



IAP-AACM v1.0: Global to regional evaluation of the atmospheric chemistry model in CAS-ESM

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Abstract:

In this study, a full description and comprehensive evaluation of a global-regional nested model, the Aerosol and Atmospheric Chemistry Model of the Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP-AACM), is presented for the first time. Not only the global
20 budgets and distribution, but also a comparison of nested simulation over China against multi-datasets are investigated, benefiting from the access of air quality monitoring data in China since 2013 and the Model Inter-Comparison Study for Asia



project. The model results and analysis can greatly help reduce uncertainties and understand model diversity in assessing global and regional aerosol effects, especially over East Asia and areas affected by East Asia. The 1-year simulation for 2014 shows that the IAP-AACM is within the range of other models, and well reproduces both spatial distribution and seasonal variation of trace gases and aerosols over major continents and oceans (mostly within the factor of two). The model nicely captures spatial variation for carbon monoxide except an underestimation over the ocean that also shown in other models, which suggests the need for more accurate emission rate of ocean source. For aerosols, the simulation of fine-mode particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$) matches observation well and it has a better simulating ability on primary aerosols than secondary aerosols. This calls for more investigation on aerosol chemistry. Furthermore, IAP-AACM shows the superiority of global model, compared with regional model, on performing regional transportation for the nested simulation over East Asia. For the city evaluation over China, the model reproduces variation of sulfur dioxide (SO_2), nitrogen dioxide (NO_2) and $PM_{2.5}$ accurately in most cities, with correlation coefficients above 0.5. Compared to the global simulation, the nested simulation exhibits an improved ability to capture the high temporal and spatial variability over China. In particular, the correlation coefficients for $PM_{2.5}$, SO_2 and NO_2 are raised by ~ 0.25 , ~ 0.15 and ~ 0.2 respectively in the nested grid. The summary provides constructive information for the application of chemical transport models. In future, we recommend the model's ability to capture high spatial variation of $PM_{2.5}$ is yet to be improved.



45 **Key words:** IAP-AACM, model evaluation, multi-model inter-comparison, PM_{2.5},
China

1. Introduction

Atmospheric composition can affect climate and environment through direct and indirect effects (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), 2001). The composition of the troposphere has changed a lot due to anthropogenic activities over the past decades (Akimoto, 2003; Tsigaridis et al., 2006). Changes in the concentration of trace gases such as SO₂ and nitrogen oxides (NO_x = NO + NO₂) have a substantial impact on acid deposition (Mathur et al., 2003), atmospheric oxidation (Calvert, 1984), and gas-particle transformation processes (Saxena et al., 1987). Formation of aerosol from these precursor gases, together with aerosol from other sources, have a direct radiative forcing which is estimated to be -0.3 ~ -1.0 W m⁻², with a factor of two uncertainty (Luo et al., 1998). By modifying cloud properties, the aerosols also have important indirect effects. As reported in the Fourth Assessment Report (AR4) of IPCC (2007), the first indirect radiative forcing of aerosol ranges from -1.8 ~ -0.3 W m⁻². This is more accurate than the result presented in IPCC AR3 (Penner et al., 2001) which ranges from -2.0 ~ 0 W m⁻², but there is still much uncertainty. In addition, aerosols have adverse impacts on human health including respiratory diseases and lung cancer, which has drawn increasing public attention (Li et al., 2006; Kan and Chen, 2002; Pope et al., 2002). It is necessary to represent the key physical and chemical parameters controlling trace gases and aerosols in order to

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quantify these adverse effects and project the influence of aerosols in the future (IPCC, 2007).

Chemical Transport Models (CTMs) are mathematical tools for studying the evolution of chemical constituents in the atmosphere. CTMs have irreplaceable advantages in terms of source and sink assessment of trace gases, historical process reproduction, and future scenario prediction. CTMs, together with observations and laboratory simulations, have become the main methods for atmospheric environmental research (Wang et al., 2008). But there are numerous uncertain factors affecting model results (e.g. meteorology, emissions and model framework and physiochemical schemes). Therefore, model evaluation is essential for model development and scientific analysis. To date, many assessments with a single model using various observation datasets and multi-model inter-comparisons (with or without observations) have provided us with a comprehensive understanding of model performance and uncertainty. e.g., Badia et al. (2017) evaluated the gas-phase chemistry of the Multi-scale Online Nonhydrostatic Atmosphere Chemistry model (NMMB-MONARCH), Mann et al. (2010) evaluated both mass concentration and number concentration of the Global Model of Aerosol Processes (GLOMAP), and Tsigaridis et al. (2014) gave a detail evaluation of organic aerosol in the Aerosol Comparisons between Observations and Models Project (AeroCom). However, evaluation against site observation are mainly for America and Europe while inadequate for EA due to a limited set of data (Søde et al., 2012; Lee et al., 2015; Kaiser et al. 2018). Besides, observation of China is scarcely included in model



evaluation. Spatial distribution of aerosols affects estimation of radiative forcing
(Shindell et al., 2013; Giorgi et al., 2003). Thereby, more observation used to test the
90 model results enables us to reduce uncertainties of climate effect prediction over EA.

Along with economic development and urbanization, most megacities in China
have been plagued by haze in recent years. There are many reports on observation and
simulation studies addressing particulate matter. The model studies mainly focus on
the relationship between haze and weather conditions (Zhang et al., 2015; Tie et al.,
95 2015, 2017), pollutant source apportionment (Wang et al., 2013; Wang et al., 2014),
and the chemical mechanism of particulate formation (Cheng et al., 2016). Regional
models are more often used in local air pollution research due to its precise ability to
capture the variation of inputs (e.g. meteorology, underlying surface and emissions)
and therefrom the temporal and spatial variation of pollutants. However, the setting of
100 boundary condition limits continuous transportation from upwind and may lead to
unrealistic description in the model.

Based on the Global Nested Grid Air Quality Prediction Model System
(GNAQPMS) (Chen et al., 2015), we developed IAP-AACM and coupled it into
CAS-ESM (the Earth System Model of the Chinese Academy of Science) as the
105 atmosphere chemistry component of the model, using the framework of coupler 7
(CPL7) (Tang et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2018). As a multi-scale nested aerosol model
based on air quality prediction in China, IAP-AACM not only has the capability for
global and regional simulations, but also has strengths in localization of the process
parameterization (e.g. dust mode and heterogeneous chemistry) (Wang et al., 2000; Li



110 et al., 2018). The development of IAP-AACM allows us to quantify climate effects on
a global scale and elucidate air pollution problems on a regional scale over China.
Here a large number of datasets are used to evaluate the model, including a dataset of
city sites covering China. Continuous year-round observations at city sites can help
study of air pollution and model evaluation in China. As we are currently building a
115 global forecasting platform, the model evaluation across a wide range of cities will
also provide knowledge for global model forecasting and assessment.

In this study, the off-line IAP-AACM is applied to a 1-year simulation for 2014
and the model results of trace gases and aerosol mass concentration are evaluated
against other model datasets and a range of observational datasets, including site
120 observations and satellite data. Firstly we present the global evaluation in section
3.1~3.2. The global budgets of sulfur (dimethylsulfide (DMS), SO₂ and sulfate) and
carbonaceous (organic matter (OM) and black carbon (BC)) aerosol are compared
with other aerosol models in section 3.1. The global distribution and evaluation of
trace gases and aerosol are shown in section 3.2. In section 3.3~3.4, we focus on the
125 model simulation of PM_{2.5} and its components in Chinese cities. The nested
simulation is compared with an abundant dataset of city sites which cover most areas
in China, and the impact of different resolutions on model performance is also
explored. An inter-comparison with the Model Inter-Comparison Study for Asia
(MICS-Asia) models is presented in section 3.3, to give a general comparison across
130 East Asia (EA).

2. Model description and setup



2.1 Model description

2.1.1 CAS-ESM

CAS-ESM is the Earth System Model developed by the Chinese Academy of Sciences. It is coupled with the Atmospheric General Circulation Model of IAP (IAP-AGCM) (Su et al., 2014), the Climate System Ocean Model (LICOM) (Liu et al., 2012), the Common Land Model (CoLM), the sea ice model (CICE), the Dynamic Global Vegetation Model of IAP (IAP-DGVM) (Zhu et al., 2018), the IAP-AACM, and the land and ocean biogeochemical models of IAP (IAP-OBGCM). The IAP-AACM provides mass concentration of trace gases and aerosols for CAS-ESM and thus provides the corresponding climate effect through the two-way feedback of aerosols. Currently, global climate and ecological environment change is not only one of the core issues of international climate and environment diplomacy, but also an important factor governing the sustainable development of China. Earth system model is a basic tool to understand and solve these problems. The resolution of the CAS-ESM is $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ currently and later will be updated to $0.25^\circ \times 0.25^\circ$. The CAS-ESM will calculate a climate numerical experiment with high resolution for 100 years (1950 ~ 2050) and provide simulation results for the sixth IPCC assessment report and CMIP6.

2.1.2 IAP-AACM

The IAP-AACM is developed on the basis of the Nested Grid Air Quality Prediction Model System (NAQPMS) (Wang et al. 2006b) and the Global Nested Grid Air Quality Prediction Model System (GNAQPMS) (Chen et al., 2015).



NAQPMS/GNAQPMS is widely used in the simulation of dust (Li et al., 2012),
155 ozone (O₃) (Wang et al., 2006a; Li et al., 2007), deposition (Ge et al., 2014), air
pollution policy control (Wu et al., 2011; Li et al., 2016; Wei et al., 2017) and the
global transportation of mercury (Chen et al., 2015).

Like GNAQPMS, the IAP-AACM is a multi-scale nested model that describes
atmospheric chemistry and aerosol process on both global and regional scales. In the
160 IAP-AACM, sea salt and dust are emitted as dynamic sources. The dust scheme
originates from the wind erosion model developed by Wang et al. (2000) and
improved by Luo et al. (2006). The simulation of sea salt is based on the scheme of
Athanasopoulou et al. (2008). Dry deposition processes are based on the resistance
model approach of Zhang et al. (2003). The gas-phase chemistry scheme is Carbon
165 Bond Mechanism Z (CBM-Z) (Zaveri et al., 1999) which contains 176 chemical
reactions, 67 reactive species, and 20 species undergo photolysis. The cloud
convection, aqueous chemistry, in-cloud and below-cloud scavenging use the second
generation of Regional Acid Deposition Model (RADM2) (Stockwell et al., 1997).
For aerosols, the thermodynamic equilibrium module ISORROPIA (Nenes et al., 1998,
170 1999) is used to calculate gas-particle partitioning of inorganic aerosols and aerosol
water content. Furthermore, an aerosol microphysics dynamic module (APM) (Yu et
al., 2009) was added to expand the simulation from mass concentration to size
distribution (Chen et al., 2014, 2017). The secondary organic aerosol (SOA) module is
based on the mechanism developed by Strader (1999), considering two anthropogenic



175 emission precursors (toluene and other aromatic hydrocarbons) and four bio-emission
precursors (isoprene, monoterpene, etc.) (Li et al., 2011).

