

# Evaluation and uncertainty investigation of the NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub> modeling over China under the framework of MICS-Asia III

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**Abstract.** Despite the significant progress in improving the chemical transport models (CTMs), applications of these modeling endeavours are still subject to the large and complex model uncertainty. Model Inter-Comparison Study for Asia III (MICS-Asia III) has provided the opportunity to assess the capability and uncertainty of current CTMs in East Asia applications. In this study, we have evaluated the multi-model simulations of nitrogen dioxide (NO<sub>2</sub>), carbon monoxide (CO) and ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) over China under the framework of MICS-Asia III. Thirteen modeling results, provided by several independent groups from different countries/regions, were used in this study. Most of these models used some modeling domain with a horizontal resolution of 45km, and were driven by common emission inventories and meteorological inputs. New observations over North

China Plain (NCP) and Pearl River Delta (PRD) regions were also available in MICS-Asia III, allowing the model evaluations over highly industrialized regions. The evaluation results show that most models well captured the monthly and spatial patterns of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the NCP region though NO<sub>2</sub> levels were slightly underestimated. Relatively poor performance in NO<sub>2</sub> simulations was found in the PRD region with larger root mean square error and lower spatial correlation coefficients, which may be related to the coarse resolution or inappropriate spatial allocations of the emission inventories in the PRD region. All models significantly underpredicted CO concentrations in both the NCP and PRD regions, with annual mean concentrations 65.4% and 61.4% underestimated by the ensemble mean. Such large underestimations suggest that CO emissions might be underestimated in current emission inventory. In contrast to the good skills in simulating the monthly variations of NO<sub>2</sub> and CO concentrations, all models failed to reproduce the observed monthly variations of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the NCP region. Most models mismatched the observed peak in July and showed negative correlation coefficients with observations, which may be closely related to the uncertainty in the monthly variations of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions and the NH<sub>3</sub> gas-aerosol partitioning. Finally, model inter-comparisons have been conducted to quantify the impacts of model uncertainty on the simulations of these gases which are shown increase with the reactivity of species. Models contained more uncertainty in the NH<sub>3</sub> simulations. This suggests that for some highly active and/or short-lived primary pollutants, like NH<sub>3</sub>, model uncertainty can also take a great part in the forecast uncertainty besides the emission uncertainty. Based on these results, some recommendations are made for future studies.

## 1 Introduction

As the rapid growth in East Asia's economy with surging energy consumption and emissions, air pollution has become an increasingly important scientific topic and political concern in East Asia due to its significant environmental and health effects (Anenberg et al., 2010; Lelieveld et al., 2015). Chemical transport models (CTMs), serving as a critical tool in both the scientific research and policy makings, have been applied into various air quality issues, such as air quality prediction, long-range transport of atmospheric pollutants, development of emission control strategies and understanding of observed chemical phenomena (e.g. Cheng et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017a; Lu et al., 2017; Ma et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019). Nevertheless, air quality modeling remains a challenge due to the multi-scale and non-linear nature of the complex atmospheric processes (Carmichael et al., 2008). It still suffers from large uncertainties related to the missing or poorly parameterized physical and chemical processes, inaccurate and/or incomplete emission inventories as well as the poorly represented initial and boundary conditions (Carmichael et al., 2008; Dabberdt and Miller, 2000; Fine et al., 2003; Gao et al., 1996; Mallet and Sportisse, 2006). Understanding such uncertainties and their impacts on the air quality modeling is of great importance in assessing the robustness of models for their applications in scientific research and operational use.

There are specific techniques to assess these uncertainties. Monte Carlo simulations, based on different values of model parameters or input fields sampled from a predefined probability density function (PDF), can provide an approximation to the PDF of possible model output and serves as an excellent characterization of the uncertainties in simulations (Hanna et al.,

2001). However, this method is more suited to deal with the uncertainty related to the continuous variables, such as input data or parameters in parameterization. The ensemble method, based on a set of different models, is an alternative approach to accounting for the range of uncertainties (Galmarini et al., 2004; Mallet and Sportisse, 2006). For example, the Air Quality Model Evaluation International Initiative (AQMEII) has been implemented in Europe and North America to investigate the model uncertainties of their regional-scale model predictions (Rao et al., 2011). To assess the model performances and uncertainties in East Asia applications, the Model Inter-Comparison Study for Asia (MICS-Asia) has been initiated in year 1998. The first Phase of MICS-Asia (MICS-Asia I) was carried out during period 1998–2002, mainly focusing on the long-range transport and depositions of sulfur in Asia (Carmichael et al., 2002). In 2003, the second phase (MICS-Asia II) was initiated and took more species related to the regional health and ecosystem protection into account, including nitrogen compounds, O<sub>3</sub> and aerosols. Launched in 2010, MICS-Asia III has greatly expanded its study scope by covering three individual and interrelated topics: (1) evaluate strength and weaknesses of current multi-scale air quality models and provide techniques to reduce uncertainty in Asia; (2) develop a reliable anthropogenic emission inventories in Asia and understanding uncertainty of bottom-up emission inventories in Asia; (3) provide multi-model estimates of radiative forcing and sensitivity analysis of short-lived climate pollutants.

This study addresses one component of topic 1, focusing on the three gas pollutants of NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub>. Compared with MICS-Asia II, more modeling results (fourteen different models with thirteen regional models and one global model) were brought together within the topic 1 of MICS-Asia III, run by independent modeling groups from China, Japan, Korea, United States of America and other countries/regions. The different models contain differences in their numerical approximations (time step, chemical solver, etc.) and parameterizations, which represent a sampling of uncertainties residing in the air quality modeling. However, it would be difficult to interpret the results from inter-comparison studies when the models were driven by different meteorological fields and emission inventories. Thus, in MICS-Asia III the models were constrained to be operated under the same conditions by using the common emission inventories, meteorological fields, modeling domain and horizontal resolutions. The simulations were also extended from the four months in MICS-Asia II to one-full year of 2010.

NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub> are three important primary gas pollutants that has wide impacts on the atmospheric chemistry. As a major precursor of O<sub>3</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub> plays an important role in the tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> chemistry, and also contributes to the rainwater acidification and the formation of secondary aerosols (Dentener and Crutzen, 1993; Evans and Jacob, 2005). CO is a colorless and toxic gas ubiquitous throughout the atmosphere which is of interest as an indirect greenhouse gas (Gillenwater, 2008) and a precursor for tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> (Steinfeld, 1998). Being the major sink of OH, CO also controls the atmosphere's oxidizing capacity (Levy, 1971; Novelli et al., 1998). As the only primary alkaline gas in the atmosphere, NH<sub>3</sub> is closely associated with the acidity of precipitations for one thing, for another it can react with sulfuric acid and nitric acid forming ammonium sulfate and ammonium nitrate which account for a large proportion of fine particulate matter (Sun et al., 2012; Sun et al., 2013). Assessing their model performances is thus important to help us better understand their environmental consequences and also help explain the model performances for their related secondary air pollutants, such as O<sub>3</sub> and fine particulate matter.

106 In previous phase of MICS-Asia, no specific evaluation and inter-comparison work has been conducted for these gases,  
107 especially for CO and NH<sub>3</sub>. In MICS-Asia II, model performance of NO<sub>2</sub> was evaluated as a relevant species to O<sub>3</sub> (Han et al.,  
108 2008b), however such evaluations were limited to the observation sites from EANET (Acid Deposition Monitoring Network  
109 in East Asia). Model evaluations and inter-comparisons in industrialized regions of China has not been performed due to the  
110 limited number of monitoring sites in China from EANET, which hindered our understanding of the model performance in  
111 industrialized regions. More densely observations over highly industrialized regions of China, namely the North China (NCP)  
112 Plain and Pearl River Delta (PRD) regions, were first included in MICS-Asia III, allowing the model evaluations over highly  
113 industrialized regions. Meanwhile, the emission inventories of these three gases still subject to the large uncertainties  
114 (Kurokawa et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017b), which is a major source of uncertainties in air quality modeling and forecast.  
115 Evaluating these gases' emission inventories from a model perspective is also a useful way to identify the uncertainties in  
116 emission inventories (Han et al., 2008a; Noije et al., 2006; Pinder et al., 2006; Stein et al., 2014; Uno et al., 2007).

117 In all, this paper is aimed at evaluating the NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub> simulations using the multi-model data from MICS-Asia  
118 III, three questions are trying to be addressed: (1) what is the performance of current CTMs in simulating the NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and  
119 NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations over highly industrialized regions of China, (2) what are the potential factors responsible for the model  
120 deviations from observations and differences among models, and (3) how large are the impacts of model uncertainties on the  
121 simulations of these gases.

## 122 **2 Inter-comparison frameworks**

### 123 **2.1 Description on the participating models and input datasets**

124 Six different chemical transport models have participated in MICS-Asia III with their major configurations summarized  
125 in Table 1. These models included NAQPMS (Wang et al., 2001), three versions of CMAQ (Byun and Schere, 2006), WRF-  
126 Chem (Grell et al., 2005), NU-WRF (Peters-Lidard et al., 2015), NHM-Chem (Kajino et al., 2012) and GEOS-Chem  
127 (<http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos/>). All models employed a same modeling domain (Fig. 1) with a horizontal resolution of  
128 45km except M13 (0.5° of latitude×0.667° of longitude) and M14 (64km×64km). Detailed information on each component of  
129 these CTMs can be obtained from the companion paper Chen et al., 2019 and Tan et al., 2019.

130 Standard model input datasets of raw meteorological fields, emission inventory and boundary conditions were provided  
131 by MICS-Asia III for all participants. Raw meteorological fields were generated from a whole year simulations of 2010 using  
132 Weather Research and Forecasting Model (WRF) version 3.4.1 (Skamarock, 2008) with horizontal resolution of 45km and  
133 vertically 40 layers from surface to the model top (10hPa). Initial and lateral boundary conditions for meteorological simulation  
134 were generated every six hours by using the 1°×1° NCEP FNL (Final) Operational Global Analysis data (ds083.2). Real-time,  
135 global, sea surface temperature (RTG\_SST\_HR) analysis were used to generate and update lower boundary conditions for sea  
136 areas. Four-dimensional data assimilation nudging (Gridded FDDA & SFDDA) was performed during the simulation to  
137 increase the accuracy of WRF after the objective analysis with NCEP FNL (Final) Operational Global Analysis data (ds083.2),

138 NCEP ADP Global Surface Observation Weather Data (ds461.0) and NCEP ADP Global Upper Air and Surface Weather Data  
139 (ds337.0). Detailed configurations of the standard meteorological model are available in supplementary Table S1. The  
140 simulated wind speed, relative humidity and air temperature were evaluated against the observations over the NCP and PRD  
141 regions with detailed results shown in supplementary Sect. S1. In general, the standard meteorological simulations well  
142 captured the main features of meteorological conditions in the NCP and PRD regions with high correlation coefficient, small  
143 biases and low errors for all meteorological parameters (supplementary Fig.S1-S3 and Table S2).

