



1 **The Regional Climate-Chemistry-Ecology**  
2 **Coupling Model RegCM-Chem (v4.6)-YIBs (v1.0):**  
3 **Development and Application**

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16 **Abstract.** The interactions between the terrestrial biosphere, atmospheric chemistry, and climate involve complex  
17 feedbacks that have traditionally been modeled separately. We present a new framework that couples the Yale  
18 Interactive terrestrial Biosphere (YIBs), a dynamic plant-chemistry model, with the RegCM-Chem model.  
19 RegCM-Chem-YIBs integrates meteorological variables and atmospheric chemical composition from  
20 RegCM-Chem with land surface parameters from YIBs. The terrestrial carbon flux calculated by YIBs, are fed  
21 back into RegCM-Chem interactively, thereby representing the interactions between fine particulate matter  
22 (PM<sub>2.5</sub>), ozone (O<sub>3</sub>), and carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>). For testing purposes, we carry out a one-year simulation (2016) at  
23 a 30 km horizontal resolution over East Asia with RegCM-Chem-YIBs. The model accurately captures the spa-  
24 tio-temporal distribution of climate, chemical composition, and ecological parameters. In particular, the estimated  
25 O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> are consistent with ground observations, with correlation coefficients (R) of 0.74 and 0.65, respec-  
26 tively. The simulated CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is consistent with observations from six sites (R ranged from 0.89 to 0.97)  
27 and exhibits a similar spatial pattern when compared to carbon assimilation products. RegCM-Chem-YIBs pro-  
28 duces reasonably good gross primary productivity (GPP) and net primary productivity (NPP), showing seasonal  
29 and spatial distributions consistent with satellite observations, and mean biases (MBs) of 0.13 and 0.05 kg C m<sup>-2</sup>  
30 year<sup>-1</sup>. This study illustrates that the RegCM-Chem-YIBs is a valuable tool to investigate coupled interactions  
31 between the terrestrial carbon cycle, atmospheric chemistry, and climate change at a higher resolution in regional  
32 scale.



## 33 **1 Introduction**

34 Air pollution and climate change are major focal points in atmospheric and environmental science (Hong et  
35 al., 2019; Kan et al., 2012). In this respect, China exhibits both high air pollution levels and large greenhouse  
36 gas emissions (Zheng et al., 2018; Li et al., 2016a). The consequences of China's air pollution on global, region-  
37 al, and urban climate are significant (Liu et al., 2022; Lu et al., 2020). Conversely, global warming impacts the  
38 dynamics, physics, and chemical mechanisms underlying atmospheric pollutant formation, underscoring a ro-  
39 bust link between atmospheric chemistry and climate change (Baklanov et al., 2016; Fiore et al., 2015; Fiore et  
40 al., 2012).

41  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $O_3$ , and  $CO_2$  are important for regional air pollution and climate.  $O_3$ , a potent pollutant, is harmful  
42 for human health and can also harm chloroplasts in plant cells, consequently influencing the carbon assimilation  
43 efficiency of land ecosystems (Xie et al., 2019; Ainsworth et al., 2012). Similarly,  $PM_{2.5}$  is not only one of the  
44 most dangerous pollutants for human health (Kim et al., 2015), but also affects atmospheric radiation mechanics,  
45 modulates radiation fluxes reaching vegetation canopies, and hence impacts plant physiological processes and  
46 terrestrial carbon fluxes (Lu et al., 2017; Strada and Unger, 2016). Terrestrial ecosystems, absorbing nearly 30%  
47 of anthropogenic  $CO_2$  emissions, play an essential role in the global carbon cycle, for which even minor altera-  
48 tions can trigger significant oscillations in atmospheric  $CO_2$  concentrations, potentially destabilizing the global  
49 climate (Forkel et al., 2016; Ahlstrom et al., 2015). As a result,  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $O_3$ , and  $CO_2$  exhibit intricate interplays.

50 Models that couple climate and chemistry are vital tools for investigating the interplay between environ-  
51 mental pollution and climate warming (Dunne et al., 2020; Yahya et al., 2017), and in particular the direct and  
52 indirect influences of aerosols,  $O_3$ , and greenhouse gases on climates at different scales (Chutia et al., 2019; Pu  
53 et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017a). For example, the Atmospheric Chemistry and Climate Model Intercomparison  
54 Project (ACCMIP) addresses this issue through the use of a range of global coupled climate-chemistry models  
55 (Young et al., 2013; Shindell et al., 2013; Lamarque et al., 2013). In fact, China has achieved significant ad-  
56 vancements in atmospheric chemistry and coupled climate models during recent years, both at the global and  
57 regional scale. Representative models encompass BCC\_AGCM2.0\_CAM, BCC-AGCM\_CUACE2.0,  
58 RIEMS-Chem, and RegCCMS.

59 BCC\_AGCM2.0\_CAM was coupled by the China Meteorological Administration through direct integra-  
60 tion of the National Climate Center's atmospheric circulation model (BCC-AGCM) with the Canadian aerosol  
61 model (CAM) (Zhang et al., 2012). Atmospheric model BCC-AGCM2.0 was developed by the National Climate



62 Center. For example, at the regional scale the Institute of Atmospheric Physics of the Chinese Academy of Sci-  
63 ences, has constructed the Regional Integrated Environmental Modeling System (RIEMS), which is widely used  
64 in studies on East Asian regional climate change and severe weather systems (Scheuch et al., 2015; Xiong et al.,  
65 2009). It incorporates atmospheric chemistry and aerosol dynamics into the Regional Integrated Environment  
66 Modeling System and produces online simulations of meteorological parameters, aerosol chemical composition,  
67 optical characteristics, radiation forcing, and aerosol-induced climate feedback (Li et al., 2014; Li et al., 2013a;  
68 Han et al., 2012).

69 The Nanjing University developed the Regional Climate Chemistry Modeling System (RegCCMS), a syn-  
70 thesis of the regional climate model RegCM2 and the tropospheric atmospheric chemistry model TACM, pri-  
71 marily oriented toward investigating the spatio-temporal distribution, radiation forcing, and climatic effects of  
72 tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> and sulfate aerosols. Subsequently, RegCM3 was coupled with TACM, integrating modules for  
73 aerosols into RegCCMS (Zhang et al., 2014; Li et al., 2009). The system incorporates parameterization schemes  
74 facilitating the simulation of aerosols' direct, indirect, and semidirect climatic effects. Extensive evaluations  
75 have been carried out regarding major aerosol impacts on the meteorology and regional climate within East Asia  
76 (Zhuang et al., 2013; Zhuang et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2010). Subsequently, Shalaby et al. (2012) developed the  
77 regional climate-chemistry model RegCM-Chem, by coupling the CBM-Z gas phase chemistry module to ver-  
78 sion 4 of the RegCM system, RegCM4 (Giorgi et al., 2012). RegCM-Chem also includes a simplified aerosol  
79 scheme including radiatively interactive sulfates, carbonaceous aerosols, sea salt, and desert dust (Zakey et al.,  
80 2006; Solmon et al., 2006), and it has been used for a variety of applications in different domains.

81 By developing the regional climate-chemistry-ecology model RegCM-Chem-YIBs, in which the interactive  
82 biosphere model YIBs is coupled to RegCM-Chem. The model can produce multi-process simulations of re-  
83 gional climate, atmospheric chemistry, and ecology, especially PM<sub>2.5</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub>, and their interactions with  
84 atmospheric variables (Xu et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2023b; Ma et al., 2023a; Xu et al., 2022; Gao et al., 2022; Xie  
85 et al., 2020). Here we expand on these previous studies. We carry out a one-year simulation (2016) at a 30 km  
86 horizontal resolution over East Asia with RegCM-Chem-YIBs and conduct a comprehensive assessment. We  
87 validate the simulation not only in terms of atmospheric variables but also in terms of atmospheric composition  
88 and ecological parameters, by comparison with a range of observations available for this period.

