Assessing the variability of Aerosol Optical Depth over India in response to future scenarios: Implications for carbonaceous aerosols

Nidhi L Anchan¹, Basudev Swain², Amit Sharma³, Aishwarya Singh¹, Chakradhar Reddy Malasani¹, Arundathi Chandrasekharan¹, Utkarsh Kumar¹, Narendra Ojha⁴, Pengfei Liu⁵, Marco Vountas⁶, and Sachin S Gunthe⁷

¹Indian Institute of Technology Madras
²Institute of Environmental Physics, Department of Physics, University of Bremen
³Indian Institute of Technology Jodhpur
⁴Physical Research Laboratory (PRL)
⁵School of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, Georgia Institute of Technology
⁶Institute of environmental physics/University of Bremen
⁷Environmental Engineering Division, Department of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, Chennai 600036, India.

February 23, 2024

Abstract

Air pollution caused by various anthropogenic activities and biomass burning continues to be a major problem in India. To assess the effectiveness of current air pollution mitigation measures, we used a 3D global chemical transport model to analyze the projected optical depth of carbonaceous aerosol (AOD) in India under representative concentration pathways (RCP) 4.5 and 8.5 over the period 2000-2100. Our results show a decrease in future emissions, leading to a decrease in modeled AOD under both RCPs after 2030. The RCP4.5 scenario shows a 48-65% decrease in AOD by the end of the century, with the Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP) experiencing a maximum change of 25 % by 2030 compared to 2010. Conversely, RCP8.5 showed an increase in AOD of 29 % by 2050 and did not indicate a significant decrease by the end of the century. Our study also highlights that it is likely to take three decades for current policies to be effective for regions heavily polluted by exposure to carbonaceous aerosols, such as the IGP and eastern India. We emphasize the importance of assessing the effectiveness of current policies and highlight the need for continued efforts to address the problem of air pollution from carbonaceous aerosols, both from anthropogenic sources and biomass burning, in India.















Posted on 23 Feb 2024 -The copyright holder is the







'doi.org/10.22541/au.170869849.98229499/v1





Assessing the variability of Aerosol Optical Depth over India in response to future scenarios: Implications for carbonaceous aerosols

Nidhi L. Anchan^{1,2}, Basudev Swain^{3*}, Amit Sharma⁴, Aishwarya Singh^{1,2}, Chakradhar Reddy Malasani ^{1,2}, Arundathi Chandrasekharan^{1,2}, Utkarsh Kumar^{1,2}, Narendra Ojha ⁵, Pengfei Liu⁶, Marco Vountas³, Sachin S. Gunthe^{1,2†}

¹Environmental Engineering Division, Dept of Civil Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Madras, Chennai, 7 8 India ²Center for Atmospheric and Climate Sciences, India Institute of Technology Madras, Chennai, India ³Institute of Environmental Physics, University of Bremen, Germany ⁴Department of Civil and Infrastructure Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology Jodhpur, Jodhpur, India ⁵Physical Research Laboratory, Ahmadabad, India ⁶Georgia Institute of Technology, USA 10 11 12

14	Kev	Points.
14	ITCA	r onnos.

1

2

3

5

6

13

15

16

19

20

• The future changes in carbonaceous aerosols carry significant consequences for air quality together with climate change in India.

- Mitigation of carbonaceous aerosols is essential to maximize the co-benefits for future air 17 quality. 18
 - Future shifts in emissions will affect the degree of mitigation needed for anthropogenic sources over India after the year 2030.

^{*}Germany

[†]Chennai, India

Corresponding author: Basudev Swain, Sachin S. Gunthe, basudev@iup.physik.uni-bremen.de, s.gunthe@iitm.ac.in

21 Abstract

Air pollution caused by various anthropogenic activities and biomass burning continues to be a 22 major problem in India. To assess the effectiveness of current air pollution mitigation measures, we 23 used a 3D global chemical transport model to analyze the projected optical depth of carbonaceous 24 aerosol (AOD) in India under representative concentration pathways (RCP) 4.5 and 8.5 over the 25 period 2000-2100. Our results show a decrease in future emissions, leading to a decrease in modeled 26 AOD under both RCPs after 2030. The RCP4.5 scenario shows a 48-65% decrease in AOD by the 27 end of the century, with the Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP) experiencing a maximum change of $\sim 25\%$ 28 by 2030 compared to 2010. Conversely, RCP8.5 showed an increase in AOD of $\sim 29\%$ by 2050 and 29 did not indicate a significant decrease by the end of the century. Our study also highlights that 30 it is likely to take three decades for current policies to be effective for regions heavily polluted 31 by exposure to carbonaceous aerosols, such as the IGP and eastern India. We emphasize the 32 importance of assessing the effectiveness of current policies and highlight the need for continued 33 efforts to address the problem of air pollution from carbonaceous aerosols, both from anthropogenic 34 sources and biomass burning, in India. 35

³⁶ 1 Plain Language Summary

Air pollution from human activities and biomass burning is a significant issue in India. To 37 understand the efficacy of current efforts, a computer model is used to study the projected levels 38 of carbonaceous aerosols (measured as optical depth) from 2000 to 2100. The results suggest that 30 emissions are expected to decrease after 2030, leading to a drop in modeled aerosol levels. In an 40 optimistic scenario of RCP4.5, aerosol levels could decrease by 48-65% by the end of the century, 41 with the Indo-Gangetic Plain(IGP) showing the most improvement by 2030. However, in a scenario 42 without any significant measures, aerosol levels may increase by 29% by 2050 and not improve 43 significantly by the end of the century. The study indicates that it might take around 30 years for 44 current pollution control measures to make a noticeable difference in heavily polluted regions like 45 the IGP and eastern India. These findings underscore the importance of evaluating the effectiveness 46 of current policies and the need to address air pollution in India caused by carbonaceous aerosols 47 from both human activities and biomass burning. This information is crucial for policymakers 48 and the public to understand the progress made and the challenges that persist in combating air 49 pollution. 50

51 2 Introduction

Atmospheric aerosols are considered to be the most important air pollutants affecting human 52 health (Butt et al., 2016; Shiraiwa et al., 2017), atmospheric visibility (Gunthe et al., 2021), precip-53 itation patterns (Sarangi et al., 2018; Nandini et al., 2022), and regional and global climate change 54 (Levy et al., 2013; Haywood, 2021). In recent decades, rapid economic expansion, population 55 growth, and urbanization have led to increased concentrations of atmospheric aerosol components, 56 including sulfate, Black Carbon (BC), Organic Carbon (OC), and dust, particularly over the Indian 57 subcontinent (Provencal et al., 2017; David et al., 2018). In addition, Sea Salt (SS) particles are an 58 important natural contributor to aerosol mass in coastal regions. (Murphy et al., 2019; Chin et al., 59 2002). These constituents play an important role in understanding the air quality over the region. 60

Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) is an important optical property of aerosol particles, which can 61 serve as a proxy for analyzing air quality. Several studies show that the daily and monthly mean 62 AOD over heavily populated areas such as the Indo Gangetic Plain (IGP) has reached a maximum 63 of about 0.8-0.9 (Lodhi et al., 2013; M. Kumar et al., 2018). Moreover, both light-absorbing and 64 scattering carbonaceous aerosols (Black Carbon (BC) and Organic Carbon (OC) (Xie et al., 2017)) 65 are increasing over India due to increased Biomass Burning (BB) and various other anthropogenic 66 sources (Venkataraman et al., 2006; Mhawish et al., 2021). This has a positive radiative effect 67 on climate leading to an increase in near-surface temperature (Andreae & Gelencsér, 2006; Liu et 68 al., 2020) and suppression of monsoon rainfall (Andreae, 1993; Cowan & Cai, 2011) over India. 69 Additionally, these fine mode (FM), OC, and BC are associated to many cardiovascular mortality 70 and morbidity, which include lung diseases such as asthma, Chronic Obstructive Pulmonary Disease 71 (COPD), and lung cancer (Butt et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2019). Therefore, there is growing concern 72 among policymakers and the scientific community in India about the future increase in carbonaceous 73 aerosols from various BB and anthropogenic emission sources and the need to reduce these future 74 emission sources on a high priority basis (Keywood et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2017). 75

For this, four Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) were adopted in the Intergov-76 ernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) Fifth Assessment Report for the future climate pro-77 jections: RCP2.6, RCP4.5, RCP6.0, and RCP8.5, which represent global radiative forcing of 2.6, 78 4.5, 6.0, and 8.5 Watts m^{-2} (Li et al., 2016), respectively. The RCPs outline the courses of action 79 for emissions of greenhouse gases (GHGs), atmospheric concentrations, air pollutant emissions, and 80 land use throughout the 21st century. According to the Synthesis Report (SYR) of the IPCC Fifth 81 Assessment Report (AR5), the four Representative Concentration Pathways (RCPs) are divided 82 into scenarios, with RCP2.6 being the scenario with strict mitigation and lowest forcing level mak-83 ing it the most optimistic scenario, followed by two mid-range scenarios - RCP4.5 and RCP6.0. 84 and finally RCP8.5, the scenario with unabated emissions, which is also likely to be a worst-case 85 scenario. In the absence of additional measures to limit emissions, often referred to as 'baseline sce-86 narios', our trajectory is expected to fall within the range of RCP6.0 to RCP8.5 (Intergovernmental 87 Panel on Climate Change, 2014). Since the RCP2.6 scenario is an optimistic model, it is difficult 88 to achieve, while RCP6.0 is between RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. Therefore, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 are 89 expected to cover a realistic range of the estimated future (Chowdhury et al., 2018). Furthermore, 90 RCP4.5 is a stabilization scenario representing a plausible pathway that could potentially limit the 91 magnitude of future climate change impacts (Chowdhury et al., 2018). 92

Over the last few decades, analysis using various models, satellite data, and ground-based 93 AERONET stations have revealed an increasing trend in the temporal mean AOD over India (Ra-94 machandran et al., 2012; Srivastava & Saran, 2017). Several studies over India and various parts 95 of the country have pointed out the increase in AOD due to regional and long-range transport of 96 anthropogenic aerosol components (Rawat et al., 2019; David et al., 2018; Rajeev et al., 2000). This 97 increase in aerosol loading is attributed to urbanization and population growth, which mainly con-98 tribute to the anthropogenic contribution of aerosols in India. Seasonal variations, especially in one ٩Q of the most affected regions, IGP, show a significant increase in AOD during November-December 100 and March-April, and a decreasing trend during May-October (Alpert et al., 2012; Chawala et al., 101 2023). To understand the future of aerosol loading in India, few studies have attempted to estimate 102 the change in AOD and some of its components under RCP scenarios. (Saha et al., 2017) estimated 103 an increase of 1.42% under RCP8.5 over the Indian subcontinent by 2036-2045 compared to base-104

lines 1996-2005. However, not many attempts have been made to understand the future changes in
 carbonaceous aerosols in the Indian region.

