

MIXv2: a long-term mosaic emission inventory for Asia (2010-2017)

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31 **Abstract**

32 The MIXv2 Asian emission inventory is developed under the framework of the Model Inter-
33 Comparison Study for Asia (MICS-Asia) Phase IV, and produced from a mosaic of up-to-date
34 regional emission inventories. We estimated the emissions for anthropogenic and biomass
35 burning sources covering 23 countries and regions in East, Southeast and South Asia, and
36 aggregated emissions to a uniform spatial and temporal resolution for seven sectors: power,
37 industry, residential, transportation, agriculture, open biomass burning and shipping. Compared
38 to MIXv1, we extended the dataset to 2010 – 2017, included emissions of open biomass burning
39 and shipping, and provided model-ready emissions of SAPRC99, SAPRC07, and CB05. A series
40 of unit-based point source information was incorporated covering power plants in China and
41 India. A consistent speciation framework for Non-Methane Volatile Organic Compounds
42 (NMVOCs) was applied to develop emissions by three chemical mechanisms. The total Asian
43 emissions for anthropogenic | open biomass sectors in 2017 are estimated as follows: 41.6 | 1.1
44 Tg NO_x, 33.2 | 0.1 Tg SO₂, 258.2 | 20.6 Tg CO, 61.8 | 8.2 Tg NMVOC, 28.3 | 0.3 Tg NH₃, 24.0 |
45 2.6 Tg PM₁₀, 16.7 | 2.0 Tg PM_{2.5}, 2.7 | 0.1 Tg BC, 5.3 | 0.9 Tg OC, and 18.0 | 0.4 Pg CO₂. The
46 contributions of India and Southeast Asia have been emerging in Asia during 2010-2017,
47 especially for SO₂, NH₃ and particulate matters. Gridded emissions at a spatial resolution of 0.1
48 degree with monthly variations are now publicly available. This updated long-term emission
49 mosaic inventory is ready to facilitate air quality and climate model simulations, as well as
50 policy-making and associated analyses.

51

52 **1. Introduction**

53 Air pollutants emitted from both anthropogenic and natural activities have caused severe impacts
54 on human health, ecosystems, and climate over Asia (Adam et al., 2021; Geng et al., 2021;
55 Takahashi et al., 2020; Wong et al., 2008; Xie et al., 2018). Over the last two decades, the
56 emerging ozone pollution and haze events across Asia have got extensive attention from the
57 government (Anwar et al., 2021; Feng et al., 2022; Zheng et al., 2018). Tremendous efforts have
58 been made since 2010 continuously to improve air quality and protect human health. The effects
59 of these policies on emission abatement need to be updated in inventories, to address the regional
60 and global issues of air quality and climate change. Therefore, a long-term emission inventory
61 plays key roles in historical policy assessment, and future air quality and climate mitigation.

62 Consistent greenhouse gas emissions are crucial for climate-air quality nexus research and
63 policymaking (Fiore et al., 2015). Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is co-emitted with many air pollutants
64 which are contributors of ozone and particulate matter, further changing climate through forcings
65 of Earth's radiation budget (Fiore et al., 2015). Previous studies have emphasized the importance
66 of air pollution mitigation and climate change (Jacob and Winner, 2009; Saari et al., 2015), as
67 recently summarized by the Synthesis Report of the IPCC Sixth Assessment Report (IPCC:
68 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, report available at
69 <https://www.ipcc.ch/report/sixth-assessment-report-cycle/>). Given the common sources of CO₂
70 and air pollutants, it's important to quantify their emissions distribution in a self-consistent way

71 to assess the co-benefits and pathways to cleaner air and carbon neutrality (Klausbrückner et al.,
72 2016; Phillips, 2022; von Schneidmesser and Monks, 2013).

73 Emissions over Asia since 2010 are quantified in recent studies. Kurokawa et al. (2020)
74 developed an anthropogenic emission inventory over Asia for 1950-2015, REAS (the Regional
75 Emission inventory in ASia), covering power plants, industry, residential, transportation and
76 agricultural sources. Emissions of both air pollutants and CO₂ are estimated in REAS. Based on
77 the Community Emissions Data System (CEDS), McDuffie et al. (2020) developed a global
78 anthropogenic emission inventory covering major air pollutants over 1970-2017. Global
79 emissions for air pollutants are estimated under the HTAPv3 (Task Force on Hemispheric
80 Transport of Air Pollution) project for 2000-2018 for air pollutants by integrating official
81 inventories over specific areas including Asia (Crippa et al., 2023). These regional / global
82 emissions are estimated with limited updates of country-specific or even localized information.
83 Following a mosaic approach, the first version of MIX Asian inventory (MIXv1) was developed
84 to support the Model Inter-Comparison Study for Asia (MICS-Asia) Phase III projects, by
85 incorporating five regional emission inventories for all major anthropogenic sources over Asia,
86 providing a gridded emission dataset at a spatial resolution of 0.25 degree for 2008 and 2010.
87 The mosaic approach has been proved to increase the emission accuracy and model performance
88 significantly by including more local information (Li et al., 2017c). A profile-based speciation
89 scheme for Non-Methane Volatile Organic Compounds (NMVOCs) was applied to develop
90 model-ready emissions by chemical mechanisms, which reduced the uncertainties arising from
91 inaccurate mapping between inventory and model species (Li et al., 2014; Li et al., 2019b).
92 Specifically, MIXv1 advances our understanding of emissions and spatial distributions from
93 power plants through a mosaic of unit-based information, and agricultural activities based on a
94 process-based model which parameterized the spatial and temporal variations of emission factors
95 for NH₃.

96 However, it's difficult to develop consistent emissions over Asia for a long period using the
97 mosaic approach because of the lack of available regional inventory data. Within the MICS-Asia
98 community, developers of regional inventories have been endeavoring to extend their emission
99 inventories to the present day since Phase IV. Through intensive collaboration and community
100 efforts, we now have a complete list of available regional emission inventories covering major
101 parts of Asia, and are able to combine them to produce a new version of MIX for 2010-2017.
102 MICS-Asia is currently in its fourth phase, MICS-Asia IV, which aims to advance our
103 understanding of the discrepancies and relative uncertainties present in the simulations of air
104 quality and climate models (Chen et al., 2019; Gao et al., 2018; Itahashi et al., 2020; Li et al.,
105 2017c). A critical component of the project is ensuring that emission inventories remain
106 consistent across various atmospheric and climate models. In support of MICS-Asia IV research
107 activities and related policy-making endeavors, we developed MIXv2, the second version of our
108 mosaic Asian inventory. MIXv2 combines the best available state-of-the-art regional emission
109 inventories from across Asia using a mosaic approach. This inventory is expected to enhance our
110 capabilities to assess emission changes and their driving forces, and their impact on air quality
111 and climate change, thus providing valuable insights for decision-makers and stakeholders. CO₂

112 emissions are estimated based on the same emission inventory framework as the short-lived air
113 pollutants, and further integrated into MIXv2 following the mosaic methodology.

114 MIXv1 has been widely applied to support scientific research activities from regional to local
115 scales (Geng et al., 2021; Hammer et al., 2020; Li et al., 2019a; Li et al., 2017c). Compared to
116 MIXv1, MIXv2 has the following updates to better feed the needs of atmospheric modelling
117 activities:

118 - advances the horizontal resolution of the gridded maps from 0.25 to 0.1 degree

119 - incorporates up-to-date regional inventories from 2010-2017

120 - provides emissions of open biomass burning and shipping, in addition to anthropogenic sources

121 - develops model-ready emissions of SAPRC99, SAPRC07 and CB05

122 Methods and input data are described in Sect. 2. Emissions evolution and their driving forces,
123 seasonality, spatial distribution, NMVOC speciation and inventory limitations are analyzed and
124 discussed in Sect. 3. Sect. 4 compares the MIX data with other bottom-up and top-down
125 emission estimates. Concluding remarks are provided in Sect. 5.

126

127 **2. Methods and Inputs**

128 **2.1 Overview of MIXv2**

129 The key features of MIXv2 are summarized in Table 1. Anthropogenic sources, including power,
130 industry, residential, transportation and agriculture, along with open biomass burning and
131 shipping are included. Dust and aviation are not included in the current version of MIX. Monthly
132 emissions between 2010 – 2017 are allocated to grids at 0.1×0.1 degree. Open biomass burning
133 emissions are also available with daily resolution upon request. Emissions of ten species,
134 including CO₂ and air pollutants of NO_x, SO₂, CO, NMVOC, NH₃, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, BC and OC are
135 estimated. MIX can support most atmospheric models compatible with gas-phase chemical
136 mechanisms of SAPRC99, SAPRC07, CB05, and those can be mapped based on these three
137 chemical mechanisms (e.g., GEOS-Chem, MOZART) (Li et al., 2014). As shown in Figure 1,
138 MIXv2 stretches from Afghanistan in the west to Japan in the east, from Indonesia in the south to
139 Mongolia in the north. The domain is consistent with the REASv3 gridded emissions product.

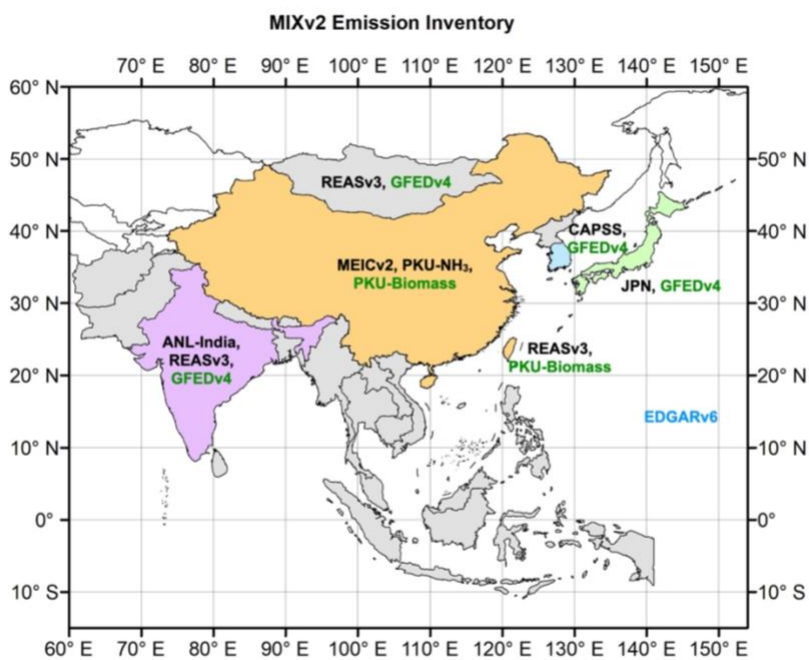
140 Table 2 summarizes the subsectors for each sector in the development of MIX, along with the
141 corresponding source codes used by IPCC.

