

1 Anthropogenic Fine Particulate Matter Pollution Will Be Exacerbated in Eastern

2 China Due to 21st-Century GHG Warming

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19 **Abstract**

20 China has experienced a substantial increase in severe haze events over the past
21 several decades, which is primarily attributed to the increased pollutant emissions
22 caused by its rapid economic development. The climate changes observed under the
23 warming scenarios, especially those induced by increases in greenhouse gases (GHG),
24 are also conducive to the increase in air pollution. However, how the air pollution
25 changes in response to the GHG warming has not been thoroughly elucidated to date.
26 We investigate this change using the century-long large ensemble simulations with the
27 Community Earth System Model 1 (CESM1) with the fixed anthropogenic emissions
28 at the year 2005. Our results show that although the aerosol emission is assumed to be
29 a constant throughout the experiment, anthropogenic air pollution presents positive
30 responses to the GHG-induced warming. The anthropogenic PM_{2.5} concentration is
31 estimated to increase averaged over eastern China at the end of this century, but
32 varying from regions, with an increase over northwestern part of eastern China and a
33 decrease over southeastern part. Similar changes can be observed for the light air
34 pollution days. However, the severe air pollution days is reported to increase across
35 eastern China at the end of this century, particularly around the Jing-Jin-Ji region.
36 Further research indicates that the increased stagnation days and the decreased light
37 precipitation days are the possible causes of the increase in PM_{2.5} concentration, as
38 well as the anthropogenic air pollution days. Estimation shows that the effect of
39 climate change induced by the GHG warming can account for 11%-28% of the
40 changes in anthropogenic air pollution days over eastern China. Therefore, in the

41 future, more stringent regulations on regional air pollution emissions are needed to
42 balance the effect from climate change.

43

44 **1. Introduction**

45 The extraordinarily rapid development of China has caused extremely high
46 aerosol loading and gaseous pollutant emissions that have enveloped most regions
47 across China in the recent decades. The increased pollutant emissions, particularly for
48 the particulate matter finer than 2.5 μm in aerodynamic diameter (PM_{2.5}), generally
49 result in severe haze events and present a major threat to public health (Gao et al.,
50 2017; Tang et al., 2017; Wang, 2018), crop production (Tie et al., 2016), and regional
51 climates (Cao et al., 2016). For example, the annual averaged PM_{2.5} in Beijing
52 exceeded 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ during 2009-2016 (Fig. 1b), which more than three times the
53 recommended 24-hour standard (25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) of the World Health Organization (WHO).
54 This degeneration of the air pollution across China, which is similar to that in Beijing,
55 is primarily caused by the integrated effects of high emissions and poor ventilation
56 (Chen and Wang, 2015; Zhang et al., 2016a). Many efforts are thus underway to
57 reduce emissions that cause severe haze pollutions. However, the question remains of
58 whether climate change will offset or facilitate these efforts.

59 Recent studies have documented that the exacerbation of air quality over eastern
60 China was partly modulated by meteorological conditions and climate variability that
61 are generally conducive to the severe haze occurrences (Li et al., 2018; Liao and
62 Chang, 2014; Wang and Chen, 2016; Yang et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2014; Zhang et
63 al., 2016b). Specifically, Wang *et al.* (2015) revealed that the shrinking Arctic sea ice
64 favors less cyclone activity and a more stable atmosphere conducive to haze
65 formation, which can explain approximately 45%-67% of the interannual to

66 interdecadal variability of winter haze days over eastern China. Besides Arctic sea ice,
67 other decadal variability and changes, including weak East Asian winter monsoon
68 (Jeong et al., 2017; Li et al., 2016; Yin et al., 2015), strong El Niño-Southern
69 oscillation (Gao and Li, 2015; Zhao et al., 2018), high Pacific decadal oscillation
70 (Zhao et al., 2016), and high Arctic oscillation (Cai et al., 2017), may have contributed.
71 In addition, the increasing winter haze days over eastern China may also be linked to
72 the low boundary layer height (Huang et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018), weakened
73 northerly winds (Yang et al., 2017a), decreased relative humidity (Ding and Liu,
74 2014), and increased sea surface temperature (Xiao et al., 2015; Yin and Wang, 2016;
75 Yin et al., 2017).

76 Global warming generally presents an adverse impact on the haze pollution
77 across China. Simulations of the dynamic downscaling by the regional climate model
78 RegCM4 under the RCP4.5 (Representative Concentration Pathway) scenarios have
79 shown that the air environment carrying capacity tends to decrease, and the weak
80 ventilation days tend to increase, in the 21st century across China, suggesting an
81 increase in the haze pollution potential compared to the current state (Han et al., 2017).
82 Furthermore, Cai *et al.* (2017) projected that the days conducive to severe haze
83 pollution in Beijing would increase by 50% at the end of the 21st century (2050-2099)
84 under the RCP8.5 scenarios compared to the historical period.

85 These qualitative estimations of the haze pollution response to climate changes
86 generally derived from the *potential* changes of the corresponding meteorological
87 conditions indirectly. No studies to date quantitatively assessed the simulated PM

88 directly. How the fine particulate matter pollution changes in response to the global
89 warming in China has not been thoroughly elucidated to date. This study particularly
90 focuses on the anthropogenic PM_{2.5} loading and its response to the future warming. In
91 this study, the large ensemble simulations from the Community Earth System Model
92 Version 1 (CESM1) throughout the 21st century that are induced by increasing
93 greenhouse gases (GHG) emissions along the trajectory RCP8.5 but retaining the
94 emissions of aerosols and/or their precursors fixed at the year of 2005 level
95 (RCP8.5_FixAerosol2005; Xu and Lamarque, 2018) will be utilized.

96 **2. Data and methods**

97 **2.1 PM_{2.5} observational datasets**

98 Surface hourly PM_{2.5} concentration data released since 2013 are taken from the
99 website of the Ministry of Environmental Protection (<http://106.37.208.233:20035>),
100 which covers 1602 sites across China. The duration of available datasets varies across
101 sites because of the gradual development of the monitoring network in recent years. In
102 our study region of eastern China (east to 100 °E), there are 1263 sites remaining after
103 the sites with missing values were removed during 2015-2017. Additionally, surface
104 daily PM_{2.5} concentrations for the Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, and Chengdu cities
105 that had relatively longer monitoring times are also collected from the U.S. Beijing
106 Embassy (<http://www.stateair.net/web/historical/1/1.html>).

