



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

3
4 Min Huang^{1,2}, Gregory R. Carmichael³, R. Bradley Pierce⁴, Duseong S. Jo⁵, Rokjin J. Park⁵,
5 Johannes Flemming⁶, Louisa K. Emmons⁷, Kevin W. Bowman⁸, Daven K. Henze⁹, Yanko Davila⁹,
6 Kengo Sudo¹⁰, Jan Eiof Jonson¹¹, Marianne Tronstad Lund¹², Greet Janssens-Maenhout¹³,
7 Frank J. Dentener¹³, Terry J. Keating¹⁴, Hilke Oetjen^{8,*}, Vivienne H. Payne⁸

8
9 ¹George Mason University, Fairfax, VA, USA

10 ²University of Maryland, College Park, MD, USA

11 ³University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA, USA

12 ⁴NOAA National Environmental Satellite, Data, and Information Service, Madison, WI, USA

13 ⁵Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea

14 ⁶European Center for Medium range Weather Forecasting, Reading, UK

15 ⁷National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, CO, USA

16 ⁸Jet Propulsion Laboratory, California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, CA, USA

17 ⁹University of Colorado-Boulder, Boulder, CO, USA

18 ¹⁰Nagoya University, Furocho, Chigusa-ku, Nagoya, Japan

19 ¹¹Norwegian Meteorological Institute, Oslo, Norway

20 ¹²Center for International Climate and Environmental Research, Oslo, Norway

21 ¹³European Commission, Joint Research Center, Ispra, Italy

22 ¹⁴US Environmental Protection Agency, Research Triangle Park, NC, USA

23 *Now at: University of Leicester, Leicester, UK

24
25 Correspondence to: Min Huang (mhuang10@gmu.edu)

26
27 **Abstract**

28
29 The recent update on the US National Ambient Air Quality Standards of the ground-level
30 ozone (O₃) can benefit from a better understanding of its source contributions in different US
31 regions during recent years. In the Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution experiment Phase 1
32 (HTAP1), various global models were used to determine the O₃ source-receptor relationships
33 among three continents in the North Hemisphere in 2001. In support of the HTAP Phase 2 (HTAP2)
34 experiment that studies more recent years and involves higher-resolution global models and
35 regional models' participation, we conduct a number of regional scale Sulfur Transport and
36 dEposition Model (STEM) air quality base and sensitivity simulations over North America during
37 May-June 2010. The STEM top and lateral chemical boundary conditions were downscaled from
38 three global chemical transport models' (i.e., GEOS-Chem, RAQMS, and ECMWF C-IFS) base
39 and sensitivity simulations (in which the East Asian anthropogenic emissions were reduced by
40 20%). We perform analyses not only on large spatial/temporal scales relative to the HTAP1, but
41 also on subcontinental- and event-scale that are more relevant to the US air quality management.
42 The differences between STEM surface O₃ sensitivities (including the 24h mean and the US
43 policy-relevant maximum daily 8h average (MDA8) metric averaged throughout the study period
44 and during a selected pollution transport event) and its corresponding boundary condition model's
45 are often smaller than those among its boundary condition models. The STEM sensitivities are
46 also compared with the mean sensitivities estimated by multi- global models, which are higher



47 than the HTAP1 reported 2001 conditions, as well as the 2001-2005 conditions studied using the
48 tagged tracer approach. This indicates the increasing impacts of the East Asian anthropogenic
49 pollution on North America during 2001-2010. The GEOS-Chem sensitivities indicate that the
50 East Asian anthropogenic NO_x emissions matter more than the other East Asian O_3 precursors to
51 the North American O_3 , qualitatively consistent with previous adjoint sensitivity calculations. An
52 additional STEM simulation was performed in which the boundary conditions were downscaled
53 from a global RAQMS simulation without East Asian anthropogenic emissions, to assess the
54 scalability of O_3 sensitivities to the size of the emission perturbation. The scalability is spatially
55 varying, and the full source contribution obtained by linearly scaling the North American regional
56 mean O_3 sensitivity to the 20% reduction in the East Asian emissions may be underestimated.

57 Satellite NO_2 (KNMI OMI) and O_3 (TES, JPL-IASI, OMI, MLS, and AIRS) products help
58 detect pollution episodes, quantify or/and reduce the uncertainties in the bottom-up NO_x emissions
59 and the model transported background O_3 . Based on model calculations and satellite/surface
60 observations during a selected event, we show the different influences from stratospheric O_3
61 intrusions along with the transported East Asian pollution on O_3 in the western and the eastern US.
62 Future directions of using satellite data in air quality research are also suggested.

63

64 1. Introduction

65

66 Tropospheric ozone (O_3), a short-lived trace gas with a lifetime ranging from hours in the
67 boundary layer to weeks in the free troposphere, affects tropospheric chemistry, harms human and
68 ecosystem health, and induces climate change on local, regional and global scales (Jerrett et al.,
69 2009; Smith et al., 2009; Anenberg et al., 2010; Mauzerall and Wang, 2001; Avnery et al., 2011a,
70 b; Shindell et al., 2009, 2013; Bowman and Henze, 2012; Stevenson et al., 2006, 2013; Monks et
71 al., 2015). It has been recognized that the uneven distributions of tropospheric O_3 can be attributed
72 to the stratosphere as well as local, regional and distant emission sources, through complicated
73 processes that occur on synoptic, meso- and micro-scales (Task Force on Hemispheric Transport
74 of Air Pollution (HTAP), 2010; National Research Council (NRC), 2009; Maas and Grennfelt,
75 2016). The mitigation of O_3 's climate and health impacts would benefit from efforts to control the
76 emissions of its precursors from the various emission sources (United Nations Environment
77 Programme (UNEP) and World Meteorological Organization (WMO), 2011), such as nitrogen
78 oxides (NO_x), carbon monoxide (CO), methane (CH_4), and non-methane volatile organic
79 compounds (NMVOCs).

80

81 Ground-level O_3 is one of the six criteria air pollutants regulated by the US Environmental
82 Protection Agency (EPA), and the US National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) has
83 recently been lowered to 70 ppbv to better protect Americans' health and the environment. Issues
84 regarding making accurate estimates of the total O_3 as well as the background O_3 level (defined as
85 the concentration that is not affected by recent locally-emitted or produced anthropogenic pollution)
86 (e.g., McDonald-Buller et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2011; Fiore et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2015),
87 have been recently discussed as part of the implementation of the new US O_3 standard (US EPA,
88 2016a, b). This includes assessing the impacts of various components of the background O_3 , such
89 as stratospheric O_3 , local natural sources such as biogenic, lightning and wildfire emissions, as
90 well as the long-range transport (LRT) of pollution. The impact of the trans-Pacific pollution
91 transport on US air quality has been evaluated in numerous studies over the past decades (e.g.,
92 Fiore et al., 2009; Reidmiller et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2008, 2009; Huang et al., 2010, 2013a; Lin



93 et al., 2012a; US EPA, 2016a). It has been found that the increasing trends of pollution in the
94 upwind continents, especially the populated East Asia (e.g., Zhang et al., 2014; Susaya et al., 2013;
95 Wang et al., 2012), may partially offset the US air quality improvements in recent decades due to
96 the regional and local emission controls (e.g., Verstraeten et al., 2015; Ambrose et al., 2011;
97 Wigder et al., 2013; Cooper et al., 2010; Parrish et al., 2009, 2012; Gratz et al., 2014). A better
98 understanding of the processes that determine the O₃ pollution levels, as well as an improved
99 capability of attributing the air pollution to nearby or distant sources is needed to assist with
100 designing and implementing effective local emission control strategies to comply with the tighter
101 air quality standards.

102

103 Chemical transport models are often used to reproduce and attribute the observed O₃ levels,
104 including assessing the impacts of the internationally transported O₃ on the US air quality. In the
105 HTAP modeling experiment Phase I (HTAP1), various global models with horizontal resolutions
106 ranging from 1°×1° to 5°×5°, only around half of which are finer than 3°×3°, were used to
107 determine the O₃ source-receptor (SR) relationships among three continents in the Northern
108 Hemisphere in 2001 (Chapter 4 in HTAP, 2010). The global model based SR relationships in
109 HTAP1 determined using the emission perturbation approach (i.e., calculating the changes of O₃
110 at the receptor regions in response to a 20% reduction in the emission inputs in a given source
111 region) were reported as either monthly 24h mean values or policy-relevant metrics such as the
112 maximum daily 8h average (MDA8) for the US (e.g., Fiore et al., 2009; Reidmiller et al., 2009).
113 Large intermodel diversity was found in the simulated total O₃ and the intercontinentally
114 transported pollution for the chosen SR pairs in the northern midlatitudes, indicating the challenges
115 with model simulations to accurately represent the key atmospheric processes. Multi-model mean
116 results were the foci of in these studies with the assumption that this approach can reduce the
117 uncertainty from the single model estimates for monthly or seasonal means. “Ensemble” model
118 analyses have been suggested by some US stakeholders as one of the methods for helping with the
119 characterization of the background O₃ components (US EPA, 2016b). Although the multi-model
120 approach can help identify some of the weaknesses of the individual models and may produce
121 more reliable estimates, it is necessary to well understand the uncertainties inherent in using the
122 same set of anthropogenic emissions in all these model simulations. Satellite observations over the
123 regions with limited in-situ measurements such as the East Asia can be particularly helpful for
124 quantifying such uncertainties.

125

126 The 20% emission perturbation in the HTAP1 modeling experiment was chosen to produce
127 a sizeable (i.e., larger than numerical noise) and realistic impact, but small enough in the assumed
128 near-linear atmospheric chemistry regime. The scalability of the modeled O₃ sensitivities to the
129 size of the emission perturbations has been assessed on continental scale (Wu et al., 2009; Fiore et
130 al., 2009; HTAP, 2010; Wild et al., 2012; Emmons et al., 2012). The receptor O₃ responses to the
131 source-region emission perturbations are found to be fairly linear within ~50% of the perturbations.
132 However, due to the chemical non-linearity, the full source contribution obtained by linearly
133 scaling the receptor regional mean O₃ sensitivity to the 20% reduction in the source region
134 emissions may be underestimated, and the scalability depended on seasons and the perturbed
135 emission species. Huang et al. (2013b) investigated the scalability of the O₃ sensitivity between
136 the southern California-US intermountain west SR pair for May 2010, in which study the southern
137 California anthropogenic emissions were perturbed by multiple amounts of +50%, -50%, -100%.
138 They reported that the scalability of the O₃ sensitivities changed with the distance from the source



139 regions. Further analyses on the scalability of these modeled O₃ sensitivities during recent years
140 especially for the East Asia-NAM SR pair, as well as their spatial variability, are still needed.
141 Furthermore, results generated using the emission perturbation approach need to be compared with
142 those based on the other methods (e.g., tagged tracers, adjoint sensitivity).
143

144 Previous studies have demonstrated the advantages of high resolution chemical transport
145 modeling for understanding SR relationships (e.g., Lin et al., 2010 for Europe and the East Asia;
146 Lin et al., 2012a; Huang et al., 2010, 2013a for Asia and NAM). Using observations (satellite,
147 sondes, aircraft) along with single model simulations, a few studies have reported that the US O₃
148 sensitivities to extra-regional sources is region-dependent (e.g., Lin et al., 2012a, b; Langford
149 et al., 2011; Ott et al., 2016), and therefore the necessity of evaluating the extra-regional source
150 impacts on event scale has been emphasized in these studies as well as in US EPA (2016a, b). The
151 HTAP Phase 2 (HTAP2) multi-model experiment, initiated in 2012, is designed to advance the
152 understanding of the impact of intercontinental pollution transport during more recent years (i.e.,
153 2008-2010) involving a number of global and regional models' participation (Galmarini et al.,
154 2016; Koffi et al., 2016). The regional models are anticipated to help connect the analyses over
155 global and regional scales and enable discussions on small spatial (e.g., subcontinental) and
156 temporal scales (i.e., event based analyses). The use of satellite products for identifying the
157 transport events as well as for quantitative model evaluation is also encouraged in the work plan.
158 The HTAP2 modeling experiment was sequentially conducted in two steps. First, similar to the
159 HTAP1 experiment, a group of global models with different resolutions conducted base and
160 emission perturbation sensitivity simulations to determine the pollutants' SR relationships. All
161 models in their base simulations used the same set of harmonized sector-based global
162 anthropogenic emissions developed specifically for the HTAP2 modeling experiment (Janssens-
163 Maenhout et al., 2015). Most of these global models recorded only key chemical species from their
164 base and sensitivity simulations in varied temporal frequencies. Several global models saved the
165 three-dimensional (3D) chemical fields of more species with a 3- or 6-hour interval, which are
166 suitable for being used as regional models' chemical boundary conditions. In the second step,
167 regional models conducted base and sensitivity simulations to analyze the pollutants' SR
168 relationships in greater detail. The regional model simulations used the same set of anthropogenic
169 emissions as the global models within their simulation domains, and the chemical boundary
170 conditions in these regional simulations were downscaled from the base and sensitivity simulations
171 from the selected boundary condition model outputs. For regional simulations over the North
172 America and Europe, boundary conditions were mostly taken from a single model such as the
173 ECMWF C-IFS or GEOS-Chem.