142

143 **2.2 Mosaic Methodology**

144 We follow a mosaic methodology similar to the development of MIXv1 (Li et al., 2017c), as shown
145 in Figure 1. In brief, nine regional and two global emission inventories were collected and
146 integrated into a uniform format, including: REAS version 3 for Asia (referred to as REASv3)

147 (Kurokawa and Ohara, 2020); the Multi-resolution Emission Inventory for China version 2.0
 148 (MEICv2, <http://www.meicmodel.org>) (Li et al., 2017b; Zheng et al., 2021; Zheng et al., 2018); a
 149 process-based NH₃ emission inventory developed by Peking University (referred to as PKU-NH₃)
 150 (Kang et al., 2016); an official Japan emission inventory (referred to as JPN) (Chatani et al., 2018;
 151 Shibata and Morikawa, 2021); an Indian emission inventory for power plants from Argonne
 152 National Laboratory (referred to as ANL-India) (Lu and Streets, 2012; Lu et al., 2011); an open
 153 biomass burning emission inventory from Peking University (PKU-Biomass) (Yin et al., 2019);
 154 the official emissions from Clean Air Policy Support System (CAPSS) for the Republic of Korea
 155 (Lee et al., 2011) ; the fourth version of Global Fire Emissions Database with small fires
 156 (GFEDv4s) (van der Werf et al., 2017); and the Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric
 157 Research (EDGAR) version 6 for the shipping emissions (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019). Figure
 158 1 shows the distribution of the components of emission inventories which are mosaicked into the
 159 MIXv2.



160
 161 **Figure 1. Components of regional emission inventories in the MIXv2 mosaic. Colors of text**
 162 **represent the type of sources: black is anthropogenic, dark green represents open biomass**
 163 **burning, and blue is the inland and international shipping.**

164
 165 We follow a similar hierarchy in MIXv2 as the previous version in the mosaic process. We use
 166 REASv3 as the default inventory for anthropogenic sources, and then further replace it with
 167 official emission inventories at a finer scale. MEIC, PKU-NH₃ and ANL-India are demonstrated
 168 as the best available inventories through inter-comparisons to represent local source distribution
 169 with advanced methodology and reliable data sources (Li et al., 2017c). Thus, MEIC overrides
 170 REAS for anthropogenic emissions over mainland China. PKU-NH₃, which was developed with

171 a process-based model was further applied to replace the NH₃ emissions in MEIC. In Japan, JPN
172 provides emissions for all air pollutants. The ratios of CO₂ to NO_x by sectors derived from REAS
173 are combined with JPN to develop CO₂ gridded emissions. In detail, we firstly calculated the
174 total CO₂ emissions of Japan by multiplying the CO₂ to NO_x ratios and JPN's NO_x emission
175 estimates by sectors, then we developed the spatial proxies based on the NO_x gridded emissions
176 of JPN. Lastly, the calculated CO₂ emissions were allocated to each grid month by month. We
177 use ANL-India for SO₂, NO_x and CO₂ for power plants in India directly, and complement
178 emissions of other species and sectors with REASv3. Regarding Hong Kong of China, we use
179 the updated REASv3 emissions.

180 The open biomass emissions of MIX are developed by combining GFEDv4s and PKU-Biomass
181 inventories. GFED emissions over Asia are processed to the objective domain. We re-gridded the
182 GFED emissions from 0.25 to 0.1 degree based on an area-weighted algorithm in a mass-
183 balanced way. Wildfires of various vegetation types (including savanna, forest, peatland) and in-
184 field agricultural waste burning are aggregated into the "open biomass burning" sector. PKU-
185 Biomass overrides the emissions of GFED over China (including Hong Kong and Taiwan) on a
186 both monthly and daily basis.

187 The consistency of data is ensured in three aspects: source aggregation, spatial distribution, and
188 NMVOC speciation. Firstly, a consistent source definition system was applied in source
189 aggregation from regional emission inventories to the final emission mosaic, as outlined in Table
190 2 and Table S1. Secondly, the consistency of emissions spatial distribution during emissions
191 mosaic between different inventories are ensured carefully. In India, we integrated the ANL-
192 India emissions for NO_x, SO₂, and CO₂ for pointed power plants, and emissions from REAS for
193 other species. To keep the consistency in spatial distribution, we developed spatial proxies based
194 on the CO₂ emissions from ANL-India, and re-located REAS emissions for other species.
195 Thirdly, a consistent NMVOC speciation framework was applied throughout all component
196 emission inventories for both anthropogenic and open biomass burning sources, which is
197 described in detail in Sect. 2.4.

199 **Table 1. Key features of MIXv2 and the component emission inventories.**

Items	MIXv2	REASv3.3	MEICv2.0	PKU-NH ₃	ANL-India	JPN	CAPSS	PKU-Biomass	GFEDv4s	EDGARv6
Anthropogenic										
Power	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		
Industry	X	X	X	X		X	X			
Residential	X	X	X	X		X	X			
Transportation	X	X	X	X		X	X			
Agriculture	X	X	X	X		X	X			
Open biomass burning	X						X	X		
Shipping	X									X
Temporal coverage	2010-2017	1950-2017	1990-2017	1980-2017	2010-2017	2000-2017	2000-2018	1980-2017	2010-2017	1970-2018
Temporal resolution	Monthly	Monthly	Monthly	Monthly	Monthly	Monthly	Annual	Daily	Daily	Monthly
Spatial coverage	Asia	Asia	Mainland China	Mainland China	India	Japan	Korea, Republic of	China	Global	Global
Spatial resolution (degree in horizontal)	0.1	0.1, point	0.1, point	0.1	point	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.25	0.1
Species										
NO _x	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
SO ₂	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
CO	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
NM VOC	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

Table 2. Sector and subsectors included in MIXv2^a.

Sector	Subsector	IPCC code ^b
Power	Power plants	1A1a
Industry	Industrial coal combustion	1A2, 1A1c
	Industrial other fuel combustion	1A2
	Chemical industry	1B2b, 2B
	Oil production, distribution, and refinery	1B2a
	Other industrial process	2A1, 2A2, 2A7, 2C, 2
	Industrial paint use	3A
	Solvent use other than paint	3B, 3C
	Residential	Residential coal combustion
Residential biofuel combustion		1A4bx
Residential other fuel combustion		1A4b
Waste treatment		6A, 6C
Domestic solvent use		3C
Transportation	On-road gasoline	1A3b
	On-road diesel	1A3b
	Off-road diesel	1A3c, 1A4c
Agriculture	Livestock	4B
	Fertilizer use	4D
Open biomass burning	Agriculture in-field burning	4F
	Fires	4E, 5A, 5C, 5D
Shipping	Domestic shipping	1A3d
	International shipping	1C2

207 ^a Detailed source profiles assigned to sources within each subsector are summarized in Table S1.

208 ^b Reference report: https://www.ipcc.ch/report/ar6/wg3/downloads/report/IPCC_AR6_WGIII_FOD_AnnexII.pdf

209

210 **2.3 Components of regional emission inventory**

211 **REASv3 for Asia.**

212 We used anthropogenic emissions from REASv3.3 developed by ACAP (Asia Center for Air
 213 Pollution Research) and NIES (National Institute for Environmental Studies) to fill the gaps
 214 where local inventories are not available. REASv3 was developed as a long historical emission
 215 inventory for Asia from 1950 - 2015 with monthly variations and relatively high spatial
 216 resolution (0.25 degree). Compared to previous versions, REASv3 updated the emission factors
 217 and information on control policies to reflect the effect of emission control measures, especially

218 for East Asia. Large power plants are treated as point sources and assigned with coordinates of
219 locations. In REASv3, power plants constructed after 2008 with generation capacity larger than
220 300 MW are added as point sources. Additionally, REASv3 updated the spatial and temporal
221 allocation factors for the areal sources. Emissions of Japan, the Republic of Korea and Taiwan
222 are originally estimated in the system. The REASv3 data were further developed to 2017
223 following the same methodology as Kurokawa et al. (2020) and updated to a finer spatial
224 resolution of 0.1 degree except for NH₃ emissions from fertilizer application where grid
225 allocation factor for 0.1 degree were prepared from that of 0.25 degree for REASv3.2.1 assuming
226 homogeneous distribution of emissions in each 0.25-degree grid cell. We used the REAS
227 estimates for Taiwan directly and replaced REAS with local inventories as illustrated below.

228

229 **MEICv2 for China.**

230 For China, we used the anthropogenic emissions from the MEIC model developed and
231 maintained by Tsinghua University. MEIC uses a technology-based methodology to quantify air
232 pollutants and CO₂ from more than 700 emitting sources since 1990 (Li et al., 2017b).
233 Specifically, MEIC has developed a unit-based power plant database, a comprehensive vehicle
234 modeling approach and a profile-based NMVOC speciation framework. Detailed methodology
235 and data sources can be found in previous MEIC studies (Li et al., 2017b; Liu et al., 2015; Zheng
236 et al., 2014). In version 2.0, iron and steel plants, and cement factories are also treated as point
237 sources, which is important to improve industrial emissions estimation (Zheng et al., 2021).
238 MEIC is an online data platform publicly available to the community for emissions calculation,
239 data processing and data downloading. MEIC delivers monthly emissions at various spatial
240 resolutions and chemical mechanisms as defined by the user. We downloaded the emissions at
241 0.1 degree generated from MEIC v2.0 and aggregated it to five anthropogenic sectors: power,
242 industry, residential, transportation and agriculture. We followed the speciation framework in the
243 MEIC model and applied it to other regions of Asia, as described in detail in Sect. 2.4. MEIC
244 emissions of SAPRC99, SAPRC07 and CB05 were used directly in MIX.

245

246 **PKU-NH₃ for NH₃, China.**

247 We replaced MEIC with the high-resolution PKU-NH₃ inventory for NH₃ emissions in China
248 developed by Peking University (Huang et al., 2012b; Kang et al., 2016). PKU-NH₃ uses a
249 process-based model to compile NH₃ emissions with emission factors that vary with ambient
250 temperature, soil property, and the method and rate of fertilizer application (Huang et al., 2012b).
251 Compared to the previous version used in MIXv1, PKU-NH₃ further refined emission factors by
252 adding the effects of wind speed and in-field experimental data of NH₃ flux in northern China
253 cropland. Emissions are allocated to 1km × 1km grids using spatial proxies derived from a land
254 cover dataset, rural population, etc (Huang et al., 2012b). Monthly emissions over China,
255 including Hong Kong, Macao, and Taiwan are available from 1980 to 2017. We aggregated the 9
256 sub-sectors into 5 MIX anthropogenic sectors (power, industry, residential, transportation,
257 agriculture) and excluded the agricultural in-field waste burning.

258

259 **ANL-India for power plants, India.**

260 ANL-India is a continuously-updated long-term power plant emission inventory for India
261 developed on a unit and monthly basis by Argonne National Laboratory (Lu and Streets, 2012;
262 Lu et al., 2011). Emissions are calculated for more than 1300 units in over 300 thermal power
263 plants based on the detailed information collected from various reports of the Central Electricity
264 Authority (CEA) in India. As much as possible, the accurate and actual operational data of power
265 units/plants are used in inventory development, including geographical locations, capacity,
266 commissioning and retirement time, actual monthly power generation, emission control
267 application, fuel type, source, specifications, and consumption, etc. Detailed method can be
268 found in Lu et al. (2011) and Lu and Streets (2012). ANL-India is available for NO_x, SO₂ and
269 CO₂. In this work, the 2010-2017 period of ANL-India at the monthly level is used directly in
270 MIX. We further merged ANL-India with REASv3 for other species to complete the emission
271 estimation in India. CO₂ emissions of ANL-India at 0.1°×0.1° grids were used to develop spatial
272 proxies by sectors, year, and month. Then, REASv3 emissions of all other species were re-
273 allocated to grids based on ANL derived spatial proxies. Although ANL-India provides
274 emissions by fuel type, the fuel heterogeneity of thermal power plants is not considered in the re-
275 gridding process of MIX here because about 93% of the thermal power generation in India
276 during 2010-2017 were fueled with coal (Lu and Streets, 2012).

