



1 **Impacts of historical climate and land cover changes on fine particulate**
2 **matter (PM_{2.5}) air quality in East Asia over 1980-2010**

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11 **Abstract.** To examine the effects of changes in climate, land cover and land use (LCLU), and
12 anthropogenic emissions on fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) between the 5-year periods 1981-1985
13 and 2007-2011 in East Asia, we perform a series of simulations using a global chemical transport
14 model (GEOS-Chem) driven by assimilated meteorological data and a suite of land cover and land
15 use data. Our results indicate that climate change alone could lead to a decrease in wintertime
16 PM_{2.5} concentration by 4.0-12.0 µg m⁻³ in northern China, but an increase in summertime PM_{2.5}
17 by 6.0-8.0 µg m⁻³ in those regions. These changes are attributable to the changing chemistry and
18 transport of all PM_{2.5} components driven by long-term trends in temperature, wind speed and
19 mixing depth. The concentration of secondary organic aerosol (SOA) is simulated to increase by
20 0.2-0.8 µg m⁻³ in both summer and winter in most regions of East Asia due to climate change
21 alone, mostly reflecting higher biogenic volatile organic compound (VOC) emissions under
22 warming. The impacts of LCLU change alone on PM_{2.5} (-2.1 to +1.3 µg m⁻³) are smaller than that
23 of climate change, but among the various components the sensitivity of SOA and thus organic
24 carbon to LCLU change (-0.4 to +1.2 µg m⁻³) is quite significant especially in summer, which is
25 driven mostly by changes in biogenic VOC emissions following cropland expansion and changing
26 vegetation density. The combined impacts show that while the effect of climate change on PM_{2.5}
27 air quality is more pronounced, LCLU change could offset part of the climate effect in some
28 regions but exacerbate it in others. As a result of both climate and LCLU changes combined, PM_{2.5}
29 levels are estimated to change by -12.0 to +12.0 µg m⁻³ across East Asia between the two periods.
30 Changes in anthropogenic emissions remain the largest contributor to deteriorating PM_{2.5} air
31 quality in East Asia during the study period, but climate and LCLU changes could lead to a
32 substantial modification of PM_{2.5} levels.

33



34 **1 Introduction**

35 Over the recent decades atmospheric particulate matter (PM, or aerosols) has received
36 considerable attention in East Asian countries due to its impacts on regional air quality,
37 human health and climate change. A number of projection studies have examined the effects
38 of changes in anthropogenic emissions and climate on future PM air quality globally and in
39 East Asia (Fiore et al., 2012; Jiang et al., 2013), but there still exist large uncertainties arising
40 from the complex interactions between aerosol chemistry, meteorology and the underlying
41 land cover, especially for East Asia which is expected to undergo tremendous land use
42 change in the next few decades (Hurt et al., 2011). A better understanding of how PM
43 formation and removal have historically been shaped by meteorological and land surface
44 conditions in East Asia would be useful to help better project the future evolution of PM air
45 quality. In this work, we use a chemical transport model driven by past meteorological and
46 land surface data to evaluate the individual and combined effects of climate and land cover
47 changes in East Asia over 1980-2010, and compare these effects with that of increasing
48 anthropogenic emissions. This attribution of East Asian air quality trends in the past would
49 shed light on their potential course of evolution in the coming few decades, and provide
50 valuable information for policymaking concerning public health, land use and climate
51 management.

52 Of particular public health concern is fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}), defined to be
53 suspended liquid or solid particles with a diameter of 2.5 μm or less. PM_{2.5} has been shown
54 to have detrimental effects on human health, leading to increased mortality related to
55 cardiovascular diseases and lung cancer (Krewski et al., 2009; Silva et al., 2013; Fang et al.,
56 2013). PM_{2.5} is also associated with poor visibility and haze (Wang et al., 2014), and plays a
57 significant role in modifying the Earth's energy budget (IPCC, 2013). PM_{2.5} has a variety of
58 sources that depend on the chemical components, which include sulfate, nitrate, ammonium,
59 black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), sea salt, and mineral dust. Air quality degradation
60 with elevated PM_{2.5} in East Asia is primarily attributable to increasing anthropogenic
61 emissions of their precursors. For instance, Wang et al. (2013) reported that annual mean
62 sulfate-nitrate-ammonium concentrations increased by 60% in China from 2000 to 2006,
63 which mainly resulted from the 60% and 80% increases in sulfur dioxide (SO₂) and nitrogen
64 oxides (NO_x) emissions, respectively. Yang et al. (2015) found that the decadal trends of
65 aerosol outflow from East Asia were dominated by the trends and variations in
66 anthropogenic emissions, which could account for about 86% of the decadal trend in PM_{2.5}



67 outflow over 1986-2006.

68 Air pollution associated with $PM_{2.5}$ is also strongly sensitive to weather conditions and
69 therefore influenced by climate change (Jacob and Winner, 2009; Tai et al., 2010; Fiore et
70 al., 2012). Meteorological conditions affect the production, transport and deposition of $PM_{2.5}$
71 components and their precursors. The effects of climate change on $PM_{2.5}$ are complex due to
72 the widely varying sensitivities of its components to different meteorological factors. For
73 example, higher temperature can enhance sulfate concentration due to faster SO_2 oxidation
74 (Dawson et al., 2007; Jacob and Winner, 2009), while nitrate and OC concentrations
75 decrease because higher temperature shifts more of these semivolatile components from the
76 particle to gas phase (Liao et al., 2006; Kanakidou and Tsigaridis, 2007). This is further
77 complicated by the covariation of temperature with cold-frontal passages, which are an
78 important ventilating mechanism for air pollutants (Leibensperger et al., 2008; Tai et al.,
79 2012a; 2012b). In general, changes in ventilation (e.g., wind speed and direction, mixing
80 depth) significantly modify aerosol dispersion and transport. Zhu et al (2012) suggested that
81 the decadal-scale weakening of the East Asian summer monsoon could have increased
82 aerosol concentrations in eastern China mostly due to changes in circulation patterns.
83 Furthermore, higher humidity generally promotes the formation of ammonium nitrate
84 (Dawson et al. 2007; Tai et al., 2010), and all $PM_{2.5}$ components are very sensitive to
85 precipitation, which provides a major sink via scavenging (Dawson et al. 2007).

86 The tropospheric concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ are also influenced by land cover and land use
87 (LCLU) changes. Vegetation represents an important source of biogenic volatile organic
88 compounds (VOC), especially isoprene and monoterpenes, which are major precursors of
89 secondary organic aerosols (SOA). SOA can be the major contributor to aerosols especially
90 in remote regions far away from industrial influence (Carslaw et al., 2010), but can also be
91 significant in many urban areas due to high year-round anthropogenic and summertime
92 biogenic VOC emissions. For instance, Ding et al. (2014) investigated the origins of SOA in
93 various Chinese regions based on observations from 14 sites during the summer of 2012, and
94 found that biogenic isoprene was the major contributor ($46 \pm 14\%$) to secondary OC in every
95 site. In addition, vegetation and land surface characteristics may further modulate
96 atmospheric aerosols by controlling soil NO_x emissions and the dry deposition of both gases
97 and particles within the planetary boundary layer.

