

1 **The effect of anthropogenic emission, meteorological factors,**
2 **and carbon dioxide on the surface ozone increase in China from**
3 **2008 to 2018 during the East Asia summer monsoon season**

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15 **Abstract.** Despite the implementation of the Clean Air Action Plan by the Chinese government
16 in 2013, the issue of increasing surface ozone (O₃) concentrations remains a significant
17 environmental concern in China. In this study, we used an improved regional climate-chemistry-
18 ecology model (RegCM-Chem-YIBs) to investigate the impact of anthropogenic emissions,
19 meteorological factors, and CO₂ changes on summer surface O₃ levels in China from 2008 to
20 2018. ~~Compared to its predecessor,~~ the model has been enhanced concerning the photolysis of O₃
21 and the radiative impacts of CO₂ and O₃. The investigations showed anthropogenic emissions
22 were the primary contributor to the O₃ increase in China, responsible for 4.08~18.51 ppb in the
23 North China Plain. However, changed meteorological conditions played a crucial role in
24 decreasing O₃ in China and may have a more significant impact than anthropogenic emissions in
25 some regions. ~~In Pearl River Delta, for example, the contributions of meteorological conditions
26 and anthropogenic emissions on O₃ were -1.29 and 0.81 ppb in 2013, respectively. CO₂ was
27 critical in O₃ variations, especially in southern China.~~ Changed CO₂ played a critical role in the
28 variability of O₃ through radiative forcing and isoprene emissions, particularly in southern China,
29 inducing an increase in O₃ on the southeast coast of China (0.28~0.46 ppb-a⁻¹) and a decrease in
30 the southwest and central China (-0.51~-0.11 ppb-a⁻¹). Our study comprehensively analyzed O₃
31 variation across China from various perspectives and highlighted the importance of considering
32 CO₂ variations when designing long-term O₃ control policies, especially in high vegetation
33 coverage areas.

34 1 Introduction

35 O₃ is a strong oxidant detrimental to human health (Lu et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2018a) and
36 ~~vegetation growth~~ the ecosystem (Monks et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017a). Furthermore, it is a
37 crucial active compound influencing the earth's radiative balances ~~specie of radiation~~, with an
38 effective radiative forcing of up to 0.47 W/m² in 2019 (Ipcc, 2021). Tropospheric O₃ has
39 garnered significant attention over the past few decades due to its crucial role in air quality and
40 climate change (Duan et al., 2017; Li et al., 2019; Ashmore and Bell, 1991; Lu et al., 2018).

41 With the rapid development in China, emissions of O₃ precursors have been on the rise,
42 leading to an annual increase in O₃ concentrations since the beginning of the 20th century (Liu
43 and Wang, 2020a; Ma et al., 2016). Surface O₃ pollution has become a severe air quality concern
44 in China (Verstraeten et al., 2016; Xu et al., 2018), particularly in major urban areas such as the
45 North China Plain (NCP), Fenwei Plain (FWP), Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Pearl River Delta
46 (PRD), and the Sichuan Basin (SCB) (Wang et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2017a; Yin and Ma, 2020;
47 Shen et al., 2019; Zhao et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2009). Although the Chinese government
48 initialized ~~performed~~ the Clean Air Action Plan in 2013 to control air pollution, the concentration
49 of O₃ precursors and PM_{2.5} has significantly decreased (Zhai et al., 2019). However, surface O₃
50 concentrations continue to increase in major urban areas.

51 Recent studies have suggested that regional meteorological conditions influence surface O₃
52 levels through various pathways (Jacob and Winner, 2009; Shen et al., 2016; Lin et al., 2008).
53 Modeling studies have shown that O₃ levels are sensitive to temperature, humidity, wind speed,
54 mixing height, and other meteorological conditions (Pfister et al., 2014; Sanchez-Ccoyllo et al.,
55 2006). For instance, temperature affects the chemical formation rate of O₃ (Lee et al., 2014),
56 while precipitation reduces surface O₃ concentrations through wet removal (Fang et al., 2011).
57 Additionally, the elevated planetary boundary layer (PBL) height enhances upward movement,

58 resulting in lower surface O₃ concentrations (Haman et al., 2014). Therefore, long-term modeling
59 of surface O₃ levels must consider changes in meteorological conditions.

60 CO₂ is the primary anthropogenic radiative force of the climate system (Gauss et al., 2003;
61 Schimel et al., 2015). CO₂ can impact regional air temperature and precipitation, leading to
62 changes in surface O₃ concentrations (Lu et al., 2013; Yang et al., 2014).

63 On the other hand, Biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs) are significant O₃
64 precursors, and isoprene is the primary specie among BVOCs that vegetation emits (Zheng et al.,
65 2009; Fiore et al., 2011). In most of China, O₃ is volatile organic compounds (VOCs)-limited in
66 the summer, especially in industrial cities (Li et al., 2018; Wu et al., 2018). Thus, it plays a
67 significant role in modulating O₃ levels and positively correlates with O₃ concentrations in major
68 urban areas of China. It is known that CO₂ can enhance vegetation's photosynthesis (Sun et al.,
69 2013; Heald et al., 2009; Tai et al., 2013; Monson and Fall, 1989), which may directly increase
70 isoprene emission (Rapparini et al., 2004). Based on the observation, Rosenstiel et al. (2003)
71 found that the isoprene emissions of plants grew by about 21% and 41% when CO₂ reached 800
72 ppm and 1200 ppm, respectively. However, Wilkinson et al. (2009) indicated that different
73 vegetation types show varying responses in isoprene emission when CO₂ increases. Isoprene
74 emission was decreased by 30~40% in *Populus tremuloides* Michx but increased by about 100%
75 in *Quercus rubra* when CO₂ concentrations were grown (Sharkey et al., 1991). High
76 concentrations of CO₂ may inhibit the emission of isoprene by reducing the activity of BVOCs
77 synthetase or decreasing the synthesis of adenosine triphosphate (Possell et al., 2005). Guenther
78 et al. (1991) also indicated that isoprene emissions were significantly reduced when CO₂ was
79 increased from 100 to 600 μmol mol⁻¹. In summary, the impact of elevated CO₂ on isoprene
80 emission may be positive or negative, mainly related to the relative size of the inhibition caused
81 by elevated CO₂ and promotion by enhanced photosynthesis.

82 Numerous studies have concluded that anthropogenic emissions are the primary drivers of
83 surface O₃ increases in different regions or years in China. Meanwhile, the effects of
84 meteorological parameters ~~can be substantial~~should not be negligible (Wang et al., 2019c; Lu et
85 al., 2019; Dang et al., 2021; Liu and Wang, 2020a). For instance, Li et al. (2020) indicated that
86 anthropogenic emissions were the primary cause of surface O₃ increase in China from 2013 to
87 2019. Liu and Wang (2020a) suggested that anthropogenic emissions play a dominant role in the
88 O₃ variety in China, but the effects of meteorological conditions could be more significant in
89 some regions. Han et al. (2020) analyzed the O₃ changes in summer and suggested that
90 meteorology can explain about 43% of that in eastern China.

91 Previous studies have mainly focused on the impact of anthropogenic emissions and
92 meteorological factors on the rise of O₃ levels, with limited attention given to the role of CO₂
93 variations. However, due to the rapid socioeconomic growth in China and the subsequent surge
94 in energy consumption, CO₂ emissions, and concentrations have also increased significantly,
95 particularly in the eastern coastal region~~Most previous research focused on the effects of~~
96 ~~anthropogenic emission and meteorological factors on O₃ increase, ignoring the contributions of~~
97 ~~CO₂ variations. And CO₂ emission has kept annual increasing in China~~ (Lv et al., 2020; Ren et
98 al., 2014). Furthermore, given the significant impact of CO₂ on O₃, it is crucial to evaluate the
99 influence of changes in CO₂ concentration on the maximum daily 8-hour average (MDA8) O₃
100 concentrations at the surface. Thus, a comprehensive assessment of the impact of anthropogenic
101 emissions, meteorological factors, and CO₂ on surface O₃ is imperative.~~Therefore, a~~

comprehensive evaluation of the impact of anthropogenic emission, meteorological factors, and carbon dioxide on surface maximum daily 8 h average (MDA8) O₃ is necessary

Here, we employed an advanced regional climate-chemistry-ecology model to assess the impact of anthropogenic emissions, meteorological factors, and carbon dioxide variations during the summer monsoon period (May, June, July, and August) on surface O₃ levels. Our findings can facilitate the development of a comprehensive O₃ improvement strategy. Sect. 2 describes the methods and data, and the results and discussion are given in Sect. 3, finally, the conclusions are shown in Sect. 4.

2 Methods and data

2.1 Measurement data

We compared the simulated regional meteorological factors with the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts Interim reanalysis data (ERA-Interim) at 37 vertical levels, which included temperature, relative humidity, and wind speed (Balsamo et al., 2015; Hoffmann et al., 2019). The observed surface O₃ was taken from the China National Environmental Monitoring Center (CNEMC), which had more than 1400 environmental monitoring stations in 2018 (Wang et al., 2018; Kong et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2014). The World Data Centre for Greenhouse Gases (WDCGG) data (Liu et al., 2009; Li et al., 2017) was applied to evaluate the simulated surface CO₂ concentrations. The monitoring stations of O₃ and CO₂ are shown in Figure. 1.

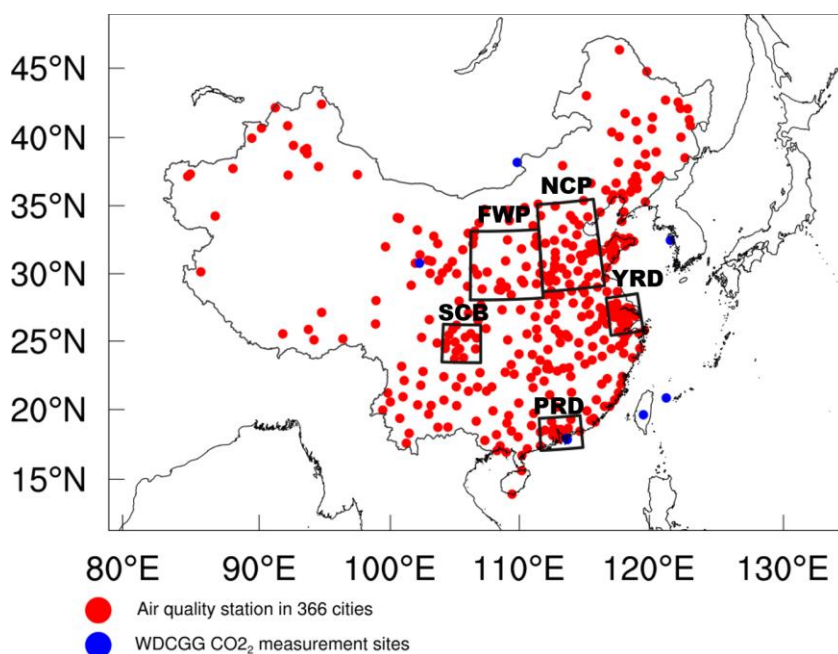


Figure 1. Model domains for the RegCM-Chem-YIBs model. The regions with black boundaries are the North China Plain (34~41°N, 113~119°E), the Yangtze River Delta (30~33°N, 119~122°E), the Pearl River Delta (21.5~24°N, 112~115.5°E), the Sichuan Basin (28.5~31.5°N, 103.5~107°E), and the Fenwei Plain (33.5~39°N, 106~113°E) regions.

128 2.2 Model description

129 ~~The RegCM-Chem-YIBs is a regional climate-chemistry-ecology model developed by a team of~~
130 ~~Prof. Wang in the School of Atmospheric Sciences of Nanjing University (Xie et al., 2020; Xie et~~
131 ~~al., 2019), the International Center for Theoretical Physics (ICTP) in Italy (Giorgi et al., 2012;~~
132 ~~Giorgi and Mearns, 1999), and a team led by Prof. Yue in Nanjing University of Information~~
133 ~~Technology (Yue and Unger, 2015). The RegCM-Chem-YIBs is a regional climate-chemistry-~~
134 ~~ecology model developed from the RegCM model RegCM is a regional climate model initially~~
135 ~~developed by the International Center for Theoretical Physics (ICTP) (Giorgi et al., 2012).~~
136 ~~Shalaby et al. (2012) integrated the Chem chemistry model into the RegCM model and~~
137 ~~incorporated the condensed version of the Carbon Bond Mechanism (CBM-Z) to enhance the~~
138 ~~model's capabilities. To further improve the model's performance, Yin et al. (2015) added a~~
139 ~~Volatility Basis Set (VBS) scheme to simulate Secondary Organic Aerosols (SOA). Xie et al.~~
140 ~~(2020) further modified the model by incorporating CO₂ as a tracer, which is subject to~~
141 ~~regulation by sources, sinks, and atmospheric transport processes. The model represents the four~~
142 ~~sources and sinks of CO₂ as surface fluxes, including emissions from fossil fuels and biomass~~
143 ~~burning, air-sea CO₂ exchange, and terrestrial biosphere CO₂ fluxes. Additionally, the model~~
144 ~~incorporated the Yale Interactive Terrestrial Biosphere (YIBs), a land carbon cycle model that~~
145 ~~enables the simulation of ecological processes, including carbon assimilation, allocation, and~~
146 ~~autotrophic and heterotrophic respiration (Yue and Unger, 2015).~~

147 The ecological model (YIBs) was fully coupled into the regional climate-chemical model
148 (RegCM-Chem) to reproduce the interactions between atmospheric composition and the
149 ecosystem in the ~~authentic-actual~~ atmosphere (Xie et al., 2019). The meteorological factors and
150 air components simulated by RegCM-Chem were input into the YIBs model to simulate
151 vegetation physiological processes and calculate land surface parameters such as carbon dioxide
152 flux, ~~Biogenic volatile organic compound (BVOCs)~~ emissions, and stomatal conductance.
153 Conversely, the simulations of the YIBs model were fed back into the RegCM-Chem model to
154 adjust the air qualities, temperature, humidity, circulation, and other meteorological fields. The
155 RegCM-Chem-YIBs has been extensively applied to study surface O₃, PM_{2.5}, CO₂, the summer
156 monsoon, and the interactions between air quality and the ecosystem (Zhuang et al., 2018; Pu et
157 al., 2017; Xu et al., 2022a; Xie et al., 2018; Ma et al., 2023).

