Point-By-Point Reply to Referee Comment 2 from Referee Kunihiko Arai

Comment from Referee:

[Comments and questions for the whole] The reliability of CII is not a problem because it uses the index set by WHO. Is there a correlation between the global distribution of CII and healthy life expectancy in each country? I think that it is too few to carry out model verification at 6 points. Why did it not be done at all points? Can you visualize the global distribution of CII in near real time? What tools do you need to do that? When creating CII for countries other than Japan, especially for emerging countries such as Africa and Southeast Asia, is there any data equivalent to that of the Japanese Ministry of the Environment? The goal of making CII as a global standard should be clearly stated as an issue for the future and written in the abstract.

Author's response:

Thank you so much for your valuable comments. We performed a comparison study for all AEROS observation sites following your comment. 498 in 1896 municipalities were covered by the AEROS measurements. The statements and figures for validation of WRF-CMAQ using the AEROS measurements were updated in the revised manuscript. The global distribution of CII can be derived using global model such as GEOS-chem [Wang et al., 2004] and CHASER [Sudo et al., 2002a; 2002b]. We recommend to use the WHO Air Quality Guidelines for the numerical criteria for the global distribution of CII because it is the only criteria for air pollutants defined by the international organization as far as we know. The WHO AQG is also employed for applying CII to countries with no environmental standards. Following your comments, we improved the abstract and introduction to clearly state our aim of CII to make a global standard for the air cleanness.

- Sudo, K., Takahashi, M., Kurokawa, J. I., & Akimoto, H. (2002a). CHASER: A global chemical model of the troposphere 1. Model description. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 107(D17), ACH-7.
- Sudo, K., Takahashi, M., & Akimoto, H. (2002b). CHASER: A global chemical model of the troposphere 2. Model results and evaluation. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 107(D21), ACH-9.
- Wang, Y. X., McElroy, M. B., Jacob, D. J., & Yantosca, R. M. (2004). A nested grid formulation for chemical transport over Asia: Applications to CO. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 109(D22).

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 1 Line 3, Page 2 Line 51 – 52, Page 4 Line 79 – 81, Page 7 Sect. 3.2,

Comment from Referee:

[Comments and questions for the whole] Please tell us why you normalized human activity in the population. Since this paper uses NO2 and SO2 for CII, I thought that the number of cars and the number of factories were more appropriate than the population density.

Author's response:

Yes, the number of cars and the number of factories are also suitable for this research. But we could not find such a database that covers all 1896 municipalities in the study period (FY2014-2016). The common logarithm of population density showed good correlation with NO_2 (r = 0.80) and SO_2 (r = 0.74). The population density might not be the best, but appropriate to quantify the human activity.

Comment from Referee:

[Comments and questions for the whole] Are there any plans to visualize the CII information on Web system in the future? Developing the system which can overlay CII with other information (disaster prevention and disaster prevention information app) and enable easy access to thematic map, e.g. land risk assessment, would be one of social implementations.

Author's response:

We had no such plans but we would like to adopt your idea in the future. Thank you for your nice suggestion.

Comment from Referee:

[Comments and questions for the whole] Can you create CII for other countries with significant air pollution? For example, China, Southeast Asia, India, Nepal, Mongolia and Ulaanbaatar.

Author's response:

Yes, we can derive the CII values for other countries by using a global model, such as GEOS-chem [Wang et al., 2004] and CHASER [Sudo et al., 2002a; 2002b]. The WHO AQG standards should be employed as the numerical criteria in CII in case of no environmental standards in the other countries.

• Sudo, K., Takahashi, M., Kurokawa, J. I., & Akimoto, H. (2002a). CHASER: A global chemical model of the troposphere 1. Model description. *Journal of Geophysical Research*:

Atmospheres, 107(D17), ACH-7.

 Sudo, K., Takahashi, M., & Akimoto, H. (2002b). CHASER: A global chemical model of the troposphere 2. Model results and evaluation. *Journal of Geophysical Research*:

Atmospheres, 107(D21), ACH-9.

Wang, Y. X., McElroy, M. B., Jacob, D. J., & Yantosca, R. M. (2004). A nested grid formulation for chemical transport over Asia: Applications to CO. *Journal of Geophysical*

Research: Atmospheres, 109(D22).

Comment from Referee:

[Comments and questions for the whole] Although there is a solid observation network in Japan, why do you use the model? Please write reason for needs of the model at the beginning of the

appropriate chapter.

Author's response:

We used the model because the AEROS measurements do not cover the all 1896 municipalities.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 4 Line 99 – 100

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 25. Change a word, "Furthermore". In the sentence after

"Furthermore", the reason for the change in air quality is written, so that it is not adequate. 26.

Add references; why reduced labor productivity leads to increased demand for projected energy.

27. Why does GDP increase due to harvest loss derived from air pollution? How about excerpting

one sentence from OECD2016?

Author's response:

We revised this sentence because it was too long and partly wrong as follows.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 2 Line 29 – 34

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 28. How about excerpts from "McCarty and Kaza, 2015"

about important issues in city planning? The reason for the change in air quality is written as "Increase in pollutants", but the reason for the importance of urban planning for air quality is not

written. Therefore, the sentence balance in the paragraph is bad.

Author's response:

Yes, we agree with your suggestion. This sentence was isolated in the paragraph. We moved this

statement from introduction to conclusion.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 23 Line 423

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 29-30. With regard to "clean water is", we insist on the

necessity of creating an index based on "same as water", but is there a water world index? Provide

references if any. If not, cut this sentence.

Author's response:

Yes, there is a water world index, "Global Drinking Water Quality Index (GDWQI)." We added

this reference in the manuscript.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 2 Line 35 – 36

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 30. The meaning of "allow people to make more informed

choices" is unknown. Please write specifically.

Author's response:

We modified this sentence as follows.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 2 Line 37

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 31. Easy access for citizens, easy to read, easy to understand, this is an important perspective for journals. This expression is written at the beginning of the sentence, and "Upgrading with experts and scientific data" will be described later.

Author's response:

We agreed with your suggestion and modified this sentence as follows.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 2 Line 37 – 39

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 35. Correct spelling. indexes or indices?

Author's response:

Thank you for pointing it out. We corrected the term "indexes" to "indices" as follows.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 2 Line 40, 41, 42

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 39. What are the selection criteria for that chemical? It is written a little in Chapter 2, what is the reason for making only 4? For example, is there a reference, whether it is a high rank, is it attracting attention in Japan, or is the standard that the country is most interested in?

Author's response:

These 4 pollutants are selected from the WHO Air Quality Guidelines which is most common guideline for air quality as far as we know.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 40. I understood the meaning of "optimizing the numerical criteria" after reading Chapter 2. This means that the user can set any value. Since "optimizing" is likely to be misunderstood as an advanced optimization algorithm, it is expressed to avoid

misunderstanding.

Author's response:

We agreed with your suggestion and changed from "optimizing" to "defining."

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 4 Line 79 – 80

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 57. "O3, PM, NO2 and SO2 following the WHO AQG (WHO, 2005)" overlaps with Chapter 1. There is no need to erase. But write something already mentioned above, such as "mentioned above".

Author's response:

We agreed with your suggestion and added "as mentioned above" in the manuscript.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 3 Line 73

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 67. The health risks written in the introduction are also motivating research. Is it consistent with chemical substances SPM that are not health risks?

Author's response:

There are many studies to report association between SPM and health risk, such as Ueda et al., (2010).

Ueda, K., Nitta, H., & Odajima, H. (2010). The effects of weather, air pollutants, and Asian dust on hospitalization for asthma in Fukuoka. *Environmental health and preventive medicine*, 15(6), 350.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 69. According to the cited document (1993), volcanic eruptions are said to have the highest SO2 emissions, but I hear that there is also a document that

"the amount of sulfur supply to the atmosphere is more due to industrial activity than volcanic

activity." Are there any recent papers, not 1993 references? 70. Regarding volcanoes, it is stated

that SO2 emissions are high, and in line 110, it is stated that SO2 volcanic emissions were ignored

in Japan, and there is a conflict. Furthermore, it is not consistent to include Kagoshima to evaluate

the effects of volcanoes. Devise how to write.

Author's response:

We deeply appreciate for pointing it out. As you mentioned, the description of our SO₂ calculation

was ambiguous. Major source of SO₂ emission in Japan is combustion of fossil fuels [Wakamatsu

et al., 2013]. Amount of SO₂ occasionally rise because of volcanic eruption, but only in a short

period of volcanic eruption. In this study, the SO₂ numerical criterion is for the daily average, and

the CII values are compared by averaging at least 30 days values. This process dilutes temporal

SO₂ increase due to volcanic eruption. That is why we ignored SO₂ emission in our model

simulation. We modified the statements about SO₂ calculation as follows to make this point clearer.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 4 Lines 92 – 95

Page 6 Lines 150 – 153

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 89. Nudging is performed according to the 6-hour data. What

is the time interval of the WRF-CMAQ calculation results?

Author's response:

The time interval of both WRF and CMAQ outputs is 1 hour. We added the description about the

time interval.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 4 Line 104

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 100. Are the NOX, SO2, and SPM boundary conditions other

than O3 set in MOZART?

Author's response:

Yes. MOZART provided the distributions of more than 80 kinds of chemical species and aerosols, including NOX, SO2, PM and O3, as added in the manuscript.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 6 Line 158 – 159

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 105. How did you find "the statistical secular changes in the annual total anthropogenic emissions"? Give a reference.

Author's response:

We added the reference in the manuscript.

• Crippa, M., Oreggioni, G., Guizzardi, D., Muntean, M. Schaaf, E., Lo Vullo, E., Solazzo, E., Monforti-Ferrario, F., Olivier, J., and Vignati, E.: Fossil CO2 and GHG emissions of all world countries, https://doi:10.2760/687800, 2019.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 6 Line 146

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 116. What is the reason for setting "R = 16km"? Is the domain grid interval related to 20km?

Author's response:

It is due to the convenience of the derivation of air quality at the municipal office, to be able to refer at least 1 model grid point. Theoretically the necessary smallest value of R is 14.1 km ($\sqrt{2*10}$ km), so we consider R=16 km is a good definition.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 117. Outside of the domain such as Okinawa, it may not be necessary to consider CII. Evaluation is difficult because the scale is different.

Author's response:

In Okinawa, there are no large local emission sources and major source of pollution is transboundary effects from outside. Transboundary pollution was well reproduced with larger scale. That is why we ignored difference of scale in two domains.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 130. As stated in "Volcanic emissions of SO2 were ignored (L110)", is it consistent with selecting Kagoshima because of the volcanoes? 134. It is written that the site of Sakurajima was excluded because it did not consider volcanoes in CMAQ, but are other sites in Kagoshima city susceptible to volcanoes? From Table 2, Kagoshima has a particularly poor correlation between NO2 and SO2. Is this the reason for the volcano? Or for reasons other than volcanoes? Did you enter Kagoshima to insist that the impact of the volcano is not so great? Clarify the intention to include Kagoshima. Or Kagoshima is not needed. Or let CMAQ consider Sakurajima's volcano. Do you have emission data for Sakurajima?