89 The paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we first describe the RegCM-Chem-YIBs system, focusing  
90 in particular on the newly implemented coupling with the ecological component. We also describe the observa-

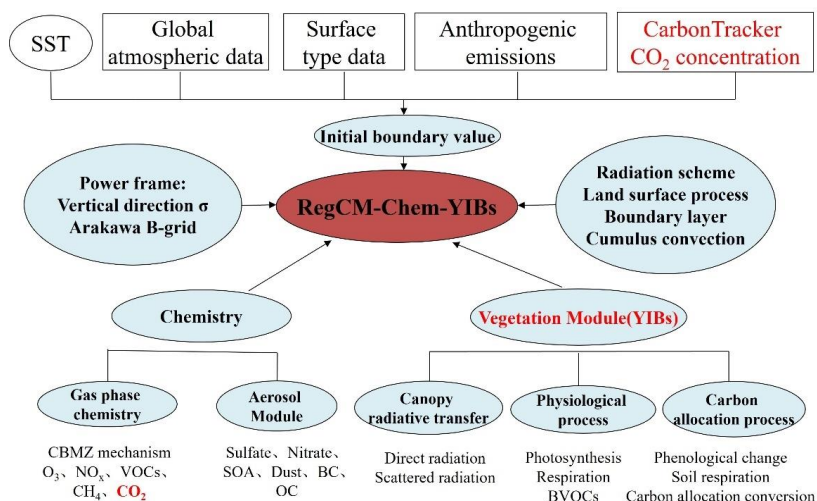


91 tion datasets used in the model assessment. The simulations are then analyzed in section 3, while section 4 pre-  
 92 sents our conclusions and a general discussion of our results and future developments.

## 93 2 Model and Methods

### 94 2.1 Overall Framework

95 In RegCM-Chem-YIBs, the atmospheric variables produced by RegCM (temperature, humidity, precipita-  
 96 tion, radiation, etc.) and atmospheric chemical compounds, such as O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, produced by the chemis-  
 97 try/aerosol module are input into YIBs, which simulates the physiological processes of vegetation (such as pho-  
 98 tosynthesis, respiration, etc.), and calculates land process variables such as CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes, BVOC emissions, and  
 99 stomatal conductance. The output from YIBs is then fed back to RegCM-Chem, which adjusts the CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and  
 100 PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations and their radiative and microphysical effects on the meteorological fields in the lower at-  
 101 mosphere, thereby achieving a full coupling between climate, chemistry, and ecology. Figure 1 shows the basic  
 102 framework of the RegCM-Chem-YIBs coupled model.



103

104 **Figure 1.** RegCM-Chem-YIBs Coupling Model Framework

### 105 2.2 Descriptions of the RegCM-Chem model

106 The inception of the RegCM system traces back to the late 1980s and early 1990s, when NCAR's (U.S. Na-  
 107 tional Center for Atmospheric Research) RegCM 1 was first developed for climate downscaling (Giorgi, 1990;



108 Giorgi and Bates, 1989; Dickinson et al., 1989). After a series of developments, subsequent versions were in-  
109 troduced, such as RegCM2 (Giorgi et al., 1993), RegCM2.5 (Giorgi and Mearns, 1999), RegCM3 (Pal et al.,  
110 2007), RegCM4 (Giorgi et al., 2012). The RegCM system presently managed, maintained, and expanded by the  
111 Earth System Physics (ESP) section of the Abdus Salam International Center for Theoretical Physics (ICTP), is  
112 open-source and extensively employed in regional climate studies, contributing to the establishment of a com-  
113 prehensive Regional Climate Research Network (RegCNET) (Giorgi et al., 2006). The model can be applied to  
114 all regions of the globe (Giorgi et al., 2012) and is moving into a fully-coupled regional Earth system model  
115 framework through coupling with the ocean (Turuncoglu et al., 2013; Artale et al., 2010), lake (Small et al.,  
116 1999), aerosol (Solmon et al., 2006), dust (Zakey et al., 2006), chemistry (Shalaby et al., 2012), hydrology  
117 (Coppola et al., 2003), land surface processes (Oleson et al., 2008). Of specific interest for our study, Shalaby et  
118 al. (2012) added a radiatively interactive gas-phase chemical module (CBM-Z) to RegCM4, generating  
119 RegCM-Chem, in which atmosphere physics and chemistry are fully coupled.

#### 120 **2.2.1 Aerosol Mechanisms**

121 The RegCM model integrates a simplified aerosol framework, enabling the simulation of sulfate, black  
122 carbon (BC), organic carbon (OC), sea salt, and desert dust. The model specifies an external mix of aerosols and  
123 accounts for the influence of horizontal advection, turbulent diffusion, vertical transport, emissions, dry and wet  
124 deposition, and gas-liquid transition on aerosol concentration (Solmon et al., 2012; Giorgi et al., 2012; Zakey et  
125 al., 2006). The secondary organic aerosol scheme VBS (volatile basis set) has also been introduced into the  
126 model to further improve RegCM-Chem's simulation of tropospheric aerosols (Yin et al., 2015). The model in-  
127 corporates the ISORROPIA thermodynamic equilibrium scheme to describe the formation process of secondary  
128 inorganic salts, thus enhancing the model's capability to simulate secondary inorganic aerosols (Li et al., 2016b).  
129 The further addition of bioaerosols was carried out by Liu (Liu et al., 2016).

#### 130 **2.2.2 Gas phase chemical mechanism**

131 RegCM4-Chem includes the CBM-Z (Carbon Bond Mechanism-Z) atmospheric chemistry mechanism  
132 (Zaveri and Peters, 1999). The CBM-IV mechanism, recognized for its widespread use, serves as the basis for  
133 CBM-Z (Gery et al., 1989) and was developed to balance simulation accuracy and computational speed. Both  
134 CBM-IV and CBM-Z categorize volatile organic compounds (VOCs) into groups dependent on their carbon



135 bond formation and use lumped species to represent each group. However, CBM-Z includes additional species  
136 and reactions compared to CBM-IV, which are crucial for simulating typical urban environments and long-term  
137 simulations at regional to global scales. Enhancements in CBM-Z include (1) specific representation of stable  
138 alkanes; (2) updated parameters for higher alkanes; (3) separation of olefins into two categories based on differ-  
139 ing reactions; (4) addition of peroxy alkane self-reactions significant in low-NO<sub>x</sub>, such as remote regions; (5)  
140 incorporation of reactions among alkanes, peroxyacyl radicals, and NO<sub>3</sub>, which are crucial nocturnally; (6) in-  
141 clusion of long-lived organic nitrates and peroxides; and (7) refinement of isoprene and its peroxy radical chem-  
142 istry. Collectively, these updates to the CBM-Z chemistry mechanism enhance the model's ability to more accu-  
143 rately simulate long-lived VOCs and address the atmospheric chemistry transition from urban to rural settings.

#### 144 **2.2.3 Radiation scheme**

145 RegCM4 adopts the CCM3 radiation scheme, which uses the delta-Eddington approximation for solar  
146 spectral radiation and accounts for the attenuation effect of atmospheric components such as O<sub>3</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O, CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>2</sub>  
147 on solar radiation (Kiehl et al., 1996). The CCM3 radiation scheme, implemented in RegCM4, extends from 0.2  
148 to 5 μm, and is segmented into 18 bands. It uses the cloud scattering and absorption parameter scheme, and  
149 cloud optical characteristics. As cumulus clouds form, the cloud optical characteristics stretch from the cloud  
150 base up to the cloud top, and the radiation calculations assume random overlap. It is assumed in the model that  
151 the cloud thickness is equivalent to that of the model's vertical layers, with distinctive cloud water and ice  
152 contents assigned to high, middle, and low clouds (Slingo, 1989).