158 ~~The RegCM model offers a variety of physical and chemical parameterization options. Here,~~
159 ~~the climatological chemical boundary conditions were driven by the Model of Ozone and~~
160 ~~Related Chemical Tracers (MOZART). The gas-phase chemistry employed the CBM-Z scheme~~
161 ~~(Zaveri and Peters, 1999). For the boundary layer scheme, the Holtslag PBL approach was~~
162 ~~utilized (Khayatianyazdi et al., 2021). The Grell cumulus convection scheme was employed to~~
163 ~~simulate convective processes (Grell, 1993). The CCM3 radiation scheme and CLM3.5 land~~
164 ~~surface module were used in the model (Collins et al., 2006; Giorgi and Mearns, 1999; Decker~~
165 ~~and Zeng, 2009).~~

166 2.3 Model improvements

167 ~~The previous version RegCM-Chem-YIBs model simulated the radiation effect that considers~~
168 ~~spatial-temporal variations of PM only. The air CO₂ and O₃ concentrations in the radiation~~
169 ~~module were constant in the year to calculate the radiation. We have taken simulated CO₂ and O₃~~
170 ~~concentrations with a spatiotemporal variation into the radiation module and improved the~~
171 ~~associated radiation effects to better simulate the regional radiation balance.~~

172 ~~Lefer et al. (2003) suggested that better aerosol optical parameter inputs, including aerosol~~
173 ~~optical depth (AOD) and single scattering albedo (SSA), played a significant role in the~~
174 ~~photolysis of O₃. We improved the calculation involving the AOD and SSA in the photolysis~~
175 ~~subroutine so that the extinction effect of the particles can be fed back to the photolysis reaction~~
176 ~~correctly. These improvements led to more realistic simulations in air components and regional~~
177 ~~meteorology.~~

178 2.3.1 Radiation

179 In the previous version of the RegCM-Chem-YIBs model, radiative calculations only
180 accounted for changes in the spatiotemporal distribution of particulate matter. To simplify the
181 radiation calculations, the atmospheric CO₂ and O₃ concentrations were assumed to be constant
182 throughout the year. However, atmospheric CO₂ and O₃ are subject to modulation by various
183 sources, sinks, physical processes, and chemical processes (Ballantyne et al., 2012; Wang et al.,
184 2019a). Additionally, rapid urbanization in China has led to an annual increase in CO₂ and O₃
185 concentrations (Guan et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2022), with elevated concentrations and growth
186 rates primarily distributed in the eastern regions where urbanization is most prominent (Shi et al.,
187 2016; Wang et al., 2017b). To more accurately simulate the atmospheric radiation balance and
188 East Asian monsoon climate, it is necessary to incorporate spatiotemporal variations of CO₂ and
189 O₃ concentrations into the radiation module. Therefore, we included the varying CO₂ and O₃
190 concentrations simulated by the model in the radiation module to calculate the corresponding
191 radiative forcing.

192 2.3.2 Photolysis

193 The photolysis process was simulated using the Tropospheric Ultraviolet and Visible (TUV)
194 model, which is commonly used to compute photolysis rates in various models (Tie et al., 2003;
195 Shetter et al., 2002; Borg et al., 2011). The TUV model employs input parameters such as zenith
196 angle, altitude, ozone column, SO₂ column, NO₂ column, aerosol optical depth (AOD), single
197 scattering albedo (SSA), and albedo, among others, to calculate photolysis rates (Singh and
198 Singh, 2004). However, in the TUV module of the RegCM-Chem-YIBs model, AOD and SSA
199 were held constant. This is problematic as accurate aerosol optical parameters, such as AOD and
200 SSA, play a crucial role in the photolysis of O₃ (Lefer et al., 2003). To address this issue, we
201 incorporated temporally and spatially varying AOD and SSA simulated by the RegCM-Chem-
202 YIBs model into the photolysis rate calculations in the TUV module. This enabled us to
203 accurately incorporate the extinction effect of the varying particles into the photolysis reaction,
204 leading to more realistic simulations of air components and regional meteorology.

205 2.4 Emissions and Experiment settings

206 Anthropogenic emissions from 2008 to 2018 were obtained from the Multi-resolution Emission
207 Inventory for China (MEIC), which has been compiled and maintained by Tsinghua University
208 since 2010 (Zheng et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2014). CO₂ emissions and boundary conditions were
209 derived from the NOAA CarbonTracker CT2019 dataset (Jacobs et al., 2021). The initial
210 meteorological boundary data, such as temperature, relative humidity, and wind, are derived
211 from the ERA-Interim reanalysis dataset with a horizontal resolution of 0.125°, a temporal
212 resolution of 6 hours, and 37 vertical levels (Liu et al., 2018b). The weekly mean Sea Surface
213 Temperature dataset was obtained from the National Ocean and Atmosphere Administration
214 (NOAA) (Reynolds et al., 2002).

~~The Model of Ozone and Related Chemical Tracers (MOZART) model was chosen to drive climatological chemical boundary conditions. (Zaveri and Peters, 1999) The boundary layer scheme was Holtslag PBL (Khayatanyazdi et al., 2021). The Grell cumulus convection scheme was employed (Grell, 1993). The CCM3 radiation scheme and CLM3.5 land surface module were used in the model (Collins et al., 2006; Giorgi and Mearns, 1999; Decker and Zeng, 2009).~~

The simulation domain was illustrated in Figure 1, with the target region centered at 36°N and 107°E, and a grid resolution of 60 km by 60 km. The model used 18 vertical levels, ranging from the surface to 50 hPa.

~~The interannual changing anthropogenic emissions, meteorological fields, and CO₂ emissions were applied in the base experiment during the summer monsoon period from 2008 to 2018. The meteorological conditions were maintained at 2008 in all ten years, namely the SIM_{i,m=2008} experiment.~~

~~The changes in O₃ concentrations from 2009 to 2018 relative to 2008 were obtained by comparing the simulations of different years with 2008 in the base experiment (Eq. (1)). The effect of meteorology in the O₃ was obtained by comparing the results between SIM_{i,m=2008} with the base experiment in the same year (Eq. (2)). Similarly, the effects of CO₂ emissions were derived (Eq. (3)). Finally, the influence of anthropogenic emissions was calculated by excluding the impact of meteorological factors and CO₂ from the changes in O₃ concentrations (Eq. (4)). The numerical experiments are shown in table 1. In the Base experiment, we incorporated interannual variations in anthropogenic emissions, meteorological fields, and CO₂ emissions. Meteorological conditions (CO₂ emissions) were kept constant at 2008 levels over ten years, referred to as the SIM_{MET=2008} (SIM_{CO2=2008}) experiment.~~

The changes in O₃ concentrations relative to 2008 between 2009 and 2018 were determined by comparing simulations of different years with 2008 in the Base experiment (Eq. (1)). The impact of changed meteorological conditions on O₃ concentrations relative to 2008 was assessed by comparing results between SIM_{MET=2008} and the Base experiment in the same year (Eq. (2)). The contribution of changed CO₂ emissions was similarly estimated (Eq. (3)). Finally, the influence of anthropogenic emissions was calculated by excluding the impact of meteorological factors and CO₂ from the changes in O₃ concentrations (Eq. (4)). Table 1 shows the results of the numerical experiments.

$$\Delta O_i = Base_i - Base_{2008} \quad (1)$$

$$\Delta M_i = Base_i - SIM_{i,MET=2008} \quad (2)$$

$$\Delta C_i = Base_i - SIM_{i,CO2=2008} \quad (3)$$

$$\Delta E_i = \Delta O_i - \Delta M_i - \Delta C_i \quad (4)$$

ΔO_i : The changes in O₃ concentrations in the year i relative to 2008.

Base_i : The O₃ concentrations in the Base experiment in the year i.

ΔM_i : The changes in O₃ concentrations in the year i due to meteorological factors variations.

SIM_{i,MET=2008} : The O₃ concentrations in the SIM_{MET=2008} experiment in the year i.

ΔC_i : The changes in O₃ concentrations in the year i due to CO₂ variations.

SIM_{i,CO2=2008} : The O₃ concentrations in the SIM_{CO2=2008} experiment in the year i.

259 ΔE_i : The changes in O₃ concentrations in the year i due to anthropogenic emissions variations.

260 **Table 1.** The Numerical experimental in this study.

Experiment	Time	Description
Base	2008-2018	Interannual changing anthropogenic emissions, meteorological fields, and CO ₂ emissions
SIM_MET08	2009-2018	Meteorological conditions remained at 2008
SIM_CO ₂ 08		CO ₂ emissions remained at 2008

261

Experiment	Time	Meteorological fields	CO ₂ emissions	Anthropogenic emissions
Base	2008-2018	Varying	Varying	Varying
SIM _{MET=2008}	2009-2018	2008	Varying	Varying
SIM _{CO₂=2008}		Varying	2008	Varying

262
 263 In this work, both meteorological and CO₂ boundary conditions were kept consistent in base
 264 and sensitivity studies. We did not consider the impact of boundary conditions on O₃ due to the
 265 following reasons. First, in general, the regional model was coupled with the global model to get
 266 a more realistic influence from the boundary. However, for long-term climate-chemistry
 267 modeling, the such coupling means a large computing resource. Second, the boundary conditions
 268 were derived from global models (Liu et al., 2017; Ban et al., 2014) and have to be prescribed in
 269 sensitive experiments. Finally, fixed boundary conditions were widely used in some O₃ studies in
 270 China (Liu and Wang, 2020a, b; Wang et al., 2019b). Moreover, regional emissions are the
 271 primary source of surface O₃ in China, with contributions accounting for 80% from May to
 272 August (Lu et al., 2019). Therefore, the impact of fixed boundary conditions can be ignored in
 273 the current stage.

274 3 Results and discussion

275 3.1 Model evaluation

276 The ability of RegCM to reproduce East Asian climate and air quality has been widely evaluated
 277 in recent years. Previous studies have demonstrated that RegCM was capable of the essential
 278 characteristics and interannual variations of air components and meteorological fields in East
 279 Asia (Xu et al., 2022b; Ma et al., 2023; Zhuang et al., 2018). Given that the monitoring of near-
 280 surface O₃ levels by CNEMC was initiated only in late 2013, the monitoring sites in 2013 and
 281 2014 were limited, and the monitoring period was disjointed. As a result, in this study, we
 282 compared the simulated meteorological fields, O₃, and CO₂ levels with observations only from
 283 2015 to 2018. Here, for more confidence, the meteorological fields, O₃ and CO₂ are compared
 284 between simulations and observations in 2018.

285 Figures S1~4 demonstrated that the RegCM-Chem-YIBs model effectively captured the
286 spatial distribution and magnitude of temperature, humidity, and wind over East Asia at 500 hPa,
287 850 hPa, and 1000 hPa between 2015 and 2018. However, due to the complex terrain's influence
288 on the lower atmosphere, most models show better results at higher levels (Zhuang et al., 2018;
289 Anwar et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2019). Thus, the simulations at 500 hPa were more consistent with
290 the reanalysis data. At 1000 hPa, the simulated wind speed was slightly higher than the
291 reanalysis data in eastern China. This difference may be due to common deficiencies in
292 meteorological models, such as insufficient horizontal resolution, initial and boundary conditions,
293 and physical parameterizations (Cassola and Burlando, 2012; Accadia et al., 2007), particularly
294 in areas with low wind speeds (Carvalho et al., 2012).