In addition, the IAP-AACM includes an updated DMS emission module from
Lana et al. (2011). The DMS concentration in seawater is calculated using 47,313
observations of the Global Surface Waters DMS database
180 (<http://saga.pmel.noaa.gov/dms/>) and an additional 63 observations in the South
Pacific (Lee et al., 2010). The IAP-AACM also provides a second, simplified
gas-phase chemistry mechanism based on a sulfur-only, chemistry box model. The
simplified sulfur-only scheme is specially designed for CAS-ESM to provide the
major aerosol components (sulfate, OM, BC, dust and sea salt). Retaining aerosols
185 with significant climatic radiative effects while cutting computational load, nitrate and
its chemical reactions are excluded. This approach is common in global aerosol
models such as the Integrated Massively Parallel Atmospheric Chemical Transport
(IMPACT) model (Liu et al, 2005) and GLOMAP (Mann et al., 2010). The simplified
scheme contains sulfur species (SO₂, DMS, and sulfur acid gas (H₂SO₄)), ammonia
190 (NH₃) and hydrogen peroxide. Offline monthly fields of the oxidants hydroxyl radical
(OH), nitrate ion radical (NO₃), O₃ and super oxidation of hydrogen (HO₂), generated
from a simulation of the standard version of IAP-AACM, are read in and interpolated.
Chemical processes in the simplified version are the same as those in the standard
version except for the gas-phase scheme mentioned above. In this paper we focus on
195 evaluating simulations of chemical composition in the standard version model driven
by a global version of Weather Research and Forecasting version 3.3 (WRFv3.3). The



global WRF is an extension of mesoscale WRF that was developed for global weather research and forecasting applications (Richardson et al., 2007).

2.2 IAP-AACM setup

200 In this study, the simulation region covers the globe at $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$ resolution and has a nested domain over EA at $0.33^\circ \times 0.33^\circ$. Vertically, the model uses 20 layers, from the bottom layer of about 50 m to the model top of 20 km, and about 10 layers are located below 3 km. The simulation area of the nested domain is shown in Fig. 1. The synchronous time step is 1800 s. The meteorology input frequency is 6 h in the global
205 domain but 3 h in the nested domain. The simulation period is from December 1st, 2013 to December 31th, 2014, and the first month is spin up time. Boundary conditions for the nested region are provided by the parent grid. As stratospheric chemistry is not considered in the IAP-AACM, the top boundary concentrations of O_3 , NO_x and CO are prescribed from the Model for Ozone and Related Chemical Tracers
210 version4 (MOZART-4) (Emmons et al., 2010).

2.3 Emissions

By integrating data from publicly-released emission inventories, we compiled a global high-resolution ($0.1^\circ \times 0.1^\circ$) emission dataset with source categories (29 species and 14 sectors) and interpolate it to the model resolution. The benchmark year
215 is 2010. Detailed information on the emissions is shown in Table 1. We note that volcanic emissions are not yet considered here.

As a consequence of government control policy included in the Five-Year Plan (FYP), China has achieved an obvious decrease in air pollution in the past ten years,



especially for SO₂. According to an announcement by the Ministry of Environmental
220 Protection of China
(http://www.zhb.gov.cn/gkml/hbb/qt/201507/t20150722_307020.htm), the country
completed the emission reduction task of 12th FYP (2010~2015) ahead of schedule in
2014 with a reduction ratio reaching by 12.9%. As the FYP controls suppressed SO₂
emissions mainly in the energy and industry sectors, we adjusted the total SO₂
225 emission for 2014 by a factor of 0.9 in China. The annual mean SO₂ emission is
shown in Fig. 1.

2.4 Meteorology and evaluation

As noted in 2.1.2, meteorological fields were provided offline by the WRFv3.3.
The temporal and horizontal spatial resolution of WRFv3.3 was consistent with
230 IAP-AACM. The atmosphere was divided into 27 vertical layers up to 10 hundred
Pascal (hPa). WRF was driven by the National Centers for Environmental Prediction
(NCEP) Final Analysis (FNL) data.

To understand the model performance overall, a comparison of annual mean
meteorological fields (temperature, wind and relative humidity) between WRF and
235 reanalysis data (National Centers for Environmental Prediction Reanalysis 1
(NCEP-R1)) are presented in Fig. 2. 443 surface sites in the nested domain are also
analyzed with the National Climate Data Center (NCDC) data and the statistical
parameters are shown in Table 2. A comparison of annual mean precipitation between
the model and reanalysis data from the Global Precipitation Climatology Project
240 (GPCP)) is also shown in Fig. S1. Globally, as shown in Fig. 2, the difference in



temperature at 2 m (T_2) and wind at 10 m (W_{10}) between the model and observation is within 2 °C and 2 m s⁻¹ respectively, except in high-latitude areas. The relative humidity at 2 m (RH_2) is generally underestimated on land and overestimated over the ocean, but the difference in most areas is within $\pm 10\%$. The difference in precipitation is within 2 mm day⁻¹ except in equatorial regions. The frequently strong convection in tropical areas is difficult to reproduce in the model. The agreement in T_2 and RH_2 with observations is better than that of W_{10} , with annual correlation coefficients (R) of 0.98, 0.84 and 0.53, respectively. Generally, the meteorology calculated by WRF is similar to observations.

250 2.5 Observation data

Trace gas observation data for CO, O₃, SO₂, and NO₂ in this paper are collected from the World Data Center for Greenhouse Gas (WDCGG) (<http://ds.data.jma.go.jp/gmd/wdcgg/cgi-bin/wdcgg/catalogue.cgi>), the Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia (EANET) (<http://www.eanet.asia/product/index.html#datarep>), and the Chinese National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC) (<http://www.cnemc.cn>). Annual observation data of particle and aerosol species are from the European Monitoring and Evaluation Program (EMEP) (<http://www.emep.int/>), EANET, the United States Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (http://aqsdrl.epa.gov/aqsweb/aqstmp/airdata/download_files.html#Daily) and the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) network (<http://vista.cira.colostate.edu/improve/>). As there is a lack of observations of BC and



organic carbon (OC) in Asia in 2014, we collected earlier site results from the China
Atmosphere Watch Network (CAWNET) from Zhang et al. (2008). Hourly air quality
265 data in China are downloaded from CNEMC. The other aerosol observations in China
are collected from monitoring sites of Nanjing and Wuhan, and scientific observation
at Xinzhou and Beijing (Chen et al., 2015). Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) data from
the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) is used to evaluate the
simulated AOD. All these datasets are for 2014, except that the WDCGG is used as an
270 average of 2006~2015 and the CAWNET is for 2006. The observation datasets are
summarized in Table 3 and detailed information of the observation sites is given in
Table S1. Note that the observed species in Table 3 are not always available at the
corresponding sites.

To focus on the severe haze problem in China, and to investigate the model
275 performance over China in more depth, we selected 89 stations in 12 cities
representing typical areas in China. The 12 cities are Beijing, Tianjin, and Langfang
(representing North China, NC), Shanghai, Nantong, and Yancheng (representing
Yangtze River Delta, YRD), Guangzhou and Zhongshan (representing Pearl River
Delta, PRD), Urumqi (representing Northwest China, NWC), Zhengzhou and Wuhan
280 (representing Central China, CC) and Chengdu (representing Southwest China, SWC)
(shown in Fig. 1). The daily mean city-averaged concentration of pollutants are
displayed in figures and used to calculate statistics. In addition, we collected the mass
concentrations of BC, OM, sulfate, nitrate and ammonium in Beijing, Xinzhou,
Nanjing and Wuhan (also shown in Fig. 1) to evaluate the model performance in



285 simulating aerosol components.

3 Model results and evaluation

3.1 Budgets

On account of the significant radiative effect of sulfate and carbonaceous aerosols, their budgets play an important role in the climate change (Penner et al., 1998). So here we elucidate the budgets of sulfate with its precursor gases (DMS and SO₂) and carbonaceous aerosols.

The global sulfur budgets for DMS, SO₂ and sulfate in IAP-AACM are summarized in Table 4, along with results from other global aerosol models including IMPACT (Liu et al., 2005), Goddard Institute for Space Studies General Circulation Model with Two-Moment Aerosol Sectional (GISS-TOMAS) (Lee et al., 2010), Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP) models (Lee et al., 2013) and the AeroCom models (Textor et al., 2006). The DMS emission (23.3 TgS yr⁻¹) is within the range of other models (10.7~23.7 TgS yr⁻¹). Note that the dry deposition of DMS is zero in IAP-AACM so the sink is just oxidation. This treatment is common in some other models such as ModelE2-TOMAS and ModelE2-OMA (Lee et al., 2015). As a result, we have a higher burden of DMS of 0.19 TgS, just outside the range (0.05~0.15 TgS), and a longer lifetime of 3 days. For SO₂, the emissions are a bit lower than the reference range (54.3 TgS yr⁻¹ vs. 63.4~94.9 TgS yr⁻¹), and this is ascribed to the lack of volcanic emissions. The volcanic emissions used in most models is based on the work of Andres and Kasgnoc (1998) and Dentener et al. (2006), in which the average flux for SO₂ is about 12.5 TgS



yr⁻¹ including continuous degassing and explosive volcanoes. We also note that the benchmark year of the anthropogenic emissions used in the reference models is as early as 2000 or 1990, but that anthropogenic emissions in IAP-AACM are for 2010, which may explain some of the discrepancy. The oxidation of DMS to SO₂ is 22.8 TgS yr⁻¹, within the range of other models' results. The aqueous-phase process is responsible for 61% of the oxidation to sulfate and gas-phase processes are responsible for the remaining 39%. Although it's a bit lower conversion efficiency for aqueous-phase chemistry compared with other models (about 70% ~ 80%), both aqueous phase and gas phase oxidation are well within the range of other models. The SO₂ burden is at the high end of the reference range, because the aqueous-phase oxidation rate for SO₂ is higher than that in the gas-phase (Liu et al., 2005). Due to an inefficient removal in aqueous-phase oxidation (29.8 Tg S) and wet deposition (shown in Table 4 as zero), the lifetime of SO₂ in the model is a little longer than other models (3 days vs. 0.6~2.6 days). In IAP-AACM, the emission of H₂SO₄ is assumed as 2.5% of the total sulfur emission. With a strong wet scavenging effect, 94% of sulfate is removed by wet deposition and the rest by dry deposition.

Table 5 presents the budgets for OM and BC with a range of results from other models including Liu et al. (2005), Lee et al. (2013), Lee et al. (2015), Textor et al. (2006), and those listed in Liu et al. (2005). For the same reasons described above, the emissions of BC/OM are at the low end compared with other models (BC: 7.42 TgS yr⁻¹ vs. 7.4~19.0 TgS yr⁻¹; OM: 56.7 TgS yr⁻¹ vs 34~144 TgS yr⁻¹). The ratio of dry deposition to wet deposition for BC and OM is 15.8% and 13.6%, respectively. Both



the burden and lifetime of carbonaceous aerosol are within the other models' results.

330 The burden of BC and OM is 0.13 Tg and 1.16 Tg respectively and the lifetime is 6.4 days and 7.4 days respectively.

3.2 Global distribution and evaluation

3.2.1 Trace gases

Global annual-averaged surface-layer trace gas distributions from IAP-AACM
335 are evaluated against site observations in Fig. 3. Scatter plots of observation and simulation data divided into 11 different geographical regions are exhibited in Fig. 4 and the corresponding Normalized Mean Bias (NMB) are shown in Table 6. The 11 geographical regions include Africa, Antarctica, Arctic Ocean, Asia, Atlantic Ocean, Europe, Indian Ocean, North America (NAmerica), South America (SAmerica),
340 Oceania and Pacific Ocean. Fig. 5 shows the comparison of annual surface concentrations of CO, O₃ and NO₂ between IAP-AACM and some HTAP atmospheric chemical models including CAM-Chem (Lamarque et al., 2012), OsloCTM3 (Søvde et al., 2012), and CHASER(Sudo et al., 2002).