107 **2.2 CESM1 model simulations**

108 The CESM1 is an Earth system model involving the atmosphere, land, ocean,

109 and sea-ice components with a nominal 1° by 1° horizontal resolution (Hurrell et al.,
110 2013). The RCP8.5_FixAerosol2005 simulations are forced by the RCP8.5 scenario,
111 but all emissions of sulfate (SO_4), black carbon (BC) and primary organic matter
112 (POM), and secondary organic aerosols (SOA; or their precursors) and atmospheric
113 oxidants are fixed at the present-day level (2005). These simulations include 16
114 ensemble members, differing solely in their atmospheric initial conditions with a tiny
115 random temperature difference (order of 10^{-14} $^\circ\text{C}$; Kay et al., 2015). For comparison,
116 the CESM1 large ensemble consists of 35-member simulations that forced by the
117 RCP8.5 scenario are also employed here. Using these relatively large ensembles can
118 substantially reduce the contribution of natural variability of the climate system to the
119 result estimation (Xu and Lamarque, 2018).

120 For the aerosol emission in the RCP scenarios database, just its decadal change is
121 considered rather than the emission at a single year (Lamarque et al., 2011). Here, the
122 years of 2006-2015 are considered as the reference period in the
123 RCP8.5_FixAerosol2005 simulations. The differences of the mean climates from the
124 reference period are largely due to the increase in GHG emissions and are not
125 attributed to the decline in aerosol emissions, as specified in RCP8.5. The changes of
126 anthropogenic $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ loadings and anthropogenic air pollution days in our study are
127 thus only a result of the GHG-induced climate change, rather than changes in aerosol
128 emission. Note that just four species of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ components that show a substantial
129 threat to public health are considered here for analysis, including SO_4 , BC, POM, and
130 SOA from the CESM1 simulations.

131 **2.3 Definition of the fraction of attributable risk**

132 The influences of the GHG-induced climate changes on the anthropogenic air
133 pollutions in China are investigated using the metric of the fraction of attributable risk
134 (FAR), which has been widely used for attribute analyses of climate extreme changes
135 (Chen and Sun, 2017; Stott et al., 2004). FAR is defined as the $1-P_0/P_1$, where P_0 is
136 the probability of exceeding a certain threshold during the reference period and P_1 is
137 the probability exceeding the same threshold during a given period. FAR thus presents
138 the quantitative estimations of effects of the GHG-induced climate changes on the
139 anthropogenic air pollutions.

140 **2.4 Definition of stagnation days**

141 The changes of the stagnation days that were induced by the increase of GHG
142 emissions are also evaluated in our study to explore the possible impact of climate
143 change on the anthropogenic air pollutions. The day is considered to be stagnant when
144 the daily mean near-surface wind speed is less than 3.2 m/s, the daily mean 500-hPa
145 wind speed is less than 13 m/s, and the daily accumulated precipitation is less than 1
146 mm (Horton et al., 2012). Early studies have suggested that this air stagnation
147 definition might not be applicable for China to represent the air pollution condition
148 under the seasonal scales (Feng et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018). However, the annual
149 mean stagnation generally presents good agreement with that of air pollution across
150 China (Huang et al., 2017; 2018). The changes in the annual mean states of air
151 stagnations over China at the end of 21st century will thus be discussed in the
152 following.

153 **3. Results**

154 **3.1 Observational changes in PM_{2.5} pollutions**

155 The days of severe haze pollution increased over the past several decades across
156 eastern China, particularly for the episodes of January 2013, December 2015, and
157 December 2016, when several severe haze alerts were reached. High PM_{2.5} loading
158 was centralized over the Jing-Jin-Ji (JJJ) region, Shangdong, and Henan provinces, as
159 well as the Sichuan Basin (SCB, Fig. 1a). The annual mean PM_{2.5} mass concentrations
160 for most sites over these regions exceed 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. According to the statistics, there
161 are approximately 95% sites where the annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration exceeded the
162 WHO recommended 24-hour standard (25 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) across eastern China, and there are
163 65 sites centralized by Beijing, where the annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration was larger
164 than 75 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, which would present the possibility of exposing people to serious
165 health hazards (World Health Organization, 2014).

166 Regarding the four economic zones of Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou, and
167 Chengdu cities over China, serious PM_{2.5} pollution can be expected in recent years,
168 especially for the Beijing and Chengdu regions (Fig. 1). Taking Beijing as an example,
169 the annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration was stably exceeding 100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, and more than
170 a half of the year had experienced severe air pollution ($> 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) before 2013.
171 Since 2013, China's State Council released its Air Pollution Prevention and Control
172 Action Plan, which requires the key regions, including the JJJ, the Yangtze River
173 Delta (YRD), and the Pearl River Delta (PRD) to reduce their atmospheric levels of
174 PM_{2.5} by 25%, 20%, and 15%, respectively, by the end of year 2017 (State Council,

175 2013). Effort is obvious, and the PM_{2.5} loading and the air pollution days present
176 sharp decreases in recent years. However, the strict emission policies substantially
177 cost the economic development, which cannot meet the current requirement of the
178 rapid development of China. Thus, scientifically quantifying the roles of
179 anthropogenic emissions and climate changes shows great importance for seeking the
180 balance between socioeconomic development and emission reduction.

181 **3.2 Simulated changes in anthropogenic PM_{2.5} pollutions**

182 A strong spatial correlation (0.69) is found for the annual mean PM_{2.5}
183 concentration between the site observation and median ensemble of CESM1
184 simulations over eastern China (Fig. S1). The high concentrations across eastern
185 China, including the regions centralized by Beijing and Chengdu, are reasonably
186 reproduced. However, a negative bias is obvious. Early studies (Li et al., 2016; Yang
187 et al., 2017b; c) have documented that this low bias of aerosol concentration simulated
188 by models is much more complicated in China and the causes mainly involve the
189 uncertainties from aerosol emission amount, emission injection height, lack of nitrate,
190 aerosol treatment in model as well as the coarse model resolution.