295 ~~Figure 2 shows the RegCM-Chem-YIBs model has well captured the spatial distribution~~
296 ~~and magnitude of temperature, humidity, and wind over East Asia at 850 hPa and 200 hPa. The~~
297 ~~model underestimated the temperatures and wind speed slightly at 850 hPa. In contrast, the~~
298 ~~relative humidity was overpredicted by about 10% at 850 hPa. Due to the influences of complex~~
299 ~~terrain on the lower atmosphere, most models show better results at higher levels (Zhuang et al.,~~
300 ~~2018; Anwar et al., 2019; Xie et al., 2019). Therefore, the simulations at 200 hPa are closer to the~~
301 ~~reanalysis data.~~

302 ~~The evaluations of surface O₃ and CO₂ in East Asia are shown in Table 2. Figures S5 and S6~~
303 ~~demonstrated that the model accurately reproduced the observed increase in surface CO₂ and O₃~~
304 ~~from 2015 to 2018, with high correlation coefficients ranging from 0.39 to 0.74 (Table 2). The~~
305 ~~model effectively captured the high concentrations of O₃ in major urban areas such as the NCP,~~
306 ~~the YRD, the PRD, the SCB, and the FWP, while also successfully reproducing the gradient in~~
307 ~~CO₂ concentrations between eastern and western China. However, the model slightly~~
308 ~~underpredicted MDA8 O₃ concentrations (-4.02 to -3.21 ppb) and overestimated CO₂ levels~~
309 ~~(3.32~7.07 ppm). These discrepancies are mainly attributed to uncertainties in the emissions~~
310 ~~inventory (Hong et al., 2017). Overall, the simulated meteorological factors and surface CO₂ and~~
311 ~~O₃ concentrations were deemed acceptable.~~

312 ~~The RegCM-Chem-YIBs model reality reproduced surface O₃ and CO₂ concentrations~~
313 ~~during the East Asia summer monsoon season, with high correlation coefficients (0.73 for O₃ and~~
314 ~~0.41 for CO₂). The overpredicted MDA8 O₃ (-1.73%) and CO₂ (-6.57%) were mainly driven by~~
315 ~~the uncertainty of the emissions inventory (Wang et al., 2014; Hong et al., 2017; Zhang et al.,~~
316 ~~2014). The normalized mean bias was 6.63% and 1.73%, respectively. Therefore, the simulated~~
317 ~~meteorological factors and surface O₃ and CO₂ were acceptable.~~

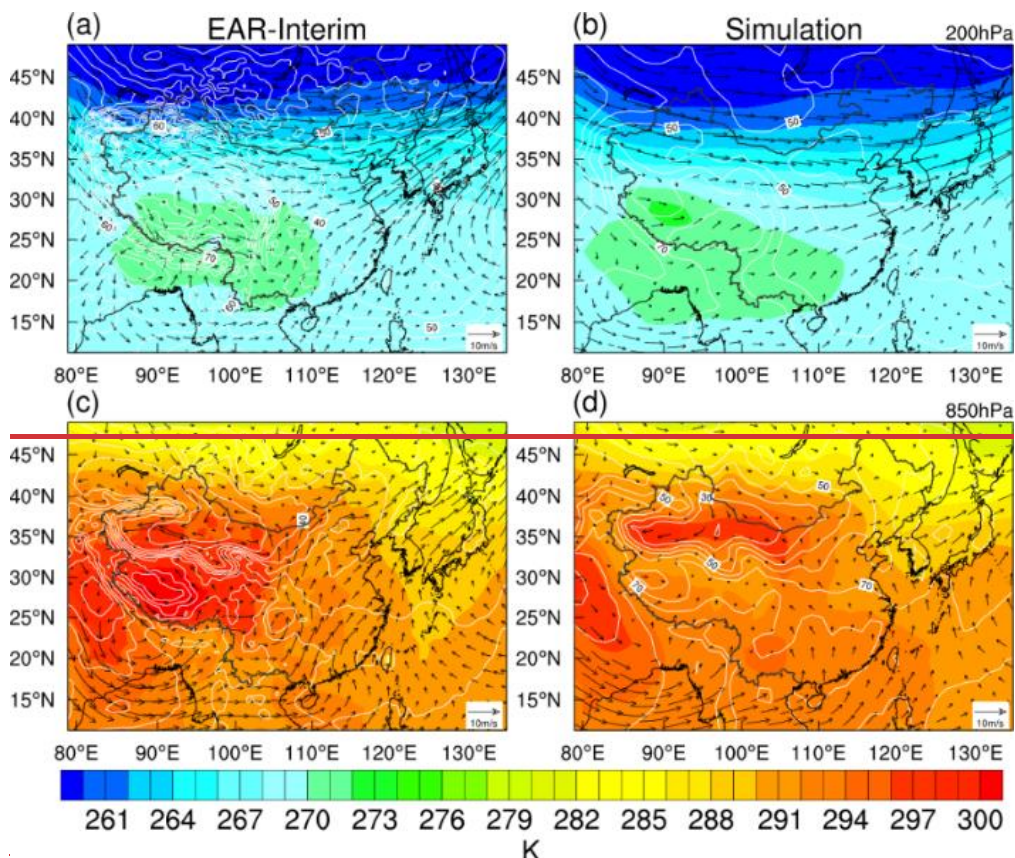


Figure 2. Comparisons between the simulated (a, c) and reanalysis (b, d) mean temperature (shading, units: K), wind (vectors, units: m/s), and relative humidity (contours, units: %) at 200 hPa (a, b) and 850 hPa (c, d).

Table 2. Evaluations of the surface CO₂ (units: ppm) and MDA8 O₃ (units: ppb) during the summer monsoon period in East Asia.

Species	OBS	SIM	MB	NMB (%)	RMSE	R
CO ₂ (ppm)	409.64	416.68	7.07	1.73	11.32	0.41
MDA8 O ₃ (ppb)	52.08	55.53	3.42	6.63	24.78	0.73
Species	Year	OBS	SIM	MB	RMSE	R
CO ₂ (ppm)	2015	402.82	406.98	4.16	9.37	0.44
	2016	407.12	410.44	3.32	8.22	0.69
	2017	408.35	413.62	5.27	11	0.39
	2018	409.61	416.68	7.07	11.32	0.41
MDA8 O ₃ (ppb)	2015	48.77	44.75	-4.02	29.39	0.57
	2016	50.16	46.95	-3.21	27.56	0.60
	2017	55.43	51.87	-3.56	21.55	0.74
	2018	55.53	52.08	-3.42	24.78	0.73

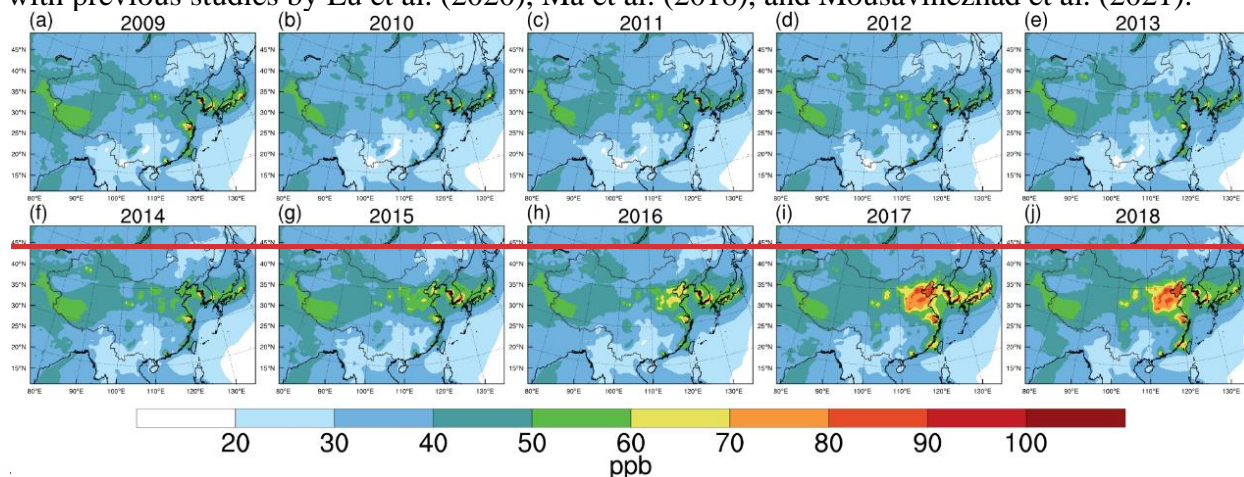
325 OBS: observation; SIM: simulation; MB: bias; NMB: normalized mean bias; RMSE: root mean square
 326 error; R: correlation coefficient. MDA8 O₃: the maximum daily 8-hour average O₃.

327 3.2 Ozone variation from 2008 to 2018

328 Figure S73 illustrates the mean seasonal MDA8 O₃ concentrations in East Asia during the
 329 summer monsoon period from 2008 to 2018. High O₃ concentrations appeared in eastern China,
 330 which can be attributed to increased emissions, high temperatures, humidities, and intense
 331 radiation in the region (Gao et al., 2020; Mousavinezhad et al., 2021; Wei et al., 2022). Surface
 332 O₃ increased annually in most of China between 2008 to 2018, with megacity clusters
 333 experiencing a more significant increase.

334 We conducted a regional analysis of surface O₃ increases in five target regions: the NCP,
 335 the YRD, the PRD, the SCB, and the FWP. In 2018, the surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations
 336 averaged 74 ppb in the NCP region, while the other areas had lower concentrations (ranging
 337 from 42 to 67 ppb in the FWP, YRD, PRD, and SCB). The lower surface O₃ levels in the SCB
 338 and FWP regions were attributed to lower anthropogenic emissions. The YRD and PRD regions
 339 were more affected by meteorological factors, with the East Asian summer monsoon bringing in
 340 cleaner air and precipitation from the sea, leading to lower air pollution concentrations (He et al.,
 341 2012). The spatial distribution and increasing trend of surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations in China
 342 were consistent with previous studies (Li et al., 2020; Shen et al., 2022).

343 Figure 24 and Table 3 illustrate the changes in surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations from 2009
 344 to 2018 relative to 2008. The surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations in China increased drastically
 345 over the past decade, particularly in 2017 and 2018 (6.79~32.03 ppb). We divided the period
 346 from 2009 to 2018 into two phases based on the Clean Air Action Plan implemented in 2013: the
 347 pre-governance period (PreG, 2009~2013) and the post-governance period (PostG, 2014~2018).
 348 Table 5 shows that the surface MDA8 O₃ concentration increased significantly in NCP (18.42 ppb-^{a+}
 349 ⁺), followed by SCB (11.21 ppb-^{a+}), FWP (10.9 ppb-^{a+}), and the YRD (10.07 ppb-^{a+}), while
 350 increased slightly in PRD (4.94 ppb-^{a+}), in PosG relative to 2008. Our results were consistent
 351 with previous studies by Lu et al. (2020), Ma et al. (2016), and Mousavinezhad et al. (2021).



352
 353 **Figure 3.** Simulated surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations in the summer monsoon period of 2009 (a), 2010
 354 (b), 2011 (c), 2012 (d), 2013 (e), 2014 (f), 2015 (g), 2016 (h), 2017 (i) and 2018 (j).

