



## Understanding of regional air pollution over China using CMAQ, part II. Process analysis and sensitivity of ozone and particulate matter to precursor emissions

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### ABSTRACT

Following model evaluation in part I, this part II paper focuses on the process analysis and chemical regime analysis for the formation of ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter less than or equal to 10 μm (PM<sub>10</sub>) in China. The process analysis results show that horizontal transport is the main contributor to the accumulation of O<sub>3</sub> in Jan., Apr., and Oct., and gas-phase chemistry and vertical transport contribute to the production and accumulation of O<sub>3</sub> in Jul. Removal pathways of O<sub>3</sub> include vertical and horizontal transport, gas-phase chemistry, and cloud processes, depending on locations and seasons. PM<sub>10</sub> is mainly produced by primary emissions and aerosol processes and removed by horizontal transport. Cloud processes could either decrease or increase PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations, depending on locations and seasons. Among all indicators examined, the ratio of P<sub>HNO<sub>3</sub></sub>/P<sub>H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub> provides the most robust indicator for O<sub>3</sub> chemistry, indicating a VOC-limited O<sub>3</sub> chemistry over most of the eastern China in Jan., NO<sub>x</sub>-limited in Jul., and either VOC- or NO<sub>x</sub>-limited in Apr. and Oct. O<sub>3</sub> chemistry is NO<sub>x</sub>-limited in most central and western China and VOC-limited in major cities throughout the year. The adjusted gas ratio, AdjGR, indicates that PM formation in the eastern China is most sensitive to the emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> and may be more sensitive to emission reductions in NO<sub>x</sub> than in NH<sub>3</sub>. These results are fairly consistent with the responses of O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> to the reductions of their precursor emissions predicted from sensitivity simulations. A 50% reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> or AVOC emissions leads to a reduction of O<sub>3</sub> over the eastern China. Unlike the reduction of emissions of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> that leads to a decrease in PM<sub>10</sub>, a 50% reduction of AVOC emissions increases PM<sub>10</sub> levels. Such results indicate the complexity of O<sub>3</sub> and PM chemistry and a need for an integrated, region-specific emission control strategy with seasonal variations to effectively control both O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> pollution in China.

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### 1. Introduction

As a result of a fast economic development in China, increasingly high anthropogenic emissions of nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>), sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>), and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) lead to the multi-pollutant pollution with high concentrations of ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) and particulate matter with aerodynamic diameters less than or

equal to 10 μm (PM<sub>10</sub>) (Zhang et al., 1998; Xu et al., 2006). Three-dimensional (3-D) air quality models provide a fundamental tool to simulate the linkages among meteorology, emissions, and air pollution. Understanding of such linkages and the formation mechanism of major pollutants such as O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> is critical to air quality management and climate change mitigation due to their important chemical and climatic impacts. Such linkages and mechanisms are often complex, involving various chemical and physical processes and multiphase reactions; therefore they rely on detailed process analyses using advanced tools such as the process analysis (PA) tool embedded in 3-D air quality models. PA in the U.S. EPA Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) is a tool that calculates

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integrated rate and mass changes of a reaction and a process, thereby providing valuable information to the development of the effective emission control strategies. Process analysis has been widely applied to study the fate and formation of gaseous and PM pollutants (e.g., Jang et al., 1995; Jiang et al., 2003; Hogrefe et al., 2005; Kwok et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2005, 2009a; Kimura et al., 2008; Gonçalves et al., 2008; Tonse et al., 2008; Xu et al., 2008; Yu et al., 2009; Liu et al., in review).

A number of photochemical indicators have been developed to indicate the sensitivity of  $O_3$  to changes in its precursors' emissions to assess the effectiveness of VOCs or  $NO_x$  emission controls in reducing  $O_3$  (e.g., Sillman, 1995; Tonnesen and Dennis, 2000a,b; Zhang et al., 2009a). One of the indicators, i.e., the ratio of the production of hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) and nitrate acid ( $HNO_3$ ), can be determined through the PA tool. In this Part II paper, the PA tool embedded in CMAQ is used to identify the most influential processes and chemical reactions that lead to the formation and accumulation of surface  $O_3$ ,  $PM_{10}$ , and components of  $PM_{10}$  such as  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^-$ , and SOA in China in Jan., Apr., Jul., and Oct. 2008. The PA products (e.g., odd oxygen production, OH chain length) provide the characteristics of spatial and seasonal variations of the total oxidation capacity over China. The ratios of  $P_{H_2O_2}/P_{HNO_3}$  combined with several other photochemical indicators are used to indicate the  $NO_x$  vs. VOC-limited  $O_3$  chemistry in China, which is further verified through sensitivity simulations. Several indicators for PM chemistry and additional sensitivity simulations with different emission reduction scenarios are used to examine the sensitivity of PM formation to changes in its precursor emissions. Such information provides useful perspectives for the development of local and regional emission control strategies and/or assessing their effectiveness over space and time in China.

## 2. Methodology for process analysis

PA embedded in CMAQ includes the Integrated Process Rates (IPR) that can identify dominant physical processes for  $O_3$  and  $PM_{10}$  and the Integrated Reaction Rates (IRR) that can determine the most influential reactions for their precursors in the gas phase and the chemical regime for  $O_3$  chemistry. Hourly IPRs for 33 species and IRRs for 187 gas-phase reactions in the 2005 Carbon Bond Mechanism (CB05) are calculated in the 4-month simulations at 36-km. The hourly IPRs are analyzed for major pollutants in the planetary boundary layer (PBL) ( $\sim 0$ –2.9 km, corresponding to layers 1–10) to examine the relative importance of major atmospheric processes such as the emissions of primary species, horizontal transport, vertical transport, gas-phase chemistry, dry deposition, cloud processes, and aerosol processes. Horizontal transport is the sum of horizontal advection and diffusion, and vertical transport is the sum of vertical advection and diffusion. Aerosol processes represent the net effect of aerosol thermodynamics, new particle formation, condensation of sulfuric acid and organic carbon on preexisting particles, and coagulation within and between Aitken and accumulation modes of PM. Cloud processes represent the net effect of cloud attenuation of photolytic rates, aqueous-phase chemistry, below- and in-cloud mixing with chemical species, cloud scavenging, and wet deposition. The IPR results for  $O_3$ ,  $PM_{10}$ ,  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^-$ , and SOA are analyzed at 8 sites including 5 urban sites (Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, Chengdu, and Jinan), 1 mountain site (Mt. Tai located in the North China Plain), 1 rural site (Xiaoping), and 1 background site (Waliguan). The main characteristics of these sites are described in the [Supplementary information](#). The IRRs of 187 reactions are grouped into 34 products according to the reactions for radical initiation, propagation, production, and termination (see Table 1 in Zhang et al., 2009b). The grouping is based on the method used for CBM-IV in CMAQ (Byun and Ching, 1999) but modified for CB05 in this work.

