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Article:

Su, X, Wu, T, Zhang, J et al. (9 more authors) (2022) Present-Day PM2.5 over Asia: Simulation and Uncertainty in CMIP6 ESMs. Journal of Meteorological Research, 36 (3). pp. 429-449. ISSN 2095-6037

https://doi.org/10.1007/s13351-022-1202-7

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3	Uncertainty in CMIP6 ESMs
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24 25	Submitted November 21, 2021
26	Supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China
27	(2016YFA0602100), and the UK-China Research & Innovation Partnership Fund
28	through the Met Office Climate Science for Service Partnership (CSSP) China as part
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32	©The Chinese Meteorological Society and Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2022

ABSTRACT

This study assesses the ability of ten Earth System Models (ESMs) that 34 35 participated in Phase 6 of the Coupled Model Intercomparison Project (CMIP6) to reproduce the present-day inhalable particles with diameters less than 2.5 micrometers 36 (PM_{2.5}) over Asia and discusses the uncertainty. PM_{2.5} accounts for more than 30% of 37 the surface total aerosol (fine and coarse) concentration over Asia, except for Central 38 Asia. The simulated spatial distributions of PM2.5 and its components, averaged for the 39 period from 2005 to 2020, are consistent with the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis 40 for Research and Applications version 2 (MERRA-2) reanalysis. They are 41 characterized by the high PM2.5 concentrations over eastern China and northern India 42 where anthropogenic components such as sulfate and organic aerosol dominate, and in 43 northwestern China where the mineral dust in PM_{2.5} fine particles (PM_{2.5}DU) dominate. 44 The present-day multi-model mean (MME) PM_{2.5} concentrations slightly underestimate 45 ground-based observations in the same period of 2014-2019, although observations are 46 affected by the limited coverage of observation sites and the impact of urban areas. 47 Those model biases partly come from other aerosols (such as nitrate and ammonium) 48 not involved in our analyses, and also are contributed by large uncertainty in PM_{2.5} 49 simulations on local scale among ESMs. The model uncertainties over East Asia are 50 mainly attributed to sulfate and PM_{2.5}DU; over South Asia they are attributed to sulfate, 51 organic aerosol and PM2.5DU; over Southeast Asia they are attributed to sea salt in 52 PM_{2.5} fine particles (PM_{2.5}SS); and over Central Asia they are attributed to PM_{2.5}DU. 53 54 They are mainly caused by the different representations of aerosols within individual ESMs including the representation of aerosol size distributions, dynamic transport, 55 physical and chemistry mechanisms. 56

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- 60 Citation: Su, X. L., T. W. Wu, J. Zhang, et al., 2017: Present-day PM2.5 in Asia:
- 61 simulation and uncertainty in CMIP6 ESMs. J. Meteor. Res., **36**(x), XXX-
- 62 XXX, doi: 10.1007/s13351-022-0xxx-x.
- 63

64 **1. Introduction**

Aerosol is a multiphase system composed of solid particles and liquid droplets, 65 suspended in a gaseous carrier phase (e.g., air). Atmospheric aerosols can include 66 minerals (e.g., silicates) originating from soils and rocks, carbonaceous components 67 (black carbon and organic carbon), sulfates, nitrates, ammonium salts, sea salts and 68 biogenic components (Wang and Zhang, 2001; Zhang Y. et al., 2019). Through either 69 70 direct (Coakley et al., 1983; Jacobson, 2001; Bond et al., 2013; Li et al., 2017) or 71 indirect effects on atmospheric radiation (Charlson et al., 1992; Guo et al., 2018; Liu et 72 al., 2021), aerosols are well recognized to significantly influence weather and climate at regional and global scales (Menon et al., 2002; Lau et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2007; 73 Tosca et al., 2010; Bollasina et al., 2011; Li et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011, 2013; 74 Hwang et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2016a; Zhang et al., 2021). Aerosols can also cause 75 serious environmental problems such as fog, haze, photochemical smog and acid rain, 76 77 with significant impacts on the hydrological cycle, new energy development, agricultural production and transportation (Ramanathan et al., 2001; Haywood et al., 78 2011; Singh et al., 2017; Sweerts et al., 2019). Fine particulate matter with particle 79 diameters less than 2.5 µm, commonly termed PM_{2.5}, are generally thought of as one of 80 the main causes of air pollution and have an adverse effect on human health. According 81 to the Global Burden of Disease 2010 comparative risk assessment (GBD, Lim et al., 82 2012), roughly 3.2 million deaths per year are attributable to ambient PM_{2.5}. 83 Understanding and predicting PM2.5 and its spatial and temporal variations are therefore 84 vital for reducing mortality and other impacts on the environment (Apte et al., 2015). 85