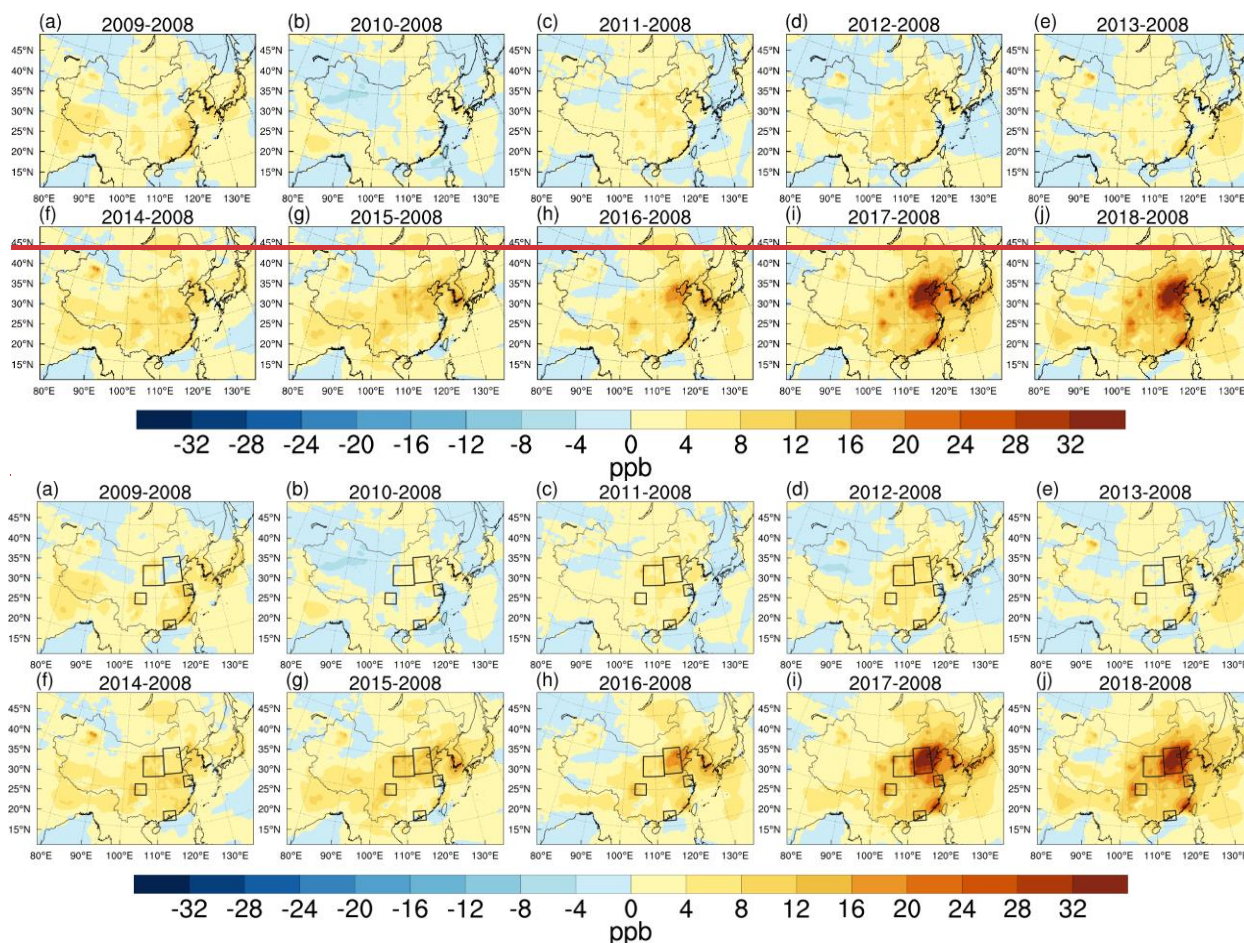


Figure 24. Changes in the surface MDA8 O₃ concentrations (units: ppb) during the summer monsoon period from 2009 (a), 2010 (b), 2011 (c), 2012 (d), 2013 (e), 2014 (f), 2015 (g), 2016 (h), 2017 (i) and 2018 (j) relative to 2008.

Table 3. The changes of MDA8 O₃ over North China Plain, Fenwei Plain, Yangtze River Delta, Pearl River Delta, and Sichuan Basin during the summer monsoon period from 2009 to 2018 relative to 2008.

Regions	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	PreG	PostG
NCP	0.14	2.85	4.53	6.13	2.7	4.78	10.1	14.25	30.92	32.03	3.27	18.42
FWP	3.23	1.78	5.01	6.78	1.37	7.9	10.5	6.24	13.71	16.17	3.63	10.90
YRD	8.33	1.47	1.46	0.5	3.12	6.04	3.46	7.09	17.64	16.12	2.98	10.07
PRD	5.76	-0.26	2.56	5.13	-0.4	3.82	1.46	3.16	9.45	6.79	2.56	4.94
SCB	4.92	1.03	3.46	5	3.94	8.54	9.27	9.78	13.67	14.8	3.67	11.21

3.3 The effect of meteorology in 2008~2018 ozone increase

Overall, the meteorological variations from 2008 to 2018 were unfavorable for O₃ increase during the EASM period, as illustrated in Figure 3. The meteorological factors were generally unfavorable to O₃ formation during the study period (Fig. 5).

Based on Figure 3 and Table 4, it is evident that meteorological conditions had a significant impact on surface MDA8 O₃ in the NCP and FWP regions during the PostG period (-0.09~-0.04 ppb-a⁻¹) compared to the PreG period (-1.41~-0.88 ppb-a⁻¹). In the SCB region, the impact of

371 meteorological fields was relatively weak (-0.41~0.71 ppb-a⁻¹), attributed to the basin topography
372 and stable atmospheric conditions. However, in the eastern and southeastern coastal areas of
373 China, due to the significant influence of the EASM, the impact of meteorological conditions
374 may be more critical than that of anthropogenic emissions. For instance, in the YRD and PRD
375 regions, meteorological conditions significantly changed O₃ levels (-1.29~1.3 ppb-a⁻¹) compared
376 to anthropogenic emissions (0.81~0.87 ppb-a⁻¹) in 2013, indicating the significant influence of
377 meteorological conditions on surface O₃.

378 Our findings are consistent with previous studies. Liu and Wang (2020a) reported a decrease
379 in O₃ in Shanghai from 2013 to 2017 due to changes in meteorological conditions. Chen et al.
380 (2019) and Liu and Wang (2020a) also suggested that altered meteorological conditions had a
381 negative impact on O₃ formation in the NCP and FWP regions, and that the influence of
382 meteorology on surface-level O₃ decreased in PostG.~~indicated meteorology factors are~~
383 ~~unfavorable to O₃ formation in NCP and FWP, and the influence of meteorology on surface O₃~~
384 ~~decreased in PostG.~~ In addition, Cheng et al. (2019) found that the effects of meteorological
385 conditions on long-term O₃ variations were less than 3%, which is similar to our study.

386 As we know, the formation of surface O₃ is promoted by rising temperatures (Steiner et al.,
387 2010). However, increased surface temperatures can also intensify turbulence within the
388 planetary boundary layer (PBL), increasing PBL height (Guo et al., 2016). This increase in PBL
389 height, coupled with the enhanced upward motion, can transport near-surface pollutants to the
390 upper atmosphere, reducing their concentration in the lower atmosphere (Gao et al., 2016).
391 Additionally, the upward motion can also facilitate cloud formation and precipitation, resulting in
392 a reduction of near-surface atmospheric pollutants via precipitation washout (Yoo et al., 2014).

393 We have improved the accuracy of O₃ photodissociation rate calculations by including
394 varying AOD and SSA in the TUV module, as described in Section 2.3.2. As a result, the
395 increase in cloud cover reduced the shortwave radiation flux and photochemical formation rates
396 of near-surface O₃, leading to decreased formation. Thus, the increase in near-surface
397 temperature is often accompanied by an elevation in PBL height, enhanced cloud cover,
398 precipitation, and reduced shortwave radiation. Moreover, higher wind speeds can enhance the
399 dispersion of O₃ (Gorai et al., 2015).

400 The variations of MDA8 O₃, precipitation, clouds, shortwave flux (SWF), wind speed,
401 temperature, and PBL height are presented individually in Figure 46. The increase in SWF can
402 accelerate O₃ formation through photochemistry (Jiang et al., 2012; Lelieveld and Crutzen, 1990).
403 Therefore, the increased cloud fraction reduced surface O₃ by decreasing shortwave radiation,
404 especially in NCP, FWP, YRD, and SCB in the PreG period (-10.63~-1.6 W/m²). Furthermore,
405 the enhanced precipitation in these regions (0.37~1.81 mm/day) reduced surface O₃ levels
406 significantly. The significant increase in wind speed (0.17~0.26 m/s) also contributed to the
407 reduction of surface O₃ in the NCP region (Table 4).

408 Another crucial factor is the elevated surface temperature (0~5 K), which intensified
409 upward motion and raised the planetary boundary layer (PBL) height (0~500 m) across much of
410 East Asia. Consequently, the increased temperature and PBL height could disperse surface-level
411 O₃, thereby reducing its concentration.

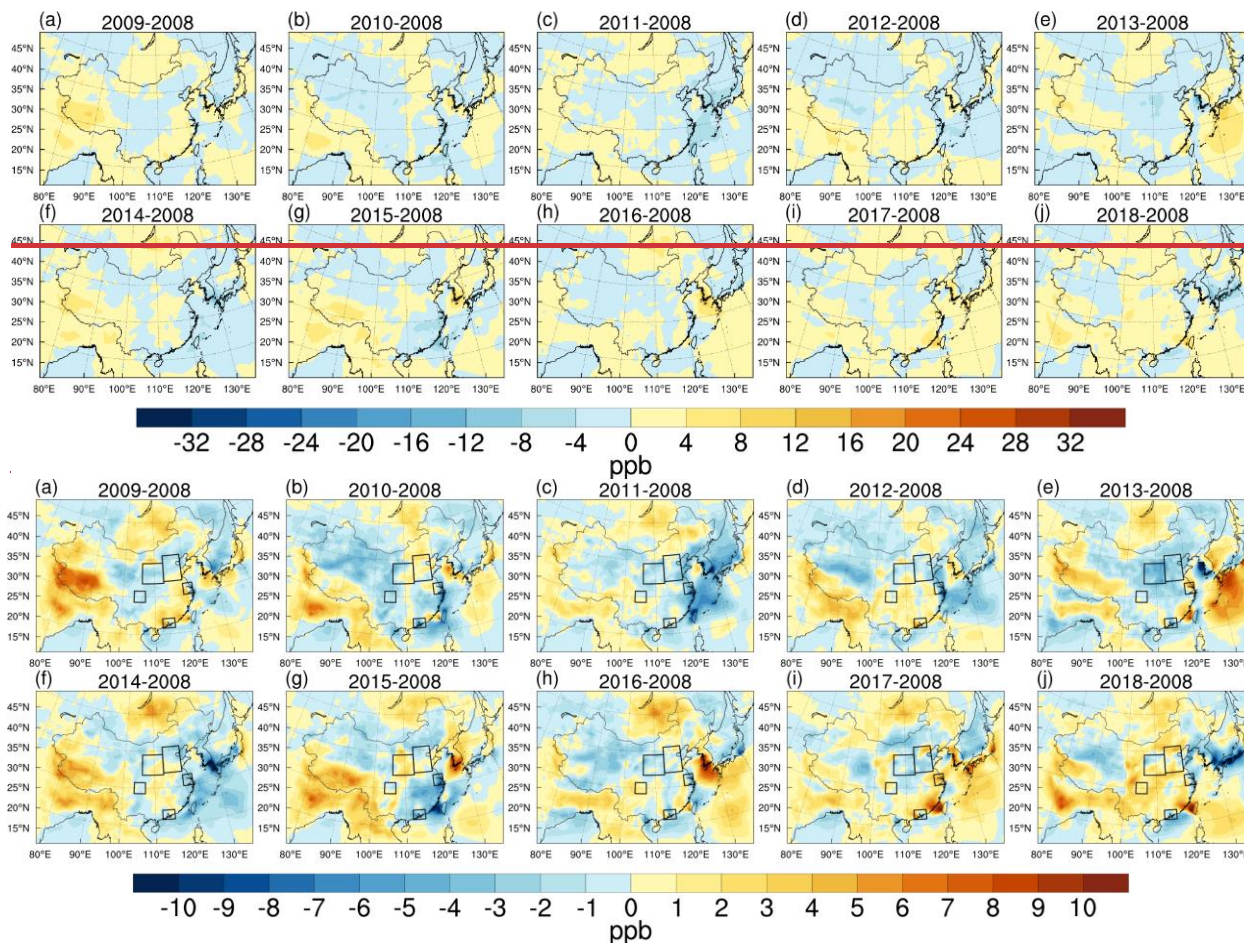
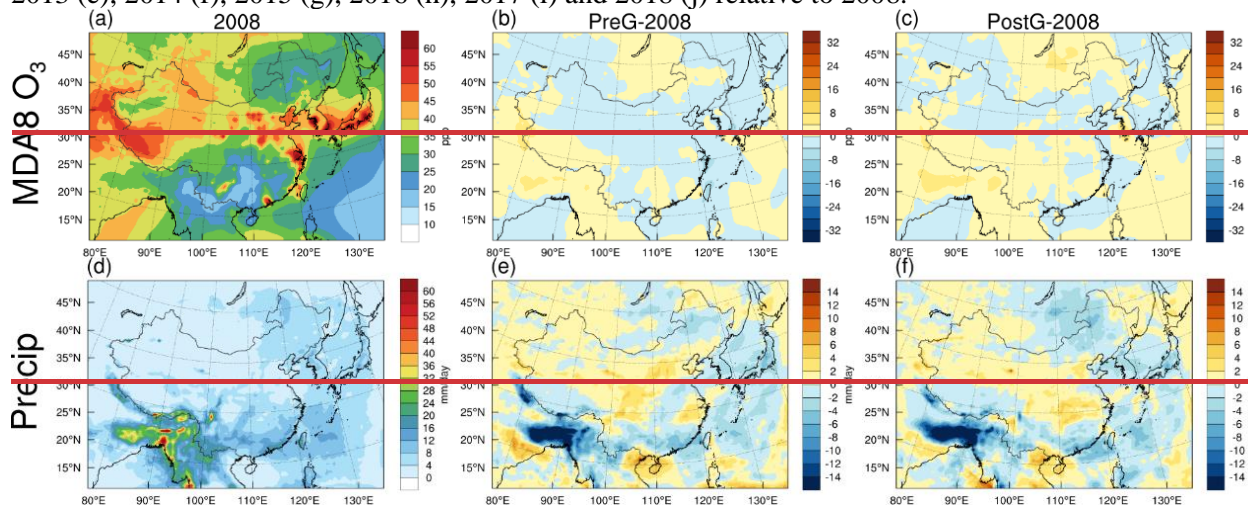
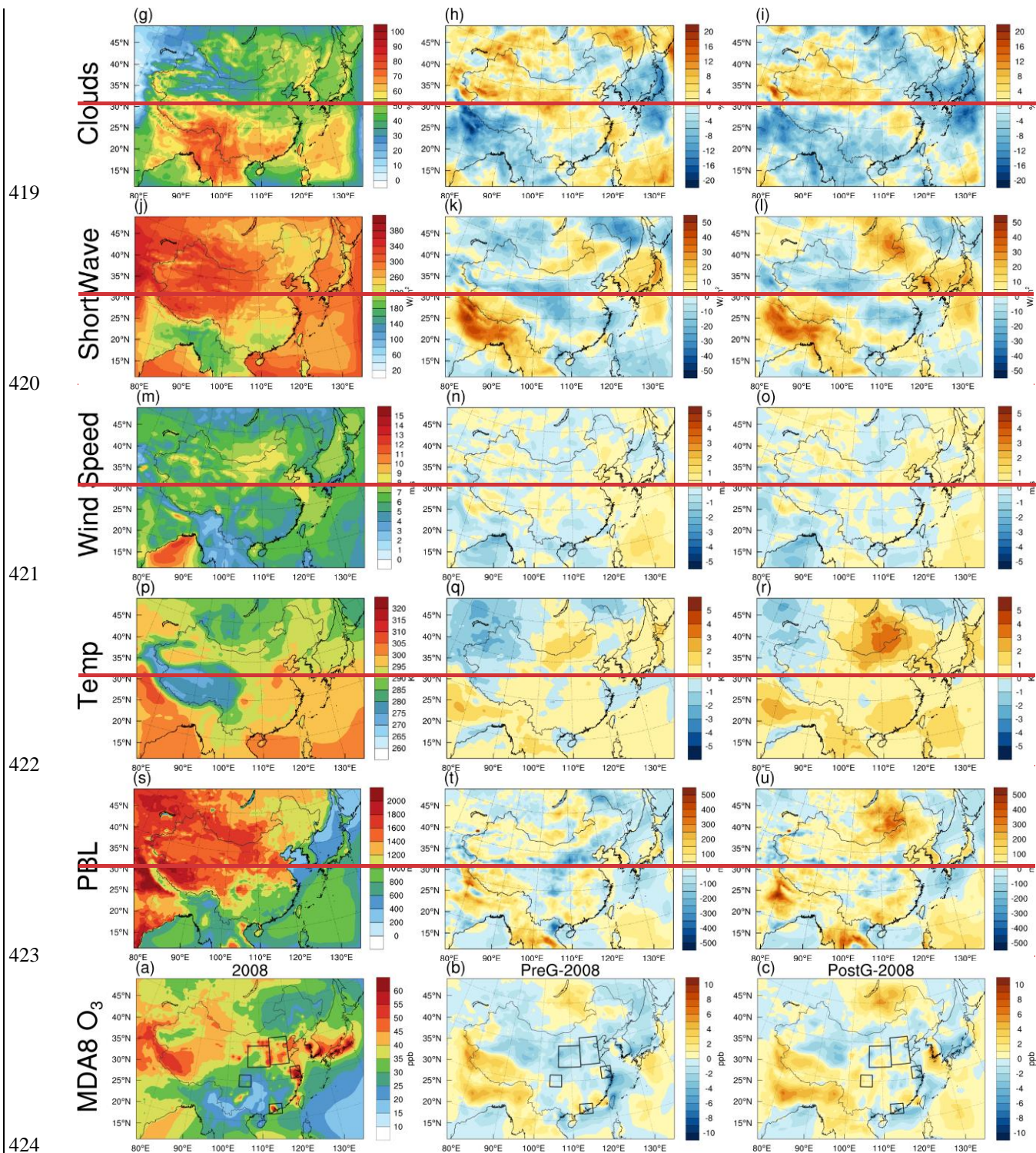


