

# A Multi-Model Investigation of Asian Summer Monsoon UTLS Transport over the Western Pacific

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## Key Points:

- This model study is conducted in preparation for an airborne field campaign investigating the Asian monsoon transport
- Result shows that eastward eddy shedding of the anticyclone significantly alters upper tropospheric composition over the Western Pacific
- CO seasonal distribution provides a chemical perspective of the monsoon system and sheds new light on monsoon dynamics and circulation

## 32 Abstract

33 The Asian summer monsoon (ASM) as a chemical transport system is investigated using a suite  
34 of models in preparation for an airborne field campaign over the Western Pacific. Results show  
35 that the dynamical process of anticyclone eddy shedding in the upper troposphere rapidly  
36 transports convectively uplifted Asian boundary layer air masses to the upper troposphere and  
37 lower stratosphere (UTLS) over the Western Pacific. The models show that the transported air  
38 masses contain significantly enhanced aerosol loading and a complex chemical mixture of trace  
39 gases that are relevant to ozone chemistry. The chemical forecast models consistently predict the  
40 occurrence of the shedding events, but the predicted concentrations of transported trace gases  
41 and aerosols often differ between models. The airborne measurements to be obtained in the field  
42 campaign are expected to help reduce the model uncertainties. Furthermore, the large-scale  
43 seasonal chemical structure of the monsoon system is obtained from modeled carbon monoxide,  
44 a tracer of the convective transport of pollutants, which provides a new perspective of the ASM  
45 circulation, complementing the dynamical characterization of the monsoon.

## 48 1 Introduction

49 Fluctuations of the Asian Summer Monsoon (ASM) impact the lives of billions of people  
50 through the variability of precipitation patterns and intensity. Along with this major weather  
51 phenomenon is a significant chemical transport pathway that couples surface emissions of the  
52 ASM region to global climate and air quality. The coupling of the most polluted boundary layer  
53 on Earth to the largest upper troposphere and lower stratosphere (UTLS) dynamical system in the  
54 northern hemisphere (NH) summer season through deep monsoon convection has the potential to  
55 generate significant chemical and climate impacts. The behavior of the ASM as a transport  
56 pathway, the chemical composition of the UTLS outflow of the ASM air mass, the amount and  
57 properties of UTLS aerosols associated with the ASM, and the stratospheric water vapor  
58 enhancement due to the ASM are among the key elements of the Asian summer monsoon  
59 Chemical and Climate Impact Project (ACCLIP). The project is planned to use two high-altitude  
60 research aircraft, the NSF/NCAR research aircraft Gulfstream V (GV) and the NASA WB-57, to  
61 conduct in situ measurements of a wide range of trace gas and aerosol species in the UTLS.  
62 Also planned are balloon-borne measurements of aerosol and water vapor profiles to  
63 complement the airborne studies. This project follows and complements the Stratospheric and  
64 upper tropospheric processes for better Climate predictions (StratoClim;  
65 <http://www.stratoclim.org/>) project, which conducted high altitude research flights from  
66 Kathmandu, Nepal, and successfully sampled chemical distributions of a suite of trace gases and  
67 aerosols near the center of the ASM anticyclone during July-August 2017 (Höpfner et al., 2019;  
68 Bucci et al., 2020; von Hobe et al., 2021, Mahnke et al., 2021; Adcock et al., 2021).

69  
70 Due to the COVID-19 pandemic, the ACCLIP field campaign was postponed from summer 2020  
71 to 2022. To make productive use of the delay, the ACCLIP science team conducted a multi-  
72 model chemical forecasting and flight planning dry run during the 2020 ASM season. The dry  
73 run provided the first multi-model investigation of ASM transport from the monsoon anticyclone  
74 into the UTLS over the Western Pacific and subsequent transport into the global atmosphere.  
75 The resulting information from this study is not only important for ACCLIP project planning, but  
76 also sets the stage for discoveries during the campaign and for post-campaign data analysis. The

77 information we are presenting here about this multi-model study should also serve as a useful  
78 resource for future campaigns that involve complex chemistry and dynamical meteorology.

79  
80 Dynamically, the transport process that connects the core region of the ASM anticyclone  
81 (centered over the Tibetan plateau) with the Western Pacific UTLS is associated with eastward  
82 eddy shedding of the “parent” (Tibetan) anticyclone and the formation of the Western Pacific  
83 Anticyclone (WPA). This anticyclone eddy shedding process in the UT was first identified from  
84 low-PV air masses at the 370 K potential temperature level (Popovic & Plumb, 2001). From a  
85 different perspective, this process was also identified as a sub-seasonal east-west oscillation of  
86 the ASM anticyclone center between a Tibetan Plateau mode and an Iranian Plateau mode  
87 (Zhang et al. 2002; Liu et al., 2007). The implications of these processes for UTLS chemical  
88 composition were first identified using satellite water vapor (H<sub>2</sub>O), carbon monoxide (CO), and  
89 ozone (O<sub>3</sub>) data from the Microwave Limb Sounder (MLS) (Yan et al., 2011; Garny & Randel,  
90 2013) and CO in a chemistry climate model (Pan et al., 2016). These earlier works, however,  
91 centered on the oscillations between the Tibetan and Iranian modes, or the westward eddy  
92 shedding, which was also the focus of Popovic and Plumb (2001). A broader-scale structure of  
93 the eddy shedding’s transport impact was later identified using satellite CO data (Luo et al.,  
94 2018) and an analysis combining satellite data and trajectory modeling (Honomichl & Pan,  
95 2020). The latter provided the first statistical characterization of the eastward eddy shedding as a  
96 significant chemical transport process and identified the WPA as the Western Pacific mode of  
97 the ASM anticyclone (Honomichl & Pan, 2020). It is worth noting that a downstream signature  
98 of this transport was identified in airborne in situ measurements over the west of Europe in a  
99 2012 field campaign (Müller et al., 2016) with the support of Lagrangian modeling of transport  
100 tracers (Vogel et al., 2014). The presence of the WPA, also referred to as the Bonin High, has  
101 been studied in the context of the east Asia summer weather pattern (Enomoto et al., 2003;  
102 2004). As pointed out by Enomoto et al. (2003), the Bonin High, referred to as the WPA herein,  
103 is associated with negative PV anomalies at the tropopause level and should be distinguished  
104 from the north Pacific subtropical anticyclone in the lower troposphere. The latter is often  
105 referred to as the western Pacific subtropical high (WPSH, e.g., Rodwell and Hoskins 2001;  
106 Yang, Cai, et al., 2022). The dynamics of WPA formation and evolution have recently been  
107 described by Wang et al (2022).

108  
109 The recognition of eastward eddy shedding as a transport process linking the ASM processed  
110 airmasses to the Western Pacific opened a new opportunity for airborne sampling of the ASM  
111 chemical impact in the UTLS. The ACCLIP campaign was planned based on a small set of initial  
112 studies and observations (Ungermaun et al., 2016; Luo et al., 2018; Honomichl & Pan, 2020).  
113 The 2020 season modeling study results significantly expand and enrich the hypotheses first  
114 formulated in the campaign proposal phase. Briefly, we now have substantial evidence that the  
115 chemical trace gas and aerosol content of the ASM anticyclone can be sampled from the Western  
116 Pacific, owing to the intense transport via sub-seasonal scale eastward eddy shedding.

117  
118 In this paper, we present the insights we have obtained through the dry run and the post-dry-run  
119 analysis. The set of questions we aim to address is important not only for the ACCLIP campaign  
120 but also for expanding our knowledge of ASM dynamics and transport, as well as its linkage of  
121 the Asian boundary layer (BL) to the global atmosphere:

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- What are the primary convective transport BL origins for shedding airmasses over the Western Pacific? What is the transport time scale for these shedding airmasses?
  - How frequent are eastward shedding events expected to be throughout the planned campaign period?
  - How consistent are the models in predicting the spatial and temporal extent of shedding events, and the concentrations of transported chemical and aerosol loadings?
  - What is the modeled vertical depth of the ASM transport into the stratosphere throughout the season?

130 In addition to these questions, we have investigated the contribution from transport by Western  
131 Pacific convection, especially tropical cyclones. This process will be the focus of a separate model  
132 study.

133 In addressing these questions here, we aim to provide a comprehensive chemical characterization  
134 of the eastward eddy shedding process using models supported by satellite data and  
135 meteorological (re)analyses. The results from the set of state-of-the-art models also provide new  
136 perspectives on the seasonal-average structure of the ASM transport, chemical perturbations to  
137 the global lower stratosphere on seasonal time scales, and the leading ASM convective transport  
138 source regions. This new information complements the increasing number of ASM transport  
139 modeling studies (e.g., Park et al., 2009; Vogel et al., 2015, 2016, 2019; Pan et al., 2016; Plöger  
140 et al. 2017; Yu et al., 2017; Gottschaldt et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2021; Bossolasco et al., 2021) and  
141 provides additional insight into data analysis from recent airborne studies (e.g., Höpfner et al.,  
142 2019; Bucci et al., 2020; Adcock et al., 2021; von Hobe et al., 2021) and the analyses of satellite  
143 observations in the last decade (e.g., Park et al., 2007, 2008; Randel et al., 2010; Santee et al.,  
144 2017).

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## 146 **2 Models and satellite products used in the study**

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148 A suite of models and satellite data products are identified for supporting ACCLIP field  
149 operations and for post-campaign data analysis and interpretation. These models and products  
150 are listed in [Table 1](#). The results of post-dry-run analysis are derived largely from three global  
151 chemistry forecast models: NASA GEOS-FP, NCAR WACCM, and ECMWF CAMS. The  
152 transport analysis is also heavily supported by the Lagrangian trajectory model TRAJ3D and the  
153 idealized surface tracer in the WRF model. In addition, the models are supported by the CO data  
154 from multiple satellite instruments. A brief description is given in this section for each of the  
155 models and products.

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**Table 1.** Models and satellite products used in the 2020 forecast dry run

<b>Meteorological Forecast:</b>	<b>Satellite Products:</b>
NCEP GFS (0.5°)	HIMAWARI (multi-channel)
NCAR/MMM WRF-ARW (15km)	MLS (CO, H <sub>2</sub> O, O <sub>3</sub> at 100 and 150 hPa)
	TropOMI (trop CO)
<b>Chemical Forecast:</b>	AIRS (trop CO)
NCAR/ACOM WACCM (1°x1°x110L, interactive chemistry, nudging with GEOS)	CrIS (trop CO)
NASA GEOS-FP (0.25°x0.25°x70L)	IASI (trop & UT CO)
ECMWF CAMS (40km, data assimilation)	
<b>Lagrangian Model RDF:</b>	
TRAJ3D (GFS winds)	

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## 2.1 Chemical forecast models

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### GEOS-FP

161 The NASA Goddard Earth Observing System Forward Processing model (GEOS-FP, Lucchesi,  
 162 2018) is a state-of-the-art numerical weather prediction system that assimilates near-real time  
 163 observations. The GEOS-FP Atmospheric Data Assimilation System (ADAS) actively  
 164 assimilates roughly  $2 \times 10^6$  observations for each analysis, including about  $7.5 \times 10^5$  AIRS  
 165 radiance data. The GEOS atmospheric general circulation model (AGCM) uses finite-volume  
 166 dynamics (Lin, 2004) integrated with various physics packages (e.g., Bacmeister et al., 2006),  
 167 under the Earth System Modeling Framework (ESMF) including the Catchment Land Surface  
 168 Model (CLSM) (e.g., Koster et al., 2000). The assimilation is performed on a cubed-sphere grid  
 169 at C720 resolution (12 km), and all output products are saved on a “normal” geographic latitude-  
 170 longitude grid at a horizontal resolution of 0.3125° longitude by 0.25° latitude and at 72 vertical  
 171 levels, extending to 0.01 hPa. The majority of GEOS-FP data products are time-averaged, but  
 172 some instantaneous products are also available. Hourly data intervals are used for two-  
 173 dimensional products, while 3-hourly intervals are used for three-dimensional products. For  
 174 ACCLIP, 3-hourly instantaneous forecast products for CO and its tagged tracers, SO<sub>2</sub>, and  
 175 aerosols (including dust, sea salt, sulfate, black carbon, and organic matter) are used for dry-run  
 176 flight planning and science analysis. The tagged CO tracers, SO<sub>2</sub>, and aerosols in the GEOS  
 177 model simulations are documented in detail by Bian et al. (2013).