In this paper, the chemical production of total odd oxygen (Total-OxProd) (where  $O_x = O_3 + \text{nitrogen dioxide (NO}_2) + 2 \times \text{nitrogen trioxide (NO}_3) + \text{oxygen atom (O)} + \text{excited-state oxygen atom (O}^1\text{D)} + \text{peroxyacyl nitrate (PAN)} + 3 \times \text{dinitrogen pentoxide (N}_2\text{O}_5) + \text{nitric acid (HNO}_3) + \text{pernitric acid (HNO}_4) + \text{unknown organic nitrate}$ ) that influences tropospheric oxidation capacity is examined. The chain length of hydroxyl radical (OH) (OH\_CL) is the average number of times a newly-created OH radical will be recreated through radical chain propagation before it can be removed from the cycle (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006). OH\_CL provides a measure of an overall oxidation efficiency of the atmosphere (Zhang et al., 2009a). The ratio of production rates of hydrogen peroxide ( $H_2O_2$ ) and nitric acid ( $HNO_3$ ) ( $P_{HNO_3}/P_{H_2O_2}$ ) from the IRR results (where  $P_{HNO_3}$  is the sum of  $HNO_3$  production via reactions  $OH + NO_2$ ,  $NO_3 + HC$ , and  $N_2O_5$  hydrolysis) is used to decide the VOC- or  $NO_x$ -limited nature of  $O_3$  chemistry at a given site during different seasons and whether the model is correctly predicting the responses of  $O_3$  to VOC and/or  $NO_x$  emission controls. In addition to  $P_{HNO_3}/P_{H_2O_2}$  from IRR output, several additional indicator species are calculated to determine  $O_3$  chemistry. These include  $NO_y$ , the ratios of  $H_2O_2/HNO_3$ ,  $H_2O_2/(O_3 + HNO_3)$ ,  $O_3/NO_x$ ,  $O_3/NO_y$ ,  $HCHO/NO_2$  and  $HCHO/NO_y$  (Lu and Chang, 1998; Sillman, 1995; Sillman et al., 1997; Sillman and He, 2002; Zhang et al., 2009a,b). Three indicators: the degree of sulfate neutralization (DSN), gas ratio (GR), and adjusted gas ratio (AdjGR) are used to determine the sensitivity of PM formation. Their definitions and theoretical basis for both  $O_3$  and PM chemistry indicators are provided in Table 2 in Zhang et al. (2009b) and references therein.

## 3. Results from process analysis

### 3.1. Analyses of Integrated Process Rates (IPR) in the PBL

Figs. 1 and 2 show the daily-mean hourly contributions of individual processes averaged in the PBL to the concentrations of  $O_3$  and  $PM_{10}$ , respectively, at 3 sites: Beijing, Guangzhou, and Mt. Tai. Horizontal transport plays a dominant role in the accumulation of  $O_3$  in Jan., Apr., and Oct., and gas-phase chemistry and vertical transport contribute to the production and accumulation of  $O_3$  in Jul. at all sites.  $O_3$  at Beijing is vented out of the PBL mainly through vertical transport and destroyed via NO titration in Jan., Apr., and Oct. and vented out via horizontal transport in Jul.  $O_3$  at Guangzhou is mainly destroyed via NO titration in Jan., Apr., and Oct. and vented out through both horizontal and vertical transport in Jul. At Mt. Tai, the main processes contributing to  $O_3$  loss may include vertical transport and gas-phase chemistry in Jan. and Apr. and horizontal transport and cloud processes in Jul. and Oct.

Local primary emissions or emissions from upwind areas are the dominant contributor to  $PM_{10}$  concentrations at all urban and mountain sites in all months (Fig. 2). A higher contribution of primary emissions at Guangzhou indicates that  $PM_{10}$  is composed mainly of primary PM at Guangzhou, which is different from that at the other two sites where both primary and secondary PM are important components.  $PM_{10}$  can be formed via aerosol processes such as homogeneous nucleation and condensation at all sites in all months except during some days in Jan. and Apr. at Guangzhou where NaCl is neutralized by large amounts of  $HNO_3$  to release  $Cl^-$  from the particulate phase to the gas phase, causing a net loss of PM mass due to this gas/aerosol re-partitioning process. While cloud processes can increase  $PM_{10}$  formation due to the aqueous-phase oxidation of  $SO_2$  during most days in Guangzhou in Jan. and Apr., they can also lead to a decrease in  $PM_{10}$  formation on some days at Guangzhou and other sites due to a dominance of cloud scavenging. Horizontal transport provides the main sink for  $PM_{10}$  at all sites in all months. Vertical transport may either serve as a sink or a source for  $PM_{10}$  accumulation.

