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The underappreciated role of transboundary pollution in future air quality and health improvements in China

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Abstract

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15 Studies assessing the achievability of future air quality goals in China have focused on the role of reducing China's domestic emissions, yet the influence of transboundary pollution of foreign 16 origins has been largely underappreciated. Here, we assess the extent to which future changes in 17 18 foreign transboundary pollution would affect the achievability of air quality goals in 2030 and 19 2060 for China. We find that in 2030, under the current-policy scenario in China, transboundary contributions to population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ in China would be reduced by 29% (1.2 µg m⁻³) as 20 foreign countries transition from the fossil fuel-intensive to the low-carbon scenario. By 2060, 21 the difference would be increased to 45% (1.8 μ g m⁻³). Adopting the low-carbon instead of the 22 fossil fuel-intensive pathway in foreign countries would avoid 10 million Chinese people from 23 24 being exposed to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations above China's Ambient Air Quality Standard (35 μ g m⁻³) in 2030 and 5 million Chinese people from being exposed to PM_{2.5} concentrations above the 25 World Health Organization Air Quality Guideline (5 µg m⁻³) in 2060. Meanwhile, China 26 27 adopting the carbon-neutral pathway rather than its current pathway would also be helpful to 28 reduce transboundary PM_{2.5} produced from the chemical interactions between foreign-29 transported and locally-emitted pollutants. In 2060, adopting a low-carbon pathway in China and foreign countries coincidently would avoid 63% of transboundary pollution and 386,000 30 associated premature deaths in China, relative to adopting a fossil fuel-intensive pathway in both 31 regions. Thus, the influence of transboundary pollution should be carefully considered when 32 33 making future air quality expectations and pollution mitigation strategies.

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1. Introduction

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37 Long-term exposure to ambient fine particulate matter ($PM_{2.5}$ particulate matter smaller than 38 2.5 µm in aerodynamic diameter) is the largest environmental risk factor for human health, with an estimated 4.1 million attributable deaths worldwide (7.3% of the number of global deaths in 39 40 2019; Murray et al., 2020). Countries have taken diverse actions to improve air quality and public health, including setting ambitious future air quality and/or climate goals. The European 41 42 Commission set the 2030 air quality goal as reducing the number of PM_{2.5}-attributable premature deaths by at least 55% compared with 2005 levels, equivalent to reducing PM_{2.5} concentrations 43 to below 10 µg m⁻³ EU-wide (European Commission, 2022). The United States aims for a 50-44 45 52% reduction of greenhouse gas emissions relative to 2005 levels by 2030, which would avoid 46 tens of thousands of premature deaths associated with PM2.5 as a co-benefit (Burtraw et al.,

1 2021). However, the achievability of air quality goals or the extent of health co-benefits of 2 climate strategies is subject to large uncertainties as it is affected by a wide range of factors such 3 as the domestic and global socioeconomic development pathways, energy choices, and air 4 pollution control measures (Cheng et al., 2021b; O'Neill et al., 2020; Rao et al., 2017). China is a key country to examine factors affecting the achievability of future air quality goals. 5 6 On the one hand, China suffers from serious air pollution and adverse health effects, with more 7 than a quarter of the world's total $PM_{2.5}$ -associated premature deaths in 2015 estimated to occur 8 in China (Zhang et al., 2019). Despite remarkable achievements of the 5-year Clean Air Action 9 since 2013 (Zhang et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2018a), annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration in China 10 still exceeded the newly revised World Health Organization (WHO) Air Quality Guideline (WHO, 2021; AQG; 5 µg m⁻³) by 8 times by the end of the Clean Air Action in 2017. On the 11 12 other hand, China has set the most challenging air quality and climate goals among all the 13 developing countries in the world (Ascensão et al., 2018). In 2018, the Chinese government 14 proposed the roadmap for The Beautiful China Initiative (The State Council of the People's Republic of China, 2016), which requires all cities to achieve the national ambient air quality 15 standards (NAAQS, 35 µg m⁻³) between 2030 and 2035 (The State Council of the People's 16 Republic of China, 2016). In 2019, China further announced an ambitious climate commitment 17 to achieve carbon neutrality by 2060. These policies have been regarded as interim steps towards 18 19 the WHO AQG. Therefore, investigating potential pathways and factors shaping the future air quality in China could provide an excellent reference for other countries facing the dual 20 challenges of economic development and environmental protection. 21

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23 A number of studies seek to answer whether the air quality goals in China can be achieved in 24 the future. These studies have been primarily focused on potential mitigation pathways to reduce China's domestic emissions. Cheng et al. (2021b) found that the nation's current emission 25 control measures could reduce China's $PM_{2.5}$ levels to below 30 µg m⁻³ by 2030, yet the benefits 26 27 of such measures would be mostly exhausted by then (Cheng et al., 2021b; Xing et al., 2020). Xing et al. (2020) and Tang et al. (2022) suggested that the co-benefits of climate targets alone 28 29 (even the most ambitious target of 1.5 °C limit in global warming) were not able to help China achieve the 35 µg m⁻³ target by 2035. Instead, Cheng et al. (2021b) proposed that a combination 30 of stringent clean air policies and ambitious climate targets (i.e., carbon neutrality by 2060 or a 31 global warming limit of 1.5 °C) could successfully reduce PM_{2.5} to below 35 µg m⁻³ by 2030 and 32 to below 10 µg m⁻³ (WHO interim target 4) by 2060. This would require a fundamental 33 transformation of China's economic-environmental development pathway by phasing out 34 polluting industries and moving towards renewable energy while implementing strict end-of-pipe 35 emission control. 36

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38 However, these previous studies have largely neglected how the future changes in foreign 39 transboundary pollution would affect air quality in China, likely due to the perception that the 40 relatively short lifetime of PM_{2.5} (a few days) does not permit long-distance transport. This negligence would put into question the confidence of their estimated achievability of air quality 41 42 goals in China. Due to large uncertainties in the future socioeconomic development pathways, 43 environmental commitments, financial supports and technology capabilities, future emissions from China's neighboring countries might be highly variable, leading to different levels of 44 45 transboundary impacts to China's air quality. For example, emissions in South Asia, Central Asia 46 and Southeast Asia have been estimated to increase in the future by various projections

1 (International Energy Agency, 2021; Koplitz et al., 2017), due to their rapid-economic growth 2 and a lack of clear commitments on energy choices, climate actions and air pollution control 3 efforts. In this case, transboundary pollution from neighboring countries to China could 4 potentially become increasingly important to affect the achievability of air quality goals in China. Alternatively, these surrounding countries may undergo a sustainable development 5 6 pathway, facilitated in part by external financial aids and technology supports, leading to 7 lowered transboundary pollution to China. Thus, the different prospects of transboundary 8 pollution could be a significant yet highly uncertain factor in the achievement of future air 9 quality goals in China.