174
175 In this study, we performed a number of regional scale STEM (Sulfur Transport and
176 dEposition Model) base and sensitivity simulations over the NAM during May-June 2010, during
177 which period strong trans-Pacific pollution transport were shown to episodically impact the US
178 (Lin et al., 2012a). Extending the HTAP2 regional simulations' basic setup, the STEM top and
179 lateral chemical boundary conditions were downscaled from three global models' (i.e., the Seoul
180 National University (SNU) GEOS-Chem, RAQMS, and the ECMWF C-IFS) base and sensitivity
181 simulations in which the East Asian anthropogenic emissions were reduced. The STEM surface
182 O₃ sensitivities over the NAM region based on different boundary condition models were inter-
183 compared, in terms of the regional averages and the spatial patterns on monthly basis and during
184 a selected event identified by satellite O₃ and CO products. These were also compared with the



185 sensitivities estimated by their corresponding boundary condition models as well as all HTAP2
186 participating global models. An additional regional simulation was performed in which the STEM
187 boundary conditions were downscaled from one global model simulation without the East Asian
188 anthropogenic emissions, and the nonlinear relationship between the O₃ sensitivity and the size of
189 the emission perturbation is discussed. In the discussion, we emphasize: 1) the differences in O₃
190 sensitivities generated from the HTAP2 and HTAP1 experiments to help address how the LRT
191 impacts on NAM changed through time; 2) how the multi-model approach, as well as the refined
192 model experiment design in HTAP2 can help advance our understanding of the LRT impacts,
193 especially the benefits of increasing the global models' resolutions and involving the regional
194 models; 3) the usefulness of satellite observations for better understanding the sources of
195 uncertainties in the modeled total O₃ (e.g., from the emission and regional models' boundary
196 condition inputs) as well as for reducing the uncertainties in some of these model inputs via
197 chemical data assimilation.

198

199 **2. Methods**

200 *2.1. Anthropogenic emission inputs*

201

202 Identical anthropogenic emissions were used in all global and regional chemical transport
203 models' base and sensitivity simulations. This monthly-varying harmonized sectoral (i.e., power,
204 industry, transportation, residential, shipping, aircraft, agriculture) emission inventory was
205 provided on a gridded 0.1°×0.1° resolution for the years of 2008 and 2010, by compiling the
206 officially reported emissions at the national scale (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015;
207 http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/htap_v2). The temporal profiles for developing the monthly-varying
208 emissions differ by region and sector. The amount of emissions of key O₃ precursors (CO, NO_x,
209 NMVOCs) from both years are summarized in Table S1 for the four major emissions sectors, over
210 the NAM (US+Canada, based on data from the US EPA and the Environmental Canada, which
211 shows lower emissions from the previous years as also discussed in Pouliot et al., 2015), MICS-
212 Asia regions (south, southeast, and east Asia, based on country inventory for China and from the
213 Clean Air Policy Support System and the Regional Emission inventory in ASia 2.1, more
214 information also in Li et al., 2015), and for over the world. For all of these species, global total
215 emissions in 2008 and 2010 are similar. The NO_x, NMVOC, and CO emissions decreased from
216 2008 to 2010 over the NAM by 10.7%, 9.4%, and 15.7%, respectively. For 2010, the transportation
217 sector contributed more than the other sectors to NAM anthropogenic NO_x and CO emissions;
218 industrial sector contributed more than the other sectors to NMVOCs emissions. Over East Asian
219 countries, these emissions are ~2-5 times higher than the US emissions, and the NO_x, NMVOC
220 and CO emissions increased over Asia by 7.3%, 7.2% and 1.0%, with the dominant emission
221 sectors in 2010 of transportation, industry, and residential, respectively. For both years, the
222 emissions over the MICS-Asia regions contribute to over 40% of the global emissions. For these
223 key O₃ precursors, the East Asian countries contribute to 45% (NMVOCs)-70% (NO_x) of the
224 emissions in the MICS-Asia domain in both years, and the south Asian countries contribute to ~22%
225 (NO_x)-34% (NMVOCs) of the MICS-Asia emissions. Non-anthropogenic emission inputs used in
226 different models' simulations may differ. As this paper focuses on the impact of anthropogenic
227 emissions, we do not introduce this information in detail.

228

229 *2.2. Region definitions for the SR study and the model base and sensitivity simulations*

230 2.2.1. Base and 20% emission perturbation simulations from global and regional models



231 The HTAP2 simulations from eight global models, used in this study, are listed in Table
 232 1a. Horizontal resolutions of these models range from finer than 1° to coarser than 2.5°, and overall
 233 these resolutions are higher than the HTAP1 participating models'. Relevant references for the
 234 RAQMS model and the SNU GEOS-Chem are Pierce et al. (2007, 2009) and Park et al. (2004)
 235 (with additional descriptions on its HTAP simulation configurations at: [http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-](http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP2.3?action=AttachFile&do=view&target=_README_GEOS-Chem.pdf)
 236 [juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP2.3?action=AttachFile&do=view&target=_README_GEOS-](http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP2.3?action=AttachFile&do=view&target=_README_GEOS-Chem.pdf)
 237 [Chem.pdf](http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP2.3?action=AttachFile&do=view&target=_README_GEOS-Chem.pdf)), respectively. The descriptions of the remaining models can be found in published
 238 HTAP2 works such as in Stjern et al. (2016). Figure 1 defines the source regions used in the
 239 HTAP2 SR relationship study and we will focus in this study on assessing the East Asia (EAS), S
 240 Asia (SAS), Europe (EUR), and non-NAM anthropogenic source (interchangeable in this paper
 241 with “(all) foreign”) impacts on the NAM O₃ levels in 2010. Specifically, each model performed
 242 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, unless specified differently) and these cases
 245 are defined in Table 1 as **source region*ALL* (where “ALL” refers to “all species and sectors”,
 246 consistent with HTAP1 and HTAP2’s naming convention). The O₃ differences R(O₃, **source*
 247 *region**, **perturbation**) over the NAM were then calculated between each model’s base and
 248 sensitivity simulations:

$$249 \quad R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%) = \text{BASE O}_3\text{-EASALL O}_3 \quad (1a)$$

$$251 \quad R(\text{O}_3, \text{SAS}, 20\%) = \text{BASE O}_3\text{-SASALL O}_3 \quad (1b)$$

$$252 \quad R(\text{O}_3, \text{EUR}, 20\%) = \text{BASE O}_3\text{-EURALL O}_3 \quad (1c)$$

$$253 \quad R(\text{O}_3, \text{non-NAM}, 20\%) = \text{NAMALL O}_3\text{-GLOALL O}_3 \quad (1d)$$

254
 255 The monthly-mean R(O₃, **source region**, 20%) values were averaged over the NAM
 256 region for the analysis and compared with the findings in the HTAP1 study (e.g., Fiore et al., 2009).
 257 It is worth mentioning that the rectangular source regions defined in HTAP1 were modified in
 258 HTAP2 to align with the geo-political borders. For EAS and SAS, the regions not overlapped by
 259 HTAP1 and HTAP2 are mostly in the less populated/polluted regions such as the northwestern
 260 China, according to the HTAP2 emission maps (http://edgar.jrc.ec.europa.eu/htap_v2/index.php).
 261 HTAP2’s EUR domain excludes certain regions in Russia/Belarussia/Ukraine, Middle East and
 262 North Africa that are included in HTAP1’s EUR domain. The impact of emissions over these
 263 regions on comparing the NAM R(O₃, EUR, 20%) values in HTAP1 and HTAP2 will be discussed
 264 in Section 3.2.1.

265
 266 A unitless “Response to Extra-Regional Emission Reductions (RERER)” metric
 267 (Galmarini et al., 2016), as defined in eq. (2), was also calculated to measure the importance of
 268 local versus non-local sources to NAM’s O₃ levels:

$$269 \quad \text{RERER}(\text{O}_3, \text{NAM}) = \frac{R_{\text{O}_3, \text{non-NAM}, 20\%}}{R_{\text{O}_3, \text{global}, 20\%}} = \frac{(\text{NAMALL O}_3\text{-GLOALL O}_3)}{(\text{BASE O}_3\text{-GLOALL O}_3)} \quad (2)$$

270 The denominator and numerator terms of RERER represent the impacts of global and non-NAM
 271 anthropogenic emissions on NAM O₃, respectively. The higher the NAM RERER value is, the
 272 stronger impact from non-local sources on NAM is indicated. The RERER value can exceed 1,
 273 when emission reductions led to increasing concentrations (e.g. O₃ titration by nitrogen monoxide
 274 (NO)).
 275



276 The STEM (version 2K3) regional simulations were then performed on a 60 km×60 km
277 horizontal resolution (a typical coarse regional model resolution) grid over NAM within the
278 domain defined in Figure 2b during May-June 2010. The meteorological conditions in Spring 2010
279 were compared with the climatology from the NCEP/NCAR reanalysis data for the 1981-2010
280 period (Kalnay et al., 1996) in Huang et al. (2013b), concluding that this spring represents a period
281 of stronger-than-climatological average spring trans-Pacific transport (based on a stronger
282 meridional gradient in the North Pacific and higher Pacific/North American (PNA) indexes) and
283 stratospheric intrusion conditions (based on the tropopause pressure and the UTLS relative
284 humidity). The mean near-surface air temperatures in the western US in this spring were lower
285 than the climatology, with larger anomalies in the mountain states, which may have led to weaker
286 local O₃ production and decomposition of the transported peroxyacyl nitrates (PAN). In contrast,
287 higher-than-normal temperatures were found in the eastern US that favored anomalously strong
288 local O₃ production.