Author's response:

In our simulation the effects of volcanic activities are not considered because of the reason described in Author's response to Minor comments and questions for Line 69 and 70. Also, we changed the strategy of validation of our WRF-CMAQ calculation from specific case study with 6 cities to statistical approach with all the AEROS sites. We drastically changed the statements of the comparison study in Sect. 3.2.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 7 Sect. 3.2

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 139. Correct the spelling. abovementioned-> abovementioned

Author's response:

Thank you for pointing it out. But this sentence was removed because of changing the validation strategy from specific case study with 6 cities to statistical approach with all the AEROS sites.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 140. A good agreement with a correlation coefficient of 0.61 is a bit overstated. Is this a problem with the resolution and representativeness of the 10km model?

Author's response:

Major cause of discrepancy between our WRF-CMAQ model and the AEROS measurements is probably local and unpredictable emissions. In our model, local emissions from industries, such as traffics and combustion, were given by the MIX inventories. The temporal resolution of the MIX inventory is monthly, thus the daily or hourly-scale emissions could not be reproduced by our model. That is why we compared the CII values by averaging at least 30 days.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 141. In Table 2, why is "CII" better in Akita and Nagano than in Kagoshima, where NO2 and SO2 are bad? 141. As with the time series, are the values in Table 2 a comparison of daily averages?

Author's response:

We could not understand your point. Do you mean why CII in Akita and Nagano (r = 0.61) were worse than that in Kagoshima (r = 0.65)? But this table was removed because of changing the validation strategy from specific case study with 6 cities to statistical approach with all the AEROS sites.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 146. Put a dot after the formula number R.

Author's response:

We appreciate your comment. We confirmed the style defined in the Copernicus Publications, and "(R1)" is correct, not "(R.1)". We unified the style to "(R1)" in the manuscript.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 14 Line 281

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 146. Since it is a reaction by "hv", do the values in Table 2

and CII change depending on the presence of sunlight, that is, day and night? I think that the result of each day and night also has utility value (social needs). I think there is demand for people who need delicious air at noon and those who need it at night.

Author's response:

Yes, air pollutant amounts vary in day and night as you suggested. But CII defined in this paper can only derived to daily unit because the we used the numerical criteria for 24-hour average.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 150. The reaction R3 causes the model to underestimate O3 and overestimate NO2, resulting in a poor correlation between O3 and NO2. Since CII is added together, it is offset and the correlation of CII does not deteriorate. Isn't it possible to properly devise an underestimation of O3 and an overestimation of NO2 in the model? And why does the correlation worsen in areas with few human origins such as Akita and Nagano?

Author's response:

We appreciate your comment. Adjusting amounts of O₃ and NO₂ is theoretically possible but quite hard because many parameters, such as convergence rate, are intricately related with each other in the model. Although further investigation is required, one possible reason for worse correlation of CII in Akita and Nagano can be an uncertainty in natural emission sources.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 153. Since the elimination of the NO2-O3 offset problem depends on the type of model, I think it will not be an advantage for all models.

Author's response:

We appreciate your comment and agree with your suggestion. Following the comment from Anonymous Referee 1, we compared CII and AQI using both WRF-CMAQ and AEROS. The correlation between WRF-CMAQ and AEROS was better in CII than AQI. This is due to difference of the calculation method, i.e., CII averages normalized air pollutant amounts, but AQI only employs the highest air pollutant and the others are ignored. This is an advantage of CII to comprehensively estimate all air pollutants and we stated it in the revised manuscript.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 157. There are things that look asymmetric and those that don't. Devise how to write.

Author's response:

This figure was removed because of changing the validation strategy from specific case study with 6 cities to statistical approach with all the AEROS sites.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 158. I think 1- σ is a convention in this field. However, readers in other fields can easily misunderstand "-" as minus, and mistakenly read it as 1 minus σ . Isn't it just σ ?

Author's response:

We changed the term "1- σ " to "1 σ ".

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 9 Caption in Fig. 4, Page 10 Line 220, 223, Page 11 Caption in Fig. 5, Line 232, Page 12 Line 249, Page 15 Caption in Fig. 8, Line 290, 292, Page 22 Line 384

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 165. Which agency's data follows the denominator "s" for Seoul and Beijing's numerical criteria?

Author's response:

The same numerical criteria for Japan are used for Seoul and Beijing to directly compare the CII values of Seoul, Beijing and Japanese municipalities.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 174. Write that the time being stated is around May. The

writing style is unified.

Answer from authors

We modified the statement as below.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 14 Line 261

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 185. Does "amount of O3 was relatively higher than the value of s" mean that x / s is larger than other spices?

Answer from authors

Yes, you are correct. The sentence was improved as below. Thank you pointing it out.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 14 Line 273 – 274

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 187. The famous city name, Mega City, is written on the vertical axis in Figure 5.

Author's response:

We added Sapporo, Tokyo, Yokohama, Nagoya, Osaka, Kobe, and Fukuoka on the left of the vertical axis in the figures.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 8 Fig. 2, Page 13 Fig. 7

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 193. In response to the above paragraph, it will not be "Consequently". It does not lead to cross-border pollution. How do you interpret Figure 5 to get evidence of cross-border pollution? I think there is cross-border pollution, but I can't interpret it

from Figure 5 alone. 194. Since it overlaps with the 187th line of the upper paragraph, delete the sentence, "The variation in O3 had the most significant effect on seasonal variation in the CII. The spatial distribution of CII corresponded to those of NO2 and SO2." 195. The impact of domestic local sources can be seen in the vertical stripes in Figure 5, but there is insufficient evidence for "outside of Japan".

Author's response:

Thank you so much for pointing it out. We wrote this paragraph to summarize dominant source of spatial and temporal distribution of CII, but it should be done in the conclusion section. We removed this paragraph.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 200. From Figure 6, it is difficult to tell the difference between good and bad places such as northern Japan. Devise the color scale to a palette of about 8 colors.

Author's response:

Yes, we agree with your suggestion that the color resolution was too detailed. We analyzed that the difference in CII derived from the WRF-CMAQ larger than 0.02 was significant to be reproduced by AEROS by averaging 30 values. Thus, we changed the color resolution to 0.02 grid in this figure.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 15 Fig. 8

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 222. Add a reference to show that "Generally, the transboundary pollution effect" is significant in Japan in the spring. Write the reasons, such as the monsoon, or the high demand for coal-fired power generation in China in winter. 222. In the case of cross-border pollution, it is difficult to understand unless it is compared with a model such as PM2.5 that is expressed in time series. In addition, photochemical smog is a phenomenon under some very special circumstances in some areas, so it is better to expand the data representation a little more. That will be a future issue.

Author's response:

There are many previous studies of source of air pollutants in Japan using chemical transport models. As you mentioned, this topic is quite important for the environmental policy and should be further investigated in the future. We improved the sentence and added the following reference.

 Nagashima, T., Ohara, T., Sudo, K., & Akimoto, H. (2010). The relative importance of various source regions on East Asian surface ozone. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 10(22), 11305-11322.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 17 Line 317 – 318

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 225. Is "The 30 highest daily mean CII values" shown in Fig. 6 (c)?

Author's response:

Thank you for pointing it out. "Top 100 clean air cities" was selected by different way. The 30 days with highest daily CII values were selected for each municipality. But for Fig. 6 (c), the 30 highest days were selected for the average CII for all 1896 municipalities. We selected "Top 100 clean air cities" by quite simple way in this manuscript but the selection method should be civilized through discussion in the future. We improved the description as follows.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 17 Line 321 – 322

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 225. Based on the data in 6 prefectures in Japan, the municipalities in the prefecture are selected. However, from the nationwide data, there are naturally other regions with high value, so it is better to use these 6 cases. It may also be a good idea to list the seasons roughly.

Author's response:

We deeply apologize that we could not understand meaning of your question. The "Top 100 clean air cities" were selected using all 1896 municipalities data not only the six, Akita, Tokyo, Nagano, Osaka, Fukuoka and Kagoshima cities. It would be so nice if you could give us more detailed

explanation.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 232. Why is it "not fair" when it is fair to quantify CII on an objective basis? 245. Does normalization in human activity (population density) mean to exclude the influence of human activity? Why is that? Is it for seeking potential cleanliness of the air? Want to see the impact of cross-border pollution? Write the reason and purpose at the beginning of the chapter. 250. Is it not just "neighboring municipality" but also transboundary pollution? For example, if the distribution of yellow sand and the distribution in Figure 7b overlap in previous studies, this is evidence of cross-border contamination.

Author's response:

Thank you so much for pointing it out. Our objective to normalize CII with human activity is categorizing municipalities into four groups; 1) Clean air with high human activity, 2) Clean air with low human activity, 3) Dirty air with high human activity, and 4) Dirty air with low human activity. The CII value showed negative correlation with the human activity, thus the municipalities in groups 2 and 3 are in normal situation. The municipalities in group 1 is ideal case because such municipalities are expected to be industrially advanced as well as to succeed to maintain clean environment. Problems are in the municipalities in group 4, because only few people live in but the environment can not be saved. It means that there are large air pollution sources such as large power plant or air pollutants are transported from the outside. We guess this interpretation is also important to apply the CII concept in social usage such as residence and environmental policies. We improved this section to make this point clearer as follows.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 17 Line 330 – Page 20 Line 333

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 282. Due to the circumstances of each individual, it is not necessary to strongly recommend moving to Hokkaido. Write about the causal relationship with healthy life expectancy, or write other reasons, such as clean air is better in nature and is more sustainable. However, just as people and factories set out to seek clean water, if people seek for clean air, they can put a load on clean nature and have the opposite effect. Sometimes it is better not to be a tourism business.

Author's response:

Yes, we agree with your suggestion. We removed this sentence.

Comment from Referee:

[Minor comments and questions] 284. "enabled" is too much to say. Rather than saying that Korea and China alone can be applied to other countries, it is better to write that this method is simple and can be applied to countries and municipalities around the world.

Author's response:

We appreciate your valuable comments. We improved the sentence following your suggestion.