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In addition, the mechanism of transboundary pollution poses additional complexity to its 11 impacts on China's air quality. Foreign emissions can affect air quality in China through direct 12 transboundary transport in the atmosphere. Moreover, portions of foreign-transported pollution 13 14 can also interact chemically with China's locally emitted pollutants. Xu et al. (2023) found that the transport and transformation of non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs) from 15 16 foreign countries could enhance the atmospheric oxidizing capacity and facilitate the oxidation of Chinese nitrogen oxides (NO_x) to form nitric acid (HNO₃) and nitrate over North China 17 (referred to as eastern China in that study), leading to considerable foreign contributions to 18 19 China's air pollution.

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The chemical interactions mean that the extent of transboundary pollution will depend on emission changes in China as well. Therefore, the influence of transboundary pollution on China's air quality in the future is a complex result of future emissions in China and in foreign countries, along with their interactions. However, whether the changes in transboundary pollution via direct transport and chemical interactions could affect the achievement of future air quality goals in China and to what extent the influence could be remain poorly understood.

28 Here, we assess the potential influences that transboundary pollution could make on the 29 achievement of future air quality goals in China, considering the changes in direct pollution transport and in the interactions between transported and China's locally emitted pollution. We 30 31 regard the air quality goal stated in The Beautiful China Initiative, which is that all cities have annual mean PM_{2.5} concentrations below 35 µg m⁻³ between 2030~2035 (The State Council of 32 the People's Republic of China, 2016), as China's 2030 air quality goal. We also regard the 33 WHO AQG (annual mean PM_{2.5} below 5 µg m⁻³) as China's 2060 air quality goal. We then 34 35 discuss the likelihood of the achievement under currently proposed development pathways in 36 China and foreign countries. As detailed in Method, given the large uncertainties on future 37 emissions of a country (Rao et al., 2017), we consider three anthropogenic emission scenarios 38 (low: SSP119, medium: SSP245, and high: SSP370; O'Neill et al., 2014) for foreign countries and two anthropogenic emission scenarios (current-policy and carbon-neutral; Cheng et al., 39 2021b; Tong et al., 2020) for China (Table 1), so as to understand transboundary pollution in 40 China from the present (2015) to the future (2030 and 2060) under a wide range of plausible 41 futures. We do not consider the effects of physical climate change (e.g., temperature and 42 precipitation) on future transboundary pollution because Liu et al. (2021) found that future PM_{2.5} 43 changes in China driven by anthropogenic emission reduction was 7 times more than the changes 44 45 due to meteorological fields by 2050 in both SSP126 and SSP585 scenarios. Other studies have

1 also indicted that the impact of climate change on future $PM_{2.5}$ were smaller than those of 2 anthropogenic emissions of pollutants (Hong et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2013; Silva et al., 2017). 3 For each combination of foreign and Chinese anthropogenic emission scenarios, we simulate 4 PM_{2.5} concentrations at a 0.5° x 0.625° resolution using a chemical transport model (GEOS-5 Chem; http://www.geos-chem.org) that can represent the complex pollutant emissions and 6 chemical reactions across a large spatial domain. Then, we correct the systematic bias in the 7 model simulated $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations using a large set of ground-based observations of $PM_{2.5}$ in 8 China; the same correction factor is applied to all present and future concentrations. Finally, we 9 quantify the transboundary impacts on Chinese PM_{2.5} under each emission scenario. We further 10 quantify the corresponding transboundary impacts on public health in China, measured by premature deaths, using socio-demographic projections consistent with SSPs and the state-of-11 12 the-art concentration-response relationships (the GEMM model; Burnett et al., 2018).

2. Method

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16 In this study, we use a set of data and models to investigate future air quality and health burden in China. Projected air pollutant emissions for foreign countries under SSP-RCP scenarios are 17 obtained from the International Institute for Applied Systems Analysis (IIASA; Rao et al., 2017; 18 Riahi et al., 2017) with updates on base year emissions and the harmonization year in this study. 19 Projected air pollutant emissions for China are developed by Tong et al. (2020) and Cheng et al. 20 (2021b). Ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations under each scenario are simulated by the GEOS-Chem 21 22 chemical transport model (http://www.geos-chem.org) and further corrected for systematic bias by a suite of ground-based observations (Xu et al., 2023). PM_{2.5}-associated mortalities are 23 24 calculated using the Global Exposure Mortality Model (GEMM; Burnett et al., 2018).

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26 **2.1** Scenarios of future anthropogenic air pollutant emissions

Future pollutant emission outcome is a cumulative result of a range of variables including 27 28 socio-economic development, technological change, efficiency improvements and policies 29 directed at pollution control as well as alternative concerns including climate change, energy access, and agricultural production (Rao et al., 2017). The Shared Socioeconomic Pathways 30 31 (SSP) includes 5 five distinctly different pathways about how the future might unfold in terms of 32 major socioeconomic, demographic, technological, lifestyle, policy and institutional trends (O'Neill et al., 2014; van Vuuren et al., 2017). We select three scenarios to represent low, 33 medium and high emission cases: SSP1 - sustainability, SSP2 - middle-of-the-road, SSP3 -34 regional rivalry. An assumption about the degree of air pollution control (strong, medium or 35 weak) is included on top of the baseline pathway. Weak air pollution controls occur in SSP3, 36 37 with medium controls in SSP2 and strong controls in SSP1 (Turnock et al., 2020). However, SSP scenarios do not include explicit climate policies (O'Neill et al., 2020). Instead, the 38 Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) generate climate projections targeting at a range 39 of climate forcing levels, such as 1.9 W m² (1.5 °C warming), 4.5 W m² (3 °C) and 7.0 W m² 40 41 (4 °C) in 2100. Thus, the combination of SSP-RCP scenario framework depicts societal and

42 climate futures in parallel and explores plausible futures of human activities, the changing

43 climate and emissions (O'Neill et al., 2020).

Here, we use anthropogenic aerosol emissions projected under SSP-RCP scenarios for foreign
countries. We select 3 scenarios to represent low, middle and high air pollutant emissions in
plausible futures: SSP119 (a sustainable development pathway targeting at a rise of the global
mean surface temperature below 1.5 °C from the pre-industrial levels by the end of the century),
SSP245 (a business-as-usual development pathway with 3 °C warming), SSP370 (a regionalrivalry development pathway with 4 °C warming). Table 1 summarizes the scenario settings in
more detail.