Fossil fuel combustion and biomass burning are the two major sources of carbonaceous aerosol 107 loading in India. The dominance of these sources over each other varies across different regions 108 throughout the country (Dutta & Chatteriee, 2021). It is also observed that the contribution of 109 fossil fuel emission is higher during pre-monsoon, whereas post-monsoon and winter are dominated 110 by biomass burning in certain parts of the country (Bikkina et al., 2019). Biomass burning is 111 closely related to emissions as well as global and regional climate change (Taylor, 2009; Reisen et 112 al., 2013). In turn, climate change may lead to more severe fires with high frequency and high 113 intensity (FLANNIGAN et al., 2009). The growing population may increase the total emissions 114 from anthropogenic as well as biomass burning emissions (Perera, 2017). An approximate increase 115 of 38% in OC and 35% in BC emissions was estimated over India during 1996-2010 (Lu et al., 116 2011; Rawat et al., 2019). BC aerosols from fossil fuel burning were reported to be approximately 117 4 times higher than biomass burning in urban regions of western India (Rajesh & Ramachandran, 118 2017). Literature also indicates that the largest amount of biomass burning occurs in Southeast 119 Asia, where an estimated 330 Tg of biomass is burned in an average year. This is primarily due to 120 a large amount of agriculture slash burn and timber harvesting carried out here (Galanter et al., 121 2000; Streets et al., 2003). In 1990, India's black carbon emissions were estimated at 0.45 Tg per year, of which 55% was from fossil fuel combustion and 45% from biomass combustion. Similarly, 123 India's organic matter emissions for the same year were estimated at 2.46 Tg per year, with 43%124 from fossil fuel combustion and 57% from biomass combustion (Shekar Reddy & Venkataraman, 125 2000). In 2018, India emitted 1480 Gg yr⁻¹ anthropogenic BC. Transport was the largest at 46%126 (673 Gg yr^{-1}) , followed by residential at 26% (387 Gg yr}^{-1}), and 16% (239 Gg yr}^{-1}) from other 127 sectors. Industry and thermal power composed 11% (161 Gg yr⁻¹) and 1% (19 Gg yr⁻¹), with 128 mobile diesel and irrigation at 2% (31 Gg yr⁻¹). Simultaneously, 2018's anthropogenic organic 129 carbon (OC) emissions hit 3116 Gg yr⁻¹. Residential biofuel burning accounted for 39% (1213 Gg 130 vr^{-1}), transport for 32% (1010 Gg vr^{-1}), and other sources for 29% (893 Gg vr^{-1}) (P. Kumar et 131 al., 2023). 132

Air pollution due to carbonaceous aerosols in India requires urgent strategies to reduce emis-133 sions, as India has set a target of net zero carbon emissions by 2070 at the UN Climate Summit 134 Conference of Parties (COP26) in Glasgow in 2021. Over the past decade, the Indian government 135 has adopted and implemented stringent measures to reduce air pollution (Gulia et al., 2022). The 136 effectiveness of these measures can be assessed by analyzing changes in aerosol loading from vari-137 ous emission sources. To quantify the impact of these emission sources in India in the future, the 138 current study aims to understand the seasonal variations of carbonaceous aerosol under futuristic 139 climate scenarios. India has spatially varying landscapes, climates, and population distribution; 140 accordingly, the study area is divided into six different regions. The objective is to understand the 141 future evolution of carbonaceous aerosols (BC+OC) due to both anthropogenic and BB emissions 142 under RCP4.5 (medium) and RCP8.5 (extreme) scenarios, thereby further providing deep insights 143 into the impact and decadal trend of AOD in India up to the end of the century (the year 2100). 144 The study excludes all climate changes that could affect the future contributions of these emission 145 sources. Instead, the focus is solely on the impact of changes in emissions, which is the primary 146 objective of policymakers to improve air quality in India in the future. 147

A description of the GEOS-Chem (GC) model, RCP scenarios, satellites, and ground-based 148 observational data is provided in section 3. A detailed overview of the study region and its clas-149 sification is presented in section 4. Section 5, compares the AOD from the model using current 150 emission inventories with the satellite and ground-based observations. Furthermore, we compared 151 the carbonaceous AOD from the 2010 GEOS-Chem simulation (GC_{2010}) obtained using the 2010 152 meteorology as well as the emissions with projected carbonaceous AOD over India under the two 153 RCP scenarios. The seasonal changes in these AOD for different regions were also examined. Sec-154 tion 6 discusses implications that may be useful for policymakers, and the main findings of the 155 study are summarized in section 7. 156

157 **3** Methodology

158

3.1 GEOS-Chem Model description

In this study, the GEOS-Chem (GC) 3-D chemical transport model (version 12.1.1) (accessible 159 at https://geoschem.github.io/, (Bey et al., 2001)) has been used. The assimilated meteo-160 rological data with 6-hour timestep has been used from Modern Era Retrospective Reanalysis2 161 (MERRA2) datasets (Song et al., 2018). The simulation domain is localized over Asia (11°S-55°N, 162 60° -150°E) with a horizontal resolution of $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.625^{\circ}$ and 47 vertical layers extending down to 163 0.01 hPa. For aerosol chemistry, GC uses aerosols, gas-aerosol phase partitioning, and O₃-NOx-164 hydrocarbon chemistry. Tracer concentrations at the lateral boundaries are derived from global 165 GEOS-Chem simulations with a horizontal resolution of $4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ}$ and an update frequency of 3 166 hours. The GC simulated AOD of different components such as black carbon (BC), organic carbon 167 (OC), dust, sulfate (SO_2) and sea salt (SS), which were further aggregated to total AOD. The sim-168 ulation for carbonaceous aerosols such as BC and primary OC(POC) follows standard GEOS-Chem 169 procedures outlined by (Park et al., 2003). 170

Simulations are conducted utilizing emissions data representative of the present-day (year 2010) 171 and future emissions spanning from 2010 to 2100 for each Representative Concentration Pathway 172 (RCP) scenario. All simulations utilize the 2010 MERRA-2 assimilated meteorological dataset. 173 The selection of the year 2010 is motivated by its relatively stable meteorological conditions (Li et 174 al., 2016), aligning well with the objective of simulating future Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) based 175 on emissions spanning from 2010 to 2100 (Song et al., 2018). This choice is particularly suitable 176 for investigations focusing on the long-term trends and climatology of aerosol emissions (Li et al., 177 2016). Each simulation is integrated over an 18-month period, with the initial 6 months designated 178 as the model initialization phase for both the nested fine resolution $(0.5^{\circ} \times 0.625^{\circ})$ and global coarse 179 resolution $(4^{\circ} \times 5^{\circ})$ simulations, which provide the boundary conditions. 180

$3.1.1 \quad Emissions$

The emissions data for each decade within the Representative Concentration Pathway (RCP) scenarios, spanning from the baseline year 2000 to 2100, encompassing carbon monoxide, nonmethane volatile organic compounds (VOCs), sulfur dioxide (SO₂), nitrogen oxides (NOx), ammonia (NH₃), black carbon (BC), and organic carbon (OC), were sourced from https://tntcat .iiasa.ac.at/RcpDb. These emissions have a spatial resolution of $0.5^{\circ} \ge 0.5^{\circ}$ and originate from various sources, including transportation (surface transportation, international shipping, and aviation), energy production (power plants and energy conversion), resource extraction, residential and
 commercial sectors, industrial activities (combustion and processing) including solvent usage, waste
 management (landfills, wastewater treatment, and incineration), agriculture (field waste burning),
 as well as grassland and forest fires.

With the exception of emissions attributed to biomass burning, shipping, and aviation, which 192 exhibit monthly variations, the RCP emissions are generally represented as annual averages. To 193 enhance the precision of aerosol simulations over India, monthly scaling factors for ozone (O_3) 194 precursors, aerosol precursors, and aerosols were derived from the MIX emission dataset for the 195 year 2010 (Li et al., 2016). Notably, for the simulation pertaining to the year 2010 in the absence 196 of RCP scenarios, we employed MIX emission inventories in conjunction with the Modern Era 197 Retrospective Reanalysis2 (MERRA-2) meteorological data. Throughout this investigation, these 198 199 gridded monthly scaling factors are systematically applied to anthropogenic RCP emissions across all years and RCP scenarios. The anthropogenic emissions specific to India from the MIX dataset are 200 primarily derived from the latest inventory accessible at http://meicmodel.org.cn/?page_id=89, 201 widely recognized for its application in aerosol modeling studies over the Indian subcontinent. 202

Fig.A1 shows the changes in the sum of anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions of SO₂, NOx, NH₃, BC, and OC over India between 2000 and 2100 as a function of RCP scenarios. In 2000, there were 5.1, 3.2, 3.8, 0.5, and 1.8 Tg species per year of SO₂, NOx, NH₃, BC, and OC 2016 emissions in India, respectively. Trends for all species over the 2000-2100 period follow a similar 2017 pattern, with peak emissions for all but NH₃ occurring between 2030 - 2040 and for OC in 2050. 2018 A significant decrease is observed in emissions between 2050 and 2100 under both scenarios. SO₂ 2029 emissions in 2100 are 68% and 30% lower than in 2000 under RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 respectively.

Under RCP4.5, NOx emissions increase (decrease) by 126% (45%) in 2040 (2100) and by 115%210 (14%) in 2030 (2100) under RCP8.5 compared to those in the year 2000. Under RCP4.5, BC (OC) 211 emissions decrease (increase) by 55% (143%) in 2100 compared to those in 2000. Under RCP8.5, 212 on the other hand, both BC and OC increased by 20% and 17%, respectively, in 2100 compared 213 to those in 2000. Under all RCP scenarios, NH_3 emissions increase steadily by 90-137% from 214 2000 to 2100, primarily due to increasing food demand and population (van Vuuren et al., 2011). 215 The natural emissions are set to 2010 and follow the configurations in the typical GEOS-Chem 216 simulation. (Sauvage et al., 2007) and (Murray et al., 2012) describe NOx emissions from lightning, 217 while (Yienger & Levy II, 1995) describes emissions from soil. Similarly, global emission inventory 218 was used for the NH₃ emissions from soils, plants, and oceans(Bouwman et al., 1997). Biogenic 219 Volatile Organic Compounds (BVOCs) such as isoprene, monoterpenes plays a crucial role in the 220 formation of secondary organic aerosols (SOA) and were determined using the Model of Emissions 221 of Gases and Aerosol from Nature (MEGAN) (Guenther et al., 2006). The weather of 2010 affected 222 the natural emissions of BVOCs, lightning NOx, and soil NOx over India. 223

224

3.2 Observations (AERONET, MODIS Terra and Aqua, and MERIS)

This section outlines the satellite and ground-based observations used in this study for comparison with the model data. The satellite observations include MODIS-Aqua and Terra, as well as MERIS. The AERONET dataset consists of data from five stations, as shown in Fig. 1. These datasets were regridded to the model resolution for analysis.

