

Optimising ozone control strategies for Chinese megacity clusters under the influence of stratospheric intrusion

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Abstract

Stratosphere intrusion (SI), the largest natural source of ozone (O₃), poses a significant challenge for policymakers in developing effective O₃ control strategies. Understanding the emission reduction pathway under SI influence is crucial for achieving long-term O₃ attainment. However, the role of SI in tropospheric O₃ pollution in China remains poorly understood. To develop effective O₃ control strategies, we employed a localised comprehensive air quality model and the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM). We found that SI contributions vary seasonally, peaking in spring and reaching a minimum in summer. Spatially, SI impacts surface O₃ most in high-latitude regions, decreasing with lower latitudes. As O₃-laden air reaches the surface, O₃ control strategies become less effective, necessitating additional emission reductions. As SI contributions increase, the optimal emission reduction pathway shifts: for the BTH and PRD regions, it changes from ‘VOC only’ to ‘NO_x only’ at thresholds of 13.57 ppb and 8.39 ppb, respectively. For YRD, FWP, and CY, the ‘VOC only’ path remains optimal. This study provides valuable insights for policymakers to develop effective strategies to mitigate SI’s negative effects.

Keywords: stratospheric intrusion; ozone pollution; ozone precursor sensitivity; emission reduction pathways

Plain Language Summary

Stratospheric intrusion (SI) presents a significant challenge to policymakers attempting to formulate effective O₃ control strategies, as it introduces natural variability that can undermine anthropogenic emission reduction efforts. By analyzing temporal and spatial variations of SI and its effects on surface O₃, our study identifies optimal emission reduction pathways tailored to five megacity clusters. Our findings highlight the necessity of adapting emission reduction approaches based on SI contributions, which vary seasonally and geographically. This nuanced approach is crucial for achieving long-term O₃ attainment and improving air quality in megacity clusters, which are often hotspots of pollution and human activity.

40 1 Introduction

41 Tropospheric ozone (O_3) is gaining increased public attention because of its impacts on
42 human health, ecosystem productivity, and climate change. Numerous studies have highlighted
43 changes in O_3 precursor emissions and regional transport, as well as the contribution from the
44 stratosphere, all influencing observed trends and variability in tropospheric O_3 (Brown-Steiner &
45 Hess, 2011; Hess & Zbinden, 2013; Li et al., 2024; Lin et al., 2012). Therefore, understanding the
46 role of stratospheric intrusion (SI) in determining tropospheric and surface-layer O_3 variations is
47 crucial for effectively mitigating ground-level O_3 pollution.

48 SI represents a significant natural source of tropospheric O_3 (Zhao et al., 2021; Das et al.,
49 2016; Xia et al., 2023), which can cause surface O_3 concentrations to exceed the national ambient
50 air quality standard (NAAQS). Verstraeten et al. (2015) indicated that contributions from SI can
51 partly offset the effects of policy-driven emission control strategies in the western US. Meanwhile,
52 a modelling study demonstrated that maximum hourly O_3 concentrations reached 88 ppbv during a
53 deep SI event (Langford et al., 2012). Lin et al. (2012) observed that SI contributed 15–20 ppbv at
54 high-elevation surface sites in the western US. Then, in later work, by extending the study period
55 to 23 years, Lin et al. (2015) found that approximately 15–25 ppbv of surface O_3 in the spring was
56 transported from the stratosphere. Zhang et al. (2016) used a global chemical transport model to
57 quantify the contribution of SI to surface O_3 in northern China, finding values of around 3–20
58 $\mu\text{g}\cdot\text{m}^{-3}$ in summertime. The US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) classifies SI as a natural
59 event that can be considered exceptional under the Clean Air Act and exceptional events rule
60 criteria, allowing policymakers to exclude such data for non-attainment identification
61 ([https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-analysis/treatment-air-quality-monitoring-data-influenced-exce-](https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-analysis/treatment-air-quality-monitoring-data-influenced-exceptional-events)
62 [ptional-events](https://www.epa.gov/air-quality-analysis/treatment-air-quality-monitoring-data-influenced-exceptional-events)). As the largest natural source of tropospheric O_3 , a poor understanding of the
63 contribution of SI will hinder the formulation of the exemption criteria used for exceptional SI
64 events in China.

65 As a secondary pollutant, O_3 responds nonlinearly to its precursors – namely, volatile
66 organic compounds (VOCs) and nitrogen oxides (NO_x – the sum of NO (nitric oxide) and NO_2
67 (nitrogen dioxide)) – under different levels of O_3 precursor sensitivity (OPS) (Ou et al., 2016;
68 Turnock et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2022). Studies in China have shown that O_3 reduction varies
69 significantly along different emission reduction pathways (Ou et al., 2016; Ding et al., 2022; Liu et
70 al., 2013). For example, in an NO_x -limited regime, NO_x control reduces O_3 levels, whereas NO_x
71 reduction increases O_3 concentrations in a VOC-limited regime. Ou et al. (2016) found that
72 VOC-focused controls are effective for short-term O_3 reduction, while NO_x -focused controls are
73 more efficient for significant O_3 reductions. As external downward transport from the stratosphere
74 further aggravates surface O_3 pollution, it is necessary to strengthen emission reduction efforts to
75 counteract the negative impact of SI (Zhao et al., 2022; Ni et al., 2019; Stohl et al., 2003).
76 Considering the response of O_3 to different emission reduction pathways, the extent of reduction
77 and prioritisation of specific species may need to be dynamically adjusted (Luecken et al., 2018;
78 Zhu et al., 2024). Thus, it is imperative to understand the optimal emission reduction pathways for
79 megacity clusters in China under the influence of SI to mitigate O_3 pollution effectively.