289
290 STEM has been used to interpret the observations collected by satellites and during aircraft
291 campaigns in the past decade (e.g., Carmichael et al., 2003a, b; Huang et al., 2010, 2013a, b, 2014,
292 2015). STEM calculates gas-phase chemistry reactions based on the SAPRC 99 gaseous chemical
293 mechanism (Carter, 2000) with thirty photolysis rates calculated online by the Tropospheric
294 Ultraviolet-Visible radiation model (Madronich et al., 2002). Most of the key configurations of the
295 60 km base simulations are the same as those described in Lapina et al. (2014), i.e., meteorological
296 fields were pre-calculated by the Advanced Research Weather Research and Forecasting Model
297 (WRF-ARW, Skamarock et al., 2008) version 3.3.1 forced by the North American Regional
298 Reanalysis data (Mesinger et al., 2006), using a similar set of the physics configuration to those in
299 Huang et al. (2013a). Biomass burning emissions are from the Fire INventory from NCAR (FINN)
300 inventory version 1.0 (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011). Biogenic emissions were calculated by the Model
301 of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) version 2.1 (Guenther et al., 2012),
302 driven by the WRF meteorology. Lightning NO_x emissions are generated following the method in
303 Allen et al. (2012), with the flash rates determined by the WRF convective precipitation and scaled
304 to the National Lightning Detection Network flash rates. A major difference of the STEM
305 simulations in this study from the Lapina (2014) study is that the anthropogenic emissions were
306 replaced with the monthly-mean HTAP2 inventory with no weekday-weekend variability applied,
307 rather than the earlier National Emission Inventory (NEI) 2005 in which the weekday-weekend
308 variability exists. This change can introduce uncertainty, but was done to ensure consistency with
309 the HTAP2 global model simulations, that also didn't use daily variable emissions for any regions.
310 The VOC speciation for the SPRAC 99 chemical mechanism in the NEI 2005
311 (ftp://aftp.fsl.noaa.gov/divisions/taq/emissions_data_2005) were applied to break down the total
312 NMVOC emissions provided in the HTAP2 inventory. The VOC speciation based on the year of
313 2005 can be unrealistic for 2005 as well as 2010 as studies have reported variable temporal changes
314 of different VOC species in some US cities (e.g., Warneke et al., 2012). The time-varying lateral
315 and top boundary conditions in the STEM base simulations were downscaled from three global
316 models (i.e., 3 hourly SNU GEOS-Chem, 3 hourly ECMWF C-IFS, and 6 hourly RAQMS) base
317 simulations. In support of the SR relationship study to quantify the East Asia anthropogenic
318 impacts on the NAM, three STEM sensitivity simulations were also conducted in which the STEM
319 boundary conditions were downscaled from the EASALL sensitivity simulations by these three
320 global models (Table 1b). All STEM simulated 3D chemical fields were saved hourly for the
321 convenience of calculating the US primary O₃ standard metric MDA8 as well as the quantitative



322 comparisons against the satellite Level 2 (L2) O₃ products. The STEM base case surface O₃
323 performance and its O₃ sensitivities were also compared with those of its boundary condition
324 models as well as the multi- global model means. The latitude/longitude ranges (20-50°N/130-
325 65°W) of NAM for the global and regional model based sensitivity calculations were selected to
326 mainly account for the coverage of the STEM domain, which are slightly different from the
327 definition of North America in HTAP1.

328

329 2.2.2. Additional base and sensitivity simulations from selected models

330

331 In addition to the base and 20% EAS all-category emission perturbation simulations, the
332 global RAQMS model conducted a sensitivity simulation in which the East Asian anthropogenic
333 emissions were zeroed out, which was also used as STEM's boundary conditions (Table 1b). We
334 calculate the "S_{O₃}" metric (eq. (3)) using the O₃ sensitivities in STEM and RAQMS at the receptor
335 regions in response to both 20% and 100% of emission reductions, to explore the relationships
336 between the O₃ sensitivity and the size of the emission perturbation. A closer-to-one "S_{O₃}" value
337 indicates higher scalability of the sensitivity based on the 20% emission perturbation method for
338 obtaining the full "contribution" of the East Asian anthropogenic emissions on the NAM O₃.

339

$$340 S_{O_3} = R(O_3, \text{EAS}, 100\%) / R(O_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%) / 5 \quad (3)$$

341

342 The RAQMS model also provided a base simulation that assimilated satellite O₃ products
343 from the Ozone Monitoring Instrument (OMI, Levelt et al., 2006) and Microwave Limb Sounder
344 (MLS, Livesey et al., 2008) (Pierce et al., 2007), which was used to help better understand the
345 regional model base run error sources, as well as for demonstrating the use of satellite observations
346 to help improve the representation of the trans-boundary pollution.

347

348 We also used a number of sensitivity simulations produced by the GEOS-Chem adjoint
349 model v35f in which the emissions from selected anthropogenic emission sectors (power&industry,
350 transportation, residential) or individual O₃ precursor chemical species (NO_x, VOC, CO) over the
351 East Asia were reduced by 20%. Additional simulations for the 2008-2009 periods by the SNU
352 GEOS-Chem were also utilized to quantify the East Asia and non-NAM anthropogenic source
353 impacts in comparison with the 2010 conditions that we mainly focus on in this study.

354

355 *2.3. In-situ and satellite observations*

356

357 2.3.1. In-situ observations

358

359 The hourly O₃ observations at the Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNET,
360 <http://epa.gov/castnet/javaweb/index.html>) sites were used to evaluate the global and regional
361 models' base simulations in four subregions: western US (i.e., the EPA regions 8, 9, 10); southern
362 US (i.e., the EPA regions 4 and 6), the Midwest (i.e., the EPA regions 5 and 7), and the northeast
363 (i.e., the EPA regions 1-3). The numbers of sites used in global and regional models' evaluation
364 in each US subregion are summarized in Tables 2-3. The locations of these sites and the subregions
365 they belong to are indicated in Figure 2b, overlaid on a model-based terrain height map. A majority
366 of the CASTNET sites in the western US are located at high elevation (>1 km) remote or rural
367 regions, more susceptible to the trans-boundary pollution (e.g., Jaffe, 2011). Most of the sites in
the other three subregions are located in low elevation regions, mainly affected by local and



368 regional pollution. The model-based terrain heights fairly well represent the reality on subregional
369 scale – the differences between the actual and model-based subregional mean terrain heights at the
370 CASTNET sites are smaller than 0.1 km (Table 3).

371

372 During May-June 2010, intense ozonesonde measurements were made at multiple
373 California locations (Cooper et al., 2011), in support of the NOAA “California Nexus (CalNex):
374 Research at the Nexus of Air Quality and Climate Change” field experiment (Ryerson et al., 2013).
375 They have been used to evaluate the simulated O₃ vertical profiles by the HTAP2 participating
376 models. The detailed evaluation results have been shown by Cooper et al. (2016), and will be
377 covered by subsequent publications.

378

379 2.3.2. Satellite products

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381 In a case study L2 and L3 O₃ and CO retrievals from several satellite instruments were used
382 to assess the impacts of trans-Pacific pollution transport and stratospheric O₃ intrusions on NAM
383 O₃ levels in early May. These include: 1) the early afternoon O₃ and CO profiles version 5 from
384 the Tropospheric Emission Spectrometer (TES) (Beer et al., 2001; Beer, 2006) on the Aura satellite;
385 2) the mid-morning O₃ profiles from the METOP-Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer
386 (IASI), which were retrieved using the Jet Propulsion Laboratory (JPL) TES optimal estimation
387 retrieval algorithm (Bowman et al., 2006) for selected areas including the western US (Oetjen et
388 al., 2014, 2016); as well as 3) the early afternoon L3 O₃ and CO maps (version 6, 1°×1°) from the
389 Aqua Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) instrument. The TES tropospheric O₃ retrieval is often
390 sensitive to the mid- to lower free troposphere, and O₃ at these altitudes in the Eastern Pacific is
391 known to possibly impact the downwind US surface air quality at later times (Huang et al., 2010;
392 Parrish et al., 2010). TES O₃ is generally positively biased by <15% relative to high
393 accuracy/precision reference datasets (e.g., Verstraeten et al., 2013). Although IASI is in general
394 less sensitive than TES due to its coarse spectral resolution, the 681–316 hPa partial column-
395 averaged O₃ mixing ratios in the JPL product agree well with TES O₃ for the 2008–2011 period
396 with a -3.9 ppbv offset (Oetjen et al., 2016). Note that IASI O₃ data are processed operationally in
397 Europe using a different algorithm. For this work we used O₃ profiles from TES and IASI
398 processed using a consistent algorithm at JPL, although the latter set of data represents only a small
399 subset of the full set of the IASI radiance measurements. The IASI and TES L2 O₃ profiles
400 (screened by the retrieval quality and the C-Curve flags) were used to evaluate the STEM O₃
401 vertical distributions in the different base simulations, and the satellite observation operators were
402 applied in these comparisons. Taking TES as an example, its observation operator h_z for O₃ is
403 written in (4):

$$404 \quad h_z = z_c + A_{\text{TES}} (\ln(F_{\text{TES}}(c)) - z_c) \quad (4)$$

405 where z_c is the natural log form of the TES constraint vector (a priori) in volume mixing ratio.
406 A_{TES} is the averaging kernel matrix reflecting the sensitivity of retrieval to changes in the true state
407 (Rodgers, 2000). F_{TES} projects the modeled O₃ concentration fields c to the TES grid using spatial
408 and temporal interpolation. The exponential of h_z is then used to compute the mismatches between
409 the model and TES O₃ retrievals as the model evaluation. A small mismatch between model with
410 the satellite observation operators and the satellite retrievals may indicate either good model
411 performance or may be the low sensitivity of the retrievals to the true O₃ profile. AIRS O₃ is
412 sensitive to the altitudes near the tropopause, with positive biases over the ozonesondes in the
413 upper troposphere (e.g., Bian et al., 2007); AIRS CO is most sensitive to 300–600 hPa (Warner et



414 al., 2007) and is frequently used together with the AIRS O₃ to distinguish the stratospheric O₃
415 intrusions from long-range transported anthropogenic or biomass burning pollution. We use the
416 L3 AIRS products in this study to get a broad overview of the areas that are strongly impacted by
417 the stratospheric O₃ intrusions or/and LRT of pollution.

418

419 The bottom-up NO_x emissions from the HTAP2 inventory were assessed on a monthly base
420 by comparing the GEOS-Chem NO₂ columns with the de-stripped KNMI (Royal Netherlands
421 Meteorological Institute) OMI column NO₂ product version 2.0 (Boersma et al., 2011a, b). For
422 this model evaluation against the OMI L2 products, the NO₂ fields calculated by the GEOS-Chem
423 adjoint model were saved daily at 13:30 local solar time, roughly coinciding with the Aura and
424 Aqua overpassing times. Other parameters used in the model column calculations came from the
425 GEOS-5/GEOS-Chem monthly mean conditions. The OMI data that passed the tropospheric
426 quality flag at 13-14 local time were selected based on the following screening criteria: surface
427 albedo < 0.3; cloud fraction < 0.2; solar zenith angle < 75°; and viewing zenith angle < 45°. The
428 averaging kernels (Eskes and Boersma, 2003) and Air Mass Factors (AMFs) in the KNMI product
429 were used to calculate the modeled tropospheric NO₂ vertical columns comparable to the OMI's.
430 Details of the method to compare the model-based NO₂ columns with the KNMI OMI's can be
431 found in Huang et al. (2014).