Figure 35. The responds of the surface MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb) to variations in meteorological conditions during the summer monsoon period in 2009 (a), 2010 (b), 2011 (c), 2012 (d), 2013 (e), 2014 (f), 2015 (g), 2016 (h), 2017 (i) and 2018 (j) relative to 2008.





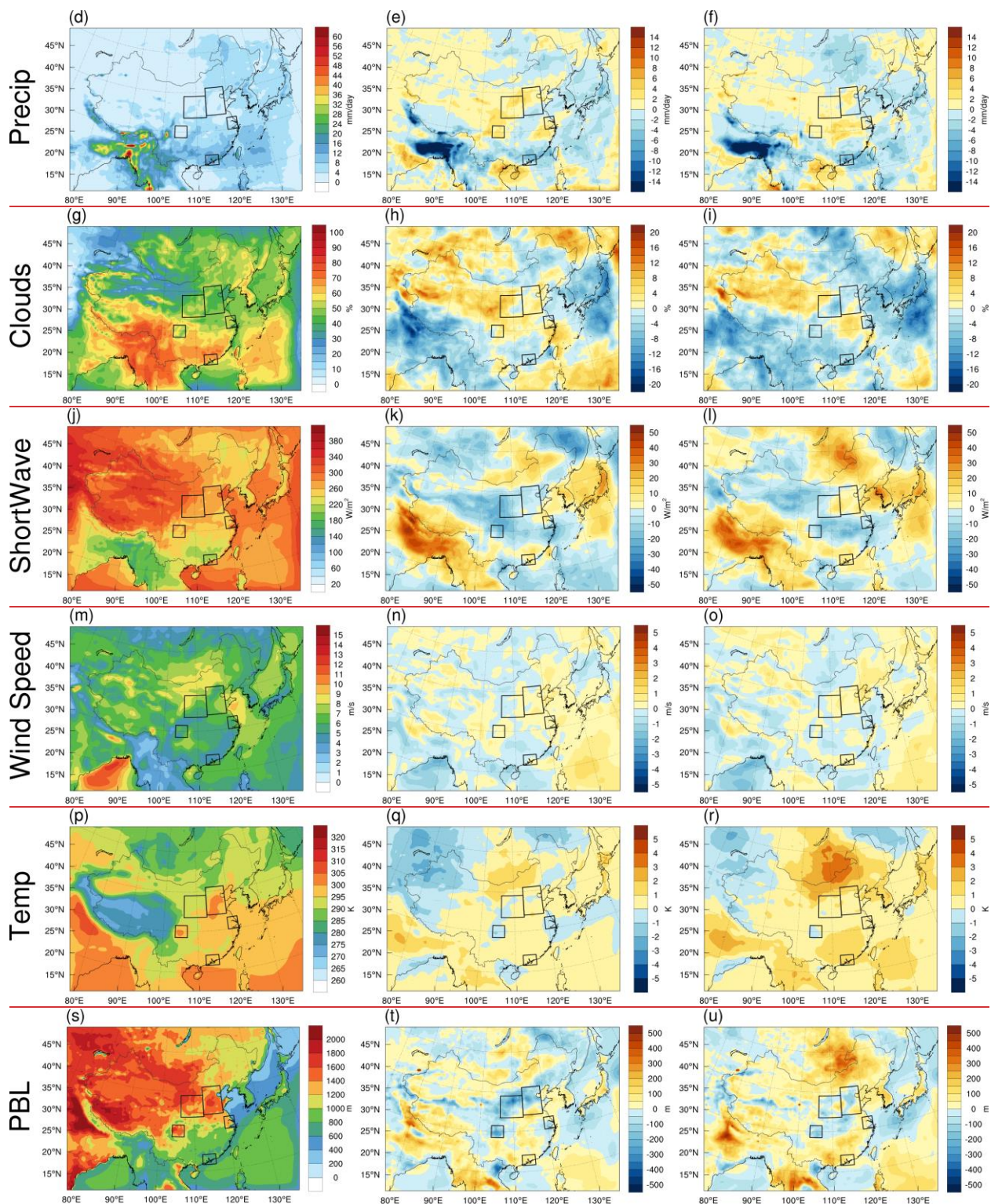


Figure 46. The MDA8 O₃ (a~c, units: ppb), precipitation (d~f, units: mm/day), clouds (g~i, units: %), shortwave flux (j~l, units: W/m²), wind speed (m~o, units: m/s), temperature (p~r, units: K), and planetary boundary layer height (s~u, units: m) during the summer monsoon period in 2008 from the base simulations (the left column) and their responses due to variations in meteorological conditions in PreG (2009~2013, the central column) and PostG (2014~2018, the right column) relative to 2008.

436
 437 **Table 43.** Response of the MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb), precipitations (units: mm/day), clouds
 438 fraction (units: %), shortwave flux (units: W/m²), wind speed (units: m/s), temperature (units: K), and
 439 planetary boundary layer height (units: m) to the changes in meteorological conditions over North China
 440 Plain, Fenwei Plain, Yangtze River Delta, Pearl River Delta, and Sichuan Basin during the summer
 441 monsoon period in PreG (2009~2013) and PostG (2014~2018) relative to 2008.

Regions	Period	MDA8 O ₃ (ppb)	Precip (mm/day)	Clouds (%)	SWF (W/m ²)	Wind Speed (m/s)	Temp (K)	PBL (m)
NCP	PreG	-0.88	0.58	1.33	-3.04	0.17	0.32	-46.8
	PostG	-0.04	0.6	-0.93	3.06	0.26	0.6	-14.5
FWP	PreG	-1.41	1.68	2.86	-10.63	-0.06	0.1	-108.5
	PostG	-0.09	0.81	-0.94	-0.81	0.05	0.46	-15.3
YRD	PreG	-1.03	1.02	1.07	-1.6	0.18	-0.29	-33.9
	PostG	-0.96	0.48	-1.18	-4.85	-0.08	0.45	21.9
PRD	PreG	-0.23	-2.39	-1.93	2.24	-0.02	0.36	29.6
	PostG	-1.08	-3.24	-3.98	5.37	0.18	1.00	52.2
SCB	PreG	-0.41	1.81	0.59	-8.8	0.13	-0.58	-136.5
	PostG	0.71	0.37	-2.23	-3.2	-0.03	-0.14	-76

442 3.4 The effect of CO₂ in 2008~2018 ozone increase

443 The surface O₃ in southern China, which includes the YRD, PRD, and SCB regions, was
 444 characterized by high precipitation, temperatures, and vegetation cover, and was significantly
 445 impacted by CO₂ (Figure 5). Figures 6e and f demonstrate a marked rise in CO₂ levels across
 446 East Asia, particularly in eastern China, which was attributable to extensive human activity.

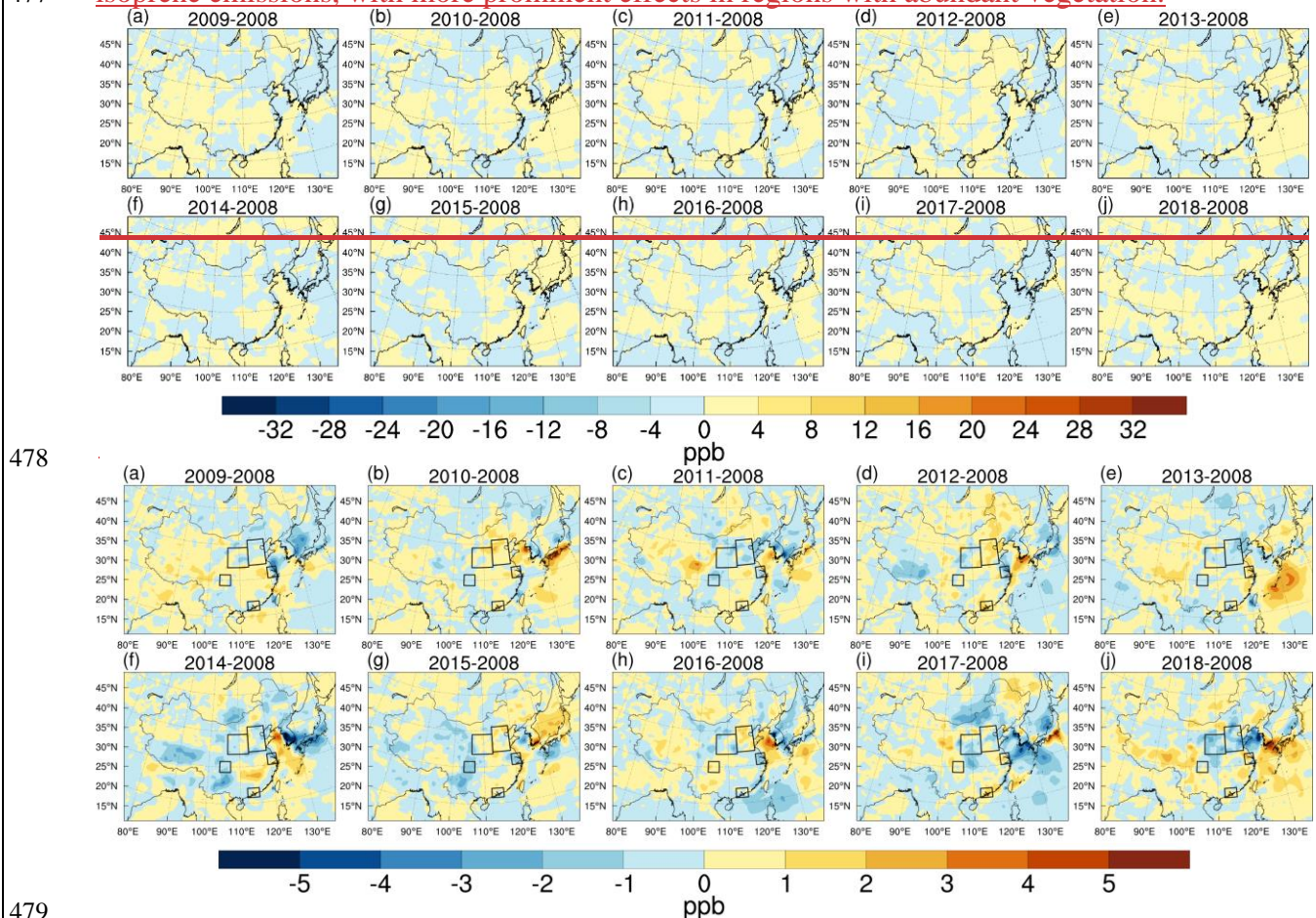
447 CO₂ is a significant driver of climate change and alterations in biogenic emissions. As
 448 shown in Figures 6 b and c, the impact of CO₂ on O₃ levels varies across locations, with a
 449 positive effect of 0.28~0.46 ppb along the southeastern coast of China but a negative influence of
 450 -0.51 to -0.11 ppb in the southwest and central China. CO₂ affects O₃ concentration by
 451 influencing both precipitation and isoprene emissions. In western and central China, CO₂
 452 primarily affects O₃ concentration through its impact on precipitation (Table 5). Elevated CO₂
 453 concentrations lead to increased precipitation (0.06~0.64 mm/day) in the FWP and SCB regions,
 454 resulting in a decrease in surface O₃ (up to -0.51 ppb). In eastern and southern coastal China,
 455 where vegetation is abundant, CO₂ has a greater impact on isoprene emissions. In the YRD
 456 region, decreased isoprene (-0.58 to -0.32 μg/m³) and increased precipitations (0.09~0.13
 457 mm/day) reduced MDA8 O₃ levels (0.09~0.14 ppb). In PRD, increased isoprene levels
 458 (0.31~0.92 μg/m³) and decreased precipitations (-1.02~-0.33 mm/day) led to the enhancement of
 459 MDA8 O₃ (0.28~0.46 ppb).