80 SI plays a crucial role in surface O_3 pollution, diminishing the effectiveness of emission
81 reduction strategies. Therefore, it is vital to establish appropriate emission reduction pathways
82 considering the influence of SI, especially in the most developed city clusters. However, the role of
83 SI in tropospheric O_3 pollution in China remains poorly understood. To address this knowledge
84 gap and develop effective O_3 control strategies, we employed a localized comprehensive air

85 quality model and the Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model (WACCM) to explore the
86 following questions: (1) What are the spatial and temporal characteristics of SI over five megacity
87 clusters in China? (2) What are the spatial and temporal variations in the contributions of SI? (3)
88 What is the optimal emission reduction pathway for different megacity clusters under the influence
89 of SI? This study has significant implications for establishing criteria for determining exceptional
90 SI events and identifying optimal emission reduction pathways for megacity clusters in China
91 amidst climate change.

92 **2 Materials and Methods**

93 **2.1 WACCM**

94 WACCM is an interdisciplinary collaboration integrated into CESM (the Community
95 Earth System Model). It encompasses upper-atmospheric, middle-atmospheric, and tropospheric
96 modelling from three laboratories of the US National Center for Atmospheric Research (NCAR):
97 HAO (High Altitude Laboratory), ACOM (Atmospheric Chemistry Observations & Modeling),
98 and CGD (Climate & Global Dynamics), respectively.

99 Meteorological fields are supplied by NASA's GMAO GEOS-5 model. Anthropogenic
100 emissions are based on the latest inventory from CAMS (the Copernicus Atmospheric Monitoring
101 Service). Open fire emissions are calculated using FINN-v1 (Fire Inventory from NCAR, version
102 1.0) (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011). The model outputs are available for analysis at 6-h intervals, with a
103 horizontal resolution of 0.9° latitude \times 1.25° longitude and 88 vertical levels spanning from 1000
104 to 1 hPa.

105 The model includes complex stratospheric chemistry, a representation of the QBO
106 (Quasi-Biennial Oscillation), and non-orographic gravity waves, which have been successfully
107 used in stratospheric O₃ simulations and to simulate stratosphere–troposphere exchange processes
108 (Butchart et al., 2010; Oberlaender et al., 2013).

109 We utilized AIRS data, O₃ sounding data, and ERA5 data to validate WACCM results. The
110 concentration and position of the O₃ enhancement area from the model agreed well with the AIRS
111 retrieved data, O₃ sounding data and ERA5 data. The aforementioned data collectively indicate
112 that during the spring season in Hong Kong, there is a tongue-shape plume of high O₃
113 concentrations extending from the stratosphere, resulting in the formation of a O₃ enhancement
114 within the lower troposphere (**Figure S1**). These results give us confidence that WACCM results
115 can well capture the SI process.

116 To track SI contributions, we used stratospheric O₃ and biomass burning CO (carbon
117 monoxide) tagging approaches. These methods help to quantify the amount of tropospheric O₃
118 originating from the stratosphere and the impact of biomass burning (Akritidis et al., 2016;
119 Wiedinmyer et al., 2011; Matthes et al., 2010). The O₃S tracer was set to stratospheric values
120 above the tropopause, and the chemical loss rate was observed in the troposphere.

121 **2.2 WRF-Chem simulation**

122 The Weather Research and Forecasting model coupled with Chemistry (WRF-Chem),
123 version 3.9.1, was used for numerical simulations of meteorological conditions and air quality
124 during the spring seasons of 2020–2022. The outer domain (D1) covers all of China with a
125 horizontal resolution of 27 km; the middle domain (D2) encompasses most of central and eastern

126 China with a 9-km resolution; and the innermost domains cover five megacity clusters – BTH,
127 YRD, PRD, FWP, and CY – at a grid resolution of 3 km. Vertically, 46 layers were set from the
128 lowest vertical layer of 40 m to the 50-hPa level. Outputs from Whole Atmosphere Community
129 Climate Model (WACCM) are used to provide chemical initial and lateral conditions to the
130 WRF-Chem simulations. The land use data used in the simulations are retrieved from the
131 Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) observation. **Figure S2** shows that
132 WRF-Chem model has good performance for O₃, with averaged correlation coefficient (R) of 0.63
133 over China. The averaged normalized mean error (NME) is 29%.

134 To identify local emission reductions to offset the impact of SI, 1 base case and 39
135 emission reduction scenarios with anthropogenic VOCs (AVOCs) and NO_x emission reductions
136 were used to identify the OPS. Since biogenic VOC (BVOC) emissions are difficult to control,
137 emission reduction scenarios were applied only to AVOCs. Therefore, in sensitivity studies for
138 emission reduction experiments, the model concentrates on numerous compounds of VOCs,
139 including isoprene, benzene, toluene, propylene, ethylene, xylenes, propane, acetylene, butanes,
140 pentanes, and organic acids.

141 2.3 AIRS satellite

142 The Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS) onboard NASA's Aqua satellite provides
143 detailed vertical profiles of O₃ concentrations with a horizontal resolution of 1° × 1° and 24
144 vertical levels ranging from 1000 to 1 hPa. Data from AIRS offer valuable insights into the
145 distribution of O₃, aiding in monitoring O₃ layer changes, atmospheric chemistry, and climate
146 dynamics. These data can be accessed at <https://airs.jpl.nasa.gov/data/get-data/standard-data/>.