229 Satellite observations:

MODIS: Data from two Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) instru-230 ments on the Aqua and Terra satellites was used in this study. The two satellites orbit in opposite 231 directions, with Terra starting from the North and Aqua from the South. Each satellite passes 232 over the equator at a different time: Terra in the morning and Aqua in the afternoon. AOD 233 over land at 550 nm was obtained from the "Optical Depth Land and Ocean" product of the 234 level 2 aerosol product (L2 collection 6). Using the Deep Blue (over land) and Dark Target (over 235 ocean) algorithms, MODIS L2 provides complete global coverage of aerosol properties and can be 236 accessed at https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/archive/allData/61/MOD06_L2/. The 237 Deep Blue algorithm estimates AOD by analyzing different wavelengths as well as surface and at-238 mospheric feature contrast. For our analysis, the Aqua and Terra AOD data were converted to 239 model resolution. 240

MERIS: The Medium Resolution Imaging Spectrometer (MERIS) is a programmable medium 241 spectral resolution imaging spectrometer operating in the solar reflectance spectrum and carried 242 by the European Space Agency's Envisat satellite. In the spectral range from 390 nm to 1040 243 nm, fifteen spectral bands with programmable widths and positions can be selected by ground 244 command. Santer developed the aerosol retrieval technique in 2000 based on the Look-Up Tables 245 (LUT) approach for specific aerosol size distributions with specific refractive indices. Particles are 246 assumed to be spherical and ground reflection is assumed to be minimal (Kokhanovsky et al., 2007). 247 The MERIS AOD retrieval used here (Mei, Rozanov, et al., 2017; Mei, Vountas, et al., 2017) has its 248 own cloud screening procedure, aerosol type selection, and appropriate surface parameterization. 249 Although the instrument was originally not designed for retrieval of AOD because of the absence 250 of SWIR channels, it has been used in a number of cases and the retrieved AOD proved to be very 251 reliable. It should be noted that the AOD product has the native resolution of the instrument, i.e., 252 roughly 1 km^2 . 253

AERONET Level 2 aerosol product: AERosol RObotic NETwork (AERONET) is the di-254 rect ground based AOD observations that had been cloud-screened and quality-assured (Holben et 255 al., 1998). Level 2 data for five AERONET sites for 2010 over India was used in this study, obtained 256 from https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa.gov/cgi-bin/draw_map_display_aod_v3?long1=-180&long2= 257 180&lat1=-90&lat2=90&multiplier=2&what_map=4&nachal=1&formatter=0&level=3&place_code= 258 10&year=2010. As depicted in Fig.1 and our division of regions, two of the five stations are in IGP 259 (Kanpur and Gandhi College in Uttar Pradesh), and the rest is in NI (Nainital), SI (Pune), and WI 260 (Jaipur). The AOD at 550nm was used for all the AERONET stations except Pune. Due to the 261 unavailability of AOD data at 550 nm for Pune the next close wavelength of 675 nm was used in 262 the analysis. At a resolution of $0.5^{\circ} \ge 0.625^{\circ}$, the monthly averaged AERONET observations were 263 matched to the closest GEOS-Chem grid cells. 264

²⁶⁵ 4 Study Region

The Indian region extending between 8°4'N 68°7'E to 37°6'N 97°25'E encompasses diverse terrain, including the mountain ranges in the north, the Gangetic Plain, the deserts in the northwest, the central plateau, and the Deccan plateau with the eastern and western ghats on the sides. This diverse topography, coupled with variability in the population distribution, land use, land



Figure 1: The study area is divided into six different domains based on climatic conditions, seasonal variability, and aerosol variations. Pie charts display the average AOD and the distribution of its components at 550nm modeled by GEOS-Chem for the year 2010, with AERONET station locations marked by red triangles.

cover patterns, and environmental conditions, contributes to the heterogeneous nature of aerosol characteristics.

The aerosol distribution over any region is intricately linked to the sources, which in turn 272 is closely related to the demography and land use - land cover pattern. For instance, the Indo-273 Gangetic Plain (IGP) is one of the most populous regions of India, which could be attributed 274 to the availability of fertile land and water resources. The region also has the highest emissions, 275 resulting in significant amounts of various pollutants (Rawat et al., 2019; Mogno et al., 2021), with 276 the emissions from anthropogenic origin evident in the region. Carbonaceous aerosols significantly 277 contribute to the IGP region due to fossil fuel and coal burning, biomass burning such as wood, 278 burning of agricultural waste, forest fires, and other anthropogenic pollution. Similarly, the western 279 part is dominated by the dust particles from the suspension during hot and dry weather, further 280 enhanced by long-range transport from Asian and African deserts (Mitra & Sharma, 2002; Streets 281 et al., 2003; Dey et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 2010; Misra et al., 2014; Yadav et al., 2022). 282

India's climate exhibits distinct variations, primarily influenced by its geographical features. The country experiences a continental climate marked by notable seasonal changes. Southern and central regions, situated closer to the equator, undergo a tropical climate with consistently warm temperatures. In contrast, the northern and northwestern parts feature a subtropical climate characterized by relatively hotter summers and colder winters. The onset of the Southwestern monsoon, marked by prevailing southwesterly winds, impacts most of the country, while specific regions experience northeasterly winds during the reversal phase. Consequently, India's meteorological seasons are categorized into winter (December-January-February), pre-monsoon/summer (March-April-May),
 monsoon (June-July-August-September), and post-monsoon (October-November) (David et al.,
 2018; Mangla et al., 2020).

The pollution levels in a region are significantly influenced by both topography and weather 293 conditions. The Hindu Kush and the Himalayas, situated to the northwest and northeast of the 294 Indo-Gangetic Plain (IGP), along with its continental weather, contribute to elevated pollution 295 levels, particularly during the winter months (Mogno et al., 2021). The pollution events in the 296 IGP have a substantial impact on eastern India (EI) along with forest fire events in the region 297 (Ramachandran & Cherian, 2008; Biswas et al., 2017). Conversely, southern India, enveloped by 298 oceans on all sides, maintains a relatively cleaner environment. Emissions from other parts of India are not expected to exert a notable effect on the northern part of India (NI). For this study, 300 301 India has been divided into six domains (Fig.1) based on topography, climatic conditions, seasonal variability, and variation in the aerosol distribution. In Fig.1, NI, WI, EI, CI, SI and IGP represent 302 the northern, western, eastern, central, and southern parts of India and the Indo-Gangetic Plain, 303 respectively. (David et al., 2018, 2019). The ground-based AERONET stations are represented by 304 red triangles for each region. 305

5 Results and Discussion

307

5.1 Current AOD trends and its composition over India

In the following section, we discuss the distribution of AOD compositions considered for this study (such as BC, OC, dust, SS, and SO₄) across the six regions of India for the year 2010 (Fig.1). Next, we will look at the seasonal variation that would further aid in a better understanding of the dynamics of these components and the total AOD in India with different seasons.

312

5.1.1 Spatial distribution of AOD and Aerosol composition

The mean AOD and its components over six different regions of India for the year 2010 are 313 shown in Fig.1. IGP region exhibited the highest average AOD followed by CI, SI, WI, EI, and 314 NI, with a mean AOD of 0.53, 0.44, 0.38, 0.33, 0.32, and 0.17, respectively. In the six regions, the 315 sulfate concentration is found to dominate, followed by OC, except for WI where dust dominates 316 potentially because of the prevailing arid climate and presence of deserts (Table.1). In EI, the 317 contribution of OC is highest amongst the six regions, and NI has the least mean AOD and is one 318 of the cleanest regions due to its high altitude and less emission sources. Fig.2 shows the simulated 319 seasonal mean concentration of OC, BC, dust, sulfate, SS, and Total AOD (sum of OC, BC, dust, 320 sulfate, and SS). The highest seasonal mean AOD is observed to be 0.8 to 1.0 in some parts of 321 IGP during post-monsoon (October-November). During this period, especially in November, the 322 pollutants are trapped due to the shallow atmospheric boundary layers (Ojha et al., 2020). Also, 323 the fire emission rates during the post-monsoon crop harvesting season are three times higher 324 than during the pre-monsoon season (Mogno et al., 2021). The major contributors observed are 325 sulfate, followed by OC. This region's industrial sector is responsible for these species' regional 326 emissions (Rawat et al., 2019; Shukla et al., 2022). Specifically, the OC AOD is observed to be the 327 highest in IGP. The value ranges from 0.16 - 0.2. IGP is expected to have high AOD values due 328 to high population density and emission sources (David et al., 2018). The high concentration of 329

carbonaceous aerosols (OC and BC) can be attributed to biomass burning emissions, whereas the
 secondary source could be due to the condensation of organic vapors as they oxidize and become
 less volatile (Seinfeld & Pandis, 2016; Mogno et al., 2021).

Further, high aerosol loading ranging between 0.5 to 0.7 is observed in IGP, EI, southwestern 333 India, and the east coast during winter (December-January-February). It is during this period that 334 anthropogenic activities dominate aerosol loading. Therefore, a higher AOD is observed in the 335 peninsular region compared to the northern part in winter, which is in line with the studies con-336 ducted by (Tripathi et al., 2006). Moreover, the coal-based thermal power plant location coincides 337 with the areas of high AOD in the central and the eastern IGP (Tyagi et al., 2021). Addition-338 ally, the highest seasonal mean AOD of 0.47 is observed in summer (March-April-May). Studies 339 suggest that the southwesterly summer winds transport dust from the Thar Desert, and biomass 340 341 burning is also a major contributor, specifically in the Western part of IGP, during this period. Additionally, the industrial sector in the eastern part is the prominent anthropogenic source and 342 contributor (Dey et al., 2004; Shukla et al., 2022). About $\sim 76\%$ of IGP forms major cultivable 343 land. Therefore, crop residue burning after harvest is one of the major practices during this season 344 that contributes to emissions (R. Kumar et al., 2011). During this period, the AOD is observed to 345 be high in EI. Further, EI is highly influenced by the activities in IGP as the winds transport the 346 pollution from IGP to EI. Several studies have reported high levels of AOD in North East India, 347 particularly during the summer when the winds carry the pollution from the IGP region toward 348 the eastern Himalayas (Biswas et al., 2017). 349

Denien	Aerosol Composition $\%$					
Region	BC	OC	Dust	SO_4	\mathbf{SS}	
India	1.66	21.67	15.34	58.20	3.13	
North India	1.44	18.66	18.93	60.28	0.70	
Indo-Gangetic Plain	1.80	22.84	14.88	58.82	1.66	
East India	2.15	30.90	11.04	53.56	2.34	
West India	1.54	19.28	25.45	47.60	6.12	
Central India	1.54	20.59	14.33	60.83	2.71	
South India	1.55	20.29	12.49	61.13	4.55	

Table 1: Region wise Aerosol Composition (%) for the year 2010

Note: Percentages may not total 100% due to rounding errors.

350

5.1.2 Seasonal variation in AOD

In this section, the seasonal variation in GC-simulated AOD and its components, along with the satellite observations (MODIS Terra, MODIS Aqua, and MERIS) and ground-based AERONET measurements over the six regions will be discussed. The seasonal variation of AOD and its components over the six regions of India and for all the seasons of the year 2010 is shown in Fig.4. Additionally, for better understanding, we have compared the Total AOD data of GC and all



Figure 2: Spatial plot illustrating the Total AOD and its components derived from GEOS-Chem for the year 2010. The color bar represents the AOD values. The components have been scaled to a common magnitude by multiplying them with appropriate factors.

the satellites using a box and whisker plot as shown in Fig.3. The plot indicates no considerable fluctuation in the mean AOD values among the seasons.

During monsoon, the MODIS Aqua and Terra AOD are observed to be about $\sim 26-41$ % more 358 than the model and the MERIS AOD. It is only in this season that the modeled total AOD is lower 350 compared to the satellites' AOD. On the other hand, the spatial resolution of MERIS is higher 360 compared to MODIS. Additionally, the algorithm used by both instruments for estimating AOD is 361 different. Therefore, this difference in the spatial resolution and algorithm can lead to a difference 362 in value between MERIS and MODIS AOD. On further investigating the components, the highest 363 contributor is observed to be sulfate, followed by dust (Fig. 4). The contribution of SS in all the 364 regions is highest in monsoon compared to other seasons. SS contributes $\sim 13.3\%$ in WI followed 365 by $\sim 12.41\%$ in SI. For the rest of the regions, it ranges from $\sim 1\%$ to 6%, with NI having the lowest 366 value. The BC ranges between $\sim 1\%$ -2% for all regions and OC between $\sim 14\%$ -20% for regions 367 except EI, which is $\sim 29.45\%$ this season. 368

Whereas, during post-monsoon, GC is found to be overestimating the AOD value by \sim 6-9% and \sim 21.4% (Model:0.391, MERIS: 0.322, Aqua: 0.367, Terra: 0.359) relative to the MODIS (Aqua and Terra) and MERIS data, respectively. In this season, a reduction in dust and SS percentage is observed compared to monsoon. However, a considerable increase in carbonaceous aerosols is ³⁷³ noticed. There are a few regions like IGP and EI where a consistently high percentage of OC and ³⁷⁴ BC is observed as compared to other regions, and there is an increase of $\sim 28.14\%$ and $\sim 22.33\%$ ³⁷⁵ in BC and OC with respect to monsoon, respectively, in EI and similarly $\sim 50.36\%$ and $\sim 38.94\%$ ³⁷⁶ in IGP. Additionally, a drastic increase of $\sim 93\%$ in BC and $\sim 68.47\%$ in OC is evident in WI with ³⁷⁷ respect to monsoon. The percentage of dust is the least in this season compared to others in all six ³⁷⁸ regions.