Author's changes in the manuscript:

Page 23 Line 424 – 425

Novel index to comprehensively evaluate air cleanness: the "Clean aIr Index"

Tomohiro O. Sato¹, Takeshi Kuroda^{2,1}, and Yasuko Kasai^{1,3}

¹National Institute of Information and Communications Technology

Correspondence: Yasuko Kasai (ykasai@nict.go.jp)

Abstract. Air quality on our planet has been changing in particular since the industrial revolution (1750s) because of anthropogenic emissions. It is becoming increasingly important to visualize air cleanness, since clean air deserves a valuable resource as clean water. We Global standard to quantify the level of air cleanness is swiftly required, and we defined a novel concept, namely "Clean aIr Index, CII," to quantify the level of air cleanness in terms of a global standard. The CII is a simple index defined by the normalization of the amount of individual air pollutants. A CII value of 1 indicates completely clean air (no air pollutants), and 0 indicates the presence of air pollutants up to numerical environmental criteria for the normalization. In this time, the air pollutants used in the CII were taken from the Air Quality Guidelines (AQG) set by the World Health Organization (WHO), namely O₃, particulate matters, NO₂ and SO₂. We chose Japan as a study area to evaluate CII because of the following reasons: i) accurate validation data, as the in situ observation sites of the Atmospheric Environmental Regional Observation System (AEROS) provide highly accurate values of air pollutant amounts, ii) obvious numerical criteria, namely the Japanese Environmental Quality Standards given by the Ministry of the Environment (MOE). We quantified air cleanness in terms of the CII for the all 1896 municipalities in Japan, and used Seoul and Beijing to evaluate Japanese air cleanness. The amount of each air pollutant was calculated using a model that combined the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) and Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) models for 1 April 2014 to 31 March 2017. The CII values were validated by comparing calculated by the WRF-CMAQ model and AEROS measurements for selected six cities, and an average showed good agreement with those by the AEROS measurements with a correlation coefficient of $\rightarrow 0.61$ was obtained 0.66 ± 0.05 , averaging 498 municipalities where the AEROS measurements have operated. The CII value of Tokyo values averaged for the study period was 0.75, which was 1.2 and 1.9 times higher than that of Seoul (0.64) and Beijing(0.39)0.67, 0.52 and 0.24 in Tokyo, Seoul and Beijing, respectively, thus, the air in Tokyo was 1.5 and 2.3 times cleaner, i.e., less amounts of air pollutants, than those in Seoul and Beijing, respectively. The extremely clean air, CII > 0.93, occurred ≈ 0.90 , occurred in southern remote islands of Tokyo and around west of the Pacific coast, i.e., Kochi, Mie and Wakayama Prefectures, and southern remote islands of Tokyo during summer with transport of clean air from the ocean. The average CII value for the all Japanese municipalities was 0.78-0.72 over the study period. We presented "Top 100 clean air cities" in Japan using the CII-as one example of CII to be used in society. We confirmed that the CII enabled the quantitative evaluation of air cleanness. The CII can be useful value

²Tohoku University

³University of Tsukuba

, for example, for in various scenarios, such as encouraging sightseeing and migration, as "tasty air," investment and insurance company business, and city planning. The CII is a simple and fair index that can be applied to all nations.

1 Introduction

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Air is an essential components for all life on our planet. Air quality has been changing since the industrial revolution (1750s). Furthermore According to the report from OECD (2016), air pollutant emissions are predicted to increase because of the projected increase in the energy demand, e.g., transportation and power generation, especially in East Asia, and. This report also mentions that the global annual market costs are predicted to increase from 0.3% in 2015 to 1.0% in 2060 of global GDP because of reduced labor productivity, increased health expenditures, and crop yield losses due to air pollutionare predicted to increase global GDP from 0.3% in 2015 to 1.0% by 2060 (OECD, 2016). Air quality is also an important issue in city planning (e.g., McCarty and Kaza, 2015). Therefore, a.

A global standard index to quantify air cleanness should be developed as the Global Drinking Water Quality Index (GDWQI), for water quality, defined by UNEP (2007), since clean air is as valuable a resource as clean water is. Such an index can be a useful communication tool to allow people to make more informed choiceshelp decision making. The index should be upgraded with the scientific data, and be understandable/informative not only for scientific experts but also general citizen, and also be upgraded with the scientific data.

Several indexes indices exist for estimating air quality, e.g., Air Quality Index in the United States (US EPA, 2006) and Air Quality Health Index in Canada (Stieb et al., 2008) and Hong Kong (Wong et al., 2013). The purpose of these indexes indices is to estimate health risks due to air pollution exposure. These indexes indices were developed based on epidemiological studies and optimized for each country or local area. However, a global standard index for quantifying air cleanness has not been developed. The most commonly used index is the US AQI (US EPA, 2006). The AQI ranges from 0 to 500 and is calculated based on the concentrations of the six air pollutants. In the calculation of AQI, an individual AQI for every air pollutants are calculated for a given location on a given day, and the maximum of all individual AQIs is defined as the overall AQI. Hu et al. (2015) performed a comparison study of several indices for air quality using the measurements in China, and showed AQI underestimates the severity of the health risk associated with the exposure to multi-pollutant air pollution because AQI does not appropriately represent the combined effects of exposure to multiple pollutants. An index to quantify the air quality is still positioned as a developing phase.

In this study, we propose a novel concept of index to quantify air cleanness, "Clean aIr Index (CII)-" to establish the global standard for quantifying air cleanness. The purpose of CII is to comprehensively evaluate air cleanness by normalizing the amounts of common air pollutants with numerical environmental criteria. In this time, we selected surface O₃, particulate matter (PM), NO₂, and SO₂ from the Air Quality Guidelines (AQG) set by the World Health Organization (WHO)(WHO, 2005). The CII can be used globally and locally by optimizing the numerical criteria. As a first approach, we chose Japan for evaluating the CII because of i) the validation data, as the in situ observation sites of the Atmospheric Environmental Regional

Table 1. Value of numerical criteria (s), O_3 , suspended particulate matter (SPM), NO_2 , and SO_2 used in this study. We used the criteria of the Japanese Environmental Quality Standards (JEQS) given by the Ministry of the Environment (MOE) of Japan. Average of air pollutant amount calculated by the model for all Japanese municipalities over the study period is shown. Criterion for photochemical oxidants (Ox) in JEOS was used as the s value for O_3 , because more than 90-95% of Ox is composed of O_3 .

Air pollutant	Average of model	Numerical criteria (s)	Notes
O ₃	31.946.4 ppb	60 ppb	Threshold of the hourly values
SPM	$13.5 \mu \text{g/m}^3$	$100\mu\mathrm{g/m}^3$	Threshold of the daily average for hourly values
NO_2	10.5 ppb	60 ppb	Threshold of the daily average for hourly values
SO_2	1.9 ppb	40 ppb	Threshold of the daily average for hourly values

Observation System (AEROS) provide highly accurate air pollutant amounts, and ii) the obvious numerical criteria, i.e., the Japanese Environmental Quality Standards given by the Ministry of the Environment (MOE).

In this paper, Sect. 2 introduces defines the CII. Section 3 describes the model for calculating the CII for all Japanese municipalities, and validates the CII by comparing it with that values by comparing with those derived from AEROS measurements. In Sect. 4, air cleanness in each municipality is quantified and the area and season of high air cleanness in Japan is identified using the CII.

2 Clean aIr Index (CII)

The CII is a simple index defined by the normalization of each air pollutant amount. The definition of CII is given by

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$$\text{CII} = f(x, s) = 1 - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i}^{N} \frac{x[i]}{s[i]},$$
 (1)

where x[i] is the amount of ith air pollutant, s[i] is the numerical criteria for the normalization of x[i], and N is the number of air pollutants considered in this studythe CII. In this equation, a higher CII value indicates cleaner air, with a maximum of 1 indicating the absence of air pollutants. The CII value decreases as the amount of air pollutant increases, with a value of 0 indicating that the amount of air pollutant is equal to the numerical criteria and a negative value indicating that the amount of air pollutant is larger than the numerical criteria.

The CII can be optimized according to users' requirements by selecting the air pollutants and setting the s values. The air pollutants we selected In this study, the air pollutants used in the CII in this study were are O_3 , PM, NO_2 and SO_2 following the WHO AQG (WHO, 2005) as mentioned above, i.e., N=4. We The field of this study is Japan, thus, we set the values of s according to the Japanese Environmental Quality Standards (JEQS), which are given by the Ministry of the Environment (MOE) of Japan (Table 1). These The time-span should be consistent between the x and s values to implement the air pollutant amount in the calculation of CII. In this case, the s value of O_3 is defined as a limit for 1-hour average, and those of the others are defined as 24-hour average. We employed the maximum of 1-hour average per day for O_3 and daily-mean for the

other pollutants. We used the criterion for photochemical oxidants (Ox) in the JEQS as the s value for O₃, because more than 90–95% of Ox is composed of O₃ (Akimoto, 2017). The CII can be used both globally and locally by defining the setting of s values. In case of applying the CII to compare the air cleanness globally, the numerical criteria should be given by the WHO AOG (WHO, 2005).

The selected air pollutants have been of importance for the last 5 decades in Japan, and have been monitored by AEROS from 1970. Surface O₃, which is harmful to human health (e.g., Liu et al., 2013) and crop yields and quality (e.g., Feng et al., 2015; Miao et al., 2017), has been increasing in Japan since the 1980s in spite of the decreasing O₃ precursors, such as NO_X and volatile organic compounds (VOCs) (Akimoto et al., 2015). Nagashima et al. (2017) estimated that the source of surface O₃ is increasing, and approximately 50 % of the total increase was caused by transboundary pollution from China and Korea. We used the eriterion for photochemical oxidants (O_X) in the JEQS as the *s* value for O₃, because more than 90–95 % of O_X is composed of O₃. We used the suspended particulate matter (SPM) for PM following the JEQS, not PM_{2.5}, PM with a diameter of less than 2.5 μm, because the purpose of the CII is to estimate the level of air cleanness that is not a health risk. The amount of SPM was simply assumed as SPM= (PM₁₀+ PM_{2.5})/2 in this study. NO₂ is a precursor of surface O₃ and is a harmful pollutant. It mostly originates from anthropogenic sources, especially fossil fuel combustion (e.g., power plants and vehicles). Major sources of The environmental SO₂ are emissions from volcanic eruptions (e.g., Read et al., 1993), as level was severe in 1970s in Japan. But the SO₂ emissions from anthropogenic sources have been reduced via regulatory policies (Wakamatsu et al., 2013). concentration has been decreasing owing to the use of desulfurization technologies and low-sulfur heavy oil, and JEQS for SO₂ was satisfied at most AEROS sites in 2012 (Wakamatsu et al., 2013).