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9 The original SSP-RCP anthropogenic emissions future projection starts from 2015. Here, we
10 update the start year to 2019, which is the latest year that anthropogenic emissions from the

11 Community Emissions Data System (CEDS; Hoesly et al., 2018) are available. Because CEDS

historical emissions and SSP-RCP future emissions were developed upon different assumptions
 and methods, it is important to harmonize the two datasets to ensure smooth transitions between

14 the two sets of emissions trajectories (Gidden et al., 2019). The update of the harmonization year

15 from 2015 to 2019 in this study could better represent the actual emission trajectory between

16 2015 and 2019. We also use the most recently developed CEDS emission variety of the

17 (https://data.pnnl.gov/dataset/CEDS-4-21-21) to harmonize the future SSP-RCP emission

18 projections as the new emissions can better represent the historical trend of pollutant emissions

19 (https://github.com/JGCRI/CEDS/blob/master/documentation/Version comparison figures v 2

20 021 04 21 vs v 2016 07 16(CMIP6).pdf). The final future SSP-RCP emissions for foreign

21 countries used in this study are presented in Fig. S1a.

22 Future scenarios of anthropogenic pollutant emissions for China were developed by Tong et al. (2020) and Cheng et al. (2021b). We adopt these emissions instead of SSP-RCP emissions 23 because Tong et al. (2020) and Cheng et al. (2021b) developed the emissions specifically to meet 24 25 China's recent climate goals (i.e., 2030 carbon peak and 2060 carbon neutrality) and used 26 parameters (i.e., emission factors, energy use, etc.) to reflect the most up-to-date pollutant 27 control policies (i.e., clean air action since 2013) and technologies in China. Their emissions 28 have been suggested to better capture China's PM_{2.5} concentration decline during 2015–2019 than those driven by SSP-RCP emissions (Cheng et al., 2021a). We select two plausible 29 30 scenarios: the current-policy scenario and the carbon-neutral scenario. The current-policy 31 scenario seeks to achieve China's NDC pledges and the national PM_{2.5} air quality goal (i.e. 35 µg 32 m^{-3}) by 2030, elucidating China's future air pollution mitigation pathway towards all the released and determined upcoming clean air policies since 2015. The carbon-neutral scenario pursues 33 China's carbon-neutral commitment and the WHO's old $PM_{2.5}$ guideline (10 µg m⁻³) by 2060. It 34 35 implements the best available end-of-pipe technologies and more stringent pollution control 36 policies than the current-policy scenario. Future anthropogenic pollutant emissions for China under these scenarios are developed by firstly simulating China's future energy and 37 38 socioeconomic evolution using the Global Change Assessment Model (GCAM-China) and then translating into pollutant emissions by the Dynamic Projection model for Emissions in China 39 40 (DPEC; Tong et al., 2020). More details are summarized in Table 1. The actual future air pollutant emissions for China used in this study are presented in Fig. S1b. 41

42 **2.2** Simulations of ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations

1 We use the GEOS-Chem model to simulate PM_{2.5} concentrations in China and other Asian 2 countries under each emission scenario and year. Detailed descriptions of the model configurations can be found in Xu et al. (2023). Briefly, we use the Flex-Grid capability of the 3 4 GEOS-Chem classic model v13.2.1 to simulate $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations over Asia and its adjacent 5 regions (11° S–60° N, 30°–150° E; covering the entire Asia, eastern Africa and eastern Europe). 6 We use MERRA-2 assimilated meteorological data provided by the Global Modeling and 7 Assimilation Office (GMAO) at NASA Goddard Space Flight Center to drive the model. Our 8 simulation is conducted at a horizontal resolution of 0.5° latitude $\times 0.625^{\circ}$ longitude with 47 9 vertical levels between the surface and ~ 0.01 hPa. Chemical boundary conditions are taken from corresponding global simulations under each emission scenario in Table 2 at a resolution of 10 11 2° latitude $\times 2.5^{\circ}$ longitude. The regeneration of boundary conditions under each emission scenario could ensure the inclusion of pollution transported from countries both within and 12 outside the Flex-Grid domain as transboundary pollution to China. We spin up every simulation 13 14 for 1 month to remove the effects of initial conditions. 15 Anthropogenic emissions for the base year (2015) for China are taken from the Multi-16

- Anthropogenic emissions for the base year (2015) for China are taken from the Multiresolution Emission Inventory (MEIC) for 2015 (Zheng et al., 2018b), and for the rest of the
 world are taken from the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS) version 2 for 2015
 (https://data.pnnl.gov/dataset/CEDS-4-21-21). For future simulations, anthropogenic emissions
 for China and foreign countries for each scenario are described above and are specified in Table
 2. Other emissions are default in GEOS-Chem following Xu et al. (2023) and are fixed in all
 present and future scenarios.
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24 We conduct simulations for January, April, July and October, and treat the mean of the four months as annual mean. Our meteorological fields are fixed to 2015 for all scenarios and years to 25 26 exclude the influence of climate on the results. More details of our model configurations can be 27 found in Table 2. We conduct two types of simulations: 1) baseline simulations (simulations with 28 "Base " prefix in Table 2) that include complete anthropogenic emissions for both China and 29 foreign countries; 2) sensitivity simulations (simulations with "China" prefix in Table 2) that exclude anthropogenic emissions for foreign countries from the baseline simulation. Baseline 30 simulations calculate PM_{2.5} concentrations in China that are driven by both Chinese and foreign 31 32 emissions, while sensitivity simulations calculate PM_{2.5} concentrations in China that are driven 33 merely by China's domestic emissions. The impacts of transboundary pollution on China's PM_{2.5} is calculated as the difference in China's PM_{2.5} between a baseline simulation and a sensitivity 34 35 simulation in a specified year and under a specified Chinese emission scenario.