With the development of Earth System Models (ESMs), the importance of coupling between multiple components of the Earth System, including atmosphere, ocean, land and sea ice, has gradually been recognized, and increasingly improved

within these ESMs. ESMs have become an important tool to simulate and forecast 89 global aerosols (Collins et al., 2017) and can not only fill the gaps between historical 90 91 observations, but also estimate the trends of aerosols in the future, and thus provide a basis for assessing the evolution of air pollution in both the past and future. The 92 performance of ESMs to reproduce the observed aerosols is an important issue for 93 climate modelling communities. In fact, the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate 94 95 Model Intercomparison Project (ACCMIP) was endorsed by the Fifth Coupled Model Intercomparison Project Phase 5 (CMIP5), and tended to focus on the atmospheric 96 97 chemistry (Lamarque et al., 2013), with only a few models providing the simulation results for aerosols (Collins et al., 2017). The Aerosols and Chemistry Model 98 Intercomparison Project (AerChemMIP, Collins et al., 2017), part of the Sixth Coupled 99 Model Intercomparison Project Phase 6 (CMIP6, Eyring et al., 2016), provides an 100 opportunity to understand the performance of the latest ESMs in simulating aerosols. 101 There are few relevant assessments on the performance of CMIP6 ESMs in simulating 102 aerosols (Mulcahy et al., 2020; Wu et al., 2020). They show that most of the current 103 generation of ESMs such as BCC-ESM1 and UKESM1 can reproduce the global spatial 104 distributions of most aerosol components (e.g., sulfate) concentrations, although there 105 are some model biases for certain components. 106

107 It is important to understand the evolution of ground-level PM_{2.5} over Asia as it 108 is one of the most heavily polluted regions on the globe, and has the highest mortality 109 rate attributed to atmospheric pollution (Apte et al., 2015). Previous studies show that 110 most of the CMIP6 ESMs can capture the spatial distributions of surface PM_{2.5} 111 concentrations across the globe but underestimate the absolute magnitude (Turnock et 112 al., 2020). However, the ability of the CMIP6 ESMs to simulate PM_{2.5} in Asia has 113 not been carefully explored so far largely due to the lack of ground-based surface

aerosol observations in Asia. In addition, the various components of PM_{2.5} have 114 seldom been utilized in previous studies, leading to the differences among models 115 116 being poorly understood.

Here, simulations of surface PM2.5 and its component concentrations from 117 ten CMIP6 ESMs are evaluated in detail against observations from surface sites 118 over Asia. Based on the ratio of PM2.5 to main aerosol mass and the relative 119 120 contributions of each component to PM2.5, differences among models are revealed. The remaining parts of this manuscript are as follows: the research data and methods 121 122 are presented in section 2; in section 3, we assess the ability of the CMIP6 ESMs to simulate the spatial distribution of PM_{2.5} and its main components in Asia; in section 4, 123 we analyze their model-spread among 10 ESMs; uncertainties in evaluating PM_{2.5} 124 concentrations is discussed in section 5; a summary is given in section 6. 125

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2. Data and Methods

The monthly mean PM_{2.5} components, including sulfate, organic aerosol (OA), 128 black carbon (BC), dust, and sea salt, from ten ESMs participated in CMIP6 are 129 employed in this study. The model information is described in Table 1 and all the model 130 data can be freely download from the Earth System Grid Federation (ESGF) nodes 131 (https://esgf-node.llnl.gov/search/cmip6/, last access: 10 January 2022). All the models 132 use the same anthropogenic emission inventory from the Community Emissions Data 133 System (CEDS, Hoesly et al., 2018, http://www.globalchange.umd.edu/ceds/ceds-134 cmip6-data/) and their own schemes for simulating natural emissions such as dust and 135 sea salt aerosols, which have different representations of the aerosol size distribution 136 (Collins et al., 2017). The model data is obtained from the CMIP6 historical 137

- experiments (Eyring et al., 2016) before 2015 and from the SSP370 experiments in
- 139AerChemMIP (Collins et al., 2017) afterward.