Overall, the global surface CO simulation of IAP-AACM is lower than
345 observations, especially in natural source regions. Antarctic continents and oceans have the largest difference between site and model as shown in Fig. 3, and the difference can reach ~100 ppb. Fig. 4 also reveals a significant underestimation in ocean areas, with NMB ranging from -0.59 to -0.45 shown in Table 6. Over anthropogenic source regions, by and large, the model is consistent with site data in
350 eastern NAmerica, EA, and the coastal areas of SAmerica and Africa, but is about 50



ppb lower in western N America and Europe. The scatter plot clearly shows a negative bias between the model and observations, especially over the ocean. The lower model results may be caused by underestimated emissions or overestimated OH. For AACM, the tropospheric (200 hPa to the surface) mean OH derived by the model is 10.6×10^5 molec cm^{-3} . This value agrees well with a study of 14 models for 2000 by Voulgarakis et al. (2013), where the mean OH concentration was estimated to be $11.1 \pm 1.8 \times 10^5$ molec cm^{-3} . On the other hand, the anthropogenic emission is 546.4 Tg yr^{-1} , lower than some other emission inventory (e.g. ACCMIP with 610.5 Tg yr^{-1}) (Badia et al., 2017). Janssens-Maenhout et al. (2015) pointed out that CO emission from HTAPv2 has an uncertainty of 15~100% and 35~150% in data from well maintained countries and poorly maintained countries respectively. Furthermore, the underestimation of CO is common in other models. Shindell et al. (2006) evaluated 26 global models and showed that all the model results are lower than observations in the North Hemisphere (NH) except in the tropics, and it is concluded that this is related to a lower CO emission source. The spatial distribution of CO concentrations in IAP-AACM is similar to that in other models from HTAP in 2010. High values are found in industrial areas such as N America, Europe and EA, and biomass burning areas such as South Africa (SAfrica) and S America. The other models also display lower CO concentrations over ocean as in IAP-AACM.

As displayed in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4, the O_3 spatial distribution simulated by IAP-AACM is in a good agreement with observations. The O_3 simulations at most sites are within a factor of two of the observation and the majority of regions have a



NMB within ± 0.2 (Table 6) except for Africa, Antarctica and Asia. It is worth noting that the annual concentrations of O_3 at the three sites in Southeast Asia are more than
375 twice the observed values. As the sites are coastal, it may be not representative of the wider region simulated by the model. On the other hand, South Asia is a high-emission area for biogenic VOCs. Uncertainty in the biogenic source inventory may also cause large errors in O_3 simulation due to photochemical processes. The model shows a good skill in capturing the seasonal variation of surface O_3 in different
380 regions, as shown in Fig. 6. In the NH, the maximum O_3 concentration occurs in spring or summer on land but over the sea the value is higher in spring and lower in summer. In contrast, higher values occur in autumn or summer in the Southern Hemisphere (SH). The model results match the seasonal cycle both in the trends and the concentration over the ocean in the NH and in the SH very well, with only a small
385 underestimation in Antarctica. However, there is a positive bias during July-September over the land in the NH (NAmerica, Europe and Asia). A similar overestimation occurs in the evaluation of NMMB-MONARCH by Badia et al. (2017). They suspect this may be caused by a reduction of the NO_x titration effect in the summer, which leads to corresponding lower O_3 concentrations in highly
390 industrialized regions. The horizontal distribution of O_3 in IAP-AACM is generally similar to that in other models, as shown in Fig. 5. High concentrations mainly occur downwind of highly polluted areas due to the NO_x titration mentioned above. The model exhibits a higher concentration in the source regions and a lower concentration downwind. However, the model result is in good agreement with observations over



395 the ocean, as shown in Fig. 6. The difference in O₃ between models may partly be related to the dry deposition scheme used by the model. We show the dry deposition velocity (mainly 0.04 ~ 0.05 cm s⁻¹ on water surface) of O₃ in IAP-AACM in Fig. S2. In the common parameterization $v_d = \frac{1}{r_a + r_b + r_c}$, the canopy resistance r_c is the dominant term for O₃ dry deposition to water surfaces (Luhar et al., 2017). It is
400 commonly assumed that r_c for water is constant ($\approx 2000 \text{ s m}^{-1}$) (Wesely, 1989) and this is used by default in many global models including CAM-Chem. Based on this, we do not believe there are large differences in dry deposition between IAP-AACM and the other models.

NO₂ is limited to continental source regions due to human activities. IAP-AACM
405 captures the spatial characteristics well, see Fig. 3. Concentrations in NAmerica, Europe, and most parts of EA are in good agreement with observations. As shown in Fig. 4, simulation results are within a factor of two of the observations at most sites except for a few sites in China where they are underestimated (NMB of -0.59). As we use the same anthropogenic emission inventory, the spatial distribution of NO₂ in NH
410 from IAP-AACM and other models is similar, as shown in Fig. 5. The maxima in the NH are located in industrial areas due to fossil fuel combustion, and the concentration of NO₂ is much higher in eastern China (>20 ppb) than that in eastern NAmerica and Europe (3-10 ppb). The maxima in the SH are located in SAmerica and South Africa due to biomass burning, where NO₂ is 1-10 ppb, slightly lower (~3 ppb) than the other
415 models shown in Fig. 5, probably related to the different biomass burning inventory used (GFED3 vs. GFED4) (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015). The concentration over



the ocean is lower than 0.1 ppb except at 30°N–60°N, since the source of NO₂ over the ocean is small, mainly emitted by ships.

Similar to NO₂, SO₂ is high in the NH and low in the SH. The source of SO₂ over the ocean is mainly DMS oxidation from marine organisms while the source over land is mainly fossil fuel combustion. Maximum concentrations are mainly found in NAmerica, Europe, India and EA. As a result of environmental protection policies lagging behind industrial development, SO₂ concentrations in India and China can reach 15–20 ppb, much higher than that in the US or Europe. As shown in Fig. 3, the IAP-AACM calculates a distribution of 0.1–20 ppb in EA and 0.1–5 ppb in western NAmerica, which is consistent with observations. The simulation of SO₂ in eastern NAmerica and Europe is about 1–10 ppb, both of which are overestimated with NMB=3.52 and NMB=0.52 respectively, as shown in Table 6.

3.2.2 Aerosol composition

Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 show the annual surface concentrations of aerosol and PM_{2.5} in IAP-AACM in comparison with site observations in Europe, NAmerica and Asia. The corresponding NMB in different regions are also displayed in Table 6. Overall, aerosol simulations are consistent with site datasets.

As shown in Fig. 7, Sulfate, Nitrate and Ammonium (SNA) are mainly distributed in NH due to their close association with human activities. Sulfate is reproduced accurately at most sites. The model result is consistent with site records in Asia and Europe and the simulations at most sites here are within a factor of two of observations as shown in Fig. 8, with NMB of 0.36 and 0.11 respectively. In America,



the simulation of sulfate is about $2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ higher than observations. This is consistent
440 with the high level of SO_2 in the eastern America described previously, as the
precursor of sulfate. The simulation of nitrate over the land is more uncertain due to
the complex photochemical reactions of NO_x , but our model reproduces the nitrate
distribution overall. The simulation is close to observation in America but
overestimates it in Europe. There is an underestimation of $\sim 5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in Southeast Asia
445 and Japan. Even so, the NMBs are within ± 0.8 (the NMB of America, Europe and
Asia is 0.5, 0.74 and -0.61 respectively). Generally, the simulation of ammonium is
comparable to observations in America and most parts of Asia, with an NMB of -0.46
and 0.85 respectively. But there is a positive bias in Europe with an overestimation of
about $\sim 4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.

450 For carbonaceous aerosols, there are high values in developing countries or
regions as biomass burning and fossil fuel combustion dominate the sources.
SAmerica and SAfrica contribute most of biomass combustion emissions, and
developing countries (e.g. China and India) where industrial emission controls are less
well implemented contribute most of fossil fuel emissions. BC and OC are low in
455 America and Europe, with values of $\sim 1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and $\sim 3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ respectively. By and
large, the model results are consistent with observations in the three regions shown in
Fig. 8, with the NMB of BC within ± 0.65 and OC within ± 0.7 . The simulations of
both BC and OC are highly consistent with the IMPROVE dataset in America as well
as with the EMEP dataset in Europe. The accuracy of the simulation mainly depends
460 on the emission source, since BC is quite inert to chemical reactions. The simulation



of BC in China is accurate with 70% of the stations within a factor of two of observation while OC is underestimated by about $5\text{--}10\ \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, mainly due to the decrease in emissions from 2006 to 2014 due to the government's pollution control policy (Zheng et al., 2018).

465 Generally, the model shows good skill in simulating $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. Model results at most sites are close to observation as shown in Fig. 7, especially in Europe and Asia with NMB of -0.35 and -0.36 respectively. The underestimation in urban areas in western China may be related to uncertainty of emissions.

3.2.3 Comparison with satellite data

470 In order to evaluate the simulation of aerosol in IAP-AACM above the surface, we compared the aerosol optical depth (AOD) of IAP-AACM with MODIS satellite data. The calculation of light-extinction coefficient, $b_{\text{ext}550}$ ($1/\text{Mm}$, at 550nm), follows equation (1) given by Li et al. (2011):

$$b_{\text{ext}550} = 3.0 \times f_{\text{SNA}}(\text{RH}) \{[(\text{NH}_4)\text{SO}_4] + [(\text{NH}_4)\text{NO}_3]\} + 4.0 \times [\text{OC}] \\ + 10.0 \times [\text{LAC}] + 1.0 \times [\text{FD}] + 0.6 \times [\text{CD}] + 1.7 \times f_{\text{SS}}(\text{RH}) \times [\text{SS}] \quad (1)$$

475 where $f_{\text{SNA}}(\text{RH})$ and $f_{\text{SS}}(\text{RH})$ represent the hygroscopic growth factor for SNA and sea salt respectively, and the variables in brackets are the mass concentration of aerosol species (OC: organic carbon; LAC: light-absorbing carbon; FD: fine dust; CD: coarse dust; SS: sea salt).

Fig. 9 shows the comparison of AOD between IAP-AACM and MODIS for each
480 season in 2014. In general, the model AOD reproduces the spatial features of aerosol exhibited by satellites globally. For example, the high value around 60°S , ranging from 0.1 to 0.3, is due to high concentrations of sea salt. The maximum in S America



and SAfrica is due to the large amount of carbonaceous aerosol produced by biomass burning. The desert maximum over 0.5 is caused by mineral dust in NAfrica, Arabian Peninsula and western China. High AOD in NAmerica, Europe, India, and EA is caused by anthropogenic aerosols. Furthermore, there is a good agreement of the seasonal variations with satellite observations. For example, the AOD in the desert areas of NH reaches a maximum in March-April-May (MAM) since this is the season with frequent dust storms. SAmerica and SAfrica have lowest AOD in the September-October-November (SON) season as there is less biomass burning in this season. The east of China has highest AOD in December-January-February (DJF), as the country suffers severe haze at this time. However, there are several biases between model and satellite. The model shows a weaker AOD in Southeast Asia than observation where the value is mainly controlled by biomass burning. The AOD from IAP-AACM is also lower than observation to about ~ 0.4 in eastern China, mainly due to the negative bias of anthropogenic aerosols.