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433

3. Results and Discussions

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

3.1.1. Evaluation of the global model O₃ ensembles and the bottom-up NO_x emissions

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The monthly-mean surface O₃ from multiple global models' free runs was evaluated with
the CASTNET observations, at the stations with 95% of the hourly O₃ observation completeness
for the 1 May-30 June 2010 period, and the mean biases and RMSEs for these two months were
summarized in Table 2 by US subregions. The three boundary condition-model as well as the
eight-model ensembles overall underpredicted O₃ in the western US (by ~3-6 ppbv), similar to the
HTAP1 model performance over these regions for May-June 2001. This can be due to the
underestimated trans-boundary pollution (as indicated by the evaluation of modeled O₃ profiles
with ozonesondes and satellite O₃ products). In addition, the coarser model resolutions are less
capable of resolving the local features that influence the pollutants' import processes, chemical
transformation, as well as regional processes such as the cross-state pollution transport over
complex terrains. The global RAQMS base simulation with satellite assimilation improved the free
tropospheric O₃ structure as its comparisons with the ozonesondes shows, which also enhanced
the simulated monthly-mean surface O₃ by up to over 10 ppbv in the western US and some coastal
areas in the southeastern US (Figure S1, left).

The global models overall significantly overestimated O₃ in the other 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 for 2010, in large part due to the uncertainties in the
bottom-up emissions which will be discussed further in the following paragraphs. Satellite
assimilation led to 2-6 ppbv higher RAQMS surface O₃ in the central/southern/eastern US than in
its free simulation, which are associated with higher positive biases. Except in the northeastern US,
the eight-model ensembles show better agreement with the CASTNET O₃ observations than the
three boundary condition-model ensemble, suggesting that using a larger number of models in the



460 ensemble calculations in this case may result in better overall model performance. The
461 representation of land use/land cover, boundary layer mixing and chemistry in certain global model
462 (i.e., GEOS-Chem) can be sources of uncertainty as reported in the literature (e.g., Geddes et al.,
463 2016; Travis et al., 2016), but how serious these issues were in the other models need to be
464 investigated further. Future work should emphasize on evaluating and comparing the models on
465 process level to better understand the multi-model results.

466
467 The comparison of the GEOS-Chem adjoint NO₂ columns with the OMI product was used
468 to help assess the bottom-up HTAP2 NO_x emissions. Figure 3 shows that NO₂ columns from
469 GEOS-Chem's base simulations over the US are overall overestimated, and larger disagreement
470 was found over the central/eastern US during June 2010. While grid-scale differences in NO₂
471 columns may not be directly indicative of emissions biases (Qu et al., 2016), overall there does
472 appear to be a positive bias in the bottom-up emissions, mainly from the anthropogenic sources,
473 consistent with the findings of Anderson et al. (2014) and Travis et al. (2016). The NO₂ columns
474 in the GEOS-Chem base simulation were overestimated in many northern China rural areas and
475 underpredicted in a few urban areas in the East Asia as well as a broad area in the southwestern
476 China. The mismatches between model and OMI NO₂ fell within the ranges of the comparison
477 between the GOME2 NO₂ column product and six models' simulations over China in summer
478 2008 (Quennehen et al., 2016). It is likely that other O₃ precursors' co-emitted with NO_x from the
479 same sources are estimated with similar levels of uncertainties. Also, the use of monthly-mean
480 anthropogenic emissions as well as the overall rough treatment of emission height and temporal
481 profiles can be sources of uncertainty. These global model evaluation results suggest that the EAS-
482 NAM SR relationships analyzed using this inventory may overall overestimate the NAM local
483 contribution and underestimate the EAS contribution—This statement would also rely on the
484 quality of other O₃ precursors in the HTAP2 emission inventory, so careful assessment of other
485 key O₃ precursors' emissions in the inventory is also needed. Note that this comparison does not
486 account for the biases in the used OMI data, and would be further validated by using other OMI
487 NO₂ products as well as the bias-corrected (if applicable) in-situ NO₂ measurements. We
488 recommend more global models to save their calculations more frequently, at least near the satellite
489 overpassing times, for a more comprehensive assessment of the emission inventory.

491 3.1.2. Evaluation of the STEM regional base simulations w/ three sets of boundary conditions

492
493 The three STEM base simulations using different boundary conditions were averaged and
494 evaluated with the hourly O₃ observations at the CASTNET sites in the four US subregions. The
495 evaluation included the 8 May-30 June 2010 period to exclude the results during the one-week
496 spin-up period. The evaluation statistics is summarized in Table 3. The time series of observed and
497 modeled O₃ at the western US CASTNET sites are shown in Figure 2a where the model overall
498 simulated the surface O₃ fairly well, with a much smaller mean bias (~1.6 ppbv) than the global
499 model ensembles. However, this good performance can be a net effect of incorrect partitioning
500 between the trans-boundary and local source contributions, with the former being underestimated
501 and offsetting the overestimation of the latter. Switching the STEM chemical boundary conditions
502 to the assimilated RAQMS base simulation led to increases in the simulated surface O₃
503 concentrations by >9 ppbv in the western US (Figure S1, right), associated with higher positive
504 biases (due to several factors discussed in the next paragraph). Regional-scale assimilation could
505 further reduce uncertainties introduced from regional meteorological and emission inputs to obtain



506 better modeled total O₃ and the partitioning of trans-boundary versus US contributions (e.g.,
507 Huang et al., 2015).

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The model significantly overpredicted O₃ over the rest of the US mainly due to the overall overestimated NO_x emissions. These positive biases are higher than the global model ensembles', which can partially result from the possible unrealistic VOC speciation of the emission inventory and the SAPRC 99 chemical mechanism: Although SAPRC mechanisms have been used in air quality modeling for regulatory applications in some US states such as California, they usually produced higher O₃ than other mechanisms such as the CB05 over the US, and the comparisons between SAPRC 99 and SAPRC 2007 are still in progress (e.g., Luecken et al., 2008; Zhang et al., 2012; Cai et al., 2011). It is important to timely update the chemical mechanisms in the chemistry models, and we also suggest to timely upgrade the VOC speciation in the bottom-up emission inventories in the US to benefit the air 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 be another cause: As Hogrefe et al. (2011) presented, the MEGAN emissions resulted in a higher O₃ response to hypothetical anthropogenic NO_x emission reductions compared with another set of biogenic emission input. Some factors that caused the overpredicted MEGAN emissions, such as positively-biased temperature in WRF, can also be important sources of uncertainty in the STEM modeled O₃. We anticipate that the results from the Air Quality Model Evaluation International Initiative (AQMEII) experiment (e.g., Schere et al., 2012; Solazzo et al., 2012; Galmarini et al., 2015, 2016), which involves other regional model simulations over the US with the similar set of boundary conditions but different chemical mechanisms and non-anthropogenic emission inputs, can help better understand the causes of errors in the simulated total O₃.

531 3.2. *The NAM surface O₃ sensitivity to extra-regional anthropogenic pollutants*

532 3.2.1. Global model ensembles

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The impact of all foreign (i.e. non-NAM) anthropogenic sources on NAM surface O₃ was first explored, including the spatial distributions of the RERER metric (eq. (2)) based on various global models' simulations (Figure 4), and the domain wide mean sensitivities R (O₃, non-NAM, 20%) (eq. (1d)) (Figure 5). Across the NAM, the strongest impacts were found in spring time (March-April-May, larger than 1.5 ppbv in average over the domain) and the weakest impacts are shown during the summertime (June-July-August, 1.0-1.3 ppbv), consistent with the existing knowledge on the seasonal variability of the non-local pollution impacts on NAM for other years (e.g., Fiore et al., 2009; Reidmiller et al., 2009; Brown-Steiner and Hess, 2011). All global models indicate strong non-NAM anthropogenic source impacts on the western US mainly due to the impact of its high elevation, and also near the US-Mexico border areas, especially southern Texas, due to their vicinity to the Mexican emission sources. Over the western states, stronger non-local impacts were reflected from the results based on higher-resolution global models (e.g., the >0.6 RERER values from the half degree EMEP model, corresponding to its higher R(O₃, non-NAM, 20%) values than the other models'), similar to the findings in previous modeling studies (Lin et al., 2010, 2012a). Larger-than-1 RERER values are often seen near the urban areas and large point sources due to the titration, especially evident from the higher resolution model results. The R(O₃, EAS, 20%) values are larger than 1/3 of the R(O₃, non-NAM, 20%) (0.2-0.5 ppbv from April to June), more than 3-4 times higher than R(O₃, EUR, 20%) and R(O₃, SAS, 20%). Note that all eight



552 models contributed to the $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ calculations, but one or two models did not provide
553 all necessary sensitivity runs to compute the RERER, $R(\text{O}_3, \text{non-NAM}, 20\%)$, $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EUR}, 20\%)$,
554 or $R(\text{O}_3, \text{SAS}, 20\%)$.
555

556 Comparing to the HTAP1 modeling results, the magnitudes of $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EUR}, 20\%)$ are
557 smaller by a factor of 2-3, as a result of the substantial improvement in the European air quality
558 over the past decades (Crippa et al., 2016; Pouliot et al., 2015), and also possibly due to the changes
559 in the HTAP2 experiment setup from HTAP1 (e.g., EUR by HTAP1's definition includes regions
560 in Russia/Belarus/Ukraine, Middle East and North Africa that are excluded from the HTAP2's
561 EUR domain). In contrast, the $R(\text{O}_3, \text{non-NAM}, 20\%)$ and $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ values are >50%
562 higher than the HTAP1 modeling results. The $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ based on the emission perturbation
563 approach are also larger than 1/5 of the original estimates (i.e., 1.94 ppbv and 0.79 ppbv for March-
564 April-May and June-July-August, respectively) for 2001-2005 using the tagged tracers (Brown-
565 Steiner and Hess, 2011) a method that produces a higher "contribution" than the emission
566 perturbation approach (e.g., Grewe et al., 2012; Emmons et al., 2012; Brown-Steiner and Hess,
567 2011). These results reflect the impact of the growing anthropogenic emissions from the East Asia
568 and other developing countries during 2001-2010. The SNU GEOS-Chem-based $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$
569 and $R(\text{O}_3, \text{non-NAM}, 20\%)$ in Figure S2 both show that the NAM was a little more strongly
570 affected by foreign anthropogenic pollution in 2010 than in 2008-2009, especially in April-May.
571 This can be in part due to the higher O_3 precursors' emissions in 2010 from extra-regions including
572 the East Asia (Table S1). Such interannual variability can also be due to the Spring 2010
573 meteorological conditions that favored the trans-Pacific pollution transport, as introduced in
574 Section 2.2.1.
575

576 Similar to the findings from the HTAP1 studies, the large intermodel variability (as
577 indicated in Table 4) in the estimates of intercontinental SR relationships indicates the
578 uncertainties of these models in representing the key atmospheric processes which needs more
579 investigations in the future. Figure 5b compares the $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ estimated by individual
580 boundary condition models, their ensemble mean sensitivities, and the eight-global model mean.
581 The averaged $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ from the boundary condition model results are smaller than the
582 eight-global model mean, and GEOS-Chem gives higher $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ than RAQMS and C-
583 IFS except for July-October 2010. The $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ and the intermodel differences are
584 overall much smaller than the modeled total O_3 (<<5%) and their biases in NAM, as the impact of
585 the EAS anthropogenic sources has been diluted following transport over the great distances. Other
586 factors contribute more significantly to the biases in the modeled total O_3 , such as the stratospheric
587 O_3 intrusions and the local O_3 formation, and controlling the local and regional emissions would
588 still be more effective for complying with the tighter air quality standard.
589

590 The O_3 sensitivities in response to the perturbations of individual species or sector
591 emissions in East Asia, estimated by the GEOS-Chem adjoint model, were also analyzed (Figure
592 S2). The EAS anthropogenic NO_x emissions more strongly impacted the NAM surface O_3 than the
593 other major O_3 precursors, similar to the findings in Fiore et al. (2009) and Reidmiller et al. (2009)
594 using the perturbation approach, as well as the conclusions in Lapina et al. (2014) based on the
595 adjoint sensitivity analyses. Emissions from the power&industrial sectors are higher in East Asia
596 than the other sectors (Table S1), resulting in its stronger influences on the NAM surface O_3 . As
597 the observed NO_2 columns started to drop since 2010 due to the effective denitration devices



598 implemented at the Chinese power and industrial plants (e.g., Liu et al., 2016), depending on the
599 changes in the VOC emissions, it is anticipated to see different $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ values for the
600 years after 2010. Therefore, continued studies to assess the East Asian anthropogenic pollution
601 impacts on NAM during more recent years is needed. As emissions from various source sectors
602 can differ by their emitted altitudes and temporal (from diurnal to seasonal) profiles. Efforts should
603 also be placed to have the models timely update the heights and temporal profiles of the emissions
604 from those various sectors.