144 Standard emission inventories provided by the MICS-Asia III were used by all participants. The anthropogenic emissions  
145 were provided by a newly developed anthropogenic emission inventory for Asia (MIX) which integrated five national or  
146 regional inventories, including Regional Emission inventory in Asia (REAS) inventory for Asia developed at the Japan  
147 National Institute for Environment Studies, the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China (MEIC) developed at Tsinghua  
148 University, the high-resolution ammonia emission inventory in China developed at Peking University, the Indian emission  
149 inventory developed at Argonne National Laboratory in the United States, and the Clean Air Policy Support System (CAPSS)  
150 Korean emission inventory developed at Konkuk University (Li et al., 2017b). Hourly biogenic emissions for the entire year  
151 of 2010 in MICS-Asia III were provided by the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature version 2.04 (Guenther  
152 et al., 2006). The Global Fire Emissions Database 3 (Randerson et al., 2013) was used for biomass burning emissions. Volcanic  
153 SO<sub>2</sub> emissions were provided by the Asia Center for Air Pollution Research (ACAP) with a daily temporal resolution. Air and  
154 ship emissions with an annual resolution were provided by the HTAPv2 emission inventory for 2010 (Janssens-Maenhout et  
155 al., 2015). NMVOC emissions were spectated into the model-ready inputs for three chemical mechanisms: CBMZ, CB05 and  
156 SAPRC-99 and the weekly and diurnal profiles for emissions were also provided.

157 MICS-Asia III has provided two sets of top and lateral boundary conditions for year 2010, which were derived from the  
158 3-hourly global CTM outputs of CHASER (Sudo et al., 2002a; Sudo et al., 2002b) and GEOS-Chem  
159 (<http://acmg.seas.harvard.edu/geos/>), run by Nagoya University (Japan) and the University of Tennessee (USA) respectively.  
160 GEOS-Chem was run with 2.5°×2° resolution and 47 vertical layers while CHASER model was run with 2.8°×2.8° and 32  
161 vertical layers.

162 All participants were required to use the standard model input data to drive their model run so that impacts of model input  
163 data on simulations could be minimized. However, models are quite different from each other, and it is difficult to keep all the  
164 inputs the same. The majority of models have applied the standard meteorology fields, while the GEOS-Chem and RAMS-  
165 CMAQ utilized their own meteorology models. The GEOS-Chem was driven by the GEOS-5 assimilated meteorological fields  
166 from the Goddard Earth Observing System of the NASA Global Modeling Assimilation Office, and the RAMS-CMAQ was  
167 driven by meteorological fields provided by Regional Atmospheric Modeling System (RAMS) (Pielke et al., 1992). WRF-  
168 Chem utilized the same meteorology model (WRF) as the standard meteorological simulation, but two of them considered the  
169 two-way coupling effects of pollutants and meteorological fields. The meteorological configurations of these WRF-Chem  
170 models were compared to the configurations of the standard meteorological model (supplementary table S1), which shows  
171 slight differences from the standard meteorological model. The CTM part of NHM-Chem is coupled with the JMA's non-

172 hydrostatic meteorological model (NHM) (Saito et al., 2006), but an interface to convert a meteorological model output of  
173 WRF to a CTM input was implemented (Kajino et al., 2018). Thus, the standard meteorology field was used in the NHM-  
174 Chem simulation, too.

## 175 **2.2 Data and statistical methods**

176 All modeling groups have performed a base year simulations of 2010 and were required to submit their modeling results  
177 according to the data protocol designed in MICS-Asia III. Gridded monthly concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>, CO, NH<sub>3</sub> and ammonium  
178 (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) in the surface layer were used in this study. Note that modeling results from M3 and NH<sub>3</sub> simulations from M8 were  
179 excluded due to their incredible results, thus only thirteen modeling results were used in this study.

180 Hourly observed concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub> and CO were collected over the NCP (19 stations) and PRD (13 stations) regions,  
181 obtained from the air quality network over North China (Tang et al., 2012) and the Pearl River Delta regional air quality  
182 monitoring network (PRD RAQMN), respectively. The air quality monitoring network over North China was set up by the  
183 Chinese Ecosystem Research Network (CERN), the Institute of Atmospheric Physics (IAP) and the Chinese Academy of  
184 Sciences (CAS) since 2009 within an area of 500×500 km<sup>2</sup> in northern China. All monitoring stations were selected and set  
185 up according to the US EPA method designations (Ji et al., 2012). The PRD RAQMN network was jointly established by the  
186 government of the Guangdong Province and the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, consisting of 16 automatic air  
187 quality monitoring stations across the PRD region (Zhong et al., 2013). Thirteen of these stations are operated by the  
188 Environmental Monitoring Centers in the Guangdong Province which were used in this study, while the other three are located  
189 in Hong Kong (not included in this study) and are managed by the Hong Kong Environmental Protection Department. Monthly  
190 averaged observations were calculated for the comparisons with the simulated monthly surface NO<sub>2</sub> and CO concentrations. It  
191 should be noted that these networks measured the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations using a thermal conversion method, which would  
192 overestimate the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations due to the positive interference of other oxidized nitrogen compounds (Xu et al., 2013).

193 NH<sub>3</sub> observations for long-term period are indeed challenging and limited due to its strong spatial and temporal variability,  
194 quick conversion from one phase to another and also its stickiness to the observational instruments (von Bobritzki et al., 2010).  
195 Measurements of surface NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in year 2010 were not available in this study, however, one-year surface  
196 measurement of monthly NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations over China from September of 2015 to August of 2016 were used as a reference  
197 dataset in this study, which were obtained from the Ammonia Monitoring Network in China (AMoN-China) (Pan et al., 2018)  
198 The AMoN-China was established based on the CERN and the Regional Atmospheric Deposition Observation Network in  
199 North China Plain (Pan et al., 2012), which consists of 53 sites over the whole China and measured the monthly ambient NH<sub>3</sub>  
200 concentrations using the passive diffusive technique. Eleven stations located in the NCP region were used in this study.  
201 Distributions of the observation sites of NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub> over the NCP and PRD regions as well as their total emissions in  
202 year 2010 provided by MICS-Asia III are shown in Fig. 1. Besides the surface observations, the satellite retrievals of NH<sub>3</sub> total  
203 columns from IASI (Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer) were also used in this study to quantitatively evaluate the  
204 modeled monthly variations of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations. The ANNI-NH3-v2.1R-I retrieval product (Van Damme et al., 2017; Van

205 Damme et al., 2018) was used in this study which is the reanalysis version of NH<sub>3</sub> retrievals from IASI instruments and  
206 provides the daily morning (~9:30 am local time) NH<sub>3</sub> total columns from year 2008 to 2016. More detailed information and  
207 the process of satellite data are available in supplementary sect. S2.

208 Mean bias error (MBE), normalized mean bias (NMB), root mean square error (RMSE) and correlation coefficient (R)  
209 were calculated for the assessment of model performances. Standard deviation of the ensemble models was used to measure  
210 the ensemble spread and the impacts of model uncertainty. Coefficient of variation (hereinafter, CV), defined as the standard  
211 deviation divided by the average with larger value denoting lower consistency among models, was also used to measure the  
212 impacts of model uncertainty in a relative sense. However, by this definition, there is a tendency that lower concentrations are  
213 more likely associated with higher value of CV, thus we did not calculate the values of CV over model grids whose simulated  
214 concentrations were lower than 0.1 ppbv for NO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub>, and 0.1 ppmv for CO, respectively. March–May, Jun–August,  
215 September–November and December–February were used to define the four seasons that are spring, summer, autumn and  
216 winter, respectively.

## 217 **3 Results**

### 218 **3.1 Evaluating the ensemble models with observations**

219 To facilitate comparisons, the modeling results were interpolated to the observation sites by taking the values from the  
220 grid cell where the monitoring stations located. Model evaluation metrics defined in Sect. 2.2 were then calculated to evaluate  
221 the modeling results against the observations.

#### 222 **3.1.1 NO<sub>2</sub>**

223 Figure 2 displays the comparisons between the observed and simulated annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over the NCP  
224 (2a) and PRD(2b) regions with calculated model evaluation metrics summarized in Table 2. M13 is not included in the  
225 evaluation of NO<sub>2</sub> since it did not submitted the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. In general, the majority of models underpredicted NO<sub>2</sub>  
226 levels in both the NCP and PRD regions. Calculated MBE (NMB) ranges from -6.54 ppbv (-28.4%) to -2.45 (-10.6%) ppbv  
227 over the NCP region and from -9.84 ppbv (-44.0%) to -1.84 ppbv (-8.2%) over the PRD regions among these negatively-biased  
228 models. These underpredicted NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations are consistent with the overpredicted O<sub>3</sub> concentrations by these models  
229 found in the companion paper by Li et al., 2019. O<sub>3</sub> productions can either increase with NO<sub>x</sub> under NO<sub>x</sub> limited conditions or  
230 decrease under the NO<sub>x</sub> saturated (also called volatile organic compounds (VOCs) limited) conditions (Sillman, 1999). Both  
231 the NCP and PRD regions are industrialized regions in China with high NO<sub>x</sub> emissions (Fig. 1). Observations also showed that  
232 the NCP and PRD regions are falling into or changing into the NO<sub>x</sub> saturated regimes (Shao et al., 2009; Jin and Holloway,  
233 2015). Therefore, the underestimated NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations may contribute to the overpredicted O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in these two  
234 regions. More details about the O<sub>3</sub> predictions can be found in the companion paper by Li et al., 2019. In addition, as we  
235 mentioned in Sect.2.2, the negative biases in the simulated NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations can be also partly attributed to the positive

236 biases in the NO<sub>2</sub> observations. M5, M8, M9 and M11 in the NCP region and M5, M8 and M11 in the PRD region were  
237 exceptions that overpredicted NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. M11 showed good performances in predicting NO<sub>2</sub> levels in the NCP region  
238 with smallest RMSE, while M9 significantly overestimated NO<sub>2</sub> with largest MBE and RMSE values. NO<sub>2</sub> predictions by M8  
239 were close to the observations over the PRD region with smallest RMSE value. Meanwhile, we also found that models  
240 exhibited better NO<sub>2</sub> modeling skills in the NCP region than that in the PRD region with smaller bias and RMSE values.