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### WACCM

179 The Whole Atmosphere Community Climate Model version 6 (WACCM6) is a component of  
 180 the Community Earth System Model 2 (CESM2) and is described by Gettelman et al. (2019).  
 181 This “high top” model has 110 levels with a vertical range from the surface to the lower  
 182 thermosphere (~ 140 km altitude; Garcia and Richter, 2019). The vertical resolution in the UTLS

183 is 500 m. The horizontal resolution is  $0.95^\circ$  latitude  $\times$   $1.25^\circ$  longitude. For the ACCLIP  
184 forecast dry run, the model uses the specified dynamics (SD) option (Lamarque et al., 2012),  
185 whereby reanalysis temperature and zonal and meridional winds are used to nudge the model  
186 state, thus affecting parameterizations controlling boundary layer exchanges, advective and  
187 convective transport, and the hydrological cycle. This model's dynamical constraints arise from  
188 meteorological fields provided by the Modern-Era Retrospective analysis for Research and  
189 Applications Version 2 (MERRA-2; Gelaro et al., 2017), and the nudging approach is described  
190 by Davis et al. (2022) with a nudging relaxation time constant of 50 hours.

191  
192 The model represents chemical processes in the troposphere through the lower thermosphere.  
193 The chemical species for this run are contained in the  $O_x$ ,  $NO_x$ ,  $HO_x$ ,  $ClO_x$ , and  $BrO_x$  chemical  
194 families, along with  $CH_4$  and its degradation products. This mechanism also includes primary  
195 non-methane hydrocarbons and related oxygenated organic compounds. The chemical processes  
196 are summarized in detail by Emmons et al. (2019). Reaction rates follow the JPL 2015  
197 recommendations (Burkholder et al., 2015). WACCM6 features prognostic stratospheric aerosols  
198 (Mills et al., 2017) using a modal aerosol model (MAM, Liu et al., 2016), which has been  
199 modified to change the mode widths and allow growth of sulfate aerosol into the coarse, or large  
200 size, mode (MAM4). This is important to properly represent aerosol sources in the stratosphere,  
201 including volcanic emissions, and natural background emissions of carbonyl sulfide (OCS),  
202 which form the stratospheric aerosol layer. The current mechanism includes a new detailed  
203 representation of secondary organic aerosols (SOAs), based on the "simple VBS" approach  
204 (Tilmes et al., 2019). The photolytic reactions are based on both inline chemical modules and a  
205 lookup table approach (Kinnison et al., 2007). The WACCM mechanism includes a total of 231  
206 species and 583 chemical reactions broken down into 150 photolysis reactions, 403 gas-phase  
207 reactions, 13 tropospheric, and 17 stratospheric heterogeneous reactions. Anthropogenic surface  
208 emissions are from the global CAMS (see below) emission data set version 4. Fire emissions are  
209 based on the FINN inventory Version 1.5 (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011). The volcanic  $SO_2$  emissions  
210 are derived for each volcanic eruption using the Neely and Schmidt (2016) database updated  
211 through the year 2020.

## 212 CAMS

213 The Copernicus Atmosphere Monitoring Service (CAMS, <https://atmosphere.copernicus.eu/>)  
214 provides twice daily global forecast and analysis of atmospheric composition using the  
215 Integrated Forecasting System (IFS) of the European Centre for Medium-Range Weather  
216 Forecasts (ECMWF). For the operational CAMS forecast, the IFS simulates the sink and source  
217 processes of tropospheric trace gases (Flemming et al., 2015) and aerosols (Rémy et al., 2019) in  
218 addition to the weather forecast parameters. The IFS uses a semi-Lagrangian advection scheme  
219 and a convective-mass flux scheme (Bechtold, 2014) for the simulation of the transport of all  
220 tracers. The monthly-mean CAMS-GLOB data (Granier et al., 2019) were used for the  
221 anthropogenic, biogenic and soil emissions. The Global Fire and Assimilation System (GFAS;  
222 Kaiser et al., 2012) provides daily wildfire emissions based on MODIS fire radiative power  
223 observations (Kaiser et al., 2012). The IFS in the CAMS configuration assimilates a wide range  
224 of satellite observations of  $CO$ ,  $O_3$ , nitrogen dioxide ( $NO_2$ ) and Aerosol Optical Depths (AOD)  
225 using the incremental 4D-Var approach of the IFS (Inness et al., 2019; Benedetti et al., 2012).  
226 The assimilated and passively monitored satellite measurements of atmospheric composition can  
227 be found at the CAMS satellite monitoring web pages

228 ([https://atmosphere.copernicus.eu/charts/cams\\_monitoring](https://atmosphere.copernicus.eu/charts/cams_monitoring)). Specifically in 2021, retrievals from  
 229 MOPITT and IASI were assimilated to and the global CAMS forecast with the IFS is the coarser  
 230 horizontal resolution of the CAMS forecast improve the CO initial conditions of the CAMS  
 231 forecasts. For the meteorological initial conditions (analysis) the same in-situ, remote sensing  
 232 and satellite observations are assimilated as in ECMWF's operational high-resolution weather  
 233 forecasts (HRES). The main differences between HRES (40km vs 9 km), while the number of  
 234 vertical levels (137 with the model top  $\sim 80$  km) is the same. Further differences are (i) the use of  
 235 a simplified representation of the numerical weather prediction background errors and (ii) the use  
 236 of prognostic aerosol and ozone in the IFS radiation scheme in the CAMS forecasts. HRES use  
 237 dynamically varying background errors for the weather parameters and aerosol and ozone  
 238 climatologies in the radiation scheme.

## 239 2.2 Other models

### 240 WRF-ARW and idealized surface tracers

241 To forecast the mesoscale meteorological circulation and the regional transport of BL air, the  
 242 Advanced Research version of the Weather Research and Forecasting model (WRF-ARW)  
 243 (Skamarock et al., 2019) version 4.1.1 was included in the suite of forecast models. The model  
 244 grid, covering the entire region of east Asia and the Western Pacific, consists of  $662 \times 386$   
 245 horizontal grid points with a spacing of 15 km and 52 vertical levels between the surface and  
 246 20 hPa. The runs were initialized at 0000 and 1200 UTC each day using NCEP Global Forecast  
 247 System (GFS; NOAA, 2021)  $0.25^\circ$  output interpolated to the WRF grid. Forecasts were run for  
 248 144 h with lateral boundary conditions supplied by the GFS. The model uses the Kain-Fritsch  
 249 convective parameterization, the WRF double-moment microphysics scheme (WDM6), the  
 250 Yonsei University (YSU; Hong et al., 2006) planetary boundary layer scheme, and the Rapid  
 251 Radiative Transfer radiation scheme (RRTMG).

252 Convective transport information was provided by a set of idealized boundary layer tracers as  
 253 described by Barth et al. (2012). These tracers were continuously released in four designated  
 254 regions: East China, Southeast Asia, Plateau South Flank and West Pacific, as shown in Figure  
 255 S1. The tracer had a constant value of unity throughout the model-predicted boundary layer and  
 256 was transported by WRF's physical and dynamical processes without impacting the model  
 257 simulation. Tracer concentrations in the UT from each designated region of release provide  
 258 diagnostics for the contributing BL top and the process of convective uplifting.

### 259 TRAJ3D

260 To complement the forward model forecast of transport from the regional boundary layer, a  
 261 back-trajectory based reverse domain filling (RDF; e.g., Schoeberl & Newman, 1995) approach  
 262 is used to forecast the regional boundary layer origins of the UTLS air mass over the campaign  
 263 domain. This RDF forecast was produced using the TRAJ3D model, which is a computationally  
 264 efficient three-dimensional trajectory model developed at Texas A&M (Bowman, 1993;  
 265 Bowman and Carrie, 2002). During the dry run, RDF was designed to forecast the regional BL  
 266 contribution from the four designated regions (as shown in Figure S1) within 15 days of transit  
 267 time. This was implemented by calculating the kinematic back-trajectories of air parcels  
 268 initialized in the UTLS over the campaign domain using TRAJ3D driven by the forecasted 3D  
 269 wind fields from NCEP GFS operational analysis (NOAA, 2021). The back trajectories are  
 270 initiated at  $0.5^\circ$  spatial intervals in both latitude and longitude at the 100, 150 and 200 hPa

271 pressure levels every 6 hours. The RDF forecast therefore provides information on rapid (i.e.  
272 convective) transport from the monsoon regional BL based on resolved wind fields. An example  
273 of the RDF forecast at 150 hPa is shown in Figure S1. In post-dry-run analysis, the back  
274 trajectories are calculated using TRAJ3D driven by ERA5 (Hersbach et al., 2020) reanalysis  
275 wind fields. Resulting diagnosis of transit times and contributing boundary layer regions is  
276 presented in Section 3.

### 277 2.3 Meteorological forecast products

278 Standard meteorological forecast products were produced from the NCEP GFS (NOAA, 2021),  
279 and from the NCAR WRF-ARW (described in Section 2.2). Products such as geopotential height  
280 and winds at various pressure levels, sea-level pressure and rainfall, and cloud forecasts were  
281 created to depict the weather systems over the study region.

### 282 2.4 Satellite information as references for model representation

283 To support the chemical forecast, multiple satellite datasets contributed to the dry run as listed in  
284 Table 1.

#### 285 MLS

286 The primary dataset contributing to the post-dry-run analysis reported in this paper is CO from  
287 the Aura Microwave Limb Sounder. MLS measurements have been used in a number of prior  
288 ASM studies (see Santee et al., 2017, and references therein). Here we use version 4.2 (v4.2)  
289 MLS measurements (Livesey et al., 2020). Although an updated MLS dataset (v5) was released  
290 in June 2020, it was not used for the dry run that summer because reprocessing with the v5  
291 retrieval algorithms of the entire MLS data record (needed to calculate the climatological fields  
292 against which the 2020 season's variations were compared) had not been completed at that time.  
293 MLS v4 and v5 CO products generally agree closely in the UTLS. MLS v4 H<sub>2</sub>O and O<sub>3</sub>  
294 measurements were also analyzed as part of the dry run.

#### 295 IASI

296 Satellite CO data from the Infrared Atmospheric Sounding Interferometer (IASI; Clerbaux et al.,  
297 2009) are also used to identify shedding events over the Western Pacific. The IASI CO vertical  
298 profiles have been validated against aircraft and other satellite data (George et al., 2015), and it  
299 was shown that most of its sensitivity is coming from the mid troposphere. But as demonstrated  
300 by Luo et al., (2018), this nadir-sounding instrument is able to resolve the CO enhancement in a  
301 UT layer even though it has a relatively weak CO retrieval information in the UT. The much  
302 higher density of the IASI horizontal sampling (more than 1.2 million observations per day)  
303 complements the limb sounder.