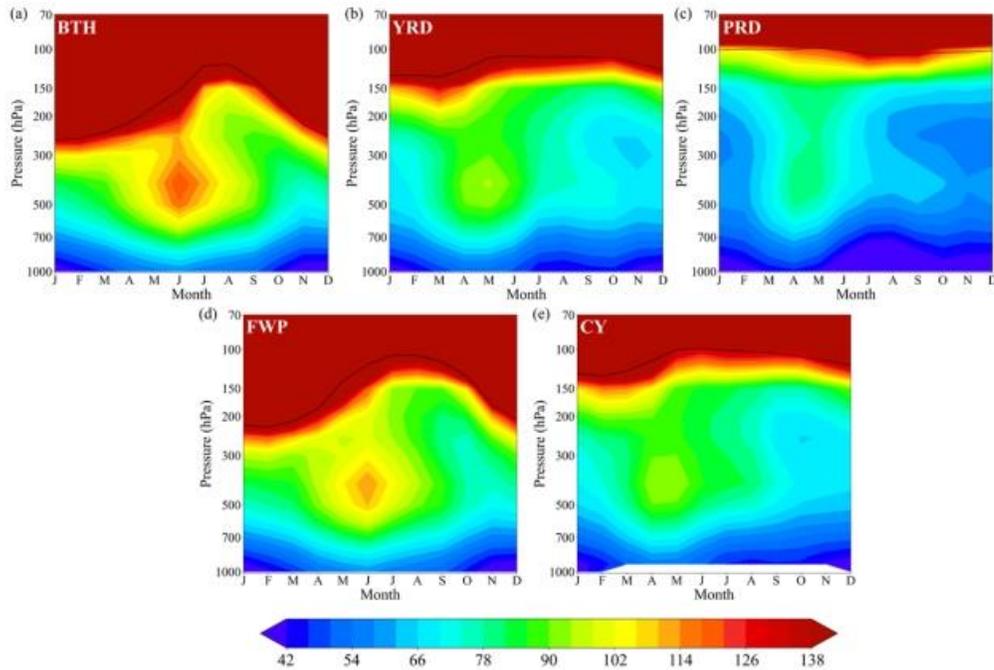
147 3 Results

148 3.1 General characteristics of SI-related O₃ enhancement in the lower troposphere

149 Since Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei (BTH), Yangtze River Delta (YRD), Pearl River Delta (PRD)
150 are the three most developed city clusters with high population and severe air pollution, and the
151 14th Five-Year Plan listed Fenwei Plain (FWP), and Chengyu (CY) as new key areas which
152 deserve a detailed investigation. Moreover, in the 2024 'Blue Sky Defence War Project', the five
153 regions have been identified as key areas for air pollution prevention and control in China. As seen
154 in **Figure S3**, the changing emissions of O₃ precursors and the inflow of stratospheric O₃ are
155 considered primary sources of elevated tropospheric O₃ concentrations over China, from upward
156 and downward directions, respectively. Anthropogenic emissions of NO_x and VOCs hotspots are
157 notably concentrated in these five megacity clusters. The high intensity of VOCs and NO_x
158 emissions serves as a fundamental cause for the frequent occurrence of O₃ pollution events.

159 To analyse the spatiotemporal distribution of O₃ over these five megacity clusters, a time–
160 height cross-sectional plot of monthly averaged O₃ profile observations from the past 21 years
161 (2003–2023) is shown in **Figure 1**. A prominent tongue-shaped plume with high O₃
162 concentrations extending from the stratosphere is apparent in all five clusters. During winter and
163 spring, a notable buildup of O₃ in the UTLS (upper troposphere and lower stratosphere) region
164 significantly impacts lower-tropospheric and even surface O₃ levels. The SIs first occur in
165 subtropical regions such as the PRD (22°N–25°N), YRD (29°N–32°N), and CY (28°N–32°N)
166 during spring, and then gradually move northward to FWP (33°N–39°N) and BTH (36°N–42°N)

167 in summer. The seasonal movement and intensity of the subtropical jet account for the time lag in
168 SI occurrence (Zhao et al., 2021).



169

170 **Figure 1.** Seasonal variations of monthly averaged O₃ (unit: ppb) retrieved by AIRS from 2003 to
171 2023 in (a) BTH, (b) YRD, (c) PRD, (d) FWP, and (e) CY. The black solid line denotes the
172 tropopause height.

173

174 O₃ enhancement (approximately 80–90 ppbv) can be seen above 500 hPa in April and May
175 in YRD, PRD, and CY. Comparatively, the O₃ pool, exceeding 110 ppbv, appears progressively
176 later at higher latitudes, peaking in BTH and FWP in June. Seasonal O₃ variation is mainly due to
177 favourable meteorological conditions in summer, such as strong solar radiation and high
178 temperatures. Such a significant O₃ hotspot with concentrations above 80 ppbv in the lower
179 troposphere can exacerbate surface O₃ pollution alongside strong descending motion. However,
180 the East Asian summer monsoon impacts O₃ levels, reducing them to below 40 ppbv between 700
181 and 850 hPa in PRD.

182 To fully understand the impact of SI over the five megacity clusters, a more comprehensive
183 assessment is needed. However, the annual variation in SI occurrence has not been thoroughly
184 investigated. We identified SI events using the following criteria, which have been proposed and
185 widely applied in previous studies for screening stratospheric intrusion events (Zhao et al., 2021;
186 Beekmann et al., 1997; Brioude et al., 2007; Kim & Lee, 2010): (a) relative humidity of less than
187 25%; (b) wind speed higher than 20 m/s; and (c) O₃ levels of 25% above the climatological mean.
188 Considering the latitude-dependent decline in tropopause height, we selected SI events based on
189 the Potential Vorticity (PV) exceeding 0.5 PVU (1 PVU = $1.0 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ K kg}^{-1}$) in PRD, and 2
190 PVU in YRD, CY, FWP, and BTH. Due to the pronounced characteristic of lower tropopause
191 heights in the northern regions and higher heights in the southern regions, there are significant

192 differences in the defined potential vorticity (PV) thresholds for determining tropopause height.
193 Thus, two PV values were used in this study. In addition, it should be noted that the mean PV,
194 relative humidity, wind, and O₃ within the 200-300 hPa range are calculated as the criteria. These
195 data used to identify SI events are analyzed using hourly data from the fifth-generation European
196 Centre for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts atmospheric reanalysis (ERA5).