191 The median ensemble-mean change of the PM_{2.5} surface concentration presents
192 strong regional dependence across China with significantly decreasing trends over the
193 southeastern part of eastern China and significantly increasing trends over the other
194 regions throughout the 21st century (Fig. S2), even though the emissions are constant
195 throughout the experiment. The regional differences in the total PM_{2.5} changes are
196 mainly due to SO₄, which can account for approximately 50% of the total PM_{2.5} mass

197 (Xu and Lamarque, 2018). The species of BC and POM are reported to significantly
198 increase in the 21st century across eastern China, although the aerosol emissions were
199 fixed at the level in 2005. Figure 2 presents the simulated PM_{2.5} loadings from the
200 CESM1 model, in terms of column burden and surface concentration, are significantly
201 increasing throughout the 21st century. The increase in the total PM_{2.5} is
202 approximately 8% for the column burden and 2% for the surface concentration at the
203 end of the 21st century (2090-2099) with respect to the current state (2006-2015).
204 These increasing trends of PM_{2.5} loadings are mainly due to the significant increases
205 of the major PM_{2.5} species, except for SOA, in which the surface concentration
206 presents a slight decrease. Furthermore, the increases of all major PM_{2.5} species in
207 terms of column burden (BC: 11%, SO₄: 6%, SOA: 11%, and POM: 11%) show
208 stronger than the surface concentration (BC: 4%, SO₄: 2%, SOA: -1%, and POM:
209 4%).

210 For comparison, we also evaluated the future changes of PM_{2.5} concentrations
211 and the associated species along the RCP8.5 forcing trajectory from the large
212 ensemble simulations of CESM1 (Figure not shown). Different from changes of
213 aerosol concentrations under the fixed aerosol simulations, the PM_{2.5} concentrations
214 and the associated species present uniformly decreasing trends across eastern China
215 from the simulations along the RCP8.5 forcing. The decreasing trends in the RCP8.5
216 simulations are mainly attributed to the prescribed decrease of aerosol forcing in the
217 future in RCP database (Xu and Lin, 2017). The climate change induced by the
218 GHG-warming might exacerbate the air pollution, but the impacts cannot compensate

219 the prescribed decreasing trend of aerosol concentration.

220 As mentioned above, the PM_{2.5} surface concentration in the two economic zones
221 of YRD and PRD present a negative response to the GHG-induced warming, while
222 the corresponding column burden shows significantly increasing trends (Fig. S3). The
223 decreases of the surface concentration over these two zones are primarily contributed
224 by the changes of SO₄ and SOA, while there are no obvious trends for BC and POM
225 (Figs. S4-S7). The robust response of the increased surface wind speed and decreased
226 upper-level wind speed to GHG warming can be partly responsible for the changes of
227 the major PM_{2.5} species in these two zones, which will be further discussed. Over the
228 zones of JJJ and SCB, both the PM_{2.5} concentrations and the associated major PM_{2.5}
229 species present the significantly rising trends throughout the 21st century. For the
230 surface concentration, PM_{2.5} is reported to increase by 3% and 4% in the regions of
231 JJJ and SCB, respectively, at the end of the 21st century. The BC is reported to
232 increase by 4% and 8% for JJJ and SCB, respectively. The other species, such as SO₄
233 and POM, increase by 4% and 4%, respectively, in the JJJ regions and by 2% and 9%,
234 respectively, in SCB regions. Relatively stronger responses can be seen in changes of
235 the column burden for all major species (Figs. S4-S7). The increased concentrations
236 of PM_{2.5} species finally result in significantly increasing trends of the total PM_{2.5}
237 loading over these two regions, which will present a more direct effect on human
238 health.

239 The increase in PM_{2.5} surface concentration throughout the 21st century
240 substantially leads to the significant increase of the light anthropogenic PM_{2.5}

241 pollution days ($PM_{2.5} > 25 \mu g/m^3$) across the northwestern part of eastern China (Fig.
242 3). Due to the decrease of $PM_{2.5}$ concentration over the southeastern part of eastern
243 China, the light anthropogenic air pollution days can be expected to decrease in this
244 region. Estimation shows that the number of the light air pollution days would be
245 decreased by approximately 10 days at the end of the 21st century with respect to the
246 early period of this century in the region. However, the annual mean light air pollution
247 days is reported to increase averaged over the eastern China at the end of this century
248 despite the aerosol emission is constant throughout the experiment. In contrast to the
249 light air pollution days, the severe anthropogenic air pollution days ($PM_{2.5} > 75 \mu g/m^3$)
250 show a positive response to the GHG-induced warming across eastern China,
251 particularly for the regions around JJJ in which the high $PM_{2.5}$ concentration was
252 localized (Fig. 3). The severe air pollution days is estimated to increase by more than
253 2 days at the end of this century when compared to the early period over this region.
254 Considering the underestimation in aerosol concentration by CESM1 model in China,
255 the percentile threshold metric is also applied here to estimate the future changes in
256 light (90th) and severe (99th) air pollution days. Similar results can be obtained (Fig.
257 S8).

258 **3.3 Attributable changes due to GHG warming**

259 Although the aerosol emission was constant throughout the experiment, our
260 study reveals that the $PM_{2.5}$ loadings and their associated pollution days still present
261 increases throughout the 21st century, primarily resulting from the impact of climate
262 change induced by GHG warming. One may ask how large a contribution the climate

263 change exerts on the changes in anthropogenic air pollution. To quantitatively address
264 this issue, the framework of the “Fraction of Attributable Risk (FAR)” that has been
265 widely used for attribute analyses of climate extreme changes (Chen and Sun, 2017;
266 Stott et al., 2004) is employed in this study.