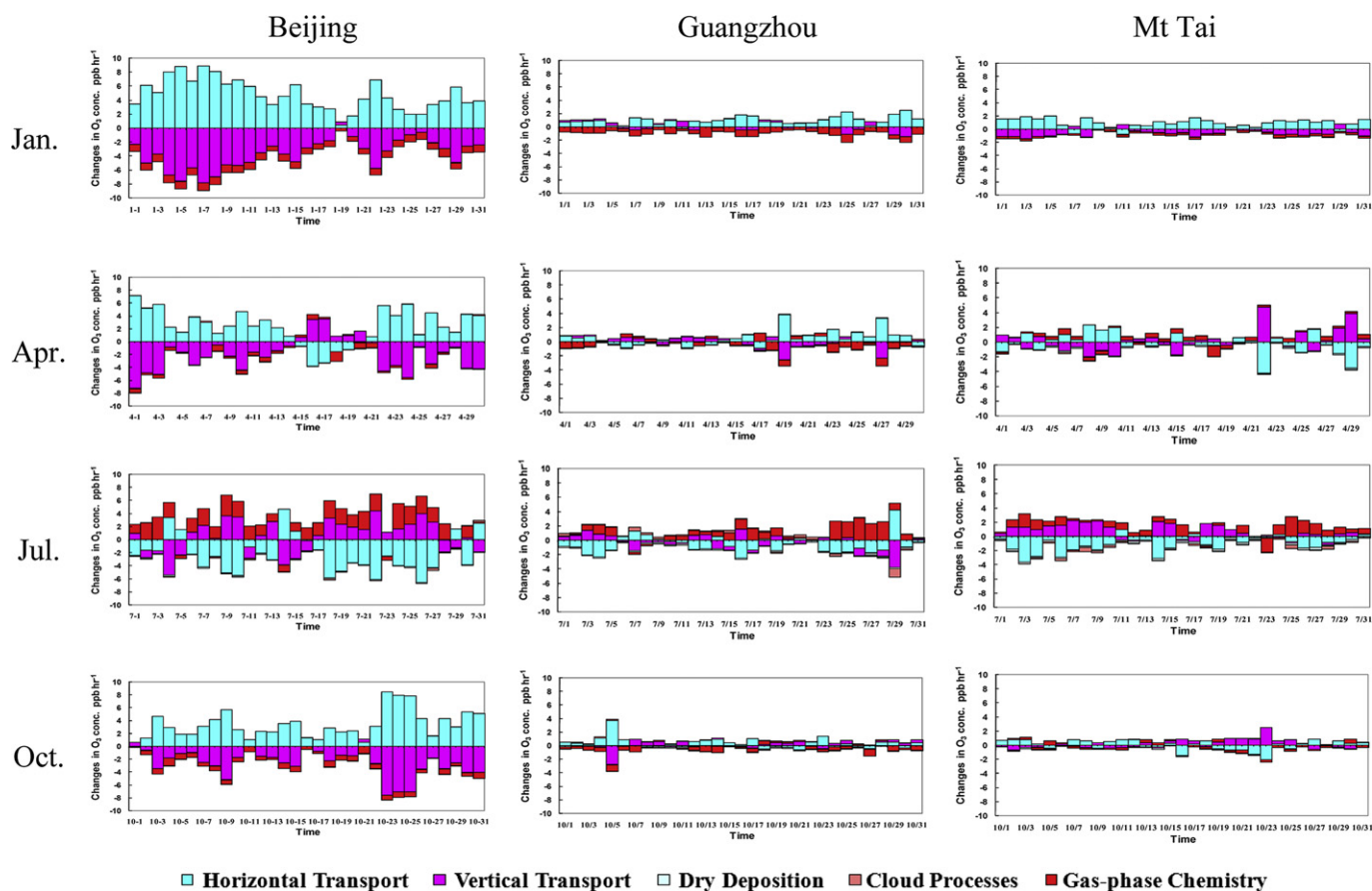


Fig. 1. Daily-mean hourly contributions of individual processes to the mixing ratios of  $O_3$  in the PBL (0–2.9 km) at 3 sites (Beijing, Guangzhou, and Mt. Tai) in China in 2008.

Secondary aerosols are an important contributor to regional haze in China. Figures S-1–S-3 show daily-mean contributions of individual chemical and physical processes to  $SO_4^{2-}$ ,  $NO_3^-$ , and SOA, respectively, at the 3 sites. The main processes contributing to the production/accumulation of  $SO_4^{2-}$  include cloud processes and emissions at Guangzhou in all months, cloud and aerosol processes at Mt. Tai in all months and at Beijing in Apr. and Jul., and emissions and horizontal transport at Beijing in Jan. and Oct. Horizontal transport is the dominant processes contributing to the depletion of  $SO_4^{2-}$  at Guangzhou and Mt. Tai in all months and at Beijing in Apr. and Jul. Vertical transport dominates the sink of  $SO_4^{2-}$  at Beijing on most of days in Jan. and Oct.  $NO_3^-$  and SOA concentrations at Beijing, Guangzhou, and Mt. Tai are enhanced primarily by aerosol processes in all months. Their loss is mainly caused by horizontal transport at these sites.

Figure S-4 contrasts the monthly-mean contributions of each process to  $O_3$  and  $PM_{10}$  concentrations in different layers in the PBL and one layer above PBL (layer 10, ~2900 m) at one urban site (i.e., Beijing) and on rural site (i.e., Xiaoping) during summer. At Beijing, horizontal transport and vertical transport are the main sources of  $O_3$  accumulation, and dry deposition and gas-phase chemistry are the main sinks of  $O_3$  below layer 3 (surface to ~150 m).  $O_3$  at layers  $\geq 3$  (~150–2000 m) mainly comes from gas-phase chemistry production, and horizontal transport contributes negatively from layer 4 to the top of PBL. The contribution of vertical transport to  $O_3$  mixing ratios at different layers may either be negative or positive. The cloud processes contribute slightly to the  $O_3$  increase below 650 m via convective mixing process that brings high  $O_3$  aloft to lower atmosphere and to the  $O_3$  loss near the top of PBL via cloud attenuation of photolytic rates and scavenging and wet deposition processes. As compared with Beijing, horizontal transport contributes to the accumulation of  $O_3$  and

vertical transport contributes to the loss of  $O_3$  at higher altitudes (layers 1–7) and gas-phase chemistry contributes to  $O_3$  production in all layers except for layer 10 at Xiaoping. At Beijing,  $PM_{10}$  comes from local emissions mainly below 300 m, horizontal transport helps transport particles from heavily-polluted areas to downwind areas, particularly between 150 and 300 m. Particles below ~74 m are also significantly uplifted to higher layers (100–700 m) via vertical transport, which is the opposite to its contribution to surface and near-surface  $O_3$ .  $PM_{10}$  is mainly produced via aerosol processes in the upper layers ( $> \sim 450$  m) where low temperatures favor the formation of its secondary components. Significant loss of  $PM_{10}$  due to aerosol processes occur at heights below 450 m but the net layer-weighted contribution of aerosol processes in the PBL is positive (see Fig. 2), indicating a net production of  $PM_{10}$  due to aerosol processes. Dry deposition is the main sink of  $PM_{10}$  at surface. Cloud processes contribute slightly to  $PM_{10}$  removal under ~1500 m. As compared with Beijing, horizontal transport contributes to the accumulation of  $PM_{10}$  and vertical transport contributes to its loss for layers 1–8, PM processes contribute to  $PM_{10}$  production in layers 1–2, 5, and 10, and cloud processes contribute to  $PM_{10}$  loss in all layers at Xiaoping. These results illustrate roles of various processes at different heights at different sites.

### 3.2. Integrated Reaction Rates (IRRs) and additional indicator analyses

#### 3.2.1. IRR results

Fig. 3 shows the spatial distributions of monthly-mean total  $O_x$  chemical production rates, OH chain length, and the amount of OH reacted with anthropogenic and biogenic VOCs (AVOCs and BVOCs)