277

278 **JPN (PM2.5EI and J-STREAM) for Japan.**

279 We used the JPN inventory to override the Japan emissions of REAS. JPN was jointly developed
280 by the Ministry of Environment, Japan (MOE-J) for mobile source emissions (i.e., PM2.5 EI)
281 and by the National Institute of Environmental Studies (NIES) for stationary source emissions (J-
282 STREAM). Major anthropogenic sources are included in PM2.5EI, with vehicle emissions
283 explicitly estimated in detail (Shibata and Morikawa, 2021). Emission factors are assigned as a
284 function of average vehicle velocity by 13 vehicle types and regulation years. The hourly
285 average vehicle type of trunk roads and narrow roads are obtained from in-situ measurements. In
286 addition to the running emission exhaust, emissions from engine starting, evaporation, tire wear,
287 road dust and off-road engines are also estimated. To keep consistency with the sector definition
288 of MIX, we excluded the road dust aerosol emissions and mapped other sources to five
289 anthropogenic sectors. For stationary sources, Japan emissions are derived from the Japan's
290 Study for Reference Air Quality Modeling (J-STREAM) model intercomparison project (Chatani
291 et al., 2020; Chatani et al., 2018). Long-term emissions of over 100,000 large stationary sources
292 are estimated based on energy consumption and emission factors derived from the emission
293 reports submitted to the government every three years (Chatani et al., 2020). NMVOC emissions
294 are speciated into SAPRC07 and CB05 using local source profiles. Emissions are distributed to
295 1km × 1km grids with monthly variations based on spatial and temporal proxies. We re-sampled
296 the monthly JPN emissions to 0.1°×0.1° grids and merged them into MIXv2.

297

298 **CAPSS for the Republic of Korea.**

299 For the Republic of Korea, we use the official emissions from CAPSS developed by the National
300 Institute of Environmental Research Center (Lee et al., 2011). CAPSS estimated the annual
301 emissions of air pollutants of CO, NO_x, SO_x, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, BC, NMVOCs and NH₃ based on the
302 statistical data collected from 150 domestic institutions since 1990s (Crippa et al., 2023). There
303 are inconsistencies on the long-term emissions trend of CAPSS due to data and methodology
304 changes over the time. We used the re-analyzed data of CAPSS during 2010-2017, which
305 updated the emission factors and added the missing sources. Point sources, area sources, and
306 mobile sources were processed using source-based spatial allocation methods (Lee et al., 2011).
307 Monthly variations by sectors are derived from REASv3 for the Republic of Korea and were
308 further applied to CAPSS. In MIXv2, the monthly gridded emissions allocated at 0.1-degree
309 grids for the anthropogenic sector (power, industry, residential, transportation, agriculture) of
310 CAPSS are integrated.

311

312 **GFEDv4s for open biomass burning, Asia.**

313 Emissions over Asia from GFEDv4s database with small fires were used as the default inventory
314 for open biomass burning sources. GFED quantified global fire emissions patterns based on the
315 Carnegie-Ames-Stanford Approach (CASA) biogeochemical model from 1997 onwards (van der
316 Werf et al., 2017). Compared to previous versions, higher quality input datasets from different
317 satellite and in situ data streams are used, and better parameterizations of fuel consumption and
318 burning processes are developed. We calculated emissions for trace gases, aerosol species and
319 CO₂ based on the burned biomass and updated emission factors by vegetation types provided by
320 the GFED dataset (Akagi et al., 2011; Andreae and Merlet, 2001). Monthly and daily emissions
321 were re-gridded from 0.25° to 0.1° and cropped to a unified domain as anthropogenic emissions.
322 Open fires of grassland, shrubland, savanna, forest, and agricultural waste burning are included.
323 We assigned profiles for each source category as listed in Table S1. Model-ready emissions of
324 SAPRC99, SAPRC07 and CB05 were lumped from individual species as described in Sect. 2.4.
325 GFED emissions are further replaced by PKU-Biomass over China.

326

327 **PKU-Biomass for biomass burning, China.**

328 China's emissions estimated by the PKU-Biomass inventory were used to override GFED
329 emissions for open biomass burning in MIXv2. PKU-Biomass is developed by Peking University
330 based on the MODIS fire radiative energy data for China from 1980 to 2017 (Huang et al.,
331 2012a; Song et al., 2009; Yin et al., 2019). Emission factors of both air pollutants and CO₂ are
332 assigned for four types of biomass burning types including forest, grassland, shrubland fires and
333 agricultural waste burning. PKU-Biomass takes account of the farming system and crop types in
334 different temperate zones. High-resolution emissions (1km) with daily variations are available.
335 We re-gridded emissions to 0.1° × 0.1° and aggregated the emissions to the "open biomass
336 burning" sector. An explicit source profile assignment approach was assigned to each vegetation

337 type. Emissions of three chemical mechanisms were further developed for PKU-Biomass and
338 merged into the MIXv2 final dataset over Asia.

339

340 **EDGARv6 for shipping, Asia.**

341 We used the shipping (domestic and international) emissions over Asia derived from EDGARv6
342 in MIXv2. EDGAR is a globally consistent emission inventory for anthropogenic sources
343 developed by the Joint Research Centre of the European Commission (Crippa et al., 2018;
344 Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2019). Emissions of both air pollutants and greenhouse gases are
345 estimated. EDGAR uses international statistics as activity data and emission factors varying with
346 pollutants, sector, technology, and abatement measures for emissions calculation for 1970-2018.
347 Shipping route data are used as spatial proxies to distribute emission estimates to 0.1-degree
348 grids. We downloaded the emissions data for both inland and international shipping from 2010 to
349 2017, processed the data to the MIX domain and aggregated them to the “Shipping” sector.
350 Monthly emissions are only available for 2018. We applied the monthly variations of air
351 pollutants in 2018 to emissions of 2010-2017 accordingly.

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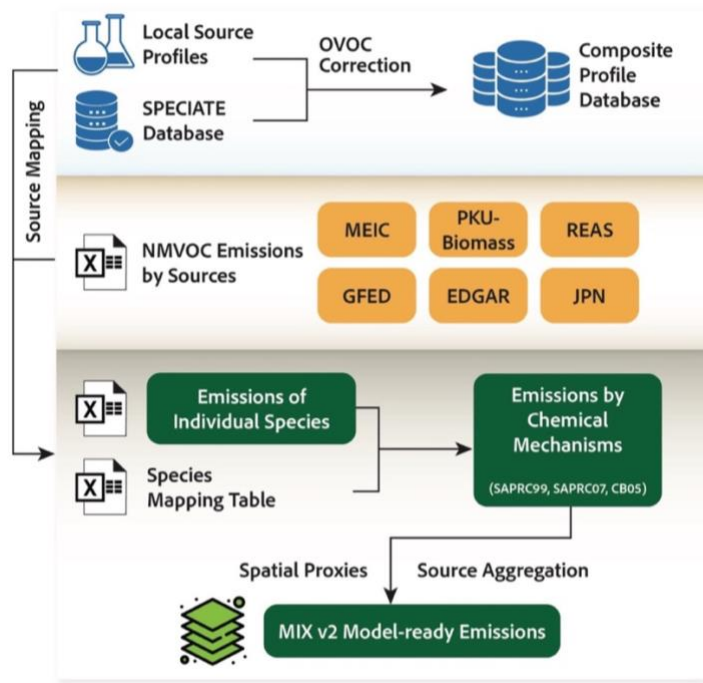
353 **2.4 NMVOC speciation**

354 NMVOC speciation has substantial impacts on the model-ready emissions accuracy and
355 performance of chemical transport models (Li et al., 2014). Selection of profiles turns out to be
356 the most important contributor to uncertainties in emissions of individual species. To reduce the
357 uncertainties due to the inaccurate species mapping, Li et al. (2014) developed an explicit
358 assignment approach based on multiple profiles and mechanism-dependent mapping tables.

359 We processed the gas-phase speciation for NMVOCs following the profile-based mapping
360 procedure, as shown in Fig. 2. The speciation was conducted at a detailed source basis. Firstly,
361 we developed the composite source profile database by combining the US EPA’s SPECIATE
362 database v4.5 (last access: June 2019) (Simon et al., 2010) and available local measurements
363 (e.g., (Akagi et al., 2011; Mo et al., 2016; Xiao et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2010). The complete list
364 of source profiles used in this work is provided in Table S1. To diminish the uncertainties due to
365 inappropriate sampling and analyses techniques regarding Oxygenated Volatile Organic
366 Compounds (OVOCs), we applied the OVOC correction to those incomplete profiles. The
367 detailed method can be found in previous studies (Li et al., 2014). Especially, the following
368 sources have significant OVOC emitted which should be addressed: coal combustion in
369 residential stoves (31%), residential wood and crop residue fuel use (23% ~ 33%) and diesel
370 engines (28% ~ 47%). Secondly, we assigned the composite profile database to each component
371 inventory to develop emissions of individual species. Lastly, individual species were lumped to
372 three chemical mechanisms (SAPRC99, SAPRC07, CB05) based on the conversion factors
373 derived from mechanism-dependent mapping tables (Carter, 2015).

374 For the Republic of Korea and Hong Kong, we applied the speciation factor for SAPRC99 and
375 CB05 by sectors developed from the SMOKE-Asia model, which have been used for MIXv1

376 (Woo et al., 2012). Emissions of SAPRC07 were further developed from SAPRC99 based on
377 Table S2, which applied MEIC speciated results.



378
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380
381

Figure 2. NMVOC speciation scheme used in MIXv2.

2.5 Limitations and Uncertainties

382 As a mosaic inventory, MIXv2 has several limitations when integrating various gridded products
383 into a unified dataset. Firstly, inconsistencies could exist at country boundaries where different
384 datasets were used for the adjacent countries (Janssens-Maenhout et al., 2015), for example, the
385 border between China and India. But limited effects are anticipated here given the small area
386 affected due to the high spatial resolution and the low population density at the border. Secondly,
387 extracting emissions by country from gridded maps may introduce uncertainties especially for
388 power plants located near the coast. This issue is more important because gridded emissions are
389 developed with higher spatial resolutions than earlier versions. Using an extended country map
390 by assigning extra adjacent grids of “ocean” with the neighboring country can reduce this bias.
391 We also acknowledge the general inconsistency of uncertainty levels between countries where
392 different inventories are used following various data sources and approaches. For air quality
393 simulation purposes, the lack of diurnal variations and vertical distribution is another limitation
394 when applying MIXv2 data directly. Development of Asia-specific temporal and vertical profiles
395 is important to improve the model simulation performance in the future.

