



1 Foreign emissions exacerbate PM_{2.5} pollution in China through nitrate chemistry

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10

11 **Abstract**

12

13 Fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) pollution is a severe problem in China. Research on the sources
14 of Chinese PM_{2.5} pollution has focused on the contributions of China's domestic emissions.
15 However, the impact of foreign anthropogenic emissions has typically been simplified or
16 neglected, partly due to the perception that the short lifetime of PM_{2.5} (a few days) does not
17 allow long-distance transport. Here we explore the role of foreign anthropogenic emissions in
18 Chinese PM_{2.5} pollution in 2015 using the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model. We validate
19 the model simulations with a comprehensive set of observations of PM_{2.5} and its compositions,
20 including sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, black carbon and primary organic aerosols, over China and
21 its surrounding regions. We find that 8% of PM_{2.5} (5 μg m⁻³) and 19% of nitrate (2.6 μg m⁻³) over
22 eastern China in 2015 was contributed by foreign anthropogenic emissions. The contributions
23 were the highest in January (6.9 μg m⁻³ PM_{2.5}, with 68% nitrate) and the lowest in July (2.7 μg
24 m⁻³ PM_{2.5}, with 11% nitrate). Yet, only 30% of such foreign contributions in January was
25 through direct atmospheric transport. The majority (70%) was instead through chemical
26 interactions between foreign-transported aerosol precursors and China's domestic emissions of
27 pollutants. Specifically, the transport of non-methane volatile organic compounds (NMVOCs)
28 from foreign countries enhanced the atmospheric oxidizing capacity and facilitated the oxidation
29 of Chinese nitrogen oxides (NO_x) to form nitric acid (HNO₃) over the eastern China. The
30 abundance of Chinese ammonia (NH₃) further partitioned nearly all HNO₃ gas to particulate
31 nitrate, leading to the considerable foreign contributions of nitrate and PM_{2.5} to the eastern
32 China. Over southwestern China, foreign anthropogenic emissions contributed 4.9 μg m⁻³ PM_{2.5}
33 concentrations (18% of total PM_{2.5} mass) to Yunnan province, with 37% as organics and 27% as
34 sulfate. Our findings suggest that foreign anthropogenic emissions play an important role in
35 Chinese PM_{2.5} pollution, because of direct aerosol transport and, more importantly, chemical
36 interactions between transported pollutants and China's local emissions. Thus, foreign emission
37 reductions will be very beneficial for improving Chinese air quality.

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1 **1. Introduction**

2
3 China has been severely affected by fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}, particulate matter smaller
4 than 2.5 μm in aerodynamic diameter) pollution over the past decades from processes of
5 industrialization and urbanization (Geng et al., 2021; West et al., 2016). Over 1 million
6 premature deaths associated with PM_{2.5} pollution occur in China every year (Cohen et al., 2017;
7 Yue et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2017). In response, the Chinese government imposed stringent
8 emission controls on primary particles and precursor gases in the 5-year Clean Air Action in
9 2013 (China State Council, 2013), leading to a nationwide emission reduction of 59% for sulfur
10 dioxide (SO₂) and 21% for nitrogen oxides (NO_x ≡ NO+NO₂) from 2013 to 2017 (Zhang et al.,
11 2019; Zheng et al., 2018). Correspondingly, annual mean PM_{2.5} concentrations in China
12 decreased by 30~50% from 2013 to 2017 (Ding et al., 2019; Geng et al., 2021; Li et al.,
13 2019), avoiding 64 thousand (6.8%) premature deaths. Despite these remarkable achievements,
14 population-weighted mean PM_{2.5} concentration in China was still as high as 42.1 μg m⁻³ in 2017
15 (with 2.1 million associated premature deaths; Geng et al., 2021a), far exceeding the newly-
16 revised threshold of 5 μg m⁻³ in the World Health Organization (WHO) Air Quality Guidelines
17 (WHO, 2021). In 2020, the Chinese government further launched the “Beautiful China” strategy,
18 which requires an annual mean PM_{2.5} concentration of ≤ 35 μg m⁻³ in all cities by 2035. Yet,
19 nearly 30% of cities in China exceeded that standard based on the 2021 national observation data
20 (Ministry of Ecology and Environment, MEE, 2021). Thus, further improvement on air quality
21 is pressing. However, air quality management has been progressively challenging with the
22 widespread of end-of-pipe control technologies in dominant sources (industrial and power
23 sectors; Xing et al., 2020) and the exhausting benefits of such technologies (Geng et al., 2021).
24 Hence, more comprehensive and in-depth understanding of Chinese PM_{2.5} pollution sources is
25 urgently needed to help prioritize increasingly limited resources for accurate and effective
26 mitigation action.

27
28 Recent research on the sources of PM_{2.5} pollution in China has focused mostly on China’s
29 domestic anthropogenic emissions (An et al., 2019; Cheng et al., 2021b; Meng et al., 2019; Tang
30 et al., 2022; Tong et al., 2018; Xing et al., 2020). A number of studies have explored how China
31 could further reduce its own emissions of air pollutants through a wide range of energy
32 transformation scenarios to achieve co-benefits of air quality improvement and climate
33 mitigation (Cheng et al., 2021; Peng et al., 2018; Tong et al., 2018, 2020; Xing et al., 2020).
34 Studies have also investigated factors hindering the effectiveness of emission reductions on air
35 quality improvement in China, such as excess ammonia emissions (Bai et al., 2019; Gu et al.,
36 2021; Yan et al., 2021) and enhanced atmospheric oxidizing capacity associated with NO_x
37 emission reductions in recent years (Huang et al., 2021; Le et al., 2020; Ren et al., 2021; Zang et
38 al., 2022). A few works have studied the inter-provincial transport of pollution across China and
39 found that the contribution of inter-provincial transport to PM_{2.5} concentrations in the most
40 severely polluted regions might exceed that of local emissions (Wang et al., 2022).