During winter, it is observed that the model and the MODIS Terra are in good agreement, but 379 compared to MERIS and MODIS Aqua, the model is overestimating in the range of $\sim 8-30\%$. One of 380 the evident findings is the highest percentage of carbonaceous aerosols is in winter compared to the 381 rest of the seasons. Especially in EI, where BC is $\sim 3\%$, and OC is $\sim 41.32\%$, there is a considerable 382 increase of $\sim 17.64\%$ and $\sim 14.81\%$ in BC and OC, respectively, with respect to post-monsoon. In 383 384 this season, the highest percentage of AOD component is sulfate, followed by OC ranging around \sim 47-62% and \sim 23-41%, respectively. When the monthly mean AOD from the satellites and model 385 averaged over India is compared in Fig.A2, the satellite and model data show a good agreement 386 except for some months in the monsoon (July and August). The GEOS-Chem model produces lower 387 AOD values than satellite data, particularly over regions with high aerosol loading Fig.A3. This 388 could be attributed to both limitations in the model's representation of aerosol sources, transport, 389 and cloud screening by satellite products, as during Monsoon, the Indian subcontinent is very 390 cloudy. Further, total AOD obtained from GC and satellites show comparable variations with 391 ground-based AERONET measurements, with satellites over-estimating during monsoon months 392 as shown in Fig.A3. 393

During summer, a high monthly mean AOD can be observed in the case of both model and 394 satellite (Model:0.469, MERIS: 0.410, Aqua: 0.416, Terra: 0.429) (Fig.3). The highest total AOD is 395 in the month of May over India in 2010 (Fig.A2). The potential contributors for such high AOD are 396 driven by dust in the northwest regions (Dev et al., 2004) and the dominance of sea spray aerosols 397 (Ramachandran & Cherian, 2008; Jin et al., 2018) in the southern and western parts Fig.2. It is 308 evident from Fig.4 that the dominant component is sulfate throughout all the regions, constituting 399 \sim 55% - 65% except in WI, where the dust is \sim 42% and sulfate is slightly less, that is \sim 38% in this 400 season. Compared to other seasons, we find an overall high dust composition in all the regions. 401 Additionally, a slight variation in SS is observed in all regions compared to the winter and post-402 monsoon seasons. The highest variation is observed in WI, the SS during summer is $\sim 4.29\%$ which 403 is much higher as compared to winter ($\sim 0.32\%$) and post-monsoon ($\sim 1.14\%$). The OC ranges from 404 $\sim 15\%$ to 20%, and BC is around 1.5%. 405

406

5.1.3 An integrated view of Aerosol composition

In this study, Fig.1 depicts the variation in AOD over the six regions of India. Here, the pie chart reflects the overall AOD and its components, and its composition is shown in Table. 1. IGP, of all the regions in India, has the greatest AOD. NI is the region with the least aerosol loading with an average AOD of \sim 32 % compared to that of IGP. It's interesting to note that CI and SI also have a sizable aerosol loading. Even if there are fewer emissions in EI, there is still high aerosol loading because of transport from IGP and perhaps CI. On the other hand, IGP emissions do not seem to have a substantial impact on NI.



Figure 3: Box and whisker plot of total AOD (OC, BC, Dust, SS, SO4) from GEOS-Chem model at 550nm, MERIS, MODIS – Aqua, and Terra for the four seasons over India. The central line represents the median, and the square denotes the mean. The box encompasses the interquartile range (25th to 75th percentiles), while the whiskers extend to the outer percentiles (5th to 95th)

The composition of the aerosols is a crucial aspect of their distribution over India (1). Dust 414 and sea salt have a significant influence on WI. In fact, dust contributes just as much as inorganic 415 aerosols (anthropogenic). However, sea salt makes up a small portion of the aerosols in all the other 416 locations, which are dominated by inorganic aerosols. The largest loading of carbonaceous aerosols 417 is found in EI, which is a considerably less developed region. It is significant to highlight that the 418 overall AOD over a large portion of India is affected by the sum of BC and OC, which is $\sim 20-33\%$. 419 The sources of BC and OC are mainly anthropogenic, indicating the prevalence of human-made 420 emissions in India. 421

422 Evaluating the modeled aerosol composition with the observations would be very helpful to comprehensively examine the model's ability to represent aerosol speciation over India. The com-423 ponents of aerosols have been measured in various ways from different campaigns and sites (Singh 424 et al., 2016; Yadav et al., 2022; B. Kumar et al., 2016). Measurements have revealed that BC con-425 tributes significantly to megacities and big cities. Numerous observations also reveal that sulfate 426 and nitrate aerosols are present in large quantities along with the prevalence of dust (Dev et al., 427 2004; Misra et al., 2014; Mitra & Sharma, 2002; David et al., 2018; Thiemens & Shaheen, 2014). 428 It is pertinent to note that the emissions are continually changing, thereby making it difficult to 429 compare the modeled data with the observations. 430

431

5.1.4 Comparison of GC, Satellite and AERONET AODs

In Fig.A4, the simulated monthly averaged AOD from GC is compared with the satellite data for 2010 over the entire India. The simulated AOD is observed to be lower than that of the measured. The calculated AOD is approximately 90% of the measured values, as determined through linear regressions that constrained the lines to pass through the origin. Taking into account the inherent measurement errors and the variability in aerosol concentrations, there is a notable



Figure 4: Seasonal distribution of AOD and its components across six regions in India. The pie chart showcases the distribution of AOD and its composition at 550nm, simulated by the GEOS-Chem model for the year 2010. The numbers within each pie represent the average AOD calculated for each region and season: (a) Monsoon, (b) Post Monsoon, (c) Winter, and (d) Summer.

agreement between the simulated and observed AOD values. A bias, or a finite estimated value when the measured value is zero, is suggested by a linear regression where the intercept is not set as zero. The Pearson correlation coefficient (R) values obtained are 0.56, 0.59, and 0.51 for MODIS Aqua, MODIS Terra, and MERIS, respectively, for AOD ≤ 1.5 as shown in Table.A1. Similarly, the slope values obtained for MODIS Aqua, MODIS Terra, and MERIS are 0.5, 0.54, and 0.53, respectively.

In Fig.A5, the GC simulated AOD is compared with satellite observations and ground-based AERONET measurements with the help of the Pearson correlation coefficient (R), the slope, intercept, and the number of data points. Due to the possibility that the satellite trajectory may not consistently align directly over the AERONET station, the satellite measurements and the GEOS-Chem model data within a 25 km radius around the AERONET station were compared, as described in (David et al., 2018) to enhance the number of available observations. A good correlation with a coefficient ranging between ~0.65 to 0.74 is observed. Several factors, such as spatial
resolution, retrieval algorithm, and aerosol vertical distribution, can be attributed to the same.
This comparative assessment provides a preliminary insight into the extent of coherence between
observational and model data.

453

5.2 Current and Projected carbonaceous aerosols over India under RCP Scenarios

In this section, first, the GC_{2010} is compared with the RCP projected total AOD as well as just carbonaceous aerosols (OC and BC) for 2010 in India. This will give insights into the variations in AOD under different RCP scenarios for the same year of 2010. Next, we look into the evolution of carbonaceous aerosols and the seasonal variation that is being projected by the model. This aims to understand the contribution of OC and BC AOD under two different future RCP scenarios of 4.5 and 8.5.

460

5.2.1 Comparisons of current and projected AOD for 2010

The comparison of the GC simulated total AOD (OC, BC, Dust, SO₄, SS) for current (for the 461 year 2010) with the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 is shown in Figure 5. It is observed that for NI, EI, and 462 WI the values are in good agreement. There is not much difference between the mean values of 463 both RCPs. Over NI, EI and WI, the GC_{2010} mean is ~27-29% (GC_{2010} : 0.170, RCP4.5: 0.134, 464 RCP8.5: 0.131), $\sim 27-28\%$ (GC₂₀₁₀: 0.317, RCP4.5: 0.248, RCP8.5: 0.247) and $\sim 19-23\%$ (GC₂₀₁₀: 465 0.327, RCP4.5: 0.273, RCP8.5: 0.265) respectively higher as compared to the projected values. 466 A large difference is observed in the GC_{2010} and the projected AOD in the case of IGP, CI, and 467 SI. Over IGP, CI, and SI, the GC_{2010} mean is ~30-35% (GC_{2010} : 0.528, RCP4.5: 0.406, RCP8.5: 468 (0.391), $\sim 35-42\%$ (GC₂₀₁₀: 0.445, RCP4.5: 0.329, RCP8.5: 0.314) and $\sim 38-43\%$ (GC₂₀₁₀: 0.383, 0.394) 469 RCP4.5: 0.278, RCP8.5: 0.268) respectively higher with respect to the RCPs. Under the RCP4.5 470 and RCP8.5 scenarios, emissions and atmospheric chemistry changes can lead to differences in the 471 concentration and distribution of aerosols in the atmosphere, which can affect AOD. In total AOD, 472 a higher value of RCP4.5 is observed compared to RCP8.5. 473

474 5.2.2 Comparison of simulated current and projected carbonaceous aerosols for 475 2010

Comparison of the GC_{2010} carbonaceous aerosols (sum of OC and BC) with the RCP4.5 and 476 RCP8.5, over the six regions for the year 2010 is shown in Fig. 6. The mean value for NI is seen to be 477 in good agreement, which is $\sim 24-26\%$ (GC₂₀₁₀: 0.034, RCP4.5: 0.027, RCP8.5: 0.027) higher with 478 respect to RCPs. The mean values of GC_{2010} for EI and WI are ~27-31% (GC_{2010} : 0.105, RCP4.5: 479 0.08, RCP8.5: 0.083) and $\sim 36-38\%$ (GC₂₀₁₀: 0.068, RCP4.5: 0.049, RCP8.5: 0.050) higher with 480 respect to RCPs, respectively. Overall, the mean values of RCP8.5 are higher than RCP4.5, and 481 this is consistent over all the six regions. However, it can be observed that the simulation without 482 RCPs is comparatively higher than the RCPs for IGP (GC_{2010} : 0.130, RCP4.5: 0.092, RCP8.5: 483 0.098), CI (GC_{2010} : 0.098, RCP4.5: 0.060, RCP8.5: 0.068) and SI (GC_{2010} : 0.084, RCP4.5: 0.053, 484 RCP8.5: 0.060). The GC_{2010} mean is ~33-41% for IGP, 44-63% for CI, and 40-58% for SI higher 485 with respect to the means of both RCPs. 486



Figure 5: Box and whisker plot of total AOD (OC, BC, Dust, SO4, SS) from GEOS-Chem model at 550 nm, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 over the six regions for the year 2010. The central line represents the median, and the square denotes the mean. The box encompasses the interquartile range (25th to 75th percentiles), while the whiskers extend to the outer percentiles (5th to 95th)



Figure 6: Box and whisker plot of Carbonaceous AOD(OC+BC) from GEOS-Chem model at 550 nm, RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 over the six regions for the year 2010. The central line represents the median, and the square denotes the mean. The box encompasses the interquartile range (25th to 75th percentiles), while the whiskers extend to the outer percentiles (5th to 95th)

5.2.3 Projected evolution of carbonaceous aerosols

487

In Fig.7, it could be observed that under the RCP4.5 scenario, the carbonaceous AOD is increasing at the rate of 6.91% AOD per decade up to the year 2030 and then there is a decline of -8.76% AOD per decade. On the other hand, RC8.5 showed an increase of 8.72% AOD per decade up to 2050 and further reduces by -3.52% AOD per decade from 2050 until the end of the century. Fig.8 shows the spatial distribution of the carbonaceous AOD over India and the decadal variation under the two RCP scenarios. The maximum AOD is observed over IGP in both scenarios. Under RCP8.5, 2020-2080 is the period with high AOD, mostly contributed by IGP and EI. A gradual
increase in AOD over CI and some parts of SI and WI from 2030 is noticed, but the reduction in
this region is also very much evident from 2090 until the end of the century. Similar to RCP8.5,
high AOD is observed over IGP and EI until 2050 in RCP4.5, however a much higher reduction
by the end of the century is evident in this scenario. Unlike RCP8.5, the WI and SI remain not
much affected in RCP4.5, but a high AOD on the east coast of CI and SI is apparent, which is later
significantly reduced.