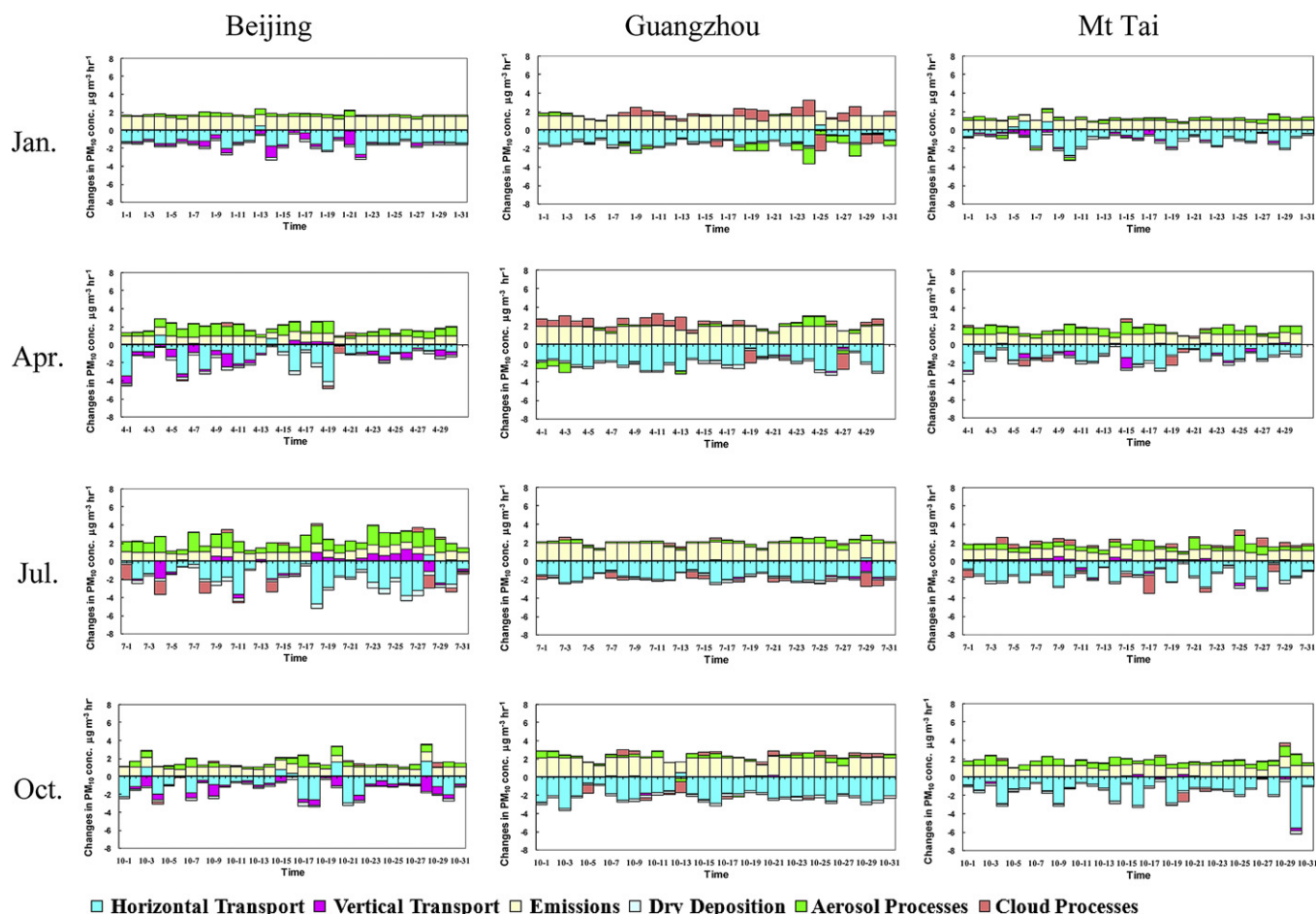


Fig. 2. Daily-mean hourly contributions of individual processes to the mass concentrations of  $PM_{10}$  in the PBL (0–2.9 km) at 3 sites (Beijing, Guangzhou, and Mt. Tai) in China in 2008.

over East Asia in the four months. Significant  $O_x$  production occurs over the eastern China throughout the year, indicating a stronger oxidation capacity over relatively-developed areas as compared with the central and western China. The  $O_x$  production is stronger over South China than North China due to a stronger solar radiation. The strongest oxidation capacity occurs during summer and the weakest during winter. By contrast, OH chain length shows the largest values in Jan. and the lowest in Jul., indicating a faster removal of OH from the photochemical reaction cycles during summer due to stronger oxidation rates of VOCs by OH radicals. Higher reaction rates of OH with AVOCs and BVOCs occur in summer. AVOCs are significant in the North China Plain and PRD areas where AVOC emissions are high due to dense population and rapid economic growth and BVOC emissions are relatively low due to fewer vegetations and a dry weather. BVOCs reacted with OH radicals are typically significant in the southeastern China where the vegetation coverage is dense and BVOC emissions are high. Figure S-5 compares these IRR products at 8 sites. Total  $O_x$  production is the highest in Jul. at all sites. The oxidation capacities in Apr. and Oct. are quite similar at all sites. The  $O_x$  production at urban sites, e.g., Beijing and Shanghai, are much higher than rural sites, especially in Jul., indicating that the precursor concentrations are another key factor that influences  $O_3$  formation, in addition to solar radiation. The OH chain length shows the largest values in Jan. and the lowest in Jul. at all sites except at Guangzhou where the maximum OH chain length occurs in Jul. and the minimum occurs in Apr., with a stronger seasonal variation at rural and background sites. The rates of OH

reacted with AVOCs (OH\_AVOC) are significantly higher at urban sites than those at rural sites due to higher AVOC emissions in urban areas. OH amounts reacted with BVOCs (OH\_BVOC) at the rural site (e.g., Xiaoping) are equal to or slightly higher than those in urban areas (e.g., Beijing, Shanghai), due to higher BVOC emissions in the rural areas. OH\_AVOCs are significantly higher than OH\_BVOCs in urban areas but slightly higher or even lower than OH\_BVOCs at rural sites in Jul., consistent with the findings of Zhang et al. (2009a).

### 3.2.2. Analysis of chemical indicators and sensitivity of model predictions to emissions

Fig. 4 shows the spatial distributions of monthly-mean values of  $P_{H_2O_2}/P_{HNO_3}$  from the IRR output during the afternoon time (from 1 pm to 6 pm, local time) in the four months. The values of  $P_{H_2O_2}/P_{HNO_3}$  less than 0.2 indicate a VOC-limited chemistry and higher values indicate a  $NO_x$ -limited chemistry (Tonnesen and Dennis, 2000b). In Jan., the ratios of  $P_{H_2O_2}/P_{HNO_3}$  are below 0.2 over the northeastern China, North China plain, the YRD and PRD areas, and several big cities through China, indicating a VOC-limited  $O_3$  atmosphere in the developed area of China where  $NO_x$  emissions from traffic and industry activities are high and vegetations are sparse, whereas other areas are in a regime with  $NO_x$ -limited  $O_3$  chemistry due to the large amount of trees that produce high levels of BVOCs or less  $NO_x$  emissions into the atmosphere. In Jul., most of these VOC-limited areas change to  $NO_x$ -limited, although some urban areas (e.g., Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai) remain to be VOC-limited, due to significantly higher  $NO_x$  emissions caused by power