267 Figure 4 shows the percentage changes of the anthropogenic air pollution days
268 throughout the 21st century over eastern China and their associated FAR variations.
269 The regional averaged anthropogenic air pollution days present an obvious increase in
270 the 21st century as addressed above. Correspondingly, synchronous increasing trends
271 can be found in FAR for both light and severe anthropogenic air pollution days. For
272 the light pollution days, FAR is estimated to be 28% at the end of the 21st century,
273 implying that approximately 28% of the pollution days are contributed by the climate
274 change that was induced by GHG warming. For the severe pollution days, FAR shows
275 a relatively smaller value of approximately 11%. Furthermore, the high FAR values
276 are mainly located over the regions of high PM_{2.5} loadings concentrated over eastern
277 China, suggesting considerably stronger effects of climate changes in these regions.
278 Note that the FAR values estimated in this research may be underestimated because
279 the GHG-induced warming impact was involved in the selected reference period that
280 resulted in the overestimation of the probability of anthropogenic air pollution days.

281 **3.4 Effects of the changes in meteorological conditions**

282 We further examined the changes of meteorological conditions induced by the
283 GHG warming that alternatively exerted effects on air pollution. Our results show that
284 the local boundary layer height presents as higher under the warming scenario (Fig.

285 5a), which benefits the vertical transport of the air pollutant.

286 However, a robust negative response of the horizontal advection to the
287 GHG-induced warming across eastern China can be found in the troposphere (Fig. 5b,
288 c), facilitating air pollutant accumulation. The change of surface wind speed in
289 response to the GHG warming is highly similar with the variation of PM_{2.5} surface
290 concentration, with wind speed increasing in the southeastern part of eastern China
291 and decreasing in the northwestern part. Variations of surface wind speeds are thus
292 mainly responsible for the changes of PM_{2.5} surface concentration over eastern China.
293 Different responses can be found for the tropospheric upper-level wind speeds, which
294 are reported to substantially decrease. These decreases would directly result in
295 significant increases of the stagnation days over eastern China, particularly over the
296 northern region and SCB (Fig. 6). The decreasing trend of wind speed in the 21st
297 century across China not only exists in CEMS1 model, but also happens in the other
298 global climate models that participated in Coupled Model Intercomparison Project
299 Phase 3 (CMIP3) and CMIP5 (Jiang et al., 2010a; McInnes et al., 2011), as well as in
300 regional climate models (Jiang et al., 2010b).

301 In response to the GHG-induced warming, the stagnation days over eastern
302 China are estimated to increase by 6% at the end of 21st century with respect to the
303 current period. For the specific economic zones, the stagnation days over the SCB and
304 YRD regions show considerably stronger rising trends, while relatively weaker increases
305 are observed over the PRD region. The number of stagnation days is
306 estimated to increase by 13% and 6% at the end of the 21st century for the SCB and

307 JJJ regions, respectively. Briefly, though the atmospheric stratification appears to be
308 considerably more unstable in response to the GHG warming, the weakened
309 horizontal advection would substantially increase the stagnation days over eastern
310 China, which provides a beneficial background for the air pollutant accumulation and
311 further increases the occurrence probability of the anthropogenic air pollution events.

312 Early studies have documented a significant increase in total precipitation across
313 China due to the GHG-induced warming (Chen, 2013; Li et al., 2018; Wang et al.,
314 2012), which seems to represent a conflict with the increase of the anthropogenic air
315 pollution days. To resolve this issue, the precipitation changes in terms of light
316 precipitation days (daily accumulated precipitation < 10 mm) and heavy precipitation
317 days (> 10 mm) are further examined (Fig. 5d, e). Clearly, the heavy precipitation
318 days present an increase, while the light precipitation days show a decrease, across
319 eastern China in response to the warming. Though the precipitation shifts toward
320 heavy precipitation events, its cleansing impact on air pollutants has not increased
321 because an increase in heavy precipitation days appears to be insufficient to further
322 enhance the wet removal ability (Xu and Lamarque, 2018). In contrast, the decrease in
323 light precipitation days substantially weakens the wet deposition of air pollutants,
324 leading to the increase of the PM_{2.5} loading, as well as anthropogenic air pollution
325 days. The future changes of precipitation days present much robust. Both the
326 increasing trends of heavy precipitation days and the decreasing trends of light
327 precipitation days are also obvious across China simulated by the CMIP5 models
328 (Chen and Sun, 2013; 2018), as well as the regional climate models (Gao et al., 2012).

329 **4. Conclusions**

330 The world is predicted to experience increased disasters, such as heat waves,
331 flash floods, and storms, due to the continuous global warming induced by the GHG
332 increase. The research question we aim to address in this study is how the GHG
333 warming would affect the anthropogenic PM_{2.5} pollutions across China. Our
334 evaluations show that the anthropogenic PM_{2.5} loadings, as well as the anthropogenic
335 PM_{2.5} pollution days, would increase under the global warming conditions even the
336 aerosol emissions fixed at current levels. More stringent regulations are thus
337 suggested for regional aerosol emissions to maintain the air quality standard as the
338 current state.

339 The climate changes induced by GHG warming exert their effects on the
340 anthropogenic air pollutions across eastern China via two ways that are of interest in
341 this study. First, the weakened tropospheric wind speed induced by the GHG warming
342 would result in a decrease of the horizontal advection and lead to an increase in the
343 number of stagnation days, facilitating the local accumulation of air pollutants.
344 Second, the number of light precipitation days would decrease due to GHG-induced
345 warming, although the total precipitation would clearly increase across China. This
346 shift toward more no-rainfall days would further weaken the wet deposition of PM_{2.5}
347 pollutants. Thus, the increased stagnation days and decreased light precipitation days
348 provide a beneficial background for the occurrence of anthropogenic air pollution. Of
349 course, under the warming scenarios, a large discrepancy exists among the different
350 meteorological processes that benefit the air pollutions at the current state, leading to

351 the fuzzy recognition of air pollution change. For example, the boundary layer height
352 shows an increase in response to the GHG warming that may strengthen the vertical
353 dissipation of air pollutants. Thus, more studies are suggested in the future to further
354 understand the mechanisms governing air quality across China.