#### 153 **2.2.4 Photolysis rate**

154 Meteorological conditions and chemical input fields determine the photolysis rate, with most variables  
155 dynamically produced by the RegCM's modules and updated every 3-30 minutes. SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub>, inverted from  
156 the US standard atmosphere's vertical profile, are model-defined. Owing to the computational demands of  
157 precise photolysis rates from the Tropospheric Ultraviolet-Visible Model (TUV) method (Madronich and  
158 Flocke, 1998) and eight data stream spherical harmonics discretization, a look-up table and interpolation method  
159 are adopted. Considering the significant impact of clouds on the photolysis rate, it becomes crucial to adjust the  
160 cloud amount. Here we use the cloud optical depth information for each grid cell within the model. As the  
161 absorption and scattering of ultraviolet radiation by clouds reduce the photolysis rate inside and below the cloud



162 while enhancing it above the cloud, the correction value for the photolysis rate under clear sky conditions de-  
163 pends on the position to the cloud layer. Hence, cloud height and optical depth are necessary for the photolysis  
164 rate computation (Chang et al., 1987).

### 165 **2.2.5 Deposition Processes**

166 In the model, dry deposition serves as the principal removal process for trace gases, with the deposition  
167 velocity being determined by three categories of resistance: aerodynamic, quasi-laminar sublayer, and surface  
168 resistance, encompassing soil and vegetation absorption. The latter is inclusive of both stomatal and nonstomatal  
169 absorption. The dry deposition module, taken from the CLM4 surface scheme, covers 29 gas-phase species and  
170 comprises 11 types of land cover. To enhance the accuracy of the daily variation in dry deposition simulation,  
171 both stomatal and nonstomatal resistances are accounted for in the dry deposition scheme. The calculation of all  
172 deposition resistances is performed within the CLM land surface model (Wesely, 1989). Wet deposition uses the  
173 MOZART global model's wet deposition parameterization scheme (Emmons et al., 2010; Horowitz et al., 2003),  
174 including 26 gas-phase species in CBM-Z, and the wet deposition amount is based on the simulated precipita-  
175 tion.

## 176 **2.3 Descriptions of the YIBs model**

177 The YIBs model, pioneered by Yale University, integrates plant physiological mechanisms to simulate how  
178 photosynthesis, respiration, and other physiological processes respond to environmental drivers such as radi-  
179 ation, temperature, and moisture. Moreover, YIBs simulates the carbon cycle both regionally and globally (Yue  
180 and Unger, 2015). For example, its simulation of terrestrial carbon flux closely matches ground flux observa-  
181 tions and satellite-derived data in diverse geographical areas such as the United States and China (Yue and  
182 Unger, 2017; Yue et al., 2017).

### 183 **2.3.1 The main processes in YIBs**

184 In the YIBs model, eight distinct Plant Functional Types (PFTs) are incorporated, encompassing evergreen  
185 coniferous forest, evergreen broad-leaved forest, deciduous broad-leaved forest, shrub forest, tundra, C3 grass-  
186 land, C4 grasslands, and crops. The model employs the Michaelis–Menten enzyme-kinetics scheme for simulat-  
187 ing plant photosynthesis (Farquhar et al., 1980), and the total photosynthesis ( $A_{tot}$ ) of leaves is affected by Ru-



188 bisco enzyme activity ( $J_c$ ), electron transfer rate ( $J_e$ ), and photosynthetic product (triose phosphate) transport  
189 capacity ( $J_s$ ) limitation.

### 190 **2.3.2 Canopy Radiation Scheme**

191 A multilayer canopy radiation transmission scheme is adopted in YIBs for canopy radiation transmission  
192 (Spitters et al., 1986), consisting of a radiation transfer model based on the total leaf area index, extinction coef-  
193 ficient, and vegetation height. The entire vegetation canopy is usually divided into 2 to 16 layers, and the spe-  
194 cific number of layers can be automatically adjusted according to the height of the canopy.

### 195 **2.3.3 Biogenic Volatile Organic Compound Emission Scheme**

196 Differently from the traditional MEGAN scheme, the YIBs model applies a biogenic volatile organic com-  
197 pound (BVOC) emission scheme on a leaf scale, which is better suited to describe the photosynthesis process in  
198 vegetation (Guenther et al., 1995). This introduces an effect of plant photosynthesis on BVOC emissions which  
199 is more closely related to the real physiological process of vegetation. The intensity of leaf BVOC emission de-  
200 pends on the rate of photosynthesis under electron transfer rate limitation, leaf surface temperature, and intra-  
201 cellular  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration.

### 202 **2.3.4 Ozone Damage Protocol**

203 When tropospheric ozone enters plants through stomata, it can directly damage plant cell tissues, thereby  
204 slowing the photosynthesis rate and further weakening the carbon sequestration capacity of vegetation. The  
205 YIBs model incorporates the semi-mechanistic parameterization scheme to delineate ozone's effect on plants  
206 (Sitch et al., 2007).

## 207 **2.4 Descriptions of the RegCM-Chem-YIBs model**

### 208 **2.4.1 Coupling between RegCM-Chem and YIBs**

209 The integrated RegCM-Chem-YIBs model, an enhancement to the original RegCM-Chem, introduces  $\text{CO}_2$   
210 as an atmospheric constituent, incorporating its source-sink dynamics, transport, and diffusion processes. At-  
211 mospheric  $\text{CO}_2$  concentration is primarily influenced by atmosphere-ocean  $\text{CO}_2$  exchange flux, biomass com-  
212 bustion emissions, fossil fuel emissions, and terrestrial ecosystem  $\text{CO}_2$  flux. The model prescribes fossil fuel





213 emissions, biomass combustion emissions, and atmosphere-ocean CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes, while the terrestrial ecosystem  
214 CO<sub>2</sub> fluxes are computed in real time via the coupled YIBs terrestrial ecosystem model.

215 Within the coupled model system, meteorological variables (including temperature, humidity, precipitation,  
216 radiation, etc.) and atmospheric pollutant concentrations (O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub>) generated by RegCM-Chem are incor-  
217 porated into the YIBs model every six-minute intervals. YIBs then simulates vegetation physiological processes  
218 such as photosynthesis and respiration, computing land surface parameters including CO<sub>2</sub> flux, BVOC, and  
219 stomatal conductance. These outputs from the YIBs are subsequently integrated back into the RegCM-Chem  
220 model, modulating atmospheric composition (CO<sub>2</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and PM<sub>2.5</sub>) and atmospheric variables (atmospheric tem-  
221 perature, humidity, and circulation), thereby describing the interplay of climate, chemical, and ecological pro-  
222 cesses.

#### 223 **2.4.2 Model input data**

224 The input data of RegCM-Chem-YIBs mainly includes four categories: surface data, initial boundary data,  
225 anthropogenic emission data and CO<sub>2</sub> surface flux data, which are detailed below.