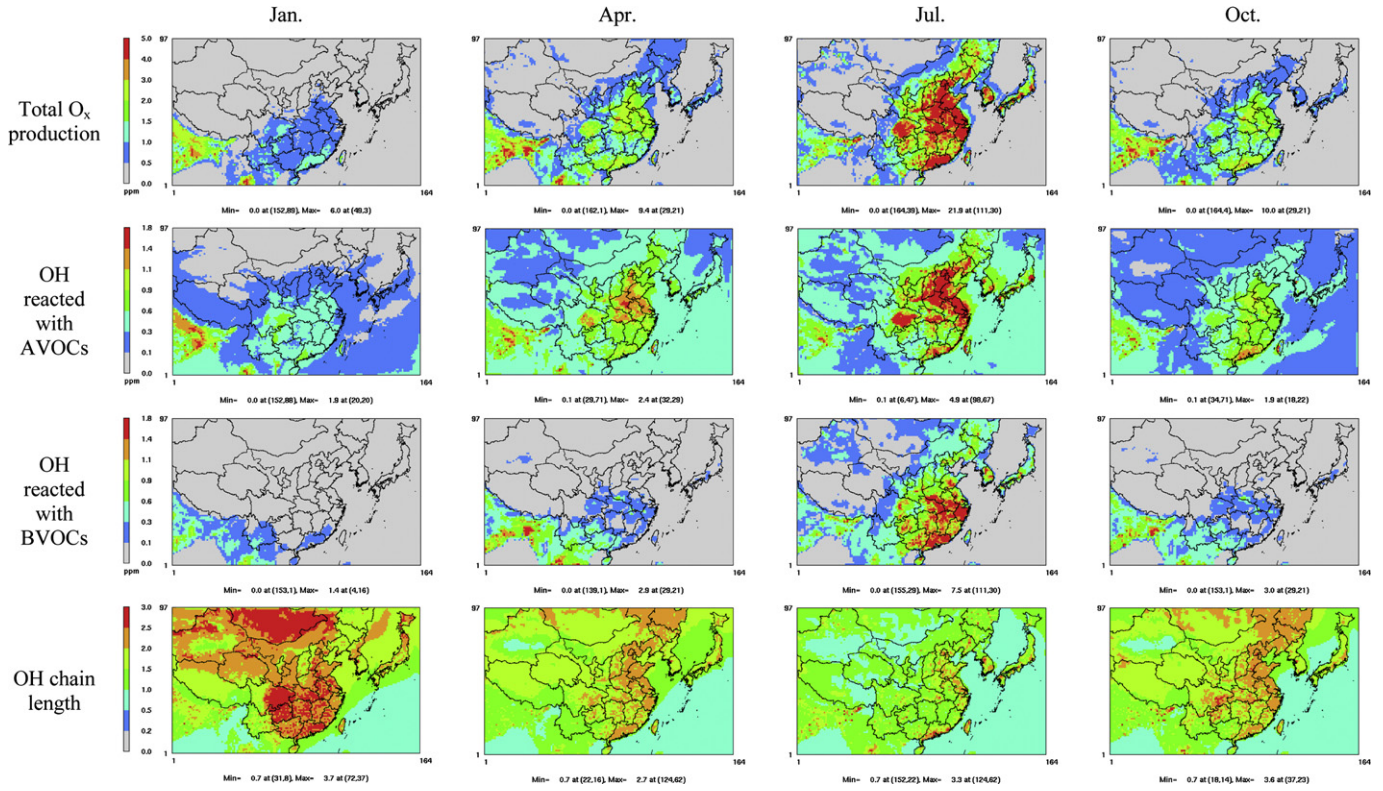


Fig. 3. Spatial distributions of total  $O_x$  production, OH chain length and OH reacted with AVOCs and BVOCs at surface in China in 2008.

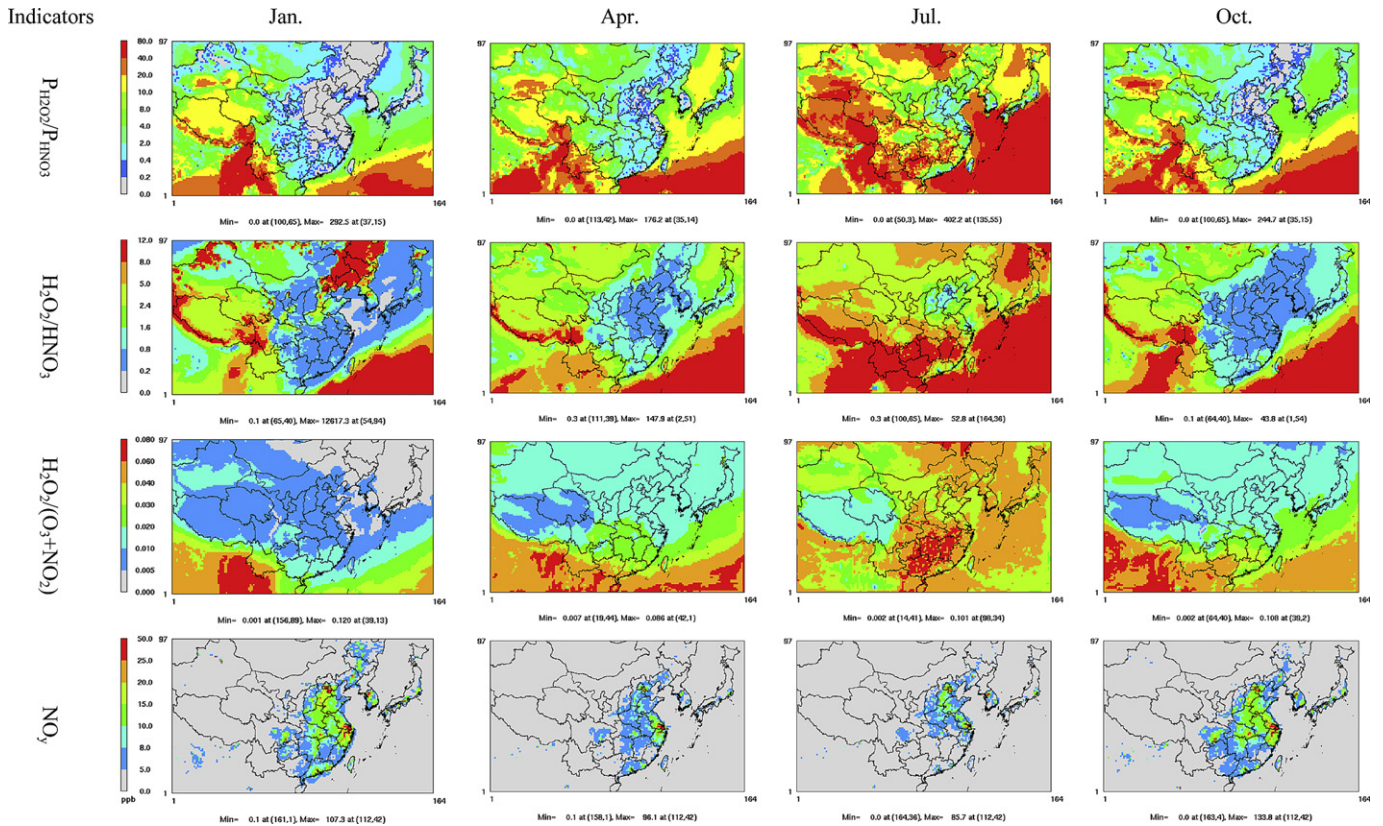


Fig. 4. Spatial distribution of monthly-mean ratios of  $P_{H_2O_2}/P_{HNO_3}$ ,  $H_2O_2/HNO_3$ ,  $H_2O_2/(O_3 + NO_2)$ ,  $NO_x$ ,  $O_3/NO_x$ ,  $O_3/NO_y$ ,  $HCHO/NO_2$ , and  $HCHO/NO_y$  during afternoon (1–6 pm, local time) at surface in China in 2008.