1
2 However, these previous studies have largely neglected or simplified the transboundary
3 transport of pollutants from foreign countries to China. This is likely due to the perception that
4 the relatively short lifetime of PM_{2.5} (a few days) does not permit long-distance transport (Wang
5 et al., 2019). Only a few have investigated the influence of pollutant emissions from neighboring
6 countries (Jiang et al., 2013; Koplitz et al., 2017) on China, yet have typically focused on one
7 particular sector, such as biomass burning emissions from South Asia (Jiang et al., 2013) or coal
8 emissions from Southeast Asia (Koplitz et al., 2017). A comprehensive assessment of
9 transboundary PM_{2.5} pollution in China from foreign sources is lacking. In contrast, studies on
10 the transboundary PM_{2.5} pollution from China to neighboring countries have received
11 considerable attention (Choi et al., 2019; Jiang et al., 2013; Kurokawa and Ohara, 2020; Park et
12 al., 2014). This contrast is likely due to another perception that China's domestic emissions far
13 exceeded those from neighboring countries, such as Korea, Japan, India and the Southeast Asia
14 (Kurokawa and Ohara, 2020; McDuffie et al., 2020). However, the pollutant emission pattern in
15 China and neighboring countries may shift in the future. Emissions in China have decreased
16 considerably (Zheng et al., 2018) and the trend is expected to continue with the launch of
17 ambitious policies on air pollution (the 2035 “Beautiful China”) and climate change (the 2060
18 carbon neutrality). In contrast, emissions from India and Southeast Asian countries have been
19 estimated to increase in the future by various projections, given their fast-economic growth and a
20 lack of clear commitments on either air quality or climate mitigation (IEA, 2021). For example,
21 Koplitz et al. (2017) revealed that the projected increase of coal emissions in Southeast Asian
22 countries will lead to 49780 excess deaths per year associated with PM_{2.5} pollution in 2030, with
23 9000 (18%) of these excess deaths occurring in China. The transboundary pollution from
24 neighboring countries to China may become increasingly prominent in the future. Thus, an
25 effective air quality management action for the achievement of the “Beautiful China” target
26 requires a clear understanding of the current contribution of foreign anthropogenic emissions to
27 Chinese PM_{2.5} pollution.

28
29 A comprehensive assessment of foreign contributions to PM_{2.5} pollution in China relies on a
30 complex representation of aerosol emissions and chemical reactions across a large spatial
31 domain. The GEOS-Chem global chemical transport model has been widely applied to PM_{2.5}
32 studies over Asia (i.e., China, India, Southeast Asia, Korea and Japan; Choi et al., 2019; Koplitz
33 et al., 2017; Miao et al., 2020; Venkataraman et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2004; Zhang et al., 2015),
34 thereby applicable to such research. Although the model has been extensively validated for total
35 PM_{2.5} mass concentrations over China using observational data, compositional PM_{2.5} across
36 China and total PM_{2.5} for other Asian countries are far less evaluated due to scarce observations
37 (Cheng et al., 2021a; Koplitz et al., 2017; Miao et al., 2020). This limits the credibility of the
38 model's representation of aerosol emission and chemical reactions across a large domain. Thus, a
39 more comprehensive evaluation of the GEOS-Chem simulation is needed to support model
40 estimates of the influence of transboundary pollution on air quality in China.



1

2 In this study, we use the GEOS-Chem model to quantify the contributions of foreign
3 anthropogenic emissions to total and compositional PM_{2.5} mass concentrations over China in
4 2015. We first evaluate our model simulations with comprehensive observations of total and
5 compositional PM_{2.5} concentrations across China and other Asian countries. Then, we quantify
6 the contributions foreign anthropogenic emissions to China PM_{2.5} and compositional
7 concentrations in 2015. Finally, we reveal the physical and chemical pathways leading to such
8 contributions.

9

10 2. GEOS-Chem simulations

11

12 We conducted a series of simulations using the GEOS-Chem chemical transport model
13 (v13.2.1; <http://www.geos-chem.org>) to 1) represent 2015 PM_{2.5} and composition concentrations
14 over Asia, 2) quantify the contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions to total and
15 compositional PM_{2.5} concentrations over China, and 3) understand the role and the mechanisms
16 of direct transport and chemical interactions in transboundary pollution in China. Simulation
17 configurations are summarized in Table 1 and are elaborated as the following.

18

19 2.1 The GEOS-Chem simulation of ground-level PM_{2.5}

20

21 We used the flex-grid capability of the GEOS-Chem classic model v13.2.1 to simulate aerosol
22 concentrations over Asia and the adjacent area (11° S–60° N, 30°–150° E; Figure 2a) at a
23 horizontal resolution of 0.5° × 0.625° and at 47 vertical levels between the surface and ~ 0.01
24 hPa. The lowest vertical layer has a thickness of about 130 m. We regard the pollutant
25 concentrations in this layer as “ground-level”. Detailed descriptions of the flex-grid setup can be
26 found at <http://wiki.seas.harvard.edu/geos-chem/index.php/FlexGrid>. Our flex-grid domain
27 extended the traditionally-defined nested Asia domain (11° S–55° N, 60°–150° E) in the model
28 (Figure 2a) to better represent the transport of anthropogenic pollutants from Central Asia to
29 China that has not been studied yet. Our simulations were driven by assimilated meteorological
30 data from MERRA-2 provided by the Global Modeling and Assimilation Office (GMAO) at
31 NASA Goddard Space Flight Center. Convective transport in the model was computed from the
32 convective mass fluxes in the meteorological archive as described by Wu et al. (2007). A non-
33 local scheme was used to represent vertical mixing within the planetary boundary layer (PBL), as
34 it accounts for different states of mixing based on the static instability (Lin and McElroy, 2010).
35 Boundary conditions were archived from global simulations at a resolution of 2° × 2.5°. We spun
36 up every simulation for 1 month to remove the effects of initial conditions.

37

38 GEOS-Chem simulates PM_{2.5} concentrations as the sum of sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻),
39 ammonium (NH₄⁺), organic aerosol (OA ≡ primary OA + secondary OA), black carbon (BC),
40 fine dust and fine sea salt component concentrations. The sulfate–nitrate–ammonium (SNA)



1 aerosol system was simulated following Fountoukis and Nenes (2007) and Park et al. (2004),
2 including heterogeneous chemistry with dinitrogen pentoxide (N_2O_5) uptake by aerosol, and
3 hydroperoxyl radical (HO_2) uptake by aerosol. Gas–aerosol partitioning of SNA was simulated
4 by the ISORROPIA II thermodynamic equilibrium scheme (Pye et al., 2009). We used a simple
5 scheme to represent secondary organic aerosol formation (Heald et al., 2012) and used a spatially
6 resolved ratio to calculate organic mass from organic aerosol concentrations (Philip et al., 2014).
7 Natural dust simulation followed the Mineral Dust Entrainment and Deposition (DEAD) scheme
8 (Fairlie et al., 2007). Sea salt aerosol simulation was described in Jaeglé et al. (2011). Dry
9 deposition of gases and particles followed a standard resistance-in-series scheme, with updates
10 from Jaeglé et al. (2018). Wet deposition was described in Liu et al. (2001), Wang et al. (2011)
11 and Wang et al. (2014), with updates from Luo et al., (2020) that included a faster below-cloud
12 scavenging of HNO_3 . We calculated the simulated $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and composition concentrations at 35%
13 relative humidity (RH) for consistency with ground-based measurements.