501

502

Figure 7: Time series of Carbonaceous AOD (OC and BC) at 550 nm from GEOS-Chem from 2000 to 2100 (Yearly Mean)

5.2.4 Projected changes in the seasonal mean of carbonaceous aerosols over distinct regions

Carbonaceous aerosols from both anthropogenic and biomass burning emissions in the current 503 situation are arguably the biggest threat to air quality in the Indian subcontinent. In India, burning 504 biomass for domestic purposes, burning solid waste, burning coal for energy, industrial emissions, 505 burning crop residue, engaging in construction and demolition work, engaging in vehicular activity, 506 and operating brick kilns are the main contributors to atmospheric particulate matter (Reisen et 507 al., 2013; Lee et al., 2017; Group et al., 2018). For many years, the Indian government has placed 508 a strong emphasis on lowering air pollution in order to achieve a cleaner environment. However, in 509 the past ten years, some strict policies relating to air pollution have been applied and implemented 510 across India to lower air pollution (Gulia et al., 2022). The effectiveness of such policies can 511 be effectively judged by analyzing carbonaceous aerosols generated from emissions. This section 512 focuses on the evolution of AOD contributed by carbonaceous aerosols over six regions. In Fig.9, 513 the analysis of the sum of OC and BC AOD from 2020 to 2100 relative to 2010 over 6 regions under 514 the two RCP scenarios of 4.5 and 8.5 for all the seasons is carried out. 515



Figure 8: Spatial Decadal plot of Carbonaceous AOD (BC+OC) from GEOS-Chem for the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5. The color bar represents the (BC+OC) AOD values

⁵¹⁶ **NI:** The analysis reveals that out of all the six regions, NI is one of the cleanest as seen in ⁵¹⁷ Fig.9. It could be noted that there is both positive and negative change under RCP4.5. However, in ⁵¹⁸ the case of RCP8.5, we could only observe a positive change. In the case of RCP4.5, the year 2030 ⁵¹⁹ is the year with maximum AOD for all seasons, except for the monsoon season for which the year ⁵²⁰ is 2040. The maximum percentage change under RCP4.5 for monsoon, post-monsoon, winter, and ⁵²¹ summer is ~24%, 26%, 24%, and 20%, respectively. Similarly, the maximum negative percentage ⁵²² for monsoon, post-monsoon, winter, and summer with respect to 2010 is ~ (-44%, -53%, -56%, and 523 -36%), respectively. The year with the least AOD is found to be the end of the century, that is, 2100. Under RCP8.5, 2050 is the year of maximum AOD for all seasons. The maximum change is found to be ~ 31%, 39%, 39%, and 28% for monsoon, post-monsoon, winter, and summer, respectively.

IGP: IGP has the highest AOD out of all the six regions (Fig.1). Under the RCP4.5 scenario, 526 2030 is observed to be the year with the highest AOD across all four seasons (Fig.9). However, in 527 the case of RCP8.5, the highest AOD is observed in the year 2050 for all seasons except monsoon, 528 where the highest value is in 2030. Among the RCP the maximum increase is observed in RCP8.5 of 529 about $\sim 38\%$ during winter. The maximum decrease is $\sim (-65\%)$ during winter under RCP4.5. Fig.4 530 indicates that it is during post-monsoon and winter IGP observes a high fraction of OC and BC. 531 As for percentage changes under the RCP4.5 scenario, the maximum (minimum) values are +25%532 (-63%) and +27%(-65%) in post-monsoon and winter of 2030 (2100) respectively. The maximum 533 534 percentage change for RCP4.5 (RCP8.5) during monsoon, post-monsoon, winter, and summer is $\sim 21\%(21\%), 25\%(35\%), 27\%(38\%)$ and 19%(29%) respectively. However, except for monsoon in 535 the case of RCP8.5, a negative change is not observed as the lowest AOD value of 2100 is still 536 \sim 6-10% higher with respect to 2010. 537

EI: It is well established from the previous sections that due to meteorological effects, EI is 538 highly influenced by IGP. Unlike other regions, it is evident in Fig.9 that the year with maximum 539 AOD is 2020 for monsoon and summer, which is earlier as compared to the other seasons for RCP4.5. 540 Similarly, for RCP8.5, the year with maximum AOD is 2040 for summer and 2050 for the rest of 541 the seasons. The maximum percentage change, in the case of both the RCPs is the least in all the 542 regions. The maximum(minimum) percentage change for RCP4.5 is $\sim 11\%(-55\%)$, 8%(-59%), 12%(-59%)543 56%), and 10%(-42%) for monsoon, post-monsoon, winter and summer respectively. Similarly, for 544 RCP8.5 the values are $\sim 22\%$, 14%(-7%), 20%(-2%) and 8%(-17%) for monsoon, post-monsoon, 545 winter and summer respectively. 546

⁵⁴⁷ WI: The years with maximum carbonaceous AOD for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 is 2030 and 2050, ⁵⁴⁸ respectively, consistent for all seasons. $\sim 25\%$ is the maximum percentage change that is observed ⁵⁴⁹ in this region for the winter season under RCP4.5. Similarly, $\sim 39\%$ is the maximum percentage ⁵⁵⁰ change for the winter and summer seasons, under RCP 8.5. The AOD is expected to go as high ⁵⁵¹ as 0.085, which is $\sim 23\%$ higher as compared to the lowest value of 0.069 observed in 2100 under ⁵⁵² the RCP8.5 scenario. The maximum negative percentage change under RCP4.5 in this region is ⁵⁵³ $\sim (-58\%)$ observed in winter, followed by -55% in post-monsoon.

CI: Similar to WI the maximum AOD for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 is 2030 and 2050, respectively 554 and it is consistent for all seasons. The maximum positive (negative) change under RCP4.5 with 555 respect to 2010 is $\sim 21\%$ (-63%) in winter(post-monsoon). Similarly, for RCP8.5 the maximum AOD 556 change is seen in 2050 (year with maximum AOD) with respect to 2010. The change is 36% in 557 winter, followed by 33% in post-monsoon. Under RCP8.5, the least AOD due to only carbonaceous 558 aerosols is seen in 2100 and is 0.052, 0.081, 0.091, and 0.084 for monsoon, post-monsoon, winter, 559 and summer which is slightly higher or equal; than the reference year of 2010 which is 0.048, 0.075, 560 0.081 and 0.078 respectively. 561

SI: WI and SI are observed to be quite similar, as the maximum AOD for RCP4.5 and RCP8.5
is in 2030 and 2050, respectively and it is consistent for all seasons. There is not much difference observed between the percentage values of both regions. The maximum positive (negative) percentage
change for monsoon, post-monsoon, winter, and summer for RCP4.5 is ~14% (-46%), 18%(-62%),

⁵⁶⁶ 20%(-63%) and 12%(-46%) respectively. Similarly, for RCP8.5, The maximum percentage change ⁵⁶⁷ for monsoon, post-monsoon, winter, and summer is 26%, 31%, 34%, and 25% with respect to 2010.



Figure 9: Shown are the maximum percentage changes (units: %) in the projected seasonal mean carbon aerosol optical depth (AOD) from 2020 to 2100 relative to the base year 2010. Plots include six regions under both RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 scenarios. Colored columns indicate maximum increases and shaded columns indicate maximum decreases. Years with notable increases are highlighted in red, while instances of maximum decreases are uniformly related to the year 2100.

6 Implication for mitigation of carbonaceous aerosol

India pledged to strive towards achieving net zero carbon emissions by 2070 at the United 569 Nations COP26 in 2016 to control the anthropogenic emission-induced warming of the atmosphere, 570 aligning with the goal to limit the global temperature increase to 2° C by 2100 (compared to the 571 pre-industrial time), signed at the Paris Agreement. To achieve this aspirational target, intense 572 emission control measures must be adopted for GHGs and particulate pollutants, especially car-573 bonaceous aerosols. RCP scenarios representing the net radiative forcing by 2100 under different 574 future emission patterns (as outlined in the SRES scenarios introduced in IPCC AR5) of GHGs 575 and other climate-forcing agents based on changes in driving factors, such as economic and tech-576 nological advancements, serve as useful tool for understanding the effects of emissions on future 577 concentrations. The IPCC identifies RCP2.6 and RCP4.5 as the two most likely scenarios to achieve 578 these objectives; however, with current mitigation policies, RCP2.6 is extremely difficult to follow. 579 In this study, we have estimated the future levels of carbonaceous AOD (sum of OC and BC) un-580

der RCP scenarios RCP4.5 and RCP8.5 (most probable emission pathways) using the GEOS-chem 581 model, which is shown to capture the atmospheric chemistry and transport of aerosol particles 582 reasonably well. An increase in AOD over EI due to the outflow of aerosols from IGP shows that 583 atmospheric transport, in addition to emission, is critical for deciding future concentrations. Our 584 study emphasizes that aerosol loading can be significantly reduced to meet the objectives of the 585 Paris Agreement if emissions are cut down in accordance with RCP4.5. Further, we show that if 586 no stringent emission control measures are adopted (RCP8.5), the emission reduction will not be 587 sufficient to limit the temperature rise to 2°C by the end of the century. By analysing the trends 588 in potential future levels of carbonaceous aerosols across different regions of India presented in this 589 study, policymakers can make more informed decisions about framing policies to reduce AOD levels 590 and mitigate their radiative effects on climate change. 591

592 7 Conclusions

The study used the high-resolution nested-grid version of the GEOS-Chem (GC) model $(0.5^{\circ} \times$ 593 0.625°) to investigate the future trajectory of Aerosol Optical Depth (AOD) attributed to carbona-594 ceous aerosols over six delineated regions of India from 2000 to 2100. This investigation aimed to 595 identify the projected shifts resulting from the anticipated changes in emissions under the two RCP 596 scenarios. The simulated GC_{2010} carbonaceous aerosol load adequately reflects the spatiotemporal 597 distributions of observed levels in India. In addition, the GC performed well in the current simu-598 lation compared to the satellite data (with a slope and correlation coefficient of ≥ 0.93 and ~ 0.93 599 to 0.95, respectively) as shown in Fig.A4 and Table.A1. When comparing the simulated AOD data 600 with the satellite data over the 5 AERONET stations, the correlation coefficient ranged from ~ 0.65 601 to 0.74. Modeled AOD showed good agreement with the retrievals of the satellite instruments, 602 confirming the usefulness and validity of the GC model results. Moreover, the GC_{2010} simulated 603 carbonaceous aerosols (OC + BC) also agree well with the future RCP scenarios simulation, with slight overestimation in all six different regions of India. 605

The GC results show an improvement in the future AOD due to carbonaceous aerosols. It could be observed that under the RCP4.5 scenario, the AOD increases at a rate of 6.91% AOD per decade until 2030, and then there is a decrease of -8.76% AOD per decade. For the RC8.5 scenario, on the other hand, an increase of 8.72% AOD per decade through 2050 and a further decrease of -3.52% AOD per decade from 2050 to the end of the century is observed.