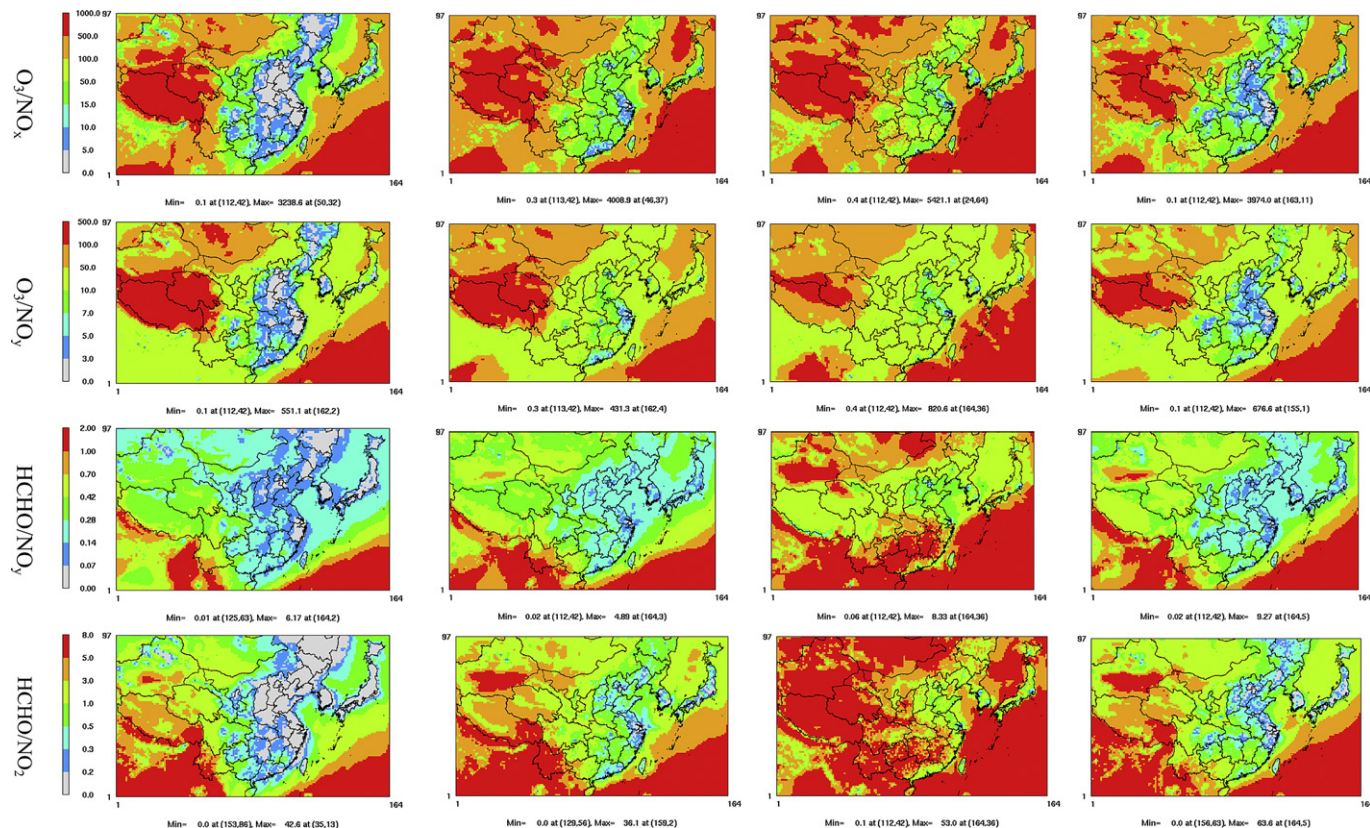


Fig. 4. (continued).

plants and vehicles over those areas. The values of  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$  over the eastern portion of the domain in Apr. and Oct. are mostly higher than 0.2 except for the large metropolitan areas in the northeastern China, South Korea, and Japan.

Since  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$  was developed based on model simulations over North America, two sensitivity simulations are conducted over China in Jul. 2008 to verify the results based on  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ , one with a 50% reduction in domain-wide  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions, and one with a 50% reduction in AVOCs emissions. The absolute and percentage differences in simulated  $\text{O}_3$  mixing ratios are shown in Fig. S-6. Reduction of emissions of AVOCs leads to an  $\text{O}_3$  decrease over the central and eastern China, with 5–13% decrease over the North China Plain.  $\text{NO}_x$  reduction leads to a larger  $\text{O}_3$  decrease over much larger areas, with the largest reduction of 16.3 ppb and 27.7% domain-wide. The larger response of  $\text{O}_3$  to reduction of  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions than the reduction of AVOCs emissions indicates a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited  $\text{O}_3$  chemistry in most areas in July, consistent with the results using  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ .  $\text{O}_3$  increase is found over several large cities (i.e., cities located in the North China Plain, YRD, PRD, Taiwan, South Korea, and Japan), indicating that  $\text{O}_3$  chemistry in these areas is VOC-limited, which is also consistent with the results based on the ratios of  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ .

While  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$  is a robust indicator for  $\text{O}_3$  chemistry, other indicators such as the values of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/(\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2)$ ,  $\text{NO}_y$ ,  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_y$ ,  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_y$ , and  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$  in the afternoon can also serve as effective indicators for  $\text{O}_3$  chemistry (Tonnesen and Dennis, 2000b; Zhang et al., 2009a,b). The transition values are 0.2 for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HNO}_3$  (Lu and Chang, 1998; Sillman, 1995; Sillman et al., 1997; Tonnesen and Dennis, 2000b), 0.02 for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/(\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2)$  (Tonnesen and Dennis, 2000b), 20 for  $\text{NO}_y$  (Lu and Chang, 1998; Sillman, 1995), 15 for  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_x$  (Tonnesen and Dennis, 2000a,b), 7 for  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_y$  (Sillman et al., 1997), 0.28 for  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_y$  (Lu and Chang, 1998; Sillman, 1995), and 1 for  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$  (Tonnesen and Dennis,

2000b). Values less than these transition values indicate a VOC-limited chemistry and higher values indicate a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited chemistry for all the above indicators except  $\text{NO}_y$  (for  $\text{NO}_y$ , a value greater than 20 means VOC-sensitive condition, otherwise  $\text{NO}_x$  chemistry).

As shown in Fig. 4, the values of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/(\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2)$ ,  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_y$ ,  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_y$  and  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$  over the eastern China in Jan. are all smaller than their respective transition values, indicating a VOC-limited  $\text{O}_3$  chemistry, which is consistent with the results based on the ratios of  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ . Based on the transition values proposed by the original developers, however, some of these indicators, i.e.,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/(\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2)$ ,  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_y$ , and  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$  indicate larger areas under the VOC-limited condition as compared with those indicated by  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ . The values of  $\text{NO}_y$  show that the  $\text{NO}_y$  concentrations larger than 20 ppb occur only in the areas surrounding Beijing, Tianjin, and Shanghai, indicating VOC-limited areas that are much smaller than those indicated by  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ . The VOC-limited areas with an adjusted threshold value of  $\text{NO}_y$  of 5 ppb by Zhang et al. (2009a) are much more consistent with those indicated by  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ . The ratios of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HNO}_3$  in Jan. are higher than 0.2 (indicating a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited chemistry) over almost the entire domain, which is also inconsistent with  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ . Five indicators (i.e.,  $\text{NO}_y$ ,  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_y$ ,  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$ , and  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_y$ ) show results consistent with  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$  in Jul., a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited chemistry over nearly the entire China but a VOC-limited chemistry over several large cities. The ratios of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HNO}_3$  indicate a  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited  $\text{O}_3$  chemistry over China including several big cities (e.g., Beijing) where a VOC-limited regime is denoted by  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$  and the 5 indicators above. An adjusted value of 2.4 for  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HNO}_3$  proposed by Zhang et al. (2009a) will, however, indicate a VOC-limited chemistry over those metropolitan areas.  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/(\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2)$  indicates that  $\text{O}_3$  chemistry is  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited over large cities and a VOC-limited over the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau in Jul., both are inconsistent with the results based on  $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/P_{\text{HNO}_3}$ .