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37 We correct our simulated $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations under each scenario, based on a large set of 38 ground-based observations of PM_{2.5}, because our simulated PM_{2.5} concentrations are biased high 39 by roughly 15.7% (Fig. S2). Descriptions and data screening method of our ground-based observations can be found in Xu et al. (2023). Further evaluations of PM_{2.5} composition 40 concentrations in China and PM2.5 concentrations in other Asian countries with ground-based 41 42 observations are presented in Xu et al. (2023). We correct simulated PM_{2.5} concentrations in 43 anthropogenic concentration-dominated grid cells (where anthropogenic emissions exceed 44 natural emissions) by observations located in anthropogenic concentration-dominated grid cells. 45 Similarly, we correct simulated concentrations in natural concentration-dominated grid cells 46 (where natural emissions exceed anthropogenic emissions) by observations located in natural

2 cells in the model are shown in Fig. S3. To isolate anthropogenic concentration-dominated grid 3 cells, we conduct a sensitivity that excludes natural emissions in China and in foreign countries. 4 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations from this sensitivity simulation are referred to as natural $PM_{2.5}$ 5 concentrations. The difference between concentrations from the Base 2015 simulation (with 6 complete natural and anthropogenic emissions) in Table 2 and the natural concentrations is the 7 anthropogenic emission-contributed concentrations (anthropogenic concentrations). We scale 8 anthropogenic concentrations by the average ratio of observed concentrations and simulated concentrations at each observation site that falls into an anthropogenically dominated grid cell. 9 10 Concentrations before and after the correction for anthropogenic and all grid cells (including natural grid cells) are shown in Fig. S2. The overestimation in both anthropogenic and total 11 PM_{2.5} concentrations is removed after the correction. 12 13 14 We calculate sectoral contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions to China's PM2.5 concentrations under China's current-policy and foreign countries' SSP370 scenario at a 15 resolution of 2° x 2.5° for January in 2030 and 2060. Sectoral contributions are calculated by 16 17 taking the difference of a simulation that includes one sector of SSP370 foreign anthropogenic emissions (agriculture, industry, energy, traffic, residential combustion, solvent use, waste 18 burning) at a time and a simulation without foreign anthropogenic emissions 19 20 ("China current 2030" and "China current 2060" runs in Table 2). 21 22 We also conduct sensitivity simulations at a resolution of 2° x 2.5° to separate transboundary 23 contributions to China's future PM_{2.5} concentrations from anthropogenic emissions within or 24 outside the Flex-Grid domain of the model under the current-policy and SSP370 scenario. Contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions from within the Flex-Grid domain are 25 calculated as the difference of a simulation without foreign anthropogenic emissions outside the 26 27 Flex-Grid domain and a simulation without foreign anthropogenic emissions over the globe. 28 Contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions from outside the Flex-Grid domain are

concentration-dominated grid cells. Natural and anthropogenic concentration-dominated grid

calculated as the difference between the total foreign contributions and foreign contributionsfrom Flex-Grid countries.

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2.3 Health impact assessment

We use the GEMM model (Burnett et al., 2018) to estimate premature deaths attributable to ambient PM_{2.5} exposure for noncommunicable diseases (NCDs) and lower respiratory infections (LRIs) in China under each scenario. GEMM NCD+LRI calculates premature deaths associated with ambient PM_{2.5} exposure (M) for each population subgroup s (by age and gender) in grid cell g as:

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- $M_{s,g}(C_g) = B_s \times AF_s(C_g) \times P_g$ (1)
- 42 where B_s is the national baseline mortality rate of NCD+LRI for the exposed population
- 43 subgroup s. $AF_s(C_g)$ is the attributable fraction of NCD+LRI to $PM_{2.5}$ exposure at level C_g for
- 44 population subgroup s. P_g represents the total exposed population in grid cell g. In particular AF
- 45 was calculated as AF = (RR 1)/RR, where RR is the relative risk of NCD+LRI attributable to

1 ambient PM_{2.5} exposure. The dependence of RR of NCD+LRI on PM_{2.5} concentrations is

- 2 calculated as
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$$RR = e^{1+e^{\frac{\theta \times \ln{(\frac{z}{\alpha}+1)}}{(-\frac{z-\mu}{\nu})}}}, \text{ where } z = \max{(0, C_g - 2.4)}$$
(2)

5 where θ , α , μ and v are fitted parameters of PM_{2.5}-mortality relationships. According to the

6 GEMM model, the RR of NCD+LRI is calculated by age for adults aged from 25 to greater than 7 85 years in 5-year intervals.

8 In this study, we use the national baseline mortality data by age group and disease type 9 from the Global Burden of Disease Results Tool 2017 version (GBD 2017; Institute for Health 10 Metrics and Evaluation, 2017). For future baseline mortality, we use the age-specific baseline 11 mortality rates projected by the International Futures (IFs) model v7.89 (Hughes et al., 2011). Population and age structure data for China for 2015 and future years are obtained from the SSP 12 13 dataset (Samir and Lutz, 2017; Riahi et al., 2017), because China's current-policy scenario is built upon the SSP2 scenario and the carbon-neutral scenario is built upon the SSP1 scenario 14 (Cheng et al., 2021b; Tong et al., 2020). The gridded population data for China on a $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ 15 16 spatial resolution for 2015 and future years under each SSP scenario are developed by Huang et 17 al. (2019). Future cause-and-effect relationship between PM2.5 exposure and mortality follows the PM_{2.5}-mortality hazard ratio function in the GEMM model, which has been widely used in 18 19 the calculation of PM_{2.5}-associated mortality in the future (Hong et al., 2019; Liu et al., 2021;

20 Yang et al., 2022).

With the baseline mortality, the population data and the age-structure data, we calculate, grid cell by grid cell, the age-specific baseline mortality rate under present and future scenarios. The impacts of transboundary pollution on mortality in China is calculated as the difference between mortality associated with PM_{2.5} simulated by the full anthropogenic emissions for China and foreign countries, and mortality associated with PM_{2.5} simulated by excluding foreign emissions from the full anthropogenic emissions.

27 **3. Results**

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29 **3.1** Achievability of future air quality goals in China.

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In 2015, the national mean population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ over China is about 48 µg m⁻³ (Fig. 1) 31 32 after the observation-based correction, consistent with previous studies ($48 \sim 55 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) that used various models (Burnett et al., 2018; Cheng et al., 2021a, 2021b; Tang et al., 2022; Zhang and 33 34 Cao, 2015). The correction reduces the overestimation in the model by roughly 16% (Fig. S2); 35 details about the correction approach are described in Method. From 2015 to 2030 and 2060, 36 there is a remarkable decreasing trend in China's annual mean population-weighted PM_{2.5} concentrations under plausible futures (Fig. 1). In 2030, achieving the 35 μ g m⁻³ goal on a 37 38 national average level would be feasible even under the fossil fuel-intensive pathways in China 39 (current-policy) and foreign countries (SSP370), yet the most polluted provinces might not be

40 able to achieve the goal under such scenarios (upper whiskers in Fig. 1). In 2060, achieving the