3.3 Nested simulation evaluation

3.3.1 Distribution and evaluation in EA

Fig. 10 shows the annual distribution of the four pollutants SO_2 , NO_2 , PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, against 45 city stations from the nested simulation. In general, the simulation shows better agreement with sites in Eastern China than Western China. Model results for NO_2 concentration are a little low, probably due to an underestimation of the emissions, while SO_2 , PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ are highly consistent with observations. The model values of PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ include dust aerosol in Fig. 10, and dust contributes a



505 lot to particles in North China. In the following discussion of $PM_{2.5}$, we focus on primary $PM_{2.5}$, BC, OC, SNA and SOA. The distribution of $PM_{2.5}$ and its precursors show high levels in the East and low in the West, which is related to urbanization and industrialization. Despite good agreement with observations in most places, the concentration in Tibet is greatly underestimated.

510 Unlike global models, regional models need boundary conditions and total mass in a region is not conserved. The physical and chemical processes are relatively complex, with higher spatio-temporal resolution and more computationally-intensive. Here a comparison between IAP-AACM and several regional models of MICS-Asia is presented in Fig. 11. The MICS-Asia models included here are WRF-Chem (Tuccella
515 et al., 2012), CMAQ (Mebust et al., 2003) and NAQPMS (Wang et al., 2006). Their simulations are for 2010 with the same meteorological fields and emissions, and the horizontal resolution is 45 km. As shown in Fig. 11, the nested simulation of IAP-AACM has consistent spatial distribution of pollutants in the far northwest of the domain, which cannot be reproduced in the regional models. The fixed boundary
520 conditions are responsible for this phenomenon, for there is no transportation from upwind of the boundary. Overall, the IAP-AACM shows similar annual distributions to MICS-Asia models in EA, as the emission inventory used in IAP-AACM is largely the same as MICS-Asia models. But concentrations in IAP-AACM are slightly lower in China and Japan, especially for NO_2 and $PM_{2.5}$. Furthermore, NAQPMS shows
525 stronger transportation downwind of the continent. As the regional version of IAP-AACM, NAQPMS has the same dynamic framework and physicochemical



processes as IAP-AACM, but the meteorology conditions are not the same.

3.3.2 Trace gas evaluation in cities

To get deeper insight into the performance of IAP-AACM in cities, a nested
530 simulation was compared with daily averaged observations in 12 cities across China.
We first focus on NO_2 and SO_2 since they are precursors of SNA aerosols. The
monthly variation of SO_2 and NO_2 against observations is shown in Fig. 12 and Fig.
13. Three-quarters of cities show an annual concentration of NO_2 of around $50 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
twice as high as SO_2 in summer and autumn, owing to the tougher SO_2 emission
535 reduction policy implemented since 2005. For SO_2 , the model shows good agreement
with observations except in Wuhan as shown in Fig. 12. This probably implies an
overestimation of emissions in this city. Furthermore, IAP-AACM reproduces the
seasonal variation well, showing good comparison to observations with R over 0.5 in
most cities. In particular, the cities in NC have a high R in the range 0.76-0.89.

540 As illustrated in Fig. 13, the model shows a good performance for NO_2 in most
cities, especially in YRD, PRD and SWC. The statistics summarized in Table 7 clearly
show that the model captures the monthly variations well, with R of 0.49-0.7 in NC,
YRD and PRD, and matches the observations well with Root Mean Square Error
(RMSE) typically less than $20 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in SWC and PRD. Overall, the model results are
545 more likely to be overestimated in NC, YRD and CC in summer. As the “ NO_2 ” values
reported by routine monitoring sites are NO_2^* , which partially includes HNO_3 and
 NO_3^- , it is common to underestimate the observed “ NO_2 ”. Here we also give a
comparison of NO_2 column concentration between model and satellite observations



from GOME-2A in Fig. S3. Generally, there is a good agreement in NO₂ column
550 concentration in China in different seasons. The model significantly underestimates
concentrations in Urumqi, probably as a consequence of uncertainties in emissions. In
brief, the nested forecasting generally captures the seasonal variation of NO₂ with R
near or above 0.5 in NC, YRD and PRD, but shows a poorer performance in the other
parts of China.

555 3.3.3 Aerosol composition evaluation in cities

As shown in Fig. 14, the model performs very well in the simulation of PM_{2.5}.
Statistics are shown in Table 7. The model reproduces PM_{2.5} trends over the 12
cities well, particularly in NC, YRD and SWC, with an R of 0.70-0.79, 0.71-0.80 and
0.77 respectively. The model results are close to or slightly lower than site
560 observations. The concentration in NC on some winter days is below the observations.
This underestimation of PM_{2.5} in severe haze periods is common in atmospheric
chemistry models, mainly as a result of the deficiency in the SNA and Secondary
Organic Aerosol (SOA) simulation (Zheng et al., 2015; Donahue et al., 2006). Besides,
there is a clear underestimation in PRD and Urumqi where mean values are less than
565 half of the observations, with NMB around -0.5. This is partly caused by the
underestimation of emission sources, as NO₂ is lower in these cities. Furthermore,
dust plays an important role as a component of PM_{2.5} in Urumqi, and this is not
included in the result. For these reasons, we investigate the aerosol simulation in
further detail below.

570 To assess the performance of IAP-AACM in representing aerosol components,



we compared the model results with 4 stations in NC, YRD and CC in Fig. 15. Generally, the model represents the variation of BC well with R ranging from 0.5 to 0.8 and the value get close to observations. As a primary specie, it is probably on account of its emission inventory. Unlike BC, there is an underestimation of OM at 575 the four stations, with a difference of 8-12 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. For SNA aerosols, the model also underestimates observations. Sulfate is close to observations in the northern cities (Beijing and Xinzhou), but is underestimated in southern and central cities (Nanjing and Wuhan) by about 10 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, with R from 0.4 to 0.6. As noted above, the concentration of SO_2 in Wuhan is overestimated. This suggests the sulfur oxidation 580 may be insufficient. This insufficient conversion has been discussed widely in recent years (Cheng et al., 2016; He et al., 2014). Moreover, SO_2 discharged by coal power plants plays a vital role in the formation of sulfate. The coarse grid resolution is insufficient to reproduce the rapid conversion of H_2SO_4 to particles in the plume. The gas-phase oxidation ($\text{SO}_2 + \text{OH} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{g})$) is very sensitive to meteorological 585 variables (particularly radiation and temperature) and gas (OH and NO_x) concentration around the stacks (Stevens et al., 2012). This may lead to a local discrepancy between simulation and observation. The results for ammonium show similar characteristics. The simulation of nitrate is highly underestimated with R ranging from 0.3 to 0.5. The underestimation is due to a high frequency of ‘zero’ 590 value in daytime of summer and autumn. This is due to the sensitivity of nitrate to temperature in the thermodynamic equilibrium module which leads to decomposition to NO_2 . This also leads to overestimation of NO_2 as shown in in Fig.13. Schaap et al.



(2011) found the same phenomenon in the LOTOSEUROS model using ISORROPIA and recommended improvements in the equilibrium module, including coarse mode
595 nitrate. In other respects, the model can reproduce aerosol components reasonably well in these cities

3.4 Global versus regional results

To evaluate the improvements due to higher model resolution, we compare the global simulation ($1^\circ \times 1^\circ$) with the nested simulation ($0.33^\circ \times 0.33^\circ$) over China. Table
600 7 gives the statistics of $PM_{2.5}$, SO_2 and NO_2 simulated at the different resolutions. The nested domain can effectively improve the simulation of city pollutants, especially $PM_{2.5}$, because high-resolution grid can provide better resolved emissions and meteorological fields in urban and rural areas. As shown in Table 7, the correlation coefficients of the three species in the nested simulations are significantly higher than
605 in the global simulations. The RMSE of the nested results in most cities are reduced. For $PM_{2.5}$, the correlation at high resolution rises in all the cities except Shanghai, and the PRD has the most significant increase. The R for Guangzhou and Zhongshan increase by 0.2 and 0.25 respectively, and the R for Urumqi increases by 0.19. Moreover, the RMSE decreases over 9 cities. The impact of the nested grid on
610 simulation of SO_2 is clear, with R increasing over 8 cities getting R raised and RMSE reducing over 9 cities. In particular, the simulation in NC, YRD and SCW improves significantly, with better representation of monthly variation and closer comparison to observations. For NO_2 , the R significantly increases in 9 cities (all except Shanghai, Nantong and Wuhan) and RMSE decreases in 7 cities. The best performance is in



615 Beijing where there is an improvement of R from 0.48 to 0.68.

4. Conclusions

A global-nested aerosol and atmospheric chemistry model coupled into CAS-ESM is introduced in this study. The aim is to provide more precise information on climate effects and air pollution on both global and regional scales. In IAP-AACM, the emissions of sea salt, dust and DMS are calculated online. Gas-phase chemistry includes both the CBM-Z module and a simplified reaction scheme without nitrate chemistry specifically for CAS-ESM. Aqueous chemistry and wet deposition are calculated by RADM, and the dry deposition scheme is from Zhang et al. (2003). The aerosol module contains ISORROPIA and the scheme of Strader et al. (1999). Here we concentrate on the evaluation of the standard version of IAP-AACM driven by WRF offline. The difference between the simplified and standard versions driven by WRF and the difference between the simplified version driven by IAP-AGCM (online) and WRF (offline) will be presented in our next work.

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For the global simulation, the surface distribution of trace gas in the model agrees reasonably well with site observations, mostly within a factor of two. Like other models, IAP-AACM underestimates CO over the oceans, mainly due to the underestimation of emissions over the sea. The model reproduces the spatial variation of O₃ well, with a range of 30-70 ppb at 30° S~60° N. Furthermore, the model represents the seasonal variation of O₃ globally, with only a slightly overestimation in summer over the land in NH. The simulation of NO₂ is consistent with both site records and other models. For SO₂, it shows a good agreement with observation

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except for an overestimation in eastern America and Europe. With a weak scavenging rate by deposition and oxidation, SO₂ in the model has a longer lifetime (3 days) compared with other models (0.6-2.6 days) and the burden (0.63 Tg S yr⁻¹) is at the high end of the range 0.2-0.69 Tg S yr⁻¹. The budgets of both carbonaceous aerosols and sulfate are similar to those in other models. At the surface, IAP-AACM shows very close comparison to observations for BC and OC but more variable performance for SNA. In general, the simulation matches records on sulfate (NMB=0.36) in Asia and on nitrate and ammonium (NMB within ±0.5) in America. But it overestimates sulfate and ammonium (NMB=1.1 and 1.49 respectively) in Europe and overestimates only sulfate (NMB=1.94) in America. Above the surface, IAP-AACM captures the broad seasonal and spatial features of AOD shown in the MODIS.