14

15 2.2 Emissions for baseline simulation

16

17 We conducted a baseline simulation (“Base” run in Table 1) for 2015 January, April, July,
18 October and treated the mean of the four months as annual mean. Our simulations were all at a
19 resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$, unless otherwise specified. The baseline simulation used emissions as
20 described below.

21

22 Anthropogenic emissions for China were taken from the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory
23 (MEIC) for 2015 (Zheng et al., 2018), and for the rest of the world were taken from the
24 Community Emissions Data System (CEDS) version 2 for 2015
25 (<https://data.pnnl.gov/dataset/CEDS-4-21-21>). Other emissions were default in GEOS-Chem.
26 Fine anthropogenic fugitive dust emissions from combustion and industrial sources for countries
27 except China (FR_AFCID) were taken from Philip et al. (2017), and from the MEIC inventory
28 for China (CH_AFCID). Aircraft emissions were from the Aviation Emissions Inventory Code
29 (AEIC) inventory (Stettler et al., 2011). Natural emissions include lightning NO_x from Murray et
30 al. (2012), soil NO_x , biogenic non-methane volatile organic carbons (NMVOCs) and sea salt
31 from off-line emissions developed by Weng et al. (2020), biomass burning emissions from the
32 Global Fire Emissions Database version 4 (GFED4; Randerson et al., 2015), volcano emissions
33 from Fisher et al. (2011), marine dimethyl sulfide (DMS) emissions from Breider et al. (2017)
34 and dust emissions using the Mineral Dust Entrainment and Deposition (DEAD) scheme (Zender
35 et al., 2003).

36

37 2.3 Sensitivity simulations for the contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions to China 38 $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ and composition concentrations

39



1 We quantified contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions to China total and
2 compositional $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations by taking the difference of the baseline simulation (“Base”
3 run in Table 1) and a sensitivity simulation that excluded foreign anthropogenic emissions from
4 the baseline simulation (“CHAnth” run in Table 1). Such a foreign contribution is referred to as
5 “FR_total”.

6
7 We further conducted sensitivity simulations to attribute the transboundary pollution to 1)
8 direct transport of foreign $PM_{2.5}$ to China and 2) chemical interactions between transported
9 foreign pollutants and Chinese emissions. We quantified the contribution of direct transport in
10 transboundary pollution (referred to as “FR_transport”) by taking the difference of a sensitivity
11 simulation that excluded China anthropogenic emissions (“FRAnth” run in Table 1) and another
12 sensitivity simulation that excluded both China and foreign anthropogenic emissions (“NoAnth”
13 run in Table 1). Transboundary pollution through chemical interactions with China’s local
14 emissions (referred to as “FR_chemistry”) were calculated as the differences between total
15 foreign anthropogenic contributions (FR_total) and direct transport contributions (FR_transport).

16
17 We conducted sensitivity simulations to understand main pollutants driving the chemical
18 interactions of transboundary pollution with Chinese emissions. Specifically, we quantified the
19 contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions of NMVOCs to O_3 , NO_3 and N_2O_5 , HNO_3 and
20 NO_3^- concentrations in China. Chemical interactions between foreign anthropogenic emissions of
21 NMVOCs and China domestic emissions of pollutants were calculated as the differences of total
22 contributions by foreign anthropogenic emissions of NMVOCs (“Base” –
23 “No_FRAnthNMVOCs” runs in Table 1) and the direct transport share of the total contributions
24 (“FRAnthNMVOCs” – “NoAnth” runs in Table 1).

25
26 To reduce computational costs, we conducted NMVOCs-related sensitivity simulations at a
27 resolution of $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$ (Table 1). The differences of $PM_{2.5}$ over eastern China between $2^\circ \times 2.5^\circ$
28 and $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$ resolutions is about 5% ($3 \mu g m^{-3}$). Compositional differences are within 20%,
29 with the largest difference in nitrate ($2.6 \mu g m^{-3}$; 18%) and the lowest in black carbon ($0.1 \mu g m^{-3}$;
30 4%). These differences are within the reasonable range associated with spatial resolutions.

31 32 **3. Ground-level observations of $PM_{2.5}$ and compositions in China and other Asian** 33 **countries**

34
35 We evaluated the modeled $PM_{2.5}$ and composition concentrations in the base year (2015) using
36 ground-level $PM_{2.5}$ observations from the network of China National Environmental Monitoring
37 Center (CNEMC), the literature search and the World Health Organization (WHO) database.

38
39 Ground-level $PM_{2.5}$ observations were obtained from the CNEMC network
40 (<http://106.37.208.228:8082/>). We used hourly measurements for 2015 January, April, July and



1 October. PM_{2.5} mass concentrations were measured using the micro-oscillating balance method
2 or the β- absorption method (Zhang and Cao, 2015). We further applied quality controls to
3 hourly CNEMC data. Specifically, we removed a day if there were < 14 valid data within the day
4 and removed a month if there were < 25 days of valid data within the month. These in whole
5 removed 12% PM_{2.5} hourly data, and finally retained observations for 1179 sites in 314 cities for
6 model evaluation (Fig. S2). To compare with the GEOS-Chem simulated PM_{2.5} concentrations,
7 we calculated the grid-averaged and monthly-averaged PM_{2.5} concentrations from the CNEMC
8 to match spatially and temporally with the model.

9
10 We collected compositional PM_{2.5} observations from publicly available studies, as shown in
11 Table S1. We selected observations that spun at least one-year or seasonal/monthly
12 measurements centered at January, April, July or October to match our model simulations. A
13 total of 56 observation data from 17 cities in 16 provinces for 2014–2016 were collected for
14 major PM_{2.5} chemical composition, including sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, organic aerosol (OA),
15 and black carbon. We sampled the GEOS-Chem simulated concentrations from locations and
16 periods (monthly or annual) of observations for evaluation.