CMIP6 ESMs	Institution	Resolution and Vert levels in Atmosphere	Aerosol Component Name and References	Natural aerosols size bins (μm)	Model and Data References
BCC-ESM1	Beijing Climate Center, China Meteorological Administration, China	2.813° × 2.813°; L26; top level at 2.91hPa.	BCC- AGCM3- Chem, Wu et al., 2020.	Dust (4 size bins: 0.1–1, 1–2.5, 2.5–5, 5–10µm); Sea salt (4 size bins: 0.2–1, 1–3, 3–10, 10– 20µm)	Wu et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2018, 2019a
CESM2- WACCM	National Center for Atmospheric Research, United States	0.9° × 1.25°; L70; top level at 6x10 ⁻⁶ hPa.	MAM4, Liu et al., 2016.	Dust and sea salt (log-normal size distribution)	Danabasoglu et al., 2020; Danabasoglu, 2019a, 2019b
EC-Earth3- AerChem	European consortium of meteorological services, research institutes, and high-performance computing centers	3°× 2°; L34; top level: 0.1 hPa.	TM5, Krol et al., 2005; Huijnen et al., 2010.	Dust and sea salt (7 size bins, log- normal size distributions)	Van Noije et al., 2021; EC- Earth Consortium, 2020a, 2020b
GFDL-ESM4	NOAA Geophysical Fluid Dynamics Laboratory, United States	Cubed-sphere (c96) grid, with ~100 km native resolution, regridded to 1.0° × 1.25° ; L49; top level at 0.01 hPa.	GFDL AM4.1, Horowitz et al., 2020.	Dust (5 size bins: 0.1–2, 2–4, 4–6, 6– 12, 12-20µm); Sea salt (5 size bins)	Dunne et al., 2020; John et al., 2018; Krasting et al., 2018
IPSL- CM5A2- INCA	Institut Pierre Simon Laplace, Paris, France	3.75°× 1.875°; L39; top level 80km.	INCA v6 NMHC- AER-S	Dust and sea salt particles are partitioned into 3 size classes (< 1 μ m, 1-10 μ m, >10 μ m), Szopa et al., 2013	Sepulchre et al., 2020; Boucher et al., 2020a, 2020b
MIROC- ES2L	University of Tokyo, National Institute for Environmental Studies, and Japan Agency for Marine-Earth Science and Technology, Japan	2.813° × 2.813°; L40; top level at 3.0 hPa.	SPRINTAR S, Takemura et al., 2000, 2005, 2009.	Dust (10 size bins: from 0.1 to 10 μ m); Sea salt (10 size bins: from 0.05 to 10 μ m, lognormal distribution)	Hajima et al., 2020; Hajima et al., 2019; Tachiiri et al., 2019
MPI-ESM-1- 2-HAM	Max Planck Institute for Meteorology, Germany	1.875° × 1.875°; L47; top level at 0.01 hPa.	HAM2.3, Tegen et al., 2019.	Dust and sea salt size distribution is represented by 7 lognormal modes	Neubauer et al., 2019a, 2019b
MRI-ESM2-0	Meteorological Research Institute, Japan	1.125° × 1.125°; L80; top level at 0.01 hpa.	MASINGA R mk-2r4c, Yukimoto et al., 2019a; Oshima et al., 2020.	Dust and sea salt (10 size bins: from 0.1 to 10 μm)	Yukimoto et al., 2019a; Yukimoto et al., 2019b, 2019c
NorESM2- LM	Norwegian Climate Center, Norway	1.9° × 2.5°; L32; top level at 3.64 hPa.	OsloAero6, Kirkeväg et al., 2018; Seland et al., 2020.	Dust and sea salt, lognormal distribution	Kirkeväg et al., 2018; Seland et al., 2019a, 2019b
UKESM1-0- LL	Natural Environment Research Council, and Met office, United Kingdom	1.25° × 1.875°; L85; top level at 85km.	GLOMAP- Mode, Mulcahy et al., 2020.	Dust (6 size bins); Sea salt (5 size bins)	Sellar et al., 2019; Good et al., 2019; Tang et al. 2019

Not all CMIP6 ESMs provide $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, even for some ESMs with available $PM_{2.5}$, they use different methods to calculate it. In order to uniformly evaluate the ability of ESMs to simulate $PM_{2.5}$, it is necessary to find a consistent method to calculate $PM_{2.5}$. Therefore, following the methods used in other studies (Silva et al., 2013; Turnock et al., 2020), the formula used to estimate $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations from the ESMs data is expressed as

$$PM_{2.5} = BC + OA + SO_4 + (0.1 \times DU) + (0.25 \times SS),$$
(1)

where BC, OA, SO₄, DU, SS represent the black carbon (CMIP6 diagnostic identifier: mmrbc), organic aerosol (mmroa), sulfate (mmrso4), dust (mmrdust) and sea salt (mmrss) mass mixing ratio (kg kg⁻¹), respectively. All the aerosol mass concentrations in the lowest layer of each ESM are taken as the near surface values from simulations in this work. The particles for BC, OA and SO₄ aerosols are generally less than 2.5 μ m in diameter.

156 In Eq. (1), 10% and 25% of dust and sea salt particles are assumed to be present within the fine size fraction of less than 2.5 µm in diameter. We validated this 157 assumption for dust and sea salt from additional BCC-ESM1 simulations which 158 provided output across four-size bins of dust (DST01: 0.1-1.0 µm, DST02: 1.0-2.5 µm, 159 DST03: 2.5-5.0 µm, DST04: 5.0-10 µm) and sea salt (SSLT01: 0.2-1.0 µm, SSLT02: 160 1.0-3.0 µm, SSLT03: 3.0-10 µm, and SSLT04: 10-20 µm) aerosols (Wu et al., 2020). 161 Only the ESGF provides total aerosol mass mixing ratios so we only have access to full 162 size resolved aerosol data from BCC-ESM1. As shown in Figure 1, the estimated PM_{2.5} 163 164 fine particles concentrations for dust (hereafter $PM_{2.5}DU$) and sea salt ($PM_{2.5}SS$) from the Eq. (1) are nearly consistent to that from the original BCC-ESM1 simulations (fine 165 size fraction less than 2.5 µm in diameter calculated by summing by DST01 and 166 167 DST02, SSLT01 and SSLT02, respectively).



Fig. 1. Annual mean of near surface $PM_{2.5}DU$ and $PM_{2.5}SS$ concentrations in Asia (70–140° E, 5–55° N) during 2005–2020 from BCC-ESM1 simulations. (a) and (b) denotes the estimated values by Eq. (1) for $PM_{2.5}DU$ and $PM_{2.5}SS$, respectively. (c) and (d) show the original model data for total of dust and sea salt with fine size fraction less than 2.5 µm in diameter. Units: µg·m⁻³.

