adjustments					
ECMWF C-IFS	IFS	MEGAN- MACC, (Sindelarova et al., 2014); POET database for 2000 (Granier et al., 2005)	based on IFS convective precipitation (Meijer et al., 2001)	GFAS v1.0 (Kaiser et al., 2012)	CB05 (Yarwood et al., 2005)		
STEM	WRF-ARW v3.3.1	WRF- MEGAN v2.1	based on scaled WRF convective precipitation	FINN v1.0 (Wiedinmye r et al., 2011)	SAPRC99 (Carter, 2000)		

1625 Acronyms:

- 1626 CB: Carbon Bond
- 1627 FINN: Fire INventory from NCAR
- 1628 GFAS: Global Fire Assimilation System
- 1629 GFED: Global Fire Emissions Database
- 1630 IFS: Integrated Forecasting System
- 1631 MACC: Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate
- 1632 MEGAN: Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature
- 1633 POET: Precursors of Ozone and their Effects in the Troposphere
- 1634 WRF-ARW: Advanced Research Weather Research and Forecasting Model

1635 Table 2a. Evaluation of the period mean (1 May-30 June, 2010) multi- global model free simulations against the CASTNET observations, only at the sites where 95% of the hourly O<sub>3</sub> 1636

Su	bregion	US EPA	Number	Mean bias (ppbv)		RMSE (ppbv)	
		regions	of sites	3 BC <sup>a</sup>	8 global	3 BC	8 global
		contained		models	models	models	models
W	estern US	8, 9, 10	19	-5.68	-2.52	10.37	7.05
So	outhern US	4, 6	18	11.61	10.24	13.62	11.96
Mi	idwest	5,7	13	8.03	7.66	9.16	8.67
Nc	ortheast	1, 2, 3	17	9.55	10.63	10.28	11.24
Al		1-10	67	5.49	6.22	11.11	9.96

observations are available. Evaluation of the individual models is summarized in Table 2b. 1637

1638 <sup>a</sup>BC: Boundary Conditions

1639

1640 Table 2b. Evaluation of the period mean (May-June 2010) global model free simulations against

the EANET and CASTNET observations. The STEM boundary condition models are highlighted 1641 in bold.

1642

Network	Number		RMSE (ppbv)						
	of sites	CAM-	EMEP	CHASER	SNU	GEOS-	RAQMS	OsloCTM3	C-IFS
		Chem			GEOS-	Chem		v2	
					Chem	adjoint			
CASTNET	67	13.30	11.61	15.43	15.55	13.48	9.32	11.05	11.00
EANET	11	10.38	9.96	11.39	9.18	11.04	8.60	12.97	10.86

1643

1644 Table 2c. Evaluation of the period mean (May-June 2010) multi- global model free simulations 1645 against the EANET observations in Japan and Korea. Evaluation of the individual models is summarized in Table 2b. 1646

Country	Number of sites	Mean bias (ppbv)		RMSE (ppbv)	
		3 BC <sup>a</sup>	8 global	3 BC	8 global
		models	models	models	models
Japan	8	0.36	1.01	8.77	9.25
Korea	3	1.14	3.98	8.37	10.51
All	11	0.57	1.82	8.66	9.61

<sup>a</sup>BC: Boundary Conditions 1647

**Table 3a.** Evaluation of the hourly STEM simulated total  $O_3$  (averaged from the three base1649simulations that used the different free-running boundary conditions) against the CASTNET1650surface observations for 8 May-30 June, 2010. The subregional mean R(O<sub>3</sub>, EAS, 100%) and its1651correlation coefficient with the observed  $O_3$  are also shown.

Subregion	US EPA	Numb	Mean	Mean	RMSE	Correlation	Correlation	Mean EAS
	regions	er of	elevation	bias	(ppbv)	(model	(obs;	sensitivity
	contained	sites	(km):	(ppbv)		base; obs)	modeled	(ppbv)
			actual/m				EAS)	
			odel					
Western	8, 9, 10	22	1.75/	1.60	4.86	0.76	0.34	0.48
US			1.71					
Southern	4, 6	22	0.38/	20.33	22.13	0.58	0.27	0.15
US			0.31					
Midwest	5,7	16	0.29/	15.64	17.97	0.70	0.15	0.17
			0.28					
Northeast	1, 2, 3	20	0.36/	20.94	24.16	0.47	0.17	0.21
			0.26					
All	1-10	80	0.73/	16.17	18.30	0.66	0.13	0.20
			0.68					

**Table 3b.** Evaluation of the hourly STEM simulated total O<sub>3</sub> (separately for three base simulations

1654 that used the different free-running boundary conditions) against the CASTNET surface 1655 observations for 8 May-30 June, 2010.

observations for 8 May-50 June, 2010.								
Subregion	US EPA	Number	Mean bias (ppbv)/RMSE (ppbv)/Correlation (model base; obs)					
	regions	of sites	SNU GEOS-Chem	C-IFS	RAQMS			
	contained							
Western US	8, 9, 10	22	1.68/4.83/0.77	4.16/6.63/0.70	-1.03/4.81/0.76			
Southern US	4, 6	22	21.18/22.94/0.57	20.34/22.07/0.60	19.48/21.45/0.56			
Midwest	5,7	16	15.77/18.17/0.70	16.41/18.46/0.72	14.73/17.35/0.69			
Northeast	1, 2, 3	20	21.25/24.36/0.47	21.86/24.80/0.48	19.71/23.40/0.45			
All	1-10	80	16.57/18.62/0.66	16.89/18.84/0.67	15.03/17.52/0.64			

**Table 4.** The ranges and standard deviations (ppbv, separated by ";") of R(O<sub>3</sub>, *source region*, 20%)

1658	by 6-8 global models (defined in eq. (1a-d)), summarized by months in 2010. The monthly multi-
1659	model mean values are shown in Figures 5-6.

Month/ Source	All Foreign/ Non-NAM	EUR (ppbv)	EAS (ppbv)	SAS (ppbv)
region	(ppbv)			
Jan	0.38-1.69; 0.41	0.002-0.12; 0.05	0.02-0.72; 0.24	0.001-0.11; 0.04
Feb	0.92-2.07; 0.37	0.02-0.15; 0.05	0.16-0.91; 0.28	0.02-0.12; 0.04
Mar	1.30-2.37; 0.38	0.07-0.21; 0.06	0.24-1.03; 0.30	0.03-0.12; 0.03
Apr	1.42-2.46; 0.33	0.09-0.23; 0.05	0.33-1.07; 0.28	0.04-0.12; 0.03
May	1.24-1.91; 0.21	0.06-0.17; 0.04	0.24-0.75; 0.19	0.05-0.11; 0.02
Jun	1.03-1.41; 0.13	0.03-0.07; 0.02	0.14-0.39; 0.09	0.04-0.07; 0.01
Jul	0.86-1.18; 0.13	0.02-0.04; 0.01	0.08-0.22; 0.06	0.01-0.04; 0.01
Aug	0.80-1.19; 0.13	0.01-0.04; 0.01	0.07-0.20; 0.05	0.02-0.04; 0.01
Sep	0.85-1.18; 0.13	0.03-0.05; 0.01	0.10-0.25; 0.06	0.02-0.06; 0.01
Oct	0.96-1.31; 0.14	0.04-0.10; 0.02	0.17-0.42; 0.09	0.03-0.08; 0.02
Nov	0.90-1.48; 0.19	0.05-0.15; 0.04	0.17-0.54; 0.14	0.04-0.10; 0.02
Dec	0.73-1.67; 0.29	0.03-0.18; 0.05	0.14-0.66; 0.19	0.04-0.12; 0.03