396 It's always difficult to quantify the uncertainties for a mosaic emission inventory such as MIXv2.
397 The uncertainties for each of the component inventories are discussed in detail in corresponding

398 studies (Kang et al., 2016; Kurokawa and Ohara, 2020; Yin et al., 2019; Zheng et al., 2018).
399 Here we summarized the uncertainty estimation by Asian regions in previous studies in Table 3.
400 The uncertainty ranges are quantified based on propagation of uncertainty (Kurokawa and Ohara,
401 2020; Lei et al., 2011; Zhang et al., 2009) or thousands of Monte Carlo simulations (Lu et al.,
402 2011; Paliwal et al., 2016; Shan et al., 2020; Shi and Yamaguchi, 2014; Sun et al., 2018; Zhao et
403 al., 2011; Zhao et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2017).

404 In regard of anthropogenic sectors, the precision of emission estimates for SO₂, NO_x, and CO₂ is
405 higher than that of other pollutants, owing to the minimal uncertainties associated with power
406 plants and large industrial facilities. This is particularly notable in the case of MIXv2, where
407 uncertainties are even lower due to the integration of unit-based power plant information for both
408 China and India. While uncertainties for CO and NMVOC are comparable, they are higher than
409 those for SO₂, NO_x, and CO₂, because of substantial emission contributions from biofuel
410 combustion. Emissions for particulate matter (especially BC and OC) tend to be more uncertain
411 compared to trace gases, primarily due to the low data availability of accurate activity rates and
412 emission factors related to residential biofuel combustion. The need for more detailed
413 information at the technology or facility level in regions, such as India, OSA, and SEA, is crucial
414 to narrow down the overall uncertainties in Asia in the future. For open biomass burning,
415 previous investigations have estimated low uncertainty ranges for species like CO, NMVOC, and
416 OC, while more further analyses are in urgent need. In this work, we conducted uncertainty
417 analyses qualitatively by comparing the MIXv2 estimates with other bottom-up inventories and
418 those derived from satellite retrievals in Sect. 4 (Li et al., 2018). In short summary, generally
419 consistent emission estimates and trends over Asia are found based on bottom-up and top-down
420 comparisons in Sect. 4. Discrepancies persist, especially in regions like South Asia and Southeast
421 Asia, as well as among species like BC and NMVOC.

423 **Table 3. Uncertainties in emission estimates by Asian regions (95% confidence intervals if not noted; unit: %)**

Regions, Anthropogenic or Open Biomass	NO _x	SO ₂	NO _x	CO	NMVOC	NH ₃	PM ₁₀	PM _{2.5}	BC	OC	CO ₂	Year	Reference
China, Anthropogenic	-13~37	-14~13	-13~37				±91	±107	±187	±229		2005	Lei et al. (2011)
	±31	±12	±31	-20~45	±68		-14~45	-17~54	-25~136	-40~121		2005	Zhao et al. (2011)
	-15~35	-16~17	-15~35	±70			±132	±130	±208	±258		2005	Zhao et al. (2012)
	±35	-15~26	-15~35	-18~42			-15~54	-15~63	-41~80	-44~92		2006	Zhang et al. (2009)
	-26~34	±40	±35	±73	±76	±82	±83	±94	±111	±193	±19	2010	Lu et al. (2011)
	-22~25	-26~34	-31~41	-32~56								2010	Zhao et al. (2013)
India, Anthropogenic	±35	±41	±35	±136	±115	±111	±120	±151	±133	±233		2015	Kurokawa et al. (2020)
Japan, Anthropogenic	±32	±34	±32	±45	±63	±103	±68	±74	±58	±100		2015	Sun et al. (2018)
OEA, Anthropogenic	±60	±38	±60	±67	±63	±94	±69	±85	±82	±168		2015	Zhang et al. (2017)
OSA, Anthropogenic	±34	±40	±34	±87	±73	±93	±96	±112	±124	±211		2017	Shan et al. (2020)*
SEA, Anthropogenic	±38	±46	±38	±124	±86	±115	±125	±155	±161	±232		2010	Lu et al. (2011)
China, Biomass	-37~37	-54~54	-37~37	-4~4	-9~9	-49~48	-7~6	-13~1	-61~61	-20~19	-3~3	2015	Kurokawa et al. (2020)
SEA, Biomass	±23	±30	±23	±20	±18	±10	±20	±20	±20	±31	±15	2015	Kurokawa et al. (2020)
												2011	Paliwal et al. (2016)
												2015	Kurokawa et al. (2020)
												2015	Kurokawa et al. (2020)
												2015	Kurokawa et al. (2020)
												2015	Kurokawa et al. (2020)
												2015	Kurokawa et al. (2020)
												2012	Zhou et al. (2017)
												2010	Shi and Yamaguchi (2014)

424 * 97% Confidence Interval

426 **Table 4. Anthropogenic | Open biomass^a emissions of MIXv2 by Asian countries and regions in 2017.**

Country	NO _x ^b	SO ₂	CO	NMVOC	NH ₃	PM ₁₀	PM _{2.5}	BC	OC	CO ₂ ^b
China^c	22.37 0.22	10.62 0.02	137.02 4.40	29.36 1.66	9.18 0.08	10.20 0.41	7.65 0.35	1.26 0.03	2.09 0.17	11.34 0.07
Japan	1127.0 8.4	274.8 1.5	2543.1 192.0	927.1 141.2	397.7 2.9	84.3 30.1	40.7 19.6	14.9 1.3	7.5 11.9	785.9 3.4
Korea, DPR	194.6 3.5	83.8 0.7	2580.5 92.7	140.4 61.7	107.4 1.6	96.6 13.5	52.6 9.3	10.0 0.6	16.4 5.4	29.7 1.5
Korea, Republic of	979.1 2.8	266.7 0.5	522.1 61.0	917.1 44.5	292.5 0.9	127.6 9.5	64.5 6.2	11.2 0.4	31.3 3.7	581.9 1.1
Mongolia	125.5 28.3	124.9 7.8	1057.9 945.5	50.3 368.7	196.1 17.6	45.5 129.7	20.6 110.3	2.7 4.2	3.5 62.7	18.3 14.2
Other East Asia^{c,d}	2.43 0.04	0.75 0.01	6.70 1.29	2.03 0.62	0.99 0.02	0.35 0.18	0.18 0.15	0.04 0.01	0.06 0.08	1.42 0.02
India^c	9.34 0.11	13.82 0.01	61.23 1.91	14.46 1.23	9.87 0.03	7.20 0.27	4.97 0.18	0.86 0.01	1.72 0.09	2.88 0.04
Afghanistan	83.2 0.2	45.0 0.0	560.2 2.7	131.2 1.4	320.3 0.0	39.9 0.4	30.7 0.3	8.3 0.0	12.1 0.1	11.1 0.1
Bangladesh	342.3 2.8	224.5 0.3	3074.5 41.9	836.0 15.7	922.5 0.5	685.6 5.8	350.1 4.4	43.6 0.2	114.3 2.0	127.7 0.9
Bhutan	0.8 1.0	0.5 0.4	31.5 30.0	6.4 14.8	2.8 0.3	13.6 5.9	5.1 4.3	0.4 0.2	1.2 3.1	0.8 0.6
Maldives	0.6 0.0	0.3 0.0	1.3 0.0	0.5 0.0	0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0	0.0 0.0	0.1 0.0
Nepal	70.6 7.0	61.2 2.2	2143.1 189.7	483.5 94.9	263.8 1.9	238.0 36.5	159.6 26.5	24.3 1.1	79.1 19.1	42.8 3.6
Pakistan	638.7 6.7	1607.7 0.6	9000.4 133.3	2134.7 126.9	1890.5 2.7	1479.4 16.5	914.0 8.9	108.6 1.0	327.6 3.3	308.8 2.2
Sri Lanka	205.0 2.2	84.7 0.2	1356.4 31.2	390.7 21.3	99.6 0.5	144.5 4.0	101.0 2.8	19.0 0.2	46.8 1.0	39.5 0.7
Other South Asia^{c,e}	1.34 0.02	2.02 0.00	16.17 0.43	3.98 0.27	3.50 0.01	2.60 0.07	1.56 0.05	0.20 0.00	0.58 0.03	0.53 0.01
Brunei	9.4 0.1	2.7 0.0	24.8 1.9	26.5 0.4	1.4 0.0	4.6 0.2	1.7 0.1	0.1 0.0	0.1 0.1	4.3 0.0
Cambodia	74.2 189.7	78.7 16.7	1155.5 2899.1	230.1 943.7	85.2 34.2	170.0 397.9	87.9 301.7	9.8 16.7	33.3 133.5	26.3 62.7
Indonesia	2560.0 86.3	3260.5 9.2	16039.6 2439.6	5438.5 559.2	1848.0 26.4	1258.0 264.6	839.1 188.3	136.5 8.9	338.5 97.1	619.0 36.6
Laos	61.4 115.8	126.2 10.0	296.3 1641.4	55.5 569.9	69.5 18.4	93.7 224.4	39.7 173.2	3.2 9.5	9.2 74.0	20.0 36.9

Malaysia	627.1 8.6	250.3 0.8	1234.6 167.2	1029.2 65.9	237.2 2.1	226.7 20.5	137.0 14.5	14.4 0.9	13.7 6.6	224.7 3.0
Myanmar	185.5 233.3	315.9 23.4	3168.3 3576.8	936.1 1280.0	679.1 40.6	292.3 510.1	206.2 387.9	32.3 20.7	104.2 182.8	68.3 78.0
Philippines	881.4 10.1	974.2 0.8	3705.7 139.1	1031.0 91.8	469.9 1.9	315.8 18.0	197.5 12.7	39.7 0.9	61.4 4.7	159.0 3.0
Singapore	78.0 0.0	74.8 0.0	55.4 0.1	286.8 0.1	4.4 0.0	77.0 0.0	60.8 0.0	0.9 0.0	0.3 0.0	44.7 0.0
Thailand	1081.5 72.7	337.3 6.1	5073.4 1056.3	1546.1 585.4	631.0 14.3	522.8 139.3	367.1 99.7	45.5 6.6	119.5 39.9	328.2 22.6
Vietnam	546.8 44.1	517.0 3.7	6224.7 664.2	1335.1 364.1	734.0 9.2	671.9 87.7	390.1 62.2	54.3 4.2	143.0 25.3	274.5 13.9
Southeast Asia^c	6.11 0.76	5.94 0.07	36.98 12.59	11.91 4.46	4.76 0.15	3.63 1.66	2.33 1.24	0.34 0.07	0.82 0.56	1.77 0.26
Asia (2017)^e	41.61 1.15	33.16 0.12	258.22 20.61	61.79 8.24	28.32 0.29	24.00 2.59	16.69 1.97	2.71 0.12	5.28 0.93	17.95 0.40
Asia (2010/2017) ^f	1.04 1.56	1.32 1.55	1.20 1.49	0.89 1.36	0.96 1.39	1.21 1.61	1.23 1.61	1.17 1.52	1.25 1.64	0.86 1.58
Asia (2011/2017)	1.10 1.33	1.39 1.45	1.18 1.88	0.92 1.29	0.96 1.52	1.23 1.64	1.25 1.60	1.19 1.30	1.26 1.74	0.93 1.55
Asia (2012/2017)	1.12 1.65	1.39 1.86	1.17 2.22	0.95 1.62	0.98 1.87	1.23 2.02	1.24 1.98	1.19 1.62	1.25 2.16	0.96 1.88
Asia (2013/2017)	1.09 1.49	1.32 1.59	1.15 1.89	0.96 1.42	1.00 1.65	1.19 1.78	1.21 1.74	1.17 1.53	1.21 1.87	0.96 1.67
Asia (2014/2017)	1.04 2.51	1.21 2.85	1.10 4.18	0.98 2.39	1.00 3.17	1.13 3.44	1.14 3.31	1.11 2.45	1.16 3.72	0.97 3.15
Asia (2015/2017)	1.01 3.05	1.12 3.72	1.06 6.36	0.97 3.08	1.01 4.46	1.05 4.73	1.07 4.49	1.05 2.85	1.09 5.22	0.97 4.25
Asia (2016/2017)	0.99 1.28	1.05 1.28	1.01 1.32	0.98 1.27	1.01 1.25	1.00 1.36	1.01 1.32	1.01 1.27	1.04 1.35	0.97 1.31

427

^a Anthropogenic includes power, industry, residential, transportation and agriculture. Open biomass represents the “Open Biomass Burning” sector.