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174 To evaluate the present-day PM_{2.5} climatology in ESMs, the following groundbased observations are used: monthly mean surface PM2.5 observations during 2014-175 2019 at 25 sites in Asia from the Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia 176 (hereafter EANET data, http://www.eanet.asia, last access: 16 December 2020) and 348 177 urban sites in China available from the Chinese National Environmental Monitoring 178 Center (hereafter CNEMC data, http://www.cnemc.cn, last access: 16 December 2020). 179 180 The CNEMC data have been used in previous studies (Wei et al., 2019; Wei et al., 2020). In order to examine the observation uncertainty due to the impact of urban 181 effects, monthly mean PM_{2.5} concentrations at two atmospheric background stations 182

from the Meteorological Observation Center, China Meteorological Administration (hereafter CMA data, Zhang et al., 2020) are compared with the nearby urban sites from CNEMC data, as well as from a pair of urban and suburban ground-based observations in Thailand (Pathumwan and KlongHa) from the Asia-Pacific Aerosol Database (APAD, Cohen and Atanacio, 2015). The geographic distributions of all the observation sites and division of Asian subregions used in the study are shown in Figure 2.

189 Considering the sparsely covered and unevenly distributed ground-based observation, the Modern-Era Retrospective Analysis for Research and Applications, 190 191 version 2 (MERRA-2) data, a high-resolution $(0.5^{\circ} \times 0.625^{\circ})$ assimilation data product (including sulfate, organic aerosols, black carbon, dust and sea salt) developed by 192 combining satellite observations with the Goddard Earth Observing System 193 atmospheric model and atmosphere data assimilation system (Buchard et al., 2016; 194 Randles et al., 2017) is further used. The MERRA-2 data is widely used by many 195 studies in evaluation of aerosols simulations (Turnock et al., 2020; Ukhov et al., 2020; 196 Li et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2021). For inter-comparison between ESMs and MERRA-197 2, we derive the monthly MERRA-2 PM_{2.5} data from 2005 to 2020 using the same 198 equation (1), on the basis of the monthly sulfate, organic aerosols, black carbon, and 199 total mass of dust and sea salt aerosols mass data that are directly downloaded from the 200 website (https://gmao.gsfc.nasa.gov/reanalysis/MERRA-2/data access/, last access: 16 201 202 December 2020). In this study, all model data were interpolated to the same horizontal resolution of 0.5°×0.625° latitude/longitude grids as in MERRA-2, and onto the site 203 locations when compared with the ground-based observations. 204



Fig. 2. Locations of observation sites in Asia (70–140° E, 5–55° N) from EANET (blue triangles, 25
sites), CNEMC (red circles, 348 urban sites), CMA (green circles, 2 background stations) and APAD
(purple hollow squares, 2 adjacent sites). The dashed areas represent the various parts of Asia, including
Central Asia (CA), East Asia (EA), South Asia (SA) and Southeast Asia (SEA).

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3. The present-day climate of PM_{2.5} and its components in

212 Asia

213 3.1 PM_{2.5} concentrations

In this section, we will focus on the spatial features of present-day climate mean PM_{2.5} from 2005 to 2020. Figure 3 shows the percentage contribution of PM_{2.5} to the total aerosol (fine and coarse) concentration in Asia, including sulfate, OA, BC, and all particle sizes of dust and sea salt. The results from MERRA-2 (Fig. 3l) shows a relatively high proportion of PM_{2.5} over East Asia and Southeast Asia and the contribution is up to 60%-80% over the southeastern coast of China. Central Asia is an arid or semi-arid region and has the lowest proportion (less than 30%) of PM_{2.5}, where mineral dust is generally the main source of aerosols, and coarse particles dominate. For the multi-model mean (MME, Fig. 3k), the PM_{2.5} ratio is in overall a good agreement with MERRA-2, except for MIROC-ES2L (Fig. 3f). MIROC-ES2L shows the largest proportion of fine particulate matter in eastern China, which is about 20% higher than in MME and MERRA-2.

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Fig. 3. The 2005–2020 mean PM_{2.5} ratios to main aerosol (including all particle sizes of dust and sea salt,
sulfate, organic aerosol and black carbon) in Asia (70–140° E, 5–55° N) for (a-j) the 10 ESMs, (k) their
MME, and (l) MERRA-2. Units: %.

Figure 4a shows the spatial distribution of present-day mean of surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in the 373 ground-based observations from CNEMC and EANET,

averaged for the period of 2014-2019. Annual mean surface PM2.5 concentrations in 233 most parts of eastern China can be over 40 μ g m⁻³, and the highest values are mainly 234 centered over the Beijing-Tianjin-Hebei region where PM2.5 concentration may be over 235 $60 \ \mu g \ m^{-3}$. High annual mean PM_{2.5} concentrations are also present over northwestern 236 China, mainly contributed by mineral dust. In the area south of 25°N, the annual mean 237 PM_{2.5} concentrations are generally smaller, which may be caused by strong wet 238 deposition and lower emissions. Japan and Korea are also regions with values of annual 239 mean PM_{2.5} concentrations less than 20 µg m⁻³. Figures 4b-4k show the point-to-point 240 241 comparisons between ten ESMs simulations separately with 373 ground-based observations in the same period from 2014 to 2019. They illustrate that most models 242 underestimate the observations, although all ESMs show high spatial correlations of 243 0.52 to 0.74 and 0.69 for MME (Fig. 41). The underestimation of PM_{2.5} concentrations 244 245 by CMIP6 models in this study partly comes from the use of the approximate method to calculate $PM_{2.5}$ (Equation (1)), in which nitrate (NO₃⁻) and ammonium (NH₄⁺) 246 aerosols are not involved. Those underestimations also exist in CMIP5 models (Wu et 247 al., 2016b; Liu et al., 2017). 248