#### 304 AIRS, CrIS, & TROPOMI

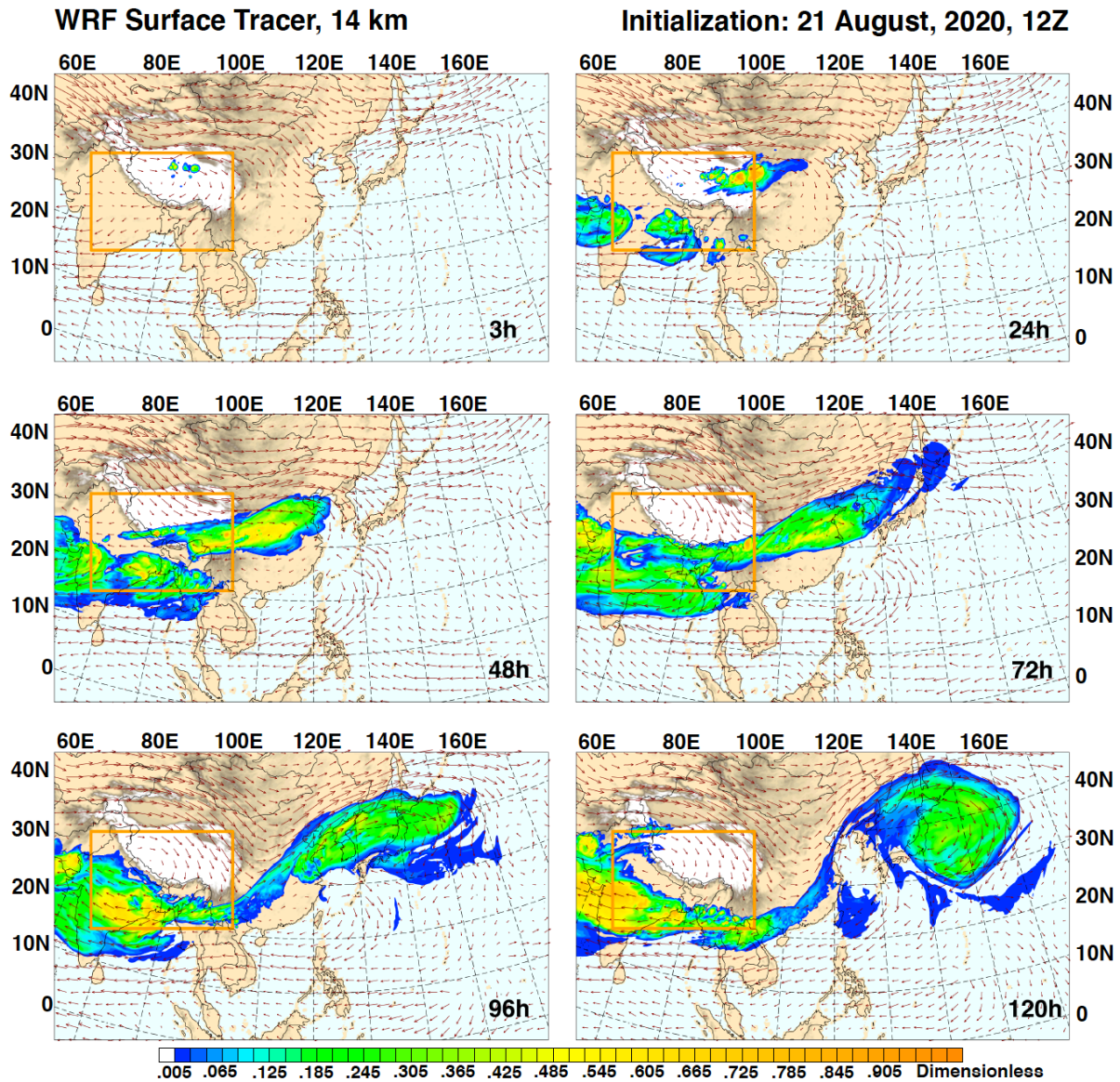
305 To provide references for tropospheric CO in Asia and to monitor possible strong emission  
306 events, three satellite datasets for tropospheric CO columns were also included in the dry run  
307 exercise. These are the Atmospheric Infrared Sounder (AIRS; Aumann et al., 2003), the Cross-



314 track Infrared Sounder (CrIS; Goldberg et al., 2013), and TROPOspheric Monitoring Instrument  
315 (TROPOMI; Borsdorff et al., 2019). AIRS and CrIS are primarily sensitive to mid-tropospheric  
316 CO and provide similar CO column products. TROPOMI, on the other hand, provides a mix of  
317 near-surface and free-tropospheric concentrations.  
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### 319 **3 Eastward eddy shedding**

320 Transport associated with eastward eddy shedding is a significant component of the overall ASM  
321 dynamics and its impact on UTLS composition. In this section, we begin by diagnosing the air  
322 mass connection between the Asian BL and the Western Pacific UTLS. Two complementary  
323 diagnostics are presented. One follows the air masses from the Asian BL in an eastward shedding  
324 event (forward), and the other traces the air masses over the Western Pacific UTLS backward to  
325 identify the primary region from which they left the BL. Evolution of a shedding event at the  
326 tropopause level is then shown by an example using complementary observations, followed by  
327 an example chemistry model representation of the shedding event. Finally, we characterize the  
328 occurrence of shedding events for the 2020 ASM season using modeled UT CO.



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**Figure 1.** WRF model forecast of an idealized surface tracer, initiated from the region marked by the orange box (designated as “Plateau South Flank”, see Fig. S1), at 14 km at 6 forecast time steps. The results illustrate the significant contribution of the region’s boundary layer to the northwestern Pacific UT through an eastward shedding event.

Dynamically, eddy shedding in the UT has been described as instability of the parent anticyclone associated with the convectively forced low-PV air (Popovic & Plumb, 2001; Garny & Randel, 2013). As a transport process, this scenario can be described as convection lofting BL air to the UT, followed by the shedding event transporting these lofted air masses east-west quasi-isentropically at the top of convection. Here we elucidate this process using an idealized surface tracer modeled in WRF-ARW (described in Section 2). [Figure 1](#) shows the distribution of this idealized surface tracer, initiated in the BL within a region defined as “Plateau South Flank”, at 14 km altitude for six time-steps from 3 hours to 120 hours. At the 120-hour (5-day) step, a large “blob” of the tracer is over the northwestern Pacific, east of Japan. The wind field overlaid

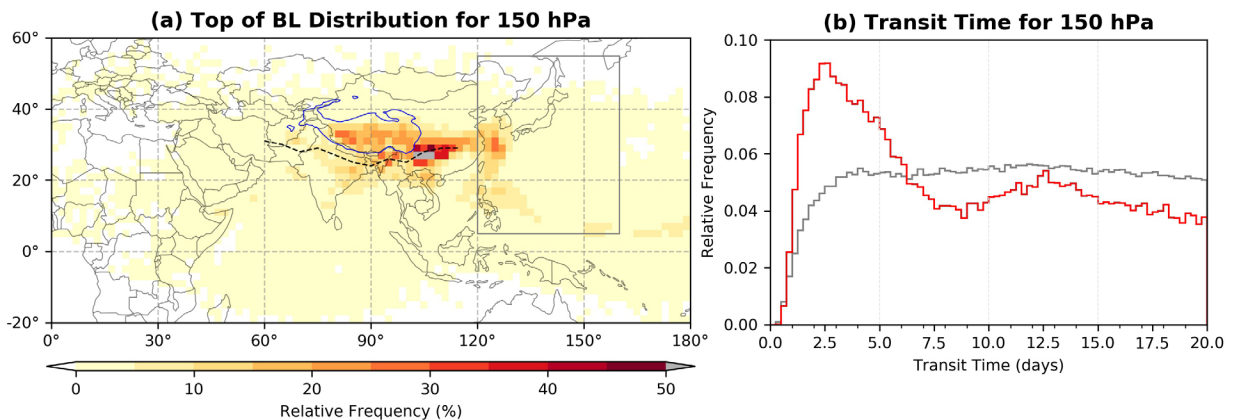
344 with the tracer indicates the co-location of the tracer with the WPA. The transport transit time in  
 345 this example,  $\sim 5$  days, is representative of other events.

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347 The identification of this South Asia BL region as the primary source contribution to the  
 348 anticyclone-confined air mass is consistent with past studies. In a back trajectory analysis,  
 349 Bergman et al. (2013) identified a “conduit”, centered in the region at the southeastern edge of  
 350 the Tibetan plateau, for air masses entering the ASM anticyclone. In a Lagrangian model study  
 351 using a boundary emission tracer, Vogel et al. (2015) identified the region of Northern India and  
 352 Southern China as the leading source. From an entirely different approach, this region was  
 353 shown to be the center of the “chimney” in the convective transport of CO using a chemistry  
 354 model (Pan et al., 2016). Trajectory statistics have also shown that this is within the transport  
 355 “hot spot” (southeastern side of the Plateau and north side of the Bay of Bengal) for the air  
 356 masses in the WPA to pass through the regional BL (Honomichl & Pan, 2020). The example in  
 357 [Figure 1](#) demonstrates the process of convective lofting in this BL region and subsequent  
 358 eastward transport into the Western Pacific UT.

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360 Among the four designated regions, the idealized surface tracer released from the East China box  
 361 (see [Figure S1](#)) also makes a significant contribution to the Western Pacific UT, often mixed  
 362 with the South Asia tracer. The Southeast Asia tracer, on the other hand, has relatively little  
 363 contribution over the Western Pacific, largely because Southeast Asia’s upper-level flow is  
 364 dominated by the easterly jet. The tracer from the Western Pacific region shows a significant  
 365 contribution associated with tropical cyclone activity.



366

367 **Figure 2.** Trajectory model diagnosis of the boundary layer (BL) origin (a) and transit times (b) for the UT air  
 368 mass over the northwestern Pacific domain (indicated by the gray rectangle). The relative frequency distribution  
 369 map (a) shows the BL contribution to the 150 hPa level airmass in the domain within 20 days of transit time based  
 370 on the back-trajectory analysis. The Tibetan plateau is marked by the thin blue line, and the monsoon trough of  
 371 the season, analyzed using surface pressure data of July-August 2020, is shown by the black dashed line. The two  
 372 transit-time distributions (TTDs) within the 20 days (b) represent the air parcels for the entire domain (gray) and  
 373 those filtered using a geopotential height (GPH) threshold value (red; see text), respectively. The relative  
 374 frequency for each distribution is normalized within the 20 days. The TTDs are given in 6-hour bins.