460 ~~And that was going to vary the surface O₃ concentrations. For instance, precipitation~~
 461 ~~increased by 0.06 to 0.64 mm/day in the NCP, FWP, YRD, and SCB, where surface O₃ was~~
 462 ~~reduced. In contrast, on the southeast coast of China (PRD), reduced precipitation accelerated the~~
 463 ~~accumulation of MDA8 O₃ (0.28 to 0.46 ppb a⁻¹).~~

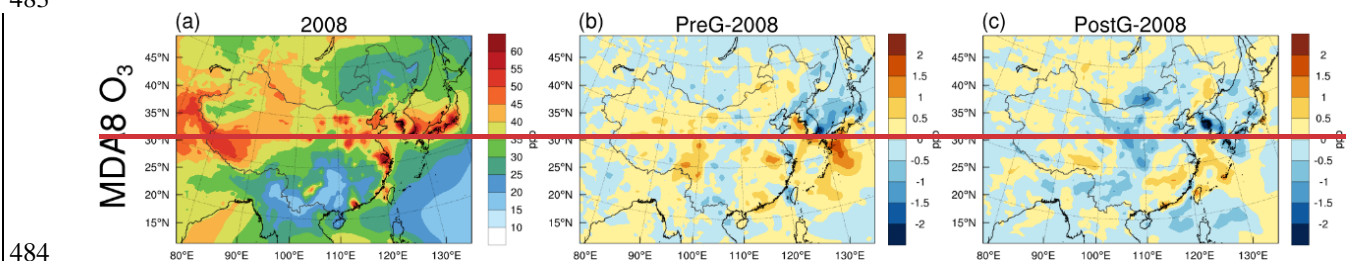
464 ~~In the YRD region, the surface MDA8 O₃ was reduced (0.09–0.14 ppb a⁻¹), which attributed~~
 465 ~~to the decreased isoprene. In contrast, the isoprene was increased by the elevated CO₂~~
 466 ~~concentrations on the southeast coast of China and then promoted the formation of surface O₃ (1–~~
 467 ~~3 ppb) (Figure 8 b and c). In PRD, for example, the increased isoprene (0.31–0.92 μg/m³ a⁻¹)~~

468 contributed to MDA8 O₃-enhanced 0.28 to 0.46 ppb a⁻¹. Due to the lower temperature and
 469 vegetation cover, surface O₃ was insensitive to air CO₂ in the NCP.

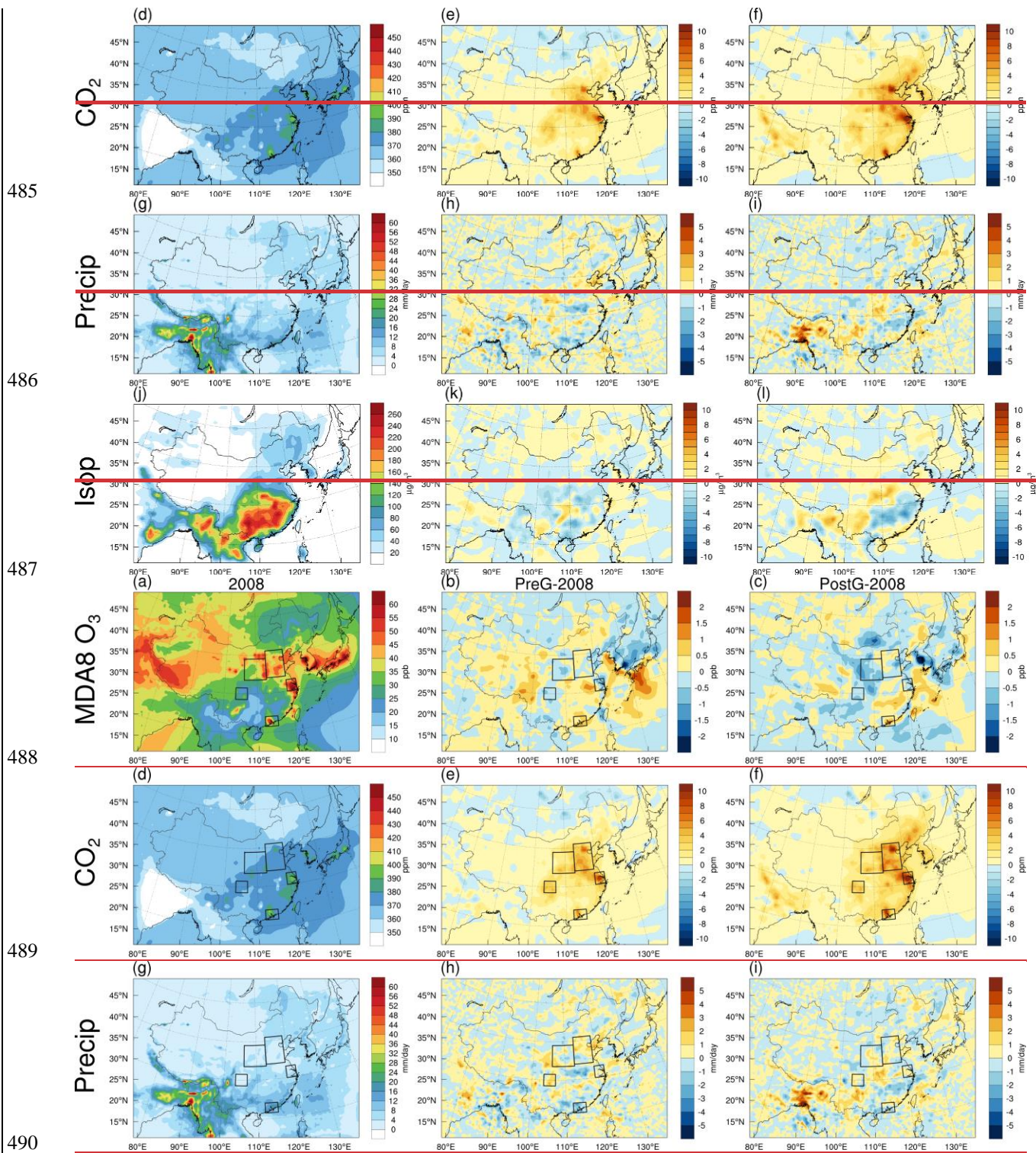
470 In some years, the impact of changed CO₂ can be as significant as or even surpass that of
 471 anthropogenic emissions and meteorology (Figure 10). For example, in 2013, CO₂ caused an
 472 increase of 0.95 ppb in MDA8 O₃ in the YRD region, which exceeded that of anthropogenic
 473 emissions (0.87 ppb). Similarly, in the PRD region in 2012, the effect of CO₂, anthropogenic
 474 emissions, and meteorology was 1.41, 1.77, and 1.95 ppb, respectively. Even in the NCP in 2010,
 475 the impact of CO₂ (0.75 ppb) was comparable to that of anthropogenic emissions (1.5 ppb). In
 476 summary, CO₂ has a significant impact on surface O₃ concentrations by influencing radiation and
 477 isoprene emissions, with more prominent effects in regions with abundant vegetation.



479 **Figure 57.** Simulated responses of surface MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb) to the variations in CO₂
 480 emissions during the summer monsoon period in 2009 (a), 2010 (b), 2011 (c), 2012 (d), 2013 (e), 2014
 481 (f), 2015 (g), 2016 (h), 2017 (i) and 2018 (j) relative to 2008.



484 **Figure 58.** Simulated responses of surface MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb) to the variations in CO₂ emissions during the summer monsoon period in 2008 (a), PreG-2008 (b) and PostG-2008 (c).



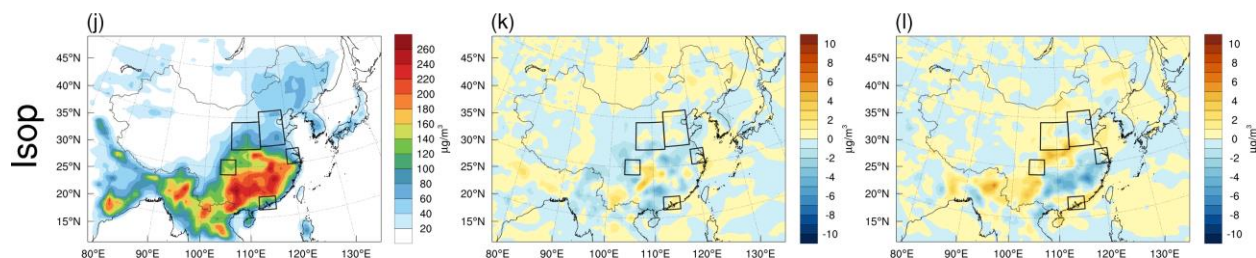


Figure 68. The simulated averaged MDA8 O₃ (a~c, units: ppb), CO₂ (d~f, units: ppm), precipitation (g~i, units: mm/day), and isoprene mixing ratios (j~l, units: µg/m³) in 2008 from the base simulations (the left column) and their changes due to variations in CO₂ emissions in PreG (2009~2013, the central column) and PostG (2014~2018, the right column) relative to 2008.

Table 54. Simulated responses of MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb), CO₂ mixing ratios (units: ppm), precipitations (units: mm/day), and isoprene mixing ratios to the changes in CO₂ emissions over North China Plain, Fenwei Plain, Yangtze River Delta, Pearl River Delta, and Sichuan Basin in PreG (2009~2013) and PostG (2014~2018) relative to 2008.

Regions	Period	MDA8 O ₃ (ppb)	CO ₂ (ppm)	Precipitation (mm/day)	Isoprene (µg/m ³)
NCP	PreG	0.07	3.19	0.27	-0.1
	PostG	-0.05	4.24	0.13	0.26
FWP	PreG	-0.11	1.70	0.21	-0.16
	PostG	-0.51	2.05	0.06	0.33
YRD	PreG	-0.09	4.1	0.13	-0.32
	PostG	-0.14	6.2	0.09	-0.58
PRD	PreG	0.46	1.97	-1.02	0.31
	PostG	0.28	3.20	-0.33	0.92
SCB	PreG	-0.30	2.80	0.64	-0.78
	PostG	-0.30	2.78	0.21	0.69

3.5 The effect of anthropogenic emission in 2008~2018 ozone increase

Finally, we calculated the anthropogenic emissions' effect on the 2008~2018 O₃ increase. [Figure S8 and Table S1](#) illustrate that the levels of PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, SO₂, CO, and OC emissions remained consistently high during the PreG period. However, a linear decrease in emissions was observed after the implementation of the Clean Air Action Plan in 2013. Prior to 2013, the emission of VOCs increased steadily but subsequently stabilized. Similarly, the emission of nitrogen oxides (NO_x) exhibited an upward trend before 2013, but since then, the emissions have shown a linear decrease, with each subsequent year exhibiting lower levels of NO_x emissions. In comparison to other species, the emissions of ammonia (NH₃) remained relatively stable from 2008 to 2018. Our analysis results of the emissions of different species align with those of [Zheng et al. \(2018\)](#), who computed the changes of each species in the MEIC inventory from 2010 to 2017.