3 Model simulation

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A model simulation was performed to calculate the amounts of O_3 , SPM, NO_2 and SO_2 of all Japanese municipalities (1896 in total; note that wards in megacities, such as Tokyo, Osaka, and Fukuoka were counted as independent municipalities), including municipalities with no stations to monitor air pollutants. The AEROS measurement network does not cover the all municipalities, thus we employed the model simulation. We combined two regional models; The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model, for calculating meteorological fields (e.g., temperature, wind, and humidity), and the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model, calculating air pollutant amounts using the WRF results as input parameters. Detailed descriptions about the WRF and CMAQ models are written in Sect. 3.1. The calculations were made from 22 March 2014 to 31 March 2017, and the outputs from 1 April 2014 to 31 March 2017 with the interval of every 1 hour were used for analyses. We selected the simulation period with a unit of fiscal year (FY), starting on 1 April and ending on 31 March, because the AEROS measurement dataset that we used to evaluate our simulation (Sect. 3.2) was archived with a unit of FY. The settings of the WRF-CMAQ model used amount of SPM was simply assumed as [SPM] = ([PM₁₀] + [PM_{2,5}])/2 in this studyare described below.

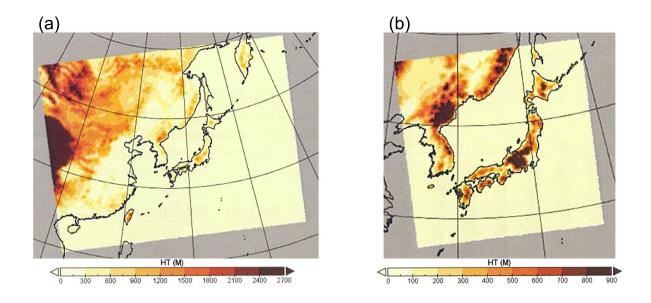


Figure 1. Ranges of (a) Domain 1 and (b) Domain 2 of the WRF-CMAQ models in this study. Color bars denote altitude.

3.1 WRF-CMAQ settings

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We used the WRF model version 3.7 (Skamarock et al., 2008) to calculate the meteorological fields. We set two model domains; which Domain 1 covered East Asia with a horizontal grid resolution of 40 km and 157×123 grid points, and Domain 2 covered main-land Japan with a horizontal grid resolution of 20 km and 123×123 grid points, see Figure 1. The vertical layers consisted of 29 levels from the surface to 100 hPa. The initial and boundary conditions were obtained from the National Center for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Final Operational Global Analysis (FNL, ds083.2) data (six-hourly, 1° × 1° resolution) (NCEP FNL, 2000). In the model domain, three-dimensional grid nudging for horizontal wind, temperature, and water vapor mixing ratio as well as two-dimensional grid nudging for sea surface temperature were performed every six hours. Furthermore, we used the following parameterizations: the new Thompson scheme (Thompson et al., 2008) for microphysical parameterization, the Dudhia scheme (Dudhia, 1989) and Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (Mlawer et al., 1997) for short- and longwave radiation processes, the Mellor-Yamada-Janjić scheme (Janjić, 1994) for planetary boundary layer parameterization, and the Betts-Yamada-Janjić scheme (Janjić, 1994) for cumulus parameterization.

The CMAQ model version 5.1 was used as a chemical transport model in this study. Byun and Schere (2006) provided an overview of the CMAQ model, and the updates and scientific evaluations of CMAQ version 5.1 are provided by Appel et al. (2017). The For the gas-phase chemistry, the 2005 Carbon Bond (CB05) chemical mechanism with toluene update and additional chlorine chemistry (CB05TUCL Whitten et al., 2010; Sarwar et al., 2012) was usedfor the gas-phase chemistry. The used CMAQ model had two model domains, whose regions were the same as those adopted in the WRF model, see Figure 1, and vertical coordinates of 22 layers; the thickness of the lowest layer was approximately 30 m. The initial and boundary conditions

of air pollutants for Domain 1 were obtained from the Model for OZone And Related chemical Tracers (MOZART) version 4 (Emmons et al., 2010), and the boundary conditions for Domain 2 were (CB05TUCL Yarwood et al., 2005; Whitten et al., 2010; Sarwar et used. The core CB05 mechanism (Yarwood et al., 2005) has 51 chemical species and 156 reactions for the compounds and radicals of hydrogen, oxygen, carbon, nitrogen and sulfur. After that, the model outputs of Domain 1.

toluene update (Whitten et al., 2010) has improved the predictions of O₃ and NO_X productions and losses dealing with 59 chemical species and 172 reactions in total. In addition, the implementation of chlorine chemistry (Sarwar et al., 2012) added 7 chemical species and 25 reactions of chlorides, affecting to increase O₃ and reduce nitrates. About the photolysis of molecules, the photolysis rate preprocessor (JPROC) with 21 reactions (Roselle et al., 1999) has been implemented. About the formations of aerosols, the combination of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) formations (Pye and Pouliot, 2012; Pye et al., 2013; Appel et al., 2017), ISORROPIA algorithms (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007) and binary nucleation (VehkamäKi et al., 2002) has been implemented. 45 kinds of aerosols components, including sulfate, ammonium, black carbon, organic carbon and sea salt, have been considered in this model.

The molecules and aerosols were provided by the emissions (anthropogenic, biogenic and sea salt) from surface or transports from the boundaries of domains, and were transported by the wind fields calculated in the WRF model and the parameterizations of horizontal/vertical diffusions, dry deposition and gravitational settling (see Byun and Schere, 2006; Appel et al., 2017). Anthropogenic emissions were defined using the MIX Asian emission inventory version 1.1 which included emissions by power, industry, residential, transportation and agriculture (Li et al., 2017). This inventory of SO₂, NO_X, PM, VOC, CO and NH₃ for 2015 were estimated by correcting the 2010 data (2008 for NH₃) and implemented into the CMAQ model. The corrections were made using the statistical secular changes in the annual total anthropogenic emissions of pollutants and CO₂ (Crippa et al., 2019), population, amount of used chemical fertilizer and NH₃ emission by farm animals for each country included in the model domains (Japan, China, South Korea, North Korea, Taiwan, Mongolia, Vietnam, and Far East Russia). Biogenic emissions of VOC were provided by the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN) version 2.10 (Guenther et al., 2012) using the meteorological fields calculated by the WRF model for 2016. The Those implemented emission inventories did not include interannual changes. Volcanic emissions of SO₂ were ignored , even though there are many active volcanos in Japan, because volcanic activities are irregular and difficult to reproduce our model simulation because of the following reason. The SO₂ concentration values were averaged for 24-hours to be consistent with the time-span of the numerical criterion of JEQS. This procedure dilutes an increase of SO₂ due to volcanic eruption.

The used CMAQ model had two model domains, whose regions were the same as those adopted in the WRF model, see Figure 1, and vertical coordinates of 22 layers; the thickness of the lowest layer was approximately 30 m. The initial and boundary conditions of air pollutants for Domain 1 were obtained from the Model for OZone And Related chemical Tracers (MOZART) version 4 (Emmons et al., 2010), and the boundary conditions for Domain 2 were the model outputs of Domain 1. The MOZART provided the distributions of more than 80 kinds of chemical species and aerosols for the inputs of our model calculations. The amount of pollutants in each Japanese municipality were defined at the longitude/latitude of the municipal

office, with the weighted average of the outputs at model grid points near the municipal office using the following equation:

$$\overline{A} = \frac{1}{A_w} \sum_{i=1}^{I} \frac{R^2 - d_i^2}{R^2 + d_i^2} A_i, \quad A_w = \sum_{i=1}^{I} \frac{R^2 - d_i^2}{R^2 + d_i^2},$$
(2)

where \overline{A} is the defined amount of a pollutant at the municipal office, I (=2 or 3 mostly) is the number of the model grid points of Domain 2 within $R = \sqrt{0.02}$ degrees of the terrestrial central angle (approximately 16 km) from the office, and A_i and d_i are the simulated amount of a pollutant and distance from the office, respectively, at each model grid point. Note that Okinawa Prefecture and Ogasawara-mura municipality in Tokyo Prefecture were outside Domain 2, and the amount of pollutants at the municipalities in them were thus defined using the model outputs of Domain 1 with $R = \sqrt{0.08}$ degrees (approximately 31 km) in Eq. (2). We also derived the amount of pollutants in Seoul and Beijing for the comparisons with that inside Japan from the model outputs of Domain 1.

3.2 Evaluation: Comparison with in situ measurements

70 Location of Japanese municipalities focused on in this study.

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Correlation coefficient (r) of the CII, O₃, SPM, NO₂ and SO₂ between the WRF-CMAQ model simulation and the AEROS measurements in six Japanese cities. Numbers in parenthesis represent mean values of WRF-CMAQ (left) and AEROS (right) for the study period (FY2014–2016).

The CII value derived from the amounts of O₃, SPM, NO₂, and SO₂ calculated by the WRF-CMAQ model was compared with that measured by AEROS. AEROS is operated by the MOE of Japan and has 1901 observation sites for monitoring air pollutants in FY2016. The AEROS data were obtained from the atmospheric environment database of the National Institute for Environmental Studies (*Kankyosuchi database (in Japanese)*). We selected six cities for the comparison, i.e., Akita, Tokyo, Nagano, Osaka, Fukuoka and Kagoshima. The locations of these cities are shown in Fig. 3. Akita, Tokyo, Osaka, and Fukuoka were selected as representative cities of the four seasonal variation patterns of the surface O₃ in Japan: increase in spring in northeastern area (Akita), increase in spring and summer in Kanto area (Tokyo), increase in spring, summer, and autumn in Kansai area (Osaka), and increase in spring and autumn in western area (Fukuoka) (Akimoto et al., 2015). Nagano was selected as a rural area far from large anthropogenic emission sources. Kagoshima was selected to evaluate the effect of volcanic emission because there is active volcano in Sakurajima island, located approximately 5 km from the Kagoshima municipal office. The WRF-CMAQ results were averaged for all observation sites in each city, but in Tokyo, the observation sites in remote islands were omitted. The observation sites in Sakurajima island in Kagoshima were omitted because we ignored SO₂ emission from volcanic eruptions in our model as described in Sect. 3.1. In this comparison, the AEROS Ox data were compared to the WRF-CMAQ O₃ data because the composition ratio was larger than 90–95 % O₃ in Ox (Akimoto, 2017).