375

376

377 Although back-trajectory statistics of BL transport origin for the UT WPA have been reported in  
 378 a previous study (Honomichl & Pan, 2020), here we present a refined analysis for a broader  
 379 Western Pacific domain (the domain for ACCLIP) for the 2020 July-August season. In this

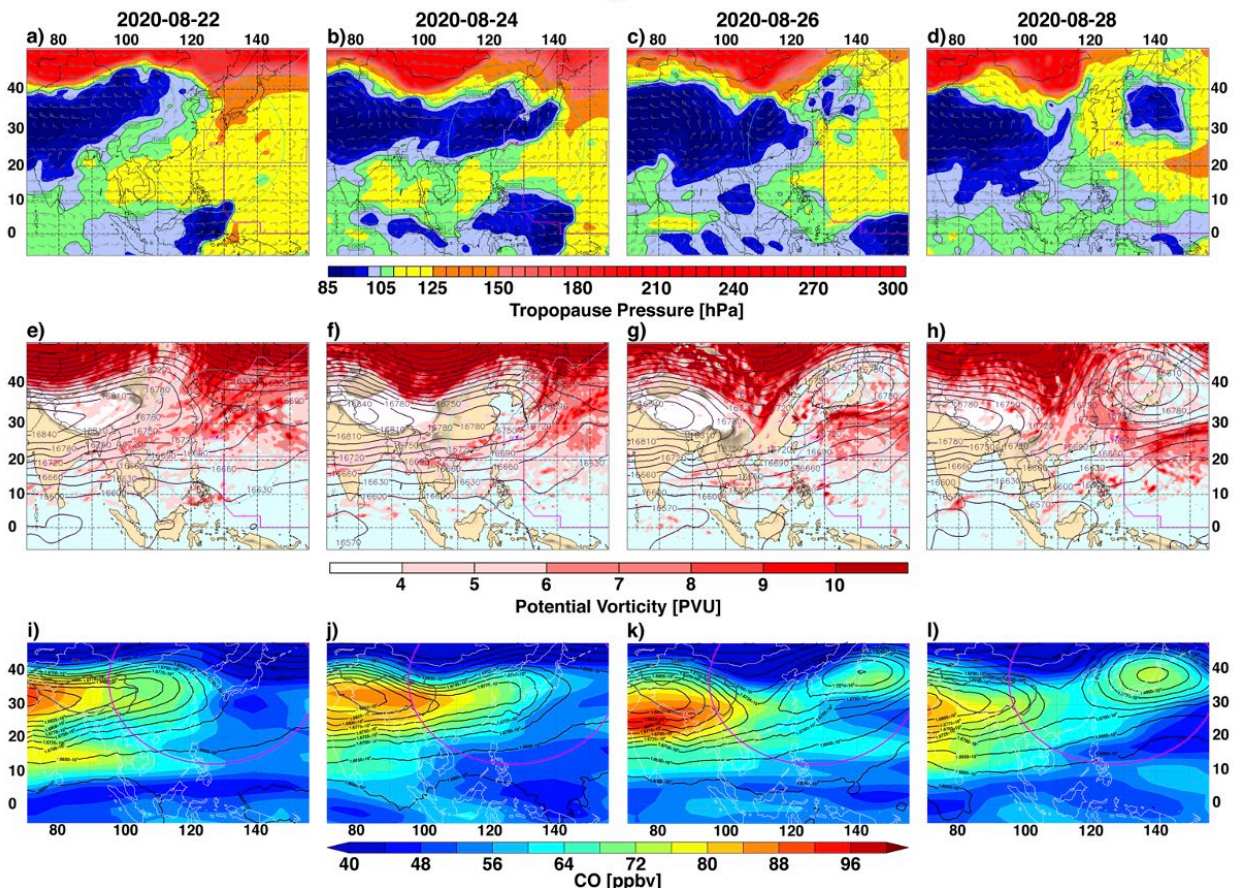
380 analysis, the back trajectories are calculated for air parcels initialized over the domain [120°-  
381 160°E; 5°-55°N] (gray rectangle in [Figure 2](#)) at 0.5-degree spacing, multiple pressure levels, and  
382 in 6-hour intervals from 1 July to 31 August 2020. The calculation is done using the trajectory  
383 model TRAJ3D (described in Section 2) driven by 3D kinematic winds from ERA5 reanalysis  
384 with 0.25° resolution and 1 hourly time interval. Although we have examined the results from  
385 60-day back trajectories at multiple pressure levels, in [Figure 2](#) we show the BL source  
386 distribution map and transit time distributions (TTDs, a.k.a. “age spectra”) within the first 20-  
387 days (to focus on “rapid transport”) for air parcels initialized at the 150 hPa level. The BL source  
388 regions are identified in the relative frequency distribution map, which shows where the back  
389 trajectories initialized within the study domain intercepted the top of the BL (defined as the level  
390 of 87% of the surface pressure, following Bergman et al., (2013) and Honomichl & Pan, (2020)).  
391 The TTDs are calculated using trajectory length for the parcels reaching the BL top within 20  
392 days. The gray line indicates the TTD from all air parcels within the domain (gray rectangle),  
393 while the red line shows the TTD for air parcels filtered using a geopotential height (GPH)  
394 threshold to select only those air parcels with 150 hPa GPH higher than 14.35 km. This filter is  
395 used as a proxy for identifying the air masses either within the anticyclone or in the eddy  
396 shedding. The TTD for the filtered air parcels corresponds roughly to the analysis of Honomichl  
397 & Pan (2020, their Fig. 9), where the result has shown a similar distribution for the contributing  
398 BL, highlighting contributions from both ASM convection and western Pacific tropical cyclones.  
399 The entrainment of air lofted by the western Pacific tropical cyclone into the ASM anticyclone  
400 has been previously identified by trajectory model studies (e.g., Bergman et al., 2013).  
401 Observationally, this process has been identified by an ozonesonde analysis with trajectory  
402 modeling support (Li et al., 2021).

403  
404 There are two significant refinements in this approach over the previous study (Honomichl &  
405 Pan, 2020). First, the high spatial and temporal resolution of the ERA5 reanalysis winds improve  
406 the trajectory model representation of convective transport over the ERA-interim data (0.7° and 6  
407 hourly, Dee et al., 2011) used in the earlier study, as demonstrated by Smith et al. (2021). This  
408 improved representation is likely a key factor revealing the association of the primary region  
409 from which the air mass left the BL with the monsoon trough, the region known for deep  
410 convection and heavy rainfall (e.g., Krishnamurti and Bhalmé; 1976). This identification shows  
411 the physical consistency for the dominant location of convective transport, a connection was not  
412 made in previous studies (Bergman et al., 2013; Pan et al., 2016; Honomichl & Pan 2020).

413  
414 Second, the use of a broader domain provides a good contrast between background and shedding  
415 airmasses in terms of their transport times, as shown by the filtered (red) vs background (gray)  
416 TTDs. The two distributions have very different transport time scales. The trajectory calculations  
417 indicate that 57% of all air parcels leaving the top of the BL, primarily over Asia, reach the 150  
418 hPa level over the Western Pacific within 20 days; for 60 days the number is 91%. The  
419 corresponding percentages for the unfiltered air parcels are approximately 30% for 20 days and  
420 67% for 60 days. The mode in the filtered TTD is around 2 days and the distribution has a width  
421 of approximately a week. Note that the GPH filtering only approximately identifies the  
422 “younger” shedding air masses because of the small-scale mixing during the shedding process,  
423 which is hinted at in [Figure 3](#), where the high-PV stratospheric (older) air mixes into the high-  
424 GPH (shedding) region. The TTD (age spectrum) represented by the red curve therefore also  
425 includes an unquantified portion of older air masses.

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Having established the connection between eastward shedding and the Asian BL, especially the connection with the region along the monsoon trough, we show in Figure 3 the evolution of a shedding event at the tropopause level for a period of a week in late August 2020. The dynamical structure of anticyclonic shedding shows a bulging tropopause (described as a “doming tropopause” in Popovic and Plumb (2001)). We characterize this structure by the tropopause pressure and PV distribution at 100 hPa, both from GFS operational analysis. The effect of the structure on chemical composition is shown using CO from MLS.



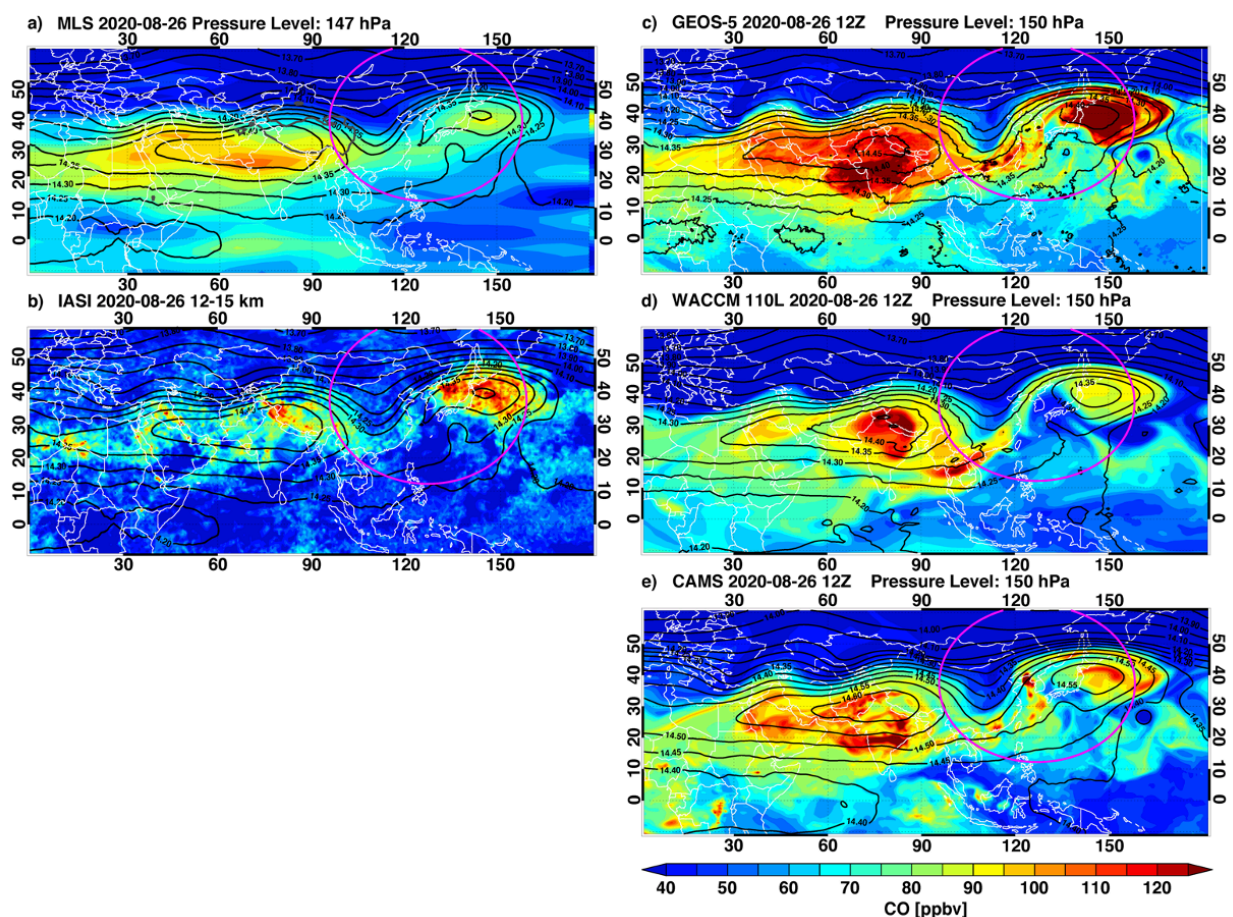
435  
436 **Figure 3.** Dynamical structure of the tropopause region during a shedding event (22-28 August 2020) from  
437 tropopause pressure, 100 hPa PV distribution and daily 100 hPa CO distribution interpolated from MLS data. Top  
438 row: WMO lapse rate tropopause pressure from the GFS analysis. Dark blue highlights the region of the  
439 tropopause higher than (i.e., at pressures lower than) 100 hPa. Center row: 100 hPa GPH (overlaid black  
440 contours) and PV fields (color fill) from the GFS analysis. Bottom row: interpolated daily MLS CO data at 100  
441 hPa with the GPH from GFS. The relatively sparse daily along-track data have been mapped onto a regular grid.  
442 The magenta ring shows the nominal range of the research aircraft with Osan, ROK as the base of ACCLIP  
443 operations.