226 (1) Surface data include surface vegetation cover type, terrain, and leaf area index. Land cover type infor-  
227 mation is obtained from the MODIS and AVHRR satellites, employing the classification scheme suggested by  
228 Lawrence and Chase (Lawrence and Chase, 2007), which uses MODIS data to preliminarily distinguish forest,  
229 grassland, bare soil, etc., and combine this with AVHRR data to make a detailed forest classification. The dataset  
230 contains a total of 16 different vegetation functional types. To align with the classification conventions of the  
231 YIBs model, the original 16 vegetation functional types were converted into the corresponding 8 types recog-  
232 nized by the YIBs model. The results are shown in Figure S1.

233 (2) Initial and boundary data include initial and boundary conditions of meteorological variables and at-  
234 mospheric chemical composition. Here we use ERA-Interim reanalysis meteorological data, a product from the  
235 European Center for Medium-Range Weather Forecasts (ECMWF) created through four-dimensional variational  
236 assimilation. The data is on 37 vertical levels, with a horizontal resolution of 0.125°×0.125°, and time resolution  
237 of 6 hours. Data for Sea Surface Temperature (SST) is provided by the weekly averaged Optimum Interpolation  
238 SST product (OI\_WK) of the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) (Reynolds et al.,  
239 2002). The initial and boundary conditions of atmospheric chemical components (e.g. O<sub>3</sub>), come from simula-  
240 tions carried out with the global chemistry model MOZART (Emmons et al., 2010; Horowitz et al., 2003). In



241 addition, the initial and boundary conditions for CO<sub>2</sub> species come from the CarbonTracker global carbon as-  
242 similation system (Peters et al., 2007) developed by NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory ESRL (Earth  
243 System Research Laboratory), which uses the ensemble Kalman filter algorithm to assimilate ESRL greenhouse  
244 gas observations and CO<sub>2</sub> observation data provided by the network of collaborating institutions worldwide. The  
245 assimilated data includes not only conventional fixed-site observations but also mobile monitoring data such as  
246 aircraft and ships. Since 2007, yearly updated carbon assimilation products are provided by CarbonTracker, de-  
247 livering global CO<sub>2</sub> three-dimensional concentration data products every three hours. In this study, we utilized  
248 the CT2019 product, updated in 2019, spanning a period from January 1, 2000 to March 29, 2019.

249 (3) Anthropogenic emission data include precursors of ozone and particulate matter such as NO<sub>x</sub>, VOC,  
250 BC, OC, etc. The MIX Asian anthropogenic emission inventory developed by the Tsinghua University is used  
251 (Li et al., 2017b), which integrates the results of the emission inventories of various regions in Asia. The emis-  
252 sions in China come from China's multi-scale emission inventory MEIC (Multi-resolution Emission Inventory  
253 for China) and the high-resolution NH<sub>3</sub> emission inventory developed by Peking University. The anthropogenic  
254 emissions in India come from the Indian local emission inventory developed by ANL (Argonne National Labor-  
255 atory), while the anthropogenic emissions in South Korea come from the CAPSS (The Korean local emission  
256 inventory developed by the Policy Support System), and the man-made emissions in other regions are provided  
257 by the REAS (Regional Emission inventory in Asia) emission inventory version 2.1. The anthropogenic emis-  
258 sions of major pollutants in the simulated area are shown in Figure S2.

259 (4) Data pertaining to fossil fuel CO<sub>2</sub> emissions are sourced from the MIX Asian anthropogenic emission  
260 inventory with a monthly time resolution. CO<sub>2</sub> emissions resulting from biomass burning are derived from the  
261 FINN (Fire Inventory from NCAR) inventory (Wiedinmyer et al., 2011) developed by the National Center for  
262 Atmospheric Research. The FINN inventory has a daily time resolution. The model's ocean-atmosphere CO<sub>2</sub>  
263 exchange flux is obtained from the carbon flux product of the CarbonTracker assimilation system, constructed  
264 with the global atmospheric transport model TM5 and assimilating CO<sub>2</sub> observation data via an ensemble Kal-  
265 man filter algorithm. This provides global 1°×1° resolution CO<sub>2</sub> exchange flux data between the ocean and the  
266 atmosphere updated every three hours. The emissions are detailed in Figure S3.

## 267 **3 Model Application**

### 268 **3.1 Model setup**



269 To evaluate the performance of RegCM-Chem-YIBs we carried out a one-year simulation starting from  
 270 December 1st, 2015, through December 31st, 2016. The initial month is used as spin-up period, and thus it is not  
 271 included in the analysis. The simulation domain is centered at 36°N, 107°E, and covers a considerable part of  
 272 East Asia, including China, Japan, the Korean Peninsula, and Mongolia, along with significant parts of India and  
 273 Southeast Asia (Figure S4). The horizontal grid spacing is 30 km and we use 14 levels in the vertical, reaching  
 274 up to 50 hPa. Section 2.4.2 provides a comprehensive description of the model input data.

### 275 3.2 Climate simulations in East Asian

276 Given the importance of the climate for the East Asia region, we first present an assessment of the simula-  
 277 tion for the climate 2016 by comparison with the ERA-Interim data. The simulated temperature, specific  
 278 humidity, and wind fields at varying altitudes and seasons compared well with the reanalyzed data (Figure S5~  
 279 Figure S9), especially temperature and specific humidity, while a tendency to overestimate wind speed is  
 280 observed at the near surface and 850 hPa levels. The fields at 500 hPa show very close agreement with  
 281 reanalysis data, indicating a strong mid-atmosphere forcing by the boundary conditions, while the simulated  
 282 circulation patterns near the surface and at 850 hPa in summer tend to deviate more from the driving reanalysis.  
 283 The simulated circulation patterns in the other seasons are basically consistent with the reanalysis data.

284 Table 1 reports a number of statistical metrics of comparison between simulated and reanalysis  
 285 meteorological variables at different heights. Correlation coefficients (R) range from 0.95 to 0.98 for tempera-  
 286 ture, 0.71 to 0.97 for longitudinal wind, 0.81 to 0.92 for latitudinal wind, and 0.91-0.92 for specific humidity,  
 287 indicating a general good consistency between model and driving data, in line with previous studies (Zhuang et  
 288 al., 2018; Zhou et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2010).

289 **Table 1.** Statistical indicators for comparison between model simulation results and reanalysis data

Heights	Statistical index	Air Temperature(K)	Longitudinal wind (m/s)	Latitudinal wind (m/s)	Specific humidity (kg kg <sup>-1</sup> )
	R	0.98	0.97	0.92	0.91
500 hpa	MB	0.15	0.35	-0.03	0.00015
	RMSE	0.93	0.75	0.51	0.00019
850 hpa	R	0.96	0.77	0.85	0.94
	MB	-0.98	0.38	0.15	-0.00066



	RMSE	1.1	1.08	0.59	0.00077
Near sur- face	R	0.95	0.71	0.81	0.92
	MB	-1.21	0.33	0.23	-0.00098
	RMSE	1.35	0.59	0.54	0.00112

290 (Correlation coefficients (R), mean biases (MB), and root mean square error (RMSE))

291 The magnitude of surface radiation flux directly determines the rates of photosynthesis in vegetation. For  
292 verification purposes, model surface solar fluxes were compared with data on solar energy at the surface  
293 retrieved from the Clouds and the Earth's Radiant Energy System (CERES) satellite, which has a  $1^\circ \times 1^\circ$   
294 horizontal and monthly temporal resolution. Figure S10 shows the simulated surface net shortwave radiation in  
295 different seasons and comparison with observational data. The model tends to overestimate surface net  
296 shortwave radiation in spring and winter over India and summer over North China (Yin et al., 2014). Overall,  
297 the simulated surface net shortwave radiation agrees well with the CERES satellite retrieval results, capturing  
298 the spatial distribution and seasonal fluctuation patterns of surface shortwave radiation. The simulation findings  
299 from our study are consistent with earlier research regarding surface net shortwave radiation (Han et al., 2016).