241 According to the spatial correlation coefficients (Table 2), all models well reproduced the main features of the spatial  
242 variability of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the NCP region with correlation coefficients ranging from 0.57 to 0.70. However, models  
243 failed in capturing the spatial variability of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the PRD region with correlation coefficients only ranged  
244 from 0.00 to 0.38. Such low correlation might be attributed to the coarser model resolution (45km) that some local impacts on  
245 the NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations might not be well resolved in the model, and/or related to the uncertainties in emission inventories  
246 which were not well resolved in the PRD region. To investigate it, we have conducted an additional one-year simulation with  
247 finer horizontal resolutions (15km and 5km, supplementary Fig.S4) in the PRD region using the NAQPMS model. Detailed  
248 experimental settings are presented in supplementary Sect.S3. The experiment results indicate that when using the same  
249 emission inventory as the coarse-resolution simulation, the high-resolution simulation still show poor model performances in  
250 capturing the spatial variability of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the PRD region, with calculated correlation coefficient only of 0.03  
251 and 0.02 for 15km and 5km resolutions, respectively ( supplementary Sect. S3, Fig. S5-6 and Table S3). Thus, the poor model  
252 performance in the PRD region could be more related to the coarse resolution and/or inappropriate spatial allocation of the  
253 emission inventories. These results also suggested that only increasing the resolutions of model may not help improve the  
254 model performance.

255 Figure 3 presents the monthly timeseries of the observed and simulated regional mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations over the NCP  
256 (3a) and PRD (3b) regions from January to December in 2010. The models well captured the monthly variations of NO<sub>2</sub>  
257 concentrations both in the NCP and PRD regions. According to Table 2, the correlation coefficient ranges from 0.28 to 0.96  
258 in the NCP region and from 0.52 to 0.95 in the PRD region. M8 showed the largest overestimation among all models in summer  
259 that MBE (NMB) can reach 12.1 ppbv (75.8%) in the NCP region, which may help explain the low correlation of this model.  
260 M9 exhibited a significant overestimation in winter in the NCP region with MBE (NMB) up to 22.0 ppbv (79.3%) while much  
261 less overestimation or even underestimation (summer) in other seasons. This discrepancy may be explained by that M9 was  
262 an online coupled model which considers two-way coupling effects between the meteorology and chemistry. During the period  
263 with heavy haze, the radiation can be largely reduced by aerosol dimming effects, leading to weakened photochemistry,  
264 lowered boundary layer height and thus the increase of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. Severe haze was reported to occur in North China  
265 in January 2010, with maximum hourly PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration even reached as high as ~500 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in urban Beijing (Gao et al.,  
266 2018). Such high aerosol loadings in atmosphere could trigger interactions between chemistry and meteorology. Interestingly,  
267 M9 did not overestimate NO<sub>2</sub> during winter in the PRD region. This might be related to the lower aerosol concentrations and  
268 weaker chemistry-and-meteorology coupling effects in the PRD region.



### 269 3.1.2 CO

270 Similar analyses were performed for modeling results of CO. All models significantly underestimated the annual mean  
271 CO concentrations both in the NCP and PRD regions (Figs. 2c-d and Table 2). Calculated MBE (NMB) ranges from -1.69  
272 ppmv (-76.2%) to -1.16 ppmv (-52.0%) in the NCP region and from -0.67 ppmv (-69.6%) to -0.50 ppmv (-52.3%) in the PRD  
273 region (Table 2). Such large negative biases in all models were not likely to be explained by the model uncertainties, suggesting  
274 the negative biases in the CO emissions over China. This is consistent with the inversion results of Tang et al., 2013 which  
275 indicates a significant underestimation of CO emissions over the Beijing and surrounding areas in the summer of 2010. Over  
276 the latest decades, global models also reported CO underestimations in north hemisphere (Naik et al., 2013; Stein et al., 2014)  
277 and a number of global model inversion studies have been conducted to derive the optimized CO emissions. Most of these  
278 studies have reported a significant underestimation of CO emissions in their *a priori* estimates (Bergamaschi et al.,  
279 2000; Miyazaki et al., 2012; Petron et al., 2002; Petron et al., 2004). Our findings agree with these studies and indicate that more  
280 accurate CO emissions are needed in future studies. Model performances in simulating spatial variability of CO concentrations  
281 were still poor in the PRD region according to Table 2 with most models showing negative correlation coefficients.

282 Timeseries of the observed and simulated regional mean CO concentrations in the NCP and PRD regions are presented  
283 in Fig. 3c-d. It shows that the models well reproduced the monthly variations of CO concentrations in both the NCP and PRD  
284 regions with high temporal correlation coefficient except M5 (Table 2). All models, however, underestimated CO  
285 concentrations throughout the year and showed largest underestimations in winter with MBE (NMB) by ensemble mean up to  
286 -2.1 ppmv (-64.9%) in the NCP region and -0.75 ppmv (-60.6%) in the PRD region.

### 287 3.1.3 NH<sub>3</sub>

288 Figure 2e shows the comparisons of the observed and simulated annual mean NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the NCP region.  
289 Since we used the NH<sub>3</sub> observations from September 2015 to August 2016, negative biases are expected according to the  
290 increasing trend of atmospheric ammonia during period 2003–2016 detected by recently retrievals from the Atmospheric  
291 Infrared Sounder (AIRS) aboard NASA's Aqua satellite (Warner et al., 2016; Warner et al., 2017). Due to the interannual  
292 uncertainty, we mainly focused on the disparities among different models rather than the deviation from observations.

293 Large differences can be seen in simulated NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations from different models. M14 simulated very low  
294 concentrations and exhibited the largest negative biases with MBE (NMB) of -12.2 ppbv (-66.3%), which may be related to  
295 the higher conversion rate of NH<sub>3</sub> to NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> in M14 (discussed in later part of this section). On the contrary, M9 provided much  
296 higher NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations than other models with MBE (NMB) up to 21.8 ppbv (118.7%). For the CMAQ models, M1 and  
297 M2 exhibited higher NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations and larger spatial variability compared to other CMAQ models. Such discrepancy  
298 may be explained by that M1 and M2 are two model runs using CMAQ v5.0.2. The bi-directional exchange of NH<sub>3</sub> has been  
299 integrated into CMAQ from version 5.0. This module can simulate the emitted and deposited processes of NH<sub>3</sub> between

300 atmosphere and the surfaces, allowing the additional  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions to the atmosphere (US EPA Office of Research and  
301 Development).

302 As can be seen in Table 2, the observed spatial variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  over the NCP region can be well reproduced by all  
303 models ( $R = 0.57\text{--}0.71$ ), indicating that the spatial variations of current  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions over the NCP region are well represented  
304 in emission inventories. However, all models failed to capture the observed monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations with  
305 most models mismatching the observed  $\text{NH}_3$  peak (July) and showing negative correlation coefficients. M10 and M13 are  
306 exceptions showing good temporal correlations of 0.64 and 0.65, respectively (Fig. 3e and Table 2). This is quite different  
307 from the model behavior in simulating the monthly variations of  $\text{NO}_2$  and CO concentrations. As seen in Fig. 3e, the  
308 observation showed the peak concentrations of  $\text{NH}_3$  in summer months and lower concentrations in autumn and winter, which  
309 is consistent with the previous  $\text{NH}_3$  observations in the NCP region (Shen et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2016; Meng et al., 2011).  
310 Newly derived satellite-measured  $\text{NH}_3$  at 918 hPa averaged between September 2002 and August 2015 also demonstrated  
311 higher concentrations in spring and summer and lower concentrations in autumn and winter (Warner et al., 2016). However,  
312 all models predicted a peak concentration in November except M10 in August in and M13 in June. We also used the satellite  
313 retrievals of  $\text{NH}_3$  total columns from IASI to further evaluate the modeled monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations, since  
314 evaluating the model results using observations from different years may be inappropriate due to the emission change of  $\text{NH}_3$ .  
315 Comparisons of the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  observations from AMoN-China and  $\text{NH}_3$  total columns from IASI (supplementary Fig.S7)  
316 suggest that the IASI measurement can well represent the monthly variations of surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations, which can be  
317 used to qualitatively evaluate the modeled monthly variations of surface  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations. The monthly time series of the  
318 regional mean  $\text{NH}_3$  total columns over the NCP region from January, 2008 to December, 2016 are shown in supplementary  
319 Fig. S8, which shows similar monthly variations to the surface  $\text{NH}_3$  observations with highest value in July and confirms the  
320 poor model performances in reproducing the monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations. The IASI measurement also indicates  
321 that the interannual variability of monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations over the NCP region was small from year 2008 to  
322 2016, which suggest that using observations from different years could still provide valuable clues for verifying the modeled  
323 monthly variations.

324 The simulated monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations were closely related to the monthly variations of the  $\text{NH}_3$   
325 emissions. Most models predicted three peak values of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in June, August and November but exhibited a  
326 significant decrease in July, which was in good agreement with the peaks and drops of the  $\text{NH}_3$  emission rates in these months  
327 (Fig.4). The strong relationship between the simulated  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations and the emission rates suggests that the poor model  
328 performance in reproducing the monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations is probably related to the uncertainties in the monthly  
329 variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions. This is consistent with the recent bottom-up and top-down estimates of agriculture ammonia  
330 emissions in China by (Zhang et al., 2018), which shows more distinct seasonality of Chinese  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions.

331 It is worth noting that there are also important uncertainties in the models beyond emission uncertainty. In order to  
332 investigate this issue, we have analyzed the impact of gas-aerosol partitioning of  $\text{NH}_3$  on the simulations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations.  
333 Figure 5 shows the timeseries of the simulated total ammonium ( $\text{NH}_x = \text{NH}_3 + \text{NH}_4^+$ ) in the atmosphere along with the ratio