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606 3.2.2. Regional model sensitivities and their connections with the boundary condition models'

607

608 The monthly-mean STEM surface $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ sensitivities based on different
609 boundary condition models were inter-compared, and also compared with the $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$
610 estimated by their boundary condition models as well as the global model ensemble mean (Figure
611 6). For both May and June 2010, the domain-wide mean $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ values from
612 STEM/RAQMS were higher than the estimates from RAQMS; the STEM/GEOS-Chem $R(O_3,$
613 $EAS, 20\%)$ values are lower than those of GEOS-Chem, and the STEM/CIFS $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$
614 is higher than C-IFS's in June but slightly lower in May. These differences are overall smaller than
615 the inter-global model differences, and can be due to various factors including the uncertainties in
616 boundary condition chemical species mapping, and the different meteorological/terrain
617 fields/chemistry in the global and regional models. The STEM $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ ensemble mean
618 values, however, are less than 0.02 ppbv different from its boundary condition model's ensemble
619 mean for both months. The STEM $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ ensemble mean value in June is also close to
620 the eight-global model ensemble mean, but is ~ 0.05 ppbv lower than the eight-model mean in May.
621 Choosing other/more global model outputs as STEM's boundary conditions may lead to different
622 STEM ensemble mean $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ estimates. We also found that the period mean $R(O_3,$
623 $EAS, 20\%)$ of ~ 0.2 ppbv sampled only at the CASTNET sites (Table 3) are smaller than those
624 averaged in all model grids. This indicates that currently the sparsely distributed surface network
625 (especially over the western US that is more strongly affected by the extra-regional sources than
626 the other US regions) may miss many LRT episodes that impact the NAM. The planned
627 geostationary satellites with ~ 2 -5 km footprint sizes and hourly sampling frequency (Hilsenrath
628 and Chance, 2013) will help better capture the LRT episodes in these regions.

629

630 The spatial patterns of the monthly-mean STEM surface $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ sensitivities
631 based on the three boundary condition models are notably different, but overall resemble what's
632 estimated by the corresponding boundary condition model, and the STEM sensitivities show more
633 local details in certain high elevation regions in the US west (Figure 7 shows the June 2010
634 conditions as an example). These different sensitivities were investigated further, by examining
635 the $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ values near the source regions (i.e., East Asia) as well as near the receptor
636 regions (Figure 8). More East Asian anthropogenic O_3 seems to be transported at the upper
637 troposphere in RAQMS than in the other two models. GEOS-Chem and RAQMS $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$
638 sensitivities are similar over the EAS as well as the 500-900 hPa near the receptor in the eastern
639 Pacific (at $\sim 135^\circ W$), the altitudes US surface O_3 are most strongly sensitive to during the
640 summertime as concluded from previous studies (e.g., Huang et al., 2010, 2013a; Parrish et al.,
641 2010). Despite the close NAM domain-wide mean values from the STEM/GEOS-Chem and
642 STEM/RAQMS, the spatial patterns of $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ over NAM differ in these two cases,
643 with the latter case showing sharper gradients especially in the western US, partially due to the



644 impact of its higher horizontal resolution. The $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ values from STEM/CIFS are
645 lower than from the other two cases both near the sources and at (near) NAM. The STEM surface
646 (also near surface, not shown in figures) $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ does not spatially correlate well with
647 the column $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$, the latter of which contributed more to the base case O_3 columns,
648 indicating that a good portion of the transported East Asian pollution did not descend to the lower
649 altitudes to impact the boundary layer/ground level air quality. An additional regional simulation
650 was performed in which the STEM boundary conditions were downscaled from a RAQMS
651 simulation without the East Asian anthropogenic emissions. The non-linear emission perturbation-
652 O_3 response relationships, as the larger-than-1 S_{O_3} metric (eq. (3)) indicate, are seen across the
653 domain, for both the surface and column O_3 (Figure 7). Therefore, the full source contribution
654 obtained by linearly scaling the receptor regional mean O_3 sensitivity to the 20% reduction in the
655 source region emissions may be underestimated.

656

657 The temporal variability of the STEM $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ ensemble sensitivities were also
658 studied. For most US subregions, 3-6 LRT episodes (defined as when the sensitivities are above
659 the period mean) were identified during May-June. Throughout this period, the hourly $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS},$
660 $20\%)$ and the observed O_3 at the surface CASTNET sites are weakly correlated (Table 3), but they
661 display similar diurnal cycles (e.g., Figure 2a for the western US sites), possibly because the deeper
662 boundary layer depth during the daytime enhanced entrainment down-mixing of the extra-regional
663 pollutants to the surface. The identified diurnal variability of the $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ can cause
664 differences in the calculated MDA8 and all-hour mean $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ values. Figure S3 shows
665 that the mean $R(\text{MDA8}, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ values, usually at daytimes, are higher than the all-hour
666 averaged $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ in most STEM model grids during both months. Therefore, it is
667 important for more HTAP2 participating models to save their outputs hourly in order to
668 conveniently compute the policy-relevant metrics for the O_3 sensitivities. Also, the hourly
669 sampling frequency of the planned geostationary satellites is anticipated to be more helpful for
670 evaluating the impacts of the LRT episodes.

671

672 The STEM $R(\text{MDA8}, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ for May-June 2010 in four US subregions were averaged
673 on all days and only on the days when the simulated total MDA8 O_3 is over 70 ppbv (Figure 9).
674 These sensitivities also show appreciable spatial variability: from 0.35-0.58 ppbv in the western
675 US (also with the largest standard deviations, not shown), which is slightly higher than the HTAP1
676 results reported by Reidmiller et al. (2009) for Spring 2001, to ~0.1-0.25 ppbv in the rest three
677 subregions, which is close to the Reidmiller et al. (2009) results. Qualitatively consistent with the
678 findings in Reidmiller et al. (2009), $R(\text{MDA8}, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ is smaller during the high O_3 total days
679 in all subregions. Note that the STEM base simulations overall substantially overpredicted the total
680 O_3 in non-western US regions, so the $R(\text{MDA8}, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ calculated during the days of O_3
681 exceedances can actually represent the sensitivities during the non-exceedances.

682

683 3.3. Case study of the 9 May 2010 LRT event mixed with stratospheric O_3 intrusions

684

685 Lin et al. (2012a, b) and Neuman et al. (2012) showed that the trans-Pacific pollution
686 transport intensely impacted the western US during 8-10 May, 2010, intermingled with a
687 stratospheric intrusion. This episode is indeed indicated by the O_3 and CO products from AIRS
688 and TES at ~500 hPa over the E Pacific (Figure 10), and the observed TES and IASI O_3 profiles
689 over the western US indicated elevated O_3 levels (>80 ppbv) at 700-900 hPa. Huang et al. (2013b)



690 found that the meteorological conditions during this period (i.e., a strong jet at ~700 hPa with wind
691 speed >20 m/s shifted southwesterly when passing the southern California and continued to travel
692 towards the mountain states), along with the orographic lifting, efficiently exported the southern
693 California anthropogenic pollution, which was chemically coupled with the extra-regional
694 pollution and significantly enhanced the O₃ levels in the US intermountain west.
695

696 We selected this episode to compare the STEM surface total O₃ concentrations as well as
697 the R(O₃, EAS, 20%) sensitivities based on the different HTAP2 boundary condition models.
698 Figure 11 evaluates the simulated O₃ profiles in the western US from several STEM base
699 simulations against the TES and IASI O₃ retrievals, and Figures 12a-d indicate the performance of
700 the daily surface total MDA8 O₃ from these simulations. We found that the underestimated free
701 tropospheric O₃ from the STEM simulations that used any single free-running chemical boundary
702 conditions contributed to the underestimated STEM surface O₃ in the high elevation mountain
703 states. The STEM base simulation using the RAQMS assimilated fields as the boundary conditions,
704 agrees most with the observed O₃ at the CASTNET sites, as well as the TES and IASI O₃ profiles
705 in the western states. Similar to the conclusions drawn in Huang et al. (2010, 2015) for summer
706 2008, we again demonstrated the robustness of satellite chemical data assimilation for improving
707 the boundary condition models' O₃ performance. As the enhancement of O₃ due to the assimilation
708 is much larger than the O₃ sensitivities to the EAS anthropogenic emissions, the assimilation
709 mainly improved the contributions from other sources, such as the stratospheric O₃.
710

711 The quality of the model boundary conditions only indicates how well the total “transported
712 background” component is represented, and can not be directly connected with the accuracy of the
713 model estimated R(O₃, EAS, 20%) sensitivities, which also show notable intermodel differences:
714 The estimated R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) in the different STEM cases range from <1.0 ppbv to ~1.3
715 ppbv, at least 40% higher than the May-June period mean in Figure 9. Strong nonlinear emission
716 perturbation-O₃ response relationships are also shown during this period (Figure 12, lower). The
717 R(MDA8, EAS, 100%) from the STEM/RAQMS case is as high as >7 ppbv over the high terrain
718 regions. These are of smaller magnitudes than the estimates in Lin et al. (2012a), possibly due to
719 the differences in the used models and the bottom-up emission inputs.
720

721 A stratospheric O₃ intrusion also affected the NE US on the same day, as revealed by the
722 satellite free tropospheric O₃ and CO observations (Figure 10). This intrusion was mixed with LRT
723 East Asian pollution (Figure 12 and Figure S4). However, this intrusion did not enhance the NE
724 boundary layer/surface O₃ concentrations, which were actually anomalously low (MDA8<40 ppbv)
725 as indicated by the model base simulations and the CASTNET observations (Figure 12a-d).
726 Similar characteristics during summertime stratospheric O₃ intrusion events around this region
727 have been discussed by Ott et al. (2016). The East Asian pollution less intensely (<50%) affected
728 the surface O₃ levels in these regions than in the US west, due to the greater transport distances as
729 well as the impact of the overall flat terrain in the US east.
730

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

732

733 In support of the HTAP Phase 2 experiment that involved high-resolution global models
734 and regional models' participation to advance the understanding of the pollutants' SR relationships
735 in the Northern Hemisphere, we conducted a number of regional scale STEM base and forward



736 sensitivity simulations over North America during May-June 2010. The STEM top and lateral
737 chemical boundary conditions were downscaled from three global models' (i.e., GEOS-Chem,
738 RAQMS, and ECMWF CIFS) base and sensitivity simulations (in which the East Asian
739 anthropogenic emissions were reduced by 20%). The STEM surface O₃ sensitivities (including the
740 24h mean and the policy-relevant MDA8 metric averaged throughout the study period and during
741 a selected transport event) over North America overall resembled those from the corresponding
742 boundary condition model, but can be quantitatively different from the mean sensitivities estimated
743 by all global model ensembles. Therefore, choosing other/more global model outputs as STEM's
744 boundary conditions may lead to different STEM ensemble mean O₃ sensitivities. Overall, the
745 monthly-based US O₃ sensitivities to the 20% reduction of the East Asian anthropogenic emissions
746 contributed to <<5% of the total O₃ and are of smaller magnitudes than the biases in the modeled
747 total O₃. Better quantifying the contributions from other factors, such as the stratospheric O₃
748 intrusion and the local O₃ formation, would still be the most effective way to help reduce the North
749 American pollution levels and the model uncertainties. The US O₃ sensitivities to the East Asian
750 anthropogenic emissions were episodically strong, contributing to the O₃ exceedances in some high
751 terrain areas. Assessing the sources of intermodel differences are particularly important for better
752 evaluating the East Asian pollution impacts during these episodes. The STEM O₃ sensitivities
753 followed similar diurnal cycles as the total O₃, emphasizing the importance of saving model results
754 hourly for continentally calculate policy-relevant metrics, as well as the usefulness of hourly
755 sampling frequency of the planned geostationary satellites for better evaluating the impacts of the
756 LRT events.