197 As shown in **Table 1**, with these criteria, the total numbers of SI events from 2000 to 2023
198 were 1383, 1250, 342, 941, and 867 for BTH, YRD, PRD, FWP, and CY, respectively, averaging
199 57.6, 52.1, 14.3, 39.2, and 36.1 events per year. The highest SI frequency in middle latitudes is
200 largely related to the descending branch of the local tropical Northern Hemisphere Hadley cell
201 (Roelofs & Lelieveld, 1997; Meul et al., 2018). A high tropopause fold frequency in YRD and CY
202 enhances the potential for SI occurrence, with average frequencies of 10.2 and 11.7, respectively
203 (**Figure S4**). Previous studies also suggest that stratospheric overturning circulation can be
204 strengthened by El Niño and the easterly shear Quasi-Biennial Oscillation and hence increase the
205 downward transport of stratospheric O₃-enriched air to the mid-latitude upper troposphere (Neu et
206 al., 2014; Bronnimann et al., 2004; Randel et al., 2009). For BTH and FWP, SI is facilitated by
207 cut-off low and upper level trough systems in mid-to-high-latitude regions, as corroborated by
208 previous studies (Li et al., 2015; Li & Bian, 2015; Chen et al., 2024). The frequency of SI events
209 fluctuated greatly from 2000 to 2023: 44–80 times in BTH, 33–67 times in YRD, 2–33 times in
210 PRD, and 29–50 times in both FWP and CY. These fluctuations are primarily influenced by factors
211 such as high-level jet movements (Zhao et al., 2021), extratropical cyclones (Jiang et al., 2015), El
212 Niño–Southern Oscillation (ENSO) (Lin et al., 2015; Albers et al., 2022), tropopause folding
213 (Wimmers & Moody, 2004), and Rossby wave-breaking (Vaugh et al., 1994). Although many
214 studies suggest that SI impacts will increase in response to a strengthened Brewer–Dobson
215 circulation (BDC) under climate change (Meul et al., 2018; Butchart et al., 2010; Oberländer et al.,
216 2013), our results do not indicate such a trend in these five megacity clusters over the past two
217 decades. The impact of climate change on SI varies by latitude, climate scenario, and ENSO event
218 type, necessitating further investigation.

219 Over the past decade, O₃ concentrations have exhibited high-level oscillations, contrasting
220 with decreases in other pollutants, as shown in **Figure 2**. From 2015 to 2019, the annual O₃
221 concentration in the five megacity clusters increased yearly by 6.3 µg/(m³·yr). From 2019 to 2021,
222 annual O₃ concentrations decreased to 2017–2018 levels but rebounded significantly in 2022.

223 BTH, YRD, FWP, and CY experienced the most photochemical O₃ exceedances (i.e., not
224 influenced by exceptional events) from May to September, peaking in June and July. In PRD, O₃
225 pollution mainly occurred from September to November, influenced by favourable weather
226 conditions such as clear skies, high temperatures, and typhoons. From late May to August, O₃
227 exceedances due to SIs or typical conditions were able to occur. Rare O₃ exceedances in March
228 and April, highlighted in red, are more likely influenced by SI and differ from usual early-spring
229 conditions (**Figure 2**). BTH and YRD had the highest SI-related O₃ exceedances with 47 and 43
230 days, respectively, followed by FWP with 30 days and PRD with 25 days. Due to the relatively low
231 number of NAAQS exceedance days in CY and the mismatch with SI occurrence, CY had only
232 three SI-related O₃ exceedance days. As seen in **Figure S5**, the majority of SIs occur on days
233 characterized by low O₃ pollution levels. This phenomenon is particularly notable during the
234 winter and spring months, which coincide with the active seasons for SI. Compared to the other
235 three regions, BTH and YRD have over 100 days of SI events falling within days when O₃
236 concentrations exceed 100 µg/m³, indicating that under the context of climate change, as O₃

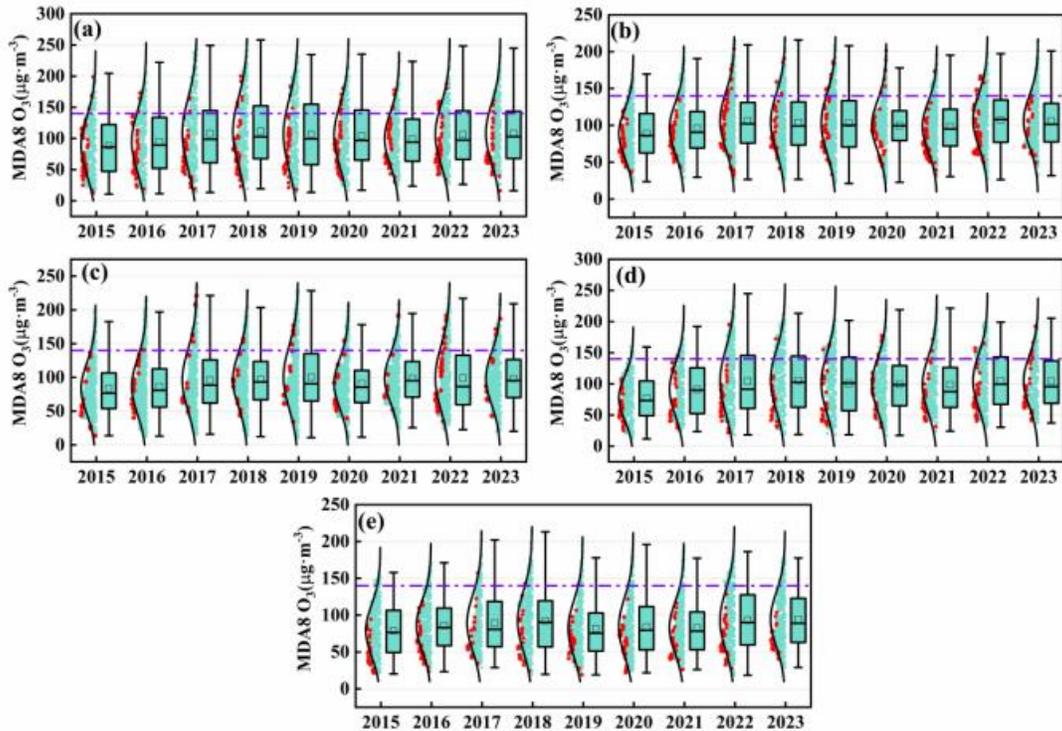
237 pollution intensifies further and SI becomes more active, the number of O₃ exceedance days in
 238 BTH and YRD may further increase in the future.