334 of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  to the total ammonium. M10 is excluded in Fig.5 since the GOCART model does not predict  $\text{NH}_4^+$   
 335 concentrations. As a result, the emitted  $\text{NH}_3$  would be only presented as the gas phase in M10, leading to higher  $\text{NH}_3$  predictions.  
 336 This may also help explain the different monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations seen in M10. Without the considerations of  
 337  $\text{NH}_4^+$ , the monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations in M10 were more consistent with the monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$   
 338 emissions, which highlighted the importance of gas-aerosol partitioning of  $\text{NH}_3$  on the predictions of monthly variations of  
 339  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations. As seen in fig.5, there are large discrepancy in the simulated gas-aerosol partitioning of  $\text{NH}_3$  from different  
 340 models. M7 and M9 showed higher  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_x$  ratio than other models, which means that these two models tended to retain the  
 341  $\text{NH}_3$  in the gas phase and thus predicted higher  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations than other models. For example, M7 predicted comparable  
 342 magnitude of total ammonium with most models, while gas  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration in M7 accounted for more than 60% of total  
 343 ammonium in summer and even 90% in winter. The lower conversion rate of  $\text{NH}_3$  to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  in M9 may be related to the gas  
 344 phase chemistry used in the model. M9 used the RADM2 mechanism which gives lower reaction rates of oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  
 345  $\text{NO}_2$  by the OH radical as compiled by Tan et al., 2019, leading to lower productions of acid and thus lower conversion rate of  
 346  $\text{NH}_3$  to  $\text{NH}_4^+$ . In case of M7, the hydrolysis of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}_5$  was not considered in M7, which leads to a lower tendency in the prediction  
 347 of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (Chen et al., 2019) and partly explains the higher  $\text{NH}_3$  predictions of M7. On the contrary, M14 showed a much lower  
 348  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_x$  ratio than most models, which would be related to its higher production rates of sulfate than other models as seen in  
 349 Chen et al., 2019. In terms of monthly variations, most models predicted lower  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_x$  ratio in summer than that in other  
 350 seasons, suggesting the higher conversion rates of  $\text{NH}_3$  from gas phase to aerosol phase in summer. This would be related to  
 351 the higher yield of ammonium sulfate due to the enhanced photochemical oxidation activity in summer. However, different  
 352 from the modeling results, the  $\text{NH}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  observations over the NCP region indicated a lower  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_x$  ratio with higher  
 353 ammonium concentrations in autumn and winter (Shen et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2016). Although observed  $\text{NH}_4^+$  was largest in  
 354 summer at a rural site in Beijing, observed  $\text{NH}_3/\text{NH}_x$  ratio was still highest in summer according to observations from Meng  
 355 et al., 2011. These results indicate that there would be large uncertainties in the modeling of seasonal variations of the gas-  
 356 aerosol partitioning of  $\text{NH}_3$  over the NCP region. The formation of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  mainly depends on the acid gas concentrations,  
 357 temperature, water availability (Khoder, 2002) and the flux rates of  $\text{NH}_3$  (Nemitz et al., 2001). Compared with spring and  
 358 summer, the lower temperature and higher  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions should favor the gas-to-particle phase conversion of  $\text{NH}_3$   
 359 and lead to higher  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations. This contrast indicates that some reaction pathways of acid productions ( $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  or  
 360  $\text{HNO}_3$ ) may be missing in current models, such as aqueous-phase and heterogeneous chemistry (Cheng et al., 2016; Wang et  
 361 al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2015). Such uncertainty may be another important factor contributing to the poor model performances  
 362 in reproducing the monthly variations of  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations over the NCP region.

### 363 **3.2 Quantifying the impacts of model uncertainty**

364 In this section, we further investigate the discrepancies among the different models to quantify the impacts of model  
 365 uncertainty on the simulations of these gases. As we mentioned in Sect. 2, most of these models employed common

366 meteorology fields and emission inventories over China under the same modeling domain and horizontal resolutions, which  
367 composed an appropriate set for the investigations of model uncertainties.

368        Figures 6–8 present the simulated annual mean concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub> from different models. The spatial  
369 distributions of the simulated NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations from different models agreed well with each other, similar to  
370 the spatial distributions of their emissions (Fig. 1). High NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations were mainly located in the north and central-east  
371 China, and several hot-spots of NO<sub>2</sub> were also detected in the northeast China and the PRD region. M5, M8, M9, and M11  
372 predicted higher NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations than other models especially for M8 which also predicted very high NO<sub>2</sub> levels over  
373 southeast China. Similar to NO<sub>2</sub>, high CO concentrations were generally located over the north and central-east China as well  
374 as the east of Sichuan basin. M8, M9 and M11 predicted higher CO concentrations than other models as well. In terms of NH<sub>3</sub>,  
375 although most models shared similar spatial patterns of NH<sub>3</sub> simulations, the simulated NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations varied largely from  
376 different models. High NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations were mainly located over the north China and India peninsula, which was in  
377 accordance with the distribution of agricultural activity intensity over East Asia. Among these models, M9 and M10 produced  
378 much higher NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations over East Asia while M4, M5, M6, M13 and M14 produced much lower concentrations.

379        The impacts of model uncertainty on the simulations of NH<sub>3</sub> (9a), CO (9b) and NO<sub>2</sub> (9c) were then quantified in Fig.9,  
380 denoted by the spatial distributions of the standard deviation (ensemble spread) and the corresponding distributions of CV on  
381 the annual and seasonal basis. Note that M13 and M14 are excluded in the calculation of ensemble spread and CV to reduce  
382 the influences of the meteorological input data and horizontal resolutions. It seems that the impacts of model uncertainty  
383 increase with the reactivity of gases. NH<sub>3</sub> simulations were affected most by the model uncertainty, while CO suffered least  
384 from the uncertainty in models.

385        The ensemble spread of NH<sub>3</sub> simulations exhibited a strong spatial variability with higher values mainly located in the  
386 NCP region. Standard deviation of the annual mean NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations can be over 20 ppbv in Henan province and 15 ppbv  
387 in the south of Hebei province, which is about 60–80% and 40–60% of the ensemble mean respectively according to the CV  
388 distribution. As we mentioned in Sect. 3.1.3, these large modeling differences can be partly explained by the differences in the  
389 bi-directional exchange and gas-aerosol partitioning of NH<sub>3</sub> in different models. A strong seasonal pattern was also found in  
390 the differences of NH<sub>3</sub> simulations over the NCP region. The ensemble spread was smallest in spring while largest in autumn,  
391 up to 25 ppbv in most areas of the NCP region. However, in the relative sense, the modeling differences were larger in summer  
392 and winter while less in spring and autumn. The southeast China shared a similar magnitude of the ensemble spread (2–5 ppbv)  
393 and showed weaker seasonal variability. However, the modeling differences in the relative sense were larger than that in the  
394 NCP region with CV over 1.0 in all seasons except that in Summer. This can be due to that the simulated concentrations may  
395 be more influenced by the model processes over the areas with low emissions, while more constrained by the emissions over  
396 high emission rate areas.

397        CO was least affected by the model uncertainty among the three gases which is consistent with its weaker chemical  
398 activity and longer lifetime in the atmosphere. The ensemble spread of annual mean CO concentration was about 0.05–0.2  
399 ppmv in the east China, only about 20%–30% of the ensemble mean. Meanwhile, CO modeling differences was more

uniformly distributed in east China with CV less than 0.3 over most areas of east China. However, large modeling differences were visible over Myanmar during spring when there were high CO emissions from biomass burning. Model differences turned to be larger during winter in the NCP region with ensemble spread and CV about 0.3–0.5 ppmv and 0.3–0.4, respectively.

NO<sub>2</sub> was mediumly affected by the model uncertainty among the three gases. Ensemble spread of annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentration was 5–7.5 ppbv in the NCP region and 2.5–5 ppbv in the southeast China, which accounted for about 20%–30% of the ensemble mean in the former but more than 70% in the latter. The ensemble spread was largest in winter which was over 10 ppbv in the NCP region (30%–40%) and 5–7.5 ppbv in southeast China (over 70%). Similar to NH<sub>3</sub>, southeast China exhibited more modeling differences than the NCP region in relative sense with CV higher than 0.7 in most areas of southeast China.

## 4 Summary

In this study, thirteen modeling results of surface NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations from MICS-Asia III were compared with each other and evaluated against the observations over the NCP and PRD regions. Three questions are trying to be addressed which are related to the performance of current CTMs in simulating the NO<sub>2</sub>, CO and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations over the highly industrialized regions of China, potential factors responsible for the model deviations from observations and differences among models, and the impacts of model uncertainty on the simulations of these gases.

Most models showed underestimations of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the NCP and PRD regions, which could be an important potential factor contributing to the overpredicted O<sub>3</sub> concentrations in these regions. According to Xu et al., 2013, such underestimations would also be related to the positive biases in the NO<sub>2</sub> observations. The models showed better NO<sub>2</sub> model performance in the NCP region than that in the PRD region with smaller biases and RMSE. Most models well reproduced the observed temporal and spatial patterns of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations in the NCP region, while relatively poor model performance was found in the PRD region in terms of the spatial variations of NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. A sensitivity test with finer horizontal resolutions has been conducted to investigate the potential reasons for the poor model performance in the PRD region. The results shows that only increasing the model resolution cannot improve the model performance in the PRD region, which suggest that the poor model performance in the PRD region would be more related to the coarse resolution and/or inappropriate spatial allocations of the emission inventories in the PRD regions. All models significantly underestimated the CO concentrations in the NCP and PRD regions throughout the year. Such large underestimations of all models are not likely to be fully explained by the model uncertainty, which suggests that CO emissions may be underestimated in current emission inventories. More accurate estimate of CO emissions is thus needed for year 2010. Underestimations of CO emissions may be alleviated in recent years due to the decreasing trends of the Chinese CO emissions in recent years(Jiang et al., 2017;Zhong et al., 2017;Sun et al., 2018;Muller et al., 2018;Zheng et al., 2018;Zheng et al., 2019). The inversion results of Zheng et al., 2018 also agree well with the MEIC inventory for CO emissions in China from 2013 to 2015. However uncertainties still exist in the CO emissions for recent years, according to previous studies, the estimated CO emissions in China ranges from 134–202

432 Tg/yr in year 2013 (Jiang et al., 2017;Zhong et al., 2017;Sun et al., 2018;Muller et al., 2018;Zheng et al., 2018;Zheng et al.,  
433 2019). Zhao et al., 2017 also suggested a -29%–40% uncertainty of CO emissions from the industrial sector in year 2012. For  
434 NH<sub>3</sub> simulations, in contrast to the good skills in the monthly variations of NO<sub>2</sub> and CO concentrations, all models failed to  
435 reproduce the observed monthly variations of NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in the NCP region, as shown by both the surface and satellite  
436 measurements. Most models mismatched the observed peak and showed negative correlation coefficient with observations,  
437 which may be closely related to the uncertainty in the monthly variations of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions and also the uncertainty in the gas-  
438 aerosol partitioning of NH<sub>3</sub>.

439 Several potential factors were found to be responsible for the model deviation and differences, including the emission  
440 inventories, chemistry-and-meteorology coupling effects, bi-directional exchange of NH<sub>3</sub> and the NH<sub>3</sub> gas-aerosol partitioning,  
441 which would be important aspects with respect to the model improvements in future. Previous studies also suggest that the  
442 nitrous acid (HONO) chemistry plays an important role in the atmospheric nitrogen chemistry, which influences the  
443 simulations of NO<sub>2</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> (Fu et al., 2019;Zhang et al., 2017;Zhang et al., 2016). Heterogeneous conversion from NO<sub>2</sub> to  
444 HONO ( $2\text{NO}_{2(g)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(l)} \rightarrow \text{HONO}_{(l)} + \text{HNO}_{3(l)}$ ) is one of the dominant sources of HONO in the atmosphere, which has been  
445 considered in most models of MICS-Asia III, including CMAQ since version 4.7, NAQPMS, NHM-Chem and GEOS-Chem.  
446 However, some other important sources of HONO may still be underestimated by models in MICS-Asia III. For example, Fu  
447 et al., 2019 suggested that the high relative humidity and strong light could enhance the heterogeneous reaction of NO<sub>2</sub>, and  
448 the photolysis of total nitrate were also important sources of HONO. These sources has not been included in the models of  
449 MICS-Asia III, which would lead to the deviations from observations. The inter-comparisons of the ensemble models  
450 quantified the impacts of model uncertainty on the simulations of these gases, which shows that the impacts of model  
451 uncertainty increases with the reactivity of these gases. Models contained more uncertainties in the prediction of NH<sub>3</sub> than the  
452 other two gases. Based on these findings, some recommendations are made for future studies:

453 1) More accurate estimation of CO and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions are needed in future studies. Both bottom-up and top-down method  
454 (inversion technique) can help address this problem. The inversion of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions would be more complicated than the  
455 inversion of CO emissions due to the larger uncertainties in modeling the atmospheric processes of NH<sub>3</sub>. Nevertheless, it could  
456 still provide valuable clues for verifying the bottom-up emission inventories (Zhang et al., 2009) if the models were well  
457 validated. In addition, by using the ground or satellite measurements, the top-down methods could also give valuable  
458 information on the spatial and temporal patterns of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions, for example the inversions studies by Paulot et al., 2014  
459 and Zhang et al., 2018. However, more attention should be paid to the validations of model before the inversion estimation of  
460 NH<sub>3</sub> emissions. How to represent the model uncertainties in the current framework of emission inversion is also an important  
461 aspect in future studies. Things could be better for CO considering its small and weakly spatial-dependent model uncertainties.