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Fig. 4. (a) 2014–2019 averaged annual mean surface PM_{2.5} concentrations for 373 sites from EANET
(triangles, 25 sites) and CNEMC (circles, 348 urban sites) in Asia. (b-m) Scatterplots of surface PM_{2.5}
concentrations for each ESMs and their MME, and MERRA-2, separately comparing to the
observations from EANET and CNEMC sites during the same period. RMSE stands for root-meansquare error, and COR for correlation coefficient. The grey lines represent the 1:1 line, 1:2 line and 2:1

255

line, respectively. Units: $\mu g m^{-3}$.

As shown in Figure 4m, the MERRA-2 data also underestimate the observed PM_{2.5} concentrations at 373 sites. Nevertheless, MERRA-2 can provide the overall spatial distribution of PM_{2.5} in Asia with better temporal and spatial coverage and compensate for the gaps not covered by site observations. As shown in Fig. 51, the spatial distribution of annual mean surface PM_{2.5} concentrations averaged for 2005 to 2020 from MERRA-2 is similar to that from ground-based observations (Fig. 4a). Except for the two regions with high surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in eastern China and

northwestern China that can be found from ground-based observations, MERRA-2 (Fig.
51) also shows a third region of high-concentration centered in northern India where
there are high local emissions and where the Himalayas plays a large role in preventing
dispersal of aerosols (Shi et al., 2018). The PM_{2.5} concentrations are less than 5µg m⁻³
over the Tibetan Plateau (about 73–104° E, 26–39° N) and Mongolia Plateau (about 87–
122° E, 37–53° N), where human activities are weak.

Surface PM_{2.5} concentration ($\mu g m^{-3}$)



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Fig. 5. 2005–2020 averaged annual mean surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in Asia (70–140° E, 5–55° N)
from (a-j) 10 ESMs, (k) their MME, and (l) MERRA-2. Units: μg m⁻³.

The main spatial features of surface $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations are generally well captured by the ESMs (Fig. 5a-k) in comparison with MERRA-2 (Fig. 5l), except over

the offshore area where MERRA-2 data overestimated sea salt as pointed out in 276 Buchard et al. (2017). However, there exists a large diversity among models, especially 277 over the three PM_{2.5} centers (eastern China, northern India, and in the northwestern 278 China and Mongolia, Fig. 6a). The amplitude of model-spread (that is denoted by the 279 standard deviation of simulated PM2.5 concentration among 10 ESMs in the study) over 280 the northwestern China and Mongolia are close to the MME regional PM2.5 281 concentration (Fig. 6b). Specifically, CESM2-WACCM (Fig. 5b) overestimates PM2.5 282 in Taklimakan desert of central Xinjiang (> 60µg m⁻³), and MRI-ESM2-0 (Fig. 5h) has 283 284 an abnormally high-value center in the Mongolian plateau. The dominant species of PM_{2.5} vary with regions as well as the one responsible for the model-spread in PM_{2.5} 285 simulation, which will be discussed in detail in section 4. 286





Ratio of model-spread to MME for PM_{2.5} (%)



- Fig. 6. The model-spread (units: μg m⁻³) among the 10 ESMs and the ratio (units: %) of model-spread to
 MME for annual mean of surface PM_{2.5} concentration during 2005-2020.
- 291

292 3.2 The main components of PM_{2.5} concentrations

293 Sulfate, OA, and BC are the main PM_{2.5} aerosols from anthropogenic emissions in Asia and are the main PM2.5 species over eastern China and northern India (Fig. 7-294 9). In MERRA-2, sulfate (Fig. 7l) and BC (Fig. 9l) concentrations in eastern China are 295 higher than those in northern India, whereas the spatial distribution for OA shows the 296 opposite (Fig. 81). The MME can generally reproduce the spatial distribution for sulfate 297 (Fig. 7k), OA (Fig. 8k), and BC (Fig. 9k) although their magnitudes are underestimated 298 for sulfate but overestimated for OA and BC. There are significant differences in the 299 simulations of sulfate and OA among various ESMs. MRI-ESM2-0 (Fig. 7h) has the 300 301 highest concentration of sulfate in southeastern China, while IPSL-CM5A2-INCA (Fig. 7e) has the lowest sulfate concentrations. CESM2-WACCM (Fig. 8b) and UKESM1-302 0-LL (Fig. 8j) have larger concentrations of OA than other ESMs, which may be caused 303 by different volatile organic compounds (VOC) and secondary organic aerosol (SOA) 304 formation mechanisms in the ESMs. UKESM1-0-LL also shows the largest BC 305 concentration than the others (Fig. 9j). 306 307

Surface Sulfate concentration (μ g m⁻³)



Fig. 7. The same as in Fig. 5, but for the sulfate.