Time Figure 2 shows the time series variations in the daily CII mean derived from WRF-CMAQ and AEROS are compared in Fig. 2-value derived from (a) .-WRF-CMAQ and AEROS showed similar seasonal variations in the CII, i.e., increasing in spring to summer (May-August) and decreasing in autumn to winter (September-April). This seasonal variation in the CII

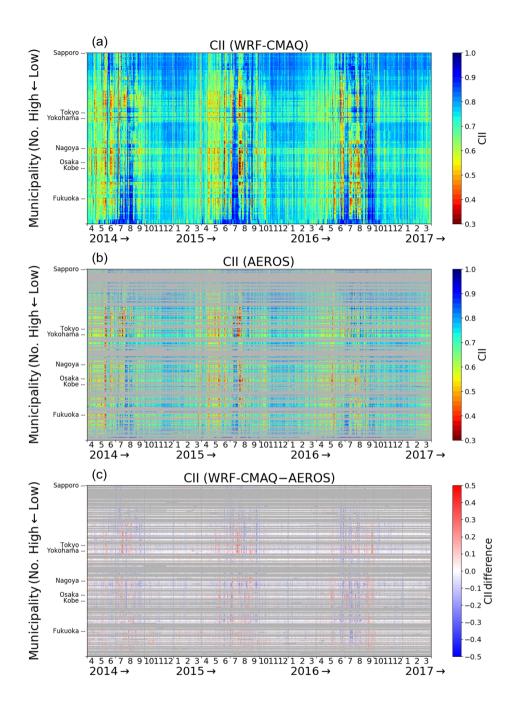


Figure 2. Comparison of CII derived from the WRF-CMAQ model and the AEROS measurements. Left column shows time Spatial-seasonal variation of in CII daily mean. Center column shows scatter plot of them with correlation coefficient values derived from (ra). Right column shows histogram of differences in CII the WRF-CMAQ model, (b) the AEROS measurements and (c) their difference (WRF-CMAQ – AEROS). Dashed line is fitting curve with The horizontal and vertical axis corresponds to date of the Johnson SU functionstudy period and Japanese municipal number, respectively. The municipalities where the AEROS observation covers less than 20 % of days in the study period are masked by gray color.

8

Akita Tokyo Nagano Osaka Fukuoka Kagoshima CII $0.61~0.68~0.61~0.73~0.71~0.65~O_3~ppb0.61~0.67~0.62~0.71~0.69~0.62~SPM~\mu g/m^3 0.49$ $0.53~0.45~0.57~0.57~0.51~0.02~ppb0.25~0.51~0.15~0.56~0.37~0.01~SO_2~ppb0.10~0.36~0.21~0.52~0.19~-0.07$

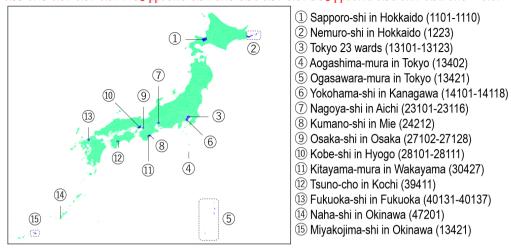


Figure 3. Location of Japanese municipalities focused on in this study. The municipal number is shown in parenthesis.

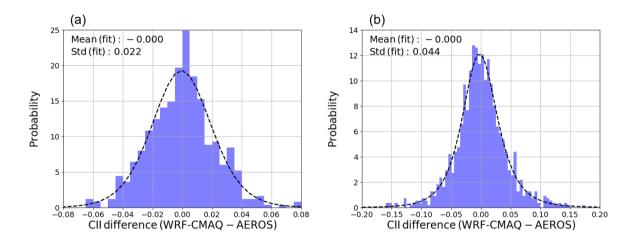


Figure 4. Histogram of CII difference between the WRF-CMAQ model and the AEROS measurements. (a) Their CII mean values of all days in the study period are compared for each municipality. (b) Their CII mean values of all Japanese municipalities are compared for each day. The dashed line represents fitting of the histogram of CII difference by the Johnson SU function. The mean and standard deviation (1 σ) values of the fitting function are shown in the upper left.

was observed in the abovementioned six cities. The CII showed good agreement between, (b) AEROS, and (c) their difference (WRF-CMAQ and AEROSwith a correlation coefficient (r)of larger than 0.61. Table ?? shows the r values of the CII, O₃, SPM, NO₂, and SO₂ between WRF-CMAQ and AEROS for the six cities. The r values of the CII were higher than those of O₃, SPM, NO₂ and SO₂ in the 5 cities (not in Nagano), because the amounts of the species were normalized and comprehensively merged in the definition of CII in Eq. (1). This definition of CII relatively cancels discrepancies in each species in case that the amounts reciprocally vary as O₃ and NO₂ as below. NO₂ is a major precursor of O₃, and photolysis of NO₂ provides the oxygen atoms required to generate O₃ in the following reactions:

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$$\frac{NO_2 + h\nu \rightarrow NO + O_2}{O + O_2 + M \rightarrow O_3 + M_2}$$
$$NO + O_3 \rightarrow NO_2 + O_2,$$

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where M is a third body for the ozone formation reaction. The model underestimates the amount of O_3 and overestimates that of NO_2 in case of large contribution of the reaction (R3), i.e., NO titration effect. This case was observed in — AEROS). The horizontal and vertical axes correspond to the date and municipal number, respectively. The lower municipal number corresponds approximately to the municipalities in northeast Japan and vice versa, and the comparison in Tokyo, Osaka and Fukuoka, and major cites in Japan are shown in the vertical axis. Figure 3 shows the location of these cities and municipalities discussed in this paper hereafter. We used the AEROS observation sites that cover more than 80% of days in the r-values for CIIwere higher than those for O_3 , and NO_2 , see Table ??. Therefore, the cancellation of discrepancy in individual species in the definition of CII is a significant advantage for quantifying air cleanness using the proposed model.

We investigated the precision of the difference in the CII between the WRF-CMAQ model and AEROS measurements study period, and 498 in 1896 municipalities were covered by the AEROS measurements. The AEROS measurement results were averaged for all observation sites in each municipality.

WRF-CMAQ and AEROS showed similar seasonal variations in the CII, i.e., increasing in spring to summer (May-August) and decreasing in autumn to winter (September-April). We discuss the spatial and temporal bias in our calculation to clarify magnitude of significant differences in the CII derived from the WRF-CMAQ model. The histogram of the difference in the CII (value. We compared the CII mean of all days in the study period between WRF-CMAQ — AEROS), the right column of and AEROS for each municipality to investigate the spatial bias in Fig. 2, shows 4 (a). The histogram of the CII difference showed an asymmetric distribution. We, thus we fitted the histogram by using the Johnson SU function, which is a probability distribution transformed from the Normal distribution to cover the asymmetry of the sample distribution (Johnson, 1949). The mean and standard deviation (1-1 σ) of the fitted Johnson SU distribution was approximately 0.06 (0.054–0.067). It showed that the WRF-CMAQ model reproduced CII difference were 0.00 and 0.02, respectively. In the similar way, we investigated the daily temporal bias by comparing the CII mean of all Japanese municipalities for each day. The mean and standard deviation (1 σ) of CII difference were 0.00 and 0.04, respectively. Hereafter, we average the CII values for at least 30 days to compare the CII value within a difference from AEROS of approximately among municipalities to reduce the temporal bias to be less

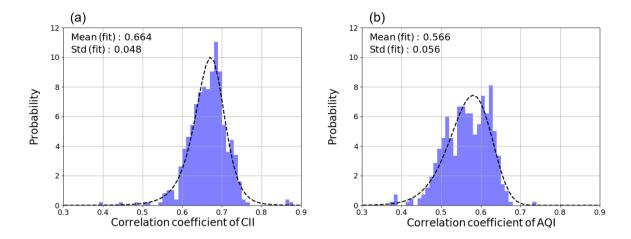


Figure 5. Histogram of correlation coefficient (r) of municipal mean of daily (a) CII and (b) AQI values for the study period between the WRF-CMAQ model and the AEROS measurements. The dashed line represents fitting of the histogram of CII difference by the Johnson SU function. The mean and standard deviation (1σ) values of the fitting function are shown in the upper left.

than 0.01 by averaging 30 values $(0.06 \approx 0.04/\sqrt{30} \approx 0.01)$. Consequently, the difference in CII derived from the WRF-CMAQ larger than 0.01–0.02 was significant to be reproduced by AEROS by averaging 30 values.

3.3 Evaluation: Comparison of CII and AQI

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In Sect. 3.3, we discuss difference between CII and AQI as a representative of the other indices. We compared these indices calculated from the WRF-CMAQ model and the AEROS measurements. The correlation coefficient (r) of mean for the study period between WRF-CMAQ and AEROS was calculated for each municipality. Figure 5 shows the histogram of r for all municipalities for (a) CII and (b) AQI. The histogram was fitted by the Johnson SU function. The r of CII and AQI was $0.66\pm0.05\,(1\,\sigma)$ and $0.57\pm0.06\,(1\,\sigma)$, respectively, and the CII showed better agreement between WRF-CMAQ and AEROS then AQI.

This discrepancy between CII and AQI is explained by the difference of the calculation methods. In the calculation of AQI, only the air pollutant that causes the largest health risk is taken into account and the other air pollutants are ignored (US EPA, 2006). In the calculation of CII, all of air pollutants, O₃, SPM, NO₂ and SO₂, are averaged with normalization by their numerical criteria, as Eq. (1). It was reported that the amount of the surface O₃ was overestimated by the CMAQ model

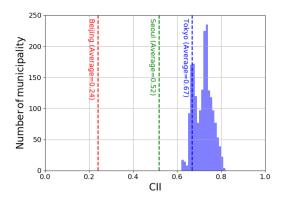


Figure 6. Histogram of average CII over the study period (FY2014–2016) for each municipality in Japan. Red, green, and blue dashed lines represent average CII of Beijing. Seoul, and Tokyo (23 wards), respectively.

(Akimoto et al., 2019). In this case, NO₂ is underestimated because of the following reactions:

$$NO_2 + h\nu \to NO + O, \tag{R1}$$

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$$O + O_2 + M \rightarrow O_3 + M$$
, (R2)

$$NO + O_3 \rightarrow NO_2 + O_2, \tag{R3}$$

where M is a third body for the ozone formation reaction. This discrepancy is less affected for CII than for AQI because the amounts of air pollutants are averaged with being normalized by the numerical criteria.

4 Visualization of air cleanness in Japan

In Sect. 4, we discuss the area and season of high air cleanness in Japan. Figure 6 shows the average CII over the study period (FY2014–2016) for each Japanese municipality. The average CII of 85% of municipalities were higher than that of Tokyo (23 wards), and those of all the municipalities were higher than those of Seoul and Beijing. Here the JEQS values were employed to the *s* values to calculate the CII values in Seoul and Beijing to directly compare with those in Japanese municipalities. The average and standard deviation (1-1 σ) of Tokyo was 0.75CII was 0.67±0.07, which was 1.2 and 1.9 times higher than those of Seoul (0.640.10, 0.52±0.13) and Beijing(0.390.18, and 0.24±0.29)0.32 in Tokyo, Seoul, and Beijing, respectively. The average CII of 89% of municipalities were higher than that of Tokyo, and those of all the municipalities were higher than those of value of 1 – CII is proportional to air pollutant amount, and the air in Tokyo was 1.5 and 2.3 times cleaner, i.e., less air pollutant amounts, than those in Seoul and Beijing, respectively.