444

445 Together, these three fields form a consistent picture on a broad scale: during an eastward  
446 shedding event, the bulging tropopause structure associated with the ASM anticyclone migrates  
447 eastward into the region over the northwestern Pacific and breaks off toward the end of the  
448 event. The Rossby wave activity that created this structure is shown by the 100 hPa PV  
449 distribution, which marks the propagation of the anticyclonic circulation from the Tibetan mode

450 to the Western Pacific mode and the subsequent formation of the Bonin High (Wang et al.,  
 451 2022). The PV field also identifies the region dominated by low-PV tropospheric air at the 100  
 452 hPa level within the anticyclone and high-PV stratospheric air wrapping around the eastern edge  
 453 of the anticyclone, intruding into subtropical latitudes (Randel and Park, 2006). The distribution  
 454 of enhanced CO at 100 hPa shows the constituent transport associated with the shedding and the  
 455 separation of the shed air mass from the main ASM anticyclone.

456  
 457 Using this late August 2020 period, we examine the representation of the shedding process in the  
 458 three global chemical forecast models identified for the ACCLIP campaign operations. In [Figure](#)  
 459 [4](#) we show 150 hPa CO from the three models, GEOS-FP, WACCM, and CAMS, for 26 August  
 460 2020 (within the period shown in [Figure 3](#)), together with two maps of the CO distributions  
 461 based on the MLS 147 hPa product and the IASI 12-15 km layer product.



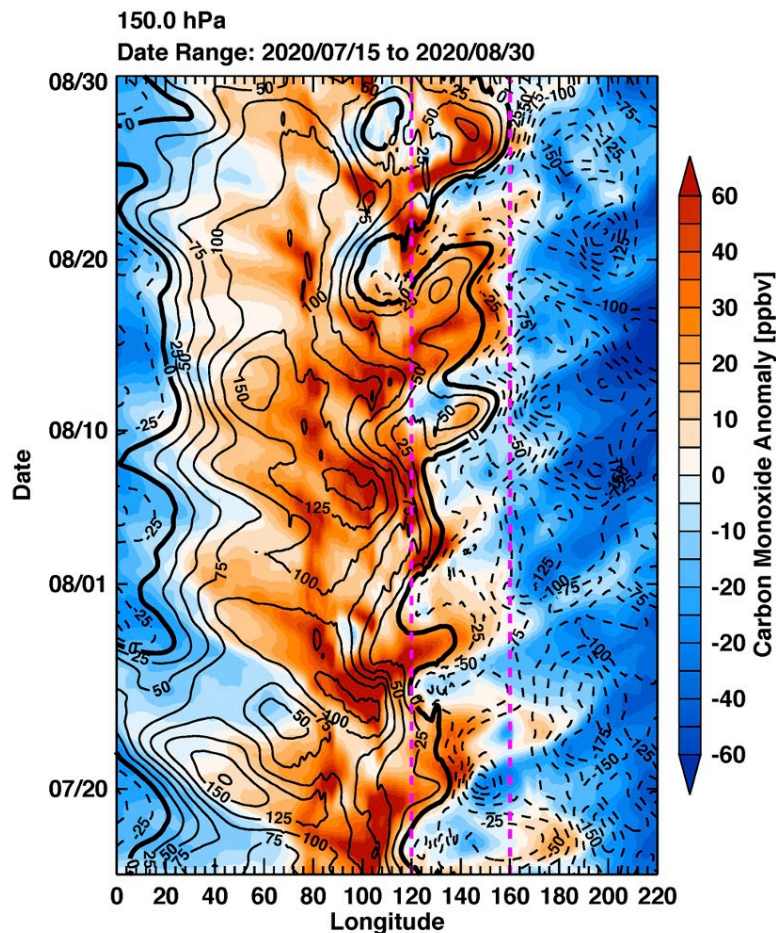
463  
 464 **Figure 4.** A snapshot of an eddy shedding event (2020-08-26) shown by MLS and IASI satellite data (left) and the  
 465 GEOS-FP, WACCM, and CAMS models (right). The eastward shedding airmass is highlighted by the enhanced CO  
 466 from satellite observations in both MLS (limb viewing) and IASI (nadir) data. Also included are selected 150 hPa  
 467 GPH contours (black). GPH from GFS is used for the MLS and IASI maps.

468  
 469 The quantitative differences between the CO maps produced from MLS and IASI data are  
 470 expected, since the two instruments use very different observing geometries – respectively limb  
 471 and nadir sounding (Luo et al., 2018). The important message here is that the locations and  
 472 morphologies of the shedding air masses as represented by the observed UT CO products are

473 reasonably consistent. Similarly, we see general consistency in the three model representations of  
 474 the shedding location, which engenders confidence in our ability to identify the targeted  
 475 processes. The quantitative differences provide a desirable spectrum of reference for the airborne  
 476 sampling. The use of multiple models provides operational robustness in forecasting capability.  
 477 Note that detailed model intercomparison is not an objective of this work.

478

479 The snapshots and event evolution we have shown identify the location of the target air masses  
 480 for the ACCLIP project. We examine next the time scales for the occurrence of shedding events  
 481 throughout an ASM season. **Figure 5** is a “time-longitude” Hovmöller diagram for seven weeks  
 482 from mid-July to the end of August 2020, the period of the ASM season targeted by the ACCLIP  
 483 campaign. This diagram is constructed using 150 hPa GPH and CO from GEOS-FP. Shedding  
 484 events, both eastward and westward, are identified by positive anomalies of CO, which are  
 485 correlated with positive GPH anomalies. Note that the longitudinal segment of the Tibetan  
 486 Plateau (approximately 80-100°E), which is the primary location of convective uplifting and the  
 487 source region for constituents identified in the shedding air masses (Pan et al., 2016; Luo et al.,  
 488 2018), is marked by persistent positive CO anomalies throughout the season.



489

490 **Figure 5.** Seasonal evolution of the ASM anticyclone eastward and westward eddy shedding captured by  
 491 the CO (color scale) and GPH (black line) anomalies from the GEOS-FP model at 150 hPa, using once-  
 492 daily model output. The anomalies are calculated against the respective mean values of GPH or CO along

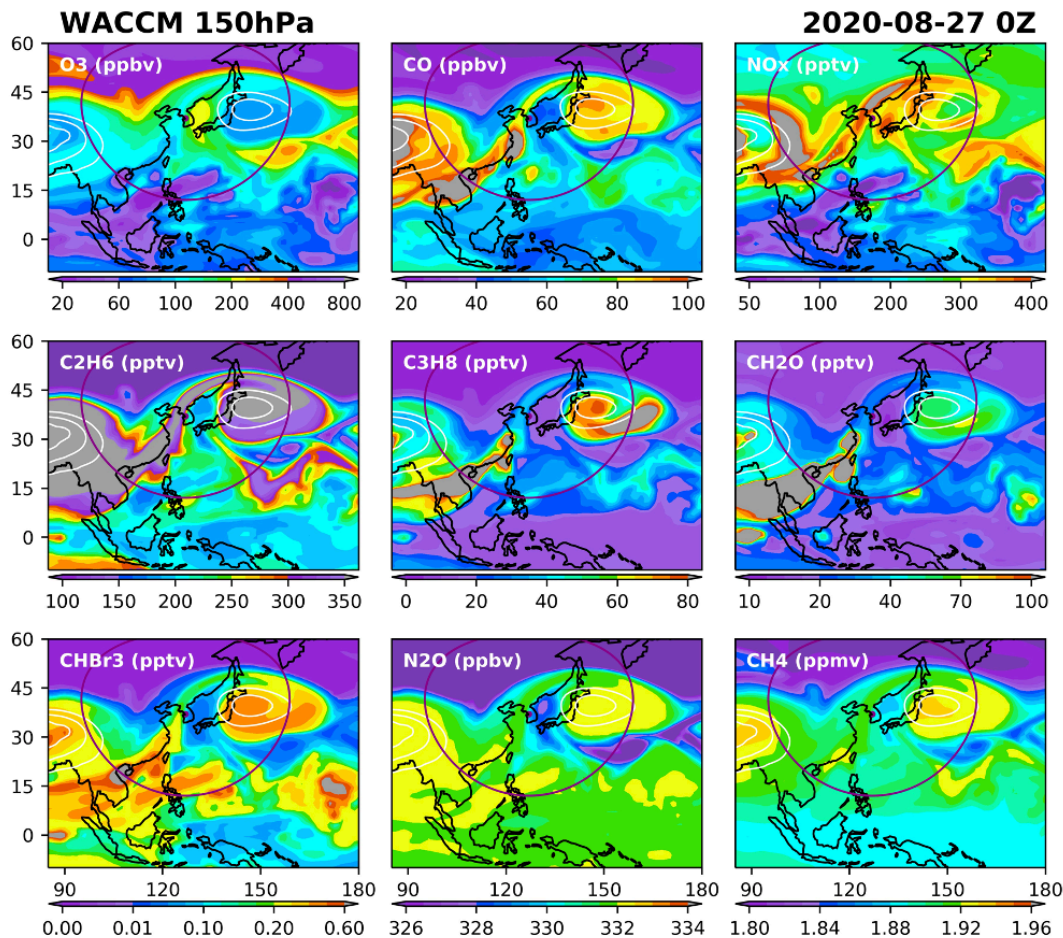
493 the ridge over the longitude range of 0-220°E. The longitudinal range of the ACCLIP campaign domain is  
494 marked by the two parallel dashed lines (magenta).  
495

496 **Figure 5** indicates that the frequency of eastward shedding events is quasi-weekly for this season  
497 (~6 events in 45 days). The chemical signature of the events persists for 3-9 days in the  
498 campaign domain. There should be, therefore, sufficient opportunities for the campaign to  
499 sample shedding air masses. The figure further highlights that eastward shedding intensifies  
500 toward the second half of August, at least in 2020.

#### 501 **4 Chemical trace gas and aerosol content within the eddy shedding air mass**

502  
503  
504 Up to this point, we have used CO to represent the chemical signature of the eddy shedding. CO  
505 is an effective tracer of convective transport of pollutants, because it has strong emission sources  
506 in both human activities and biomass burning and its lifetime is relatively short. Although the  
507 global-average lifetime of CO is estimated to be 2 months (e.g., Khalil & Rasmussen, 1990;  
508 Duncan et al., 2007), within the ASM anticyclone its UT lifetime can be much shorter. A  
509 snapshot from a WACCM model calculation shows the lifetime of CO in the core region of the  
510 anticyclone to be ~ 1 month (**Figure S2**). CO is closely tied to the photochemistry of ozone and  
511 aerosols. These factors, combined with the widely available satellite CO data, make CO the  
512 most-used chemical tracer in ASM transport studies (e.g., Li, et al., 2005; Park et al., 2007, 2009;  
513 Pan et al., 2016; Bucci et al., 2020; von Hobe et al., 2021; Yang, Li, et al., 2022). An important  
514 goal of the airborne campaign is to investigate the chemical complexity of ASM-related  
515 transport, using CO as a primary tracer for the air mass, to quantitatively characterize the ASM-  
516 driven UTLS chemical distributions in both gas phase and aerosols. The species of particular  
517 interest are those contributing to ozone chemistry in the UT, the very short-lived substances  
518 (VSLS) relevant for stratospheric ozone, the species contributing to aerosol formation, and the  
519 species necessary for diagnosing the role of the ASM in atmospheric oxidation capacity. This  
520 last point was the focus of a model study combining airborne in situ measurements from the  
521 Oxidation Mechanisms Observation (OMO) campaign (Lelieveld, et al., 2018).