428

^b Tg yr⁻¹ for CO₂, Gg yr⁻¹ for other species.

429

^c Bold values are with the following units: Pg yr⁻¹ for CO₂, Tg yr⁻¹ for other species.

430

^d Other East Asia represents East Asia other than China.

431

^e Other South Asia represents South Asia other than India.

432

^f Asia (year/2017) represents the ratio of emissions (year) to emissions (2017) for all of Asia within the MIXv2 domain. The detailed emissions for 2010-2017 by countries and sectors are summarized in Table S3.

434

435

436 **3. Results and Discussions**

437 **3.1 Asian emissions in 2017**

438 In 2017, MIXv2 estimated emissions of Asia as follows: 41.6 Tg NO_x, 33.2 Tg SO₂, 258.2 Tg
439 CO, 61.8 Tg NMVOC, 28.3 Tg NH₃, 24.0 Tg PM₁₀, 16.7 Tg PM_{2.5}, 2.7 Tg BC, 5.3 Tg OC, and
440 18.0 Pg CO₂ for all anthropogenic sources including power, industry, residential, transportation
441 and agriculture. Emissions are summarized by Asian regions, including China, East Asia Other
442 than China (OEA), India, South Asia other than India (OSA) and Southeast Asia (SEA), as
443 shown in Table 4 and Table S3. China, India, and SEA together account for > 90% of the total
444 Asian emissions. China dominates the emissions (> 50%) of CO₂ (11.3 Pg, 63%), NO_x (22.4 Tg,
445 54%), and CO (137.0 Tg, 53%), and contributes more than 30% to all other species. The
446 contributions of India are larger than 30% for SO₂ (13.8 Tg, 42%), NH₃ (9.8 Tg, 35%), BC (0.86
447 Tg, 32%), OC (1.7 Tg, 33%), PM₁₀ (7.2 Tg, 30%), and PM_{2.5} (5.0 Tg, 30%). SEA ranks 3rd for
448 all species, including CO₂ (1.8 Pg, 10%), NO_x (6.1 Tg, 15%), SO₂ (5.9 Tg, 18%), NMVOC (11.9
449 Tg, 19%), NH₃ (4.8 Tg, 17%), and ~15% of aerosol species. OEA's share varies from 1%
450 (aerosol species) to 8% (CO₂). Emission proportions of OSA are around 11% for NH₃, OC, and
451 PM₁₀, and less than 10% for others.

452 Sectoral contribution varies among species in Asia, according to our estimates. Power plants
453 contribute significantly to SO₂ (1st contributor, 38%) and CO₂ (2nd contributor, 33%). Industry
454 dominates the emissions of CO₂ (41%), NMVOC (44%), PM_{2.5} (39%), and PM₁₀ (47%). For
455 NO_x, transportation accounts for 33% of the total emissions, followed by industry (24%) and
456 inland and international shipping (18%). The residential sector contributes > 38% of emissions
457 for PM_{2.5}, BC, CO, and OC. NH₃ is dominated by agriculture (81%), followed by 13% from
458 residential.

459 Open biomass burning plays a key role in SEA and OEA's emissions budget, and is a minor
460 contributor for other regions, as shown in Table 4 and Figure 3. Including the open biomass
461 burning sector increases the emissions of OC, PM_{2.5}, PM₁₀, NMVOC, CO and CO₂, by 69%,
462 53%, 46%, 37%, 34% and 15%, respectively for SEA. Due to the active fire events, Southeast
463 Asia is the largest emission contributor for OC, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} and NMVOC in 2014 and 2015.
464 Additionally, OEA has a significant emission increment for NMVOC (30%), OC (143%), PM₁₀
465 (52%) and PM_{2.5} (81%) when taking biomass burning into account. Given the large contributions
466 to ozone and climate change from NMVOC, CO and aerosols, it's important to address the open
467 biomass burning contributions in designing mitigation strategies for these areas.

468 In a global context, Asia shares out 43%~56% of the global anthropogenic emissions in 2017,
469 including 44% for NO_x, 43% for SO₂, 49% for CO₂, 51% for NH₃, 55% for CO, 50% for
470 NMVOC, and over 50% for all PM species. Emissions over Asia are derived from MIXv2, and
471 emissions over the rest of the world are estimated by EDGARv6. Figure S1 depicts the emissions
472 trend by Asian regions, United States and OECD-Europe from anthropogenic sources. Asia is
473 playing a more and more important role in global climate change as its CO₂ emission fraction has

474 increased by 7% during 2010-2017. Especially, with the general emission reductions in the U.S.
475 and OECD-Europe, India and Southeast Asia is catching up with the emissions of these two
476 developed regions for NO_x, SO₂ and CO₂, and already surpassed their emissions for other
477 species. As of now, U.S. and OECD-Europe emissions are in general comparable to those of
478 OSA for most air pollutants.

479

480 3.2 Emissions evolution from 2010–2017

481 For anthropogenic sources, driven by stringent air pollution control measures implemented over
482 China and OEA since 2010, Asian emissions have declined rapidly by 24.3% for SO₂, 16.6% for
483 CO, 17.2% for PM₁₀, 18.7% for PM_{2.5}, 14.2% for BC and 19.8% for OC, according to our
484 estimates. On the contrary, CO₂, NMVOC and NH₃ still show emissions increasing continuously,
485 with growth rates of 16.5%, 12.6%, and 4.4% during 2010-2017, respectively. The emissions for
486 2010-2017 are summarized in Table S3 and shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. As demonstrated in Fig.
487 4, power, industry, residential and transportation contribute to the rapid emission changes. In
488 contrast to the smoothly changing patterns for anthropogenic, open biomass burning emissions
489 vary from year to year, peaking in 2015 as a result of El Niño (Field et al., 2016). Open fire
490 activities dominate the SEA emission changes for CO, OC, NMVOC, PM₁₀ and primary PM_{2.5}
491 (see Fig. 3). Marked reductions are estimated for China, with a concurrent increase over India
492 and Southeast Asia for all species except CO₂, NMVOC and NH₃ (see Fig. 5). Consequently, air
493 pollutants, including ozone and secondary aerosol precursors of NO_x, have shifted southward
494 (Zhang et al., 2016). This changing spatial pattern has been confirmed from observations as
495 described in previous studies (Samset et al., 2019). We illustrate the driving forces of emissions
496 evolution for each species below. Shipping is not included in the following analyses.

497 **NO_x**. NO_x emissions show increasing-decreasing-increasing trend for 2010-2017, with a peak in
498 2012. This trend is a combination of significant power plant emissions reduction (-22% from
499 2010-2017), and emissions increase from industry (+4%) and transportation (+6%). As
500 estimated, China's emissions for all anthropogenic sectors dropped by 4.6 Tg (-17%) from 2010-
501 2017, along with 2.6 Tg (+38%) emissions growth from India and 0.9 Tg (+19%) from SEA. As
502 a result, China's contribution decreased from 63% to 54%, and Indian share grew from 16% to
503 22% (anthropogenic, Fig. 5a). In China, power plant emissions dropped by 4.5 Tg (-51%)
504 because very stringent emission standards are implemented for power plants since 2003, which
505 has continuous substantial impacts on SO₂, NO_x and particulate matters (Chinese National
506 Standards GB 13223-2003 and 3223-2011) (Zheng et al., 2018). Furthermore, "Ultra-low"
507 emission standards were set up by the Chinese government in 2015 to further reduce emissions
508 from coal-fired power plants by 60% by 2020. OEA shows 21% emissions decrease because of
509 continuous control measures over industry (-16%) and transportation (-32%). Due to insufficient
510 control strategies in India, OSA and SEA, NO_x anthropogenic emissions have grown by 38%,
511 18% and 19%, respectively, mainly driven by power plants and vehicle growth (see Fig. 5a).
512 Open biomass burning has limited effect (~11%) on NO_x emissions over SEA and is neglectable
513 for other regions (<3%).

514 **SO₂**. SO₂ emissions rapidly declined from 43.8 Tg to 33.1 Tg during 2010-2017, peaking in
515 2012. Significant reductions of industrial SO₂ emissions (-8.7 Tg, -39%) lead to the marked total
516 emissions decrease (see Fig. 4). China's emissions dropped by 62%, partly offset by the
517 concurrent emissions increase of India (+46%) and Southeast Asia (+41%). Stringent control
518 measures shutting down small industrial boilers and cleaning larger ones in China are the
519 primary driving forces (Zheng et al., 2018). New emissions standards were set up for coal-fired
520 industrial boilers with tightened SO₂ limit values (Zheng et al., 2018). In addition, nationwide

521 phasing out of outdated industrial capacity and small, polluting units has been carried out in
522 China since 2013. Consequently, China's emission fraction decreases from 64% to 32%, ranking
523 2nd in 2017. India's proportion grew from 22% to 41%, and nowadays it's the largest SO₂ emitter
524 in Asia (anthropogenic, see Fig. 5b). Relatively small emission changes are estimated for OEA (-
525 0.2 Tg) and OSA (+0.6 Tg). Significant emissions growth from power plants drives the total
526 anthropogenic increase by 44%, and a 41% rise when considering additional open biomass
527 burning for SEA.