757

758 The ensemble mean O₃ sensitivities in 2010 were higher than the HTAP1 reported 2001
759 conditions, as well as 1/5 of the original estimates for 2001-2005 using the tagged tracers. This
760 indicates the increasing impacts of the East Asian anthropogenic pollution on North America. The
761 GEOS-Chem O₃ sensitivities in 2010 were also higher than the 2008-2009 conditions due to the
762 increasing Asian emissions and the Spring 2010 meteorological conditions that favored the trans-
763 Pacific pollution transport. The GEOS-Chem sensitivity calculations indicate that the East Asian
764 anthropogenic NO_x emissions mattered more than the other East Asian O₃ precursors to the North
765 American O₃, qualitatively consistent with previous adjoint sensitivity calculations. Continued
766 research is needed on temporal changes of emissions for different species and sectors in North
767 America and foreign countries as well as their impacts on the SR relationships. As emissions from
768 various source sectors can differ by emitted altitudes and temporal profiles. Efforts should also be
769 placed to have the models timely update the height and temporal profiles of the emissions from
770 various sectors.

771

772 An additional STEM simulation was performed in which the boundary conditions were
773 downscaled from a RAQMS simulation without East Asian anthropogenic emissions (i.e., a 100%
774 emission reduction), to assess the scalability of the mean O₃ sensitivities to the size of the emission
775 perturbation. The scalability was found to be spatially varying, and the full source contribution
776 obtained by linearly scaling the NAM regional mean O₃ sensitivity to the 20% reduction in the
777 East Asian emissions may be underestimated. Motivated by Lapina et al. (2014), additional
778 calculations will be conducted in future to explore the scalability of different O₃ metrics in these
779 cases. For future source attribution analysis, in general it is recommended to directly choose the
780 suitable size of the emission perturbation based on the specific questions to address, and to avoid
781 linearly scaling O₃ sensitivities that are based on other amounts of the perturbations.



782 Satellite NO₂ (KNMI OMI) and O₃ (TES, JPL-IASI, OMI, MLS, and AIRS) products
783 helped detect pollution episodes, quantify or/and reduce the uncertainties in the bottom-up NO_x
784 emissions and the model transported background O₃. Based on model calculations and
785 satellite/surface observations on a selected day of 9 May 2010, we showed the different influences
786 from stratospheric O₃ intrusions along with the transported East Asian pollution on O₃ in the
787 western and the eastern US. Continued studies on exceptional events during other seasons are in
788 progress. As chemical data assimilation techniques keep developing (Bocquet et al., 2015), several
789 HTAP2 participating global models have already been able to assimilate single- or multi-
790 constitute satellite atmospheric composition data (e.g., Miyazaki et al., 2012; Parrington et al.,
791 2008, 2009; Huang et al., 2015; Inness et al., 2015; Flemming et al., 2016). Comparing the
792 performance of the assimilated fields from different models, and making the global model
793 assimilated chemical fields in the suitable format for being used as boundary conditions would be
794 very beneficial for future regional modeling, as well as for better interpreting the pollutants'
795 distributions especially during the exceptional events. Meanwhile, efforts should also be devoted
796 to advancing and applying higher-resolution regional scale modeling and chemical data
797 assimilation. Furthermore, although satellite observations have been applied for improving the
798 estimated US background O₃ (e.g., Huang et al., 2015), using satellite (and/or other types of)
799 observations to improve SR relationship studies also needs to be explored. Some of the possible
800 methods include: 1) The combination of data assimilation and the tagging approach; 2) Introducing
801 observation-constrained emission estimates in the emission perturbation analyses.

802

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804

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807 [juelich.de/HTAPWiki/HTAP-2-data-submission](http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-juelich.de/HTAPWiki/HTAP-2-data-submission)), or can be made available upon request.
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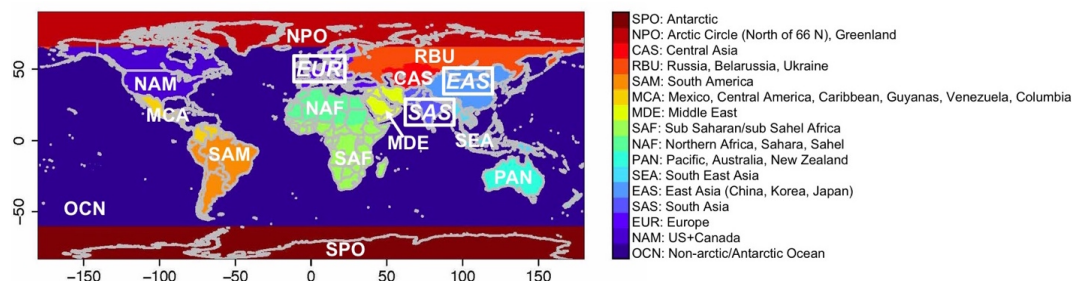
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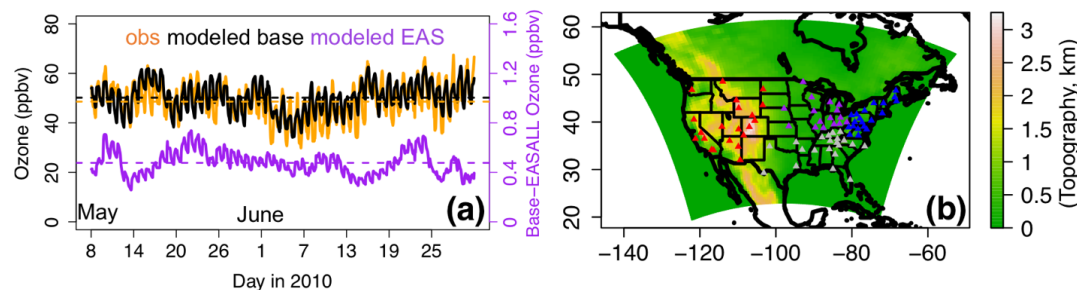
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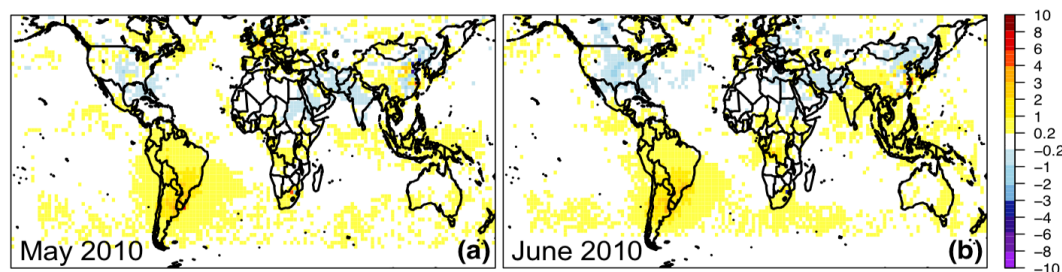
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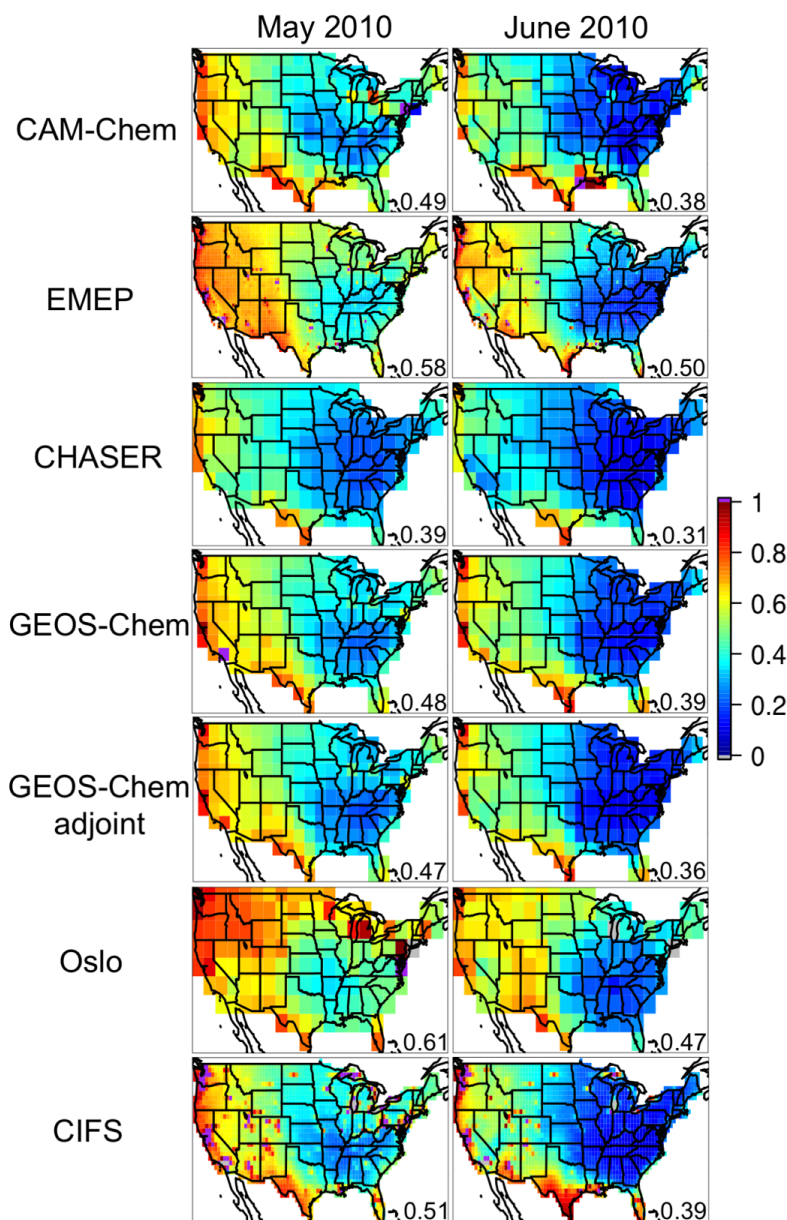
1234
 1235 **Figure 1.** Definitions of the 16 source regions used in HTAP2 SR relationship study. The map is
 1236 plotted based on data on a $0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$ resolution grid. We focus in this study on the impact of
 1237 anthropogenic pollution from selected non-North American source regions (i.e., EAS, SAS, and
 1238 EUR), as highlighted in italic.
 1239