Figure 7 illustrates that anthropogenic emissions have caused a notable increase in surface O₃ levels across most of China, particularly in megacity clusters. The impact of anthropogenic emissions on O₃ concentration ranged from 2.33 to 18.51 ppb in the five target regions.

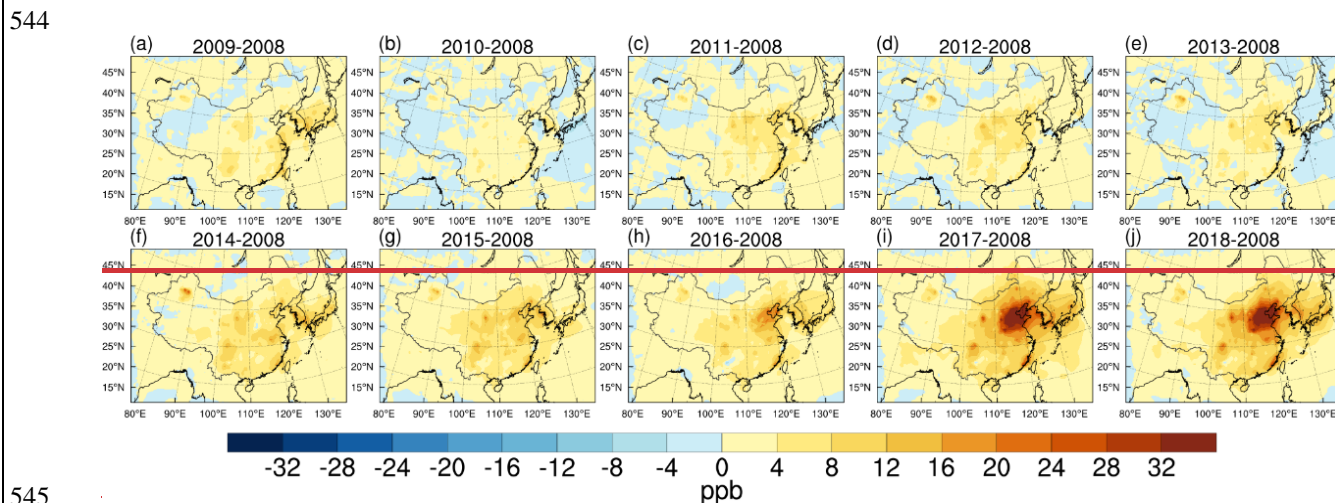
Figure 8 and Table 6 illustrate that the changes in surface O₃ caused by anthropogenic emissions are similar in magnitude and spatial distribution to the changes in the base experiment. This suggests that anthropogenic emissions were the dominant factor driving the increase of surface O₃ in China from 2008 to 2018. Notably, a high-impact center of anthropogenic

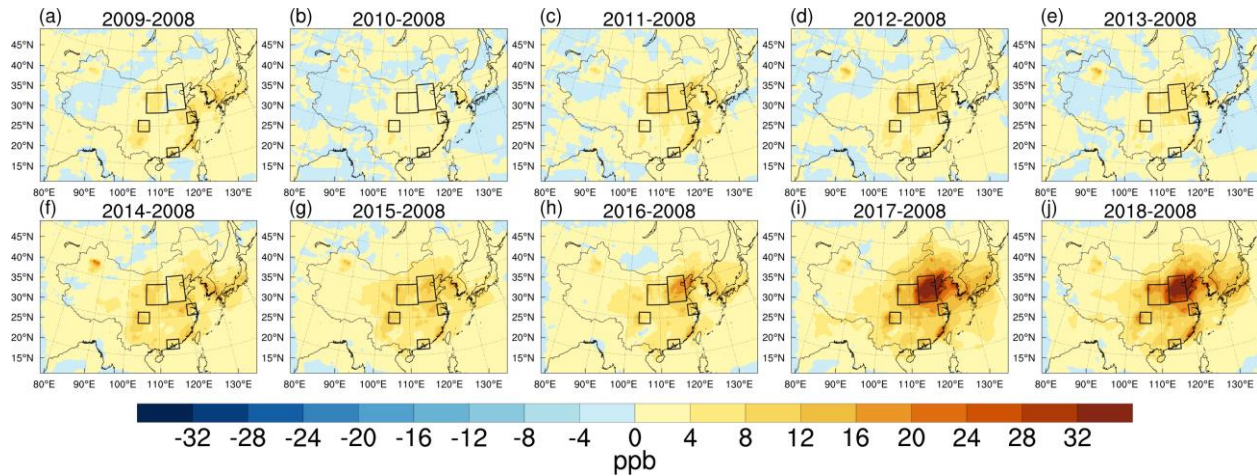
519 emissions was simulated in North China, with the NCP region experiencing the most significant
 520 increase in surface O_3 (4.08~18.51 ppb), followed by the FWP, YRD, and SCB regions
 521 (4.10~11.5 ppb). In the PRD region, anthropogenic emissions led to a slight enhancement of O_3
 522 by 2.33~5.74 ppb~~The O_3 was enhanced by 2.33–5.74 ppb a^{-1} in the PRD region due to the slight~~
 523 ~~increase in air O_3 concentration.~~

524 The role of anthropogenic emissions increased linearly from 2008 to 2018, despite the
 525 implementation of the Clean Air Action Plan in 2013 (Table 6). For example, anthropogenic
 526 emissions significantly increased surface MDA8 O_3 in the NCP region (4.08 ppb a^{-1} in PreG and
 527 18.51 ppb a^{-1} in PostG). Similarly, FWP experienced increases of 5.15 and 11.5 ppb a^{-1} in the
 528 PreG and PostG periods, respectively. In the SCB region, the surface MDA8 O_3 was mainly
 529 affected by variations in anthropogenic emissions due to the high levels of anthropogenic
 530 emissions in the complex basin topography. In the YRD and PRD regions, anthropogenic
 531 emissions resulted in changes to O_3 of 2.56~10.07 ppb a^{-1} .

532 The reasons for this characteristic are multiple~~ied~~. Before 2013, the continuous increase in
 533 VOCs and NO_x emissions (Figure S8 b, c) facilitated the rise of O_3 levels. Following the
 534 implementation of the Clean Air Action Plan in 2013, the emissions of VOCs and NO_x were
 535 regulated. However, with the decrease in $PM_{2.5}$ levels, direct radiation increased, and scattered
 536 radiation decreased (Figure 9), thereby promoting the photochemical formation of O_3 ~~After~~
 537 ~~aerosol reduction, the elevated photochemical formation rate significantly elevated surface O_3~~
 538 ~~level, especially in the PostG period~~ (Bian et al., 2007). In addition, t~~The reduced NO emission~~
 539 ~~weakened the titration effect (Figure S8 b), thus increasing surface O_3 (Li et al., 2022).~~

540 Our results are consistent with previous studies by Wang et al. (2019b) and Liu and Wang
 541 (2020b), which also showed the dominant and almost linear role of anthropogenic emissions in
 542 the increase of O_3 from 2013 to 2015 in four major Chinese cities (Beijing, Shanghai,
 543 Guangzhou, and Chengdu).

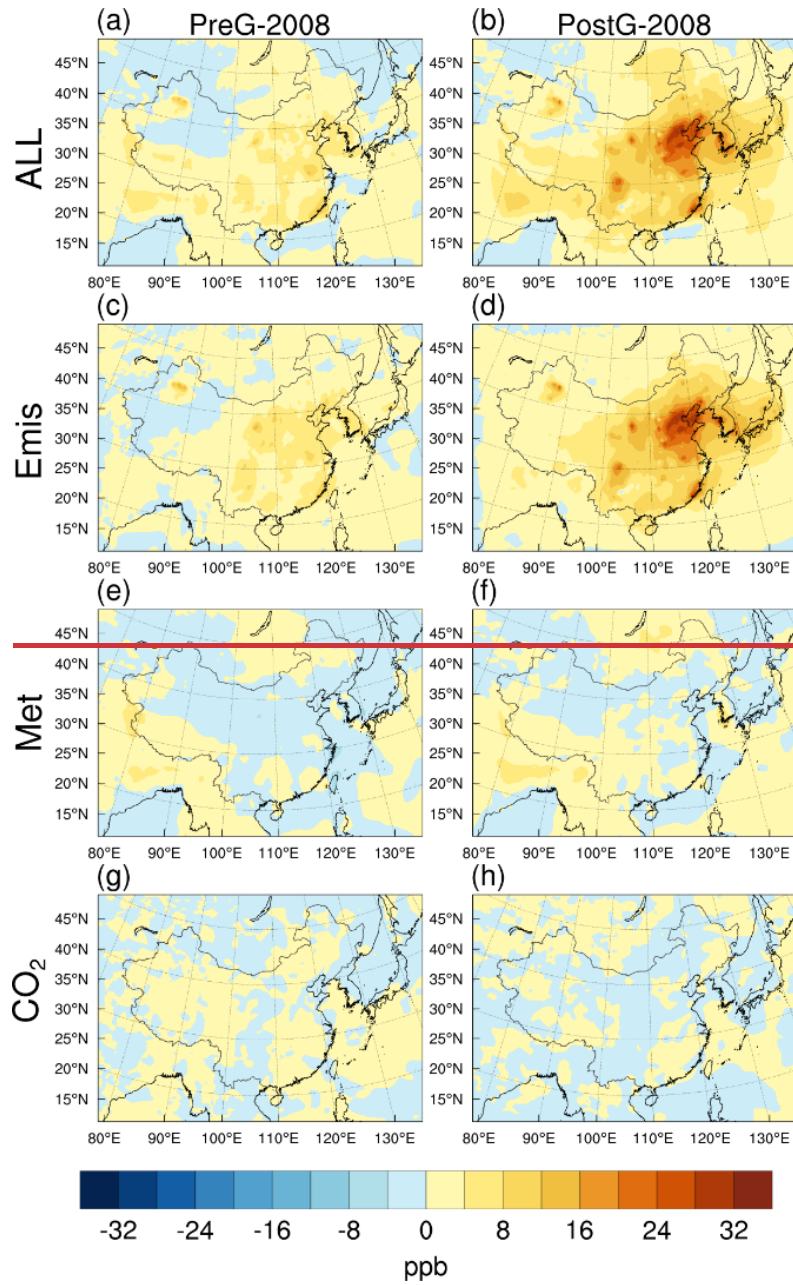


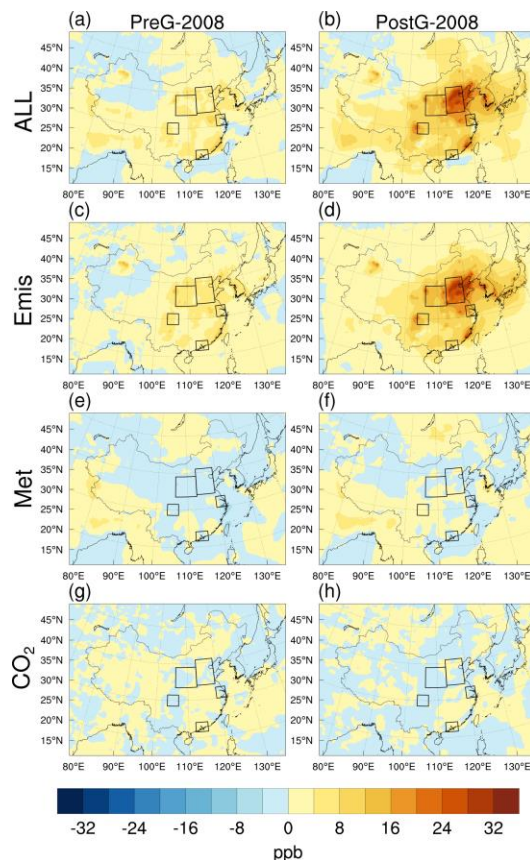


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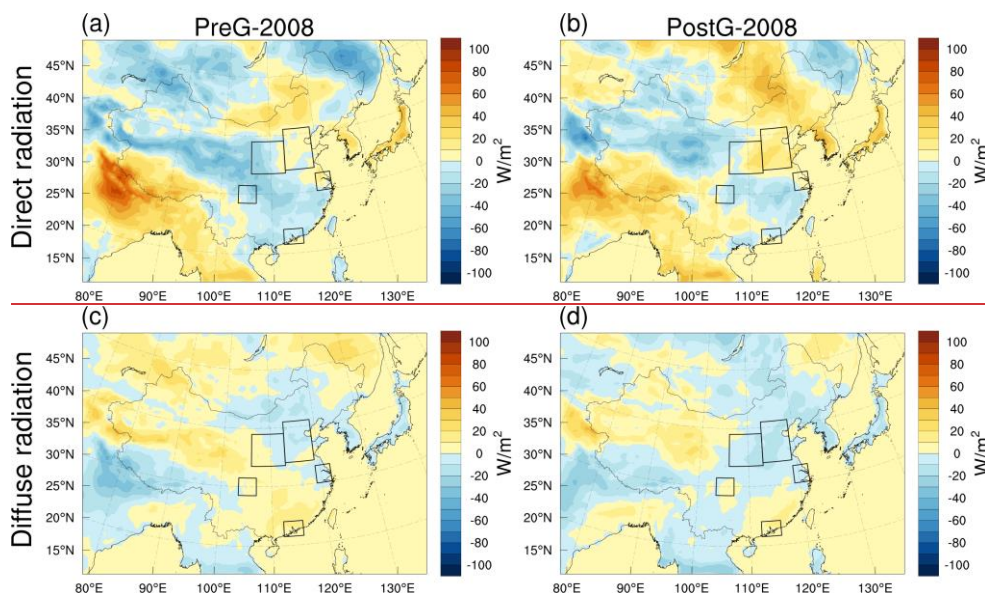
547 **Figure 79.** Simulated responses of the surface MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb) to variations in
548 anthropogenic emissions in 2009 (a), 2010 (b), 2011 (c), 2012 (d), 2013 (e), 2014 (f), 2015 (g), 2016 (h),
549 2017 (i) and 2018 (j) relative to 2008.