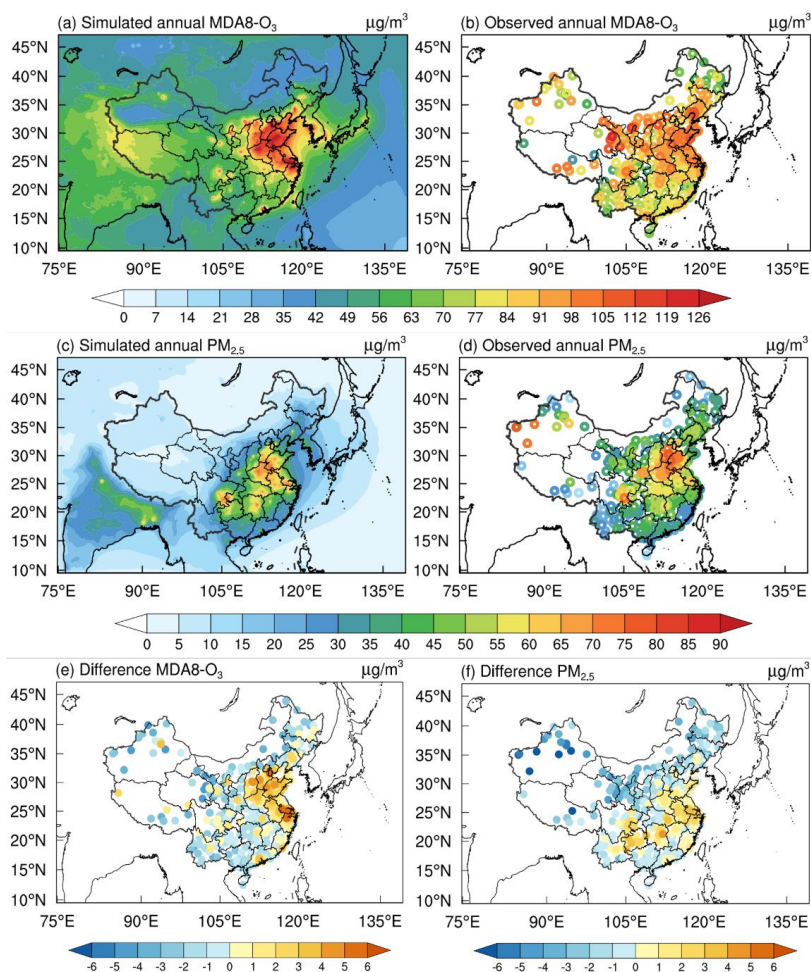
300 In conclusion, RegCM-Chem-YIBs demonstrates a good performance in simulating the climatological  
301 features of the East Asia atmospheric circulations, effectively reproducing the spatial distribution and seasonal  
302 variations of temperature, specific humidity, and radiation.

### 303 3.3 Simulations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub>

304 In this section, we compare simulated PM<sub>2.5</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> concentrations against observational data from 366  
305 stations provided by the China National Environmental Monitoring Center. The geographical distribution of the  
306 simulated annual mean near-surface daily PM<sub>2.5</sub> and maximum daily 8-hour average (MDA8) O<sub>3</sub> concentration,  
307 along with the observed values, are shown in Figure 2. Supplementary Figure S11 then compares in a scatter-  
308 plot format the observation and simulation results. Both figures demonstrate that the model reproduces the  
309 spatial distribution patterns of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>, with a significant agreement between modeled and measured  
310 values across all stations. The statistical indicators of simulated and measured surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> levels are  
311 shown in Table S1, showing a correlation between simulation and observations of O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> of 0.74 and 0.65,  
312 respectively. The simulated O<sub>3</sub> concentrations are generally lower than observed in the Fenwei Plain of China, a  
313 discrepancy possibly attributable to uncertainties in the emission inventory for this region. In summary, the



314 RegCM-Chem-YIBs model demonstrates a good ability to capture the spatial distribution of observed  
315 near-surface ozone and particulate matter, especially in highly polluted areas.



316  
317 **Figure 2.** Simulation and observation comparison of (a, b) O<sub>3</sub> and (c, d) PM<sub>2.5</sub> and their differences (e, f) in China.  
318 The differences are simulation minus observation. The colored circles in the figure represent station observations.  
319 Units:  $\mu\text{g m}^{-3}$ .

320 Measured and calculated MDA monthly mean CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations at six observation stations in East Asia from  
321 the World data Center for Greenhouse Gases are shown in Figure 3. Information on the six sites is listed in Table  
322 2. The simulated CO<sub>2</sub> concentration agrees well with observations, with correlation coefficients ranging from  
323 0.89 to 0.97. However, in urban and coastal areas, the model performance deteriorates likely due to local emis-  
324 sion fluctuations and errors in biogenic fluxes. Nevertheless, the model overall captures the seasonal variations

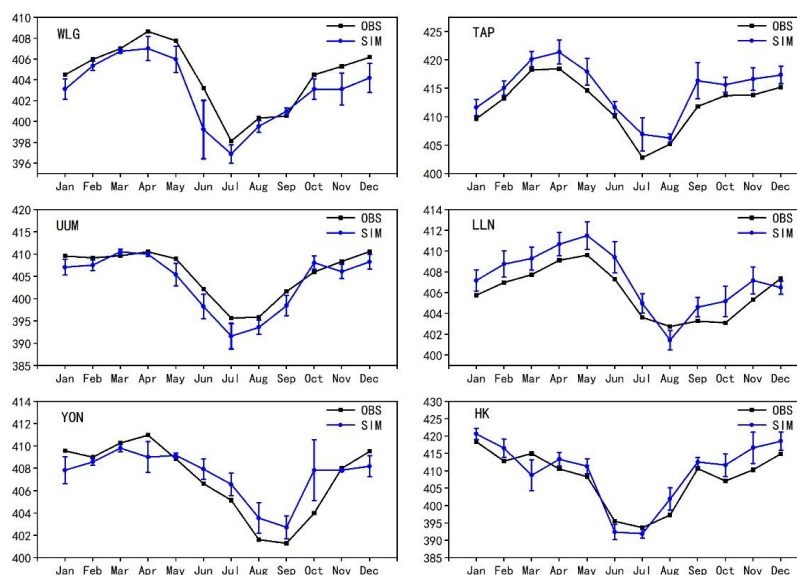


325 in CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations (Figure 3). This result likely stems from the complex relationship between biogenic and  
326 fossil fuel emissions, which are known contributors to observed seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> patterns (Kou et al., 2015). A high  
327 CO<sub>2</sub> mixing ratio (412.3 ppm) is observed at the TAP site, which is associated with strong local emissions. Fur-  
328 ther analysis into the specific sources contributing to elevated CO<sub>2</sub> levels would provide valuable insights into  
329 localized patterns of emissions and their effects on regional carbon cycle processes. The model's ability to re-  
330 produce the geographical and seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> patterns serves as an illustration of its ability to capture the main  
331 processes driving CO<sub>2</sub> dynamics. In summary, while discrepancies in urban or coastal areas highlight the chal-  
332 lenges associated with capturing localized CO<sub>2</sub> dynamics, the model's overall performance and ability to repro-  
333 duce geographical and seasonal CO<sub>2</sub> patterns demonstrates its usefulness in studying CO<sub>2</sub> dynamics at a regional  
334 scale.

335 **Table 2.** Information on six CO<sub>2</sub> stations in East Asia and statistical indicators of observed and modeled CO<sub>2</sub>.