For the nested simulation, IAP-AACM shows a very similar annual distribution over EA and a more reasonable distribution on the boundary, compared with regional models from the MICS-Asia project. IAP-AACM shows a good agreement with site data from Chinese cities for both surface concentration and monthly variation. The model compares well with observations of NO₂ and SO₂, especially in NC and YRD. In most cities, IAP-AACM shows very good simulation skill for PM_{2.5}, not only for the monthly variation, but also for daily variability, with R near or above 0.7. For aerosol compositions, BC simulation shows better correlation coefficients (above 0.5) in all four cities. The simulation of OM is lower than observations. The model results of sulfate and ammonium in North China are close to observations, but it underestimates in South China. As nitrate is easily decomposed at high temperatures



in the model, it is significantly underestimated in summer and autumn. The
660 comparison of global ($1^{\circ} \times 1^{\circ}$) and nested ($0.33^{\circ} \times 0.33^{\circ}$) results indicates that the
model reproduces the spatial variation of pollutants in the city significantly better at
fine resolution, as there are huge differences between urban and country in
meteorological field and emission.

In general, the model results for trace gases and carbonaceous aerosols show a
665 favorable performance. Nevertheless, the simulation of secondary aerosols shows
some weaknesses. To reduce uncertainties in the simulation of SNA, more work is
needed to improve not only aerosol chemistry but also emission inventory. Moreover,
the SOA module is relatively simple, and it could be upgraded to incorporate a
comprehensive scheme (e.g. Volatility Bias Set by Donahue et al. (2006)) and verified
670 with observations.

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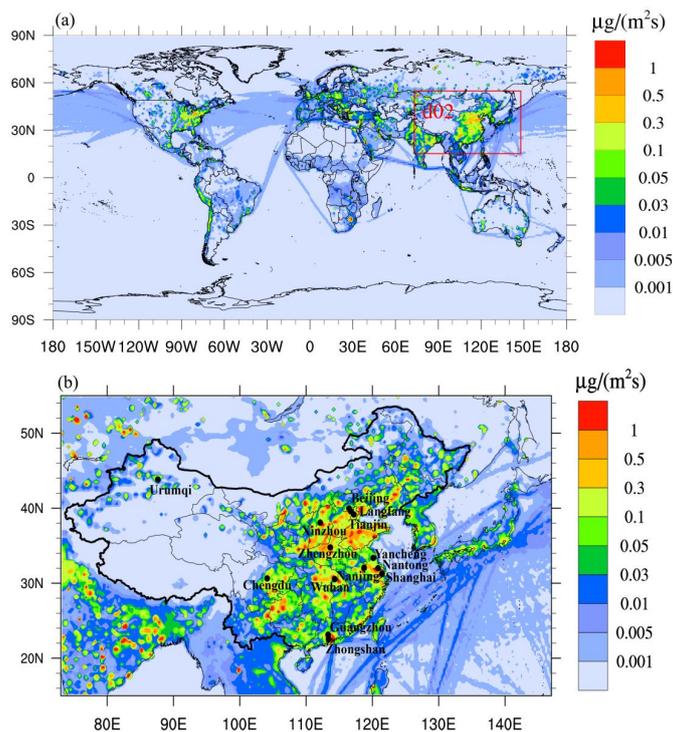
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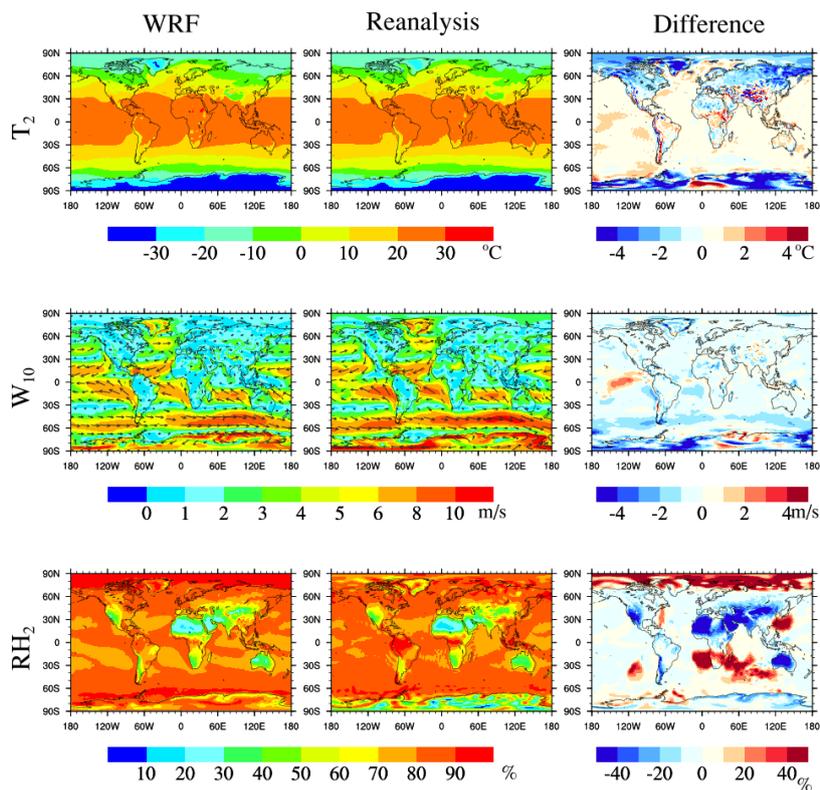


Figures

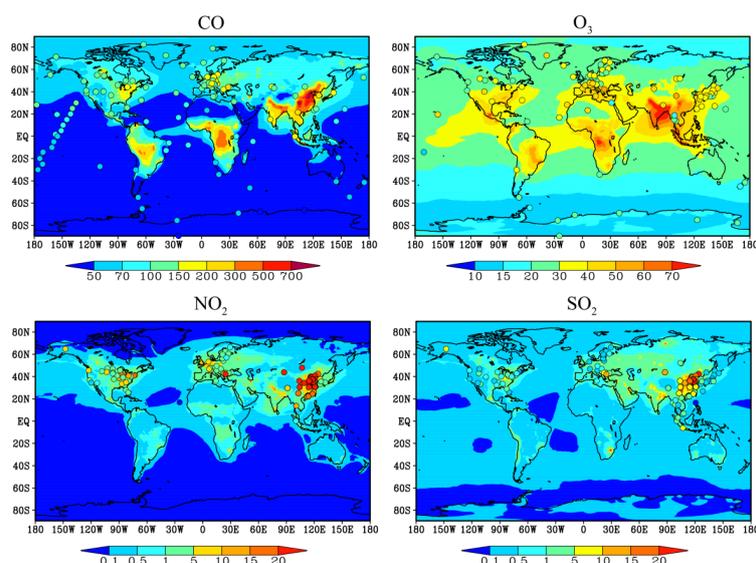


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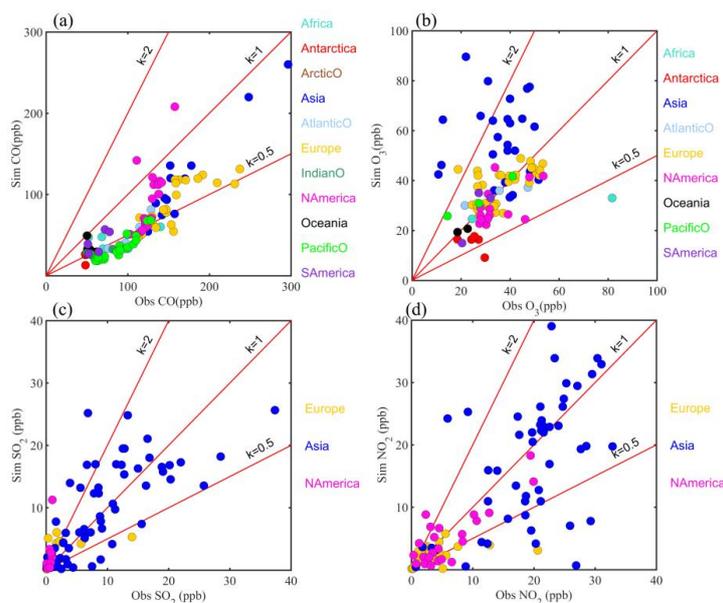
Fig. 1. The simulation domain with total SO_2 emission ($\mu\text{g m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$). (a) domain 1; (b) domain 2, black circles are locations of the city sites in China.



970 Fig. 2. Comparison of annual meteorological fields. The left column is WRF simulation, the middle column is reanalysis data, and the right column is the difference between simulation and reanalysis (WRF-Reanalysis). The reanalysis data is NCEP Reanalysis1.



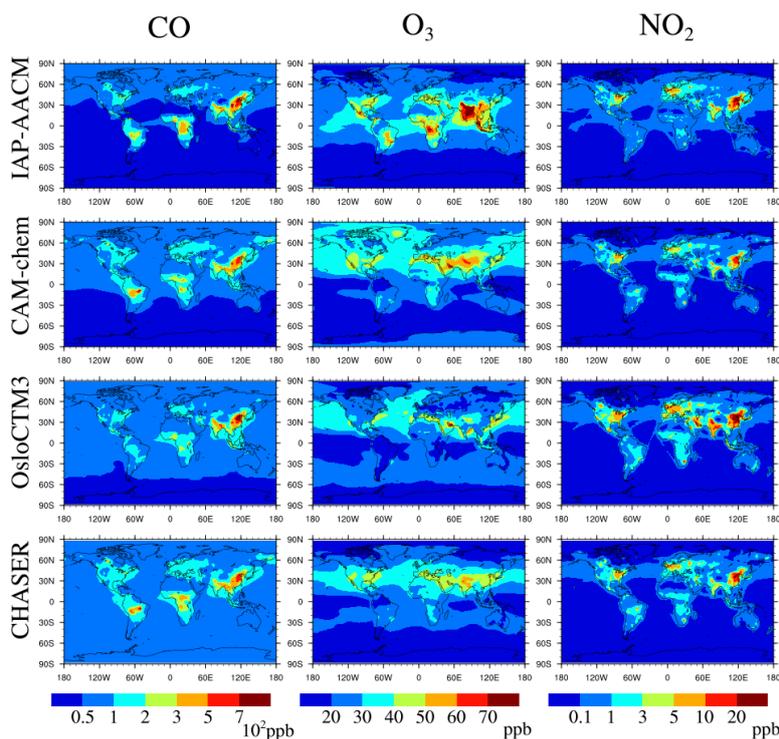
975 Fig. 3. Annual mean concentration (ppb) of the surface layer in IAP-AACM. The circles represent site observations. The first row is CO and O₃, the bottom row is NO₂ and SO₂.



980 Fig. 4. Scatter plots of annual mean concentrations (ppb) in Africa, Antarctica, Arctic Ocean (ArcticO), Asia, Atlantic Ocean (AtlanticO), Europe, Indian Ocean (IndianO), North America (NAmerica), South America (SAmerica), Oceania and Pacific Ocean (PacificO). The abscissa shows the observation and the ordinate shows the simulation.

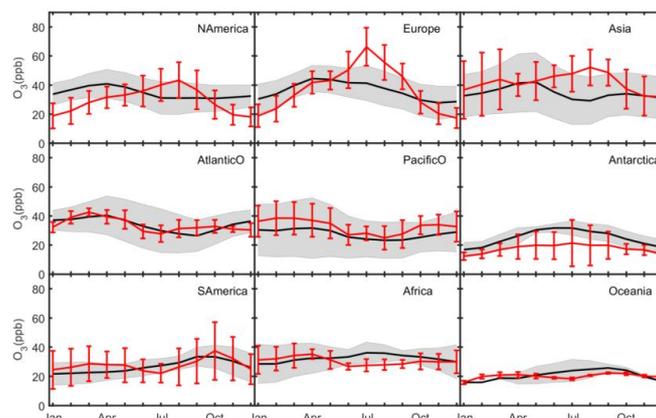


The color of the points represents different regions. (a) ~ (d) show CO, O₃, SO₂ and NO₂ respectively.