355

356

357 **Author contributions**

358 H. P. Chen and H. J. Wang designed the research; H. P. Chen analyzed the data.

359 All the authors discussed the results and wrote the paper.

360

361 **Competing interests**

362 The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

363

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368

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529

530 **Figure captions**

531 **Figure 1. Observed PM_{2.5} pollution conditions over eastern China during the past**

532 **years. (a)** Annual averaged PM_{2.5} concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) for the years of 2015-2017.

533 **(b)** Variations of annual averaged PM_{2.5} concentration (green bars) in Beijing city and

534 the corresponding number of the severe PM_{2.5} pollution days (red bars). The severe

535 pollution days are defined as the daily averaged PM_{2.5} concentration exceeding 75

536 $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$. **(c), (d), and (e)** are similar to **(b)**, but for the results of Shanghai, Guangzhou,

537 and Chengdu city, respectively.

538 **Figure 2. Plots of future changes of the total PM_{2.5} as well as its associated species**

539 **averaged over eastern China** in terms of the surface concentration ($\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$, right axis

540 in red) and column burden (mg/m^2 , left axis in blue) from the simulations of the

541 RCP8.5_FixAerosol2005 experiment. **(a)** PM_{2.5}, **(b)** BC, **(c)** SO₄, **(d)** POM, and **(e)**

542 SOA. Ensemble variance (1 sigma) for surface concentration is shown in red

543 shadings.

544 **Figure 3. Changes of the anthropogenic PM_{2.5} pollution days across eastern**

545 **China from the RCP8.5_FixAerosol2005 experiment.** The top panel (a, b) shows

546 the changes of light air pollution days ($> 25 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and the bottom panel (c, d) shows

547 the results of severe air pollution days ($> 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). The left panel (a, c) illustrates the

548 annual averaged severe pollution days in 2006-2015 and the right panel (b, d) shows

549 changes of the pollution days at the end of the 21st century with respect to 2006-2015.

550 Dots in (b) and (d) mean the changes are significant at the 95% confidence level using

551 Student T-test for all years and ensembles. Units: days.

552 **Figure 4. Attributable changes of anthropogenic air pollution days to the**
553 **increased greenhouse gases emissions.** (a) Spatial distribution of FAR for the
554 changes of severe PM_{2.5} pollutions ($> 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) at the end of the 21st century over
555 eastern China. (b) Regional averaged relative changes of air pollution days (left axis
556 in red; $> 25 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$) and the corresponding variation of FAR (right axis in blue).
557 Ensemble variance (1 sigma) for the relative changes of pollution days is shown in red
558 shadings. (c) is similar to (b), but for the severe PM_{2.5} pollution days. Units: %.

559 **Figure 5. Simulated changes in weather conditions of the air pollutions across**
560 **eastern China due to the GHG-induced warming.** (a) Changes of the planetary
561 boundary layer height (PBLH) at the end of the 21st century with respect to the years
562 of 2006-2015 from the RCP8.5_FixAerosol2005 experiment. (b) and (c) are similar to
563 (a) but for the wind speed at near-surface and 500-hPa levels, respectively. (d)
564 Changes in the light precipitation days (daily accumulated precipitation $< 10 \text{ mm}$) at
565 the end of the 21st century with respect to the current state. (e) is similar to (d) but for
566 the heavy precipitation days ($> 10 \text{ mm}$). Dots in the figure mean the changes are
567 significant at the 95% confidence level using Student T-test for all years and
568 ensembles. Units: %.

569 **Figure 6. Changes in the stagnant conditions across China due to the**
570 **GHG-induced warming.** (a) Distribution of the relative changes of the stagnation
571 days at the end of the 21st century against the current state (2006-2015). Dots mean
572 the changes are significant at the 95% confidence level using Student T-test for all
573 years and ensembles. (b) Variations of the regional averaged stagnation days over

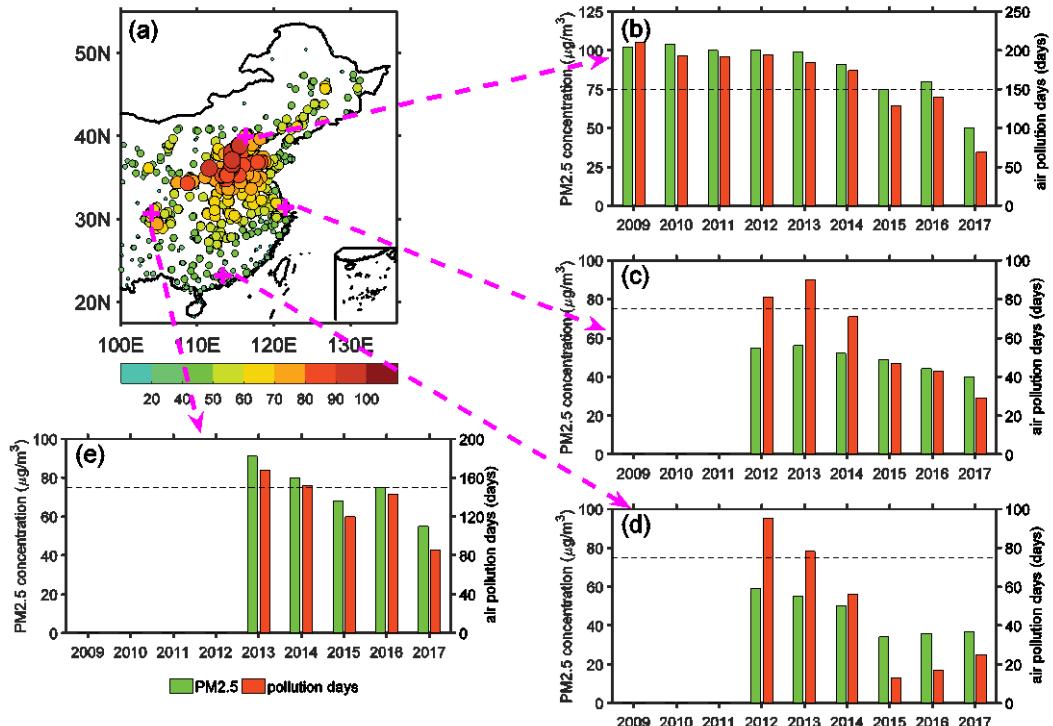
574 eastern China. Ensemble variance (1 sigma) is shown in red shadings. (c), (d), (e), and
575 (f) are similar to (b), but for the results of four Chinese economic zones, i.e., JJJ, YRD,
576 PRD, and SCB. Units: %.