1 WHO AQG goal of 5 μ g m⁻³ would be highly unlikely under any emission pathway analyzed in 2 this study (Fig. 1).

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Considering air quality goals at the city level in China (35 µg m⁻³ in 2015 and 2030; 5 µg m⁻³ in 4 5 2060), the fraction of cities achieving air quality goals increases considerably as China and 6 foreign countries transition from the fossil fuel-intensive to the low-carbon pathway, yet the 7 achievement is not fully attainable in all cities. In 2015, only 30% of 365 cities in the national 8 $PM_{2.5}$ monitoring network has an annual mean population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ below the 35 µg m⁻³ 9 threshold (Fig. 2a). In 2030, the percentage increases considerably (Fig. 2b). Under the current-10 policy emission pathway in China (the current clean air policies and Nationally Determined Contribution pledges), roughly 65% of Chinese cities (average of the three foreign scenarios) is 11 12 able to achieve the goal, doubling the percentage in 2015. Under the carbon-neutral emission 13 pathway in China (stringent clean air policies and carbon neutrality commitments), the 14 percentage further increases to about 92% (average of the three foreign scenarios). However, even the cleanest emission pathway in both China and foreign countries cannot allow all cities to 15 16 attain the 35 μ g m⁻³ goal. In 2060 (Fig. 2c), the WHO AQG goal of 5 μ g m⁻³ is not achievable for the majority of cities (\geq 75%) in China. Emission pathways adopted by foreign countries can 17 affect up to 6% of cities achieving the AQG goal, and the influence could be even larger over 18 19 border regions (as will be shown in Fig. 3). 20

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3.2 Transboundary impacts on PM_{2.5} concentrations in China.

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In 2015, transboundary pollution contributes about 3.8 μ g m⁻³ population-weighted PM_{2.5} to China (Fig. 3a), accounting for roughly 8% of the total population-weighted PM_{2.5} (Fig. 4). In the future, transboundary pollution becomes increasingly important in China, as the share of transboundary pollution in China's total population-weighted PM_{2.5} increases to 12%~22% in 2060 (Fig. 4).

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29 For future $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, the contribution of transboundary pollution to $PM_{2.5}$ in China decreases as foreign countries and China undergo the low-carbon pathways (Fig. 3a). In 2030, 30 31 under the current-policy scenario in China, transboundary contributions to PM_{2.5} in China would be reduced by 1.2 μ g m⁻³ (29%) as foreign countries transition from the fossil fuel-intensive 32 33 (SSP370) to the low-carbon (SSP119) scenario. By 2060, the difference would be increased to 34 1.8 μ g m⁻³ (45%). The transboundary pollution will also depend on Chinese domestic emissions, 35 because of their chemical interactions with foreign-transported pollution (Xu et al., 2023). In 2030, under the SSP370 scenario in foreign countries, transboundary contributions to PM_{2.5} in 36 China could be reduced by 0.6 μ g m⁻³ (14%) as China transitions from the current-policy to the 37 38 carbon-neutral scenario. In 2060, the PM_{2.5} reduction could be increased to 1.8 μ g m⁻³ (45%). 39

The direct atmospheric transport and the chemical interactions play different roles in transboundary pollution over different regions in China. Over North China (outlined in Fig. 3co), the influence of chemical interactions on transboundary pollution is prominent. Xu et al. (2023) found that foreign-transported NMVOCs could enhance the atmospheric oxidizing capacity and facilitated the oxidation of Chinese nitrogen oxides (NO_x) to form nitrate over

45 North China. This feature persists in the future. Due to chemical interactions, North China is the

46 region that is the most strongly affected by transboundary pollution in most scenarios. In 2030,

- transboundary pollution contributes 3 to 10 µg m⁻³ PM_{2.5} concentrations to North China, even under China's carbon-neutral scenario (Fig. 3b and Fig. 3i-l), greatly increasing the difficulty for this region to achieve the 35 µg m⁻³ goal. Further reduction of transboundary pollution on North
- 4 China requires the reduction of not only foreign anthropogenic emissions but also China's
- 5 domestic emission. For example, in 2060, if China adopts the current-policy pathway (Fig. 3f-h),
- 6 achieving the WHO AQG goal of 5 μ g m⁻³ would be highly unlikely for the majority of North
- 7 China, as transboundary pollution alone would contribute roughly $3\sim 10 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$ of PM_{2.5}
- 8 concentration (Fig. 3b and Fig. 3f-h). Alternatively, adopting the carbon-neutral rather than the
- 9 current-policy pathway in China reduces roughly 41%~58% of transboundary PM_{2.5} over North
- 10 China in 2060 (Fig. 3b), making it possible for the region to achieve the 5 μ g m⁻³ goal. Thus, a
- low emission pathway for China has a large co-benefit on reducing transboundary pollution
 exerted upon its populous northern area by reducing the aforementioned chemical interactions.
- 13
- 14 The western border provinces of Yunnan and Xinjiang (denoted in Fig. 3c-o) are also
- 15 influenced substantially by transboundary pollution, with the magnitude of transboundary
- 16 pollution determined predominantly by foreign (but not Chinese) emission pathways. For
- 17 example, in 2060, under China's carbon-neutral emission pathway, transboundary PM_{2.5} over
- 18 Yunnan decreases from 6 μ g m⁻³ to 3 μ g m⁻³ (a 50% reduction) as the foreign pathway switches
- 19 from fossil fuel-intensive (SSP370; Fig. 3m) to low-carbon (SSP119; Fig. 3o), reflecting the
- 20 considerable impact of Southern Asian pollution to China (Jiang et al., 2013). Over Xinjiang, the
- transboundary pollution driven predominantly by direct atmospheric transport can reach 6 μ g m⁻³ in many scenarios (i.e., current-policy plus SSP370 for 2030 and 2060; and carbon-neutral plus
- 23 SSP245 for 2030), indicating the important influence of anthropogenic emissions from Central
- Asia in the future that has hardly been investigated in previous studies
- 25

26 As transboundary contributions are the largest under China's current-policy and foreign 27 countries' SSP370 emission pathways (Fig. 3a), we further investigate major emission sectors in foreign countries that contribute to China's future PM_{2.5} concentrations. We take January as an 28 29 example because Xu et al. (2023) found that transboundary contributions to China's PM_{2.5} were the largest in January. Fig. S4 reveals that agriculture, energy, industry, transportation and 30 residential combustion emissions in foreign countries are major sources of transboundary 31 32 pollution to China's national average future PM2.5 concentrations in 2030 and 2060 January, and that these sectors contribute roughly evenly (15%~23% for each source). There is pronounced 33 34 spatial heterogeneity in the source attribution. Solvent use emissions in foreign countries make 35 roughly 3 times larger contributions to North China (18% in 2030 and 2060) than to the national average (6%-7% in 2030 and 2060). This is in line with the result of Xu et al. (2023) that the 36 NMVOCs are the primary drivers of transboundary PM2.5 over North China. Residential 37 38 combustion in foreign countries contributes about 16% in 2030 and 10% 2060 more $PM_{2.5}$ to 39 Yunnan province than to the entire China, as Yunnan is mostly affected by emissions from South Asia (Jiang et al., 2013) where residential combustion is intensive (McDuffie et al., 2020). 40 41