17
18 To evaluate the modelled PM_{2.5} concentrations outside China, we collected PM_{2.5}
19 measurement data for 2013–2016 from the WHO ambient air pollution in cities database
20 (<https://www.who.int/data/gho/data/themes/air-pollution>). This database provides annual average
21 PM_{2.5} concentrations for more than 500 cities globally. We retained PM_{2.5} measurements that
22 were directly measured and excluded data inferred from PM₁₀ concentrations. We also retained
23 the sites within our simulation domain and the grid cells where anthropogenic emissions
24 exceeded natural emissions (by comparing PM_{2.5} concentrations in “FRAnth” and “NoAnth”
25 runs in Table 1). A total of 83 sites covering 10 Asian countries (Bangladesh, Indonesia, India,
26 Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippine, Thailand and Vietnam) were finally selected in
27 our study as shown in Fig. 2a. Because of the differences in measurement approaches between
28 jurisdictions, and the absence of details regarding measurement data (Brauer et al., 2016), we
29 compared annual average PM_{2.5} concentrations in the WHO dataset with those estimated from a
30 hybrid of satellite observations, a chemical transport model and ground-based measurements
31 (van Donkelaar et al., 2021). We removed the sites if the differences were more than 40%. The
32 final sites retained in our study are shown in Fig. 2b.

33 34 **4. PM_{2.5} and compositions concentrations across China and other Asian countries**

35
36 Figure 1 shows modelled and observed annual mean concentrations of PM_{2.5} and compositions
37 across China. The modelled total and compositional PM_{2.5} are for 2015. Observations of total
38 PM_{2.5} are for 2015 and of compositions are for 2014–2016. The spatial distribution of modelled
39 PM_{2.5} exhibits a broad high across the eastern China, driven primarily by sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate
40 (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), and organics (OA). PM_{2.5} over the Sichuan Basin is also high,



1 contributed mostly by sulfate, ammonium and organics. The enhanced $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations over
2 the west is dominated by mineral dust. Compared to observations, the modelled $PM_{2.5}$ well
3 reproduces the spatial variation of $PM_{2.5}$ across China, with a correlation coefficient (r) of 0.73
4 and a normalized mean bias (NMB) of 15.7%. The slight overestimation is primarily contributed
5 by sites in the Sichuan Basin (Figure S2a), where local emissions (anthropogenic and vegetation
6 emissions; Wang et al., 2018), meteorological conditions (humid and stagnant; Chen et al., 2014;
7 Liao et al., 2017), combined with the special terrain (plain surrounded by hills; Chen et al., 2014;
8 Wang et al., 2017) make it hard for the model to represent aerosol processes, especially the
9 secondary aerosol formation process (Liao et al., 2017; Tao et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2018).

10

11 We further evaluate our modelled compositional $PM_{2.5}$ with observations from 56 sites across
12 16 provinces and municipalities in China to better understand the performance of the simulation.
13 The scatterplots of composition comparison in Fig. 1 show a mixture of annual and monthly data
14 depending on the availability of observations data from the literature. We find that the modelled
15 compositional $PM_{2.5}$ reasonably reproduce the vast spatial variation of $PM_{2.5}$ composition from
16 observations. Sulfate and nitrate simulations are particularly improved over previous model
17 studies where sulfate was significantly underestimated (NMB~40%) and nitrate was
18 substantially overestimated (NMB~80%; Gao et al., 2018; Miao et al., 2020). The better
19 representation of nitrate is owing to the faster nitrate removal in the Luo et al. (2020) deposition
20 scheme. Organics are also well reproduced by the model (NMB=4.7%), suggesting the
21 effectiveness of the simple SOA scheme in representing total SOA mass. Ammonium and black
22 carbon show relatively large discrepancies (NMB = 24.9% and -12.8%, respectively), potentially
23 reflecting model biases in chemical reactions or gas-particle partition for ammonium formation
24 (Miao et al., 2020) and emission inventories for BC (Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, outstanding
25 differences in observations approaches (i.e., thermal, optical or incandescence measurements for
26 black carbon; different relative humidity in measurements; Bond et al., 2013; Snider et al., 2016)
27 across literature is another major reason for the discrepancies.

28

29 The evaluation of modelled $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations for other Asian regions has been rarely
30 conducted due to limited observations (Kopplitz et al., 2017). Here, we compare our modelled
31 $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations with observations from 10 Asian countries around China to understand the
32 model performance in regions whose pollution could influence China through transboundary
33 transport. Figure 2 shows good agreement between modelled and observed total $PM_{2.5}$ mass
34 across countries, with a correlation coefficient of 0.76 and a NMB of 3.5%, despite large
35 uncertainties in the measurements collected by different countries. There is an underestimate at
36 coastal sites (e.g., in Philippine; Fig. 2a) where sea salt aerosols potentially make larger
37 contributions than our simulations. Specifically, our simulated $PM_{2.5}$ is very consistent with
38 observations in the Southeast Asia (NMB = 2.7%; including Indonesia, Myanmar, Philippines,
39 Thailand and Vietnam), India (3.8%) and other countries in South Asia (NMB=7.9%; including
40 Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka). Simulations over Japan and South



1 Korea show relatively larger bias (NMB = 17.4% for Japan and 40% for South Korea). Zhai et
2 al. (2021) attributed the 43% bias in the GEOS-Chem simulation of surface PM_{2.5} over South
3 Korea in their study to nighttime nitrate formation, although their updates of faster below-cloud
4 scavenging of HNO₃ (Luo et al., 2020) corrected the overall nitrate bias in East Asia.

5 6 **5. Contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions to total and compositional PM_{2.5} in** 7 **China**

8
9 Figure 3 shows the contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions to total and
10 compositional PM_{2.5} concentrations over China in 2015. On the national level, foreign
11 anthropogenic emissions contribute about 2.4 μg m⁻³ PM_{2.5} to China in 2015, accounting for
12 6.2% of the national average PM_{2.5} concentration. The foreign influence exhibits prominent
13 spatial heterogeneity, with the largest contribution of 5.0 μg m⁻³ PM_{2.5} (8%) to the eastern China
14 (outlined in Fig. 3; including Anhui, Hebei, Henan, Jiangsu, Liaoning, Shandong, Beijing and
15 Tianjin). Considering the WHO newly-revised guideline for PM_{2.5} annual exposure level (≤ 5 μg
16 m⁻³), foreign anthropogenic emissions alone would make PM_{2.5} concentrations over the eastern
17 China reach the WHO standard, threatening the health of nearly 500 million residents there.
18 Transboundary pollution is also outstanding along the southwestern border, contributing 4.9 μg
19 m⁻³ PM_{2.5} (18%) to Yunnan province, mostly driven by anthropogenic emissions from South Asia
20 (i.e., India).