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579 **Figures**

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582 **Figure 1. Observed PM_{2.5} pollution conditions over eastern China during the past**

583 **years. (a) Annual averaged PM_{2.5} concentration (µg/m³) for the years of 2015-2017.**

584 **(b) Variations of annual averaged PM_{2.5} concentration (green bars) in Beijing city and**

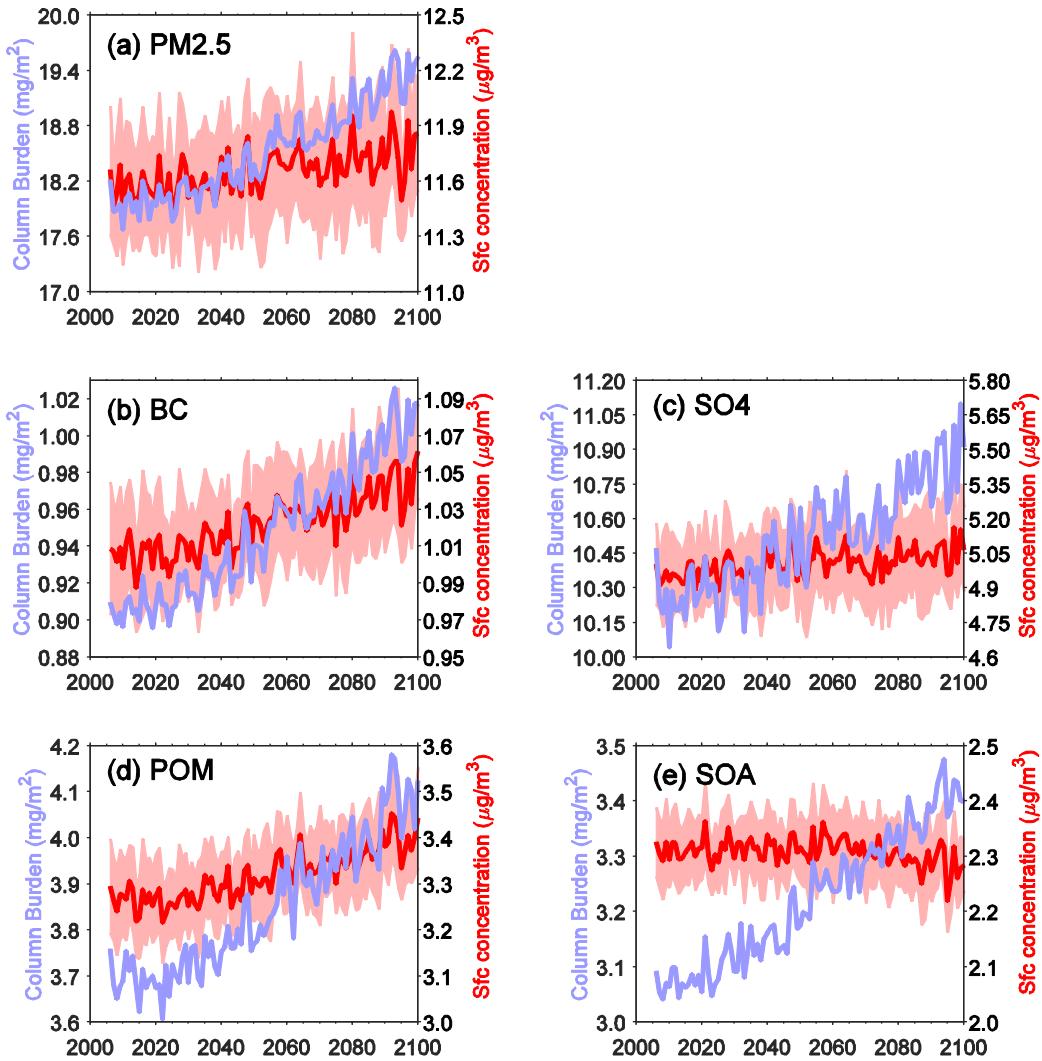
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586 **pollution days are defined as the daily averaged PM_{2.5} concentration exceeding 75**

587 **µg/m³. (c), (d), and (e) are similar to (b), but for the results of Shanghai, Guangzhou,**