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Fig. 5. Annual mean surface distributions (ppb) from IAP-AACM compared with HTAP models. Rows from top to bottom represent IAP-AACM, CAM-Chem, OsloCTM3 and CHASER respectively. The left column displays CO, the middle column displays O₃ and the right column is NO₂.



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Fig. 6. Mean seasonal variation of O₃ (ppb) over NAmerica, Europe, Asia, AtlanticO, PacificO, Antarctica, SAmerica, Africa and Oceania sites. Black lines and red lines represent the average of observations and simulations respectively. Gray shaded areas and red vertical bars show 1 standard deviation over the sites for observations and for model results respectively.

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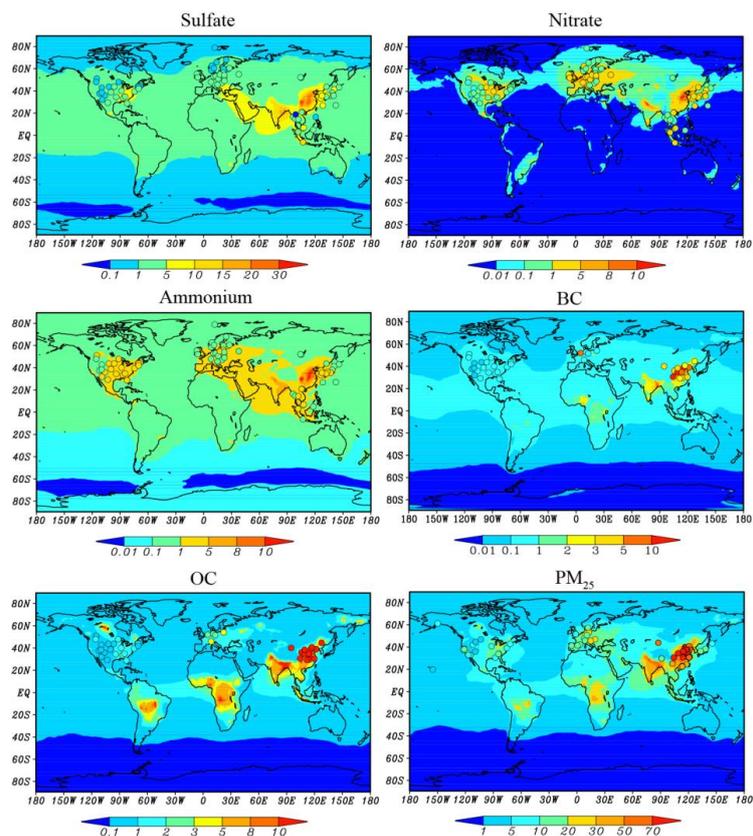
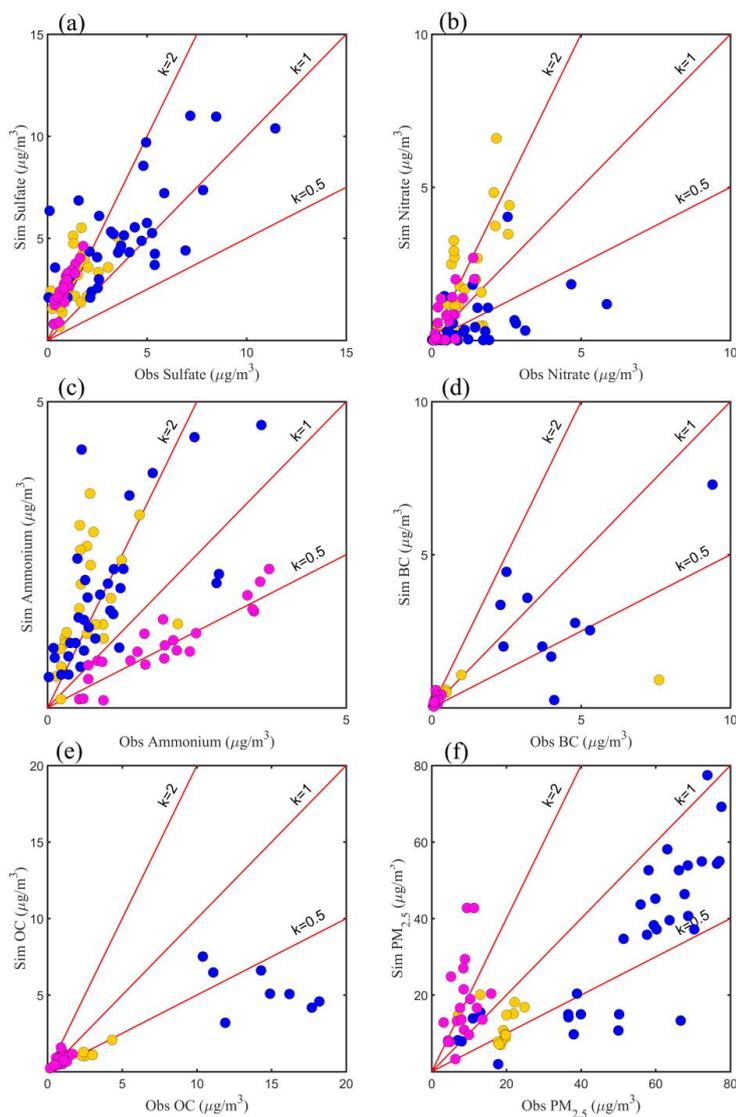
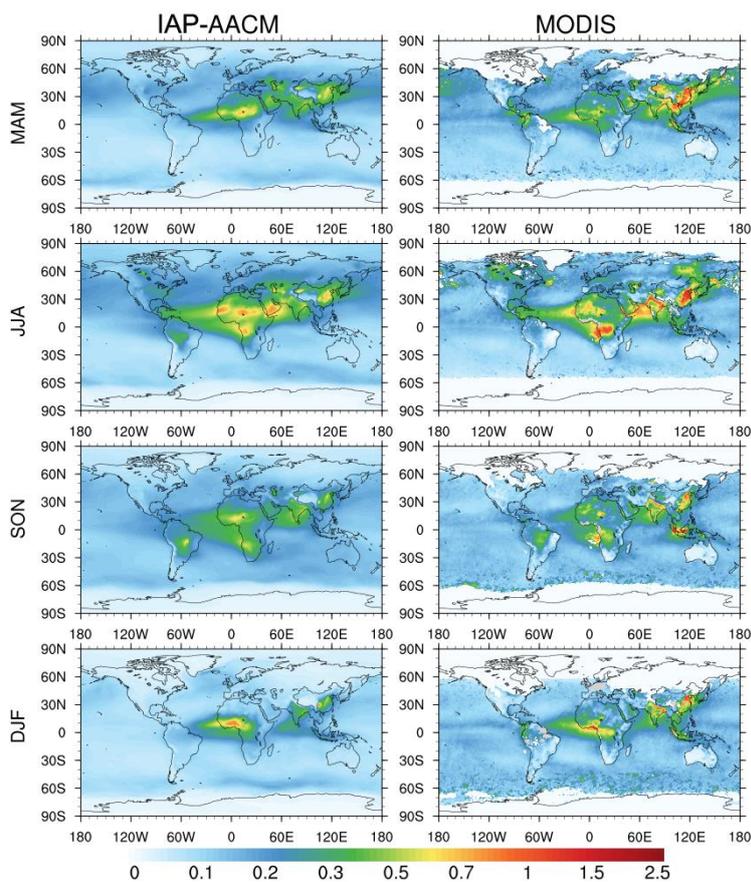


Fig. 7. The same as Fig. 3, except the species are sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, BC, OC, and PM_{2.5} and the unit is $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.



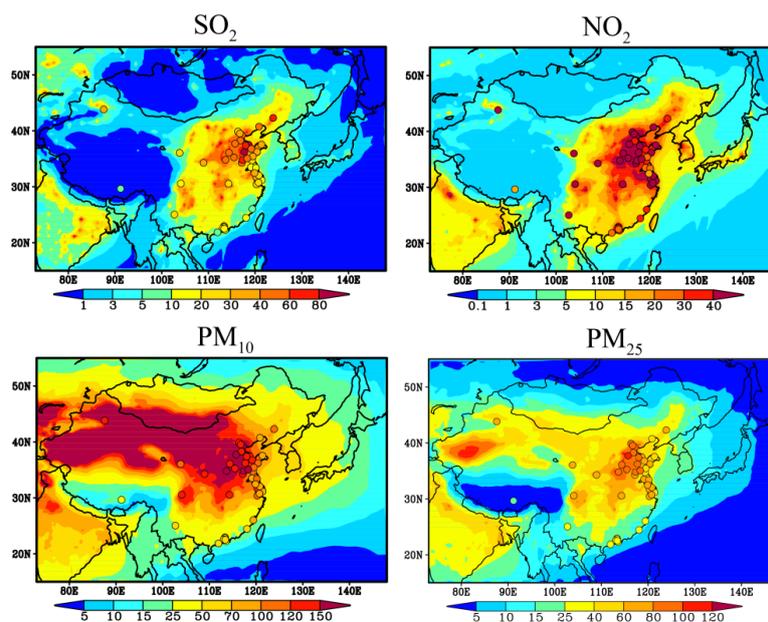
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Fig. 8. Scatter plot of annual mean concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) in Europe, Asia and NAmerica. (a)~(f) is sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, BC, OC and PM_{2.5} respectively. The abscissa shows the observation and the ordinate shows the simulation. The regions represented by different colors are consistent with Fig. 4c