98 The impacts of climate and land cover changes on $PM_{2.5}$ on a multidecadal scale have
99 been quantified to various extents using chemical transport models (CTM) driven by
100 assimilated meteorological data or simulated meteorological fields from general circulation



101 models (GCM). Jeong and Park (2013) found that sulfate-nitrate-ammonium concentrations
102 decreased by 4% in summer but increased by 7% in winter in eastern China over 1985-2006
103 as a result of meteorological changes alone. Jiang et al. (2013) showed that following
104 climate change alone under the IPCC A1B scenario, different aerosol species over China
105 would generally be altered by -1.5 to $+0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentration is projected to
106 change by 10-20% in eastern China. Tai et al. (2013) reported that in China, climate change
107 together with climate- and CO_2 -driven natural vegetation changes would change annual
108 mean surface SOA by -0.4 to $+0.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ over 2000-2050 under the IPCC A1B scenario,
109 while anthropogenic land use change can increase SOA by up to $0.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ over the same
110 period. Wu et al. (2012) also predicted that changes in natural vegetation and anthropogenic
111 land use over 2000-2050 would lead to higher summertime SOA over East Asia. Most of
112 these studies, except Jeong and Park (2013), are concerned with the effects of future climate
113 change and/or land cover change on aerosols. Previous studies that focus on the effects of
114 historical LCLU change on East Asian aerosols are few. Fu and Liao (2014) suggested that
115 surface SOA might decrease by as much as $0.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (-20%) between the late 1980s and
116 mid-2000s over China due to changes in biogenic emissions induced by LCLU (mainly) and
117 climate (to a lesser extent) changes. However, the overall role of LCLU change in
118 controlling regional $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and its composition via biogenic emissions and deposition,
119 especially under the simultaneous influence of climate change and CO_2 fertilization, is still
120 poorly understood.

121 In this study, we use the GEOS-Chem global CTM driven by past meteorological and
122 land cover data to quantify the impacts of historical changes in climate, land cover and land
123 use on $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ air quality in East Asia between two 5-year periods: historical period, 1981-
124 1985 (referred to as “1980”), and the present day, 2007-2011 (referred to as “2010”). We
125 consider 5-year averages in each of these periods to account for interannual variability. We
126 also compare the effects of climate and LCLU changes with the contribution from
127 anthropogenic emissions over the same time frame. The findings would shed light on the
128 possible climate and land use “penalties” or benefits that might have exacerbated or offset
129 the effect of anthropogenic emissions in the past, and provide a constraint for future air
130 quality projections, which currently have large uncertainties for East Asia.

131

132 2 Methods and model description

133 We perform a series of model experiments to simulate aerosols using the GEOS-Chem



134 global CTM (version 9-02) with assimilated meteorology and integrated historical land cover
135 data. The modeling framework in this study is the same as that used in Fu and Tai (2015). In
136 brief, GEOS-Chem performs fully coupled simulations of ozone-NO_x-VOC (Bey et al.,
137 2001) and aerosol chemistry (Park et al., 2003, 2004; Pye et al., 2010). In this study, GEOS-
138 Chem is driven by the assimilated meteorological data from Modern Era Retrospective-
139 analysis for Research and Applications (MERRA) with a horizontal resolution of 2.0 °
140 latitude by 2.5 ° longitude, and a vertical resolution of 47 levels. Aerosol species simulated
141 include sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, organic carbon, black carbon, sea salt, and mineral dust.
142 Inorganic aerosol thermodynamic equilibrium calculations are based on the ISORROPIA II
143 scheme of Fountoukis and Nenes (2007). SOA formation is based on the reversible gas-
144 aerosol partitioning of VOC oxidation products (Chung and Seinfeld, 2002, Liao et al.,
145 2007) with precursors including isoprene, monoterpenes, alcohols, and aromatic
146 hydrocarbons (Henze et al., 2008). The wet deposition scheme for water-soluble aerosol
147 species is described by Liu et al. (2001). Model details for other relevant modules and
148 emission inventories can be found in Fu and Tai (2015).

149 The land cover dependence of atmospheric chemistry is mainly encapsulated in two land
150 cover inputs, namely, leaf area index (LAI), and land or plant functional types (as a single
151 categorical value or as fractional coverage in each grid cell), mostly through their effects on
152 biogenic VOC and soil NO_x emissions, and dry deposition velocities. The emissions of
153 biogenic VOC species in each grid cell are determined by the canopy-scale emission factors
154 multiplied by various activity factors that account for variations in temperature, light, leaf
155 age and LAI, using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN)
156 module (Guenther et al., 2012). Soil NO_x emission follows the parameterization of Yienger
157 and Levy (1995) and Hudman et al. (2012), which includes a physical representation of key
158 soil processes derived from field measurements, with dependence on vegetation types,
159 temperature, precipitation history, fertilizer use, and a canopy reduction factor. Dry
160 deposition follows the resistance-in series scheme of Wesely (1989) as implemented by
161 Wang et al. (1998), and is dependent on species properties, land cover types and
162 meteorological conditions. It uses the Olson land cover classes with 76 land types (Olson,
163 1992) reclassified into 11 land types. Aerosol dry deposition follows Zhang et al. (2001) as
164 described by Pye et al. (2009). The land cover inputs used for this study are derived from a
165 fusion of various datasets, including the Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer
166 (MODIS) land cover product (MCD12Q1), the National Land Cover Dataset (NLCD) for
167 China, harmonized historical land use for Representative Concentration Pathways (RCP)



168 from Hurtt et al. (2011), and the global LAI product from Liu et al. (2012). See Fu and Tai
169 (2015) for detailed description of these land cover inputs.

170 We conduct a 5-year simulation in the present-day period (2007-2011) with the
171 corresponding meteorological variables, emissions, and land cover and land use as the
172 control simulation [*CTRL*]. Sensitivity simulations are conducted for: (1) [*S_CLIM*]:
173 historical (1981-1985) climate with present-day land cover inputs and emissions (scaled to
174 2005 levels) used in [*CTRL*]; (2) [*S_LCLU*]: historical land cover inputs with present-day
175 climate and emissions used in [*CTRL*]; (3) [*S_COMB*]: historical climate and land cover
176 inputs but with present-day emissions used in [*CTRL*]; and (4) [*S_ANTH*]: historical
177 emissions scaled to 1985 levels but with present-day climate and land cover inputs.
178 Additional sensitivity simulations perturbing certain meteorological variables while keeping
179 the rest at present-day levels are conducted to examine which meteorological factors have
180 been the most important for shaping different PM_{2.5} components.

181

182 **3 Simulated spatiotemporal variations of PM_{2.5} concentrations**

183 Simulated seasonal mean surface concentrations of sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻),
184 ammonium (NH₄⁺), black carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), and total PM_{2.5} (sum of sulfate,
185 nitrate, ammonium, BC and OC) in East Asia averaged over 2007-2011 from the [*CTRL*]
186 simulation are shown in Fig. 1. Simulated PM_{2.5} is high over the eastern regions of East Asia
187 (east of 110 °E), especially in eastern and central China, where PM_{2.5} is in the range of 60-90
188 μg m⁻³ in all seasons. Nitrate (~33%), sulfate (~24%), ammonium (~19%) and OC (~22%)
189 are the major components of annual mean PM_{2.5} in eastern China (Table S1). The
190 contribution of each species to total PM_{2.5} is generally overestimated compared with
191 nationwide measurements from Zhang et al (2012), probably due to the exclusion of mineral
192 dust and sea salt in this work, and the inadequacy of current emission inventories.

193 Among all seasons, simulated sulfate is the highest in summer (JJA) mainly due to
194 enhanced photochemical oxidation of SO₂. The maximum summertime sulfate concentration
195 of 25-35 μg m⁻³ is found in the North China Plain, while the largest sulfate concentration in
196 other seasons is within the range of 15-25 μg m⁻³ over much of eastern and central China
197 (Fig. 1). Nitrate shows a different seasonal variation with a maximum in winter (DJF) and
198 minimum in summer, as the low wintertime temperature promotes ammonium nitrate
199 formation. The maximum wintertime nitrate concentration is in the range of 30-40 μg m⁻³
200 around central China (Fig. 1). The spatial distribution of seasonal ammonium concentration



201 is similar to that of nitrate and sulfate, within a range of 5-20 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in all four seasons over
202 the domain of study. The concentrations of OC and BC in the eastern regions of East Asia
203 are the largest in winter, with maximum values of 20-25 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ and 5-10 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
204 respectively, reflecting higher anthropogenic emissions associated with domestic heating in
205 winter. Our simulated aerosol concentrations and distributions show general agreement with
206 previous studies in East Asia (Fu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013; Jeong and Park, 2013; Lou
207 et al., 2014), demonstrating the ability of GEOS-Chem to capture the spatial variations of
208 different PM_{2.5} species despite biases in the absolute concentrations. The model biases of
209 simulated annual mean sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, BC and OC in East Asia are -10%,
210 +31%, +35%, -56% and -76%, respectively (Fu et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2013).