528 **CO.** Anthropogenic CO shows moderate emissions reduction (-16%) since 2010, driven by the
529 clean air actions implemented in China covering industry (-38% changes), residential (-20%) and
530 transportation (-22%). Based on the index decomposition analysis, the improvements in
531 combustion efficiency and oxygen blast furnace gas recycling in industrial boilers are the largest
532 contributors to the emission reductions in China (Zheng et al., 2018). Replacing polluted fuel
533 (biofuel, coal) with cleaner fuels (natural gas, electricity) is the primary driving force in the
534 residential sector. Despite the rapid vehicle growth which would typically yield a CO increase,
535 pollution control measures reduced the net CO emission factors by fleet turnover with cleaner
536 models replacing the older, more polluted vehicles in the market. OEA shows emission
537 reductions in industry (-37%), residential (-22%) and transportation (-28%). Residential fuel
538 combustion decreases by 20% and 11% for SEA and India, respectively, having a canceling
539 effect on the total emissions growth for these two regions. Open biomass burning accounts for
540 25% ~ 77% of CO emissions in SEA, which drives the total emissions reduction by 19% in 2017
541 compared to 2010. Additionally, the climate anomaly due to El Niño in 2015 leads to the rapidly
542 CO emissions drop from 2015 to 2016 in SEA.

543 **CO₂.** Driven by economic and population growth, anthropogenic CO₂ emissions show a rapid
544 increasing trend for China (15%), India (32%), OSA (32%) and SEA (21%). We found slight
545 emission decreases for OEA (-2%). Power, industry, and transportation grew by 28%, 12% and
546 35%, respectively, driving the total emissions increase continuously. In contrast, we estimate a
547 5% CO₂ emission reduction from the residential sector, attributed to reduced fuel combustion.
548 Notable emissions have increased for sectors apart from residential for India (increasing rates
549 varying between 39% ~ 57%), OSA (43% ~ 56%), and SEA (9% ~ 48%). Fractions by regions
550 are stable during the studied period, with 62% contribution from China, 8% from OEA, 16%
551 from India, 3% from OSA, and 11% from SEA (see Fig. 3). Open biomass burning curbs the
552 total emission growth in SEA from +21% to +5%.

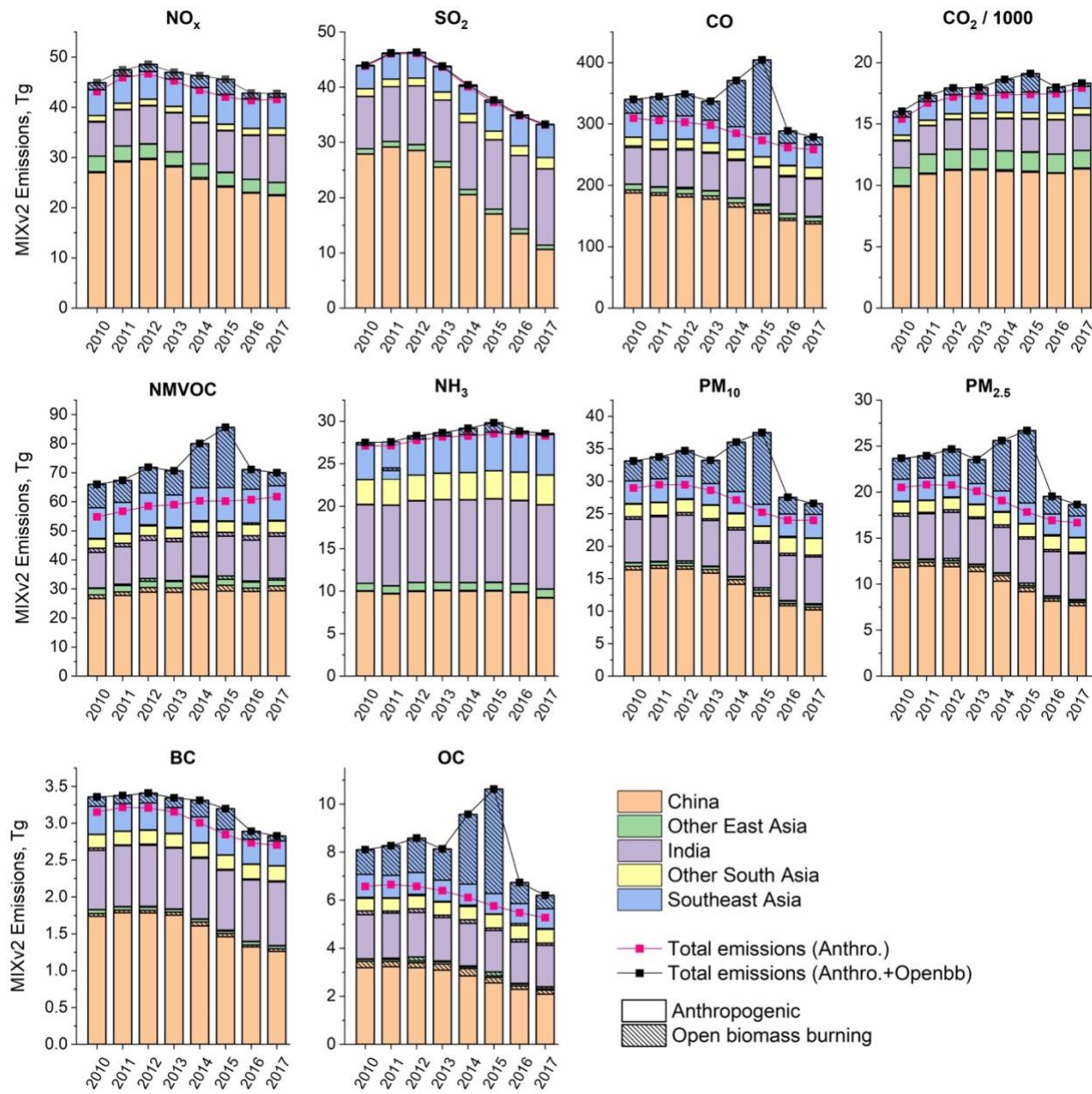
553 **NM_{VOC}.** Differing from the decreasing emission trend for NO_x, SO₂ and CO, NM_{VOC}
554 increases by 13% for anthropogenic, and 6% for all sources with open biomass burning. In
555 China, the industrial sector (+5.1Tg, +35%) is the major reason for the emissions growth, and
556 industrial solvent use (e.g., architecture paint use, wood paint use) is the largest contributor. The
557 share of solvent use rapidly rises from 28% in 2010 to 42% in 2017. In addition, oil production,
558 distribution and refineries, and chemical production lead to a corresponding emissions increase
559 by 44% (Li et al., 2019b). Due to fuel transfer in residential stoves and the effective pollution
560 control measures for on-road vehicles, China shows 18% and 22% emissions decreases,
561 respectively, slowing down the increasing trend. Industry and transportation drive the
562 anthropogenic emissions in India and SEA growing by 18% and 13%, respectively (see Fig. 5c).

563 In SEA, 64% of the total emissions are contributed by open biomass burning in 2015. Compared
564 to 2010, 2017 total emissions decreased by 12% in SEA, attributed to biomass burning.
565 NMVOCs are speciated into three chemical mechanisms following the source-profile based
566 methodology (see Sect. 2.4). We analyzed the speciation results in Sect. 3.5.

567 **NH₃**. As estimated by MIXv2, NH₃ emissions are generally flat, with slight increases (+4%) over
568 Asia due to the lack of targeted control measures. Over 80% of the total emissions are
569 contributed by fertilizer application and livestock manure. Transportation emissions in 2017 are
570 2.8 times greater than those in 2010 due to vehicle growth, which can play a key role for urban
571 air quality. India is the largest contributor (35%), followed by China (32%) and SEA (17%) (see
572 Fig. 3). India and OSA emissions show monotonic 7% and 20% increases, respectively.
573 According to our estimates, China decreases by 8% reflecting the agricultural activity rate
574 changes. Limited effects are estimated from open fires over NH₃ emissions budget, peaking at
575 19% of the total in 2015 for SEA.

576 **Particulate Matter (PM)**. PM emissions are estimated to have decreased in Asia: -4.9 Tg PM₁₀ (-
577 17%), -3.8 Tg PM_{2.5} (-19%), -0.45 Tg BC (-14%), -1.3 Tg OC (-20%) for anthropogenic, and -
578 6.5 Tg PM₁₀ (-20%), -5.0 PM_{2.5} (-21%), -0.51 Tg BC (-15%), -1.9 Tg OC (-23%) after including
579 open biomass burning. Industrial and residential sectors are the primary driving forces of the
580 emissions reduction. In China, the strengthened particulates standard for all emission-intensive
581 industrial activities, including iron and steel making, cement, brick, coke, glass, chemicals, and
582 coal boilers have driven the technology renewal and the phasing out of outdated, highly polluting
583 small facilities (Zheng et al., 2018). Pollution control measures reduced power plant emissions
584 by ~30% for PM₁₀, PM_{2.5} and BC, and counterbalanced the transportation emissions despite
585 vehicle ownership increasing by 270% in seven years. Other East Asia shows significant
586 anthropogenic emissions reduction for all PM species: -32% for PM₁₀, -33% for PM_{2.5}, -27% for
587 BC, and -31% for OC. Flat trends are estimated in India for all PM species ($\pm 8\%$). Reduction in
588 biofuel fuel use led to the residential emission reduction of PM in India and SEA. Increasing
589 industrial activities led to 24% - 35% anthropogenic emissions growth for PM₁₀ and PM_{2.5} in
590 OSA. As a result, China's emission fractions are shrinking, with growing contributions from
591 India and OSA (see Fig. 5d). Taking PM_{2.5} as an example, the emissions shares among Asian
592 regions have changed significantly between 2010 and 2017: from 58% to 46% for China, 23% to
593 30% for India, and 12% to 14% for SEA (anthropogenic, Fig. 5d). Open biomass burning
594 dominates the SEA emissions changes between 2010-2017: -19% for PM₁₀, -24% for PM_{2.5}, -
595 20% for BC, and -30% for OC.