Surface Organic Aerosol concentration (μ g m⁻³)

311 Fig. 8. The same as in Fig. 5, but for the organic aerosol.



Surface Black Carbon concentration ($\mu g m^{-3}$)

312

Fig. 9. The same as in Fig. 5, but for the black carbon.

PM_{2.5}DU and PM_{2.5}SS are the natural components in PM_{2.5}. As shown in Fig. 314 315 10, PM_{2.5}DU is responsible for the PM_{2.5} center (Fig. 5) over the northwestern China and Mongolia. The PM_{2.5}DU concentrations from MME (Fig. 10k) is similar to that 316 from MERRA-2 (Fig. 101). But there are large differences in PM_{2.5}DU simulations 317 among 10 ESMs. CESM2-WACCM (Fig. 10b) and GFDL-ESM4 (Fig. 10d) simulated 318 larger PM_{2.5}DU concentrations than other models. And the PM_{2.5}DU in MIROC-ES2L 319 320 (Fig. 10f) is much smaller than MERRA-2 (Fig. 10l), with PM_{2.5}DU differences up to 20 µg m⁻³. In MRI-ESM2-0 (Fig. 10h), the high PM_{2.5}DU center extends eastward to 321 north China and the amplitude of PM2.5DU is about twice of that in the east, which is 322

not evident in MERRA-2 (Fig. 10l). In addition, MPI-ESM-1-2-HAM (Fig. 10g) 323 simulated excessive amount of PM2.5DU in northern part of Tibetan plateau, which is 324 distinctive from other models. PM2.5SS is another important natural aerosol mainly 325 distributed over oceans and coastal regions. The PM2.5SS concentration over land is 326 lower than the other species in PM_{2.5}, and the differences among ESMs are generally 327 small (Fig. 11). Due to the known overestimation of sea salt in MERRA-2 (Buchard et 328 329 al., 2017), there are significant differences between the MME and MERRA-2 (Fig. 11k and Fig. 111). 330



Surface PM_{2.5} Dust concentration (μ g m⁻³)

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Fig. 10. The same as in Fig. 5, but for the PM_{2.5} fine particles of dust.



Surface PM_{2.5} Sea Salt concentration ($\mu g m^{-3}$)

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Fig. 11. The same as in Fig. 5, but for the PM_{2.5} fine particles of sea salt.

335

4. Uncertainties in simulated PM_{2.5} concentrations from

337 **ESMs**

4.1 The uncertainty in the anthropogenic and natural PM_{2.5} species

Figure 12 shows the model-spread among ten ESMs for main anthropogenic components of $PM_{2.5}$, sulfate, OA, and BC. The regions of large model-spread are evident over eastern China, northern India, and Sichuan Basin, the main anthropogenic emission centers in Asia. All the ESMs used the same anthropogenic emissions

inventory (Hoesly et al., 2018). Large model-spread for anthropogenic aerosols in 343 individual ESMs thus mainly comes from the different way that individual models 344 represent chemical and physical processes relevant for aerosols including dynamic 345 transport, dry deposition, gravitational settling, wet scavenging by clouds and 346 precipitation, and even their chemical processes (Textor, et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2020). 347 For example, the sulfate (Fig. 12a) uncertainty is generally larger over eastern China 348 349 and the Sichuan Basin than over northern India, which probably results from different gas-phase and aqueous-phase conversion from SO₂ except for the above reasons. Large 350 351 uncertainty over the Sichuan Basin is also caused by unique topography (Liu et al., 2021). The BC (Fig. 12c) uncertainty is relatively weaker as the results are mainly 352 determined by the prescribed anthropogenic emissions. For OA (Fig. 12b), the 353 concentration differences also may be caused by the way that models represent various 354 natural biogenic VOC (SOA precursors) emissions. 355

Natural aerosols are important sources of uncertainty in PM2.5 simulation among 356 ESMs. The PM_{2.5}DU uncertainty prevails over the northwestern China and Mongolia, 357 the Mongolian plateau, and the Northwestern part of Indian Peninsula (Fig. 13a). There 358 are many reasons for the significant model-spread in dust simulations. In addition to 359 the effects of dynamic transport, and wet and dry depositions, large model-spread is 360 mainly caused by the difference in driving mechanisms of dust emissions that depend 361 on the meteorological drivers (winds and precipitation), especially in East China and 362 South Asia, associated with large-scale monsoonal circulations (Wilcox et al., 2020; 363 Zhao et al., 2022), the land surface conditions (Aryal et al., 2021), and the 364 representation of aerosol size distributions (Zhao et al., 2022). And the model 365 complexities also have the influence on dust concentrations (Zhao et al., 2022). As for 366 sea salt aerosols (Fig.13b), it has lower concentrations than other species, and its 367

spreads among models are less than 1 μ g m⁻³ over land. Sea salt emissions are mainly 368 determined by near surface wind across the ocean (Wu et al., 2020). It is possible that 369 there is a small model-spread in surface winds across the ocean leading to less spread 370 in sea salt emissions, although inter-model differences in advective transport, and wet 371 or dry deposition will be similar to those for dust (Witek et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2020), 372 which can also affect the simulation of sea salt. 373



376 Fig. 12. The model-spread of annual mean concentrations for anthropogenic aerosols during 2005-2020.

377 (a) sulfate, (b) OA, and (c) BC. Units: µg m⁻³.