239

240 **Table 1.** Total number of SI cases over BTH, YRD, PRD, FWP, and CY from 2000 to 2023.

	BTH	YRD	PRD	FWP	CY
2000	64	45	7	44	46
2001	50	47	6	34	39
2002	44	37	2	36	32
2003	51	52	10	30	26
2004	55	56	23	34	36
2005	51	43	16	30	23
2006	45	47	6	38	44
2007	60	57	9	48	45
2008	69	60	18	47	50
2009	66	60	31	39	43
2010	63	47	5	29	28
2011	80	46	17	46	27
2012	66	53	6	45	37
2013	61	63	19	50	38
2014	50	60	10	45	37
2015	61	55	16	45	34
2016	53	53	22	42	43
2017	49	56	15	43	25
2018	59	46	16	31	31
2019	47	49	21	32	41
2020	61	55	15	36	40
2021	57	67	8	35	35
2022	61	63	33	43	42
2023	60	33	11	39	25
Sum	1383	1250	342	941	867
Mean	57.6	52.1	14.3	39.2	36.1

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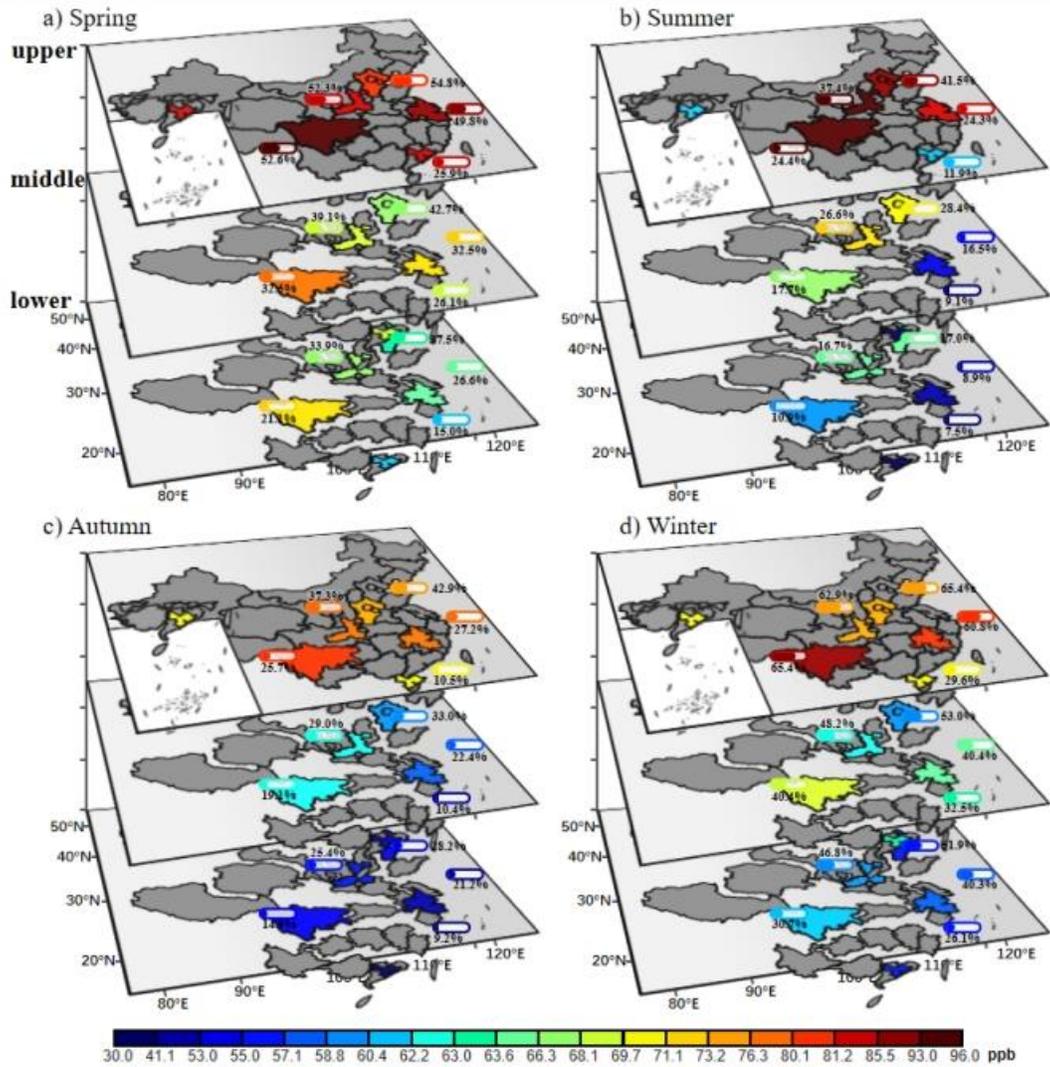
243 **Figure 2.** Boxplot analysis of maximum daily 8-hour average (MDA8) O₃ concentrations from
 244 2015 to 2023 in (a) BTH, (b) YRD, (c) PRD, (d) FWP, and (e) CY. The red circles denote
 245 SI-influenced days, and the purple dashed line represents the NAAQS of 140 µg/m³.

246

247 3.2 Quantification of the impact of SIs on tropospheric O₃

248 As discussed, SI is a critical factor driving temporal and spatial variations in tropospheric
 249 O₃. The contribution of SI varies greatly depending on its intensity, with deep SI events able to
 250 transport O₃-rich air into the lower troposphere, thereby significantly enhancing
 251 lower-tropospheric O₃ during springtime, particularly in middle and high latitudes (Zhao et al.,
 252 2021; Monks, 2000); while in contrast, shallow SI events have a weaker impact on
 253 lower-tropospheric O₃ (Stohl et al., 2003). To quantify the contributions of SI to tropospheric O₃ in
 254 the five megacity clusters investigated in this study, we used the stratospheric O₃ tagging approach,
 255 as detailed in the Methods section.