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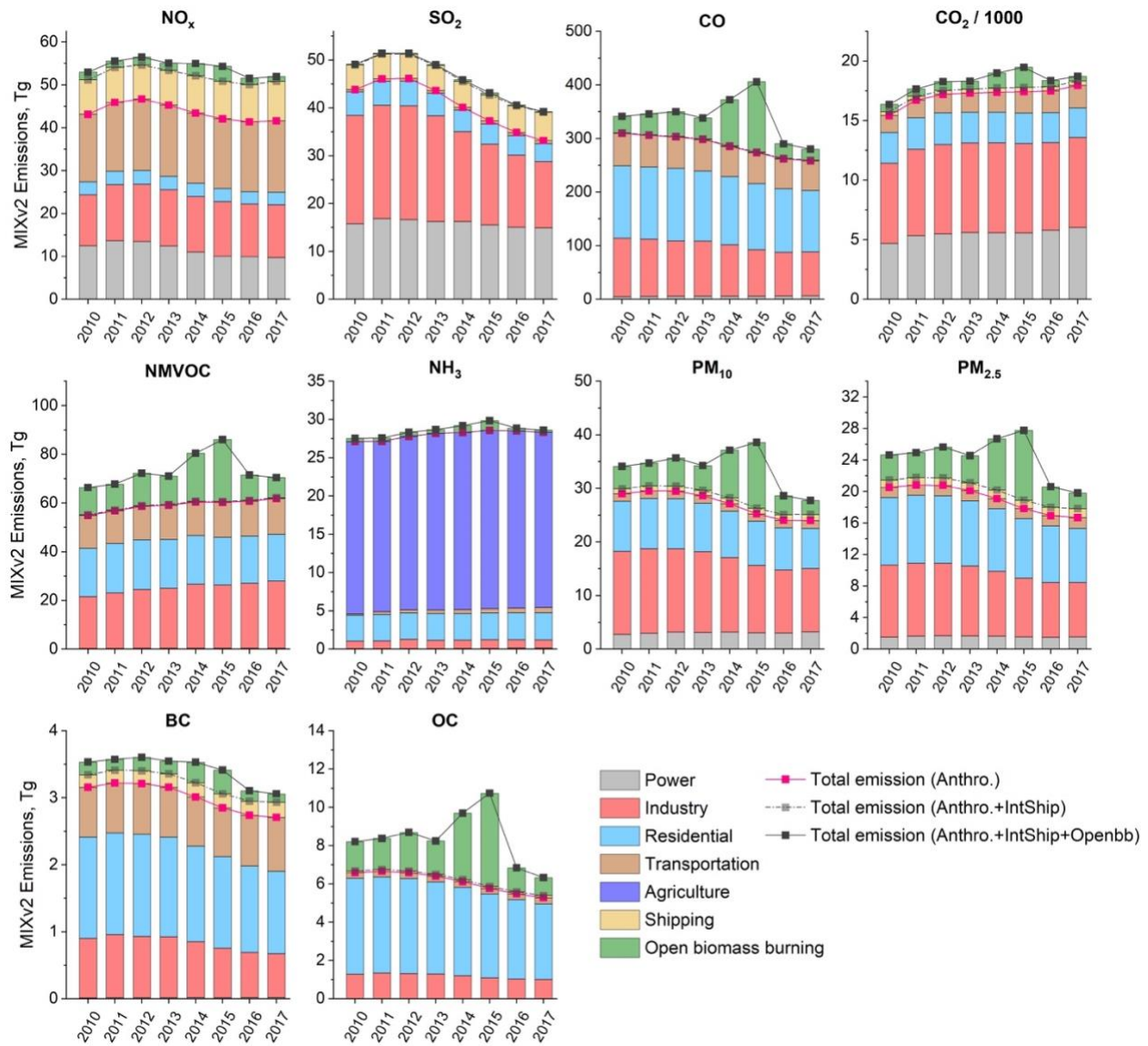
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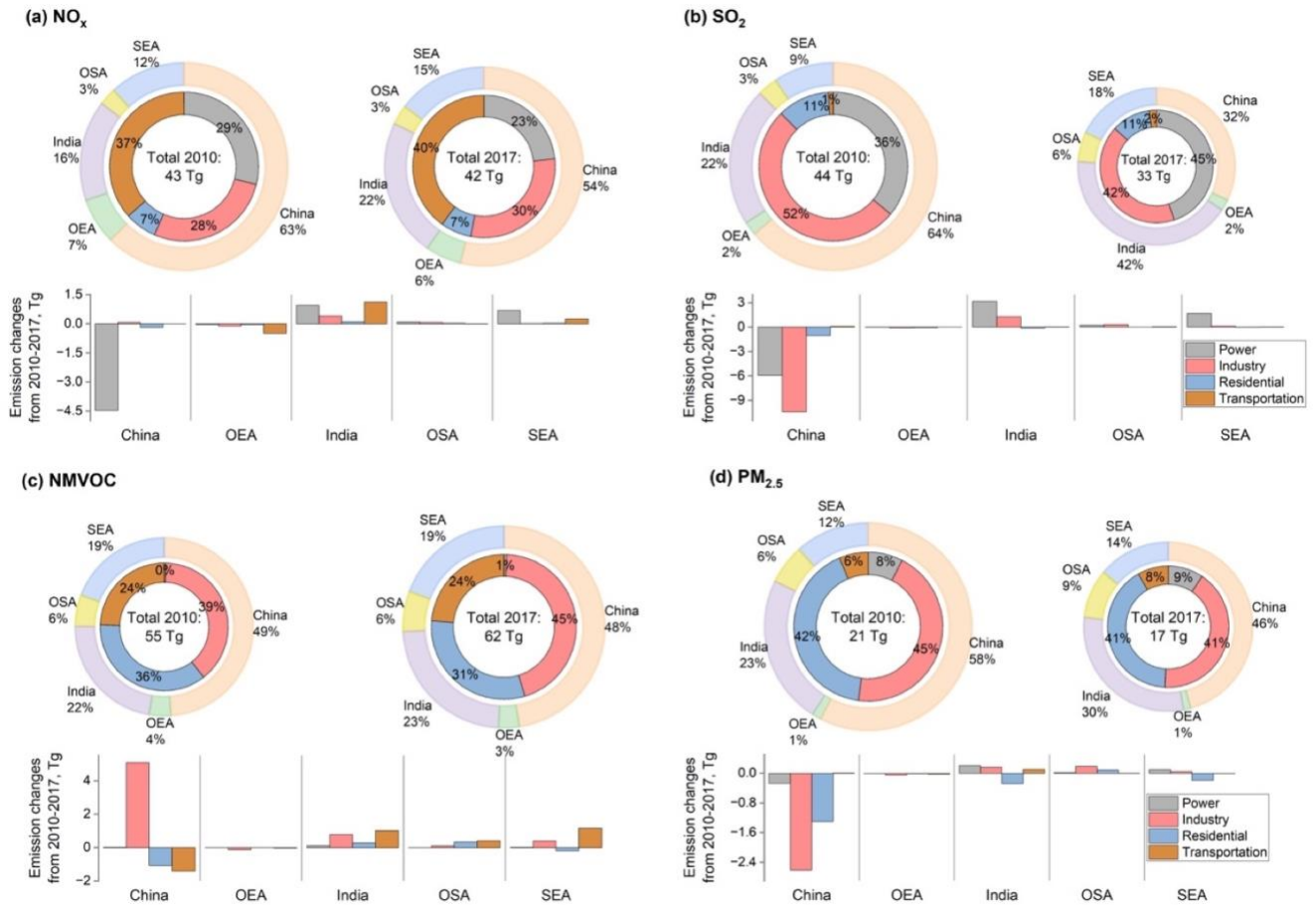
Figure 3. Emission changes by countries / regions from 2010 – 2017. Shares of open biomass burning for each region are shown as shadowed blocks.



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Figure 4. Emission changes by sectors in Asia from 2010 – 2017.

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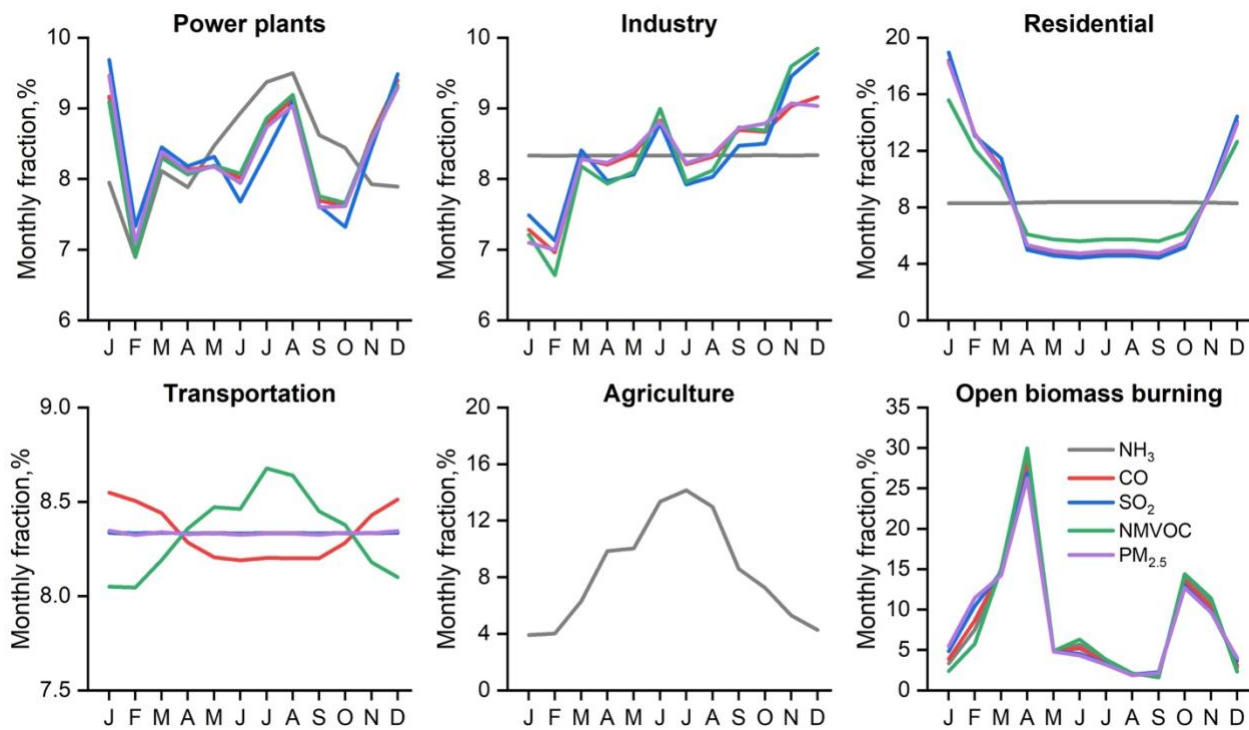
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Figure 5. Emission changes for anthropogenic sources (power, industry, residential, and transportation) by regions and sectors from 2010 – 2017 for (a) NO_x, (b) SO₂, (c) NMVOC and (d) PM_{2.5}. The pie sizes are scaled with the total anthropogenic emissions in Asia. The unit for the total emission values in the center is Tg per year. OEA denotes East Asia other than China, OSA represents South Asia other than India, SEA is Southeast Asia.