211 The distribution of simulated seasonal surface SOA concentration is shown in Fig. 2.
212 Total SOA is the sum of SOA from the oxidation of biogenic VOC (including isoprene,
213 monoterpenes, sesquiterpenes) and anthropogenic VOC (including benzene, toluene and
214 xylene). In winter, simulated SOA is less than 0.5 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ over the northern regions of East
215 Asia, where biogenic emissions, temperature, and radiation are lower than in southern
216 regions (south of 25 °N). In summer, simulated SOA over the eastern parts of East Asia are
217 within the range of 2.0-7.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ with the highest concentration in the lower and middle
218 reaches of Yangtze River and east of Sichuan province. SOA distributions in spring (MAM)
219 and fall (SON) are similar, within the range of 2.0-5.0 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ over central and southeastern
220 China. Figure 2 also shows that SOA from biogenic emissions is the major contributor to
221 total SOA in East Asia, larger than the anthropogenic contribution by nearly an order of
222 magnitude in all seasons.

223 Of the total OC in China, about 6-27% is attributable to SOA (Table S1), which is lower
224 than the fraction (~55-60%) found by Zhang et al. (2012). Fig. 3a compares the simulated
225 and observed July-September mean SOA concentrations in 14 sites over China. The
226 observed concentrations are taken from Ding et al. (2014), which are measured at 5 urban
227 sites, 7 rural or sub-urban sites, and 2 remote sites around China in 2012. Simulated SOA is
228 underestimated by about 60%. The simulated secondary organic carbon (SOC) to OC ratios
229 are also compared with the observed ratios from Zhang et al. (2012) (Fig. 3b), which are
230 measured at 14 sites in China during 2006-2007. The simulated seasonal mean SOC
231 contributions range from 14% to 54% over China, with relatively higher contribution (54%)
232 in summer but much lower (14%) in winter, while the observed ratios exhibit little
233 seasonality between 51-57%. The simulated SOC/OC ratios agree generally well with the
234 measurements in summer with a low-bias of 5%, while that in winter, spring, and autumn are



235 underestimated by about 74%, 56%, and 41%, respectively (Fig. 3b). This suggests that SOA
236 is underestimated in these seasons, likely reflecting uncertainties in not only the VOC
237 emission inventories but also SOA formation mechanism. In this study, we consider SOA
238 formation from absorptive partitioning of semivolatile organic compounds, but previous
239 studies have suggested the potential importance of heterogeneous uptake of dicarbonyls (Fu
240 et al., 2009) and oxidation of gas-phase semivolatile primary organic compounds and
241 intermediate VOC (e.g., naphthalene) (Pye et al., 2010), which may constitute potentially
242 large SOA sources but are not included in our study.

243

244 **4 Impacts of climate change alone on PM_{2.5}**

245 Climate change alone ([CTRL] – [S_CLIM]) can substantially alter the simulated
246 concentrations of PM_{2.5} and its components in East Asia between 1980 and 2010. Here we
247 focus on the changes in winter and summer (Fig. 4 and Fig. 5, respectively). The most
248 significant decrease of PM_{2.5} occurs in winter (Fig. 4), with the maximum decrease in the
249 North China Plain by up to 12.0 μg m⁻³, while wintertime PM_{2.5} over southeastern and
250 central-western China (30 °-40 °N; 100 °-110 °E) increases by up to 4.0 μg m⁻³, due to climate
251 change alone. We find that the spatial pattern of changes in summertime PM_{2.5} due to climate
252 change alone is mostly reversed (Fig. 5), being enhanced by as much as 8.0 μg m⁻³ in the
253 North China Plain and central-western China, but reduced by up to 8.0 μg m⁻³ in central and
254 southern China.

255 Climate-driven changes in wintertime PM_{2.5} are primarily driven by the changing
256 concentrations of sulfate, nitrate and ammonium induced by meteorological changes (Fig. 4).
257 Wintertime sulfate increases by up to 3.0 μg m⁻³ over southeastern and central-western
258 China, but decreases by up to 2.0 μg m⁻³ in the North China Plain. In southeastern and
259 central-western China, the simulated increase in wintertime sulfate is mostly a result of
260 regionally reduced surface wind speed and planetary boundary layer (PBL) (which reduce
261 ventilation and mixing), but also in part due to increased temperature (which accelerates SO₂
262 oxidation). In other regions, especially within the North China Plain, the simulated decrease
263 in sulfate reaches a maximum of -2.0 μg m⁻³, likely reflecting increased surface wind speed.
264 Simulated nitrate and ammonium concentrations decrease in most of eastern parts of China,
265 which can be explained by the elevated temperature, decreased RH, enhanced wind speed
266 and PBL between the two periods (Fig. 4). The spatial patterns of changes and our sensitivity
267 simulations suggest that increased temperature has contributed the most broadly to the



268 reduction in ammonium nitrate formation, but depending on region changes in wind speed
269 and PBL might have either substantially enhanced (most of northeastern, northern and
270 central China) or partly counteracted (e.g., southeastern China), with RH playing only a
271 minor role. OC and BC changes generally follow the same patterns as that for sulfate,
272 reflecting influence from the same suite of meteorological variables.

273 Climate-driven changes in summertime total $PM_{2.5}$ are also dominated by changes in the
274 inorganic components, which generally show an opposite sign of changes to that in winter.
275 Summertime sulfate, nitrate and ammonium increase over northern China, the North China
276 Plain, and part of northwestern and eastern China, but decrease elsewhere (Fig. 5). In much
277 of central, southern and northeastern China, decreased sulfate, nitrate and ammonium are
278 attributable to the significantly increased PBL, which enhances mixing and dilution despite
279 reduced wind speed. Increased temperature also in part contributes to lower ammonium
280 nitrate. In northern and northwestern China, however, the large increase in sulfate is likely
281 driven by regionally reduced PBL and wind speed. The significantly enhanced nitrate and
282 ammonium concentrations in much of northern and eastern China are shaped by less
283 ventilation driven by wind speed in the North China Plain, further modulated by regional
284 cooling and increased RH around Shandong province (Fig. 5). We also find that simulated
285 summertime OC and BC increase in much of eastern China, reflecting a combination of
286 increased temperature and reduced wind speed, except in south-central China where OC is
287 reduced likely by enhanced PBL mixing.

288 Climate change alone could lead to increased SOA concentration in both winter and
289 summer in East Asia by as much as $+0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ (Fig. 6). The climate-driven changes in SOA
290 are primarily due to changes in temperature that influence biogenic VOC emissions (Liao et
291 al., 2006). In winter, with enhanced isoprene and monoterpene emissions due to warming,
292 SOA concentration in the southern parts of China increases by up to $0.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$. In summer,
293 the simulated SOA concentration changes within the range of -0.5 to $+0.8 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$, mostly
294 attributable to the biogenic emission changes but also partly modulated by transport changes,
295 similar to the pattern of OC changes (Fig. 5).

296

297 **5 Impacts of land cover and land use change alone on $PM_{2.5}$**

298 Figure 7 represents the impacts of 1980-2010 land cover and land use change alone on
299 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations ($[CTRL] - [S_LCLU]$). We find that although the LCLU change effects
300 on all $PM_{2.5}$ components are generally smaller than the climate change effects, LCLU



301 change can in part modify (either exacerbate or offset) the sensitivity of $PM_{2.5}$ to climate
302 change. In most of the eastern parts of East Asia, wintertime $PM_{2.5}$ concentration increases
303 by up to $1.3 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ as a result of LCLU change alone (Fig. 7a). In contrast, LCLU change
304 alone leads to a decrease in $PM_{2.5}$ by up to $-2.1 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ over much of China in summer
305 except in some of the southern parts (Fig. 7b). Such changes are mostly attributable to
306 changes in nitrate, ammonium and OC; BC is largely unaffected by LCLU change.