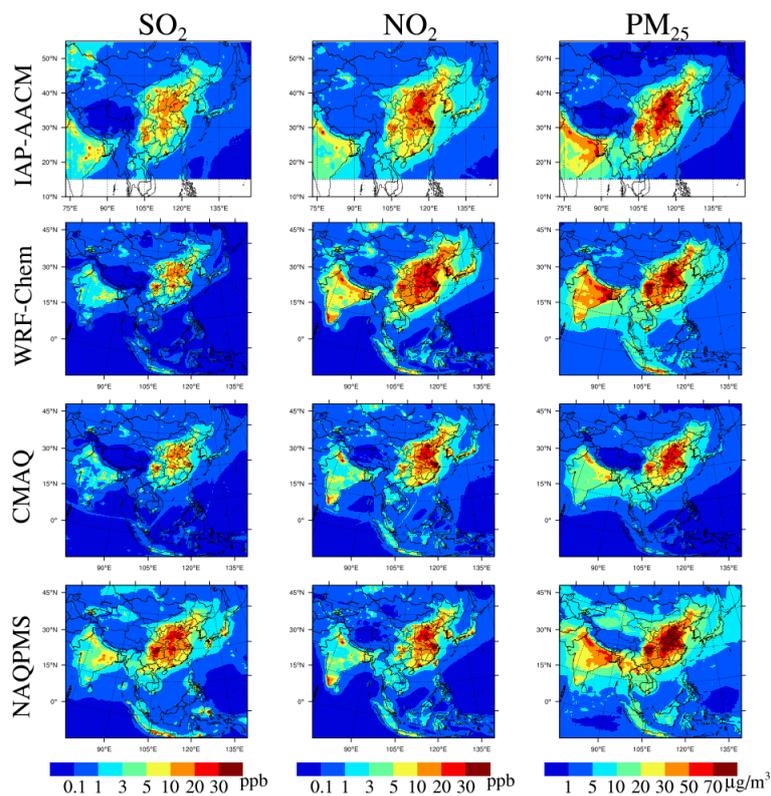


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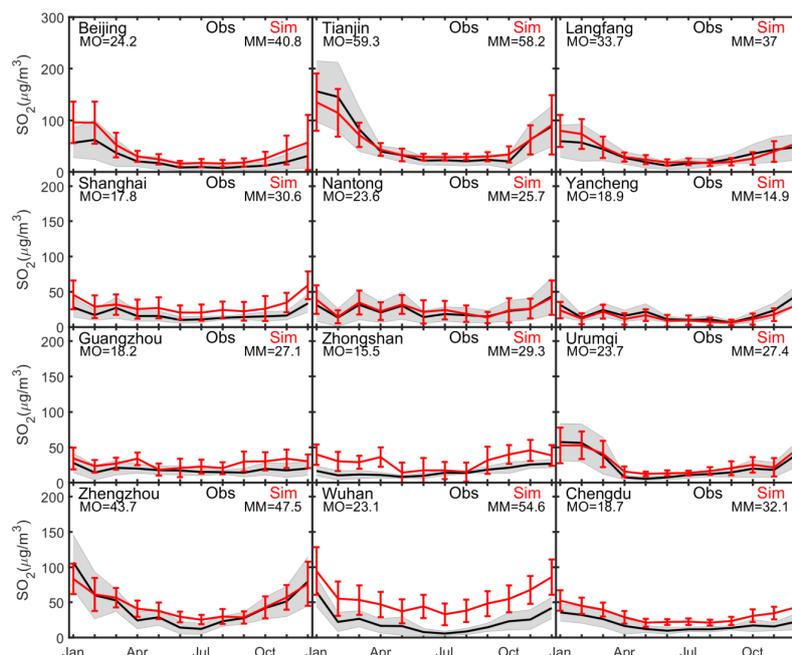
Fig. 9. Seasonal mean AOD from IAP-AACM and MODIS. Seasons are defined as December-January-February (DJF), March-April-May (MAM), June-July-August (JJA), and September-October-November (SON).



1010 Fig. 10. Surface annual mean concentration ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) of the nested domain. The circles represent sites observations. The top row is SO_2 and NO_2 , the bottom row is PM_{10} and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$.



1015 Fig. 11. Annual surface distributions from nested IAP-AACM compared with regional models from MICS-Asia. Each row from top to bottom represents IAP-AACM, WRF-Chem, CMAQ and NAQPMS respectively. The left column is SO_2 , the middle column is NO_2 and the right column is $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. The unit for gases is ppb and for particles is $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$.



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Fig. 12. Mean seasonal variation of SO_2 ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) over China. The black line and red line represent monthly mean concentration of city-averaged observation and simulation respectively. Gray shaded areas and red vertical bars show 1 standard deviation over the sites for observations and for model results, respectively. MO and MM stand for annual mean concentration of observation and simulation respectively.

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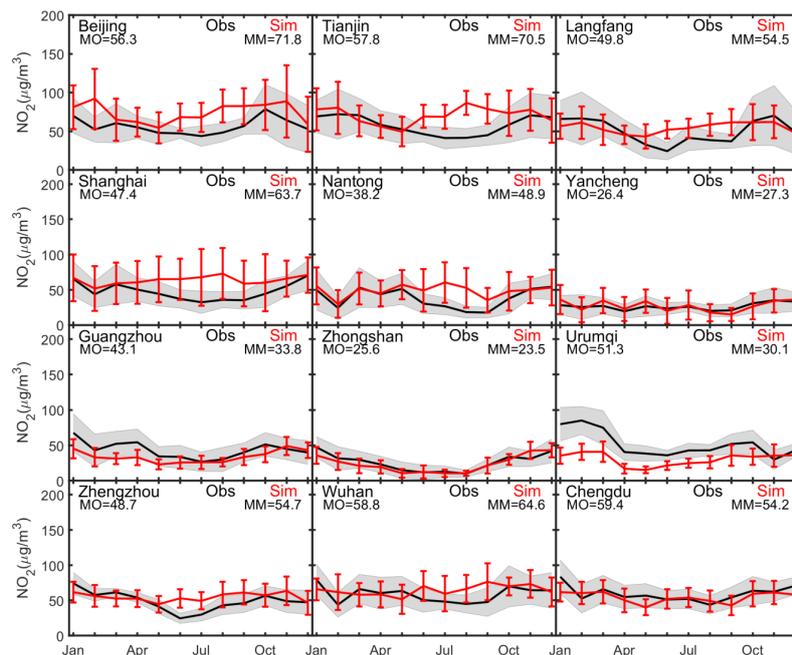


Fig. 13. The same as Fig. 12, except the pollutant is NO₂.

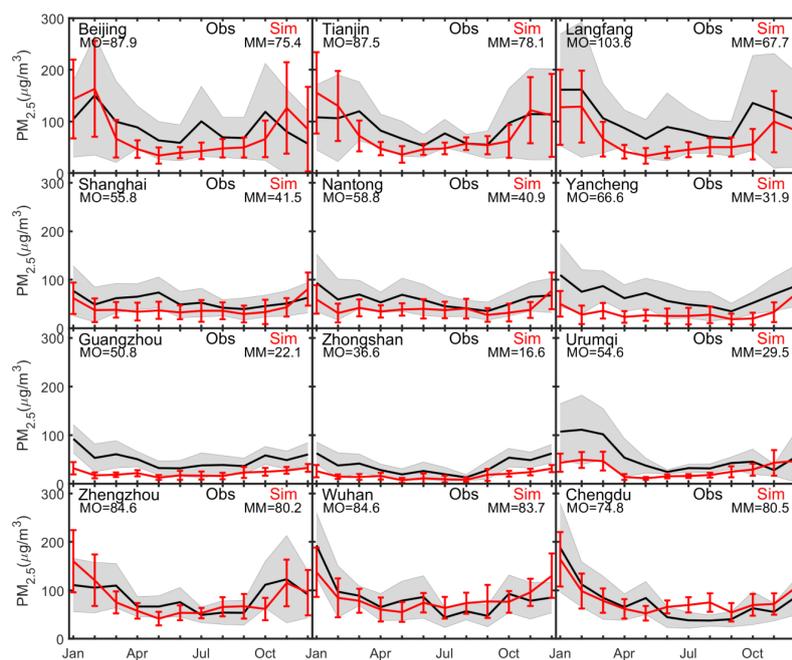
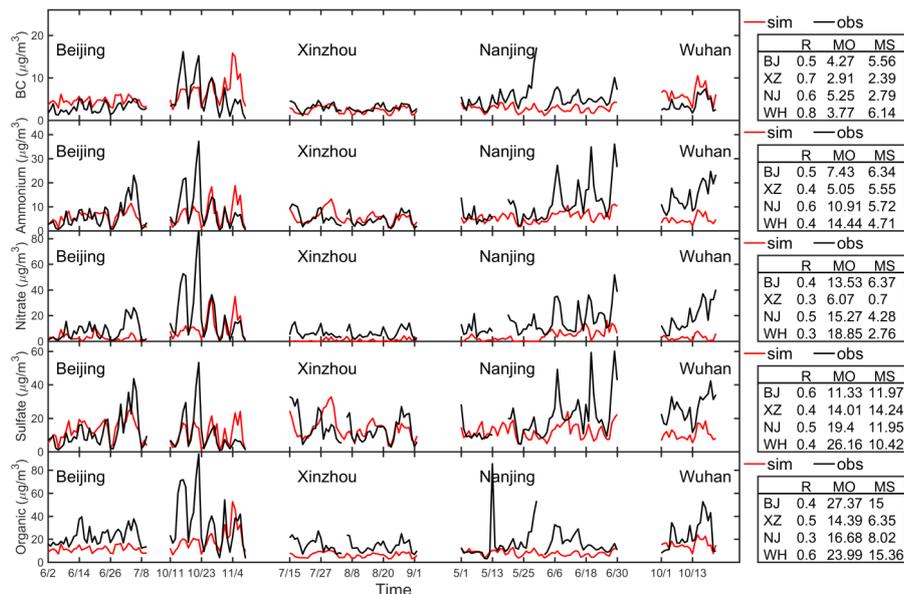


Fig. 14. The same as Fig. 12, except the pollutant is PM_{2.5}.



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Fig. 15. Daily variation of aerosol components ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) over China. The black line and red line represent daily mean concentration of city-averaged observation and simulation respectively. BJ, XZ, NJ and WH mean Beijing, Xinzhou, Nanjing and Wuhan respectively. R, MO and MS stand for correlation coefficient, mean concentration of observation and model respectively.

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Tables

Table 1. Emissions used in IAP-AACM

| Database | Abbreviation | Base year | Source type | Reference |
|---|--------------|------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| Hemispheric Transport of Air Pollution version2 | HTAP-v2 | 2010 | Anthropogenic | Janssens-maenhout et al., 2015 |
| Global Fire Emissions Database version4 | GFED-v4 | 2010 | Biomass burning | Randerson et al., 2015 |
| Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature–Monitoring Atmospheric Composition and Climate | MEGAN-MACC | 2010 | Biogenic | Sindelarova et al., 2014 |
| Regional Emission inventory in Asia | REAS | 2001 | Soil (NO _x) | Yan et al., 2005 |
| Precursors of Ozone and their Effects in the Troposphere | POET | 2000 | Ocean (VOCs) | Granier et al., 2005 |
| Global Emission Initiative | GEIA | Average of 1983 ~ 1990 | Lightning (NO _x) | Price et al., 1997 |

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Table 2. Summary of statistical of annual and seasonal meteorology in the nested domain compared with NCDC sites. Seasons are defined as spring (March–May), summer (June–August), fall (September–November), and winter (December–February).

| | Period | MO | MM | RMSE | R |
|-----------------|--------|------|------|------|------|
| T ₂ | 2014 | 17.6 | 17.5 | 1.8 | 0.98 |
| | Spring | 16.3 | 16.2 | 1.9 | 0.97 |
| | Summer | 24.3 | 24.0 | 2.0 | 0.93 |
| | Autumn | 17.2 | 17.0 | 1.7 | 0.97 |
| | Winter | 9.5 | 9.5 | 1.7 | 0.96 |
| W ₁₀ | 2014 | 3.1 | 2.5 | 1.5 | 0.53 |
| | Spring | 3.2 | 2.7 | 1.8 | 0.61 |
| | Summer | 2.9 | 2.1 | 1.9 | 0.48 |
| | Autumn | 3.0 | 2.3 | 1.7 | 0.53 |
| RH ₂ | Winter | 3.1 | 2.4 | 1.8 | 0.56 |
| | 2014 | 64.8 | 61.7 | 12.3 | 0.84 |
| | Spring | 58.5 | 56.2 | 12.6 | 0.86 |
| | Summer | 71.2 | 68.0 | 11.7 | 0.86 |
| | Autumn | 68.1 | 64.0 | 11.7 | 0.83 |
| | Winter | 61.4 | 58.6 | 13.2 | 0.76 |