- Transboundary pollution to China could arise from emissions of countries within and outside
 the Flex-Grid domain of the model. Thus, we conduct a sensitivity simulation driven by China's
- 45 the Flex-Orid domain of the model. Thus, we conduct a sensitivity simulation driven by China's 44 current-policy and foreign countries' SSP370 emissions in 2030 and 2060 as an example to
- 44 current-policy and foreign countries SSF370 emissions in 2030 and 2000 as an example to 45 explore the relative importance of anthropogenic emissions from countries within and outside the
- 46 Flex-Grid domain for transboundary pollution to China. Fig. S5 shows that anthropogenic

1 emissions from countries within the Flex-Grid domain dominate the transboundary pollution to

2 China in all seasons (>80%), and their contributions remain in 2030 and 2060. Contributions of

3 anthropogenic emissions from countries outside the Flex-Grid domain is larger in April and

4 October when westerly winds prevail and wet deposition is not as strong as in July (Jiang et al.,

5 2013; Leibensperger et al., 2011; Ni et al., 2018). North China is more influenced by emissions

- outside the Flex-Grid domain (13% in April and 24% in October) than China on average is (7%
 in April and 13% in October), indicating that North China is more influenced by emissions
- and 15 % in October), indicating that North China is more influenced by emissions
 outside Asia, such as Europe and North America. Leibensperger et al. (2011) have also found
- 9 that NO_x emission in the US could lead to an enhancement of $PM_{2.5}$ over North China.
- 10

11 **3.3** Health threats by transboundary pollution in China.

12 Figure 5 shows our estimated PM_{2.5}-associated premature deaths in 2015 and the future. Our

13 estimated PM_{2.5}-associated premature deaths in China in 2015 (2.03 million) is comparable with

14 other studies (2 to 2.4 million; Burnett et al., 2018; Geng et al., 2021; Tang et al., 2022). Our

- estimated increasing trend of premature deaths in China from SSP370 to SSP119 is also
- 16 consistent in previous works (Tang et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022), which is driven primarily by
- 17 population ageing (Fig. S6). Our estimated premature deaths in 2030 and 2060 under the current-

18 policy emission scenario (2.68 to 2.82 million for 2030; 1.8 to 2.05 million for 2060) is

substantially lower than those in Tang et al. (2022) (3.5 to 4 million for 2030; 6.5 to 7.5 million for 2060). The difference is primerily because Tang et al. (2022) fixed the baseline mortality.

for 2060). The difference is primarily because Tang et al. (2022) fixed the baseline mortality rates in future years at the 2015 level, while our future baseline mortality rates from the IFs are

- 21 rates in future years at the 2015 level, while our future baseline mortality rates from the IFS are 22 projected on the basis of income, education and technology advancement, and other factors
- 23 (Hughes et al., 2011).

24 The PM_{2.5} concentrations contributed by transboundary pollution can lead to an extra number of people (i.e., excess population) exposed to PM_{2.5} concentrations above the targeted air quality 25 levels in China (35 µg m⁻³ in 2015 and 2030; and 5 µg m⁻³ in 2060), which may lead to potential 26 health threats. In the future, the number of excess population due to transboundary pollution 27 28 depends on both foreign and China's emission pathways (Fig. 6a). In 2030, with Chinese emissions following the carbon-neutral scenario, adopting the low-carbon (SSP119) rather than 29 30 the fossil fuel-intensive pathway (SSP370) in foreign countries could avoid 10 million Chinese people from being exposed to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations above 35 µg m⁻³. In 2060, 5 million people 31 could be avoided from being exposed to $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations above 5 µg m⁻³ if the foreign 32 scenario switches from SSP370 to SSP119. These results indicate remarkable health benefits that 33 34 the low-carbon emission pathway in foreign countries would bring to China.

35

36 For a given future year and foreign emission scenario, the excess population due to

transboundary pollution tends to be larger when China adopts the carbon-neutral pathway than
when China adopts the current-policy pathway (Fig. 6a). This reflects the increasing influence of
transboundary pollution on air quality in China as China's overall PM_{2.5} concentrations drop

40 sharply towards the air quality goals under the carbon-neutral pathway (Fig. 1).

- 41
- 42 Another measure of health threat that transboundary pollution could exert upon China is PM_{2.5}-

43 related premature deaths. As shown in Fig. 6b, there is an obvious decreasing trend of

44 transboundary-contributed PM_{2.5}-related premature deaths in China as foreign countries and

China transition from the fossil fuel-intensive to the low-carbon pathway. In 2030, adopting the
low-carbon pathway (SSP119) in foreign countries would avoid 41% (178,000 under China's
carbon-neutral pathway) to 45% (207,000 under China's current-policy pathway) of premature
deaths that would occur under the fossil fuel-intensive pathway (SSP370) in foreign countries. In
2060, the avoidance would be as large as 76% (270,000 under China's current-policy pathway)

- to 91% (63,000 under China's carbon-neutral pathway). In addition, China's low carbon
 emission pathway could also bring considerable health benefits through reducing the chemical
- interaction-related transboundary pollution and associated premature deaths in China. In 2030,
- adopting the carbon-neutral pathway in China would avoid 99,000 (SSP245) to 211,000
- (SSP119) people from transboundary pollution-associated premature deaths relative to adopting
 the current-policy emission pathway. In 2060, the avoided deaths would be 76,000 (SSP119) to
- 283,000 (SSP370). These findings highlight the considerable health benefits to China if foreign
 countries and China could adopt the low-carbon emission pathways coincidently.
- 14