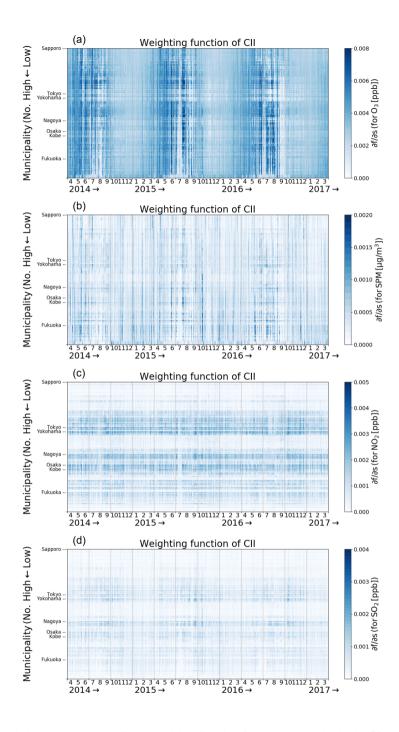


Figure 7. Spatial-seasonal variation in (a) CII and of the weighting function for the numerical criteria, K_s , of for (ba) O_3 , (eb) SPM, (dc) O_3 and (ed) O_3 derived from the WRF-CMAQ model. The color scaling of (b-e) is optimized for each panel.

4.1 Spatial-seasonal variation

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The spatial-seasonal variations in CII, O₃, SPM, NO₂, and SO₂ in Japan are described in Sect. 4.1. Figure 72 (a) shows the daily mean CII value derived from the WRF-CMAQ model for each municipality over the study period. The horizontal and vertical axes correspond to the day and municipal number, respectively, and the lower municipal number corresponds approximately to the municipalities in northeast Japan and vice versa. This figure shows that the CII value depended on both area and season. The CII value tended to be higher in summer because of transportation of unpolluted air mass from the Pacific Ocean. In August 2014, July 2015 and September 2016, the CII values of almost all municipalities were higher than 0.9 for a few weeks. However, the local CII values decreased to below 0.55-0.5 over a short period from May because of local air pollutant emissions and the enhancement due to photochemical reactions induced by strong UV sunlight. The CII value was moderate (0.700.7-0.85.8) and stable from November to February over Japan but gradually decreased from February to May or June because polluted air was transported from East Asia (e.g., Park et al., 2014), and the sunlight strengthened. The municipalities in Okinawa Prefecture, southernmost Japan, maintained their higher CII values of > 0.9 during this period. These spatial-seasonal features were reproduced by the AEROS measurements, see Fig. 2 (b).

The CII value depends not only on the amount of O_3 , SPM, NO_2 , and $SO_2(x)$, but also on their numerical criteria (s), see Eq. (1). A partial differentiation analysis was performed to determine the sensitivities of the s values of O_3 , SPM, NO_2 , and SO_2 to CII. Figure 7 (b-e) shows the weighting function for the numerical criteria (K_s) given by

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$$K_s[i] = \frac{\partial f(x,s)}{\partial s[i]} = \frac{1}{N} \frac{x[i]}{s[i]^2}.$$
 (3)

In the definition of CII, As shown in Eq. (± 3), K_s positively correlates with x, and the CII value monotonically increases with increasing s. The seasonal variation in CII primarily corresponded with the variation in O_3 . The average K_s for O_3 was highest among the species used to calculate the CII in this study, because the amount x/s value of O_3 was relatively higher than the value of s compared with higher than those of SPM, O_2 , and O_3 (Table 1). The value of S_3 for SPM in western Japan was higher than that in eastern Japan during winter and spring because of the effect of transboundary pollution from East Asia (e.g., Park et al., 2014). The spatial distribution of CII corresponded to those of S_3 for S_3 and S_3 which explicitly reflected local emission sources, such as megacities and industrial areas. Typical lifetime of S_3 is approximately a few hours (e.g., Kenagy et al., 2018), and the transport effect was therefore less for this these species. We ignored S_3 emissions from volcanic eruptions, and the S_3 distribution consequently corresponded to industrial activities. No significant seasonal variation in S_3 was observed for S_3 and S_3 . The spatial distribution of S_3 was negatively correlated to that of S_3 primarily because of the S_3 the S_3 variation effect, reaction (S_3 reactions (

Consequently, the CII distribution was influenced not only by local emissions but also by transboundary pollution. The variation in O₃ had the most significant effect on seasonal variation in the CII. The spatial distribution of CII corresponded to those of NO₂ and SO₂. The SPM sources constituted both local emissions and transport from outside of Japan, and SPM variation affected both spatial and seasonal variations in CII.

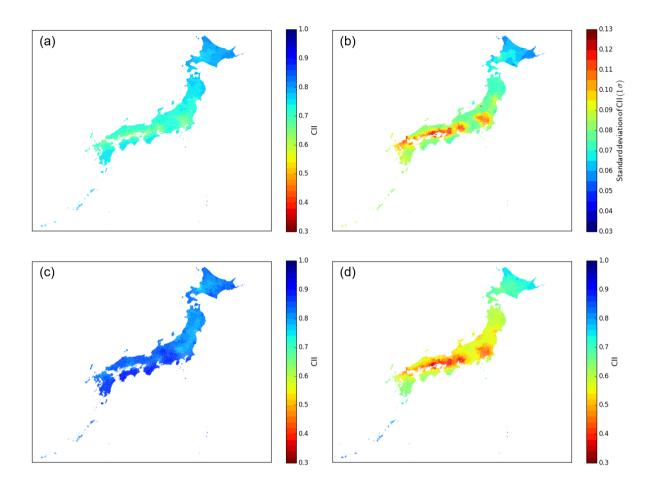


Figure 8. Spatial distributions of CII derived from the WRF-CMAQ model. (a) Mean over the study period (FY2014–2016). (b) Same as (a) but for standard deviation $(4-1)\sigma$. (c) Mean for 30 days of highest CII average in all Japanese municipalities (10 days from each FY). (d) Same as (c) but for lowest CII average.

4.2 Area and season of high air cleanness

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In Sect. 4.2, we discuss the area and season of highest air cleanness over Japan using the CII. First, the CII average over the study period, FY2014–2016, in each municipality was compared \div in Fig. 8 (a), and the daily mean value for this period was averaged for each municipality. The CII averages in northern Japan were higher, and those in municipalities around megacities and industrial areas were lower than the average of all municipalities, $0.780.72\pm0.05$ (1–0.04 (1 σ). Table 2 shows the 10 municipalities with the highest average CII values, which all-located in eastern Hokkaido and southern remote island in Tokyo. The average CII was approximately 0.83-0.84+0.81 in these 10 municipalities \div and the standard deviation (1–1 σ) over the study period was lower than that in other areas, see Fig. 8 (b). The \div , which means the CII remained high throughout the year.

Table 2. Ten municipalities with highest average CII value over the study period, FY2014–2016. The municipal number is shown in parenthesis.

Municipality	Prefecture	CII	
Betsukai-cho (1691Nemuro-shi (1223)	Hokkaido	0.840 0.814	
Hamanaka-cho (1663)	Hokkaido	0.840 0.813	
Shibecha-cho (1664Akkeshi-cho (1662)	Hokkaido	$\underbrace{0.839}_{0.812} \underbrace{0.812}_{0.812}$	
Akkeshi-cho (1662Betsukai-cho (1691)	Hokkaido	$\underbrace{0.838}_{0.812}\underbrace{0.812}$	
Nakashibetsu-cho (1692)	Hokkaido	$\underbrace{0.838}_{0.809} \underbrace{0.809}_{}$	
Shiranuka-cho (1668Kushiro-cho (1661)	Hokkaido	$\underbrace{0.837}_{0.809} \underbrace{0.809}_{00000000000000000000000000000000000$	
Tsurui-mura (1667Rausu-cho (1694)	Hokkaido	0.835-0.808	
Nemuro-shi (1223Shibetsu-cho (1693)	Hokkaido	0.834 - 0.808	
Shibetsu-cho (1693Ogasawara-mura (13421)	Hokkaido-Tokyo	0.832 - 0.808	
Saroma-cho (1552Sarufutsu-mura (1511)	Hokkaido	0.832-0.808	
Average of all Japanese municipalites	0.778 <u>0.717</u>		

For example, the CII daily mean in Betsukai-cho value in Nemuro-shi municipality, where the three-year CII average was the highest, was higher than the total municipal average of 0.78 in 910.72 in 95 % of days over the study period.

We discuss the CII distribution in case of high CII average of all Japanese municipalities. We selected 10 days per year, a total of 30 days —with the highest average CII values to discuss the CII distribution by same-order precision of 0.01 with the AEROS measurements, see Sect. 3.2 (7/9, 7/10, 8/9, 8/10, 8/15–815, 8/20 in 201416, 8/18, 10/5, 12/6, 1/12 in FY2014; 7/13–79, 7/1913, 7/16–19, 7/22, 8/17, 9/9, 9/10 in 2015FY2015; and 7/9, 8/21, 9/7, 9/12–9/14, 9/19, 9/20, 9/25, 9/27, 9/28 in 2016). These FY2016). The 30-days CII values were averaged to discuss the CII distribution by same-order precision of 0.02 with the AEROS measurements, see Sect. 3.2. Almost of these 30 days were selected in summer when unpolluted air was transported from the Pacific Ocean. The average CII values on these 30 days for each municipality are displayed in Fig. 8 (c), and Table 3 shows the 10 municipalities with the highest average CII values on these days. These 10 municipalities located around in southern remote islands of Tokyo and western Pacific coast area, i.e., Kochi, Mie and Wakayama Prefectures, and southern remote islands of Tokyo. The average CII of Susaki-shi municipality in Kochi-Aogashima-mura municipality in southern remote islands of Tokyo Prefecture was the highest. The average CII of these 10 municipalities was approximately 0.930.90, which was 1.1 times 0.06, by CII, higher than that of all Japanese municipalities on high-CII days (0.880.84). Therefore, the highest CII value occurred on the Pacific coast during summer with the condition of few local pollution.

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Similar to the high-CII case, 30 days with the lowest CII average of all Japanese municipalities were selected (4/25, 4/26, 5/13, 5/29-6/2, 6/16, 7/12 in 2014; 415, 6/16, 47/24, 412, 7/26, 15 in FY2014; 4/27, 5/13, 5/22, 5/27, 6/12, 6/13, 6/15, 7/31, 8/1, 8/2 in 2015; and 5/4, 5/27, 5/28, 5/31, 6/10, 6/17, 6/18, 6/2526, 6/2627, 8/3111, 9/1 in 2016). The average of CII values on these 30 low-CII days for each municipality are displayed in Fig. 8 (d), and Table 4 shows the 10 municipalities with the

Table 3. Same as Table 2 but for the average CII for the 30 high-CII days.