307 We find that with LCLU change alone, nitrate in winter increases by up to $0.6 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$
308 around central China ($\sim 30^\circ\text{N}$). Such an increase is largely driven by reduced HNO_3 and NO_2
309 dry deposition following a decrease in wintertime LAI (Fig. S1 and Fig. S2 in supplementary
310 materials). The changes in ammonium follow the changes of nitrate, with which they are
311 chemically linked, and are partly due to reduced NH_3 dry deposition. In summer, the sign of
312 changes in nitrate and ammonium are mostly reversed. Nitrate decreases by as much as -1.2
313 $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the North China Plain, mostly driven by the enhanced HNO_3 and NO_2 dry
314 deposition resulting from enhanced summertime LAI (thus vegetation density) (Fig. S1 and
315 Fig. S3), overshadowing the effect of increased soil NO_x emission from cropland expansion.
316 See Fu and Tai (2015) for more discussion on East Asian land cover change.

317 LCLU change effects on OC are relatively minor in winter (-0.1 to $+0.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$), but are
318 significant in summer (-0.4 to $+1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) since both LAI and plant functional type (PFT)
319 changes can significantly affect the emissions of biogenic VOCs, which are the major
320 precursors to SOA especially in summer. In much of the North China Plain, central and
321 northeastern China where deforestation and cropland expansion (in terms of PFT changes)
322 have been the most rapid (Fig. S1), the effect of cropland expansion appears to dominate
323 over that of enhanced summertime grid cell-averaged LAI in modifying biogenic emissions,
324 leading to a decrease in OC that largely reflects a reduction in biogenic emissions (Fig. 8).
325 The concentration of OC increases elsewhere, especially in southwestern and southern China
326 where reforestation has been observed and increased summertime LAI further enhances the
327 increase in biogenic emissions (Fig. S1). Figure 8 shows the contribution to surface SOA
328 concentration from LCLU change alone, which largely follows the spatial pattern of OC
329 changes and reflects the underlying changes in biogenic VOC emissions. Summertime SOA
330 in summer increases by more than $1.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in southern and southwestern China between
331 1980 and 2010, but decreases by up to $0.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in other parts of China. In winter, LCLU
332 change increases SOA by up to $0.4 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ around Guizhou province, but leads to only
333 negligible decreases in SOA in much of the rest of East Asia due to the small biogenic VOC
334 emissions in winter.



335

336 **6 Combined impacts of climate, land cover and land use changes vs.** 337 **anthropogenic emissions**

338 With anthropogenic emissions fixed at present-day levels, the changes in wintertime
339 $PM_{2.5}$ resulting from both climate and LCLU changes combined between 1980 and 2010 are
340 in the range of -12.0 to $+6.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in East Asia, with the maximum decrease found in the
341 North China Plain (Fig. 9a). In summer, changes in $PM_{2.5}$ are within the range of -8.0 to
342 $+12.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ under the combined effects of climate and LCLU changes, with an
343 enhancement of 4.0 - $12.0 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ in the North China Plain. The changes of $PM_{2.5}$ and its
344 components are largely driven by climate change. For SOA alone, the combined effects of
345 climate change and LCLU changes modify summertime SOA by -0.6 to $+1.2 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$,
346 reflecting comparable contribution from both climate and LCLU changes, which can either
347 exacerbate or offset each other depending on the region. For instance, in southwestern
348 China, climate change alone might decrease SOA (Fig. 6), but LCLU change could more
349 than offset the climate effect there (Fig. 9b).

350 Fig. 9c shows the effects on total $PM_{2.5}$ and SOA of changes in anthropogenic emissions
351 alone ($[CTRL] - [S_ANTH]$), which we find as expected to be the dominant factor shaping
352 $PM_{2.5}$ air quality in East Asia over 1980-2010. In both summer and winter, $PM_{2.5}$ is
353 simulated to increase on average by 37% and 54% in East Asia, respectively, resulting from
354 changes in anthropogenic emissions. From 1985 to 2005, anthropogenic emissions of NO_x ,
355 CO , SO_2 , NH_3 , OC , and BC have increased by 180%, 143%, 52%, 50%, 36% and 46%,
356 respectively, over East Asia (Table S2). Such emission-driven changes in $PM_{2.5}$ would be
357 partially offset in winter but substantially enhanced in summer by climate- and LCLU-driven
358 changes in the most polluted regions (e.g., in the vicinity of the North China Plain) between
359 1980 and 2010.

360

361 **7 Conclusions and discussion**

362 We simulate the effects of changes in climate, land cover and land use (LCLU), and
363 anthropogenic emissions between the two 5-year periods 1981-1985 (historical) and 2007-
364 2011 (present-day) on the surface concentrations of total $PM_{2.5}$ and its components including
365 sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, organic carbon (OC), and black carbon (BC) in East Asia using
366 the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model driven by assimilated meteorological data and a
367 suite of satellite- and survey-derived LCLU data. GEOS-Chem is shown to capture the



368 spatial and seasonal variations of different PM_{2.5} species in the present day despite some
369 significant biases in the absolute concentrations. The present-day secondary organic aerosol
370 (SOA) concentration is underestimated in comparison with measurements in China. The
371 volatile organic compound (VOC) emission inventory and SOA formation mechanism might
372 represent the major sources of uncertainty for SOA simulation in the model.

373 With anthropogenic emissions fixed at present-day levels, the effects of climate change
374 alone on the concentrations of different PM_{2.5} species display substantial seasonal
375 differences and spatial variability between the two periods. In winter, climate change alone is
376 found to decrease PM_{2.5} concentration by as much as 12.0 µg m⁻³ in the North China Plain,
377 but increase by up to 4.0 µg m⁻³ in southeastern, northwestern and southwestern China.
378 These changes are mostly attributable to the changing chemistry and transport of different
379 species driven by changes in temperature, surface wind speed and planetary boundary layer
380 (PBL) depth. In summer, however, the changes of PM_{2.5} display a generally opposite pattern
381 with increases (+6.0 to +8.0 µg m⁻³) found in the North China Plain, and reductions (more
382 than -4.0 µg m⁻³) found in most places of central and southern China, reflecting changes in
383 the same suite of meteorological variables but with varying relative importance. Climate
384 change alone leads to an increase in SOA concentration both in winter and summer (0.2-1.0
385 µg m⁻³) in most of the eastern parts of China, primarily driven by enhanced biogenic VOC
386 emissions resulting from warming.

387 The impacts of LCLU change alone on total PM_{2.5} (-2.1 to +1.3 µg m⁻³) is generally
388 smaller than that of climate change alone, but the impacts on SOA and thus OC can be quite
389 significant (-0.4 to +1.2 µg m⁻³), reflecting the effects of deforestation, cropland expansion,
390 reforestation as well as climate- and CO₂-driven changes in leaf area index (LAI). Changes
391 in anthropogenic emissions from 1985 to 2005 levels are still the largest contributor to
392 worsening PM_{2.5} air quality in both summer and winter, leading to an increase in PM_{2.5} by
393 54% on average in winter and 37% in summer over East Asia. Our results indicate that the
394 effects of climate change would partly counteract the emission-driven increase in PM_{2.5} in
395 winter in most of northeastern, northern, eastern and central China especially in the North
396 China Plain, imposing a so-called “climate benefit” for PM_{2.5} air quality. However, climate
397 change could substantially exacerbate PM_{2.5} pollution in summer in the North China Plain,
398 northern and northwestern China, imposing a “climate penalty” instead. We also find that
399 LCLU change might partially offset the increase in summertime PM_{2.5} but further enhance
400 wintertime PM_{2.5} in the model through modifying the dry deposition of various PM_{2.5}
401 precursors and biogenic VOC emissions, which also act as important factors in modulating



402 air quality.