256



257

258 **Figure 3.** Seasonal variations of the contribution of SI to O₃ (unit: ppbv) at different levels in (a)
 259 spring, (b) summer, (c) autumn, and (d) winter. The percentage contributions of SI to tropospheric
 260 O₃ are highlighted by the bars.

261

262 **Figure 3** shows a positive correlation between O₃ and O₃S in all five megacity clusters,
 263 indicating the significant impact of SI on tropospheric O₃. Injected stratospheric O₃ contributed
 264 largely to tropospheric O₃ enhancement during SI periods, reaching up to 60% in the upper
 265 troposphere, suggesting a dominant role of SI in upper-tropospheric O₃ variations in recent years.
 266 Temporally, contributions from SI exhibited strong seasonality, with the largest impact in spring,
 267 followed by winter and summer, and the smallest in autumn. The reason for this seasonal
 268 characteristic is mainly related to the strengthening upper troposphere baroclinic activities, higher
 269 tropopause folding frequency, and upper tropospheric jet stream movements in spring and winter.
 270 Vertically, contributions from SI decreased with altitude, with the average O₃S/O₃ ratio being 40.1%
 271 in the upper troposphere and 24.5% in the lower troposphere. Spatially, the impacts of SI were
 272 most pronounced in mid-latitude regions, especially in spring, where contributions could reach

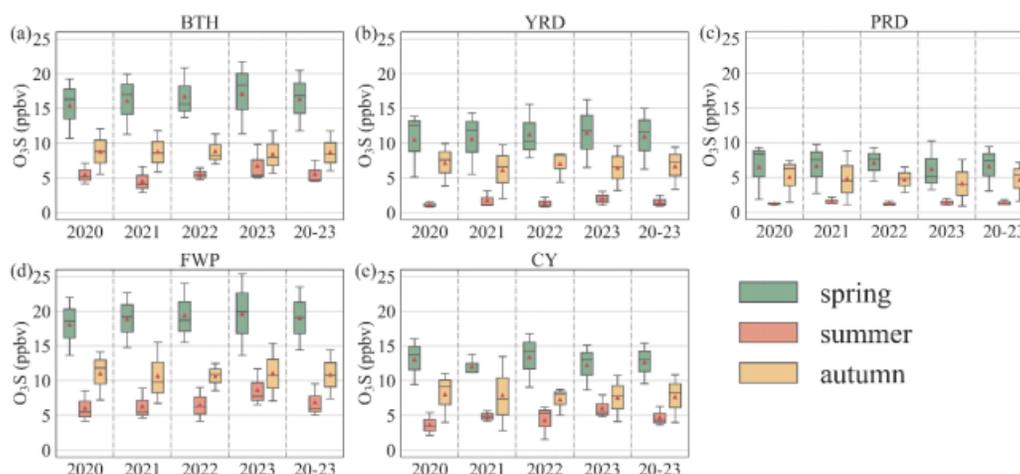
273 50%, 30%, and 20% in the upper, middle, and lower troposphere, respectively. The downward
 274 transport of stratospheric O₃ within the Hadley cell and frequent tropopause folds in mid-latitude
 275 regions likely caused the higher O₃S/O₃ ratio in the lower troposphere. In high-latitude regions, SI
 276 explained approximately 50%, 40%, 40%, and 60% of the upper-tropospheric O₃ during spring,
 277 summer, autumn, and winter, respectively. Due to lower tropopause heights in these regions, SI
 278 contributed an average of 16.7%–33.9% to lower-tropospheric O₃ enhancement during the O₃
 279 season (spring, summer, and autumn). Comparatively, SI had less impact on tropospheric O₃ in
 280 lower-latitude regions, with contributions accounting for 7.5%–15% of lower-tropospheric O₃.

281

282 3.3 Quantification of the impact of SIs on surface O₃

283 In the previous section, we found that SI significantly impacts tropospheric O₃, with
 284 contributions varying across seasons and regions. However, the extent of the contribution of SI to
 285 surface O₃ in the five megacity clusters studied here remains unclear.

286



287

288 **Figure 4.** Annual variations of the contribution of SI to O₃ (unit: ppb) in the surface layer from
 289 2020 to 2023 in (a) BTH, (b) YRD, (c) PRD, (d) FWP, and (e) CY. The bars in green, yellow, and
 290 purple represent spring, summer, and autumn, respectively.

291

292 **Figure 4** reveals that the contributions of SI to surface O₃ followed an increasing trend
 293 over BTH, YRD, and FWP during spring from 2020 to 2023, with annual increases of 0.45, 0.25,
 294 and 0.39 ppb/yr, respectively. This increase would mainly have been due to the strengthened BDC
 295 and increased frequency of tropopause folds (Butchart et al., 2010; Oberländer et al., 2013;
 296 Akritidis et al., 2016). Notably, the maximum contribution of SI in spring occurred in March, with
 297 faster increasing rates of 0.61 ppb/yr in BTH, 0.60 ppb/yr in YRD, and 0.96 ppb/yr in FWP,
 298 suggesting that against the backdrop of climate change, contributions from SI may potentially be
 299 heightening the risk of springtime O₃ pollution, leading to an earlier onset of O₃ pollution.