588 **and Chengdu city, respectively.**

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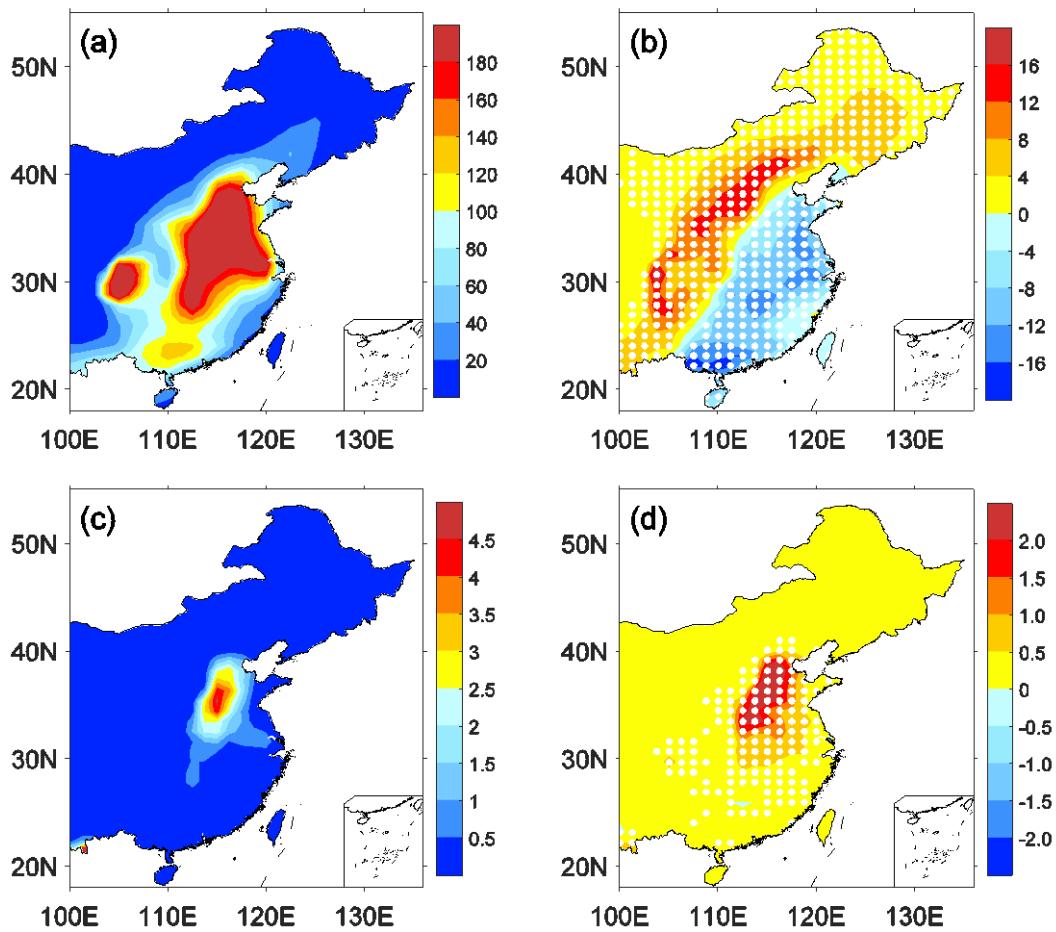
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592 **averaged over eastern China** in terms of the surface concentration (µg/m³, right axis
 593 in red) and column burden (mg/m², left axis in blue) from the simulations of the
 594 RCP8.5_FixAerosol2005 experiment. (a) PM_{2.5}, (b) BC, (c) SO₄, (d) POM, and (e)
 595 SOA. Ensemble variance (1 sigma) for surface concentration is shown in red
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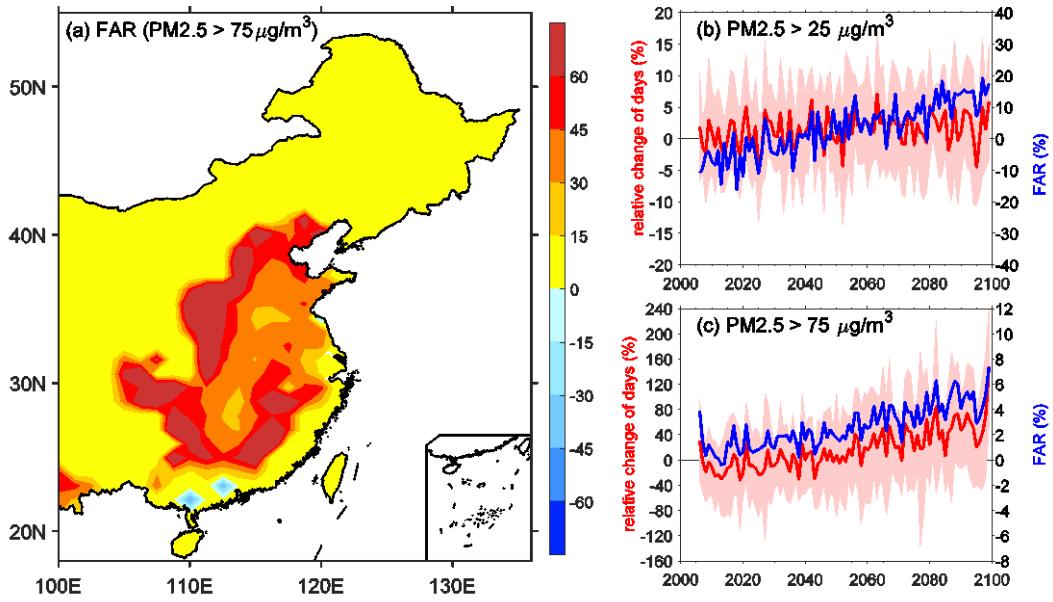


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600 **Figure 3. Changes of the anthropogenic PM_{2.5} pollution days across eastern**
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 603 the results of severe air pollution days ($> 75 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$). The left panel (a, c) illustrates the
 604 annual averaged severe pollution days in 2006-2015 and the right panel (b, d) shows
 605 changes of the pollution days at the end of the 21st century with respect to 2006-2015.
 606 Dots in (b) and (d) mean the changes are significant at the 95% confidence level using
 607 Student T-test for all years and ensembles. Units: days.