21
22 The transboundary pollution over the eastern and the southwestern China is contributed by
23 different chemical components of PM_{2.5}, as shown in Fig. 3. The eastern China is mainly driven
24 by nitrate and ammonium, explaining 70% of transboundary PM_{2.5}. Particularly, 18% of nitrate
25 and 12% of ammonium concentrations over the eastern China in 2015 are driven by
26 transboundary pollution. Leibensperger et al. (2011) and Koplitz et al. (2017) found similar
27 nitrate enhancement yet to a much lesser extent (< 0.2 μg m⁻³). They attributed the nitrate
28 enhancement to the increase in ozone that speeded up the rate at which Chinese local NO_x
29 emissions were converted to nitrate. We will discuss the mechanism in more detail in the next
30 section. The sulfate contribution is very small (< 0.5 μg m⁻³). Leibensperger et al. (2011)
31 proposed a reason that H₂O₂ (the key oxidant for sulfate formation) is abundant most of the year
32 over the eastern China, thereby insensitive to additional transboundary source. When H₂O₂-
33 limited conditions prevail in winter, cloud cover is infrequent, limiting the in-cloud oxidation of
34 SO₂. Thus, the influence of transboundary pollution to sulfate over the eastern China is weak.
35 The transboundary PM_{2.5} over the southwestern China is primarily contributed by organics (1.8
36 μg m⁻³; 37% of transboundary PM_{2.5}), which is consistent with previous studies that found
37 massive biomass burning emissions in South Asia contributed considerable organics to the
38 southern China (Jiang et al., 2013). Sulfate contributes 27% of transboundary PM_{2.5} over the
39 southwestern China, where the inflow of hot and humid atmosphere from the South Asia
40 facilitates the in-cloud formation of sulfate (Jiang et al., 2013). In addition, anthropogenic



1 fugitive dust emissions from foreign countries make an influence to China PM_{2.5}, accounting for
2 14% of the PM_{2.5} increase in both the eastern and southwestern regions, as shown in Figure S3.

3
4 We further investigate the seasonal variation of transboundary pollution in China to
5 understand potential sources of foreign contributions. Figure 4 presents the seasonal
6 enhancement of PM_{2.5}, nitrate and ammonium over China in 2015 driven by foreign
7 anthropogenic emissions. Transboundary pollution of PM_{2.5} over the eastern China is the largest
8 in January (6.9 μg m⁻³) and gradually decreases to the smallest in July (2.7 μg m⁻³). Affected
9 regions also change prominently with seasons. In January, the boundary of transboundary PM_{2.5}
10 larger than 9 μg m⁻³ extends to the south of the eastern China domain outlined in Fig. 4, whereas
11 in July, that boundary shrinks to a much smaller region along the east coast. These seasonal
12 characteristics of transboundary PM_{2.5} are similar to those of nitrate and ammonium. In January,
13 68% transboundary PM_{2.5} over the eastern China is contributed by nitrate (4.7 μg m⁻³) and 19%
14 by ammonium (1.3 μg m⁻³), yet these fractions decrease to 11% for both nitrate and ammonium
15 in July. The transboundary nitrate for the majority of the eastern China exceeds 5 μg m⁻³ in
16 January, yet decreases to less than 1 μg m⁻³ and even negative in July. These prominent seasonal
17 variations of transboundary PM_{2.5}, nitrate and ammonium reflect different processes controlling
18 the transboundary pollution in winter and summer in China.

19

20 **6. Physical and chemical mechanisms of foreign anthropogenic contributions to PM_{2.5}** 21 **over eastern China**

22

23 We investigate the relative importance of direct transport and chemical interactions in driving
24 the considerable transboundary pollution over the eastern China in January and July, as shown in
25 Figure 5. In January, the transboundary PM_{2.5}, nitrate and ammonium are predominantly (71–
26 97%) driven by chemical interactions, suggesting that the transboundary pollution in winter over
27 the eastern China is not through direct transport of nitrate and ammonium, but through chemical
28 interactions between directly transported precursors from foreign countries and local emissions
29 in China. In July, however, nearly all transboundary PM_{2.5} over the eastern China is driven by
30 direct transport, with 30% of the direct transport contributed by anthropogenic fugitive dust from
31 foreign countries (Fig. S3). The transboundary nitrate is still primarily driven by chemical
32 interactions in July (89%), yet the magnitude is too small to substantially affect total PM_{2.5}.

33

34 We further explore the changes in key chemical species for nitrate formation to understand the
35 chemical mechanism driving the considerable nitrate enhancement over the eastern China. Figure
36 6 shows the contributions of transboundary pollution to concentrations of precursor gases (NO_x),
37 oxidants (O₃, N₂O₅ and NO₃) and oxidized products (total inorganic nitrate including gas-phase
38 HNO₃ and particulate NO₃⁻) in nitrate chemistry over the eastern China in January and July. Fig.
39 6 (top) shows that, in January, 3.6 ppb O₃ are directly transported from foreign countries, yet
40 52% (1.9 ppb) of which further undergo chemical reactions, leading to a drop of NO_x (-1.8 μg N



1 m⁻³) and an increase of N₂O₅+NO₃ and HNO₃+NO₃⁻ (0.88 μg N m⁻³) concentrations over the
2 eastern China. The presence of excess ammonia over the eastern China due to the reduction of
3 SO₂ (Liu et al., 2018, 2019) further partitions nearly all HNO₃ gas to into particulate nitrate
4 (nitrate ammonium, NH₄NO₃), leading to about 1 μg N m⁻³ (or 2.6 μg m⁻³) nitrate increase there.
5 These results reveal that, in January, the additional O₃ from transboundary sources interact with
6 local emissions of NO_x over the eastern China and promote the nitrate formation, which
7 otherwise would be limited by the lack of O₃ (Jin and Holloway, 2015; Li et al., 2018; Wang et
8 al., 2017). Fig. 6 (top) further reveals that 93% of the direct transboundary transport of ozone and
9 eventually 72% of the nitrate increase over the eastern China is contributed by foreign
10 anthropogenic emissions of NMVOCs. Thus, the transboundary transport of ozone precursors
11 (primarily NMVOCs) combined with high domestic emissions of NO_x and ammonia in winter
12 makes the considerable increase of nitrate concentrations over the eastern China.