Municipality	Prefecture	CII
Susaki-shi (39206Aogashima-mura (13402)	Kochi Tokyo	0.934 0.902
Tsuno-cho (39411Hachijo-machi (13401)	Kochi Tokyo	0.933-0.902
Hachijo-machi (13401Mikurajima-mura (13382)	Tokyo	0.933 -0.899
Kumano-shi (24212Tsuno-cho (39411)	Mie Kochi	0.933-0.897
Kitayama-mura (30427 Yusuhara-cho (39405)	Wakayama Kochi	0.933-0.897
Mikurajima-mura (13382Kumano-shi (24212)	Tokyo-Mie	0.933-0.897
Nakatosa-cho (39401 Kitayama-mura (30427)	Kochi-Wakayama	0.933-0.897
Aogashima-mura (13402Minabe-cho (30391)	Tokyo-Wakayama	0.932 - 0.897
Sakawa-cho (39402)	Kochi	0.932 - 0.897
Miyake-mura (13381Susaki-shi (39206)	Tokyo-Kochi	0.931 - 0.897
Average of all Japanese municipalites	0.880-0.836	

highest average CII values on these days. These 10 municipalities located in southern remote islands, such as Miyakojima-shi in Okinawa Prefecture and Ogasawara-mura in Tokyo and Ishigaki-chi in Okinawa Tokyo Prefecture. The average CII in these municipalities was 0.820.84–0.85.86, which was approximately 1.3 times larger 0.30–0.32, by CII, higher than that of all municipalities on low-CII days (0.640.54). The selected 30 days occurred especially at the end of spring and beginning of summer. Generally, the transboundary pollution effect is large in springthe cold season, and heavy local pollution occurs in summer because of photochemical reactions induced by strong sunlight (e.g., Nagashima et al., 2010). These pollution effects are less pronounced in the remote islands, thus the CII maintained higher values.

We selected "Top 100 clean air cities" in Japan using the CII. The as one example of use in society of CII by the following method. The average of 30 highest daily mean CII values in the study period were averaged was calculated for each municipality. The 30 days were selected for each municipality, not as the case of Fig. 8 (c) and (d). Table 5 shows the 100 municipalities with the highest average CII values. The municipalities in remote islands of Tokyo, and around western Japan, especially around the Pacific coast, i.e., Wakayama, Tokushima, Ehime, Kochi, Kumamoto, Oita, Miyazaki, Kagoshima and Okinawa Prefectures, were selected.

4.3 Air cleanness and human activities

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Industrial activities, particularly fossil fuel combustion such as vehicles and power plants, are major sources of air pollutants, and air cleanness is strongly related with human activities. It is generally difficult to maintain clean air with large-scale industrial activities, and it is therefore not fair to directly compare air cleanness in municipalities with different human activities. In Sect. 4.3, we discuss the relationship between air cleanness municipalities in Japan with not only air cleanness but also human activity, i.e., CII, and the scale of human activities.

Table 4. Same as Table 2 but for the average CII for the 30 low-CII days.

Municipality	Prefecture	CII	
Ogasawara-mura (13421Miyakojima-shi (47214)	Tokyo-Okinawa	0.852-0.860	
Ishigaki-shi (47207Ogasawara-mura (13421)	Okinawa Tokyo	$\underbrace{0.840}_{0.857}\underbrace{0.857}_{0$	
Taketomi-eho (47381 Tarama-son (47375)	Okinawa	$\underbrace{0.840}_{0.857}\underbrace{0.857}_{0$	
Miyakojima-shi (47214Ishigaki-shi (47207)	Okinawa	$\underbrace{0.835}_{0.854}\underbrace{0.854}_{00000000000000000000000000000000000$	
Tarama-son (47375 Taketomi-cho (47381)	Okinawa	$\underbrace{0.835}_{0.854}\underbrace{0.854}_{}$	
Minamidaito-son (47357)	Okinawa	0.832 - 0.848	
Yonaguni-cho (47382Kitadaito-son (47358)	Okinawa	0.829 - 0.845	
Kitadaito-son (47358 Yonaguni-cho (47382)	Okinawa	$\underbrace{0.828}_{0.841} \underbrace{0.841}_{}$	
Kunigami-son (47301)	Okinawa	$\underbrace{0.824}_{0.838}\underbrace{0.838}_{00000000000000000000000000000000000$	
Higashi-son (47303)	Okinawa	0.824 - 0.838	
Average of all Japanese municipalites		0.644 0.544	

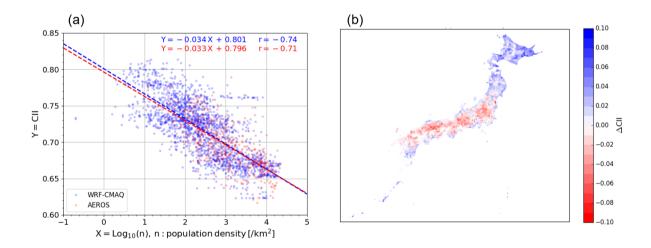


Figure 9. (a) Comparison of CII and population density (n) in each Japanese municipality. Blue dot shows the WRF-CMAQ results. Black dashed Dashed line shows linear regression of CII with $\log_{10}(n)$. Correlation coefficient (r) between CII values and $\log_{10}(n)$ is also shown in the upper right side. Red markers show the CII derived from Blue and red color shows the WRF-CMAQ and AEROS measurements in six cities (Akita, Tokyo, Nagano, Osaka, Fukuokaresults, and Kagoshima) respectively. (b) Distribution of differences in CII from the linear regression (Δ CII) for the WRF-CMAQ model.

Table 5. "Top 100 clean air cities" in Japan. The municipal number is shown in parenthesis.

Municipality

Nemuro-shi (1223), Kushiro-cho (1661), Akkeshi-cho (1662), Hamanaka-cho (1663)

Niijima-mura (13363), Kozushima-mura (13364), Miyake-mura (13381), Mikurajima-mura (13382)

Hachijo-machi (13401), Aogashima-mura (13402), Ogasawara-mura (13421)

Tanabe-shi (30206), Minabe-cho (30391), Shirahama-cho (30401), Kamitonda-cho (30404) Wakayama Nachikatsuura-cho (30421), Kozagawa-cho (30401), Kamitonda-cho (30404) Wakayama Nachikatsuura-cho (30401), Kozagawa-cho (30401), Kamitonda-cho (30401), Kamito

Uwajima-shi (38203), Seiyo-shi (38214), Uchiko-cho (38422), Matsuno-cho (38484), Kihoku-cho (38488)

Ainan-cho (38506)

Kochi-shi (39201), Aki-shi (39203), Nankoku-shi (39204), Tosa-shi (39205) Kochi-, Susaki-shi (39206), Sukumo-shi (39208), Tosashimizu-shi (39209)

Konan-shi (39211), Kami-shi (39212), Kami-shi (39212), Toyo-cho (39301), Nahari-cho (39302), Tano-cho (39303), Yasuda-cho (39304),

Kitagawa-mura (39305), Umaji-mura (39306), Geisei-mura (39307), Ino-cho (39386) -

Niyodogawa-cho (39387), Nakatosa-cho (39401), Sakawa-cho (39402), Ochi-cho (39403),

Yusuhara-cho (39405), Hidaka-mura (39410), Tsuno-cho (39411), Shimanto-cho (39412)

Otsuki-cho (39424), Mihara-mura (39427), Kuroshio-cho (39428)

Taragi-machi (43505), Yunomae-machi (43506), Mizukami-mura (43507), Asagiri-cho (43514)

Saiki-shi (44205)

Miyazaki-shi (45201), Miyakonojyo-shi (45202), Nobeoka-shi (45203), Nichinan-shi (45204), Miyazaki-, Kobayashi-shi (45205),

Hyuga-shi (45206), Kushima-shi (45207), Saito-shi (45208) Ebino-shi (45209), Mimata-cho (45341), Takaharu-cho (45361), Kunitomi-cho (45382)

Aya-cho (45383), Takanabe-cho (45401), Shintomi-cho (45402), Nishimera-son (45403)

Kijyo-cho (45404), Kawaminami-cho (45405), Tsuno-cho (45406), Kadogawa-cho (45421)

Morotsuka-son (45429), Shiiba-son (45430), Misato-cho (45431), Takachiho-cho (45441)

Hinokage-cho (45442), Gokase-cho (45443)

Kanoya-shi (46203), Makurazaki-shi (46204), Ibusuki-shi (46210), Nishinoomote-shi (46213)

Soo-shi (46217), Kirishima-shi (46218), Shibushi-shi (46221), Amami-shi (46222)

Minamikyushu-shi (46223), Yusui-cho (46452), Osaki-cho (46468), Higashikushira-cho (46482)

Kinko-cho (46490), Minamiosumi-cho (46491), Kimotsuki-cho (46492), Nakatane-cho (46501)

Minamitane-cho (46502), Yakushima-cho (46505), Yamato-son (46523) Minamidaito-son (47357), Kitadaito-son (47358) Okinawa "Top 100 clean air o

Tano-cho, Kochi (39303Setouchi-cho (46525), Tatsugo-cho (46527), Kikai-cho (46529) / Otsuki-cho, Kochi (39424)/ Nishinoomote-shi, Kagoshima (4

Soo-shi, Kagoshima (46217)/ Shibushi-shi, Kagoshima (46221) / Miyakojima-shi (47214), Kunigami-son (47301), Higashi-son (47303), Minamidaito-

Kitadaito-son , Okinawa (47358) Tanabe-shi, Wakayama (30206) / Shirahama-cho, Wakayama (30401) / Kamitonda-cho, Wakayama (30404) 0.951 Kai

1) clean air with high human activity, 2) clean air with low human activity, 3) dirty air with high human activity, and 4) dirty air with low human activity. In this study, the common logarithm of population density (n), $\log_{10}(n)$, was employed to quantify human activities (e.g., Kerr and Currie, 1995) following Kerr and Currie (e.g., 1995). The n data were obtained from the 2015 Japanese national census (NSTAC, 2016). Figure 9 (a) shows the scatter plot of $\log_{10}(n)$ and average CII for the study period, FY2014–2016, derived from the WRF-CMAQ model and the AEROS measurements for each municipality. A clear negative correlation between $\log_{10}(n)$ and the CII was observed and had an r value values of -0.680.74 and -0.71, for WRF-CMAQ and AEROS, respectively. This negative correlation was formulated by the linear regression with the objective variable of CII and the explanatory variable of $\log_{10}(n)$, as shown by the black dashed line dashed lines in Fig. 9 (a).