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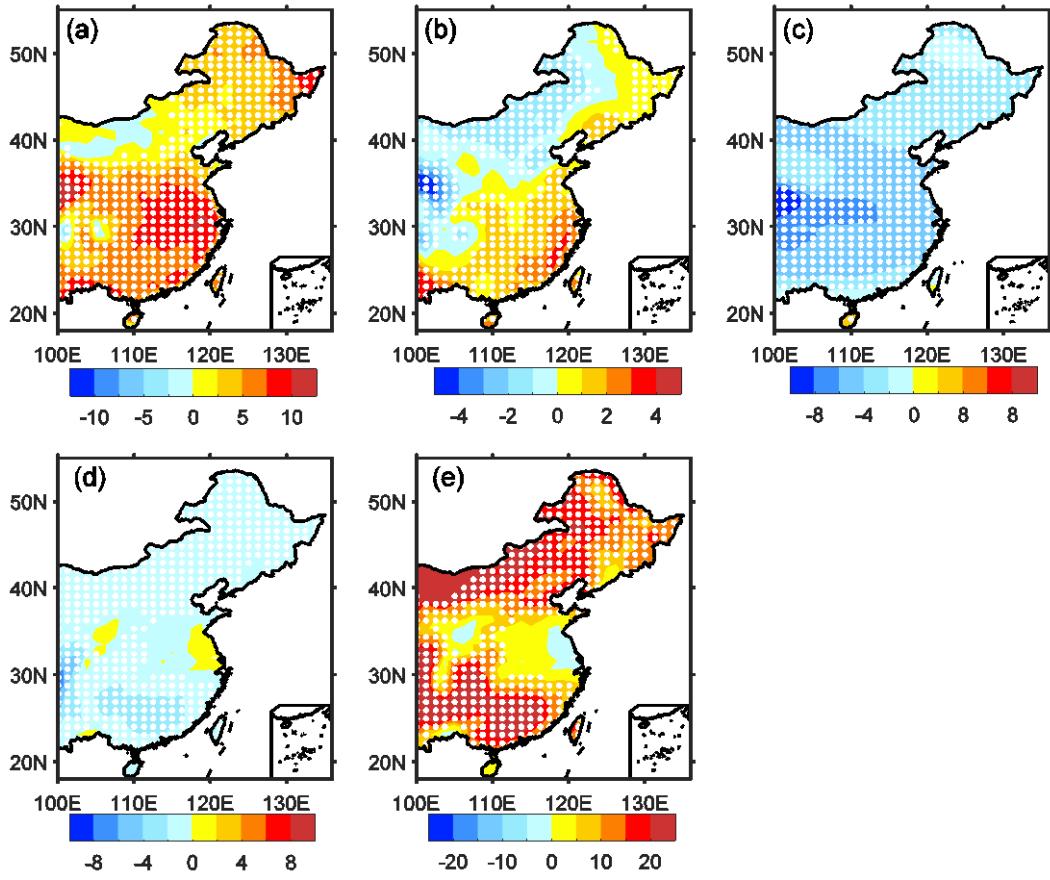


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611 **Figure 4. Attributable changes of anthropogenic air pollution days to the**
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 613 changes of severe PM_{2.5} pollutions (> 75 μg/m³) at the end of the 21st century over
 614 eastern China. (b) Regional averaged relative changes of air pollution days (left axis
 615 in red; > 25 μg/m³) and the corresponding variation of FAR (right axis in blue).
 616 Ensemble variance (1 sigma) for the relative changes of pollution days is shown in red
 617 shadings. (c) is similar to (b), but for the severe PM_{2.5} pollution days. Units: %.

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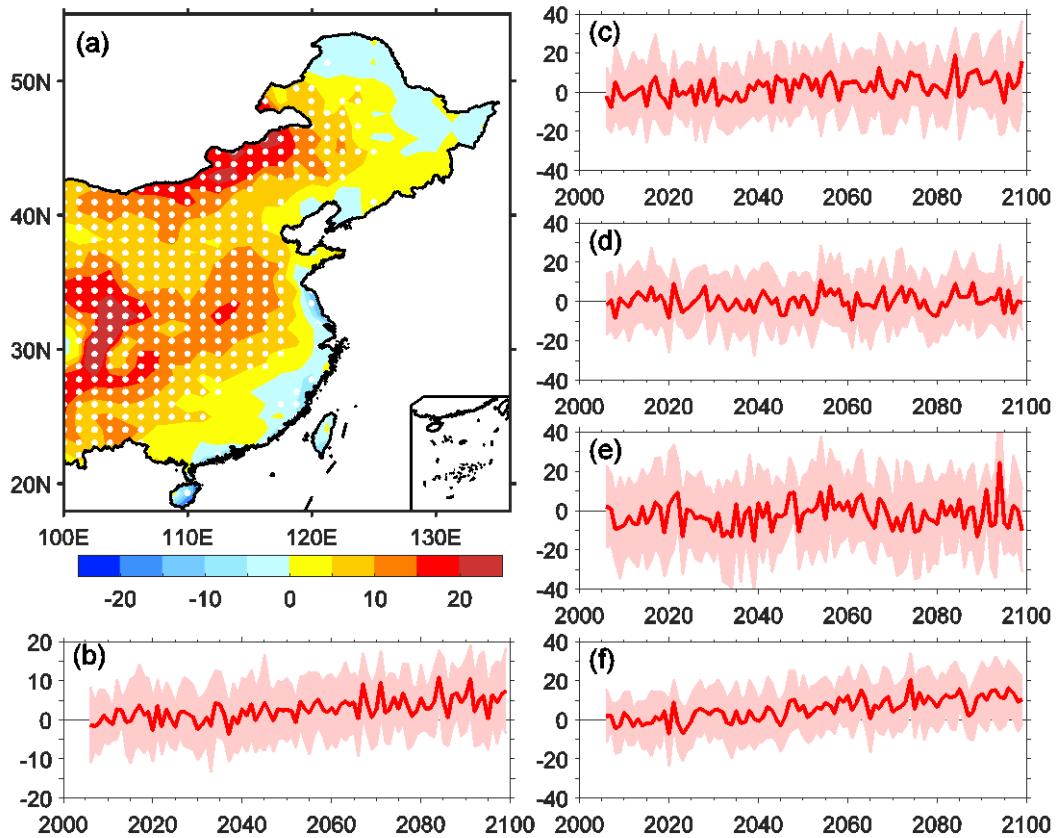
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 625 (a) but for the wind speed at near-surface and 500-hPa levels, respectively. (d)
 626 Changes in the light precipitation days (daily accumulated precipitation < 10 mm) at
 627 the end of the 21st century with respect to the current state. (e) is similar to (d) but for
 628 the heavy precipitation days (> 10 mm). Dots in the figure mean the changes are
 629 significant at the 95% confidence level using Student T-test for all years and
 630 ensembles. Units: %.

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633 **Figure 6. Changes in the stagnant conditions across China due to the**
 634 **GHG-induced warming.** (a) Distribution of the relative changes of the stagnation
 635 days at the end of the 21st century against the current state (2006-2015). Dots mean
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 637 years and ensembles. (b) Variations of the regional averaged stagnation days over
 638 eastern China. Ensemble variance (1 sigma) is shown in red shadings. (c), (d), (e), and
 639 (f) are similar to (b), but for the results of four Chinese economic zones, i.e., JJJ, YRD,
 640 PRD, and SCB. Units: %.

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