522  
 523 **Figure 6.** Chemical trace gas content in the shedding air mass from the WACCM model at 150 hPa.  
 524 Example of 27 August 2020. The 9 selected species from WACCM highlight the impact of the shedding  
 525 event on the composition of the UT near the tropopause. Selected GPH contours (14300, 14340, 14380 m),  
 526 at 150 hPa are overlaid to indicate the anticyclone shedding.

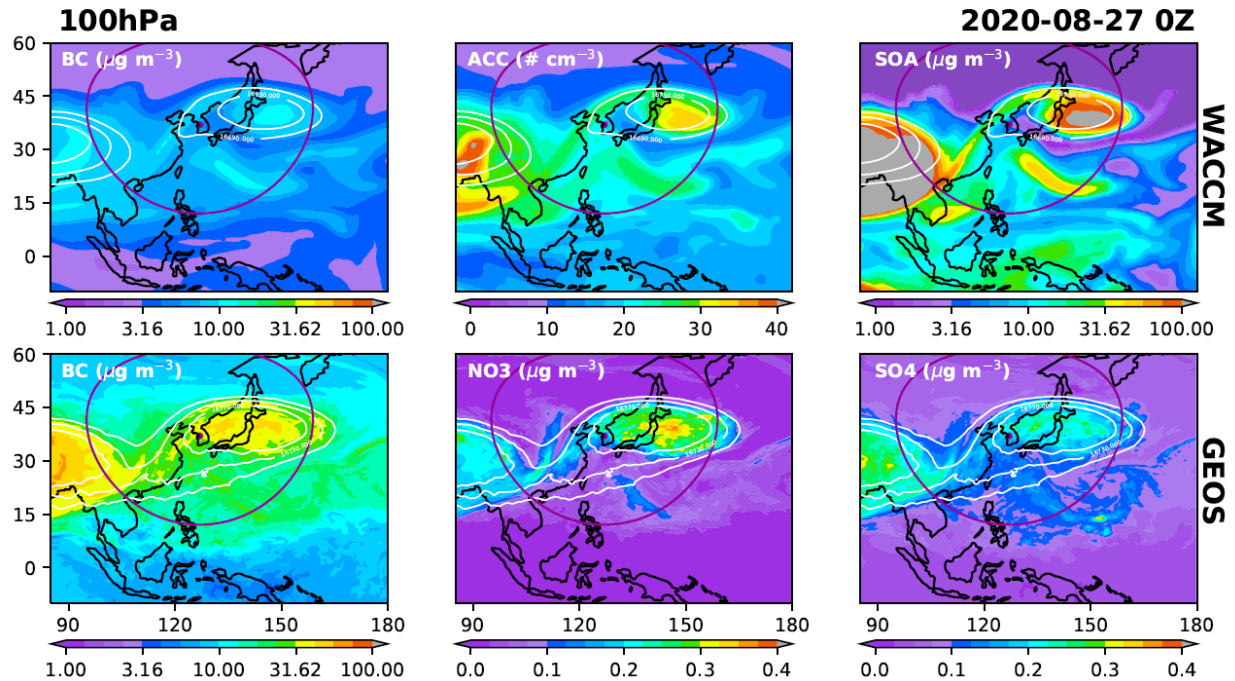
527  
 528 To set the stage for this investigation, we have inspected a large suite of chemical species in gas  
 529 phase and aerosols available in the models involved in this study. [Figure 6](#) shows a snapshot of  
 530 9 selected species at 150 hPa for 27 August 2020 from WACCM. The distributions of these  
 531 species all have a clear signature of shedding. Together, they highlight the chemical complexity  
 532 of the UT air mass driven by the ASM transport. While the depressed ozone abundances in the  
 533 shedding air mass suggest that ASM transport contributes to lowering UT ozone, the elevated  
 534 levels of key ozone precursors in the shedding airmass, including  $\text{NO}_x$ , CO,  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6$ , and  $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8$ ,  
 535 suggest that the ASM airmass will contribute to increased UT ozone production. Chemically, the  
 536 large enhancement of  $\text{CH}_2\text{O}$ , a very short-lived (lifetime  $\sim 0.5$  day) key intermediate volatile  
 537 organic compound (VOC) degradation product, within the shedding air mass suggests active  
 538 VOC oxidation. From a transport point of view, the large enhancement of  $\text{CHBr}_3$ , a VLSL source  
 539 gas, indicates that marine air is also mixed in with continental pollution, lofted to the UTLS, and  
 540 redistributed by the monsoon circulation. Enhancement of both short-lived species and very  
 541 long-lived greenhouse gases  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{CH}_4$ , compared to the background UTLS, indicates that  
 542 efficient ASM vertical transport connects the BL to the UT.

543

544 The chemical complexity of the shedding air mass in terms of differences in lifetimes, emission  
545 origins, and their roles in ozone photochemistry underscores the importance of chemical  
546 modeling. Integrating airborne in situ observations and modeling is essential for in-depth  
547 understanding of the chemical evolution within these shedding events and therefore the chemical  
548 impact of the ASM transport.

549  
550 In addition to the enhanced BL trace gas species, the role of the ASM in creating a unique and  
551 recurring aerosol layer around the tropopause level is an important scientific issue motivating the  
552 ACCLIP campaign. This aerosol layer, referred to as the Asian Tropopause Aerosol Layer  
553 (ATAL), was initially discovered by satellite data analysis (Vernier et al., 2011a,b; Thompson &  
554 Vernier, 2013) and has been investigated since using satellite, balloon-borne, and ground-based  
555 measurements as well as modeling (e.g., Vernier et al., 2015, 2018; Yu et al., 2017; Brunamonti  
556 et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020). The most notable information gap is the chemical composition  
557 and particle size distribution of the aerosols, which are critical for diagnosing ATAL formation  
558 and maintenance mechanisms and their radiative effects. Information on these parameters is  
559 critically needed for improving model representation. The StratoClim campaign obtained the first  
560 significant set of airborne in situ and remote-sensing aerosol data in the ATAL (Höpfner et al.,  
561 2019; Mahnke et al., 2021; Weigel et al., 2021a,b) from Kathmandu-based research flights.  
562 These measurements sampled the South Asian region including Nepal, Pakistan, northern India,  
563 and the Bay of Bengal. The data identified a unique characteristic of aerosol composition as  
564 containing a significant amount of ammonium nitrate ( $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$ ), and it was found to be  
565 associated with a high concentration of gas-phase ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ) in the UT (Höpfner et al.,  
566 2019).

567  
568 The StratoClim flight domain is in the vicinity of the major source region for the air mass  
569 confined in the anticyclone (e.g., Bergman et al., 2013; Vogel et al., 2015; Pan et al., 2016;  
570 Honomichl & Pan, 2020). The air mass sampled in this region is expected to have strong  
571 influence from recent convection and typically consists of younger air (Bucci et al., 2020; Legras  
572 & Bucci, 2020; Lee et al., 2021). The tracers from the WRF model and trajectory statistics in  
573 [Figures 1&2](#) suggest that the air masses associated with eastward shedding events over the  
574 Western Pacific share similar BL origins with those sampled by the StratoClim flights.  
575 Characterizing the vertical structure, particle size distribution, and chemical composition of the  
576 aerosol layer over the Western Pacific will expand the overall understanding of ATAL formation  
577 and maintenance.



578  
579

**Figure 7** Examples of enhanced aerosol mass and number concentration in the shedding airmass from WACCM and GEOS-FP (top and bottom rows, respectively) at 100 hPa on 27 August 2020. (BC: Black Carbon, NO<sub>3</sub>: Nitrate, SO<sub>4</sub>: Sulfate, SOA: Secondary Organic Aerosol, ACC: Aerosol number concentration in Accumulation Mode). Selected GPH contours (16690, 16730, 16770 m), at 100 hPa are overlaid to indicate the anticyclone shedding.

585

586 **Figure 7** shows selected aerosol variables from WACCM and GEOS-FP for the same day (27  
587 August 2020) as **Figure 6** but for the 100 hPa level. All fields show qualitative consistency in  
588 elevated aerosol loading in the shedding airmass, which supports the hypothesis that the ASM  
589 aerosol content can be sampled from the Western Pacific. The large quantitative difference in  
590 Black Carbon (BC) mass concentrations from the two models provides a perspective of large  
591 model uncertainty. Since BC measurements in the UT are very limited, we expect the ACCLIP  
592 campaign to provide much-needed observational constraints for improving model representation  
593 of ATAL aerosol. Model results suggest that the aerosols in the shedding airmass will show  
594 increased primary and secondary aerosols, as well as elevated organic carbon and sulfate  
595 concentrations that are clearly distinguished from background aerosols in the UT and the LS.

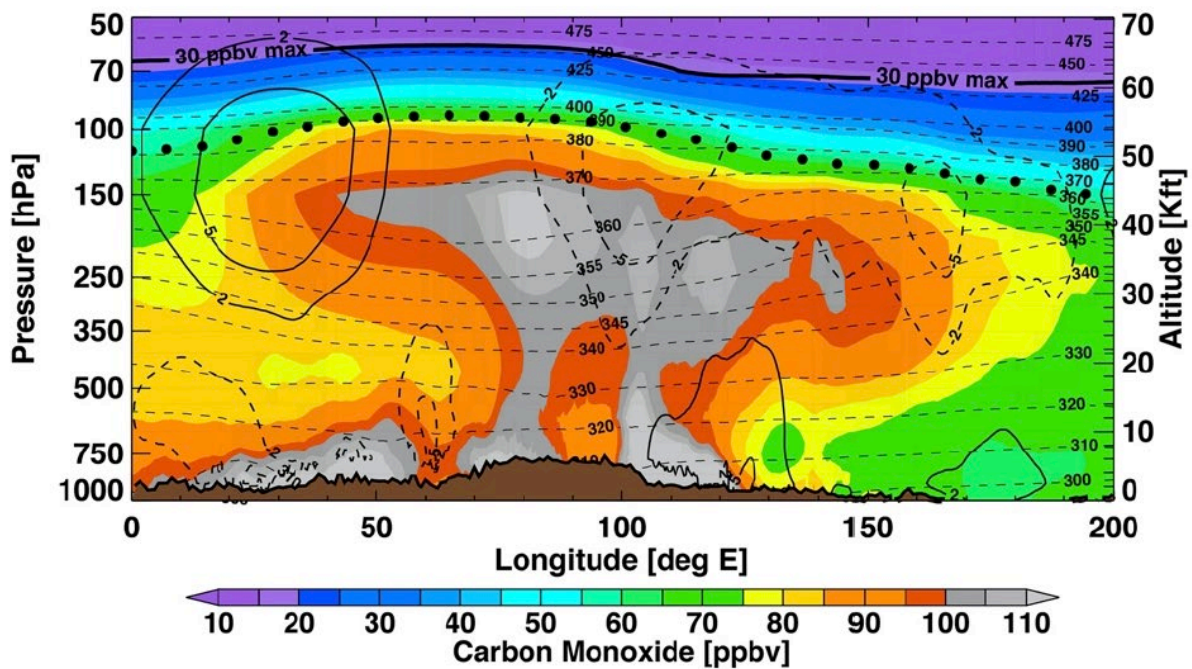
596

## 597 **5 Vertical structure and the depth of the ASM transport into stratosphere**

598 So far, we have primarily focused on the eastward eddy shedding chemical signature at the 150  
599 hPa level, which is approximately 14.5 km and 360-370 K potential temperature. This level  
600 represents the top of significant convective transport in the core region of the anticyclone as  
601 shown in recent in situ observations (e.g., von Hobe et al., 2021, Mahnke et al., 2021). From the  
602 perspective of the ASM dynamical structure, this is also the center level of anticyclone  
603 confinement (e.g., Randel and Park, 2006; Pan et al., 2016).