462 2) For some highly active and/or short-lived primary pollutants, like NH<sub>3</sub>, model uncertainty can also take a great part in  
463 the forecast uncertainty. Emission uncertainty alone may not be sufficient to explain the forecast uncertainty and may cause  
464 underdispersive, and overconfident forecasts. Future studies are needed in how to better represent the model uncertainties in

the model predictions to obtain a better forecast skill. Such model uncertainties also emphasize the need to validate the individual model before using its results to make important policy recommendation.

3) Gas-aerosol partition of  $\text{NH}_3$  is shown to be an important source of uncertainties in  $\text{NH}_3$  simulation. The formation of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  particles is mainly limited by the availability of  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$  under ammonia-rich conditions, which involves complex chemical reactions, including gas-phase, aqueous-phase and heterogeneous chemistry (Cheng et al., 2016; Wang et al., 2016; Zheng et al., 2015). These processes are needed to be verified and incorporated into models to better represent the chemistry in the atmosphere.

4) The gas chemistry mechanisms used in this study are SAPRC 99, CB05, CBMZ, RACM and RADM2, and some of them have an updated version such as CB06 and SPARC 07. Our conclusions may not be applicable to these newer versions of mechanisms and thus more comparisons studies can be performed to understand the differences in these new mechanisms.

#### **Competing interests**

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

#### **Author contribution**

X.T., J.Z., Z.F.W and G.C. conducted the design of this study. J.F., X.W., S.I., K.Y., T.N., H.L., C.K., C.L., L.C., M.Z., Z.T., J.L., M.K., H.L., B.G. contributed to the modelling data. Z.W. performed the simulations of standard meteorological field. M.L. and Q.W. provided the emission data. K.S. provided the CHASER output for boundary conditions. Y.W., Y.P., G.T. provided the observation data. L.K. and X.T. performed the analysis and prepared the manuscript with contributions from all authors.

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## 750 Tables

751 Table 1: Basic configurations of participating models in MICS-Asia III

No	Horizontal resolution	Vertical resolution	First layer height	Horizontal advection	Vertical advection	Horizontal Diffusion	Vertical Diffusion	Gas phase chemistry	Aerosol processes	Dry deposition of gases	Wet deposition of gases	Meteorology	Boundary condition	Online (Yes or No)
M1	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	57 m	Yamo (Yamartino, 1993)	ppm (Collella and Woodward, 1984)	multiscale	ACM2 (Pleim, 2007)	SAPRC99 (Carter, 2000)	Aero6 (Binkowski and Roselle, 2003)	Wesely (1989)	Henry's law	Standard <sup>a</sup>	GEOS-Chem (Martin et al., 2002)	No
M2	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	57 m	Yamo	ppm	multiscale	ACM2	SAPRC99	Aero6	Wesely (1989)	Henry's law	Standard <sup>a</sup>	Default	No
M3	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	57 m	Yamo	Yamo	multiscale	ACM2	CB05 (Yarwood et al., 2005)	Aero5	Wesely (1989)	Henry's law	Standard <sup>a</sup>	GEOS-Chem	No
M4	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	57 m	ppm	ppm	multiscale	ACM2_ inline	SAPRC99	Aero5	Wesely (1989)	Henry's law	Standard <sup>a</sup>	CHASER (Sudo et al., 2002a)	No
M5	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	57 m	ppm	ppm	multiscale	ACM2_ inline	SAPRC99	Aero5	M3DRY (Pleim et al., 2001)	Henry's law	Standard <sup>a</sup>	CHASER	No
M6	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	57 m	Yamo	Yamo	multiscale	ACM2_ inline	SAPRC99	Aero5	M3DRY	ACM	Standard <sup>a</sup>	CHASER	No
M7	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	29 m	Monotonic	Monotonic	no diffusion	no diffusion	RACM-ESRL with KPP ( Goliff et al., 2013 )	MADE (Ackerman et al., 1998)	Wesely (1989)	Henry's law	WRF/NCEP <sup>a</sup>	Default	No
M8	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	57 m	5 <sup>th</sup> order Monotonic	3 <sup>th</sup> order Monotonic	MYJ	MYJ	RACM with KPP	MADE	Wesely (1989)	AQCHEM	WRF/NCEP <sup>a</sup>	CHASER	Yes
M9	45km	$40\sigma_p$ level	16 m	5 <sup>th</sup> order Monotonic	3 <sup>th</sup> order Monotonic	Smagorinsky first order closure	YSU (Hong et al., 2006)	RADM2 (Stockwell et al., 1990)	MADE	Wesely (1989)	Easter et al., (2004)	WRF/NCEP <sup>a</sup>	GEOS-Chem	Yes
M10	45km	$60\sigma_p$ level	44 m	Monotonic	3 <sup>th</sup> order Monotonic	2 <sup>th</sup> order Monotonic	YSU	RADM2	GOCART	Wesely (1989)	Grell	WRF/ MERRA2 <sup>a</sup>	MOZART + GOCART <sup>b</sup>	No
M11	45km	$20\sigma_z$ level	50 m	Walcek and Aleksic (1998)	Walcek and Aleksic (1998)	multiscale	K-theory	CBMZ (Zaveri et al., 1999)	ISORROPI A1.7 (Nenes et al., 1998)	Wesely (1989)	Henry's law	Standard <sup>a</sup>	CHASER	No



M12	45km	40 $\sigma_p$ level	54 m	Walcek and Aleksic (1998)	Walcek and Aleksic (1998)	FTCS	FTCS	SAPRC99	Kajino et al. (2012)	Zhang et al. (2003)	Henry's law	Standard <sup>a</sup>	CHASER	No
M13	0.5°×0.667°	47 $\sigma_p$ level	60 m	ppm	ppm	Lin and McElroy, 2010	Lin and McElroy, 2010	NO <sub>x</sub> -O <sub>3</sub> -HC	ISORROPI A2.0 (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007)	Wesely	Henry's law	GEOS-5 <sup>a</sup>	Geos-Chem	No
M14	64km	15 $\sigma_z$ level	100 m	ppm	ppm	multiscale	ACM2	SAPRC99	ISORROPI A1.7	Wesely (1989)	Henry's law	RAMS/NCEP <sup>a</sup>	Geos-Chem	No

<sup>a</sup> Standard represents the reference meteorological field provided by MICS-Asia III project; WRF/NCEP and WRF/MERRA represents the meteorological field of the participating model itself, which was run by WRF driven by the NCEP and Modern Era Retrospective-analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA) reanalysis dataset. RAMS/NCEP is the meteorology field run by RAMS driven by the NCEP reanalysis dataset.

<sup>b</sup> Boundary conditions of M10 are from MOZART and GOCART (Chin et al., 2002; Horowitz et al., 2003), which provided results for gaseous pollutants and aerosols, respectively.

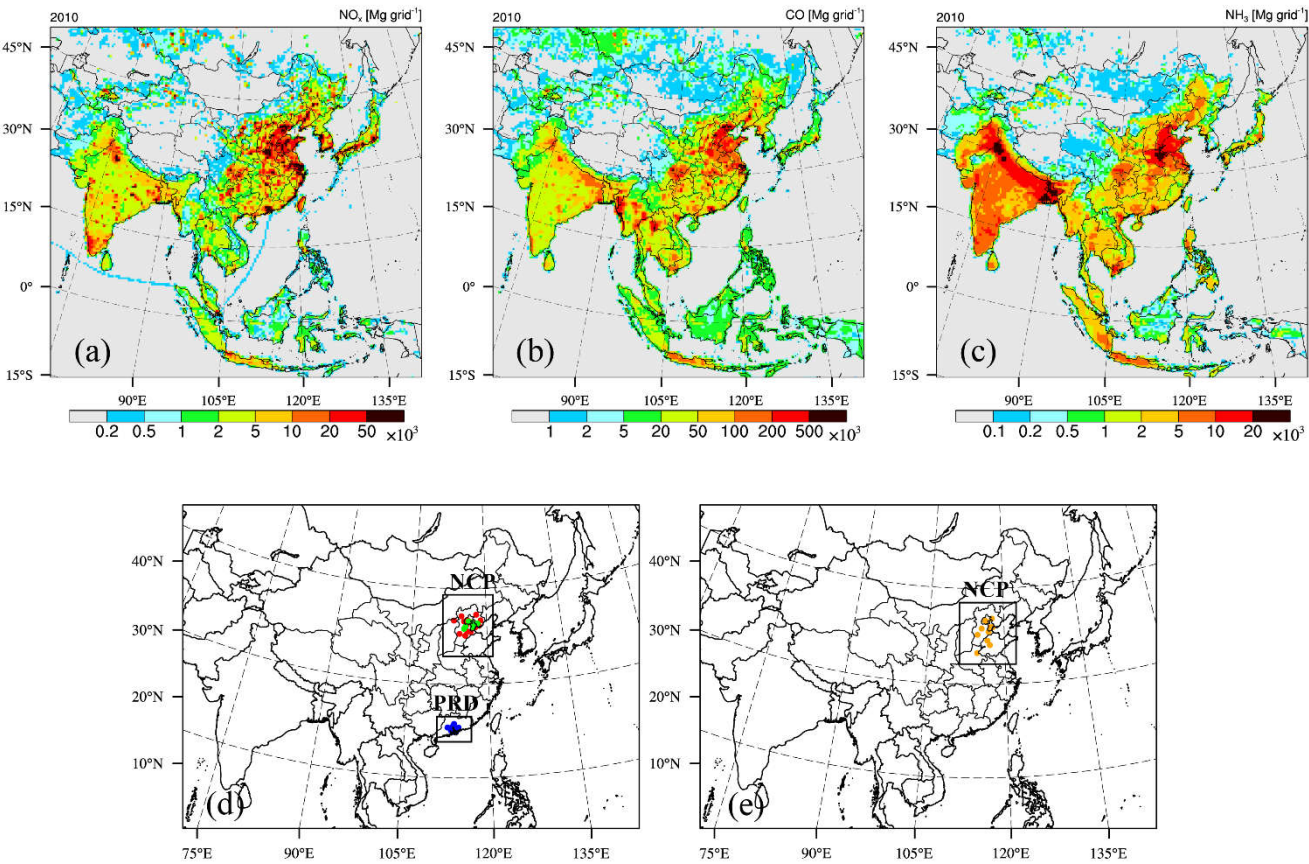
767 **Table 2: Statistics of simulated annual mean concentrations over the NCP and PRD regions.**