Fig. 13. The same as in Fig. 12, but for the natural aerosols. (a) $PM_{2.5}DU$ and (b) $PM_{2.5}SS$. Units: $\mu g m^{-3}$.

381 The Taylor diagram in Figure 14 statistically examines the spatial distribution as well as the spatial variability of the differences between ESMs and MERRA-2 for 382 main species of PM_{2.5}. The spatial distribution of BC concentrations simulated by ESMs 383 are the best captured with spatial correlation coefficients of 0.9-0.97, followed by 384 sulfate, OA, PM_{2.5}DU, and PM_{2.5}SS. For PM_{2.5}DU, there are large differences between 385 the individual ESMs and MERRA-2, with normalized standard deviations ranging from 386 0.2 to 3.5 and spatial correlation coefficients from 0.4 to 0.87. The normalized standard 387 deviations of CESM2-WACCM and MRI-ESM2-0 are greater than 2, indicating that 388 the spatial variability of PM2.5DU is largely overestimated in the two models. Although 389 the spatial correlation coefficient of PM_{2.5}SS can be 0.95 or higher, the normalized 390 standard deviations of less than 0.6 in all ESMs, resulting from the overestimation of 391 PM_{2.5}SS in MERRA-2. In general, although there are differences between individual 392





Fig. 14. Taylor diagram of the annual mean surface components (sulfate, organic aerosols, black carbon,
PM_{2.5}DU, PM_{2.5}SS) concentrations simulated by the 10 ESMs compared with the MERRA-2 reanalysis
data during 2005-2020 in Asia (70–140° E, 5–55° N). The radial coordinate shows the standard deviation
in the spatial pattern, normalized by the observed standard deviation. The azimuthal variable shows the
correlation of the modeled spatial pattern with the observed spatial pattern.

406 4.2 The uncertainty in dominant PM_{2.5} components over different subregions

407	Each component of PM2.5 has different contributions to the PM2.5 concentrations
408	in various regions, and the contributions vary between the individual ESMs. Here we
409	analyzed four regions as illustrated in Fig. 2, Central Asia (CA), East Asia (EA), South
410	Asia (SA) and Southeast Asia (SEA). In the whole Asian region (70°–140° E, 5°–55°
411	N), the area-averaged MME $PM_{2.5}$ is smaller than for MERRA-2 (by 3.7 μg m $^{-3},$ Fig.
412	15), which is largely attributed to their difference in $PM_{2.5}SS$. The main $PM_{2.5}$
413	components in Asia are sulfate and OA, accounting for 28% and 32% of the $PM_{2.5}$ in
414	the MME, respectively. $PM_{2.5}DU$ is the third main $PM_{2.5}$ components in Asia,
415	accounting for 21% of the $PM_{2.5}$ in the MME. The largest model-spread among the five
416	main PM _{2.5} species comes from PM _{2.5} DU (Fig. 16), indicating its largest contribution
417	to the PM _{2.5} uncertainty over Asia.





Fig. 15. Histograms of 2005–2020 averaged concentrations of PM_{2.5} and their components (sulfate,
organic aerosols, black carbon, PM_{2.5}DU, PM_{2.5}SS) from 10 ESMs, their MME, and MERRA-2 for Asia

423 (70–140° E, 5–55° N). Units: μ g m⁻³. The mean value in MME and model diversity for the five main 424 PM_{2.5} species are 3.5 ±1.23 μ g m⁻³ for sulfate, 3.98 ±0.98 μ g m⁻³ for OA, 0.86 ±0.15 μ g m⁻³ for BC, 2.59 425 ±1.57 μ g m⁻³ for PM_{2.5}DU and 1.5 ±0.83 μ g m⁻³ for PM_{2.5}SS.

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The proportion of each PM_{2.5} component has large regional characteristics (Fig. 427 16). PM_{2.5}DU plays a dominant role over Central Asia, accounting for 70% of the PM_{2.5} 428 concentration. There are also considerable differences in PM_{2.5}DU model results over 429 Central Asia and the uncertainty range is almost 25 µg m⁻³. In East Asia, sulfate and 430 OA are the main $PM_{2.5}$ species, and the uncertainty is mostly attributed to $PM_{2.5}DU$ and 431 sulfate. In South Asia, the uncertainty ranges are comparable for sulfate, OA and 432 PM_{2.5}DU. In Southeast Asia, PM_{2.5}SS accounts for 35% of the PM_{2.5} in the MME, and 433 it has the largest contribution to the PM2.5 uncertainties. Overall, it appears that the 434 regions of large model diversity are consistent with high concentrations areas for the 435 five components. 436