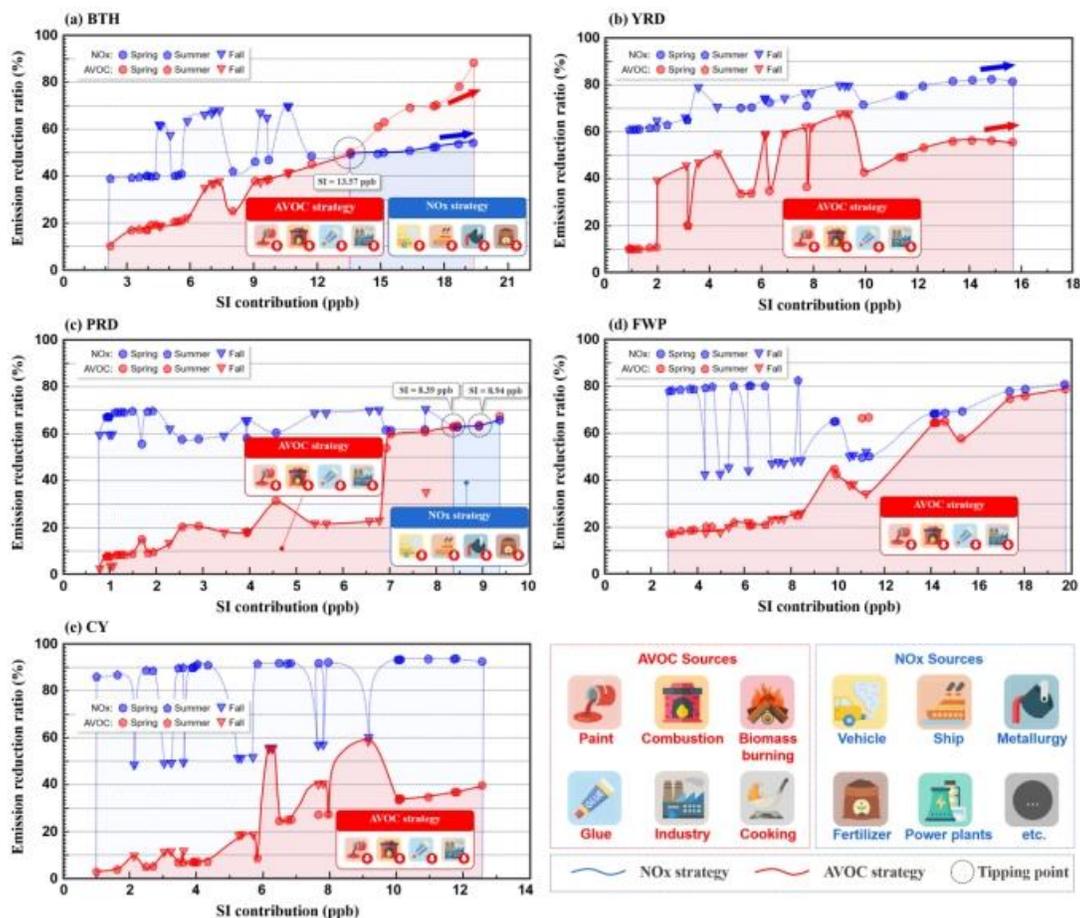
300 Temporally, contributions from SI exhibited distinct seasonal patterns, with spring maxima
 301 and summer minima, closely related to high-level jet movements, tropopause folding, and
 302 tropospheric convective activities. Spatially, SI had the largest impact on surface O₃ in BTH and
 303 FWP, with seasonal average contributions of 16.36 and 19.02 ppb, respectively. SI contributed an
 304 average of 10.97 and 12.69 ppb to surface O₃ during 2020–2023 in YRD and CY, respectively.
 305 Compared to the other regions, SI had a limited impact on surface O₃ in PRD, with a contribution
 306 of only 6.62 ppb. This spatial heterogeneity can be attributed to the decreasing tropopause height
 307 with increasing latitude and the high frequency of tropopause folding. Our results highlight the
 308 significant impact of SI on the surface O₃ budget and its sensitivity to climate change,
 309 underscoring the necessity for developing clear criteria for identifying SI, especially on O₃
 310 exceedance days.

311

312 3.4 Insights into refining O₃ control strategies

313 As discussed previously, SI can transport O₃-laden air from the stratosphere to the surface,
 314 necessitating additional controls on anthropogenic emissions to offset the negative impact of SI.
 315 Without accounting for contributions from SI, the effectiveness of O₃ control strategies may be
 316 significantly compromised.

317



318

319 **Figure 5.** Extra emission reductions (unit: %) in response to the contributions of SI in (a) BTH, (b)
320 YRD, (c) PRD, (d) FWP, and (e) CY. The red shading highlights priority control strategies
321 focusing on AVOC emissions, while the blue shading highlights those focusing on NO_x emissions.

322

323 To date, the Chinese government has not considered the contributions from SI when
324 formulating emission reduction strategies. Consequently, O₃ reductions may not achieve the
325 desired outcomes. By conducting the sensitivity study introduced in Section materials and
326 methods, we identified the optimal emission reduction pathways to offset SI contributions in BTH,
327 YRD, PRD, FWP, and CY (**Figure 5**).

328 Due to the negative impact of SI, greater emission reduction efforts are required to
329 counteract the additional O₃ influx from the stratosphere in all five megacity clusters. As
330 contributions from SI increase, more aggressive emission reduction strategies must be
331 implemented. The greatest emission reductions to mitigate the impacts from SI across the five
332 regions are needed in spring. Consequently, it is imperative to develop O₃ control strategies that
333 carefully consider the impact of springtime SIs.

334 Additionally, due to the nonlinear relationship between O₃ and its precursors in different
335 regions, there is significant spatial heterogeneity in the efficiency of emissions reduction to offset
336 the impacts of SI. As contributions from SI increase, the optimal control pathways for the BTH and
337 PRD regions shift from ‘VOC only’ to ‘NO_x only’, with thresholds of 13.57 and 8.39 ppb,
338 respectively. However, the underlying mechanisms for this transition differ between the two
339 regions. In BTH, significant SI contributions render the ‘VOC only’ pathway, although effective
340 for short-term O₃ reduction, less efficient for long-term emissions reduction. Once the
341 contributions from SI surpass certain thresholds, the ‘NO_x only’ pathway demonstrates a superior
342 emissions reduction efficiency. In PRD, as NO_x emissions have gradually decreased in response to
343 progressive atmospheric pollution control measures, O₃ formation has become increasingly
344 sensitive to NO_x. The OPS is shifting from a VOC-limited regime to a transitional regime because
345 of ongoing efforts in O₃ pollution control. For the other three regions, the ‘VOC only’ pathway
346 remains the optimal emissions reduction strategy to offset contributions from SI. Additionally, the
347 ‘NO_x only’ pathway incurs greater costs, and as contributions from SI increase, the gap in
348 effectiveness between the two pathways gradually narrows.