13
14 In July, however, although foreign sources contribute about 2 ppb O₃ to the eastern China
15 through direct transport, they hardly lead to much difference in nitrate concentrations (Fig. 6
16 bottom). This is because that a lack of excess aerosols (compared to winter) limits the
17 transformation of N₂O₅ and NO₃ to HNO₃ on aerosol surface. In addition, the oxidation of NO_x
18 by OH is sufficiently fast in summer and the abundance of OH over the eastern China in summer
19 makes the NO_x oxidation process insensitive to the added O₃ from foreign countries. Therefore, a
20 lack of excess aerosols and the abundance of OH in summer makes the transboundary transport
21 of ozone precursors minor in contributions to nitrate concentrations over the eastern China.

22 23 **7. Conclusions**

24
25 An effective air quality improvement action requires an accurate understanding of PM_{2.5}
26 sources. This work complements our understanding of PM_{2.5} sources in China by investigating
27 the influence of foreign transboundary transport through the GEOS-Chem simulation. Our
28 extensive and comprehensive evaluation of the GEOS-Chem model for PM_{2.5} total and
29 compositional mass concentrations in China and 10 additional Asian countries showed a
30 reasonable consistency with observations. Based on model simulations, we found that foreign
31 anthropogenic emissions played an important role in Chinese PM_{2.5} pollution, because of direct
32 aerosol transport and, more importantly, chemical interactions between transboundary pollutants
33 and China's local emissions. Over the eastern China, the transport of NMVOCs from foreign
34 anthropogenic emissions increased the background O₃ level by 3.3 ppb, which combined with
35 high local emissions of NO_x and ammonia led to a nitrate enhancement of 2.6 μg m⁻³ in January.
36 Over the southwestern China, transboundary transport contributed 18% PM_{2.5} to Yunnan
37 province in 2015, mostly driven by the direct transport of aerosols from anthropogenic emissions
38 in South Asia. There are a few sources of uncertainty in this study, for example the wet
39 deposition of nitrate and the simplified secondary organic aerosol formation scheme, but they do
40 not manifest themselves as systematic biases.



1 In light of the physical and chemical mechanisms of transboundary pollution in China, further
2 improvements of air quality for the “Beautiful China” target requires different emission
3 reduction strategies for different regions. Over the eastern China, reductions of both foreign and
4 domestic anthropogenic emissions can reduce transboundary PM_{2.5} pollution to China, since a
5 considerable amount of transboundary transported PM_{2.5} is formed through the chemical
6 interactions between pollutants from both sources. Over the southwestern China, foreign
7 emission reductions will be necessary for improving air quality there since the transboundary
8 pollution was primarily through the direct transport of aerosols from foreign countries. Given the
9 declining trend of Chinese anthropogenic emissions in the present and the future, the likely rising
10 emissions from adjacent countries in the future could become an increasingly important problem
11 for Chinese air quality protection if no action is taken to avoid emissions increases in adjacent
12 countries. Our study points to the need to carefully consider the potential influence of
13 transboundary pollution when making the long-term air quality improvement strategies in China.
14 Future studies could further investigate the impact of transboundary pollution transport to China
15 under future emission scenarios, or extend this study to other regions in the world where
16 transboundary pollution could potentially increase domestic PM_{2.5} pollution through nitrate
17 chemistry.

18

19 **Data availability**

20

21 Data presented in this paper are available upon request to the corresponding author.

22

23 **Author contributions**

24

25 J.L. led the study. J.X. and J.L. designed the study. J.X. performed the model simulations and
26 conducted the data analysis. J.A. collected observation data of PM_{2.5} compositions from the
27 literature. H.K. processed PM_{2.5} observations from the CNEMC website. J.X. wrote the
28 manuscript with inputs from J.L. All authors commented on the manuscript.