403 There are various sources of uncertainties in this study. Previous work by Tai et al.
404 (2013) suggested that the inclusion of CO₂ inhibition effect could reduce the sensitivity of
405 surface SOA to climate and land cover changes in regions where isoprene emission is
406 important, but this effect is not considered here. However, experimental data for CO₂-
407 isoprene relationship at lower CO₂ levels are generally scarce and not robust enough to be
408 included in our model periods. In addition, as pointed out by Fu and Tai (2015), vegetation
409 composition and resistance values for each vegetation or land type in this work are assumed
410 to remain unchanged between 1980 and 2010, which may yield part of the uncertainties. The
411 changes in manure and chemical fertilizer associated with the changes in agriculture
412 practices and land use are also not taken into account in this study, which may affect soil
413 NO_x emission and contribute to the formation of inorganic PM_{2.5}, which may be particularly
414 important in the future as anthropogenic NO_x emissions are expected to decline. These issues
415 remain poorly understood and warrant further investigation in future studies.

416

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427

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605 **Figure Captions**

606 Figure 1. Seasonal mean surface concentrations of total PM_{2.5}, sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻),
607 ammonium (NH₄⁺), organic carbon (OC), and black carbon (BC) in East Asia
608 from the control ([CTRL]) simulation, averaged over 2007-2011.

609 Figure 2. Seasonal mean surface concentrations of total secondary organic aerosols (SOA),
610 biogenic SOA, and anthropogenic SOA in East Asia from the control ([CTRL])
611 simulation, averaged over 2007-2011.

612 Figure 3. (a) Simulated vs. observed mean July-September SOA concentration. Observations
613 are from Ding et al. (2014). Also shown is the 1:1 line (solid line) and linear fit
614 (dashed), NMB is the normalized mean bias between simulated and observed
615 concentrations; (b) Simulated vs. observed ratio of secondary organic carbon
616 (SOC) to total organic carbon (OC) in China. The observed ratios are from Zhang
617 et al. (2012). Also shown are the 1:1 line (solid line), 2:1 line and 1:2 line
618 (dashed).

619 Figure 4. Simulated changes of wintertime (DJF) surface concentrations for PM_{2.5}, sulfate,
620 nitrate, ammonium, organic aerosol, black carbon, surface temperature, total
621 precipitation at the ground, relative humidity, surface wind speed, planetary
622 boundary layer depth (PBL), and cloud fraction in East Asia arising from 1980-
623 2010 changes in climate alone ([CTRL] – [S_CLIM]).

624 Figure 5. Simulated changes of summertime (JJA) surface concentrations for PM_{2.5}, sulfate,
625 nitrate, ammonium, organic aerosol, black carbon, surface temperature, total
626 precipitation at the ground, relative humidity, surface wind speed, planetary
627 boundary layer depth (PBL), and cloud fraction in East Asia arising from 1980-
628 2010 changes in climate alone ([CTRL] – [S_CLIM]).

629 Figure 6. Changes in surface secondary organic aerosol (SOA) concentration, isoprene
630 emission, and monoterpene emission in winter (DJF) and summer (JJA) across
631 East Asia arising from changes in climate alone ([CTRL] – [S_CLIM]) over 1980-
632 2010.

633 Figure 7. Changes in seasonal mean surface concentrations of total PM_{2.5}, sulfate (SO₄²⁻),
634 nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺) and organic carbon (OC) in East Asia arising
635 from 1980-2010 changes in land cover and land use alone ([CTRL] – [S_LCLU]).



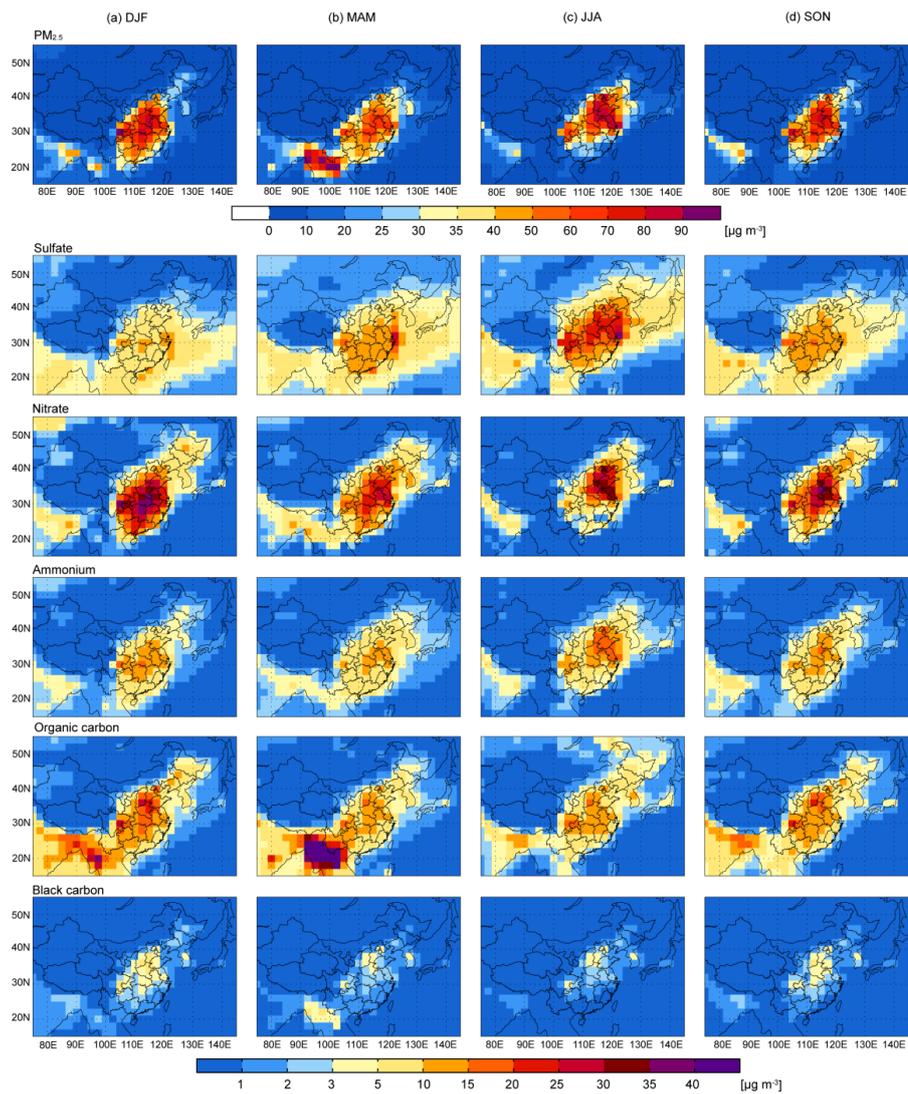
636 Figure 8. Changes in surface secondary organic aerosol (SOA) concentration, isoprene
637 emission, and monoterpene emission in winter (DJF) and summer (JJA) across
638 East Asia arising from 1980-2010 changes in land cover and land use alone
639 ($[CTRL] - [S_LCLU]$).

640 Figure 9. Changes in seasonal (DJF and JJA) and annual (ANN) mean surface concentrations
641 of $PM_{2.5}$ and SOA in East Asia resulting from the combined effects of 1980-2010
642 changes in climate, land cover and land use ($[CTRL] - [S_COMB]$), and 1980-
643 2010 changes in anthropogenic emissions alone ($[CTRL] - [S_ANTH]$).