These results show that the transition values originally proposed by developers may not always be valid in China, due to several factors. For example, some of the original transition values were developed based on limited field measurements (Zhang et al., 2009b) or model simulations with different mechanisms and horizontal grid resolutions (Sillman and He, 2002; Wang et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2009b). Furthermore, none of these indicators are based on observations or model simulations over China. These factors warrant a need to adjust the transition values of these indicators to better fit the atmospheric conditions in China. Zhang et al. (2009b) examined the robustness of those indicators through a full-year simulation over the North America and suggested adjusting the transition values of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/(\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2)$  from 0.02 to 0.04 in summer,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HNO}_3$  from 0.2 to 2.4,  $\text{NO}_y$  from 20 to 5,  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_x$  from 15 to 60, and  $\text{O}_3/\text{NO}_y$  from 7 to 15 in Jan. and Aug. Based on the simulated spatial distribution of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HNO}_3$  in Jan., the adjusted transition value of 2.4 based on North American conditions would not give VOC-limited condition over both the eastern China and the North China Plain and  $\text{NO}_x$ -limited chemistry over the western China; however adjusting  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/\text{HNO}_3$  from 0.2 to 1.6 would work in Jul. For indicator  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2/(\text{O}_3 + \text{NO}_2)$ , adjusting transition value does not work in either Jan. or Jul., indicating that this indicator may not be applicable for China. For other indicators, adjusting transition value from 20 to 5 for  $\text{NO}_y$ , from 0.28 to 0.14 for  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_y$ , and from 1 to 0.3 in Jan., Apr., and Oct. and 0.5 in Jul. for  $\text{HCHO}/\text{NO}_2$  will allow these indicators to predict an  $\text{O}_3$  sensitivity that is more consistent with that predicted by  $\text{P}_{\text{H}_2\text{O}_2}/\text{P}_{\text{HNO}_3}$ .

Fig. 5 shows spatial distributions of three PM chemistry indicators including the degree of sulfate neutralization (DSN), gas ratio (GR), and adjusted gas ratio (AdjGR) for sensitivity of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  formation to its precursors. Full sulfate neutralization with  $\text{DSN} \geq 2$  occurs largely in some areas in the eastern China in all months with the smallest areas in July, implying  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  formation over those areas. As indicated in Zhang et al. (2009b), however, a transition value of 1.5 for DSN is more appropriate than a value of 2 to indicate the formation of  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  because of a strong thermodynamic affinity between  $\text{NH}_4^+$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  in winter and the lack of sufficient  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  to neutralize excess  $\text{NH}_3$ , in some areas in summer. Values of  $\text{GR} > 1$ ,  $0-1$ , and  $< 0$  indicate  $\text{NH}_3$ -rich, neutral, and poor conditions, respectively.  $\text{NH}_3$ -rich

condition occurs in much larger areas in Apr., Jul., and Oct. than in Jan. due to high  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions, whereas  $\text{NH}_3$ -poor condition occurs only over a small area in the northwestern China and oceanic areas. The full neutralization assumed in GR deviation may underestimate the amount of free  $\text{NH}_3$  and thus  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ , particularly under the winter condition when such an assumption may not hold. This limitation is overcome by defining DSN and using it to correct GR as an adjusted GR (i.e., AdjGR, see equations (7)–(9), Zhang et al., 2009b). Compared with GR, all areas with  $\text{GR} < 1$  now have  $\text{AdjGR} \geq 1$  in all four months, reflecting a greater potential for  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  formation over those areas, which is more consistent with the adjusted DSN value to indicate  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  formation. High values of GR and AdjGR in the southern and eastern China in Jul. are due to very small molar concentrations of total nitrate ( $\text{TNO}_3$ , which is the total molar concentration of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$ ) in the denominator.

Based on Ansari and Pandis (1998) and the definition of the AdjGR, for areas with  $\text{AdjGR} > 1$  (i.e., most eastern and southern China),  $\text{NH}_3$  is rich and sulfate is poor; PM formation is sensitive to the emissions of its major precursors including  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ , and  $\text{NH}_3$ , in particular,  $\text{SO}_2$ . In those areas,  $\text{NO}_3^-$  is more sensitive to changes in  $\text{TNO}_3$  than in  $\text{NH}_3$  because of abundance of free  $\text{NH}_3$ . Fig. S-7 shows the sensitivity of  $\text{PM}_{10}$  to 50% reduction of emissions of  $\text{SO}_2$ ,  $\text{NO}_x$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and AVOCs.  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentrations decrease due to  $\text{SO}_2$  emission reduction by up to  $-27.8\%$  (or  $-11.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ),  $\text{NO}_x$  emission reduction by up to  $-24.9\%$  (or  $-17.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ), and  $\text{NH}_3$  emission reduction by up to  $-16.8\%$  (or  $-10.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ ). While  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentrations in some areas in the northern China (e.g., Beijing, Tianjin, Shandong Province) are equally sensitive to emission reductions for  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ , other regions are more sensitive to the reduction of  $\text{SO}_2$  emissions (by  $-27.8\%$  to  $-9\%$  vs.  $-6\%$ – $0\%$ ). A 50% reduction of  $\text{NO}_x$  emissions leads to a larger percentage decrease in  $\text{PM}_{10}$  than a 50% reduction of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions (by  $-25.0\%$  to  $-9\%$  vs.  $-16.8\%$  to  $-6\%$ ). These results are fairly consistent with the results indicated by AdjGR. AVOCs emission reduction in Jul. over the entire domain results in higher  $\text{PM}_{10}$  concentrations over developed areas up to  $3.5 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and 8.8%, due to an increase in the concentrations of the secondary PM species such as  $\text{SO}_4^{2-}$  and  $\text{NO}_3^-$  when more OH radicals become available for the oxidation of  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ . Although the treatments of SOA formation are somewhat incomplete and also uncertain in CMAQ, the simulated