604

605 In [Figure 8](#), we present the chemical structure of the ASM system using CO from GEOS-FP  
 606 averaged for the period of mid-July to the end of August. The distribution of average CO in this  
 607 cross-section appears to have a “mushroom” shape. The core of the “mushroom” appears to  
 608 have two “stems”, one centered around 80°E, the other 105°E, which correspond well with the  
 609 longitudes of the persistent positive CO anomalies at 150 hPa throughout the season shown in  
 610 [Figure 5](#). This “two-stem” structure is also shown in previous work using MERRA reanalysis  
 611 data (Lau et al., 2018), where the two “stems” are associated with the persistent convective  
 612 transport over northern India and the southern edge of the Tibetan Plateau, and over  
 613 southwestern China including the Sichuan Basin, respectively. These locations along the  
 614 monsoon trough ([Figure 2](#)) are known as “hot spots” of deep convective transport (e.g., Bergman  
 615 et al., 2013; Vogel et al., 2015; Lau et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2021). The “mushroom” structure  
 616 clearly supports the previous analysis that, although enhanced UT CO is found to span a large  
 617 longitudinal range from the Mediterranean to the Western Pacific, the BL source region is  
 618 dominated by the 70°-120° E segment along the monsoon trough.

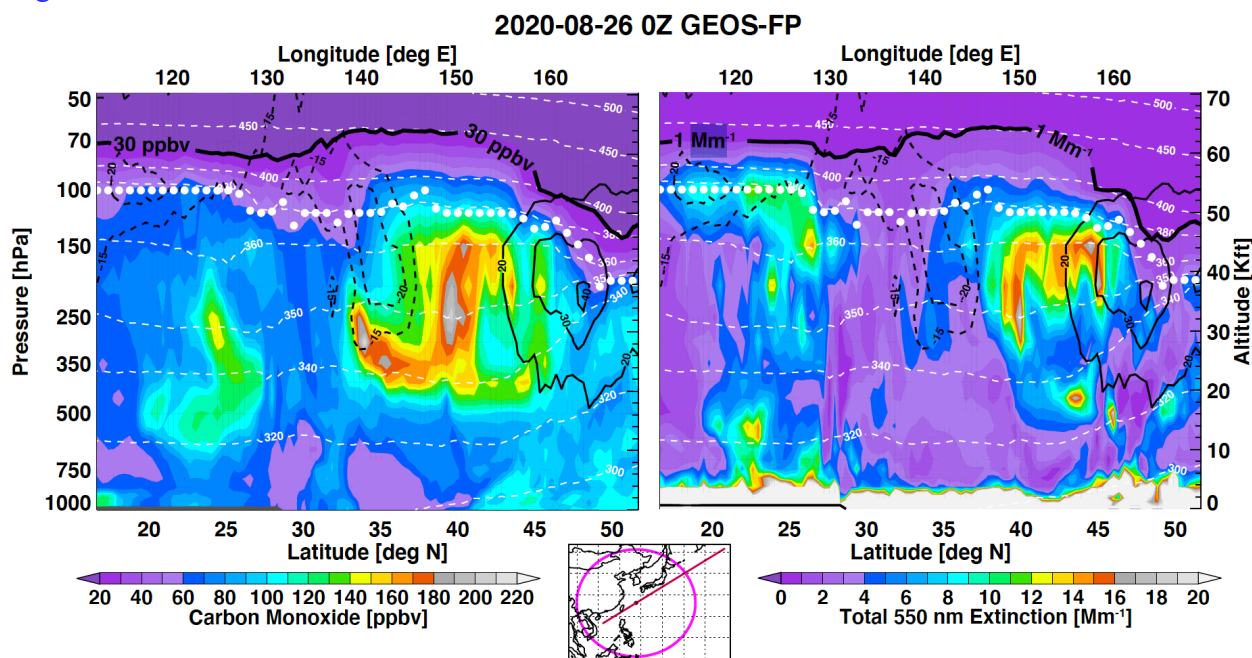


619  
 620 **Figure 8.** Seasonal average CO longitude-height cross section over the ASM region from the GEOS-FP model.  
 621 The average is over 20°-40° N latitude band, from 3 hourly model output between 15 July and 31 August 2020.  
 622 Additional dynamical fields shown are potential temperature (thin dashed lines), tropopause (black dots), and  
 623 meridional winds. The thick solid line marked “30 ppbv max” shows the highest altitude where the model has  
 624 30 ppbv of CO.

625  
 626 The top of the “mushroom” is approximately aligned with the average tropopause height. Its  
 627 longitudinal extent is well marked by the edge of the anticyclone, indicated by the maximum  
 628 southerly and northerly meridional wind near 30° and 160° E, respectively. The “cap” part of  
 629 the “mushroom” structure is slightly inclined. The center of the “cap”, represented by the layer  
 630 of high CO concentration (>100 ppbv), is around 150 hPa on the west side and lowered to about  
 631 250 hPa on the east side. This structure provides direct information on the modeled convective  
 632 outflow layer. The area of highest UT CO average (>110 ppbv) is shown to be near 80°E and

633 150 hPa, between 360K and 370K potential temperature. This is consistent with the convective  
 634 transport in the region inferred from StratoClim CO measurements (von Hobe et al., 2021).  
 635 Overall, this structure indicates that the quasi-horizontal east-west transport at the top of  
 636 convection is not symmetric in altitude. The westward transport is typically at a higher isentrope  
 637 than that to the east. This asymmetry is consistent with the different core levels of the easterly  
 638 and westerly jets (e.g., Santee et al., 2017, and references therein).

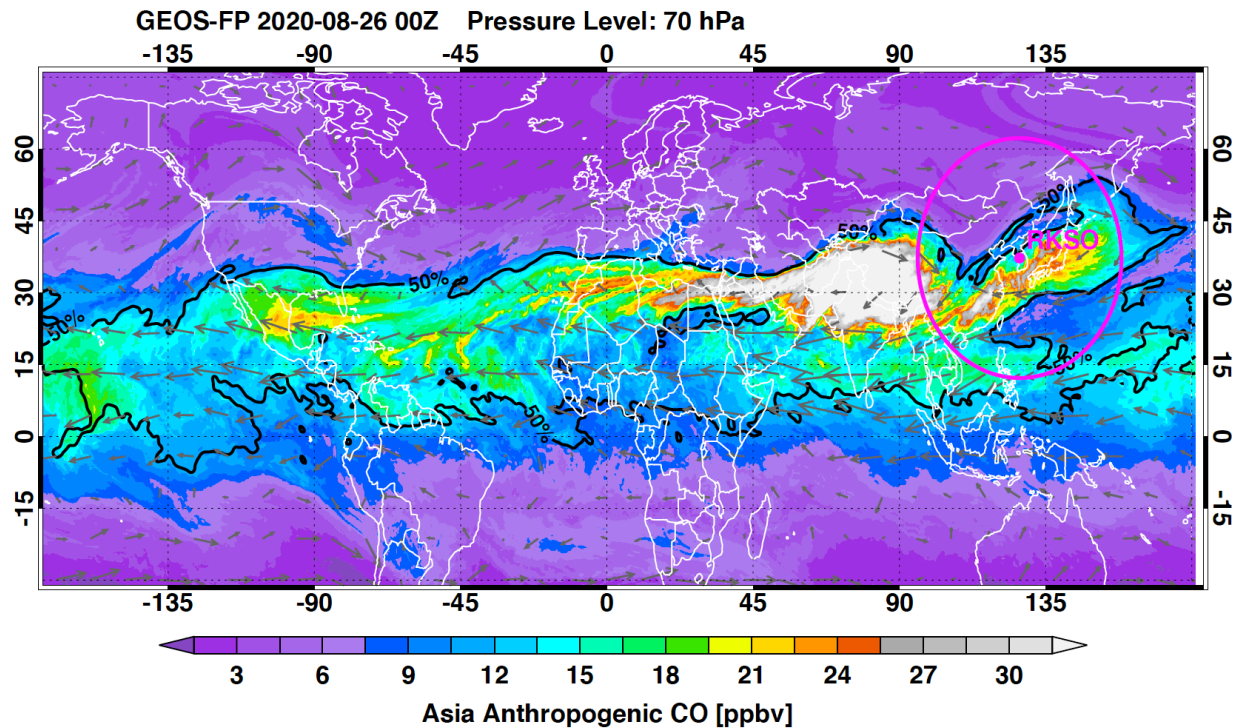
639  
 640 Using CO as a transport tracer, **Figure 8** shows the chemical signature of the transport above the  
 641 tropopause. Since the background CO concentration in the LS is typically under 20 ppbv  
 642 (Herman et al., 1999, von Hobe et al., 2021) and the lifetime of CO is relatively short (1-2  
 643 months), air masses with 30 ppbv or more CO are considered to include “fresh” transport of  
 644 tropospheric air. The maximum level of occurrence of the 30 ppbv CO mixing ratio is marked in  
 645 **Figure 8** and is shown to be near 70 hPa.



646  
 647 **Figure 9.** Vertical structure of GEOS-FP CO (left) and total 550 nm aerosol extinction (right) during the  
 648 shedding event on 26 August 2020. The location of the SWNE cross section is marked on the locator map.  
 649 Both quantities indicate a shedding signature in the region of 35°-45° N (with no sign of local vertical  
 650 transport). White dots mark the tropopause height. **White dashed lines show selected isentropes. Contour levels**  
 651 **of 30 ppbv CO and 1 Mm<sup>-1</sup> aerosol extinction at 550 nm are marked by thick black lines to indicate the top of**  
 652 **significant tropospheric transport influence.**  
 653

654 We further examine the vertical structure from GEOS-FP using a snapshot during a shedding  
 655 event in **Figure 9** with a southwest to northeast (SWNE) cross section of CO and 550 nm aerosol  
 656 extinction. The cross section transects the “core” region of the eddy shedding airmass on 26  
 657 August 2020. Both CO and aerosol extinction show elevated values in two segments of latitude.  
 658 The one in midlatitudes (35°-45° N) is associated with the shedding event, with relatively high  
 659 values of both CO (>100 ppbv) and aerosol extinction (>8 Mm<sup>-1</sup>) spanning between 500 hPa and  
 660 the tropopause, albeit with different structures within that layer. The other segment in lower  
 661 latitudes (20°-27° N) appears to be associated with both local convection and long-range  
 662 transport; however, it shows distinctive differences in vertical structure between CO and aerosol.  
 663 The top of CO transport in the shedding segment (defined by mixing ratios >30 ppbv) is near 70

664 hPa. Similarly, the top of aerosol transport is also near 70 hPa (defined by  $1 \text{ Mm}^{-1}$ ). The  
 665 dissimilar vertical structure between CO and aerosol extinction can be attributed to the  
 666 differences in their source locations (e.g., aerosol has a significant contribution from local natural  
 667 sources), source type (e.g., most CO is from direct emission, but a majority of aerosol is  
 668 chemically produced in the atmosphere), and removal mechanism (e.g., aerosol is removed by  
 669 dry and wet deposition, but CO is removed by reaction with OH). The example in [Figure 9](#)  
 670 suggests that although we expect broad co-location of enhanced CO and aerosols, we do not  
 671 expect the two species to correlate quantitatively, because of the different relationships they have  
 672 with various atmospheric processes.