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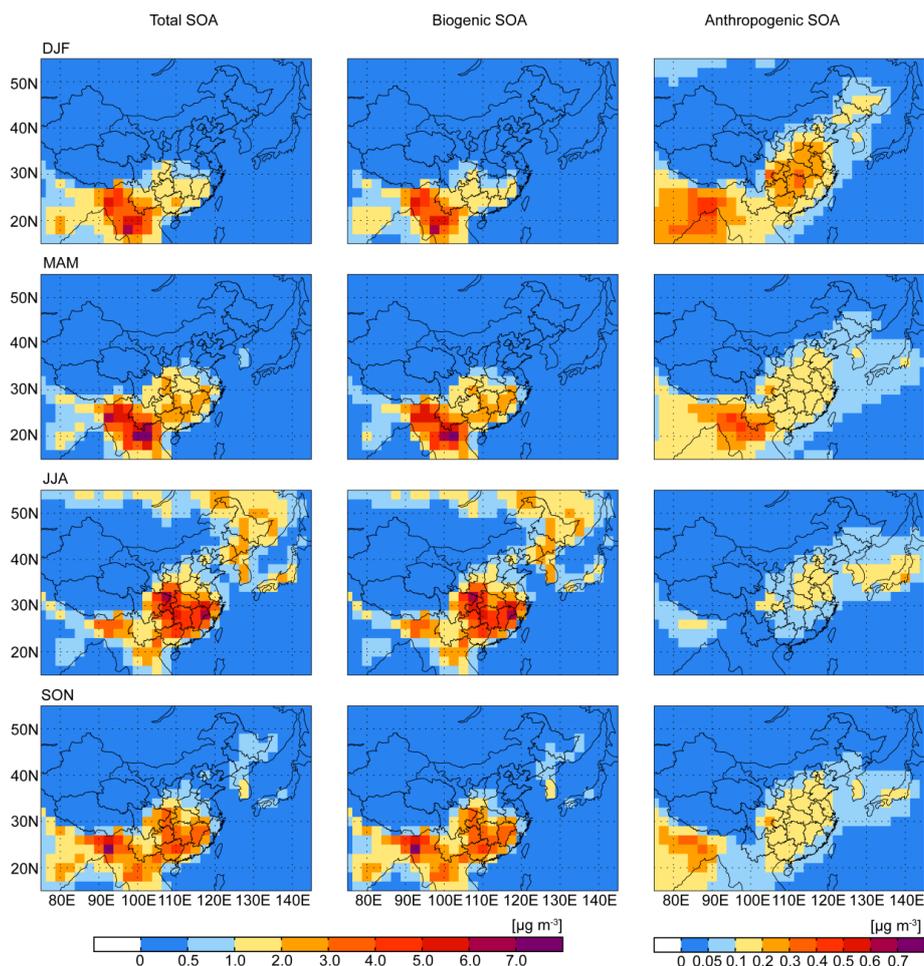


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Fig. 1. Seasonal mean surface concentrations of total PM_{2.5}, sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), organic carbon (OC), and black carbon (BC) in East Asia from the control ([CTRL]) simulation, averaged over 2007-2011.



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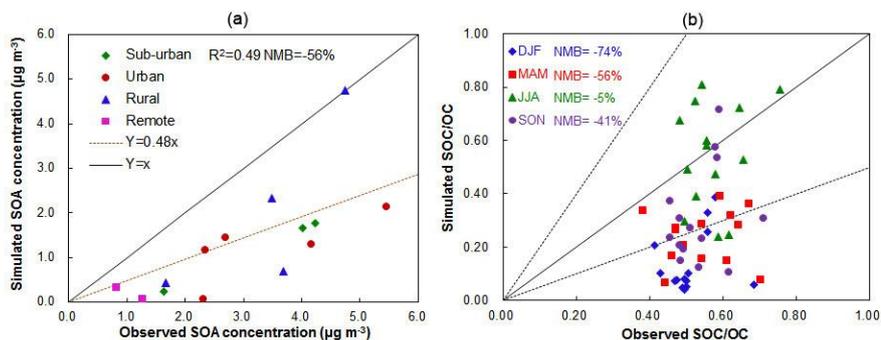
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Fig. 2. Seasonal mean surface concentrations of total secondary organic aerosols (SOA), biogenic SOA, and anthropogenic SOA in East Asia from the control (CTRL) simulation, averaged over 2007-2011.



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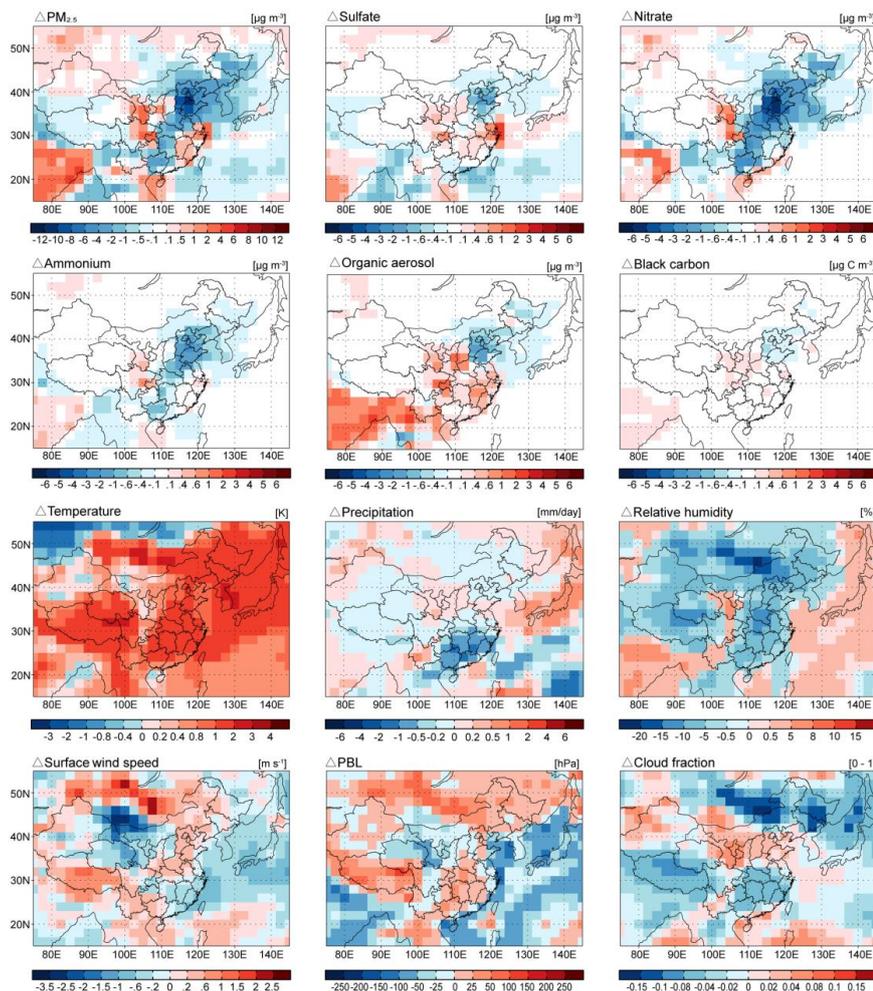
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659 Fig. 3. (a) Simulated vs. observed mean July-September SOA concentration. Observations
660 are from Ding et al. (2014). Also shown is the 1:1 line (solid line) and linear fit (dashed),
661 NMB is the normalized mean bias between simulated and observed concentrations; (b)
662 Simulated vs. observed ratio of secondary organic carbon (SOC) to total organic carbon (OC)
663 in China. The observed ratios are from Zhang et al. (2012). Also shown are the 1:1 line
664 (solid line), 2:1 line and 1:2 line (dashed).