5. Uncertainties in evaluating PM_{2.5} concentrations

The above analyses have shown that surface PM_{2.5} concentrations from ESMs 445 446 simulations are lower than those from individual observations at CNEMC and EANET sites. One possible reason is the spatial heterogeneity of ground-based observations and 447 the urban effect on PM_{2.5} concentrations. It is noticed that all the CNEMC sites are 448 located in urban areas, whereas ESMs simulate average PM2.5 concentrations across a 449 coarse model grid larger than 100 km and is hard to identify the differences between 450 urban and suburban area. Figure 17a shows time series of surface PM2.5 concentrations 451 at one city and its neighboring suburban site in Thailand from APAD data (Cohen et 452 al., 2015). It is clear that the surface $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at the urban location are 453 evidently higher than those at the neighboring suburban site. The urban site in Thailand 454 is in a residential-university-shopping district containing commercial buildings and 455 small industrial factories. The emissions mainly come from human activities (including 456 automobile exhausts, residential cooking and heating from buildings). By contrast, the 457 suburban site is surrounded by residential areas with brick-timbered houses, trees and 458 grass. Urban observatories are more polluted than suburban ones, even when they are 459 geographically close to each other. This is also evident in the two pairs of urban and 460 neighboring suburban sites in China (Fig. 17b and 17c). Differences between 461 downtown and suburban sites in the same city may be higher than 10 μ g m⁻³, and the 462 results in ESMs are closer to those at suburban sites. 463



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Fig. 17. Time series of surface PM_{2.5} concentrations in neighboring city and suburb from APAD, CMA,
CNEMC and MME. Red and blue lines represent observations at urban and suburban sites, respectively.
Black lines represent the simulations from MME. Units: μg m⁻³.

Another important reason for the uncertainty in evaluation is the method to calculate $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations. Firstly, Eq. (1) used in this study does not include all the aerosol components that constitute $PM_{2.5}$, such as ammonium and nitrate aerosols, which are generally included in observations but not model derived $PM_{2.5}$, especially important over eastern China where nitrate aerosols may be responsible for over 20% of $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations in winter (Liu et al., 2017). In addition, Eq. (1) assumes fixed percentages of the total mass of dust (10%) and sea salt (25%) aerosols present within the fine size fraction (i.e., less than 2.5 microns in diameter), which are notconsistent among ESMs, and also is not suitable for the MERRA-2 data.

478

479 **6. Summary**

This study uses five main components of aerosols (i.e., sulfate, organic aerosol, 480 black carbon, dust and sea salt) that are simulated by ten CMIP6 ESMs to calculate 481 surface PM2.5 concentrations over Asia. Ground-based observation networks as well as 482 the MERRA-2 reanalysis are used to evaluate the ability of current ESMs to simulate 483 PM_{2.5} and its components. In Asia, PM_{2.5} accounts for more than 30% of the total 484 aerosol (including all particle sizes), except for Central Asia. The spatial distribution of 485 PM_{2.5} and its main components in the MME are in a good agreement with MERRA-2 486 and available ground-based observations. High $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations (> 40 µg m⁻³ in 487 MERRA-2) are simulated in three regions located in eastern China and in northern India 488 mainly consisting of anthropogenic aerosols, and in northwestern China due to high 489 concentrations of mineral dust. The contribution of each aerosol component to the 490 MME PM_{2.5} across Asia are mainly from sulfate (28%), OA (32%), and PM_{2.5}DU 491 (21%). The proportions of components making up the MME $PM_{2.5}$ are also regionally 492 dependent. PM_{2.5}DU accounts for more than 70% of PM_{2.5} in Central Asia and PM_{2.5}SS 493 for about 35% of PM_{2.5} in Southeast Asia in the MME. 494

Our analysis shows that $PM_{2.5}$ from ESMs are biased low in the comparison with ground-based observations. It may be partly due to the unevenly distributed ground-based observations and the effect of urban areas, as well as the formula used to derive the $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations in this work which does not consider the contributions of nitrate and ammonium compounds. Compared to the MERRA-2 reanalysis data, the MME underestimates $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations averaged across Asia by about 3.7 µg m⁻³, which is possibly due to large $PM_{2.5}SS$ overestimation in MERRA-2.

There are large uncertainties in simulations of PM_{2.5} and its components among 502 the 10 ESMs. Inter-model differences in PM_{2.5} are mainly attributed to sulfate and 503 PM_{2.5}DU over East Asia, and PM_{2.5}DU over Central Asia. For South Asia, the 504 uncertainty ranges are comparable for sulfate, OA and PM2.5DU. PM2.5SS has the 505 largest uncertainty range in Southeast Asia. The differences in the simulation of PM_{2.5} 506 and its components amongst the 10 ESMs to a large extent reflect the different 507 algorithms used to prognose aerosol variations in the individual ESMs including the 508 509 dynamic transport, dry deposition, gravitational settling, wet scavenging, chemical processes, meteorological drivers, land surface conditions, and the representation of 510 aerosol size distributions. 511

This work is the first to highlight ESM model biases in the simulation of 512 PM_{2.5} concentrations across Asia using observations and a reanalysis dataset. 513 Analyzing the individual aerosol components highlights the potential 514 515 improvements to ESMs and the certain aspects of their individual aerosol schemes 516 to target. It is noted that the ground-based observations used in this work are relatively sparse. The regional feature for PM_{2.5} and its components in ESMs still needs further 517 investigations using more data with high spatial and time resolutions that retrieved from 518 satellite observations (Wei et al., 2020; Yan et al., 2020, 2021) in the future. 519

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Acknowledgments. We would like to thank Meteorological Observation Center, China
Meteorological Administration for providing surface PM_{2.5} data at atmospheric
background stations.

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