The spatial distribution of AOD (OC+BC) across India and the decadal variation under the 611 two RCP scenarios show that the maximum AOD is observed over IGP in both scenarios. Under 612 RCP8.5, the period 2020-2080 is the period with high AOD mainly driven by IGP and EI. From 613 2030, a gradual increase in AOD is also observed over CI and some parts of SI and WI, but the 614 decrease in this region is also very significant from 2090 to the end of the century. Similar to RCP8.5, 615 high AOD is observed over IGP and EI through 2050, but a much steeper decline is observed in this 616 scenario by the end of the century. Unlike RCP8.5, WI and SI are not very affected in RCP4.5, but 617 we definitely observe a high AOD on the east coast of CI and SI, which later declines significantly. 618

Further study reveals that the maximum percentage increase in AOD is $\sim 25\%$ in IGP during post-monsoon in 2030 with respect to 2010, under RCP4.5. However, the percentage increase in EI during post-monsoon is the least, which is $\sim 8\%$ in 2020 with respect to 2010. On the other hand, it is under this scenario, a percent decrease of $\sim 30-65\%$ could be noted by the end of the century

with respect to 2010 across all four seasons, with IGP having the highest decrease. This suggests a 623 significant reduction in AOD due to both anthropogenic and biomass-burning sources by the end of 624 the century with respect to 2010. Under the RCP8.5, a maximum change of $\sim 40\%$ mostly during 625 post-monsoon and winter was observed across all the regions except for the EI where change is 626 comparatively less. However, the decrease in AOD by 2100 with respect to 2010 is only evident in 627 IGP during monsoon and EI during post-monsoon, winter, and summer. This indicates that the 628 AOD for the rest of the regions and seasons under the RCP8.5 scenario will be much higher by the 629 end of the century compared to 2010. 630

While the insights gained from projected future changes in the AOD of carbonaceous aerosols 631 under RCP scenarios are valuable for informing mitigation strategies, it is crucial to recognize the 632 inherent uncertainties associated with such projections. In particular, this study did not consider the 633 potential impacts of future interannual to decadal climate change on the combined effects of organic 634 carbon (OC) and black carbon (BC). Acknowledging these uncertainties underscores the need for 635 ongoing research and refined modeling approaches to enhance the accuracy and comprehensiveness 636 of our projections. In addition, the fully coupled chemistry-climate model estimates that combine 637 the effects of future emissions and climate change on (OC+BC) AOD are needed. In addition, 638 predictions of AOD levels are also influenced by regional meteorology (Reisen et al., 2013), which 639 raises further issues that needs to be addressed. 640

641 Appendix A Additional Figures



Figure A1: Sum of anthropogenic and biomass burning emission (units: Tg/year) of (a) SO2 (b) NOx (c) NH3 (d) BC and (e) OC in India for the period 2000 - 2100 under the RCP4.5 and RCP8.5



Figure A2: Monthly variation of all AOD components at 550 nm from GEOS-Chem of 2010 over India along with the monthly mean of the data from MERIS, MODIS Aqua and MODIS Terra



Figure A3: Monthly variation of all AOD components at 550 nm from GEOS-Chem of 2010 for the 5 AERONET station along with the monthly mean of the data from MERIS, MODIS Aqua, MODIS Terra, and AERONET Station



Figure A4: Density plot of simulated AOD at 550 nm with Aqua, Terra, and MERIS for 2010. The color bar represents the number of data in each 0.03 bin. The linear regression line is shown for AOD data limited to 0.5 (white), 1.0 (yellow), 1.5(red), and zero intercepts (black).

Table A1: The slope, correlation coefficient (R), and intercept (c) of simulated AOD with MODIS Aqua, MODIS Terra, and MERIS for the AOD limiting values of 0.5, 1.0, and 1.5 at 550 nm along with the slope of the line with intercept set to zero

AOD -	MODIS Aqua		MODIS Terra		MERIS				
	Slope	R	С	Slope	R	С	Slope	R	С
1.5	0.95	0.93	0	0.93	0.94	0	1.12	0.93	0
1.5	0.5	0.56	0.23	0.54	0.59	0.18	0.53	0.51	0.26
1.0	0.56	0.57	0.2	0.58	0.59	0.18	0.52	0.51	0.26
0.5	0.59	0.52	0.15	0.64	0.56	0.12	0.24	0.29	0.28


Figure A5: Correlation of GEOS-Chem with the satellite and AERONET data. The data points of both GEOS-Chem and Satellite are extracted over a 25 km radius from each AERONET station.

642 Appendix B Open Research

The AOD data from Aqua/MODIS and Terra/MODIS Aerosol Product 5min L2 Swath 10km, 643 C6, NASA Level-2 and Atmosphere Archive and Distribution System (LAADS) Distributed Active 644 Archive Center (DAAC) Goddard Space Flight Center, Greenbelt, MD are available at https:// 645 ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/archive/allData/61/M0D06_L2/[MOD06_L2]. The MERIS 646 data were obtained from Copernicus Climate Change Service, Climate Data Store, (2019): Aerosol 647 properties gridded data from 1995 to present derived from satellite observation. Copernicus Climate 648 Change Service (C3S) Climate Data Store (CDS) https://doi.org/10.24381/cds.239d815c, 649 datalink (https://cds.climate.copernicus.eu/cdsapp#!/dataset/satellite-aerosol-properties 650 ?tab=form). For downloading the aforementioned MERIS data, following parameters were se-651 lected: Time aggregation (Monthly Average), Variable (Aerosol Optical Depth), Sensor on satellite 652 (MERIS on ENVISAT), Algorithm (S4M (SeaWiFS algorithm for MERIS sensor)), year(2010) 653 and Version (v7.0a). Additionally, the AERONET Level 2 AOD data for the 5 locations namely; 654 Kanpur(26.513N, 80.232E), Gandhi College (25.871N, 84.128E), Nainital (29.359N, 79.458E), Pune 655 (18.537N, 73.805E) and Jaipur(26.906N, 75.806E) was obtained from https://aeronet.gsfc.nasa 656 .gov/cgi-bin/draw_map_display_aod_v3?long1=-180&long2=180&lat1=-90&lat2=90&multiplier= 657 2&what_map=4&nachal=1&formatter=0&level=3&place_code=10&year=2010. The GEOS-Chem 658 3-D global model is freely available at https://geoschem.github.io/. For visualization, open-659 source software QGIS (Download: https://www.qgis.org/en/site/forusers/download.html) 660 and Python programming code were used. The modeled data is available on https://data 661 .mendeley.com/datasets/mh55488db3/1. 662

663 Acknowledgments

We thank the GEOS-Chem model community for making the data available. This work has been partly funded by the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG, German Research Foundation) within the project "Arctic Amplification: Climate Relevant Atmospheric and Surface Processes, and Feedback Mechanisms (AC)³" as Transregional Collaborative Research Center (TRR) 172, Project-ID 268020496. Usage of High-performance computing system cobra *Cobra, max planck computing and data facility* (n.d.) (https://www.mpcdf.mpg.de/services/supercomputing/cobra) is acknowledged.

671 References

- Alpert, P., Shvainshtein, O., & Kishcha, P. (2012). AOD trends over megacities based on space
 monitoring using MODIS and MISR. American Journal of Climate Change, 01(03), 117–131.
 Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.4236/ajcc.2012.13010 doi: 10.4236/ajcc.2012.13010
- Andreae, M. O. (1993). The influence of tropical biomass burning on climate and the atmospheric
 environment. In *Biogeochemistry of global change* (pp. 113–150). Springer US. Retrieved from
 https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4615-2812-8_7 doi: 10.1007/978-1-4615-2812-8_7
- Andreae, M. O., & Gelencsér, A. (2006, July). Black carbon or brown carbon? the nature of
 light-absorbing carbonaceous aerosols. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 6(10), 3131–3148.
 Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-6-3131-2006 doi: 10.5194/acp-6-3131-2006
- Bey, I., Jacob, D. J., Yantosca, R. M., Logan, J. A., Field, B. D., Fiore, A. M., ... Schultz, M. G. (2001). Global modeling of tropospheric chemistry with assimilated meteorology: Model

683 684	description and evaluation. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 106(D19), 23073–23095.
685	Bikkina, S., Andersson, A., Kirillova, E. N., Holmstrand, H., Tiwari, S., Srivastava, A. K., Örian
686	Gustafsson (2019, February). Air quality in megacity delhi affected by countryside biomass
687	burning. Nature Sustainability, 2(3), 200-205. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1038/
688	s41893-019-0219-0 doi: 10.1038/s41893-019-0219-0
689	Biswas, J., Pathak, B., Patadia, F., Bhuvan, P. K., Gogoi, M. M., & Babu, S. S. (2017, February).
690	Satellite-retrieved direct radiative forcing of aerosols over north-east india and adjoining areas:
691	climatology and impact assessment. International Journal of Climatology, 37, 298–317. Retrieved
692	from https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.5004 doi: 10.1002/joc.5004
693	Bouwman, A. F., Lee, D. S., Asman, W. A. H., Dentener, F. J., Hoek, K. W. V. D., & Olivier,
694	J. G. J. (1997, December). A global high-resolution emission inventory for ammonia. Global
695	Biogeochemical Cycles, 11(4), 561-587. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1029/97gb02266
696	doi: 10.1029/97gb02266
697	Butt, E. W., Rap, A., Schmidt, A., Scott, C. E., Pringle, K. J., Reddington, C. L., Spracklen,
698	D. V. (2016, January). The impact of residential combustion emissions on atmospheric aerosol,
699	human health, and climate. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 16(2), 873–905. Retrieved from
700	https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-16-873-2016 doi: 10.5194/acp-16-873-2016
701	Chawala, P., R, S. P., & SM, S. N. (2023, March). Climatology and landscape determinants of
702	AOD, SO2 and NO2 over indo-gangetic plain. Environmental Research, 220, 115125. Retrieved
703	from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2022.115125 doi: 10.1016/j.envres.2022.115125
704	Chin, M., Ginoux, P., Kinne, S., Torres, O., Holben, B. N., Duncan, B. N., Nakajima, T. (2002,
705	February). Tropospheric aerosol optical thickness from the GOCART model and comparisons
706	with satellite and sun photometer measurements. Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences, $59(3)$,
707	461-483. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1175/1520-0469(2002)059<0461:taotft>2.0
708	.co;2 doi: 10.1175/1520-0469(2002)059(0461:taotft)2.0.co;2
709	Chowdhury, S., Dey, S., & Smith, K. R. (2018, January). Ambient PM2.5 exposure and expected
710	premature mortality to 2100 in india under climate change scenarios. Nature Communications,
711	9(1). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-017-02755-y doi: 10.1038/s41467
712	-017-02755-y
713	Cobra, max planck computing and data facility. (n.d.). Retrieved from https://www.mpcdf.mpg
714	.de/services/supercomputing/cobra
715	Cowan, T., & Cai, W. (2011, June). The impact of asian and non-asian anthropogenic aerosols on
716	20th century asian summer monsoon. Geophysical Research Letters, 38(11), n/a–n/a. Retrieved
717	from https://doi.org/10.1029/2011g1047268 doi: 10.1029/2011gl047268
718	David, L. M., Ravishankara, A. R., Kodros, J. K., Pierce, J. R., Venkataraman, C., & Sadavarte,
719	P. (2019). Premature mortality due to pm2.5 over india: Effect of atmospheric transport and an-
720	thropogenic emissions. GeoHealth, 3(1), 2-10. Retrieved from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary
721	.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/2018GH000169 don: https://doi.org/10.1029/2018GH000169
722	David, L. M., Ravishankara, A. R., Kodros, J. K., Venkataraman, C., Sadavarte, P., Pierce, J. R.,
723	Millet, D. B. (2018). Aerosol optical depth over india. Journal of Geophysical Research: At-
724	mospheres, 123(7), 3688-3703. Retrieved from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/
725	$ao_{1/a}o_{5/10}$, $1002/201(JD02/(19))$ doi: $nttps://doi.org/10.1002/201(JD02/(19))$
726 727	Dey, S., Tripathi, S. N., Singh, R. P., & Holben, B. N. (2004). Influence of dust storms on the aerosol optical properties over the indo-gangetic basin. <i>Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres</i> ,