Species	Regions	Statistics	Model													
			M1	M2	M4	M5	M6	M7	M8	M9	M10	M11	M12	M13	M14	Ense
NO <sub>2</sub>	NCP	R(spatial) <sup>a</sup>	0.63	0.67	0.67	0.67	0.67	0.70	0.70	0.59	0.57	0.66	0.69	-	0.70	0.67
		R(temporal) <sup>b</sup>	0.82	0.92	0.93	0.86	0.92	0.81	0.28	0.85	0.95	0.75	0.90	-	0.96	0.91
		MBE	-4.11	-5.66	-6.54	1.86	-5.12	-5.04	3.30	8.28	-2.45	0.00	-3.81	-	-2.99	-1.86
		NMB(%)	-17.8	-24.5	-28.4	8.0	-22.2	-21.9	14.2	35.9	-10.6	0.02	-16.5	-	-13.0	-8.0
		RMSE	7.40	8.25	8.79	6.75	8.01	7.55	6.54	12.74	7.72	6.37	7.38	-	6.68	6.36
	PRD	R(spatial) <sup>a</sup>	0.12	0.06	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.12	0.20	0.38	0.00	0.08	0.12	-	0.02	0.10
		R(temporal) <sup>b</sup>	0.93	0.80	0.86	0.88	0.79	0.68	0.83	0.95	0.74	0.74	0.75	-	0.52	0.86
		MBE	-6.73	-9.84	-7.21	1.96	-6.66	-3.99	3.24	-7.61	-1.84	3.02	-5.49	-	-5.03	-3.85
		NMB(%)	-30.1	-44.0	-32.3	8.8	-29.8	-17.9	14.5	-34.0	-8.2	13.5	-24.6	-	-22.5	-17.2
		RMSE	11.31	13.14	12.00	10.80	11.84	10.60	8.73	10.69	10.72	10.51	11.68	-	12.00	10.15
CO	NCP	R(spatial) <sup>a</sup>	0.35	0.48	0.27	0.34	0.36	0.22	0.19	0.48	0.49	0.33	0.35	-0.13	0.29	0.37
		R(temporal) <sup>b</sup>	0.94	0.96	0.92	0.22	0.90	0.77	0.94	0.92	0.82	0.85	0.94	0.85	0.88	0.92
		MBE	-1.53	-1.35	-1.59	-1.69	-1.52	-1.64	-1.29	-1.16	-1.55	-1.37	-1.38	-1.53	-1.51	-1.47
		NMB(%)	-68.9	-60.9	-71.4	-76.2	-68.2	-73.7	-58.2	-52.0	-70.0	-61.6	-62.3	-68.9	-68.0	-66.2
		RMSE	1.71	1.54	1.77	1.86	1.70	1.82	1.51	1.36	1.74	1.57	1.58	1.74	1.70	1.66
	PRD	R(spatial) <sup>a</sup>	0.04	-0.24	-0.25	-0.23	-0.22	-0.05	0.08	0.55	-0.02	-0.01	-0.22	0.09	-0.21	-0.06
		R(temporal) <sup>b</sup>	0.96	0.91	0.93	0.84	0.95	0.90	0.90	0.96	0.83	0.87	0.93	0.76	0.82	0.94
		MBE	-0.66	-0.64	-0.65	-0.64	-0.62	-0.64	-0.51	-0.57	-0.50	-0.51	-0.58	-0.52	-0.67	-0.59
		NMB(%)	-68.4	-67.0	-67.0	-66.7	-64.7	-66.5	-53.3	-59.7	-52.3	-52.7	-60.7	-54.1	-69.6	-61.7
		RMSE	0.70	0.70	0.70	0.69	0.67	0.69	0.57	0.62	0.56	0.57	0.64	0.58	0.72	0.65
NH <sub>3</sub>	NCP	R(spatial) <sup>a</sup>	0.72	0.70	0.69	0.70	0.71	0.65	-	0.70	0.57	0.62	0.67	0.61	0.58	0.69
		R(temporal) <sup>b</sup>	-0.48	-0.22	-0.45	-0.55	-0.41	0.04	-	-0.19	0.64	0.08	-0.37	0.65	-0.04	-0.17
		MBE	-0.69	2.95	-6.14	-6.61	-3.89	4.94	-	21.8	10.5	-0.07	0.31	-5.19	-12.2	0.47
		NMB(%)	-3.8	16.1	-33.5	-36.0	-21.2	26.9	-	118.7	57.1	-0.4	1.69	-28.3	-66.3	2.59
		RMSE	7.20	10.04	8.95	9.24	7.48	8.78	-	29.24	13.48	8.30	7.33	8.82	14.48	7.20

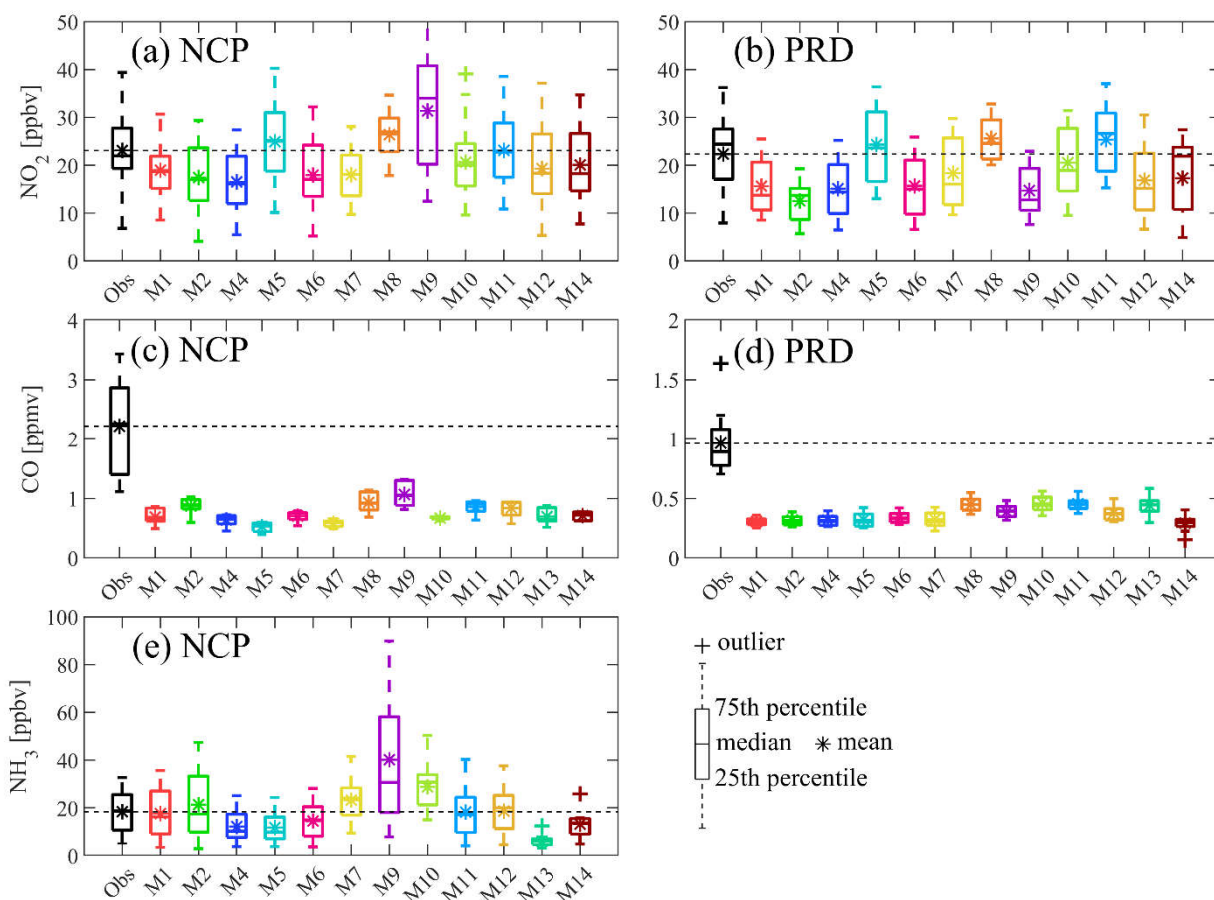
768 <sup>a</sup> R(spatial) represents the spatial correlation coefficients between simulated and observed concentrations sampled from different stations in NCP or PRD;

769 <sup>b</sup> R(temporal) represents the temporal correlation coefficients between simulated and observed monthly mean concentrations from January to December in 2010;