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Table 3. Summary of the site observation datasets

| Dataset | Site number | Year | Observed species |
|---------|-------------|----------------------|---|
| WDCGG | 169 | Average of 2006~2015 | CO, O ₃ , SO ₂ , NO ₂ |
| EANET | 41 | 2014 | SO ₂ , NO ₂ , O ₃ , PM _{2.5} , sulfate, nitrate, ammonium |
| EMEP | 46 | 2014 | PM _{2.5} , BC, OC, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium |
| IMPROVE | 23 | 2014 | PM _{2.5} , BC, OC, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium |
| EPA | 93 | 2014 | SO ₂ , NO ₂ , PM _{2.5} |
| CAWNET | 13 | 2006 | BC, OC |
| CNEMC | 89 | 2014 | CO, O ₃ , SO ₂ , NO ₂ , PM ₁₀ , PM _{2.5} |
| Others | 4 | 2014 | BC, OM, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium |

Table 4. Global budgets for DMS, SO₂ and sulfate

| Species | | IAP-AACM | Other models ^a |
|-----------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------|
| DMS | Sources (Tg S yr ⁻¹) | 22.8 | |
| | Emission | 22.8 | 10.7~23.7 |
| | Sinks (Tg S yr ⁻¹) | 22.8 | |
| | Dry deposition | 0.0 | |
| | Oxidation | 22.8 | |
| | Burden (Tg S) | 0.19 ↑ ^b | 0.02~0.15 |
| | Lifetime (days) | 3 | 0.5~3.0 |
| SO ₂ | Sources (Tg S yr ⁻¹) | 77.1 | |
| | Emission | 54.3 ↓ ^b | 63.4~94.9 |
| | DMS oxidation | 22.8 | 10.0~25.6 |
| | Sinks (Tg S yr ⁻¹) | 77.1 | |
| | Dry deposition | 28.0 | 16.0~55.0 |
| | Wet deposition | 0.0 | 0~19.9 |
| | Gas-phase oxidation | 19.3 | 6.1~22.0 |
| | Aqueous-phase oxidation | 29.8 | 24.5~57.8 |
| Burden (Tg S) | 0.63 | 0.2~0.69 | |
| Lifetime (days) | 3.0 ↑ ^b | 0.6~2.6 | |
| Sulfate | Sources (Tg S yr ⁻¹) | 50.5 | |
| | Emission | 1.4 | 0~3.5 |
| | Gas-phase oxidation | 19.3 | 6.1~22.0 |
| | Aqueous-phase oxidation | 29.8 | 24.5~57.8 |
| | Sinks (Tg S yr ⁻¹) | 50.5 | |
| | Dry deposition | 2.9 | 0.8~18.0 |
| | Wet deposition | 47.6 | 34.7~61.1 |
| | Burden (Tg S) | 0.82 | 0.38~1.07 |
| Lifetime (days) | 5.9 | 3.0~7.9 | |



1050 ^a including Liu et al. (2005), Lee et al. (2015), and those listed in Liu et al. (2005), the range of sulfate is also refer to the GISS-TOMAS (Lee et al., 2010), ACCMIP (Lee et al., 2013) and the AeroCom (Textor et al., 2006) results.

^b outside the range of other models

Table 5. Global budgets for carbonaceous aerosol

| Species | IAP-AACM | Other models ^a |
|--------------------------------|----------|---------------------------|
| Sources (Tg yr ⁻¹) | 7.42 | |
| Emission | 7.42 | 7.4~19.0 |
| Sinks (Tg yr ⁻¹) | 7.42 | |
| BC | | |
| Dry deposition | 1.01 | 0.3~4.6 |
| Wet deposition | 6.41 | 3.8~13.7 |
| Burden (Tg) | 0.13 | 0.08~0.59 |
| Lifetime (days) | 6.4 | 3.3~9.4 |
| Sources (Tg yr ⁻¹) | 56.7 | 50~216 |
| Emission | 48.7 | 34~144 |
| Sinks (Tg yr ⁻¹) | | |
| OM ^b | | |
| Dry deposition | 6.79 | 2~36 |
| Wet deposition | 49.9 | 28~209 |
| Burden (Tg) | 1.16 | 0.7~3.8 |
| Lifetime (days) | 7.4 | 3.5~9.2 |

1055 ^a including Liu et al. (2005), Lee et al. (2010), Lee et al. (2013), Lee et al. (2015), Textor et al. (2006), and those listed in Liu et al. (2005).

^b the convert factor from OC to OM is 1.7 in IAP-AACM.

1060 Table 6. The NMB of annual average concentration in different regions. ASO₄, ANO₃ and ANH₄ represents sulfate, nitrate and ammonium, respectively.

| | CO | O ₃ | SO ₂ | NO ₂ | ASO ₄ | ANO ₃ | ANH ₄ | BC | OC | PM _{2.5} |
|------------|-------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|-------|-------|-------------------|
| Africa | -0.48 | -0.37 | | | | | | | | |
| Antarctica | -0.5 | -0.31 | | | | | | | | |
| ArcticO | -0.45 | | | | | | | | | |
| Asia | -0.28 | 0.86 | 0.25 | -0.59 | 0.36 | -0.61 | 0.85 | -0.4 | -0.67 | -0.36 |
| AtlanticO | -0.48 | 0.01 | | | | | | | | |
| Europe | -0.43 | 0.03 | 0.52 | -0.39 | 1.1 | 0.74 | 1.49 | -0.62 | -0.55 | -0.35 |
| IndianO | -0.54 | | | | | | | | | |
| NAmerica | -0.26 | -0.14 | 3.52 | -0.14 | 1.94 | 0.50 | -0.46 | 0.64 | -0.12 | 1.16 |
| Oceania | -0.34 | -0.03 | | | | | | | | |
| PacificO | -0.59 | 0.13 | | | | | | | | |
| SAmerica | -0.36 | 0.05 | | | | | | | | |



Table 7. Summary of statistics for global and nested domains. D1 and D2 represents results of domain 1 and domain 2, respectively.

| Species | City | R | | RMSE ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) | | MB ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) | | NMB | |
|-------------------|-----------|------|-------|-------------------------------|--------|-----------------------------|--------|-------|-------|
| | | D1 | D2 | D1 | D2 | D1 | D2 | D1 | D2 |
| PM _{2.5} | Beijing | 0.69 | 0.70 | 54.28 | 55.65 | -12.33 | -16.89 | -0.14 | -0.19 |
| | Tianjin | 0.67 | 0.72 | 46.63 | 46.51 | -11.00 | -13.27 | -0.13 | -0.15 |
| | Langfang | 0.72 | 0.79 | 66.02 | 65.22 | -28.58 | -38.34 | -0.28 | -0.37 |
| | Shanghai | 0.71 | 0.71 | 29.51 | 27.99 | -18.23 | -16.00 | -0.33 | -0.29 |
| | Nantong | 0.69 | 0.75 | 31.46 | 29.70 | -18.32 | -17.84 | -0.31 | -0.30 |
| | Yancheng | 0.74 | 0.80 | 45.52 | 43.30 | -35.60 | -33.99 | -0.53 | -0.51 |
| | Guangzhou | 0.43 | 0.63 | 38.75 | 36.91 | -29.91 | -29.39 | -0.59 | -0.58 |
| | Zhongshan | 0.51 | 0.76 | 26.16 | 26.77 | -16.08 | -20.38 | -0.44 | -0.56 |
| | Urumqi | 0.31 | 0.50 | 59.32 | 48.10 | -38.40 | -25.88 | -0.70 | -0.47 |
| | Zhengzhou | 0.59 | 0.63 | 41.98 | 43.05 | 0.70 | -7.30 | 0.01 | -0.09 |
| | Wuhan | 0.57 | 0.64 | 44.49 | 42.28 | -11.32 | -12.09 | -0.13 | -0.14 |
| Chengdu | 0.76 | 0.77 | 37.18 | 36.14 | 5.23 | -0.19 | 0.07 | 0.00 | |
| SO ₂ | Beijing | 0.87 | 0.89 | 26.99 | 25.00 | 21.32 | 16.58 | 0.88 | 0.68 |
| | Tianjin | 0.85 | 0.85 | 35.45 | 29.51 | -10.96 | -1.10 | -0.18 | -0.02 |
| | Langfang | 0.74 | 0.76 | 24.65 | 18.90 | 11.49 | 3.38 | 0.34 | 0.10 |
| | Shanghai | 0.50 | 0.75 | 38.48 | 18.10 | 30.43 | 12.76 | 1.71 | 0.72 |
| | Nantong | 0.69 | 0.78 | 13.55 | 12.08 | -0.23 | 2.17 | -0.01 | 0.09 |
| | Yancheng | 0.78 | 0.83 | 9.75 | 8.79 | -4.29 | -4.02 | -0.23 | -0.21 |
| | Guangzhou | 0.26 | 0.40 | 10.42 | 14.96 | -0.96 | 8.86 | -0.05 | 0.49 |
| | Zhongshan | 0.59 | 0.33 | 7.33 | 21.65 | 1.65 | 13.74 | 0.11 | 0.88 |
| | Urumqi | 0.63 | 0.60 | 23.04 | 20.01 | -11.88 | 3.68 | -0.50 | 0.16 |
| | Zhengzhou | 0.79 | 0.82 | 24.51 | 20.06 | 12.34 | 3.84 | 0.28 | 0.09 |
| | Wuhan | 0.70 | 0.48 | 18.72 | 40.28 | 12.03 | 31.47 | 0.52 | 1.36 |
| Chengdu | 0.52 | 0.60 | 48.52 | 17.61 | 44.44 | 13.33 | 2.37 | 0.71 | |
| NO ₂ | Beijing | 0.48 | 0.68 | 26.00 | 26.82 | 11.98 | 15.68 | 0.21 | 0.28 |
| | Tianjin | 0.41 | 0.51 | 26.24 | 27.39 | 9.88 | 13.02 | 0.17 | 0.23 |
| | Langfang | 0.39 | 0.53 | 33.84 | 23.83 | 19.60 | 4.91 | 0.39 | 0.10 |
| | Shanghai | 0.57 | 0.56 | 29.28 | 32.17 | 8.79 | 16.79 | 0.19 | 0.35 |
| | Nantong | 0.60 | 0.59 | 21.86 | 24.11 | 3.63 | 10.69 | 0.10 | 0.28 |
| | Yancheng | 0.44 | 0.49 | 18.33 | 16.53 | -1.55 | 1.78 | -0.06 | 0.07 |
| | Guangzhou | 0.40 | 0.51 | 28.34 | 20.28 | -20.41 | -9.19 | -0.47 | -0.21 |
| | Zhongshan | 0.63 | 0.70 | 13.47 | 12.51 | -3.01 | -2.06 | -0.12 | -0.08 |
| | Urumqi | 0.24 | 0.41 | 41.73 | 30.31 | -35.18 | -21.39 | -0.69 | -0.42 |
| | Zhengzhou | 0.32 | 0.44 | 23.68 | 18.75 | 13.65 | 5.97 | 0.28 | 0.12 |
| | Wuhan | 0.25 | 0.22 | 25.36 | 28.39 | 5.77 | 6.16 | 0.10 | 0.10 |
| Chengdu | 0.31 | 0.43 | 27.26 | 20.77 | -18.88 | -5.84 | -0.32 | -0.10 | |