Sites	Latitude	Longitude	Elevation	Observations	Simulations	R	RMSE
				(ppm)	(ppm)		
WLG	36.29	100.90	3810	404.3	402.9	0.94	1.75
TAP	36.72	126.12	20	412.3	414.8	0.97	2.70
UUM	44.45	111.08	992	405.7	403.7	0.96	2.66
LLN	23.46	120.86	2867	406.0	407.2	0.93	1.63
YON	24.47	123.02	30	407.1	407.4	0.89	2.80
HK	22.31	114.17	65	407.9	409.7	0.92	15.67

336 (Correlation coefficients (R) and root mean square error (RMSE))



337

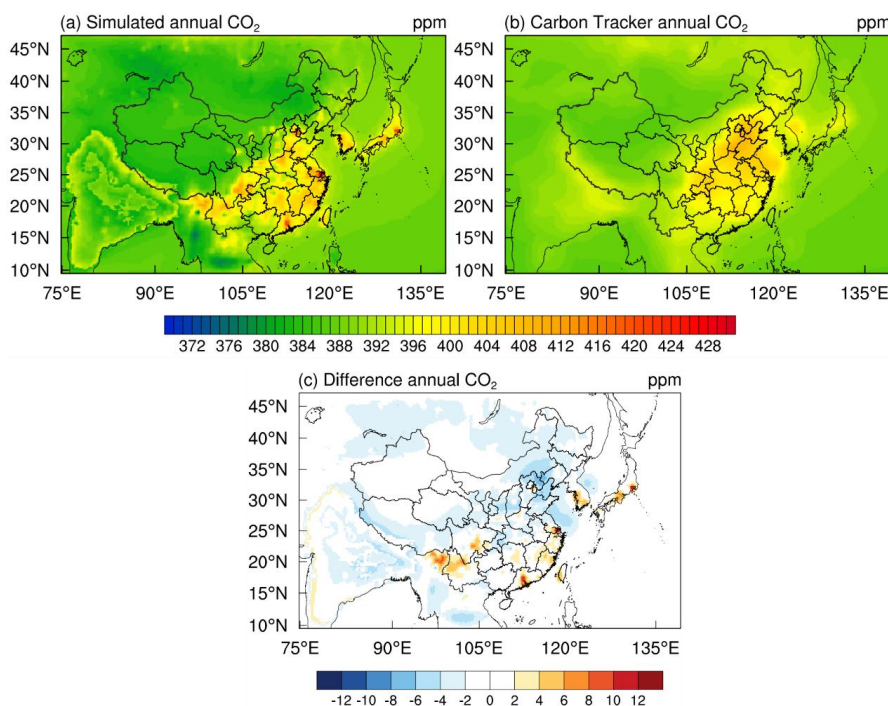
338 **Figure 3.** Modeled (blue) and observed (black) monthly mean CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations validated at six sites in East  
339 Asia. Units: ppm.

340 The limitations of ground-based CO<sub>2</sub> observation stations, particularly their sparse spatial distribution, pose  
341 challenges in obtaining high-resolution CO<sub>2</sub> data. To offset this limitation, data assimilation methods have been  
342 implemented to ensure a coherent global distribution of atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub>, effectively filling the void left by  
343 sparse ground-based observations. Here we utilize the Carbon Tracker global carbon assimilation system  
344 developed by the NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory (ESRL) to validate the simulated CO<sub>2</sub>  
345 concentrations (Peters et al., 2007). This comparison for the year 2016 is shown in Figure 4. The simulated CO<sub>2</sub>  
346 concentrations tend to be lower than observed in Northeastern India and Northeastern China, while they show a  
347 better agreement with observations in other regions. These discrepancies can be traced back to factors such as  
348 the underestimation of localized CO<sub>2</sub> emissions along with the effects of complex topography and circulation  
349 patterns. However, the closer agreement in other regions suggests that the model effectively captures the  
350 primary processes driving CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations.

351 Seasonal variations in the spatial distribution of CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations for 2016 are illustrated in supplement-  
352 ary Figure S12. The simulations show marked seasonal variations, with elevated concentrations in spring,  
353 autumn, and lower values during summer. In northern regions, including Russia, Mongolia, and Northeast China,  
354 the lowest near-surface CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations occur in summer. This pattern can be attributed to the enhanced



355 photosynthetic activity of terrestrial vegetation in summer, leading to enhanced atmospheric CO<sub>2</sub> sequestration.  
356 Conversely, winter months are characterized by lower solar radiation fluxes and reduced vegetation  
357 photosynthesis, resulting in relatively higher CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations. In specific regions, notably the eastern coastal  
358 zones of China and South Korea, the seasonal pattern of CO<sub>2</sub> concentration is reduced, likely because of the  
359 high levels of urbanization, dense population, and intense anthropogenic emissions in these areas. In contrast,  
360 regions such as Yunnan, the southern side of the Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, and Southeast Asia exhibit consistently  
361 low CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations during summer because of significant vegetation sinks in these densely vegetated areas.  
362 An increase in CO<sub>2</sub> concentrations can be observed over these regions during spring due to local forest fires and  
363 straw-burning processes, which release substantial amounts of CO<sub>2</sub> into the atmosphere (Chuang et al., 2014).



364  
365 **Figure 4.** Evaluation of simulated CO<sub>2</sub> (a) using Carbon Tracker products (b) and their difference (c) in 2016. The  
366 differences are simulation minus observation. Units: ppm.

### 367 3.4 Simulations of carbon fluxes in terrestrial systems

368 Our assessment of GPP and NPP uses the MOD17A3 Collection 6, a global product originating from  
369 MODIS satellite observations. GPP data include 8-day values with a resolution of 500 meters, as produced in





370 MOD17A2H Version 6 based on radiation use efficiency theory. Such data can be used as input to computations  
371 of terrestrial carbon and energy flows, water cycling processes, and vegetation biogeochemistry. Moreover, the  
372 MOD17A3H Version 6 product provides information on annual NPP, also on a resolution of 500 meters. All  
373 8-day Net Photosynthesis (PSN) products (MOD17A2H) from a particular year are combined to derive annual  
374 NPP values (He et al., 2018; Madani et al., 2014; Running, 2012).

375 Figure 5 (a, b, e) shows the geographical distribution of the mean GPP in 2016 from the model simulations  
376 and MODIS products. RegCM-Chem-YIBs effectively captures the observed spatial GPP features, with high  
377 values mostly over Southwest, Central, and Southeastern China, areas characterized by deciduous broad-leaf  
378 and evergreen coniferous forests (Figure S1). The annual average GPP simulated by RegCM-Chem-YIBs is  
379 higher than observed over Southwest and Central China by 6.8% and 12.7%, respectively. The annual average  
380 simulated GPP over China is  $6.18 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ , which is about 7.56% higher than the GPP in MODIS.