673  
 674 **Figure 10.** GEOS-FP model tagged **Asia anthropogenic** CO at 70 hPa. The horizontal wind field is overlaid  
 675 on the map (gray arrows). The black contour labeled 50% indicates that the tagged CO within the contour is  
 676 50% or more of the total CO.

677  
 678 [Figure 10](#) gives a global perspective of the freshly transported ASM BL air at 70 hPa,  
 679 represented by tagged CO of Asian non-biomass burning emission (Bian et al., 2013, Fig. 1a)  
 680 from GEOS-FP. This tagged CO map highlights the ASM transport hot spot above the region of  
 681 the monsoon trough, as well as eastward shedding into the Western Pacific. The CO distribution  
 682 together with the wind field also indicate the large influence of westward eddy shedding and the  
 683 propagation of the ASM transported air mass along the tropical easterly jet at the 70 hPa level.

684  
 685 Note that the chemical signature of ASM transport deep into the stratosphere has been shown  
 686 from satellite data. The chemical signature in the “tropical pipe” from ACE HCN, a long-lived  
 687 biomass burning tracer, is a well-known example (Randel et al., 2010). The chemical  
 688 distributions from MLS data up to the 410 K potential temperature level showed signatures from  
 689 species with a range of lifetimes (e.g., Santee et al., 2017). These satellite-based chemical

690 analyses, however, typically require averaging over monthly or seasonal time scales. The model  
691 snapshots of the chemical distribution with the flow pattern provide more insight into the  
692 transport processes on sub-seasonal scales.

693  
694 The CO vertical structure (Figure 8) and the tagged Asian CO at 70 hPa (Figure 10) highlight the  
695 role of the ASM as a rapid transport pathway for Asian BL emissions, including halogenated  
696 VSLs, to reach stratosphere. VSLs have been found to make an important contribution to  
697 stratospheric halogen loading and thus polar ozone destruction (WMO, 2018). Airborne in situ  
698 measurements in the ASM convective transport region during the StratoClim campaign found  
699 much higher than the previously estimated background concentrations (by ~ a factor of 2) of  
700 Chlorinated VSLs at the tropopause level (Adcock et al., 2021), providing observational  
701 evidence that the ASM is an important source region for halogenated VSLs (Engel et al., 2018).  
702 The contribution of ASM transport to stratospheric ozone chemistry is an important motivation  
703 for characterizing this transport pathway in ACCLIP.

704  
705 Since we have only shown the GEOS-FP model results in this section on vertical structure, it is  
706 important to note that vertical transport of trace gases and aerosols from the three chemical  
707 forecast models may have significant differences, due to the model resolutions, both horizontally  
708 and vertically, and the model convective transport schemes. To provide a perspective, we show  
709 in Figure S3 snapshots of the SO<sub>2</sub> distribution at 150 hPa and a SWNE cross-section from each  
710 of the three chemistry models.

## 711 **6 Summary and concluding remarks**

712 Using a suite of models, we have provided a first comprehensive chemical and transport  
713 description of the ASM UTLS transport over the Western Pacific via eastward eddy shedding.  
714 The main objective of this study is to set the stage for an airborne investigation. The multi-model  
715 results highlight the motivation and feasibility of this investigation, as well as a set of hypotheses  
716 to be verified by the campaign. Furthermore, the study integrates and connects a number of  
717 relevant pieces of information on Asian monsoon circulation and transport from previous studies,  
718 and it provides a chemical composition-based large-scale circulation structure of the ASM  
719 system. The key findings are summarized below.

720 Foremost, the multi-model study further establishes most key hypotheses of ACCLIP. The  
721 resulting hypotheses and some new insights for the campaign are summarized below:

- 722 1) The chemical composition (including both gas-phase species and aerosols) of the and  
723 further establishes ASM UTLS anticyclone can be sampled from the Western Pacific,  
724 owing to the rapid transport from the Tibetan anticyclone to the Western Pacific  
725 anticyclone via eastward eddy shedding at the top of convection.
- 726 2) The shedding events create a large-scale dynamical structure in the UT with “bulging”  
727 tropopause height, low-PV air in the UT, and the presence of the WPA. Associated with  
728 the dynamical structure are chemical signatures, including the enhancement of BL  
729 transport tracers, such as CO and aerosols. The models are consistent in their capability  
730 of forecasting the location of the shedding air masses for the airborne sampling.

- 731 3) The shedding events are expected to transport a wide spectrum of trace gas species and  
 732 elevated aerosol loading with increased organic carbon (SOA), NO<sub>3</sub> and sulfate  
 733 concentrations that are clearly distinguished from background aerosols in the UT and the  
 734 LS.
- 735 4) The shedding events represent a key mechanism by which ASM convectively transported  
 736 air masses exit the confinement of the anticyclone and thus alter the composition of LS  
 737 air, bringing the influence of “freshly” transported Asian BL air up to 70 hPa globally.  
 738 This rapid transport pathway is of special interest for stratospheric ozone chemistry and  
 739 the impact of halogenated VLSL from Asian emissions.
- 740 5) Although the models show broad consistency in predicting shedding locations, there is a  
 741 significant spread in models’ predicted amount of BL species transport and aerosol  
 742 formation in the UTLS. The in-situ measurements from ACCLIP are expected to provide  
 743 significant new information for reducing the models’ uncertainties.

744 In addition to updating these hypotheses, an overall picture of the large-scale ASM  
 745 circulation and transport emerges from this study that brought together the research and  
 746 understanding of the ASM from monsoon dynamics studies and the composition transport  
 747 studies. Specifically:

- 748
- 749 6) The back-trajectory diagnostic of transport origins using ERA5 wind fields (Figure 2)  
 750 identifies that the airmasses in the ASM anticyclone shedding left the Asian BL primarily  
 751 in the region between the monsoon trough and the Tibetan plateau.

752

753 As a key element of the monsoon system, the monsoon trough, links the moisture brought by  
 754 the low-level jet to deep monsoon convection and heavy rainfall (e.g., Krishnamurti &  
 755 Bhalme, 1976; Ding & Sikka, 2006). Together with the Tibetan plateau heating, the region of  
 756 ~30° N and ~90°E is the climatological center of the Tibetan anticyclone in the ASM  
 757 season. The strong ascent in this region forms the rising branch of the monsoon Hadley cell  
 758 (e.g., Yanai & Wu, 2006). The new result in Figure 2, therefore, makes a connection between  
 759 air mass transport and the dynamical structure of the monsoon. Since the monsoon trough  
 760 forms a part of the northern summer Intertropical Convergence Zone (ITCZ; e.g. Lawrence  
 761 and Lelieveld, 2010), this connection helps to establish the ASM convective transport as part  
 762 of the ITCZ flow pattern with the low-level convergence and upper-level divergence. The  
 763 low-level convergent monsoonal flow could bring air masses from broad emission source  
 764 regions spanning a large portion of the “Monsoon Asia”, which includes South, Southeast,  
 765 and East Asia. An example of the monsoon low level convergence zone is given in Pan et al.,  
 766 (2016, their Fig. 8).

767 This new result, largely owing to the much-improved representation of convective transport  
 768 by using the ERA5 wind fields (Smith et al., 2021), brings clarity to results of previous  
 769 studies of monsoon transport, in which the region of the southern flank of the Tibetan plateau  
 770 was shown to be the main vertical transport channel (e.g., Bergman et al., 2013, Pan et al.,  
 771 2016; Honomichl & Pan, 2020). This result also provides the context for previous air mass  
 772 origin studies that used tagged tracers or convective clouds which were identified using  
 773 geographical regions or political boundaries (e.g., Park et al., 2009; Vogel et al., 2015; Bucci  
 774 et al., 2020).



- 775  
776 7) The average CO longitude-height cross section (Figure 8), constructed using GEOS-FP  
777 output, provides a complementary view of ASM dynamics and large-scale circulation  
778 structure. The “two-stem mushroom” structure, evident in the CO seasonal (15 July to 31  
779 August 2020) average, depicts the primary longitudinal locations of convective transport  
780 (~ 70°-110°E). This figure supports the understanding that convective transport resulted  
781 in the UT average CO enhancement near the center of anticyclone confinement at 150  
782 hPa (~14-15 km, or 360-370 K) in the region of the Tibetan anticyclone (centered ~  
783 80°E). This characterization of convective transport is supported by the persistence of  
784 convectively pumped low-PV air around 80°E at 360-370K (Popovic & Plumb, 2001;  
785 Garny & Randel, 2013). The subsequent eastward and westward eddy shedding of this  
786 “parent” anticyclone forms the large-scale pattern shown by satellite seasonal averages.  
787

788 Again, these new findings from our study not only address the needs for ACCLIP campaign  
789 preparation, but they also provide a large-scale perspective of ASM transport from the Asian BL  
790 to the Western Pacific UTLS as a basis for characterizing its global impacts. We expect that the  
791 modeled chemical composition structure will also shed light on the overall ASM circulation  
792 structure and contribute to better characterizations of monsoon dynamics.  
793

794 Finally, it is important to note that the ASM dynamics, and therefore related UTLS transport  
795 behavior, have large interannual variability. The relationships between monsoon convection,  
796 anticyclone characteristics, and climate states such as the ENSO phase, the Asian jet stream  
797 location, the QBO, and the Arctic oscillation are an area of active research (e.g., Manney et al.,  
798 2021, and references therein). The results of the 2020 model study and the 2022 field campaign  
799 need to be put into the context of these sources of large-scale interannual variability. This will be  
800 an important topic for ACCLIP post-campaign studies.  
801  
802

### 803 **Data Availability**

804 The satellite data and model output used in this work are available in following locations:

805  
806 MLS: [https://acdisc.gesdisc.eosdis.nasa.gov/data/Aura\\_MLS\\_Level2/ML2CO.004/](https://acdisc.gesdisc.eosdis.nasa.gov/data/Aura_MLS_Level2/ML2CO.004/)

807 IASI: <https://iasi.aeris-data.fr/catalog/#masthead>

808 GEOS5: <https://portal.nccs.nasa.gov/datashare/gmao/geos-fp/das/>

809 WACCM\_110L: [https://www.acom.ucar.edu/waccm/DATA/SPECIAL/WACCM\\_110L\\_Pan\\_et](https://www.acom.ucar.edu/waccm/DATA/SPECIAL/WACCM_110L_Pan_et_al)  
810 [\\_al](https://www.acom.ucar.edu/waccm/DATA/SPECIAL/WACCM_110L_Pan_et_al)

811 CAMS: <https://ads.atmosphere.copernicus.eu/#!/home>  
812

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824

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