349 Overall, to offset the extra contributions of SI, it is necessary to reduce O₃ concentrations
350 through the mitigation of NO_x and VOCs. However, due to regional disparities in OPS, the
351 required reductions for offsetting SI vary by region. Moreover, when the contribution of SI
352 exceeds a certain threshold, the optimal reduction pathway may also undergo significant changes.

353 Against the backdrop of climate change, the global annual stratospheric intrusion O₃ flux
354 increased by 53% from 2000 to 2100 under the Representative Concentration Pathway 8.5
355 Scenario (Meul et al., 2018). With intensifying SI activities and worsening springtime O₃ pollution,
356 it is crucial to characterize SI behaviours to inform future O₃ control strategies. There are
357 considerable disparities in VOCs and NO_x emissions across industries. Anthropogenic sources of
358 VOCs emission primarily include fossil fuel combustion, biomass burning, oil and gas evaporation
359 and leakage, solvent evaporation, petrochemical processes, cooking, and tobacco smoke. NO_x
360 predominantly originates from industrial activities, transportation, and power plants. Therefore,
361 for the BTH and PRD regions, when SI contributions exceed the local control capacity,

362 policymakers need to dynamically adjust priorities to reduce O₃ precursors in specific industries,
363 thereby offsetting the additional contribution from SI.

364

365 **4 Conclusions**

366 This study fills a critical gap in understanding the role of SI in tropospheric O₃ pollution in
367 China and identifies optimal emission reduction pathways to counter the impacts of SI. Our
368 findings highlight the need for additional emission reduction efforts to mitigate the adverse effects
369 of SI. It is important to note, however, that our analysis focused on the impact of SI on seasonal
370 mean O₃ levels, which is likely to be more severe during episodes of high O₃ pollution. Moreover,
371 the OPS varies significantly across different regions and days, indicating that the most effective
372 emission reduction strategies must be dynamically adjusted.

373 Although SIs are natural events beyond human control, they significantly affect air quality
374 assessments. Unlike other exceptional events such as dust storms, identifying and attributing the
375 contributions of SI to O₃ exceedances requires rigorous scientific evaluation and operational
376 guidelines. To accurately reflect the outcomes of O₃ control strategies, adopting the US EPA's
377 exceptional event guidance could improve the scientific validity and accuracy of air quality
378 assessments in China.

379 SI events, driven mainly by atmospheric circulation dynamics and thermodynamics,
380 significantly differ from anthropogenic emission sources near the surface. Therefore, it is crucial
381 to exclude exceedance data from monitoring points during such events from air quality reports. In
382 2018, the US EPA released guidelines on 'Exceptional Events Demonstrations for Stratospheric
383 Ozone Intrusions'. However, due to the lack of definitive evidence regarding SI occurrences and
384 impacts in China, this study aimed to provide scientific assessments and operational guidelines.

385 China faces a critical period in its efforts to control O₃ pollution, necessitating stringent and
386 detailed O₃ strategies. It is essential to assess the impact of SI on these strategies. Stratospheric O₃
387 intrusion contributes significantly to long-term surface background O₃ concentrations, potentially
388 influencing China's long-term O₃ control policies. Thus, further scientific evaluation and research
389 are needed to understand the extent of this impact.

390 In many previous studies, stratospheric O₃ tracing methods used in air quality models have
391 been widely employed to track SI and quantify their contributions to tropospheric and near-surface
392 O₃ (Lin et al., 2015; Emmons et al., 2003; Smith et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2022). However, it
393 should be noted that the simulation of O₃S by air quality model remains inherent uncertainties due
394 to a fundamental flaw, which marks O₃ transported from the troposphere into the stratosphere as
395 being of stratospheric origin. This approach leads to an overestimation of the contribution of
396 stratospheric O₃ (Emmons et al., 2012; Hess & Lamarque, 2007). Hence, it is essential to further
397 enhance the accuracy of SI quantification in the future by improving stratospheric O₃ chemical
398 mechanisms, increasing the vertical resolution near the tropopause, and optimizing atmospheric
399 physical and chemical processes within the model.

400 Moreover, under climate change, stronger downward air mass movements can facilitate the
401 transport of accumulated stratospheric O₃ to the surface, thereby weakening the overestimation of
402 simulated O₃S. Therefore, in the case that direct observations of stratospheric O₃ are not feasible
403 due to technological limitations, simulation of O₃S is still an effective method to quantify the
404 impact of SI with the rising trend of compound extreme synoptic events. If the impacts of SI are

405 not considered, air quality and climate change mitigation policies may be less effective. Therefore,
406 we conclude that addressing regional O₃ pollution and climate change requires considering the
407 effects of SI.

408 The synergistic effect of air pollution reduction and carbon emissions has been
409 significantly enhanced by carbon peaking and neutralisation efforts. Anthropogenic emissions
410 have started to decrease noticeably, and the potential for further reducing VOC emissions is
411 diminishing. Consequently, the pace of emissions reduction has slowed. To address the increased
412 contribution of SI under climate change, it is crucial to quickly transition the OPS into an
413 NO_x-limited regime. This strategy aims to mitigate the adverse impacts of SIs by focusing on
414 reducing NO_x emissions.

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423 **Data availability**

424 The stratospheric O₃ tracer was retrieved from the NCAR
425 (<https://www2.acom.ucar.edu/gcm/waccm>). The meteorological data are available from fifth
426 generation ECMWF atmospheric reanalysis of the global climate
427 (<https://www.ecmwf.int/en/forecasts/dataset/ecmwf-reanalysis-v5>). The surface weather charts
428 were provided by the Hong Kong Observatory (http://envf.ust.hk/dataview/hko_wc/current/). The
429 WRF/Chem model code was downloaded from <http://www2.mmm.ucar.edu/wrf>. The
430 anthropogenic emission data were obtained from <http://www.meicmodel.org/>.

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