- 728 109(D20). Retrieved from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/ 2004JD004924 doi: https://doi.org/10.1029/2004JD004924
- Dutta, M., & Chatterjee, A. (2021, June). Assessment of the relative influences of long-range transport, fossil fuel and biomass burning from aerosol pollution under restricted anthropogenic emissions: A national scenario in india. Atmospheric Environment, 255, 118423. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2021.118423 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2021.118423
- FLANNIGAN, M., STOCKS, B., TURETSKY, M., & WOTTON, M. (2009, March). Impacts of climate change on fire activity and fire management in the circumboreal forest. *Global Change Biology*, 15(3), 549–560. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2486.2008.01660
 .x doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2486.2008.01660.x
- Galanter, M., Levy II, H., & Carmichael, G. R. (2000). Impacts of biomass burning on tropospheric co, no x, and o3. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 105(D5), 6633-6653. Retrieved from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/1999JD901113
 doi: https://doi.org/10.1029/1999JD901113
- Group, G. M. W., et al. (2018). Burden of disease attributable to major air pollution sources in india. special report 21. boston, ma: Health effects institute [www document]. published 2018.
- Guenther, A., Karl, T., Harley, P., Wiedinmyer, C., Palmer, P. I., & Geron, C. (2006, August).
 Estimates of global terrestrial isoprene emissions using MEGAN (model of emissions of gases and aerosols from nature). Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 6(11), 3181–3210. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-6-3181-2006 doi: 10.5194/acp-6-3181-2006
- Gulia, S., Shukla, N., Padhi, L., Bosu, P., Goyal, S., & Kumar, R. (2022). Evolution of air pollution management policies and related research in india. *Environmental Challenges*, 6, 100431.
 Retrieved from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S2667010021004054
 doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envc.2021.100431
- Gunthe, S. S., Liu, P., Panda, U., Raj, S. S., Sharma, A., Darbyshire, E., ... Coe, H. (2021, January). Enhanced aerosol particle growth sustained by high continental chlorine emission in india. *Nature Geoscience*, 14(2), 77–84. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1038/s41561-020
 -00677-x doi: 10.1038/s41561-020-00677-x
- T56
 Haywood, J. (2021). Atmospheric aerosols and their role in climate change. In Climate change (pp. 645–659). Elsevier. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-12-821575-3.00030-x

 T58
 doi: 10.1016/b978-0-12-821575-3.00030-x
- Holben, B., Eck, T., Slutsker, I., Tanré, D., Buis, J., Setzer, A., ... Smirnov, A. (1998, October). AERONET—a federated instrument network and data archive for aerosol characterization. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 66(1), 1–16. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/s0034-4257(98)00031-5 doi: 10.1016/s0034-4257(98)00031-5
- Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. (2014). Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. In
 Core Writing Team and Pachauri, R.K. and Meyer, L.A. (Ed.), *Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report* (p. 93-129). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Jin, Q., Wei, J., Pu, B., Yang, Z.-L., & Parajuli, S. P. (2018, September). High summertime aerosol loadings over the arabian sea and their transport pathways. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 123(18). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1029/2018jd028588
 doi: 10.1029/2018jd028588
- Keywood, M., Kanakidou, M., Stohl, A., Dentener, F., Grassi, G., Meyer, C. P., ... Burrows,
 J. (2011, October). Fire in the air: Biomass burning impacts in a changing climate. Critical Reviews in Environmental Science and Technology, 43(1), 40–83. Retrieved from https://

doi.org/10.1080/10643389.2011.604248 doi: 10.1080/10643389.2011.604248 773 Kokhanovsky, A., Breon, F.-M., Cacciari, A., Carboni, E., Diner, D., Nicolantonio, W. D., ... von 774 Hoyningen-Huene, W. (2007, September). Aerosol remote sensing over land: A comparison of 775 satellite retrievals using different algorithms and instruments. Atmospheric Research, 85(3-4), 776 372-394. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosres.2007.02.008 doi: 10.1016/ 777 j.atmosres.2007.02.008 778 Kumar, B., Chakraborty, A., Tripathi, S. N., & Bhattu, D. (2016). Highly time resolved chemical 779 characterization of submicron organic aerosols at a polluted urban location. Environ. Sci.: Pro-780 cesses Impacts, 18, 1285-1296. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1039/C6EM00392C doi: 781 10.1039/C6EM00392C 782 Kumar, M., Parmar, K., Kumar, D., Mhawish, A., Broday, D., Mall, R., & Banerjee, T. (2018, 783 May). Long-term aerosol climatology over indo-gangetic plain: Trend, prediction and potential 784 source fields. Atmospheric Environment, 180, 37-50. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10 785 .1016/j.atmosenv.2018.02.027 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.02.027 786 Kumar, P., Beig, G., Sahu, S., Yadav, R., Maji, S., Singh, V., & Bamniya, B. (2023, June). De-787 velopment of a high-resolution emissions inventory of carbonaceous particulate matters and their 788 growth during 2011–2018 over india. Atmospheric Environment, 303, 119750. Retrieved from 789 https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2023.119750 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2023.119750 790 Kumar, R., Naja, M., Satheesh, S. K., Ojha, N., Joshi, H., Sarangi, T., ... Venkataramani, S. 791 (2011, October). Influences of the springtime northern indian biomass burning over the central 792 himalayas. Journal of Geophysical Research, 116(D19). Retrieved from https://doi.org/ 793 10.1029/2010jd015509 doi: 10.1029/2010jd015509 794 Lee, H.-H., Bar-Or, R. Z., & Wang, C. (2017, January). Biomass burning aerosols and the low-795 visibility events in southeast asia. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 17(2), 965–980. Retrieved 796 from https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-17-965-2017 doi: 10.5194/acp-17-965-2017 797 Levy, H., Horowitz, L. W., Schwarzkopf, M. D., Ming, Y., Golaz, J.-C., Naik, V., & Ramaswamy, 798 V. (2013, May). The roles of aerosol direct and indirect effects in past and future climate 799 change. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 118(10), 4521–4532. Retrieved from 800 https://doi.org/10.1002/jgrd.50192 doi: 10.1002/jgrd.50192 801 Li, K., Liao, H., Zhu, J., & Moch, J. M. (2016). Implications of rcp emissions on future pm2.5 802 air quality and direct radiative forcing over china. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmo-803 spheres, 121(21), 12,985-13,008. Retrieved from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/ 804 doi/abs/10.1002/2016JD025623 doi: https://doi.org/10.1002/2016JD025623 805 Liu, D., He, C., Schwarz, J. P., & Wang, X. (2020, October). Lifecycle of light-absorbing carbona-806 ceous aerosols in the atmosphere. npj Climate and Atmospheric Science, $\mathcal{I}(1)$. Retrieved from 807 https://doi.org/10.1038/s41612-020-00145-8 doi: 10.1038/s41612-020-00145-8 808 Lodhi, N. K., Beegum, S. N., Singh, S., & Kumar, K. (2013, February). Aerosol climatology at 809 delhi in the western indo-gangetic plain: Microphysics, long-term trends, and source strengths. 810 Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 118(3), 1361–1375. Retrieved from https:// 811 doi.org/10.1002/jgrd.50165 doi: 10.1002/jgrd.50165 812 Lu, Z., Zhang, Q., & Streets, D. G. (2011, September). Sulfur dioxide and primary carbonaceous 813 aerosol emissions in china and india, 1996–2010. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 11(18), 814 9839-9864. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-11-9839-2011 doi: 10.5194/acp 815 -11-9839-2011 816

- Mangla, R., J, I., & S.S., C. (2020, August). Inter-comparison of multi-satellites and aeronet AOD over indian region. Atmospheric Research, 240, 104950. Retrieved from https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.atmosres.2020.104950 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosres.2020.104950
- Mei, L., Rozanov, V., Vountas, M., Burrows, J. P., Levy, R. C., & Lotz, W. (2017, August).
 Retrieval of aerosol optical properties using MERIS observations: Algorithm and some first results. *Remote Sensing of Environment*, 197, 125–140. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2016.11.015 doi: 10.1016/j.rse.2016.11.015
- Mei, L., Vountas, M., Gómez-Chova, L., Rozanov, V., Jäger, M., Lotz, W., ... Hollmann, R.
 (2017, August). A cloud masking algorithm for the XBAER aerosol retrieval using MERIS data.
 Remote Sensing of Environment, 197, 141–160. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2016.11.016
- Mhawish, A., Sorek-Hamer, M., Chatfield, R., Banerjee, T., Bilal, M., Kumar, M., ... Kalashnikova,
 O. (2021, June). Aerosol characteristics from earth observation systems: A comprehensive inves tigation over south asia (2000–2019). Remote Sensing of Environment, 259, 112410. Retrieved
 from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rse.2021.112410
- Misra, A., Gaur, A., Bhattu, D., Ghosh, S., Dwivedi, A. K., Dalai, R., ... Tripathi, S. N. (2014, November). An overview of the physico-chemical characteristics of dust at kanpur in the central indo-gangetic basin. Atmospheric Environment, 97, 386–396. Retrieved from https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2014.08.043 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2014.08.043
- Mitra, A., & Sharma, C. (2002, December). Indian aerosols: present status. *Chemosphere*, 49(9),
 1175–1190. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/s0045-6535(02)00247-3 doi: 10.1016/
 s0045-6535(02)00247-3
- Mogno, C., Palmer, P. I., Knote, C., Yao, F., & Wallington, T. J. (2021, July). Seasonal distribution and drivers of surface fine particulate matter and organic aerosol over the indo-gangetic plain. *Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics*, 21(14), 10881–10909. Retrieved from https://doi.org/ 10.5194/acp-21-10881-2021 doi: 10.5194/acp-21-10881-2021
- Murphy, D. M., Froyd, K. D., Bian, H., Brock, C. A., Dibb, J. E., DiGangi, J. P., ... Yu, P. (2019, April). The distribution of sea-salt aerosol in the global troposphere. *Atmospheric Chemistry* and *Physics*, 19(6), 4093–4104. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-19-4093-2019 doi: 10.5194/acp-19-4093-2019
- Murray, L. T., Jacob, D. J., Logan, J. A., Hudman, R. C., & Koshak, W. J. (2012, October). Optimized regional and interannual variability of lightning in a global chemical transport model constrained by LIS/OTD satellite data. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 117(D20).
 Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1029/2012jd017934 doi: 10.1029/2012jd017934
- Nandini, G., Vinoj, V., & Pandey, S. K. (2022, March). Arabian sea aerosol-indian summer monsoon rainfall relationship and its modulation by el-nino southern oscillation. npj Climate and Atmospheric Science, 5(1). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1038/s41612-022-00244-8
 doi: 10.1038/s41612-022-00244-8
- Ojha, N., Sharma, A., Kumar, M., Girach, I., Ansari, T. U., Sharma, S. K., ... Gunthe, S. S. (2020, April). On the widespread enhancement in fine particulate matter across the indo-gangetic plain towards winter. *Scientific Reports*, 10(1). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1038/ s41598-020-62710-8 doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-62710-8
- Park, R. J., Jacob, D. J., Chin, M., & Martin, R. V. (2003). Sources of carbonaceous aerosols
 over the united states and implications for natural visibility. *Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 108 (D12).