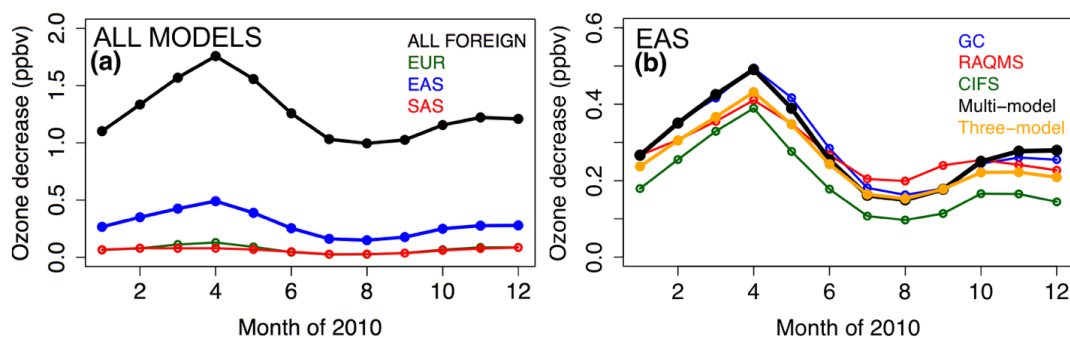
1240
 1241 **Figure 2.** (a) Evaluation of the STEM modeled (averaged from the three base simulations using
 1242 the GEOS-Chem, ECMWF C-IFS, and RAQMS base runs as the chemical boundary conditions)
 1243 hourly O_3 at the western US (i.e., EPA regions 8, 9, and 10) CASTNET sites. Observations,
 1244 modeled base O_3 and the modeled $R(O_3, EAS, 20\%)$ are in orange, black, and purple lines,
 1245 respectively. The horizontal dashed lines indicate the period mean values. (b) The 60 km STEM
 1246 NAM domain, colored by the model topography. The CASTNET sites used in the STEM base O_3
 1247 evaluation are marked as triangles in different colors that identify the subregions they belong to
 1248 (red: western US; grey: southern US; purple: Midwest; blue: northeastern US).
 1249



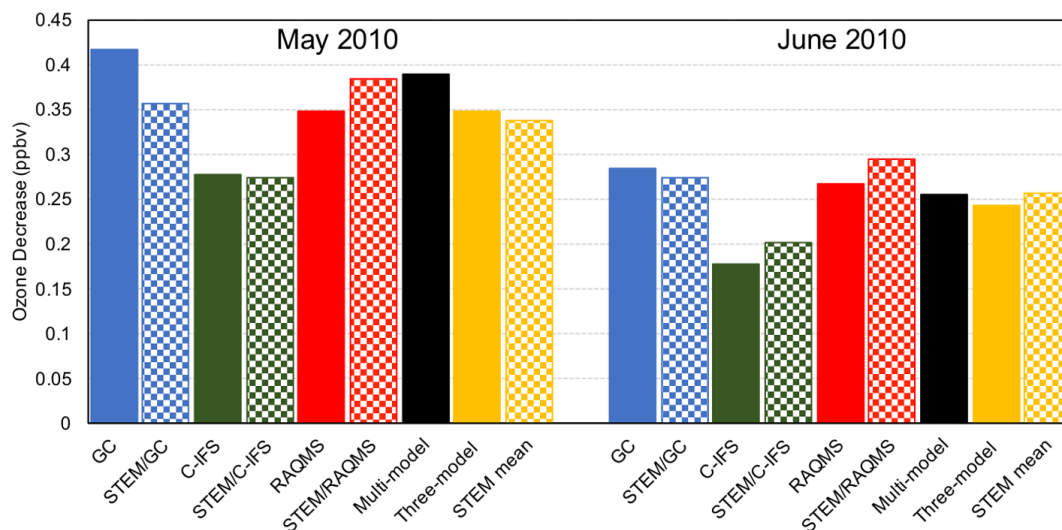
1250
 1251 **Figure 3.** Evaluation of the GEOS-Chem adjoint base NO_2 product (recorded at near the satellite
 1252 overpassing time) with the OMI NO_2 columns. The differences between OMI and GEOS-Chem
 1253 (OMI-modeled) tropospheric NO_2 columns ($\times 10^{15}$ molec./cm²) are shown for (a) May and (b) June
 1254 2010. Details of the comparison are included in Section 2.3.2.



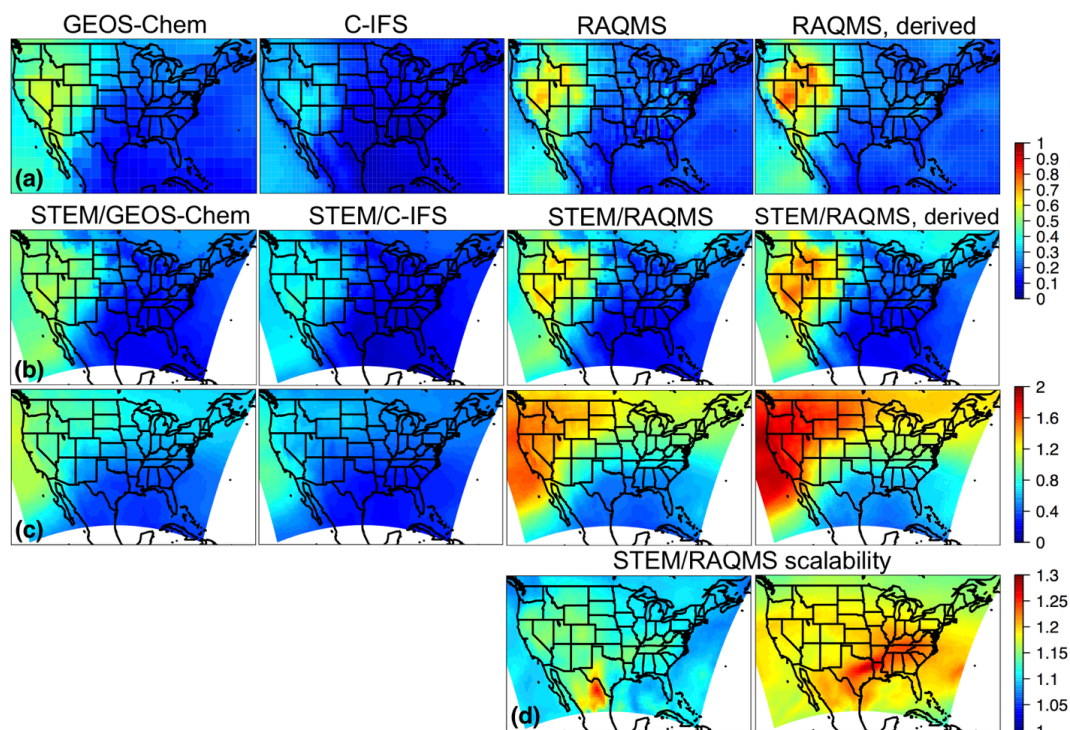
1255
 1256 **Figure 4.** The RERER maps in May (left) and June (right) 2010 over the continental US, calculated
 1257 based on the monthly mean O₃ from multiple global models' base and emission sensitivity
 1258 simulations. The RERER metric (unitless) was defined in eq. (2) in the text. Values larger than 1
 1259 and smaller than 0 are shown in purple and grey, respectively. The US (including continental US
 1260 as well as Hawaii which is not shown in the plots) mean values are indicated for each panel at the
 1261 lower right corner. The 7-model mean RERER values for May and June 2010 are ~-0.5 and ~-0.4,
 1262 respectively.



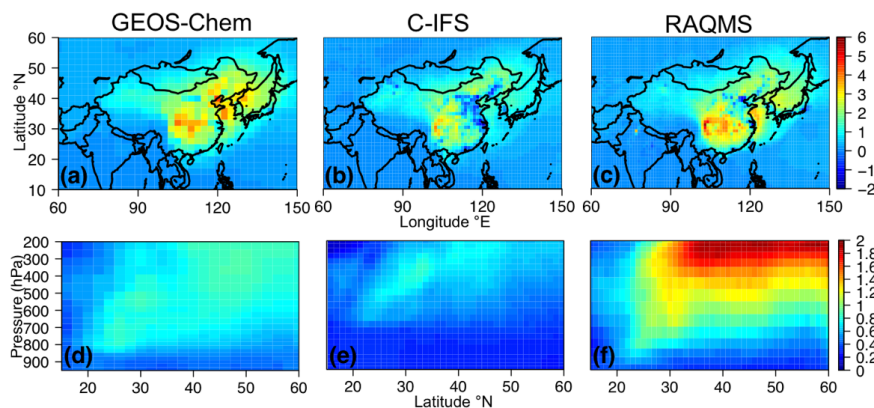
1263
 1264 **Figure 5. (a)** North American (130-65°W; 20-50°N) mean O₃ sensitivity to 20% anthropogenic
 1265 emission reductions in various non-North American regions, averaged from multiple (six-eight,
 1266 see details in text) global models. **(b)** North American surface R(O₃, EAS, 20%) values, as
 1267 estimated by single (the three STEM boundary condition models) or multi- global model means.
 1268 The “Multi-model” and “Three-model” in the legend indicate the mean sensitivities of all eight
 1269 global models and only of the three boundary condition models, respectively.
 1270



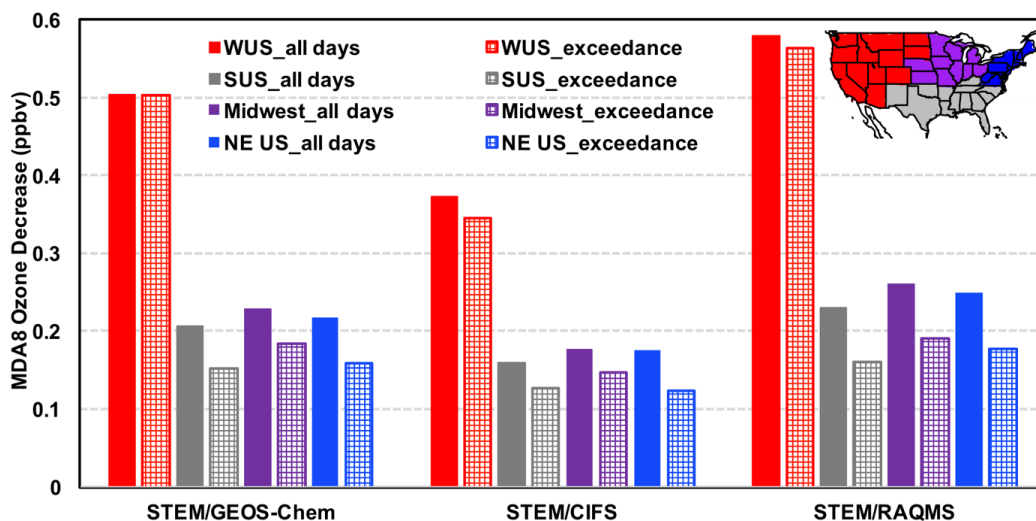
1271
 1272 **Figure 6.** Monthly-mean North American (130-65°W; 20-50°N) surface R(O₃, EAS, 20%) values
 1273 from multiple global and regional model simulations for May (left) and June (right) 2010. STEM
 1274 model mean values were calculated from its hourly output from 8 May and on. The “Multi-model”
 1275 and “Three-model” in the legend indicate the mean sensitivities of all eight global models and only
 1276 of the three boundary condition models, respectively.