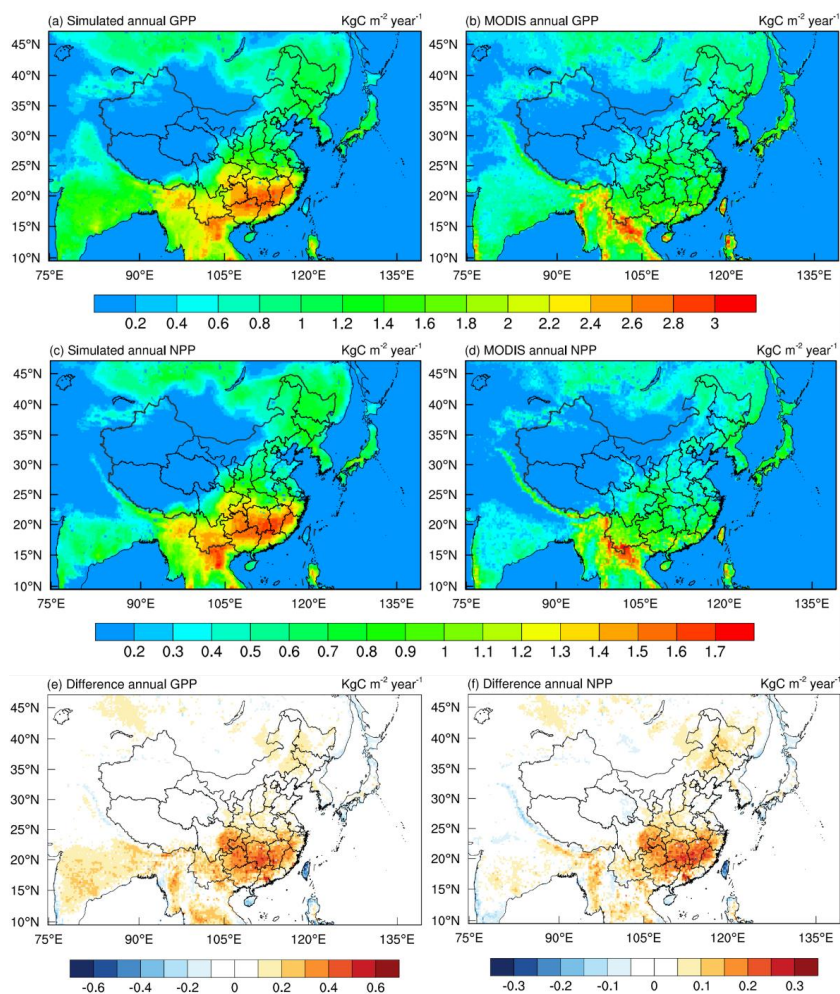
381 Figure 6 (a) and Table S2 show the scatter plots of the simulated annual average GPP on each model grid  
382 point compared with MODIS. A correlation coefficient of 0.91 and root mean square error of  $0.4 \text{ kg C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$  is  
383 found, reflecting an overall good simulation by the model. Compared with the results obtained from the global  
384 model NASA ModelE2–YIBs (Yue and Unger, 2017), the GPP value estimated here compares better with the  
385 MODIS product, which may also be attributed to the higher spatial resolution of the regional system. Moreover,  
386 our GPP results are also in line with earlier findings, such as from Li (Li et al., 2013b) who estimated an annual  
387 average GPP over China of  $6.04 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$  based on the light energy utilization model EC-LUE.

388 Figure 5 (c, d, f) shows the spatial distribution of mean NPP for both the simulations and MODIS  
389 products in 2016. NPP, similarly to GPP, exhibits a gradual reduction from southeast to northwest China. The  
390 scatter plot comparing the simulated and MODIS annual average NPP across the model grid is illustrated in  
391 Figure 6 (b). According to Table S2, a correlation coefficient of 0.87 is found between the simulated and  
392 MODIS NPP, with a root mean square error of  $0.22 \text{ kg C m}^{-2} \text{ yr}^{-1}$ . Notably, the simulated NPP shows a distinct  
393 underestimation over regions with higher NPP values. Compared with the MODIS NPP data products, the  
394 annual average NPP simulated for the entire China region in 2016 is overestimated by approximately 8.64%,  
395 mostly because of the model overestimate in Central China (16.6%).

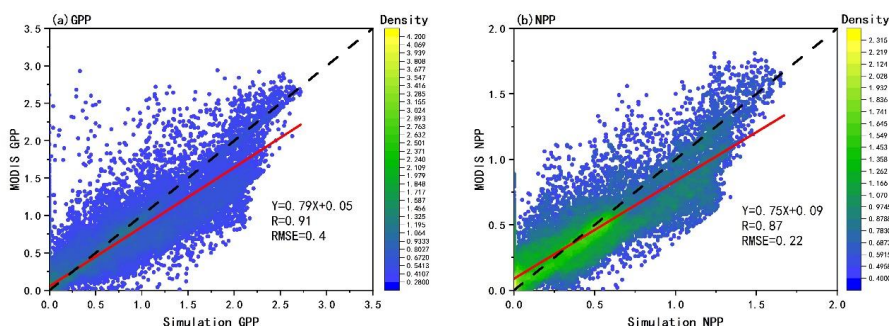
396 Part of the reason for this result is the relatively simple treatment of the nitrogen deposition process in YIBs  
397 (Yue and Unger, 2015). On the other hand, some studies have noted that due to the limitations of driving data  
398 and algorithm parameters, the MODIS NPP products have some problems in China (Li et al., 2013b).



399 Furthermore, the NPP value estimated by the model over China is  $3.21 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ , in line with the mean value  
400 ( $2.92 \pm 0.12 \text{ Pg C yr}^{-1}$ ) found in previous 37 studies (Wang et al., 2017).



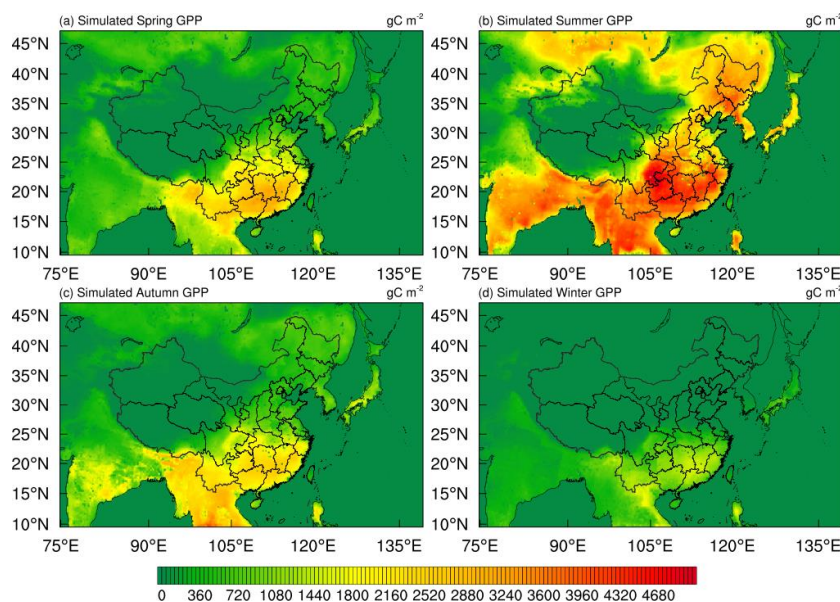
401  
402 **Figure 5.** Spatial distribution of modeled (a, c) and MODIS (b, d), annual mean GPP (a, b) and NPP (c, d), and  
403 their differences (e, f). The differences are simulation minus observation. Units:  $\text{kg C m}^{-2} \text{ year}^{-1}$ .