- Perera, F. (2017, December). Pollution from fossil-fuel combustion is the leading environmental 862 threat to global pediatric health and equity: Solutions exist. Int. J. Environ. Res. Public Health, 863 15(1), 16.864
- Provençal, S., Kishcha, P., da Silva, A. M., Elhacham, E., & Alpert, P. (2017, June). AOD 865 distributions and trends of major aerosol species over a selection of the world's most populated 866 cities based on the 1st version of NASA's MERRA aerosol reanalysis. Urban Climate, 20, 168-867 191. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.uclim.2017.04.001 doi: 10.1016/j.uclim 868 .2017.04.001 869
- Rajeev, K., Ramanathan, V., & Meywerk, J. (2000, January). Regional aerosol distribution and 870 its long-range transport over the indian ocean. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 871 105(D2), 2029–2043. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1029/1999jd900414 doi: 10.1029/ 872 1999jd900414 873
- Rajesh, T. A., & Ramachandran, S. (2017, February). Characteristics and source apportionment of 874 black carbon aerosols over an urban site. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 24(9), 875 8411-8424. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1007/s11356-017-8453-3 doi: 10.1007/ 876 s11356-017-8453-3 877
- Ramachandran, S., & Cherian, R. (2008, April). Regional and seasonal variations in aerosol 878 optical characteristics and their frequency distributions over india during 2001–2005. Journal of 879 Geophysical Research, 113(D8). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1029/2007jd008560 doi: 880 10.1029/2007jd008560 881
- Ramachandran, S., Kedia, S., & Srivastava, R. (2012, March). Aerosol optical depth trends over 882 different regions of india. Atmospheric Environment, 49, 338–347. Retrieved from https:// 883 doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.11.017 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2011.11.017 884
- Rawat, P., Sarkar, S., Jia, S., Khillare, P. S., & Sharma, B. (2019, July). Regional sulfate drives 885 long-term rise in AOD over megacity kolkata, india. Atmospheric Environment, 209, 167–181. 886 Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2019.04.031 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv 887 .2019.04.031 888
- Reisen, F., Meyer, C. M., & Keywood, M. D. (2013, March). Impact of biomass burning sources on 889 seasonal aerosol air quality. Atmospheric Environment, 67, 437–447. Retrieved from https:// doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.11.004 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2012.11.004 891

890

896

897

898

899

- Saha, U., Siingh, D., Kamra, A., Galanaki, E., Maitra, A., Singh, R., ... Singh, R. (2017, January). 892 On the association of lightning activity and projected change in climate over the indian sub-893 continent. Atmospheric Research, 183, 173–190. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/ 894 j.atmosres.2016.09.001 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosres.2016.09.001 895
 - Sarangi, C., Kanawade, V. P., Tripathi, S. N., Thomas, A., & Ganguly, D. (2018, September). Aerosol-induced intensification of cooling effect of clouds during indian summer monsoon. Nature Communications, 9(1). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-06015-5 doi: 10.1038/s41467-018-06015-5
- Sauvage, B., Martin, R. V., van Donkelaar, A., Liu, X., Chance, K., Jaeglé, L., ... Fu, T.-M. (2007, 900 February). Remote sensed and in situ constraints on processes affecting tropical tropospheric 901 ozone. Atmospheric Chemistry and Physics, 7(3), 815–838. Retrieved from https://doi.org/ 902 10.5194/acp-7-815-2007 doi: 10.5194/acp-7-815-2007 903
- Seinfeld, J. H., & Pandis, S. N. (2016). Atmospheric chemistry and physics: From air pollution to 904 climate change. Wiley. 905

- Sharma, A. R., Kharol, S. K., Badarinath, K. V. S., & Singh, D. (2010). Impact of agriculture crop residue burning on atmospheric aerosol loading -a study over punjab state, india. Annales Geophysicae, 28(2), 367-379. Retrieved from https://angeo.copernicus.org/articles/28/
 367/2010/ doi: 10.5194/angeo-28-367-2010
- Shekar Reddy, M., & Venkataraman, C. (2000). Atmospheric optical and radiative effects of anthropogenic aerosol constituents from india. Atmospheric Environment, 34(26), 4511-4523. Retrieved from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1352231000001059 doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/S1352-2310(00)00105-9
- Shiraiwa, M., Ueda, K., Pozzer, A., Lammel, G., Kampf, C. J., Fushimi, A., ... Sato, K. (2017, November). Aerosol health effects from molecular to global scales. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 51(23), 13545–13567. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1021/acs.est.7b04417
 doi: 10.1021/acs.est.7b04417
- Shukla, K., Sarangi, C., Attada, R., & Kumar, P. (2022). Characteristic dissimilarities during high aerosol loading days between western and eastern indo-gangetic plain. Atmospheric Environment, 269, 118837. Retrieved from https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/
 S1352231021006592 doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2021.118837
- Singh, A., Rastogi, N., Patel, A., & Singh, D. (2016, December). Seasonality in size-segregated ionic composition of ambient particulate pollutants over the indo-gangetic plain: Source apportionment using PMF. *Environmental Pollution*, 219, 906–915. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2016.09.010 doi: 10.1016/j.envpol.2016.09.010
- Song, Z., Fu, D., Zhang, X., Wu, Y., Xia, X., He, J., ... Che, H. (2018, October). Diurnal and seasonal variability of PM2.5 and AOD in north china plain: Comparison of MERRA-2 products and ground measurements. *Atmospheric Environment*, 191, 70–78. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.08.012 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2018.08.012
- Srivastava, A., & Saran, S. (2017, May). Comprehensive study on AOD trends over the indian subcontinent: a statistical approach. *International Journal of Remote Sensing*, 38(18), 5127-5149. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1080/01431161.2017.1323284 doi: 10.1080/ 01431161.2017.1323284
- Streets, D. G., Yarber, K. F., Woo, J.-H., & Carmichael, G. R. (2003). Biomass burning in asia: Annual and seasonal estimates and atmospheric emissions. *Global Biogeochemical Cycles*, 17(4). Retrieved from https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/
 2003GB002040 doi: https://doi.org/10.1029/2003GB002040
- Taylor, D. (2009, December). Biomass burning, humans and climate change in southeast asia.
 Biodiversity and Conservation, 19(4), 1025–1042. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1007/
 \$10531-009-9756-6
 total conservation
 to
- Thiemens, M., & Shaheen, R. (2014). Mass-independent isotopic composition of terrestrial and extraterrestrial materials. In *Treatise on geochemistry* (pp. 151–177). Elsevier. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/b978-0-08-095975-7.00406-x doi: 10.1016/b978-0-08-095975-7
 .00406-x
- Tripathi, S. N., Tare, V., Chinnam, N., Srivastava, A. K., Dey, S., Agarwal, A., ... Lal, S. (2006).
 Measurements of atmospheric parameters during indian space research organization geosphere
 biosphere programme land campaign ii at a typical location in the ganga basin: 1. physical and
 optical properties. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 111(D23). Retrieved from
 https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/2006JD007278
 doi: https://
- 950 doi.org/10.1029/2006JD007278

951	Tyagi, B., Choudhury, G., Vissa, N. K., Singh, J., & Tesche, M. (2021, February). Changing air
952	pollution scenario during COVID-19: Redefining the hotspot regions over india. Environmen-
953	tal Pollution, 271, 116354. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2020.116354
954	doi: 10.1016/j.envpol.2020.116354
955	van Vuuren, D. P., Edmonds, J., Kainuma, M., Riahi, K., Thomson, A., Hibbard, K., Rose,
956	S. K. (2011, August). The representative concentration pathways: an overview. Climatic Change,
957	109(1-2), 5-31. Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1007/s10584-011-0148-z doi: 10.1007/
958	s10584-011-0148-z
959	Venkataraman, C., Habib, G., Kadamba, D., Shrivastava, M., Leon, JF., Crouzille, B., Streets,
960	D. G. (2006, June). Emissions from open biomass burning in india: Integrating the inventory
961	approach with high-resolution moderate resolution imaging spectroradiometer (MODIS) active-
962	fire and land cover data. Global Biogeochemical Cycles, 20(2), n/a-n/a. Retrieved from https://
963	doi.org/10.1029/2005gb002547 doi: 10.1029/2005gb002547
964	Xie, M., Hays, M. D., & Holder, A. L. (2017, August). Light-absorbing organic carbon from
965	prescribed and laboratory biomass burning and gasoline vehicle emissions. Scientific Reports,
966	7(1). Retrieved from https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-017-06981-8 doi: 10.1038/s41598
967	-017-06981-8
968	Yadav, S., Tripathi, S. N., & Rupakheti, M. (2022, April). Current status of source apportionment
969	of ambient aerosols in india. Atmospheric Environment, 274, 118987. Retrieved from https://
970	doi.org/10.1016/j.atmosenv.2022.118987 doi: 10.1016/j.atmosenv.2022.118987
971	Yang, Y., Ruan, Z., Wang, X., Yang, Y., Mason, T. G., Lin, H., & Tian, L. (2019, April). Short-
972	term and long-term exposures to fine particulate matter constituents and health: A systematic
973	review and meta-analysis. Environmental Pollution, 247, 874–882. Retrieved from https://
974	doi.org/10.1016/j.envpol.2018.12.060 doi: 10.1016/j.envpol.2018.12.060
975	Yienger, J. J., & Levy II, H. (1995). Empirical model of global soil-biogenic no_X emis-
976	sions. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 100(D6), 11447-11464. Retrieved from
977	https://agupubs.onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1029/95JD00370 doi: https://
978	doi.org/10.1029/95JD00370

Figure 1.



(Longitude (E))

Figure 2.



Figure 3.



Figure 4.



Figure 5.



Figure 6.



Figure 7.



Figure 8.



0.12

0.10

0.07

0.05

0.02

0.00

Figure 9.



Figure A1(a).



Figure A1(b).



Figure A1(c).



Figure A1(d).



Figure A1(e).


Figure A2.



Figure A3.



Figure A4(a).



Figure A4(b).



Figure A4(c).



Figure A5.