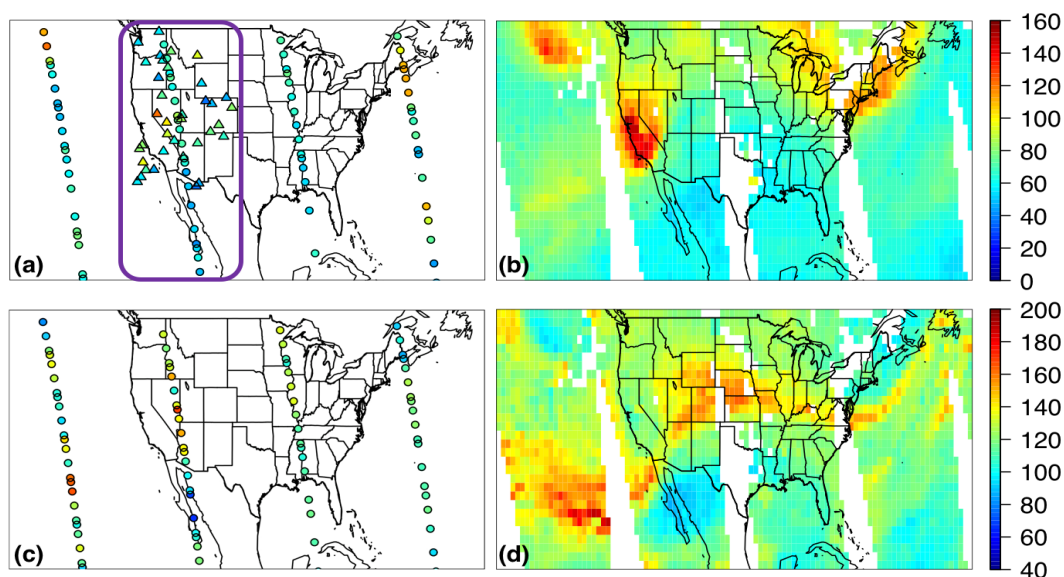
1277
 1278 **Figure 7.** The monthly-mean $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ in June 2010 for: **(a)** surface O_3 (ppbv) from the
 1279 three boundary condition models, **(b)** STEM surface O_3 (ppbv), and **(c)** STEM column O_3 ($\times 10^{16}$
 1280 molecules/ cm^2). Columns 1-3 show $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ from the simulations associated with GEOS-
 1281 Chem, ECMWF C-IFS, and RAQMS, respectively. Column 4 shows $1/5$ of the $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 100\%)$
 1282 from the simulations related to RAQMS. **(d)** The STEM/RAQMS-based “Scalability” S_{O_3} (eq. (3))
 1283 of the NAM surface (left) and column (right) in June 2010.



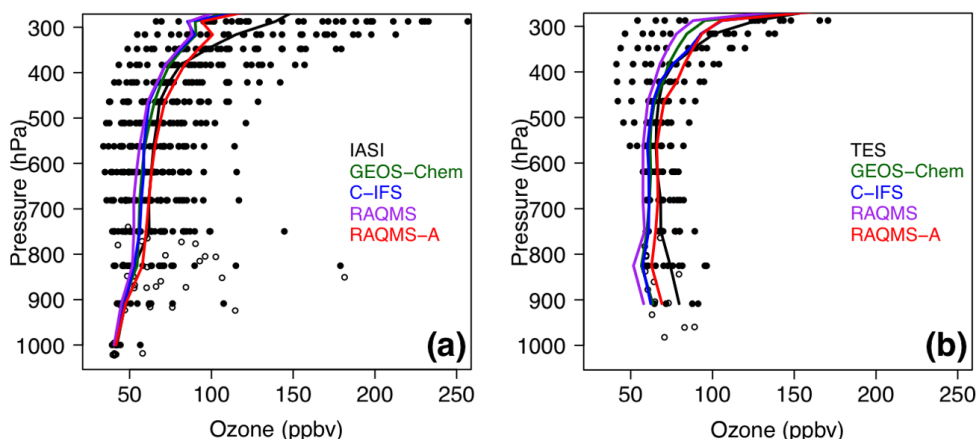
1284
 1285 **Figure 8.** The monthly-mean $R(\text{O}_3, \text{EAS}, 20\%)$ in ppbv in June 2010 from the three boundary
 1286 condition models at the source and near the receptor regions: **(a-c)** surface O_3 in the East Asia; and
 1287 **(d-f)** O_x (GEOS-Chem) or **(e-f)** O_3 (ECMWF C-IFS and RAQMS) along the cross section of 135°W
 1288 (near the west boundary of the STEM model domain as defined in Figure 2b).



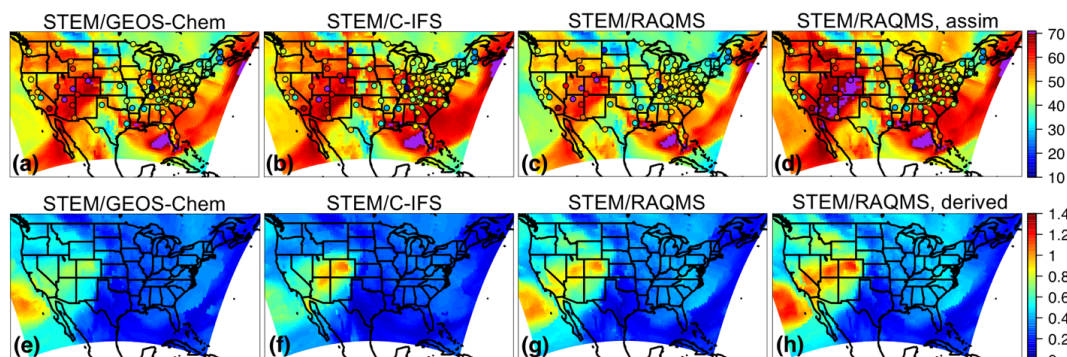
1289
 1290 **Figure 9.** STEM R(MDA8, EAS, 20%) for May-June 2010 in four US subregions (defined in the
 1291 inset of panel, also consistent with the definitions in Figures 2/S3 and Tables 2-3), averaged on all
 1292 days (bars with solid fill) and only on the days when the simulated total MDA8 O₃ concentrations
 1293 were over 70 ppbv (bars with grid pattern fill). The results from the STEM runs using GEOS-
 1294 Chem, ECMWF C-IFS and RAQMS boundary conditions are shown separately.
 1295



1296
 1297 **Figure 10.** Case study of 9 May 2010: (a-b) Ozone (ppbv) and (c-d) CO (ppbv) at ~500 hPa from
 1298 the L2 (a;c) TES retrievals (circles) and (b;d) L3 AIRS products at early afternoon local time. The
 1299 L2 IASI O₃ (ppbv) at ~500 hPa retrieved using the TES algorithm (details in Section 2.3.2) at the
 1300 mid- morning local times is shown on panel (b) as triangles. The O₃ profiles within the purple box
 1301 in panel (a) were used in the model evaluation shown in Figure 11.



1302
 1303 **Figure 11.** Case study of 9 May 2010: The comparisons between (a) IASI and (b) TES O₃ in the
 1304 western US with the simulated O₃ in the STEM runs using the GEOS-Chem (green), C-IFS (blue),
 1305 RAQMS (purple), and assimilated RAQMS (red) boundary conditions. The O₃ profiles within the
 1306 purple box in Figure 10a were used in the evaluation. Observation operators were applied in the
 1307 comparisons (details in Section 2.3.2). Solid and open dots are TES/IASI data at the TES retrieval
 1308 reporting levels and at the variable surface pressure levels, respectively. Solid lines are median O₃
 1309 profiles from the satellite observations and the different STEM simulations, calculated only on the
 1310 TES retrieval reporting levels.
 1311



1312
 1313 **Figure 12.** Case study of 9 May 2010: (a-d) Surface MDA8 total O₃ and (e-h) surface R(MDA8,
 1314 EAS, 20%) from the STEM simulations using the (a;e) GEOS-Chem, (b;f) ECMWF C-IFS, and
 1315 (c;g) RAQMS free run as the boundary conditions. (d) Surface MDA8 total O₃ in a STEM base
 1316 simulation using the RAQMS assimilation run as the boundary conditions. CASTNET
 1317 observations are overlaid in filled circles in panels (a-d). (h) 1/5 of the surface R(MDA8, EAS,
 1318 100%) from STEM/RAQMS simulations. The conditions at ~400-500 hPa are shown in Figure S4.



1319 **Table 1a.** HTAP2 base and sensitivity simulations by various global models. Relevant references
 1320 for the RAQMS model and the SNU GEOS-Chem are Pierce et al. (2007, 2009) and Park et al.
 1321 (2004) (with additional descriptions on its HTAP2 simulation configurations at:
 1322 [http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-](http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP2.3?action=AttachFile&do=view&target=_README_GEOS-Chem.pdf)
 1323 [juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP2.3?action=AttachFile&do=view&target=_README_GEOS-](http://iek8wikis.iek.fz-juelich.de/HTAPWiki/WP2.3?action=AttachFile&do=view&target=_README_GEOS-Chem.pdf)
 1324 Chem.pdf), respectively, and the descriptions of the rest six global models can be found in
 1325 published HTAP2 works such as in Stjern et al. (2016). The STEM boundary condition models
 1326 are highlighted in bold.

Global model and horizontal resolution	BAS E	EASA LL -20%	EASA LL -100%	GLOA LL -20%	NAMA LL -20%	EURA LL -20%	SASA LL -20%
CAM-Chem, 2.5°×1.9°	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
CHASER T42, ~2.8°×2.8°	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
EMEP rv48, 0.5°×0.5°	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
SNU GEOS-Chem v9-01-03, 2°×2.5°	✓	✓		✓	✓		
CU-Boulder GEOS-Chem adjoint v35f, 2°×2.5°	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
RAQMS, 1°×1°, free running	✓	✓	✓				
RAQMS, 1°×1°, w/ satellite assimilation	✓						
Oslo, ~2.8°×2.8°	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
ECMWF CIFS, ~0.7°×0.7°/1.125°×1.125° (used as the STEM chemical boundary conditions)	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓

1327

1328 **Table 1b.** STEM regional simulations for HTAP2

Boundary condition model	BASE	EASALL -20%	EASALL -100%
SNU GEOS-Chem v9-01-03, 2°×2.5°	✓	✓	
RAQMS, 1°×1°, free running	✓	✓	✓
RAQMS, 1°×1°, w/ satellite assimilation	✓		
ECMWF CIFS, 1.125°×1.125°	✓	✓	

1329



1330 **Table 2.** Evaluation of the period mean (1 May-30 June, 2010) multi- global model free
 1331 simulations against the CASTNET observations, only at the sites where 95% of the hourly O₃
 1332 observations are available.

Subregion	US EPA regions contained	Number of sites	Mean bias (ppbv)		RMSE (ppbv)	
			3 BC ^a models	8 global models	3 BC models	8 global models
Western US	8, 9, 10	19	-5.68	-2.52	10.37	7.05
Southern US	4, 6	18	11.61	10.24	13.62	11.96
Midwest	5, 7	13	8.03	7.66	9.16	8.67
Northeast	1, 2, 3	17	9.55	10.63	10.28	11.24
All	1-10	67	5.49	6.22	11.11	9.96

1333 ^aBC: Boundary Conditions

1334

1335 **Table 3.** Evaluation of the hourly STEM simulated total O₃ (averaged from the three base
 1336 simulations that used the different free-running boundary conditions) against the CASTNET
 1337 surface observations for 8 May-30 June, 2010. The subregional mean R(O₃, EAS, 100%), as well
 1338 as its correlation coefficient with the observed O₃ are also shown.

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

1339



1340 **Table 4.** The ranges and standard deviations (ppbv, separated by “;”) of $R(\text{O}_3, \text{source region}, 20\%)$
 1341 by 6-8 global models (defined in eq. (1a-d)), summarized by months in 2010. The monthly multi-
 1342 model mean values are shown in Figures 5-6.

Month/ Source region	All Foreign/ Non-NAM (ppbv)	EUR (ppbv)	EAS (ppbv)	SAS (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

1343