404

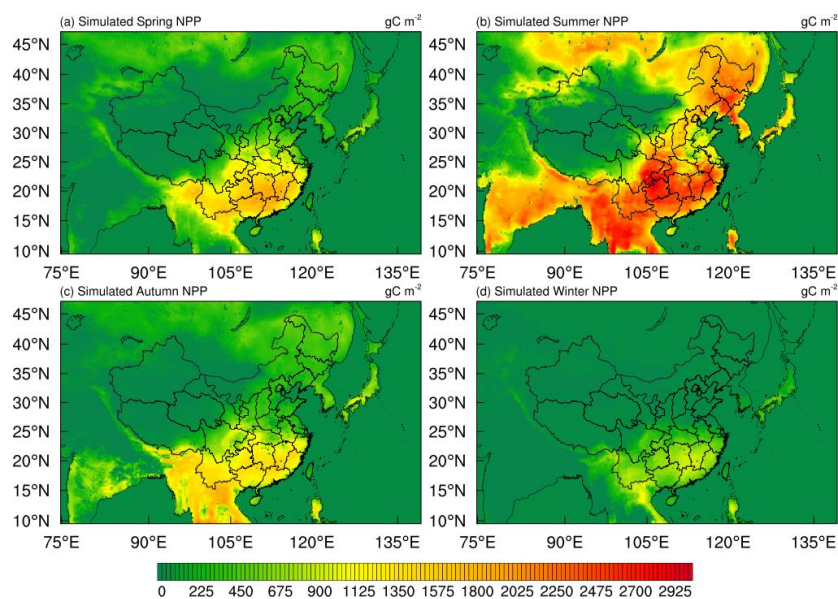
405 **Figure 6.** Density scatter plots of (a) GPP and (b) NPP for model simulations and inversion-based products for  
 406 2016. Units: kg C m<sup>-2</sup> year<sup>-1</sup>.

407 Figure 7 and Figure 8 illustrate the seasonal fluctuations in GPP and NPP, as simulated for 2016 in East  
 408 Asia. Both GPP and NPP present pronounced seasonal variations, with negligible values during winter, and a  
 409 strong peak in summer. The winter minimum is attributable to limiting environmental factors such as reduced  
 410 solar radiation, lower temperatures, and suppressed photosynthetic activity by vegetation. Conversely, summer  
 411 shows the highest GPP and NPP values due to extended daylight hours, increased solar radiation, and  
 412 temperatures facilitating increased photosynthetic activity and vegetation metabolism.



413

414 **Figure 7.** Spatial distribution of GPP simulated by model of spring(a), summer(b), autumn(c) and winter(d) in  
 415 2016. Units: g C m<sup>-2</sup>



416

417 **Figure 8.** Spatial distribution of NPP simulated by model of spring(a), summer(b), autumn(c) and winter(d) in  
418 2016. Units:  $\text{g C m}^{-2}$

### 419 3.5 Simulations of other carbon-bearing species

420 The analysis of additional carbonaceous compounds such as BC, OC and carbon monoxide (CO), is crucial  
421 due to their considerable influence on climate and the carbon cycle. The spatial distribution of simulated BC for  
422 each season of 2016 is shown in Figure S13. BC concentrations are mainly centered in North China, Central  
423 China, the Sichuan Basin, Chongqing, and Northeast India, regions with a higher concentration of industrial and  
424 residential emission sources. BC displays a marked seasonal variation, with elevated levels in winter, possibly  
425 attributed to residential heating, more stagnant conditions, and reduced removal by precipitation.

426 Figure S14 then shows the spatial corresponding distribution of seasonal OC, which is also higher over  
427 North China, Central China, Sichuan and Chongqing, and Northeast India. Finally, Figure S15 reports the  
428 annual mean near-surface CO concentrations for observations and simulation data across the monitoring sites in  
429 China. While simulated CO concentrations agree well spatially with observations, the simulations produce  
430 higher values than observed in Central China, likely linked to uncertainties in emission inventories. Figure S16  
431 presents the seasonal spatial distributions of CO, with simulated high values mostly localized in  
432 Sichuan-Chongqing and Central China, and a peak in winter.



#### 433 **4 Conclusions**

434 Regional climate-chemical coupled models can be used to study the characteristics of regional-scale cli-  
435 mate and pollutants, and is an important means to investigate the behavior of atmospheric pollutants and their  
436 radiative climate effects. However, current coupled regional climate models describe the physiological process  
437 of terrestrial vegetation relatively simply and do not consider the interaction between atmospheric pollutants  
438 (such as PM<sub>2.5</sub> and O<sub>3</sub>) and CO<sub>2</sub>, as well as their impacts on terrestrial ecosystems.

439 To overcome this problem, in this work we coupled the YIBs biogeochemical model to the RegCM-CHEM  
440 regional climate-chemistry model, and tested this coupled modeling system over a domain covering East Asia at  
441 a 30 km horizontal grid spacing for the year 2016. The model output was validated against reanalysis data, ob-  
442 servational data, and satellite remote sensing data, both for the atmosphere and the carbon cycle.

443 Our simulations show that the coupled RegCM-Chem-YIBs system can effectively reproduce the spa-  
444 tio-temporal distribution of meteorological variables, atmospheric composition (PM<sub>2.5</sub>, O<sub>3</sub>, and CO<sub>2</sub>) and terres-  
445 trial carbon fluxes (GPP and NPP). Comparisons of the simulated temperature, longitudinal wind, latitudinal  
446 wind, and specific humidity for different seasons with the driving ERA-Interim reanalysis data showed correla-  
447 tion coefficients of 0.95-0.98, 0.71-0.97, 0.81-0.92, and 0.91-0.92, respectively. The correlation coefficients  
448 between observed and simulated O<sub>3</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels in China were 0.74 and 0.65, respectively, while the corre-  
449 sponding correlations for CO<sub>2</sub> were in the range of 0.89 to 0.97. Comparison of the ecological parameters GPP  
450 and NPP simulated in East Asia with the observed data showed correlation coefficients of 0.91 and 0.87, respec-  
451 tively. In addition, in all cases, the seasonal variation of the different variables was captured by the model.  
452 Therefore, we conclude that, overall, the RegCM-Chem-YIBs model demonstrates a good performance in simu-  
453 lating the spatio-temporal distribution characteristics of regional meteorological characteristics, atmospheric  
454 composition, and ecological parameters over East Asia.

455 In the future, we will continue to improve RegCM-Chem-YIBs in the following aspects. First, we will in-  
456 vestigate the impact of CO<sub>2</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> inhomogeneity on radiation calculations by integrating temporally and spa-  
457 tially varying concentrations derived from YIBs and Chem into the RegCM radiation module. This will enable  
458 additional accurate computation of longwave radiation flux, improving the representation of the regional radia-  
459 tion balance. Second, we intend to assimilate a module representing various chemical transformations happening  
460 on the surfaces of aerosol particles. Finally, we will include the wet removal process of O<sub>3</sub>. These advancements  
461 will contribute to the refinement of RegCM-Chem-YIBs, enhancing our ability to investigate the interactions



462 between regional atmosphere, carbon cycle, and vegetation processes.

#### 463 **Code and data availability**

464 The RegCM-Chem source code can be obtained from <https://github.com/ICTP/RegCM> (last access: 10 July  
465 2023). The YIBs model code is available at [https://github.com/YIBS01/YIBs\\_site](https://github.com/YIBS01/YIBs_site) (last access: 10 July 2023).  
466 The input data and source code for RegCM-Chem-YIBs have been archived on Zenodo at  
467 <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.8186164> (Xie and Wang, 2023). The CarbonTracker data are provided at  
468 (<https://gml.noaa.gov/ccgg/carbontracker/>). The CERES surface radiation data are available at  
469 (<https://ceres.larc.nasa.gov/>). WDCGG data are available at (<https://gaw.kishou.go.jp/>). CNEMC data are pro-  
470 vided at (<http://www.cnemc.cn/>). MODIS data are available at (<https://ladsweb.modaps.eosdis.nasa.gov/>).

#### 471 **Author contributions**

472 TW led the development of RegCM-Chem-YIBs with significant contributions from NX and XX. NX per-  
473 formed the evaluation. NX, TW drafted the manuscript and all authors contributed to review and editing of the  
474 manuscript.

#### 475 **Competing interests**

476 The corresponding author has stated that all the authors have no conflicts of interest.

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