4. Discussion

15 16

17 This study reveals the increasingly important role that transboundary pollution would play in the achievement of future air quality goals and the protection of public health in China. The 18 magnitude of transboundary pollution depends on both Chinese and foreign emissions, given the 19 20 direct pollution transport and the indirect impact through chemical interactions between transported and China's locally emitted pollutants. Adopting the low-carbon (SSP119) instead of 21 22 the fossil fuel-intensive (SSP370) pathway in foreign countries would avoid millions of Chinese people (Fig. 6a) from being exposed to PM_{2.5} concentrations above the targeted air quality levels 23 in 2030 (35 µg m⁻³) and 2060 (5 µg m⁻³), and would avoid 63,000~270,000 of transboundary 24 25 PM_{2.5}-associated mortality in China in 2060 (Fig. 6b). Adopting the carbon-neutral instead of current-policy pathway in China would avoid 76,000~283,000 premature mortality associated 26 27 with transboundary pollution in 2060 (Fig. 6b). If China and foreign countries undergo the lowcarbon pathways coincidently, transboundary pollution in China would be reduced by 63% 28 29 relative to adopting a fossil fuel-intensive emission pathway in both regions (Fig. 4a), and could avoid 386,000 premature deaths in China (Fig. 6b). Cutting foreign emissions are particularly 30 31 effective at reducing transboundary pollution upon the western border provinces of Yunnan and Xinjiang that are dominated by direct transport. Fully achieving the WHO AQG goal of 5 µg m⁻³ 32 33 over the populous North China would be possible only when both China and foreign counties 34 adopt the low-carbon pathways (carbon-neutral and SSP119, respectively).

35

36 The importance of transboundary pollution is not confined in China. In the future, significant emission changes are expected in many developing countries, affecting air quality locally and in 37 38 the downwind regions. These developing countries are often financially and/or technologically less capable to control emissions by themselves. Thus, enhanced external aids would be essential 39 for these developing countries to undergo a low-carbon development in the future, which in turn 40 would benefit air quality and public health of the entire globe. External aids could be done 41 through global cooperation programs such as the Paris Agreement or through inter-regional 42 collaboration such as the Belt and Road Initiative. 43

44

Uncertainties arise from several factors in this study. The future development pathway of acountry is highly uncertain, leading to a wide spread of projected emission trajectories in the

1 future. We thereby use a set of emission projections to represent the plausible range of future 2 emissions. The simulation of $PM_{2.5}$ is subject to uncertainties in aerosol chemical and physical 3 processes, such as the wet deposition of nitrate (Luo et al., 2020) and the simplified secondary 4 organic aerosol formation scheme (Pai et al., 2020). Our correction to the simulated PM_{2.5} concentrations using ground-based observations could reduce the uncertainty by 15% to 18% 5 6 (Fig. S2). Future population and age structure change are projected based on their historical 7 relationships with GDP and urbanization (O'Neill et al., 2020; Riahi et al., 2017). Thus, they 8 may introduce biases if the future development of global GDP and urbanization deviates from 9 the historical path (e.g., due to the emergence of anti-globalization (Dür et al., 2020) and regional 10 rivalry (O'Neill et al., 2014; van Vuuren et al., 2014). There are additional uncertainties from PM_{2.5}-related death estimates due to the limited epidemiology evidence and statistical estimation 11 of the GEMM model, such as the influences of particulate species and size on health outcomes 12 (Burnett et al., 2018). We estimate the overall uncertainties of PM₂ 5-related death in each 13 14 scenario as 95% CI in the main text. Besides, we do not consider potential influences of climate change and the change of natural emissions on PM2.5 and transboundary pollution, yet their 15 16 influences are found small compared to the influence of anthropogenic emissions (Hong et al.,

17 2019; Jiang et al., 2013; Liu et al., 2021; Silva et al., 2017).

18

19 Data availability20

21 The global SSP-RCP emissions data for 2015 and future scenarios, and the area-weighted

22 PM_{2.5} concentrations in China for 2015 and future scenarios are available upon request to the

corresponding author. All other data used in this study are publicly available and can be

24 downloaded from the following links. (1) China's future emission scenarios 2015–

25 2060: http://www.meicmodel.org/dataset-dpec.html. (2) Chinese future population data:

26 https://www.scidb.cn/en/detail?dataSetId=73c1ddbd79e54638bd0ca2a6bd48e3ff&dataSetType=

organization. (3) 2015 baseline mortality rate: https://gbd2017.healthdata.org/gbd-search/. (4)
 Future baseline mortality rate projection: https://www.ifs.du.edu/IFs/frm MortCohorts/.

28 29

30 Code availability

31

The GEOS-Chem model v13.2.1 source code used for PM_{2.5} concentration simulations is available at: http://www.geos-chem.org. The SSP-RCP emission harmonization source code is available at http://software.ene.iiasa.ac.at/aneris/. All computer codes generated during this study are available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

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37 38

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42

43 Author contributions44

J.L. led the study. J.X. and J.L. designed the study. J.X. performed the model simulations and
 conducted the data analysis. D.T. provided China's future emissions data. L.C. provided SSP-

- 1 RCP emission harmonization and health impact assessment methods. J.X. wrote the manuscript
- 2 with inputs from J.L. All authors commented on the manuscript.
- 3 4

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Competing interests

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

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Figure 2. Percent of cities achieving air quality goals in China. (a) Percent of cities in China with an annual mean population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ concentration below 35 µg m⁻³ in 2015. (b-c) Percent of cities with an annual mean population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ concentration achieving the 35 µg m⁻³ goal in 2030 (b) and the 5 µg m⁻³ goal in 2060 (c). $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are simulated under different future emission scenarios in China (current-policy and carbon-neutral) and foreign countries (represented by colors following the legend).

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Figure 3. Contributions of transboundary pollution to PM_{2.5} concentrations over China. (a)

4 Transboundary contributions to national annual mean population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ in China in

2015, 2030 and 2060. Future scenarios are estimated by different emission scenarios in China
represented by light (carbon-neutral scenario) and dark shadings (current-policy scenario), along

7 with different emission scenarios in other countries (SSP370, SSP245, SSP119) represented by

8 colors according to the legend. Text on top of each bar represents the transboundary-contributed

9 population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ under China's current-policy emission scenarios. Text in the light

10 shading of each bar represents the transboundary-contributed population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ under

11 China's carbon-neutral emission scenarios. (b) Same as a, but for North China. (c-o) Spatial

12 distributions of transboundary-contributed annual mean PM_{2.5} concentrations over China in 2030

13 and 2060 under different emission scenarios in China and in other countries. YN represents

14 Yunnan province. XJ represents Xinjiang province. North China is outlined by thick black lines.







Figure 5. PM_{2.5}-associated premature deaths in China. Total PM_{2.5}-associated premature deaths in China for 2015, 2030 and 2060 under each emission scenario in China (denoted as text at the top) and in other countries (represented by colors in the legend). Numbers denote the estimated deaths in each scenario. Error bars represent the 95% confidence interval of the RR function.