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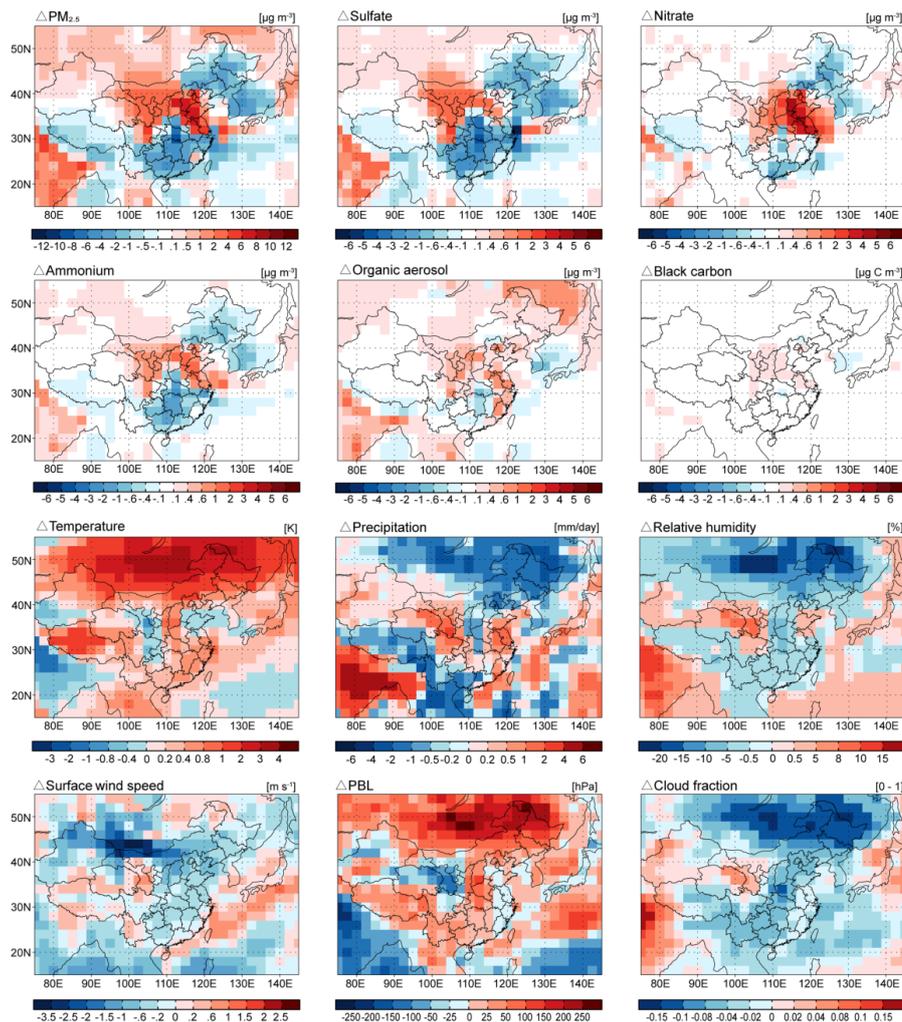
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668 Fig. 4. Simulated changes of wintertime (DJF) surface concentrations for PM_{2.5}, sulfate,
669 nitrate, ammonium, organic aerosol, black carbon, surface temperature, total precipitation at
670 the ground, relative humidity, surface wind speed, planetary boundary layer depth (PBL),
671 and cloud fraction in East Asia arising from 1980-2010 changes in climate alone ([CTRL] –
672 [S_CLIM]).

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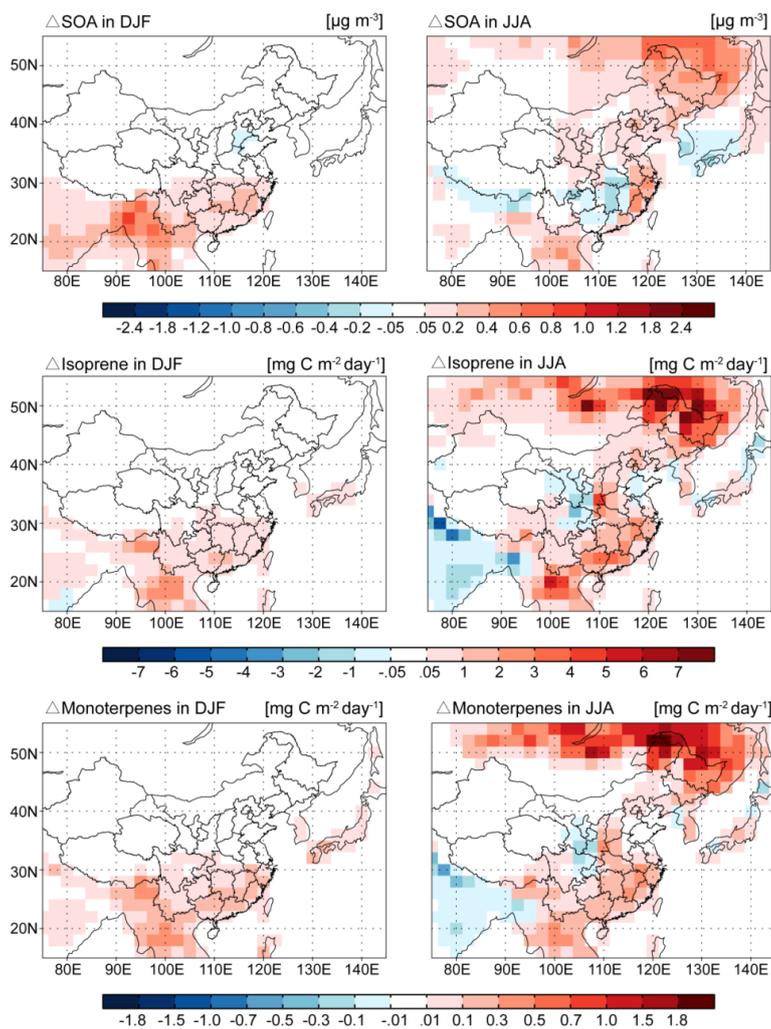
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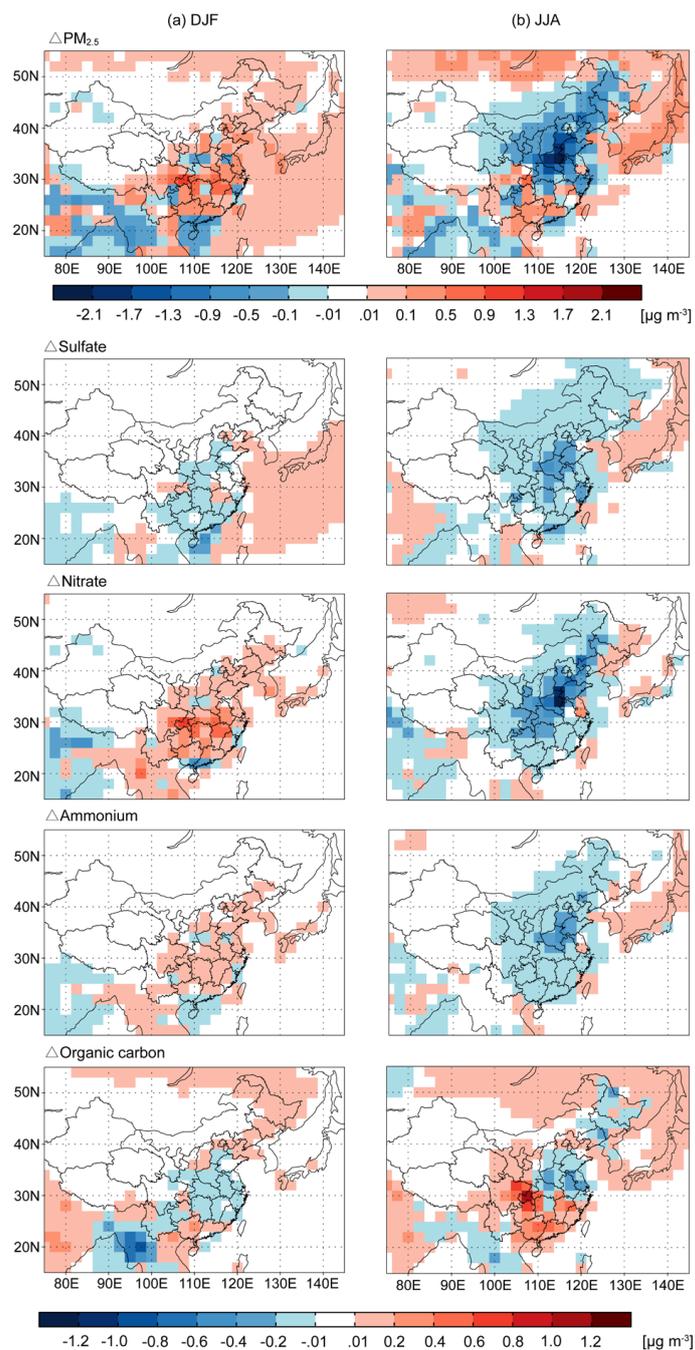
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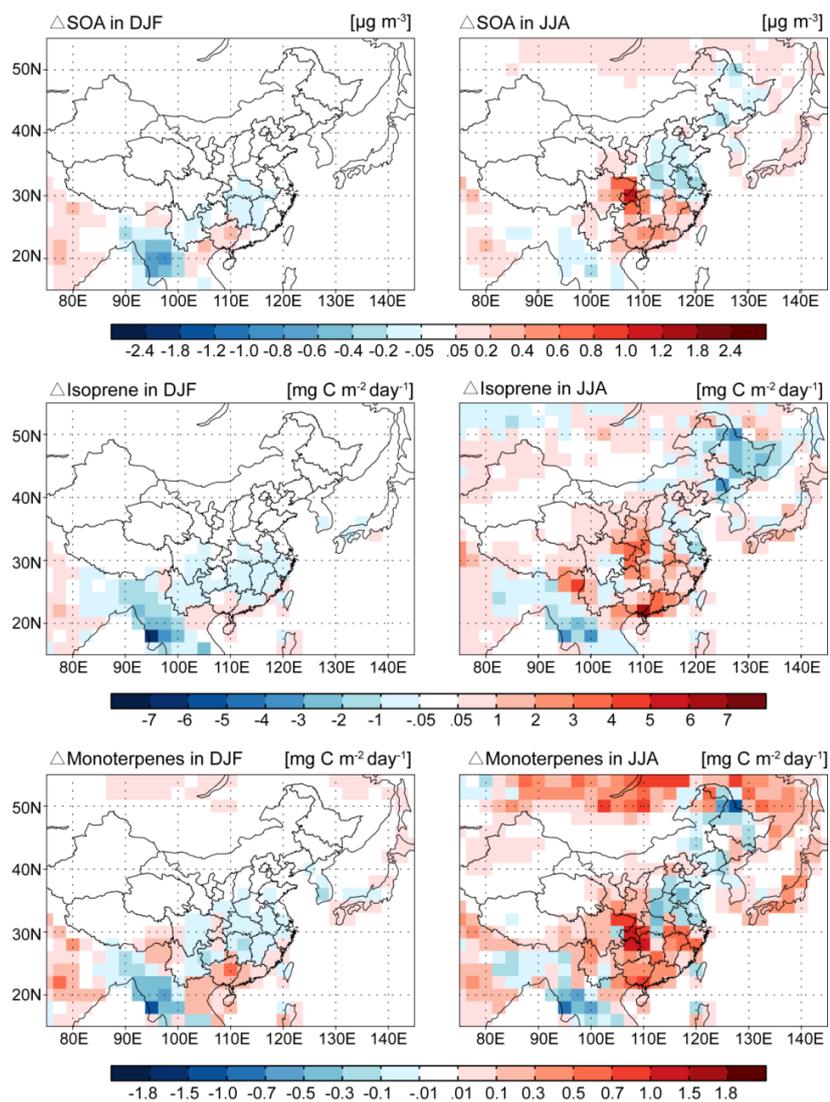
Fig. 5. Simulated changes of summertime (JJA) surface concentrations for $\text{PM}_{2.5}$, sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, organic aerosol, black carbon, surface temperature, total precipitation at the ground, relative humidity, surface wind speed, planetary boundary layer depth (PBL), and cloud fraction in East Asia arising from 1980-2010 changes in climate alone ($[CTRL] - [S_CLIM]$).