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$$\text{CII} = -0.016\underline{a} \times \log_{10}(n) + \underline{0.82}b$$
 (4)

The red markers indicate the CII values derived from the AEROS measurements at the six cities used for comparison study (Fig. 2) parameters of a and b were estimated to be -0.034 ± 0.001 and 0.801 ± 0.002 for WRF-CMAQ, and -0.033 ± 0.001 and 0.796 ± 0.005 for AEROS, respectively. The negative correlation between the CII value and $\log_{10}(n)$ and the CII value derived from WRF-CMAQ was reproduced from the AEROS measurements and agreed with the linear regression line, except for Osaka AEROS, and the parameters of a and b were agreed within their errors.

Ten municipalities with highest average ΔCII value over the study period, FY2014–2016. The municipal number is shown in parenthesis. Municipality Prefecture ΔCII CII Obihiro-shi (1207) Hokkaido 0.050 0.827 Sapporo-shi, Atsubetsu-ku (1108) Hokkaido 0.049 0.805 Kushiro-shi (1206) Hokkaido 0.048 0.830 Sapporo-shi, Shiroishi-ku (1104) Hokkaido 0.046 0.802 Nemuro-shi (1223) Hokkaido 0.046 0.834 Nakashibetsu-cho (1692) Hokkaido 0.046 0.838 Kushiro-cho (1661) Hokkaido 0.045 0.831 Sapporo-shi, Chuo-ku (1101) Hokkaido 0.043 0.800 Sapporo-shi, Toyohira-ku (1105) Hokkaido 0.043 0.800 Sapporo-shi, Higashi-ku (1103) Hokkaido 0.043 0.800 – 0.000 0.778-

The The CII value showed negative correlation with the human activity, thus the municipalities in group 2 and 3 are in normal situation. The municipalities in group 1 is ideal case because such municipalities are expected to be industrially advanced as well as to succeed to maintain clean air environment. There are some issues in the municipalities in group 4 because such municipalities can not save clean air in spite of small population. It might indicate that there are large air pollution sources, such as large power plant, or air pollutants are transported from the outside. The degree of this categorizing is quantified by difference between the CII and the linear regression line, Eq. (4), normalized the CIIvalues by the population density n. The difference between the CII and the linear regression line ((Δ CII). The positive Δ CII value means that the municipality is categorized in group 1, and the negative Δ CII) can be an additional indicator compensating for the unfair comparison of air eleanness caused by human activities, value does group 4. The distribution of Δ CII in the average for FY2014–2016 is shown in Fig. 9 (b), and Table 6 shows the 10 municipalities with the highest average Δ CII values. All of these municipalities were in Hokkaido , similar to the results shown in Table 2, but urban municipalities in Hokkaido were ranked as Sapporo-shi and Obihiro-shi cities. The and Okinawa prefectures. The higher Δ CII values in northeastern Japan, especially Hokkaido, were higher than those in western Japan. The Δ CII value reflects the transport of air pollutants from around the municipality rather than the CII value if the neighboring municipality was a megacity or had industrial factorieswere observed in northeastern

Table 6. Ten municipalities with highest average Δ CII value over the study period, FY2014–2016. The municipal number is shown in parenthesis.

Municipality	Prefecture	ΔCII	ÇII
Naha-shi (47201)	Okinawa	0.095	0.762
Urasoe-shi (47208)	Okinawa	0.091	0.762
Sapporo-shi, Shiroishi-ku (1104)	Hokkaido	0.088	0.759
Sapporo-shi, Chuo-ku (1101)	Hokkaido	0.088	0.761
Ginowann-shi (47205)	Okinawa	0.088	0.762
Sapporo-shi, Toyohira-ku (1105)	Hokkaido	0.087	0.761
Sapporo-shi, Higashi-ku (1103)	Hokkaido	0.086	0.761
Sapporo-shi, Kita-ku (1102)	Hokkaido	0.086	0.761
Tomigusuku-shi (47212)	Okinawa	0.084	0.764
Yonabaru-cho (47348)	Okinawa	0.083	0.762
Average of all Japanese municipali	-0.000	0.717	

Japan and coastal area. There are many industrial areas in western Japan (Li et al., 2017), which might be one reason for the lower Δ CII values. As discussed above, Δ CII quantified the air cleanness with respect to population density, i.e., human activities. The A combination of CII and Δ CII could be a useful way of evaluating air cleanness —in municipality.

5 Conclusions

We defined a novel concept of index for quantifying air cleanness, namely CII. This index comprehensively evaluates the level of air cleanness by normalizing the amounts of common air pollutants. A CII value of 1 indicates the absence of air pollutants, and 0 indicates that the amounts of air pollutants are the same as the normalization numerical criteria.

A model simulation was performed to visualize the air cleanness of all 1896 municipalities in Japan using CII. We used O₃, SPM, NO₂, and SO₂ in CII this study, and their numerical environmental criteria were taken from the JEQS set by the MOE of Japan. The amounts of these species were calculated via the model combining the WRF model version 3.7 and CMAQ model version 5.1. The time period of the simulation was from 1 April 2014 to 31 March 2017, i.e., FY2014–2016. The CII value values near the surface derived from the model was—were evaluated by comparing it with—with those of the AEROS in situ observations, operated by the MOE of Japan, in Akita, Tokyo, Nagano, Osaka, Fukuoka, and Kagoshima, which cover areas of four patterns of O₃ seasonal variation, a rural area and an area affected by volcanic eruption. The CII correlation coefficient r between the WRF-CMAQ and AEROS exceeded 0.61. The precision of the difference in CII between the . 498 municipalities were covered by the AEROS measurements. The difference of CII between WRF-CMAQ and AEROS was approximated by the Johnson SU function. The CII difference distributed in 0.00±0.02 and 0.00±0.04 for spatial and temporal bias, respectively.

We concluded that the difference in CII derived from the WRF-CMAQ larger than 0.01 was significant and could 0.02 was significant to be reproduced by AEROS by averaging 30 values -

Over to reduce the temporal bias to be less than $0.01~(\approx 0.04/\sqrt{30})$. Difference between CII and AQI was also discussed. The correlation coefficient (r) of mean for the study period, between WRF-CMAQ and AEROS was calculated for each municipality. The r of CII and AQI was $0.66\pm0.05~(1~\sigma)$ and $0.57\pm0.06~(1~\sigma)$, respectively. The CII showed better agreement between WRF-CMAQ and AEROS than AQI because of the difference of definition between CII and AQI. The CII averages all normalized air pollutant amounts but the AQI employs only the maximum of all individuals, i.e., any effects from the other air pollutants are ignored. This CII concept to comprehensively evaluate multiple air pollutants could be an advantage to quantify the air cleanness.

Over the study period, FY2014–2016, eastern Hokkaido had the highest CII average values of 0.83–0.84, which were 1.1 times higher than the average values of all Japanese municipalities of 0.78. The, the average CII value of Tokyo (23 wards) was 0.75, which was 1.2 and 1.9 times higher than those of Seoul (0.64) and Beijing(0.39). Seoul and Beijing was 0.67, 0.52 and 0.24, respectively. It means that the air in Tokyo was 1.5 and 2.3 times cleaner, i.e., less amounts of air pollutants, than those in Seoul and Beijing, respectively. The CII value varied spatially and temporally, corresponding to variations in O₃, SPM, NO₂, and SO₂. The municipalities in eastern Hokkaido Prefecture had the highest CII average values of approximately 0.81, which was 0.09, by CII, higher than the average values of all Japanese municipalities of 0.72. The extremely clean air with CII values around 0.93, occurred approximately 0.90, occurred in southern remote islands of Tokyo and around western the Pacific coast, i.e., Kochi, Mie and Wakayama Prefectures, and southern remote islands of Tokyo during summer with transport of unpolluted air from the ocean. The municipalities in remote islands, such as Ogasawara and Okinawa southern remote islands in Okinawa and Tokyo Prefectures maintained their high CII values of 0.820,84–0.85,86, which was approximately 1.3 times higher than the average 0.30–0.32, by CII, higher than that of all municipalities on low-CII days (0.54). Furthermore, "Top 100 clean air cities" in Japan was presented using the CII as one example of CII to be used in society.

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The relationship between air cleanness and We quantified the air cleanness in municipality with respect to human industrial activities could not be fairly compared. Population density was used to quantify human activities in this study. A negative correlation between CII and the population density was observed by both the WRF-CMAQ model and the AEROS measurement. The CII (Y) was approximated by a linear function of the common logarithm of population density (X), Y = -0.016X + 0.82Y = -0.034X + 0.801. The differences in of CII from this approximation line (ΔCII) in northeastern Japan, especially Hokkaido, were higher than those in western Japan. The east-west contrast of indicates the CII normalized by human activity. The municipalities with positive ΔCII might be due to large-scale industrial activities in western Japan values are expected to maintain clean air and to be industrially advanced. Those with negative ΔCII values are expected to have certain issues such as large air pollution source and air pollutants transported from the outside. A combination of CII and ΔCII could be a useful way of evaluating air cleanness in municipality.

The CII can be used in various scenarios, such as encouraging sightseeing and migration, investment and insurance company business, and city planning. For example, Hokkaido is recommended to live because the CII value is constantly high throughout the year. Western the Pacific coast and southern remote islands can be tourist spots for seeking "tasty air " because extremely

high CII values are temporally given during summer. The CII enabled the quantitative evaluation of air cleanness, and could not only be applied in Japan but also in other countries CII can be used for an advertisement of clean air for promoting sightseeing and migration for local governments. CII is also effective to measure the potential of local brands and tourism resources. Private company is expect to use CII for ESG (Environmental, Social and Governance) investment. If the CII could be associated with life expectancy, the CII can be applied to insurance business especially in Asian region where urban air pollution is a serious problem. City planning is also a possible use of CII because air quality is related to urban form (e.g., McCarty and Kaza, 2015). As mentioned above, the CII has a potential to be applied to policy as well as company business in cities and countries around the world.

Data availability. The WRF-CMAQ model data in this publication can be accessed by contacting the authors. The AEROS measurement data are available through the following link: https://www.nies.go.jp/igreen. Japanese population density data are available through the following link: https://www.e-stat.go.jp/.

Video supplement. The CII daily mean for all 1896 Japanese municipalities is archived for each month over the study period, FY2014–2016.

430 *Author contributions*. Conceptualization, Leading by Y. K.; All authors; Model simulation, T. K.; Evaluation of data quality; T. O. S.; Manuscript writing, T. O. S. and T. K.; Writing significant contribution to paper, Y. K.; Review and editing, All authors.

Competing interests. The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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