770

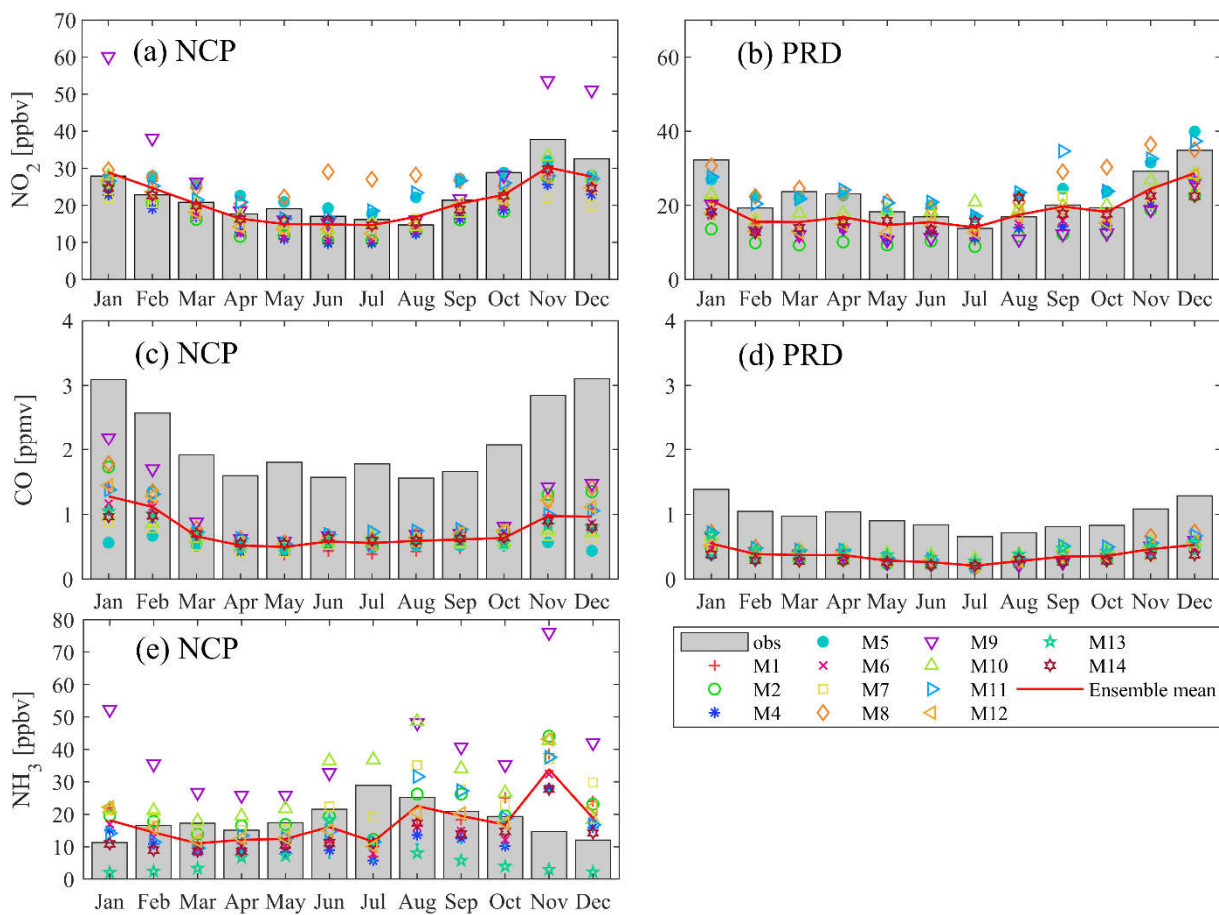


772  
773 **Figure 1: Modeling domains of the participated models except M13 and M14 along with spatial distributions of the total emissions**  
774 **of (a)  $\text{NO}_x$ , (b) CO and (c)  $\text{NH}_3$  in 2010 provided by MICS-Asia III (upper panel), and the distributions of observation stations of (d)**  
775  **$\text{NO}_2$  and CO over the NCP and PRD regions, as well as (e)  $\text{NH}_3$  over the NCP region (lower panel). The horizontal resolution is**  
776 **45km $\times$ 45km. Note that domains of M13 and M14 are shown in fig. 7 and only six of nineteen observational sites (green) over the**  
777 **NCP region have CO measurements.**

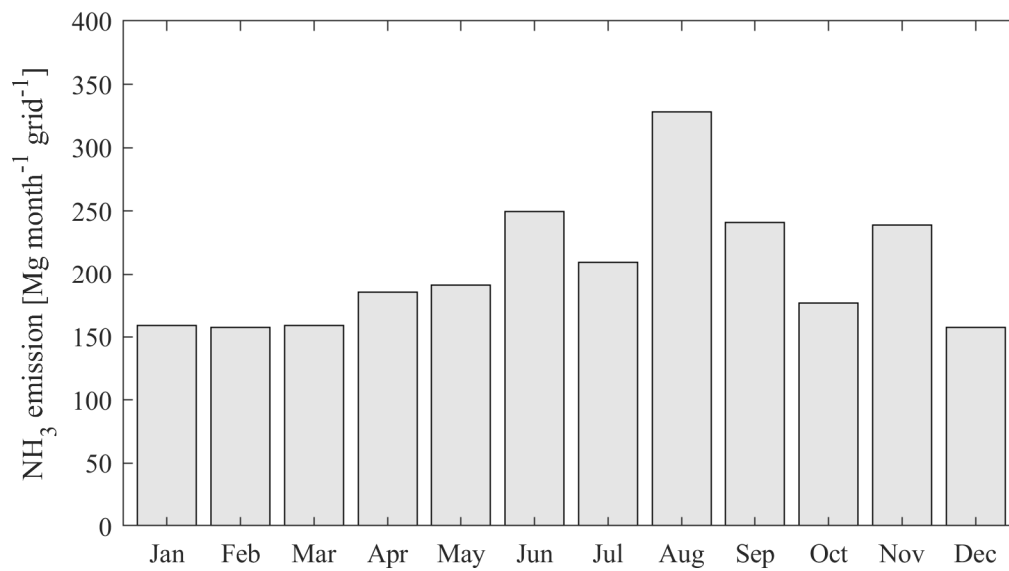


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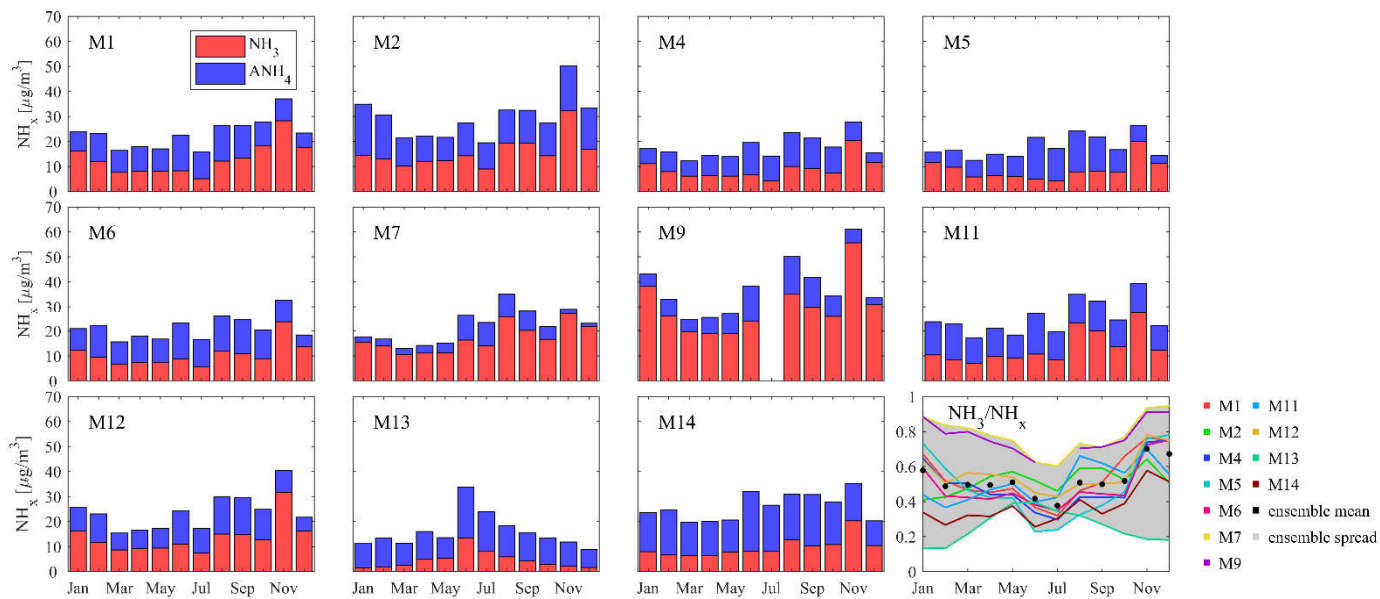
779 **Figure 2: Boxplot of simulated and observed annual mean  $\text{NO}_2$ , CO and  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations sampled from different stations over**  
 780 **the NCP (a, c, e) and PRD (b, d) regions. The outlier was defined as values larger than  $q_3 + 1.5 \times (q_3 - q_1)$  or less than  $q_1 -$**   
 781  **$1.5 \times (q_3 - q_1)$ , where  $q_3$  denotes the 75th percentile, and  $q_1$  the 25th percentile. This approximately corresponds to 99.3 percent**  
 782 **coverage if the data are normally distributed.**



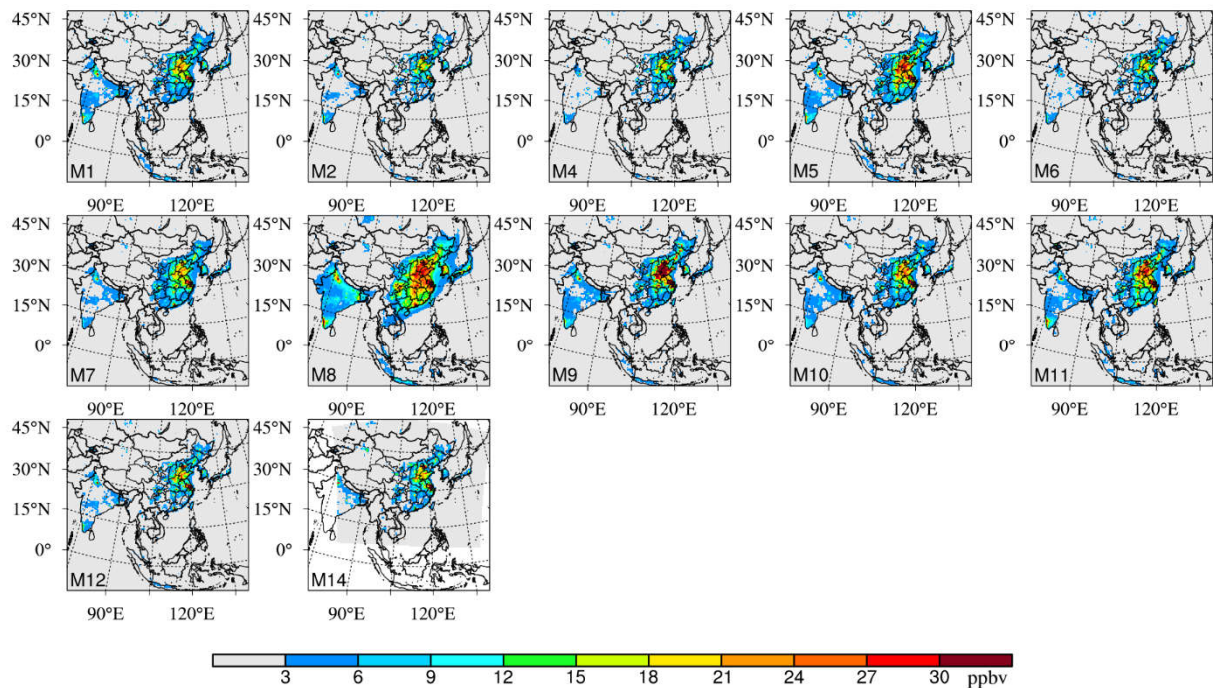
**Figure 3: Timeseries of regional mean  $\text{NO}_2$ , CO concentrations over the NCP (a, c) and PRD (b, d) regions as well as  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations over the NCP (e) region from January to December in year 2010.**



**Figure 4: Timeseries of NH<sub>3</sub> emissions over the NCP region provided by MICS-Asia III on a horizontal resolution of 45km×45km from January to December in year 2010.**