29

30 **Competing interests**

31

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

33

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35

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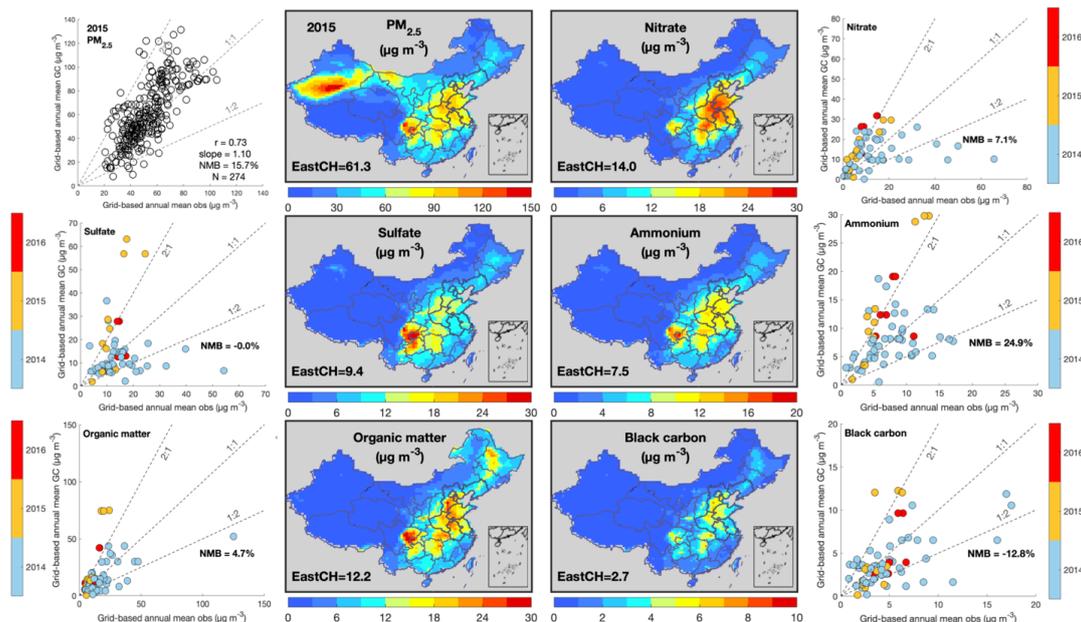
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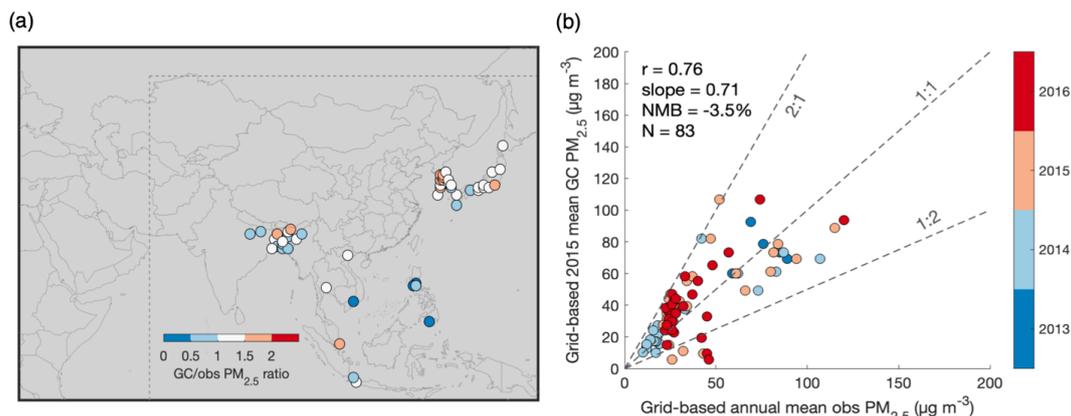
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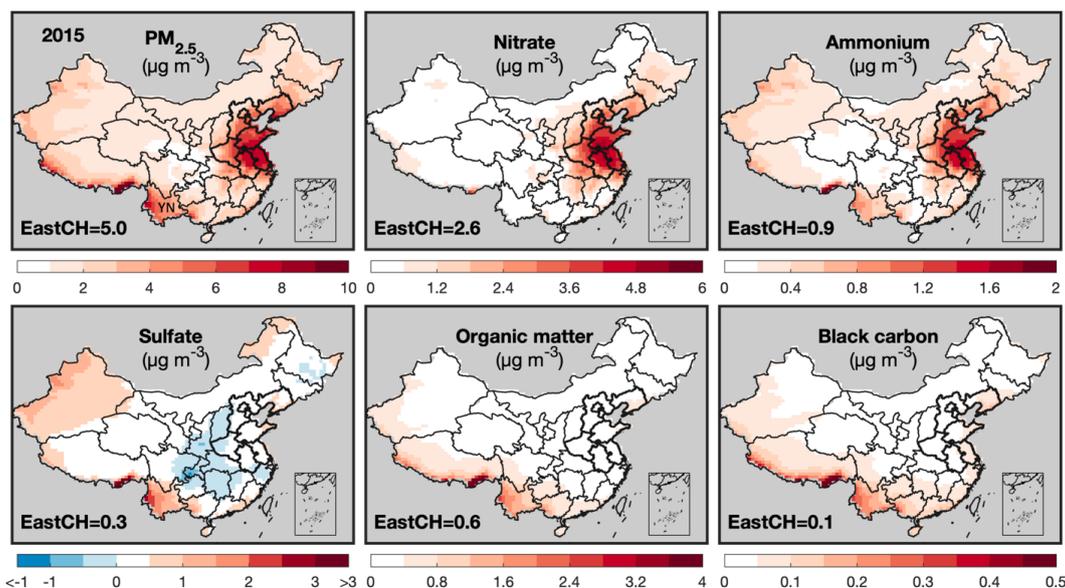
4 **Figure 1.** Total and compositional $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations in China. Spatial distributions of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$
5 and composition concentrations are annual mean concentrations simulated by the GEOS-Chem
6 model for 2015 January, April, July and October with a resolution of $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$. We regard
7 the mean of the four months as annual mean. Thick black lines outline the eastern China
8 discussed in this work. Text in the bottom left corner of each map refers to mean concentrations
9 ($\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$) over the eastern China. The scatterplot of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ compares the simulated annual mean
10 concentrations with collocated and coincident observations for 2015 from the CNEMC network.
11 Scatterplots of composition compares both annual and monthly concentrations of the observed
12 and the coincident simulated concentrations according to the availability of observations from
13 the literature for 2014-2016.

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Figure 2. Annual mean $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at anthropogenic emission dominated sites in the simulation domain outside China. (a) The spatial distribution of simulated and observed $PM_{2.5}$ concentration ratios. The simulated concentration at each measurement site represents the $0.5^\circ \times 0.625^\circ$ grid cell covering that site. Dashed lines represent the default nested Asia domain ($11^\circ S$ – $55^\circ N$, 60° – $150^\circ E$) in the model. The flex-grid domain in our study is shown as the entire domain of the map. (b) Scatterplot comparing simulated concentrations for 2015 with collocated observations from the WHO for 2013–2016.