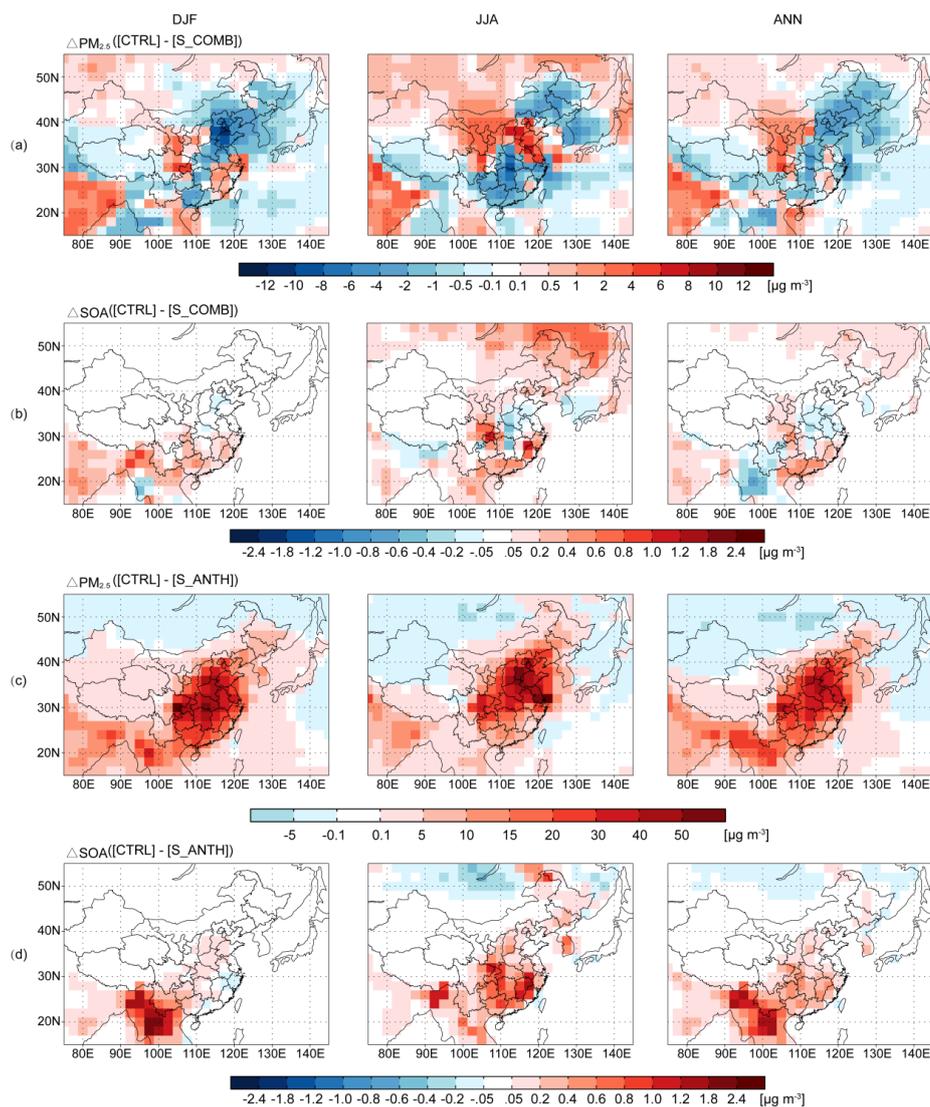
682
683 Fig. 6. Changes in surface secondary organic aerosol (SOA) concentration, isoprene
684 emission, and monoterpene emission in winter (DJF) and summer (JJA) across East Asia
685 arising from changes in climate alone ($[CTRL] - [S_CLIM]$) over 1980-2010.
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 688 Fig. 7. Changes in seasonal mean surface concentrations of total $PM_{2.5}$, sulfate (SO_4^{2-}),
 689 nitrate (NO_3^-), ammonium (NH_4^+) and organic carbon (OC) in East Asia arising from 1980-
 690 2010 changes in land cover and land use alone ($[CTRL] - [S_LCLU]$).
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692
693 Fig. 8. Changes in surface secondary organic aerosol (SOA) concentration, isoprene
694 emission, and monoterpene emission in winter (DJF) and summer (JJA) across East Asia
695 arising from 1980-2010 changes in land cover and land use alone ($[CTRL] - [S_LCLU]$).
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Fig. 9. Changes in seasonal (DJF and JJA) and annual (ANN) mean surface concentrations of $PM_{2.5}$ and SOA in East Asia resulting from the combined effects of 1980-2010 changes in climate, land cover and land use ($[CTRL] - [S_COMB]$), and 1980-2010 changes in anthropogenic emissions alone ($[CTRL] - [S_ANTI]$).