550





552
 553 **Figure 810.** Changes in the simulated surface MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb) from the base
 554 simulation (All, a,b); those due to variations in anthropogenic emissions (Emis, c,d), meteorological
 555 conditions (Met, e,f), and CO₂ emissions (CO₂, g,h) in PreG (2009~2013, the left column) and PostG
 556 (2014~2018, the right column) relative to 2008.



558
 559 **Figure 9.** The variations of the surface direct radiation (a,b, units: W/m²) and diffuse radiation (c,d, units:
 560 W/m²) in the PreG (2009~2013, a,c) and PostG (2014~2018, b,d) period relative to 2008.
 561
 562

563
 564 **Table 65.** Simulated response of the MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb) to the changes in anthropogenic
 565 emissions (Emis), meteorological conditions (Met), and CO₂ emissions (CO₂) over North China Plain,
 566 Fenwei Plain, Yangtze River Delta, Pearl River Delta, and Sichuan Basin in PreG (2009~2013) and PostG
 567 (2014~2018) relative to 2008.

Regions	Period	ALL (ppb)	Emis (ppb)	Met (ppb)	CO ₂ (ppb)
NCP	PreG	3.27	4.08	-0.88	0.07
	PostG	18.42	18.51	-0.04	-0.05
FWP	PreG	3.63	5.15	-1.41	-0.11
	PostG	10.9	11.5	-0.09	-0.51
YRD	PreG	2.98	4.10	-1.03	-0.09
	PostG	10.07	11.17	-0.96	-0.14
PRD	PreG	2.56	2.33	-0.23	0.46
	PostG	4.94	5.74	-1.08	0.28
SCB	PreG	3.67	4.38	-0.41	-0.30
	PostG	11.21	10.80	0.71	-0.30

568
 569 3.6 Attribution analysis of ozone changes in 2008~2018
 570 Finally, we presented an attribution diagram depicting the changes in O₃ concentration from
 571 2008 to 2018. The total variation in O₃ concentration can be attributed to the combined effects of
 572 meteorological changes, changes in CO₂ concentration, and anthropogenic emissions (Figure 10).

573 The primary driver of the O₃ concentration variation from 2008 to 2018 was the changes in
 574 anthropogenic emissions, particularly in regions with high emissions, such as the NCP and FWP.
 575 Although the Clean Air Action Plan was implemented in 2013, it did not reduce the contribution
 576 of anthropogenic emissions to the O₃ increase. Even in the PostG period, with the development
 577 of urbanization and industrialization, the impact of changed anthropogenic emissions on O₃ has
 578 gradually become more prominent than changed meteorology and CO₂. The contribution of
 579 changed meteorology to O₃ was generally negative in the five regions, with a more significant
 580 impact in the YRD and PRD regions. This may be attributed to their proximity to the ocean and
 581 susceptibility to the summer monsoon influence. Changes in CO₂ concentration affected O₃
 582 concentration by altering radiation and isoprene emissions, with a more significant impact in the
 583 YRD and PRD regions where vegetation was abundant. In some years, it even surpassed the
 584 effects of anthropogenic emissions. Therefore, we suggest that the influence of CO₂
 585 concentration changes on O₃ concentration should be considered in regions with high vegetation
 586 coverage.

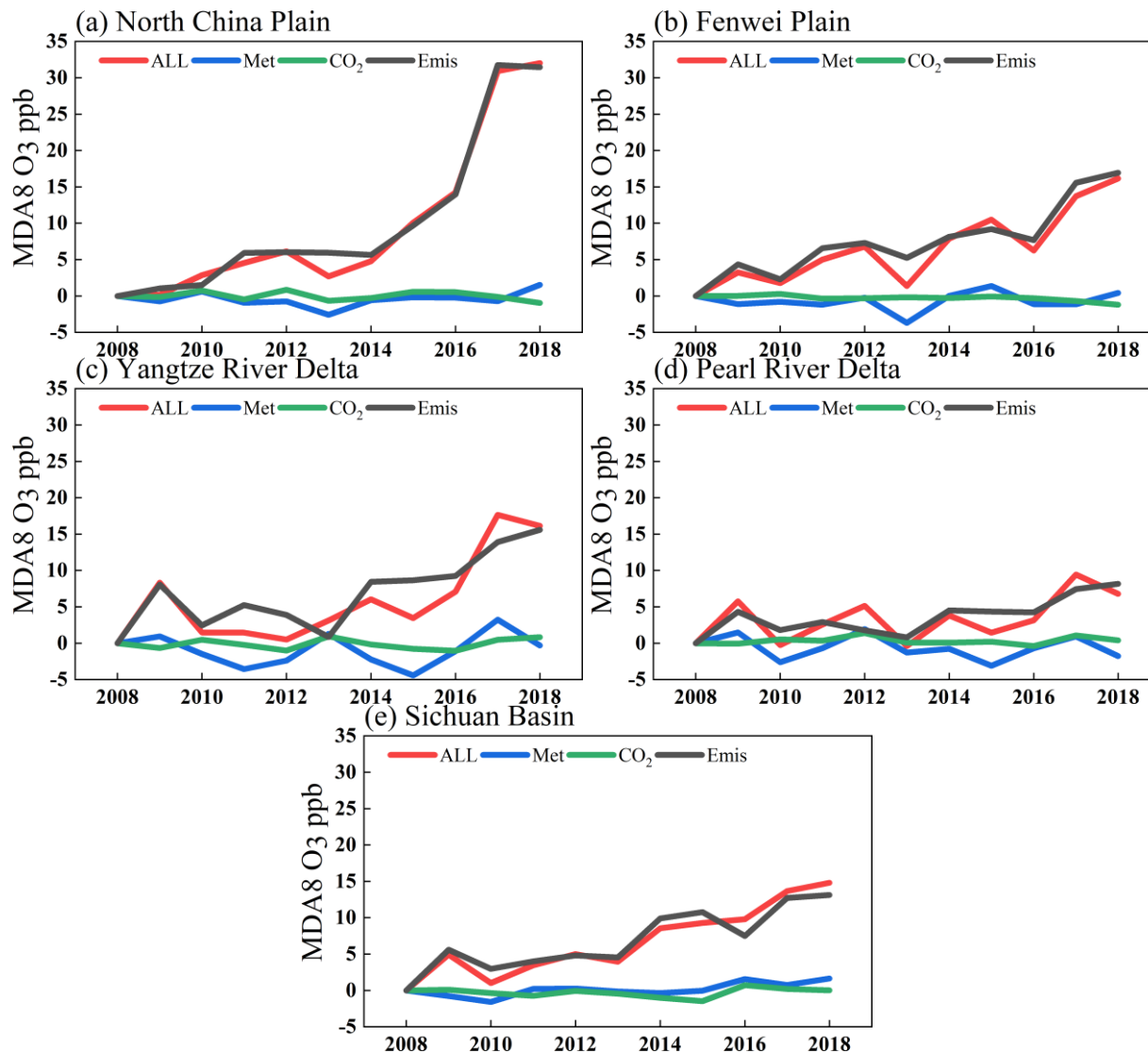


Figure 101. Interannual variations of the surface MDA8 O₃ mixing ratios (units: ppb) in the summer monsoon period (ALL) and the responses of variations in anthropogenic emissions (Emis), meteorological conditions (Met), and CO₂ emissions (CO₂) in (a) North China Plain, (b) Fenwei Plain, (c) Yangtze River Delta, (d) Pearl River Delta, and (e) Sichuan Basin in 2008~2018 relative to 2008.

~~In this work, the boundary conditions are kept consistent in base and sensitivity studies. We ignore the influence of boundary conditions on ozone due to the following reasons. First, in general, the regional model was coupled with the global model to get a more realistic influence from the boundary. However, for long term climate chemistry modeling, such coupling means a large computing resource. Second, the boundary conditions were derived from global models (Liu et al., 2017; Ban et al., 2014) and have to be prescribed in sensitive experiments. Third, fixed boundary conditions are widely used in some O₃ studies in China (Liu and Wang, 2020a, b; Wang et al., 2019b). Regional emissions are the major contributors of surface O₃ in China, accounting for 80% from May to August (Lu et al., 2019). Therefore, the uncertainty of fixed boundary conditions can be ignored at the current stage.~~

4 Conclusions

In this study. First, we improved the RegCM-Chem-YIBs model regarding the photolysis of O₃ and the radiation effect of CO₂ and O₃. Second, we assessed the impacts of anthropogenic

607 emissions, meteorological factors, and CO₂ on the surface O₃ increase in China during the
608 EASM season from 2008 to 2018.

609 In the NCP and FWP regions. The increased surface O₃ (4.08~5.15 ppb- α^+ in PreG and
610 11.5~18.51 ppb- α^+ in PostG) was primarily attributed to the changes in anthropogenic emissions.
611 Furthermore, the impact of anthropogenic emissions has increased linearly, despite the Clean Air
612 Action Plan being implemented in 2013. In contrast, the effects of meteorological factors and
613 CO₂ on O₃ were weak during the study period.

614 In the YRD and PRD regions. Ignoring the principal contributions of anthropogenic
615 emissions, CO₂ significantly impacted the O₃ variations (-0.14~0.46 ppb- α^+). The varied CO₂ led
616 to surface MDA8 O₃ changes of -0.09~-0.14 ppb α^+ -in the YRD and 0.28~0.46 ppb α^+ -in the
617 PRD by modulating the isoprene emissions and precipitations. On the other hand, the
618 meteorological conditions played a more significant role in surface O₃ than in NCP, FWP, and
619 SCB regions, resulting in a decrease in MDA8 O₃ from 2008 to 2018 (-4.42~3.25 ppb- α^+).

620 In the SCB region. The increase in surface O₃ from 2008 to 2018 was primarily driven by
621 variations in anthropogenic emissions. The effect of meteorological conditions was weak due to
622 the high level of emissions and basin topography. However, the changes in CO₂ significantly
623 impacted surface O₃ levels and were unfavorable to O₃ formation during the study period (-3.0
624 ppb α^+ -in PreG and PostG).

625 In conclusion, anthropogenic emissions dominated the O₃ increase in China from 2008 to
626 2018, and the effects of meteorological conditions on surface O₃ could be more significant in
627 some regions. Furthermore, we emphasize the significance of CO₂ emissions, particularly in
628 southern China, as a critical contributor to O₃ variations. Therefore, it is vital to consider CO₂
629 variability in future predictions of O₃ concentrations. Such consideration would be helpful for
630 designing long-term O₃ control policies.

631

632

633 **Data availability**

634 ERA-Interim data are available at <https://apps.ecmwf.int/datasets/data/interim-full-daily/>.

635 MEICv1.3 data are available at http://meicmodel.org/?page_id=560. CarbonTracker data are

636 available at <https://gml.noaa.gov/aftp/products/carbontracker/co2/CT2019/>. OISST data are

637 available at <https://downloads.psl.noaa.gov/Datasets/noaa.oisst.v2/>. WDCGG CO₂ data are

638 available at https://gaw.kishou.go.jp/search/gas_species/co2/latest/. CNEMC data are available

639 at <http://www.cnemc.cn/>. only available in Chinese, last access 1 May 2022.

640

641 **Author contributions**

642 **DM:** performed experiments; **TW:** designed the overall research; **HW, YQ, JL, JaL, and**
643 **SL** reviewed and edited the manuscript; **BL, ML, and MX** contributed to the development of the
644 RegCM-Chem-YIBs model.

645

646 **Competing interests:**

647 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

648

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