Figure 6. Potential health threats associated with transboundary pollution in China. (a)

4 Population exposed to an annual mean population-weighted $PM_{2.5}$ concentration above the goals

5 (35 μ g m⁻³ for 2015 and 2030; 5 μ g m⁻³ for 2060) due to transboundary contributions of PM_{2.5} in

6 China under different emission scenarios in China (denoted as text at the top) and in other

7 countries (represented by colors in the legend). (b) Transboundary-contributed PM_{2.5}-related

8 premature mortality in China under different emission scenarios in China (denoted as text at the

9 top) and in other countries (represented by colors in the legend). Error bars represent the 95%

10 confidence interval of the RR function.

Scenarios	Socioeconomic pathway	Climate target	Pollution control strength	PM _{2.5} emission level	Key features	
Foreign						
SSP119	Sustainability	1.9 W m ⁻² (1.5 °C)	Strong	Low	Strong economic growth via sustainable pathway. Incomes increase substantially and inequality within and between countries is greatly decreased. Significantly lower demand for energy- and resource-intensive agricultural commodities. Effective pollution controls result in substantial reductions in air pollutant emissions.	
SSP245	Middle-of-the- road	4.5 W m ⁻² (3 °C)	Medium	Medium	An intermediate case between SSP1 and SSP3.	
SSP370	Regional rivalry	7.0 W m ⁻² (~4 °C)	Weak	High	High inequity between countries. GDP growth is low and concentrated in current high-income nations, while population growth is focused in low- and middle- income countries. Energy system is coal-intensive. The implementation of pollution controls is delayed and less effective.	
China						
Current- policy	Middle-of-the- road (SSP2)	4.5 W m ⁻² (3 °C)	Medium	Medium	Achieve China's Nationally Determined Contribution (NDC) pledges and the national PM _{2.5} air quality standard (i.e. $35 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$) by 2030, elucidating China's future air pollution mitigation pathway towards all the released and determined upcoming clean air policies since 2015.	
Carbon- neutral	Sustainability (SSP1)	Net-zero CO ₂ emissions in 2060	Strong	Low	Pursue China's carbon-neutral commitment and the WHO's old $PM_{2.5}$ guideline (10 µg m ⁻³) by 2060. It implements the best available end-of- pipe technologies and more stringent pollution control policies than the current-policy.	

Table 1. Description of future scenario settings

Table 2. Simulation configurations

Simulation type	Anthropogeni	c Emissions	Emission	Met field
Simulation type	China	Foreign countries	year	year
Base_2015	MEIC	CEDS	2015	
China_2015	MEIC	None	2013	
Base_current_SSP119_2030	Current-policy	SSP119		
Base_current_SSP245_2030	Current-policy	SSP245		
Base_current_SSP370_2030	Current-policy	SSP370		
China_current_2030	Current-policy None		2020	
Base_neutral_SSP119_2030	Carbon-neutral	SSP119	2030	
Base_neutral_SSP245_2030	Carbon-neutral SSP245			
Base_neutral_SSP370_2030	Carbon-neutral	SSP370		2015
China_neutral_2030	Carbon-neutral	None		
Base_current_SSP119_2060	Current-policy	SSP119		
Base_current_SSP245_2060	Current-policy	SSP245		
Base_current_SSP370_2060	Current-policy	SSP370		
China_current_2060	Current-policy	None	- 2060	
Base_neutral_SSP119_2060	Carbon-neutral	SSP119		
Base_neutral_SSP245_2060	Carbon-neutral	SSP245		
Base_neutral_SSP370_2060	Carbon-neutral	SSP370		
China_neutral_2060	Carbon-neutral	None		

- **1** Supplementary Information for
- 2 The underappreciated role of transboundary pollution in future air quality and health
- 3 improvements in China
- 4
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- 13 This Supplemental Information document presents the additional data to support the primary
- 14 document.
- 15



1 2 Figure S1. Future emissions of PM_{2.5}-related pollutants in China and in other countries. (a) Emissions for foreign countries within our Flex-Grid simulation domain (11° S-60° N, 30°-150°

3 4 E) for future years are projected under SSP-RCP scenarios, with updates on base year emissions

and the harmonization year in this study. Colors represent the emissions of different pollutants

5 6 following the legend. (b) Emissions for China for future years are projected with the current-

- 7 policy scenario and the carbon-neutral scenario.
- 8





3 Figure S2. Correction and evaluation of simulated PM_{2.5} over China. (a) Comparison of the 4 observed and unscaled simulated annual mean concentrations PM_{2.5} at collocated grids for 2015. Both the observed and the simulated $PM_{2.5}$ were in grids where anthropogenic $PM_{2.5}$ exceeds 5 6 natural PM_{2.5}. r refers to the correlation coefficient. NMB refers to normalized mean bias. N 7 indicates the number of grids shown in the figure. (b) Same as (a), but for scaled simulated PM_{2.5} 8 concentrations to remove the systematic bias. (c) Same as (a), but for all grids (including both 9 anthropogenic pollution-dominated and natural pollution-dominated grids). (d) Same as (b), but for all grids. 10

- 11 12
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Figure S3. Anthropogenic emission-dominated grid cells (red) and natural emission-dominated grid cells (blue) at a 0.5° x 0.625° resolution in China. Circles indicate locations of PM_{2.5} observations used in this study.



1 2

Figure S4. Simulated sectoral contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions to PM_{2.5}

3 concentrations over the entire China, North China and Yunnan province for January in 2030

4 (top) and in 2060 (bottom) under the current-policy scenario in China and SSP370 scenario in

5 foreign countries. Sectors include agriculture (AGR), energy (ENE), industry (IND),

6 transportation (TRA), residential combustion (RES), solvent use (SLV), and waste burning

7 (WST). The simulation is conducted at a resolution of $2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$.





Figure S5. Fractional contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions from countries within and outside the Flex-Grid domain (11° S–60° N, 30°–150° E, including the entire Asia, eastern

4 Africa and eastern Europe) to PM_{2.5} concentrations over China, North China and Yunnan

5 province in 2030 (top) and in 2060 (bottom) under the current-policy scenario in China and

6 SSP370 scenario in foreign countries. The simulation is conducted at a resolution of $2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$.







10 Figure S6. Future population and age structure in China. Total populations in China in 2015 and

11 future years projected under different SSP scenarios (SSP1 corresponds to China's carbon-

12 neutral scenario; SSP2 corresponds to China's current-policy scenario). Colors represent

13 different age groups according to the legend. White numbers indicate the fraction of population

14 above the age of 65 in the total population.