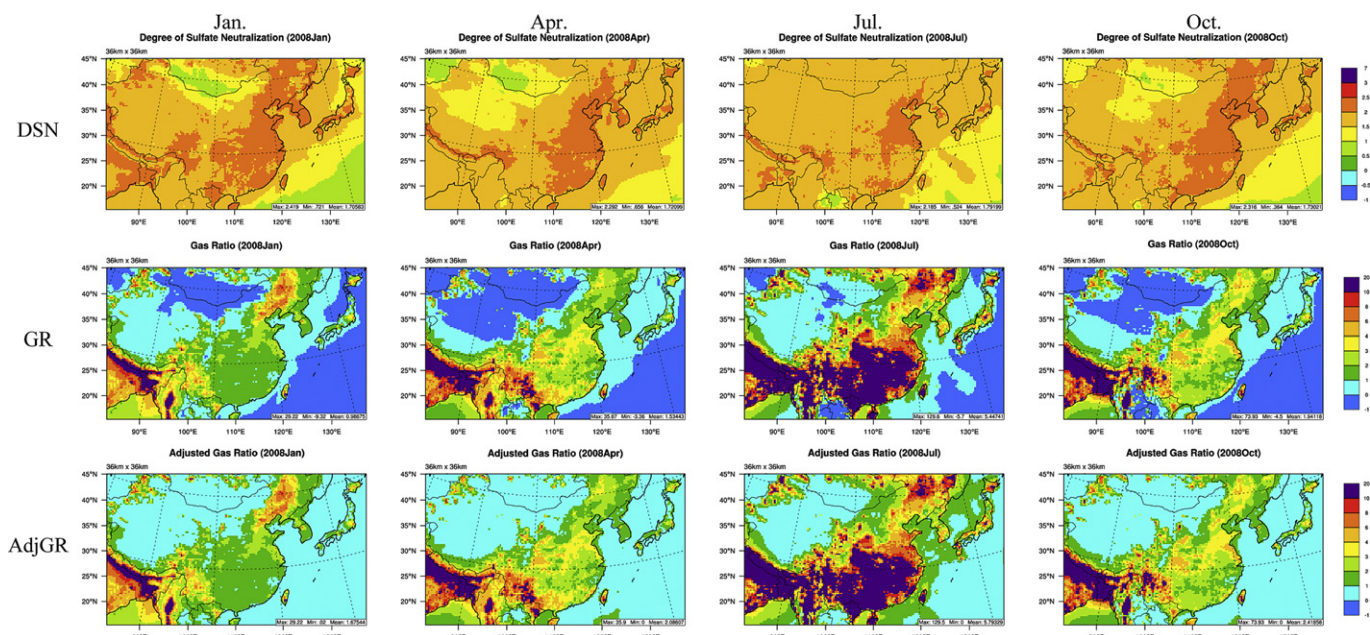


Fig. 5. Spatial distribution of the degree of sulfate neutralization (DSN), gas ratio (GR), and adjusted gas ratio (AdjGR) in China in 2008.

impact of AVOCs on O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> in this study are consistent with findings of Meng et al. (1997) and Pai et al. (2000) who reported that a 50% reduction in AVOC emissions may decrease O<sub>3</sub> by 31–34% but increase PM formation by 1–19% through increasing particulate nitrate formation in California, U.S. The sensitivity simulation results indicate that controlling SO<sub>2</sub> emission will be the most effective strategy to reduce PM<sub>10</sub> pollution in most areas in July and additional control of emissions of NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> can further reduce PM formation in the northern China, whereas controlling SOA precursors may lead to an enhanced PM formation, thus dis-benefiting the integrated control of ambient O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>.

#### 4. Conclusions

The IPR and IRR embedded in CMAQ are applied to quantify the contributions of individual atmospheric processes to the formation and distributions of major pollutants and their seasonal variations in China in Jan., Apr., Jul., and Oct. 2008. The indicators for O<sub>3</sub> and PM chemistry are examined to understand their formation mechanisms via chemical transformations and provide a theoretical basis for the development of the integrated emission control strategies for their dominant precursors. The IPR analysis suggests that horizontal transport is a main process for the accumulation of O<sub>3</sub> in Jan., Apr., and Oct., and gas-phase chemistry and vertical transport contribute to the production and accumulation of O<sub>3</sub> in Jul. at all sites. O<sub>3</sub> can be removed through vertical and horizontal transport, gas-phase chemistry, and cloud processes, depending on locations and seasons. Primary emissions in local or upwind areas and aerosol processes are the main sources of PM<sub>10</sub> and horizontal transport removes PM<sub>10</sub> at all sites. Cloud processes could help decrease or increase PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations, depending on locations and seasons. Cloud and aerosol processes are the dominant processes contributing to the formation of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>. Aerosol processes and in some cases vertical and horizontal transport contribute to the SOA production. The IRR results show that the strongest and weakest oxidation capacities occur in summer and winter, respectively, and a stronger O<sub>x</sub> production is found over the eastern China than that over the central and western China. OH reacted with VOCs is the highest during summer and the lowest in winter, and OH mainly reacted with AVOCs in urban areas whereas such rates are typically slightly higher or even lower than those of OH with BVOCs at rural sites.

The ratios of P<sub>H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub>/P<sub>HNO<sub>3</sub></sub> indicate a NO<sub>x</sub>-limited O<sub>3</sub> chemistry over almost entire China during summer except several metropolitan areas, which changes to VOC-limited chemistry over the eastern China, as well as some major cities in most provinces under the cold weather in winter. Some provinces such as Shandong, Henan, and Jiangsu in the North China plain experience a transition from VOC-limited in Jan. to NO<sub>x</sub>-limited conditions in Apr. and from NO<sub>x</sub>-limited in Jul. back to VOC-limited conditions in Oct. Several megacities such as Beijing, Shanghai, Tianjin, and cities in the YRD and PRD areas are always under the VOC-limited conditions throughout the entire year due to large amounts of traffic and industrial emissions of NO<sub>x</sub>. These results are consistent with results from two sensitivity simulations: one with a 50% reduction of NO<sub>x</sub> emissions and the other with a 50% reduction of AVOC emissions in Jul., indicating the robustness of using the ratio of P<sub>H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub>/P<sub>HNO<sub>3</sub></sub> to indicate O<sub>3</sub> chemistry regimes in China. The transition values originally proposed by the developers may not directly be applicable to China. They would need to be adjusted from 0.2 to 1.6 for H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/HNO<sub>3</sub> in winter, from 20 to 5 for NO<sub>y</sub>, from 0.28 to 0.14 for HCHO/NO<sub>y</sub>, and from 1 to 0.3 in Jan., Apr., and Oct. and from 1 to 0.5 in Jul. for HCHO/NO<sub>2</sub> to bring O<sub>3</sub> chemistry regimes more inline with results based on P<sub>H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub></sub>/P<sub>HNO<sub>3</sub></sub>. Compared with GR, the adjGR provides a more robust indicator for PM chemistry regime. The AdjGR values of greater than 1 are found in most areas in the

eastern China. This implies that PM formation is most sensitive to changes in the emissions of SO<sub>2</sub> and is more sensitive to the emission reductions in NO<sub>x</sub> than in NH<sub>3</sub>. Such a sensitivity to PM precursors is consistent with results from four sensitivity simulations, each with a 50% reduction of emissions of four PM<sub>10</sub> precursors including SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and AVOCs in Jul. The sensitivity simulations indicate that reducing 50% of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions leads to up to -27.8%, -25.0%, and -16.8% reduction of PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations. Reducing 50% of AVOC emissions, however, leads to an increase by up to 8.8% in PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations, due to increased formation of secondary inorganic aerosols.

As shown in the Part I paper, the model simulations at 36-km overpredict O<sub>3</sub> concentrations but underpredict those of SO<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>x</sub>, and PM<sub>10</sub>. These model biases and errors may affect process analysis results to some extent. For example, since the underpredictions in PM<sub>10</sub> concentrations are mainly caused by the underestimation in emissions, the process contributions to PM<sub>10</sub> formation rates from primary PM emissions and emissions of PM gaseous precursors such as SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> may be underestimated. Nevertheless, the results from this study provide useful insights into the governing processes that control the fate and transport of key pollutants in China. They indicate that different emission control strategies for air quality improvement (separate or integrated NO<sub>x</sub> or VOC emission control) should be taken during different seasons and over different regions in the future to effectively control ambient O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> air pollution. In addition to emission controls, meteorological variables and their changes will also affect air quality improvement. Model simulations accounting for both emission control and climate change will be needed to develop climate-friendly emission control strategies for air quality improvement in the future in China.

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#### Appendix. Supplementary information

Supplementary information associated with this paper can be found, in the online version, at [doi:10.1016/j.atmosenv.2010.03.036](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2010.03.036)

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