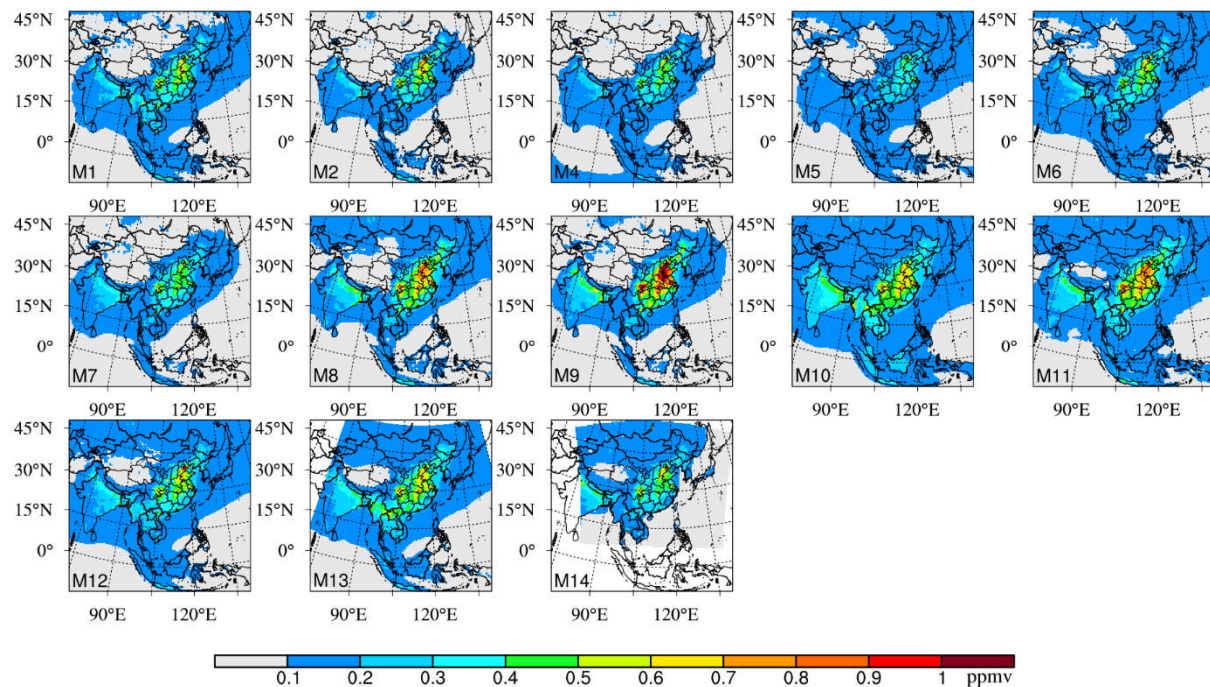


**Figure 5: Timeseries of the multi-model simulated total ammonium ( $\text{NH}_x = \text{NH}_3 + \text{NH}_4^+$ ) in atmosphere along with the ratio of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  to the total ammonium over NCP from January to December in year 2010.**

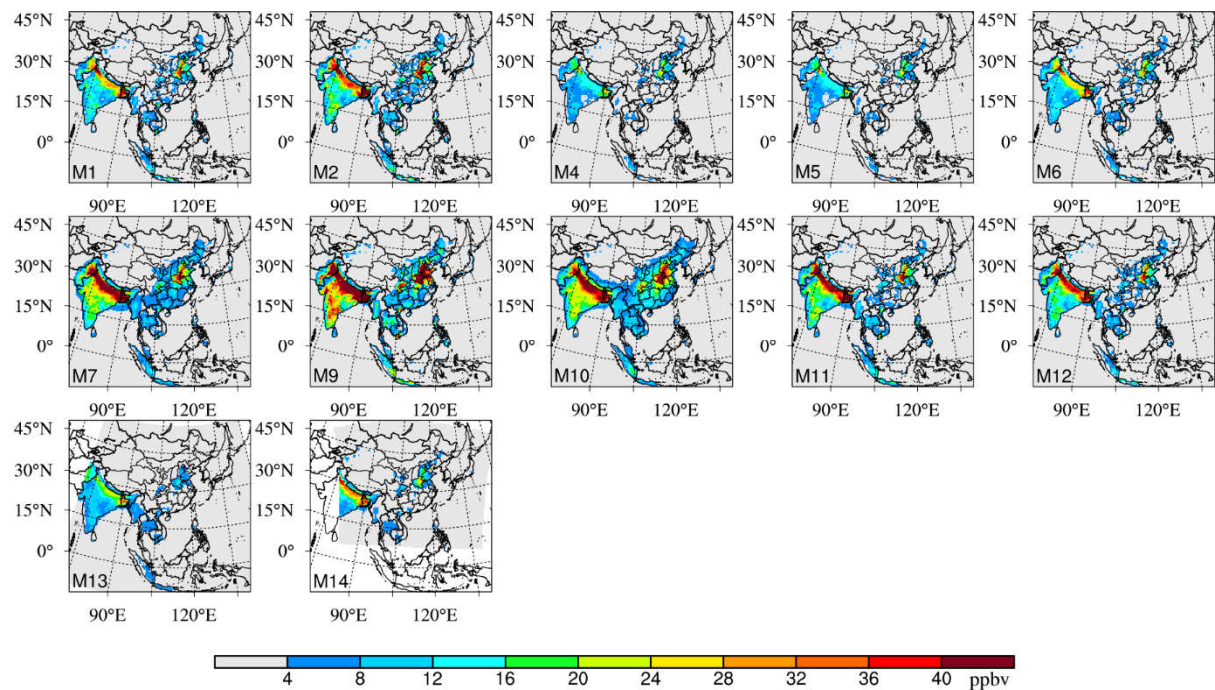


**Figure 6: Spatial distribution of the annual mean NO<sub>2</sub> concentrations from each modeling results of MICS-Asia III. Note that M13 are not included in this figure.**





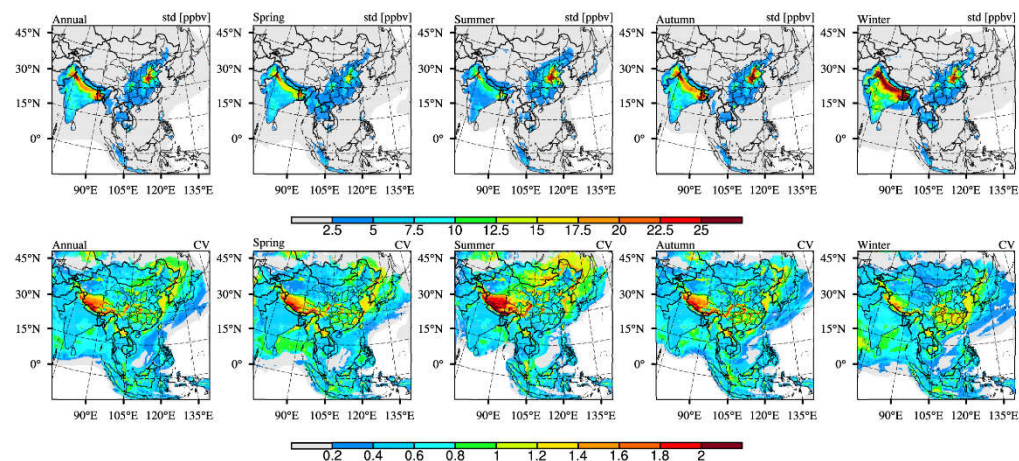
**Figure 7: Spatial distribution of the annual mean CO concentrations from each modeling results of MICS-Asia III.**



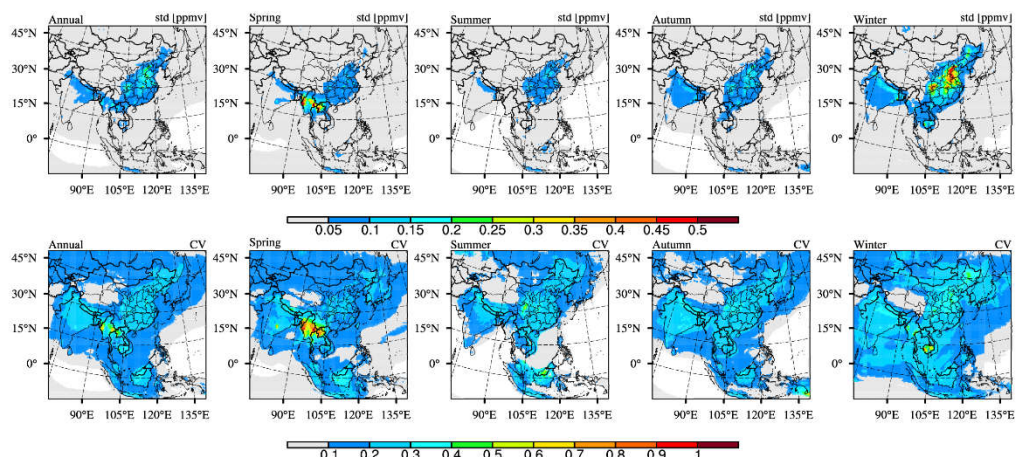
**Figure 8: Spatial distribution of the annual mean  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations from each modeling results of MICS-Asia III.**



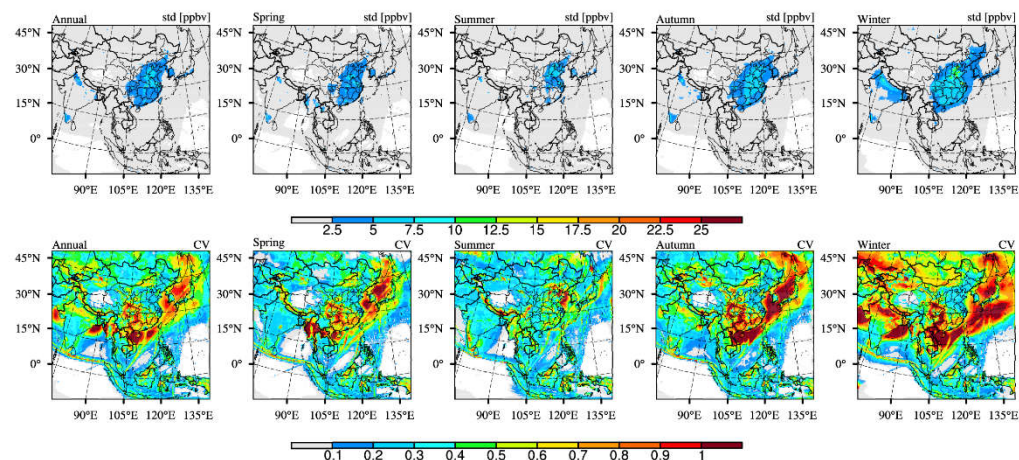
(a)  $\text{NH}_3$ :



(b)  $\text{CO}$ :



(c)  $\text{NO}_2$ :



835

836 **Figure 9: Spatial distribution of the standard deviation of (a)  $\text{NH}_3$ , (b)  $\text{CO}$  and (c)  $\text{NO}_2$  multi-model predictions in MICS-Asia III,**  
 837 **as well as the corresponding distribution of CV on the annual and seasonal basis.**