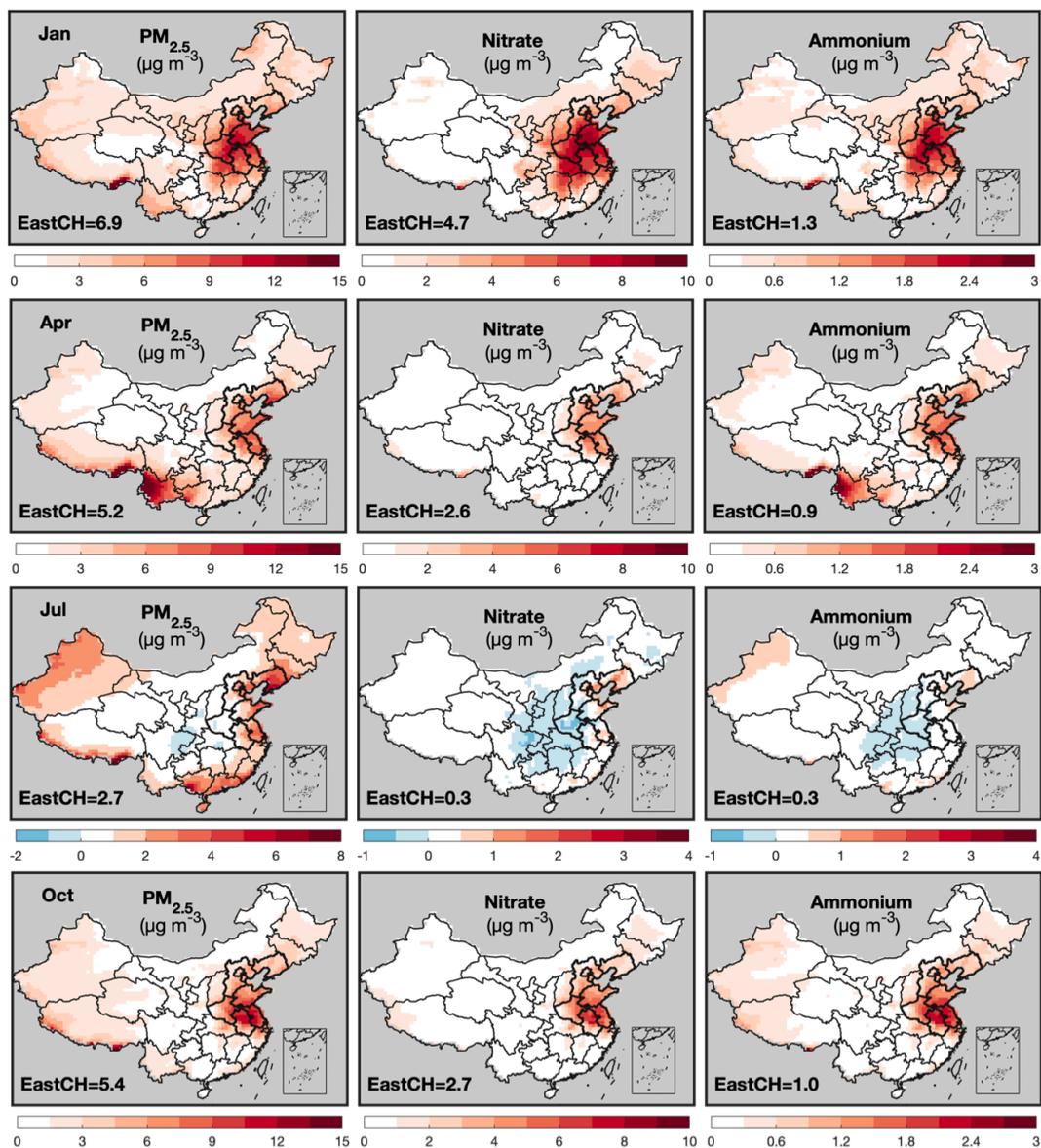


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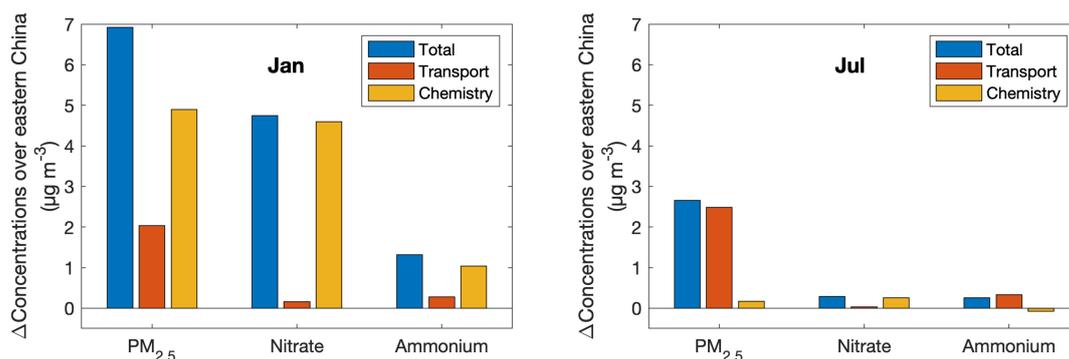
Figure 3. Simulated annual mean contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions to China’s total and compositional $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in 2015. Thick black lines outline the eastern China discussed in this work. Text in the bottom left corner of each panel refers to mean concentrations ($\mu g m^{-3}$) over the eastern China contributed by foreign anthropogenic emissions. The foreign



1 impact on China's anthropogenic dust concentrations are shown in Figure S3. YN in the PM_{2.5}
2 subplot refers to the location of Yunnan province.
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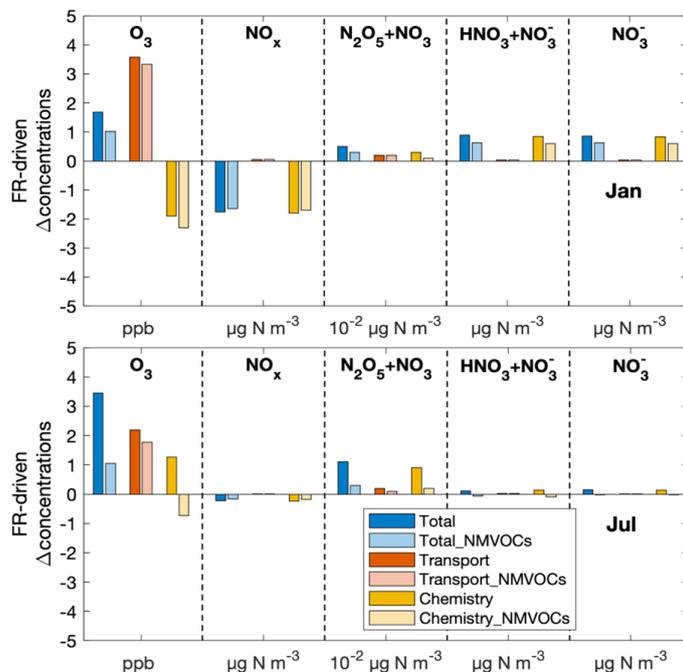


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6 **Figure 4.** Same as Fig. 3, but for January, April, July and October as denoted by text in the top
7 left corner of each row.
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Figure 5. Foreign anthropogenic contributions to PM_{2.5}, nitrate and ammonium concentrations in January and July over the eastern China. Total concentration contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions are split into contributions from direct transport and chemical interactions according to the legend. The contributions to other PM_{2.5} components are shown in Figure S4.



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Figure 6. Contributions of foreign anthropogenic emissions of total aerosols and NMVOCs to atmospheric oxidizing capacity and oxidation products over the eastern China as simulated by the GEOS-Chem model for 2015 January (top) and July (bottom). Total foreign anthropogenic contributions are split into contributions from direct transport and chemical interactions according to the legend. O₃ concentrations are 24-hour average concentrations. Nitrogen-related species are presented in the unit of μg N m⁻³ for the convenience of nitrogen budget calculation.



1 **Table 1.** Configuration summary of GEOS-Chem simulations in this study. Emission
 2 abbreviations are elaborated in Section 2.2.

Foreign contribution type		FR_Total		FR_Transport		FR_NMVOCs	
Simulation name		Base	CHAnth	FRAnth	NoAnth	No_FRAnthNMVOCs	FRAnthNMVOCs
Emissions	CHAnth (MEIC+CH_AFCID)	Y	Y	N	N	Y	N
	FRAnth (CEDS+FR_AFCID)	Y	N	Y	N	N	Y
	VOCs OTR ¹					Y	Y
Other (Shipping+aircraft+natural)		Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Resolution		0.5° x 0.625°		0.5° x 0.625°		2° x 2.5°	
Simulation period (year/month)		2015/1,4,7,10		2015/1,4,7,10		2015/1,7	
Met fields		MERRA2		MERRA2		MERRA2	

3 ¹OTR refers to other species including SO₂, NO_x, NH₃, BC, OC, CO, etc.