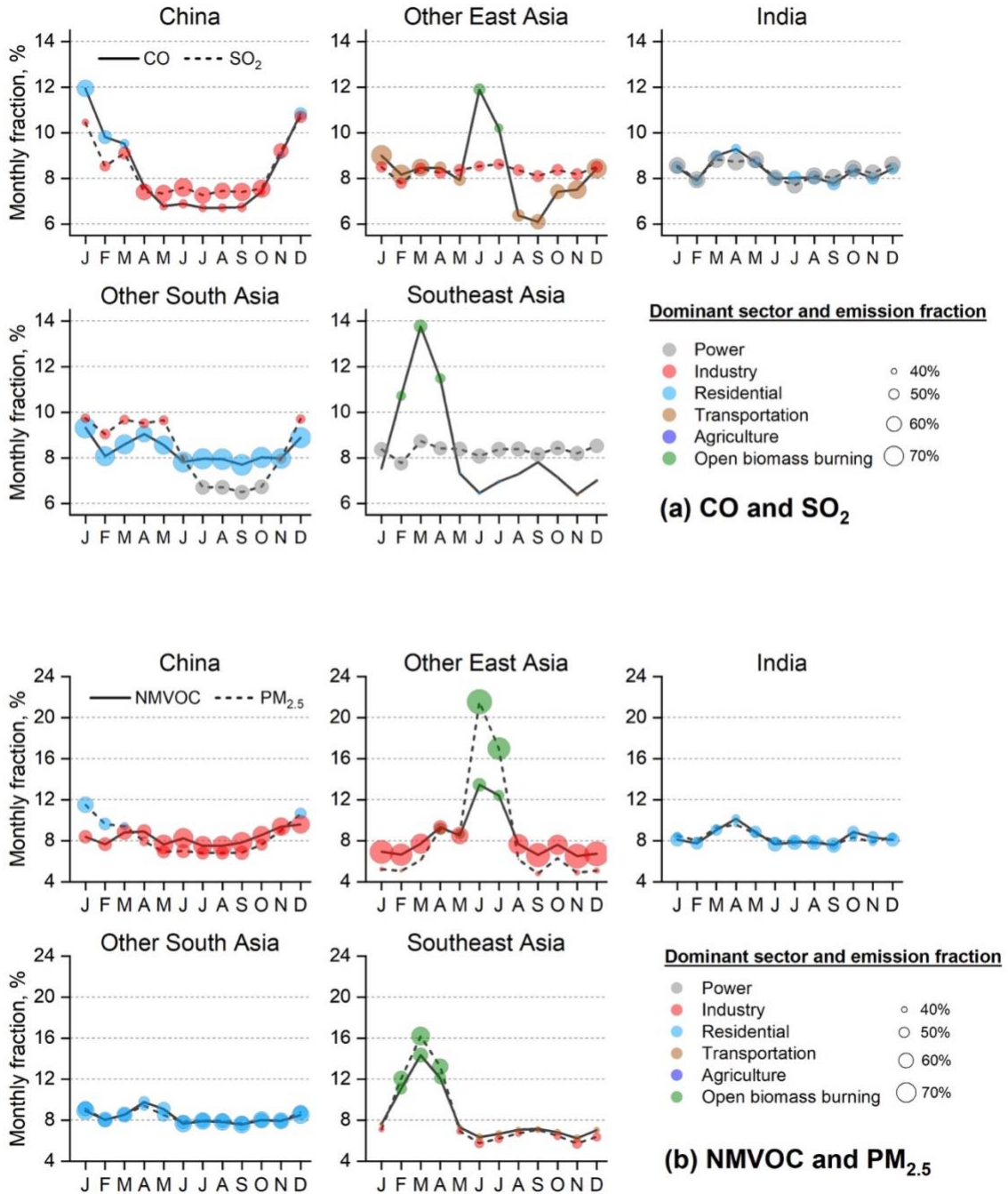


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Figure 6. Monthly variations of emissions in Asia by sectors, 2017. For agriculture, only NH₃ emissions are estimated.



620

621 **Figure 7. Monthly variations of emissions in Asian regions in 2017 for (a) CO (solid lines)**
 622 **and SO₂ (short, dashed lines), (b) NMVOC (solid lines) and PM_{2.5} (short, dashed lines). For**
 623 **each month, the dominant sector is labeled by circle color. Circle area is scaled based on**
 624 **the emission fraction of the dominant sector for each month. Both anthropogenic and open**
 625 **biomass burning are included.**

626 3.3 Seasonality

627 Monthly variations of emissions, which are highly sector dependent, are estimated in MIXv2.
628 Within the same sector, similar monthly emission variations are found among different species as
629 they are mainly driven by activity rates (see Fig. 6) (Li et al., 2017c). Fig. 6 and Fig. 7 illustrate
630 the emission fractions by sectors, and the dominant sector (classified by circle color) for each
631 month for CO, SO₂, NMVOC and PM_{2.5} by regions in 2017, including both anthropogenic and
632 open biomass burning. Contribution of the “dominant sector” is scaled to the circle area. Large
633 circles represent the significant role of the dominant sector and small ones (near 17%) indicate
634 the balanced contribution from six sectors. The monthly emissions patterns show large
635 disparities varying with regions. Notable variations are estimated for emissions of China, OEA
636 and SEA. The residential sector of China is the largest contributor in winter for CO and PM_{2.5},
637 leading to the “valley” curves. Industrial emissions show relatively high fractions in the second
638 half of the year aiming to achieve the annual production goal, which dominate the seasonal
639 patterns of SO₂, CO, NMVOC and PM_{2.5} for most of the months. The emissions peak in summer
640 for OEA and March for SEA are attributed to significant in-field biomass burning activities.
641 Indian and OSA emissions show relatively small monthly variations, compared to other Asian
642 regions. This pattern is attributed to the predominant role of the residential sector on the monthly
643 emissions for the investigated species (as illustrated in Fig. 7). The minimal seasonal variations
644 in surface temperature within the tropical climate of India and OSA contribute to the overall
645 stability in monthly residential emission patterns. Thus, it’s important to take both anthropogenic
646 and open biomass sectors into account in seasonality analyses given their dominant roles varying
647 by months, such as model evaluations based on ground/satellite/aircraft measurements.

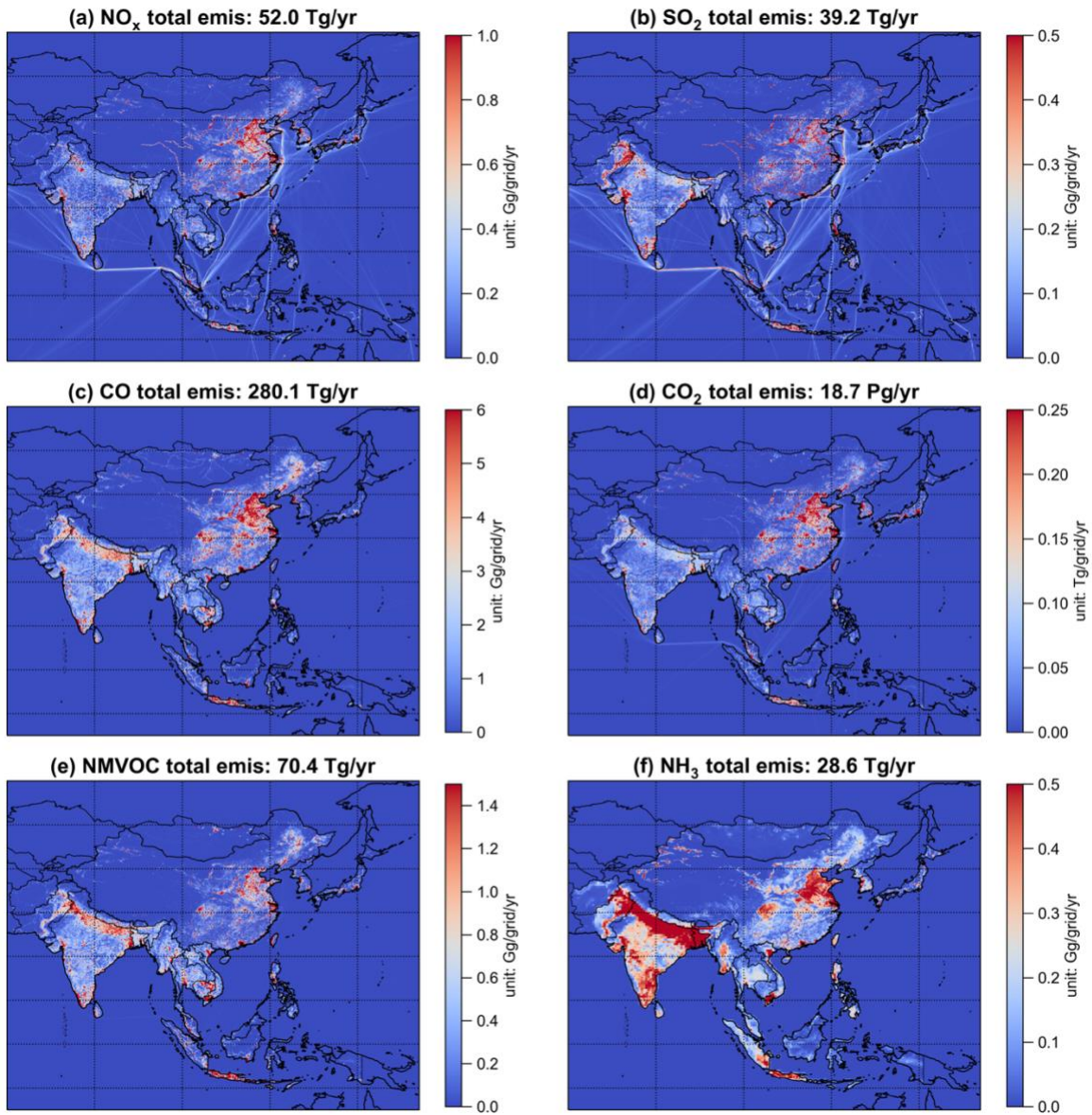
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649 3.4 Spatial distribution

650 Gridded emissions at 0.1 × 0.1 degree were developed in our inventory. Power plant emissions in
651 China and India are developed on a unit basis and assigned with exact geophysical locations. For
652 other sources, emissions are allocated to grids based on spatial proxies, such as road map,
653 population, Gross Domestic Product (GDP), etc. The gridded MODIS fire product with high
654 spatial resolution (up to 1km) is the essential dataset for open biomass burning emission
655 estimation. Fig. 8 and Fig. 9 depict the spatial distribution of both CO₂ and air pollutants over
656 Asia in 2017, showing the distinct patterns of point source, roads, and city clusters. Emission
657 intensities of hot spots over the Indo-Gangetic Plain, spanning northern Pakistan, northern India
658 and Bangladesh are comparable to those of northern China and Indonesia, especially for NH₃,
659 NMVOC, BC and OC. Clear shipping routes can be seen for NO_x, SO₂, CO₂ and PM species.

660 Emission reductions in East Asia highlight the importance of air pollution control in Southern
661 Asia. We show the emission changes by latitude bands from 2010 to 2017 for ozone precursors
662 (NO_x, NMVOC, CO) and primary PM_{2.5} in Fig. 10 and Fig. S2 (featuring open biomass burning).
663 Largest reductions are estimated between 35°N ~ 40°N for NO_x (-25%), CO (-32%) and PM_{2.5} (-
664 35%) because of China’s effective emission control strategies. On the other hand, NO_x

665 anthropogenic emissions have increased by 15% over 10°S ~ 0° (Southeast Asia), and +27%
666 over 10°N ~ 20°N (driven by India). Open biomass burning enlarged the emission amplitude for
667 15°S ~ 0° (Southeast Asia), while had limited effect on the trends over other latitude bands (see
668 Fig. S2). To conclude, NO_x has shifted southward in Asia. NMVOC emissions show generally
669 increasing trend over all latitude bands (+5% ~ +38%, anthropogenic). Differently, CO and
670 primary PM_{2.5} show general emissions reduction since 2010 except over 15°S ~ 10°S and 10°N ~
671 20°N. These latitudinal shifts are of particular importance for the global tropospheric ozone
672 budget as ozone precursors emitted at low latitudes are more efficient at producing ozone than if
673 the same quantity of emissions is released at high latitudes (Zhang et al., 2016; Zhang et al.,
674 2021).



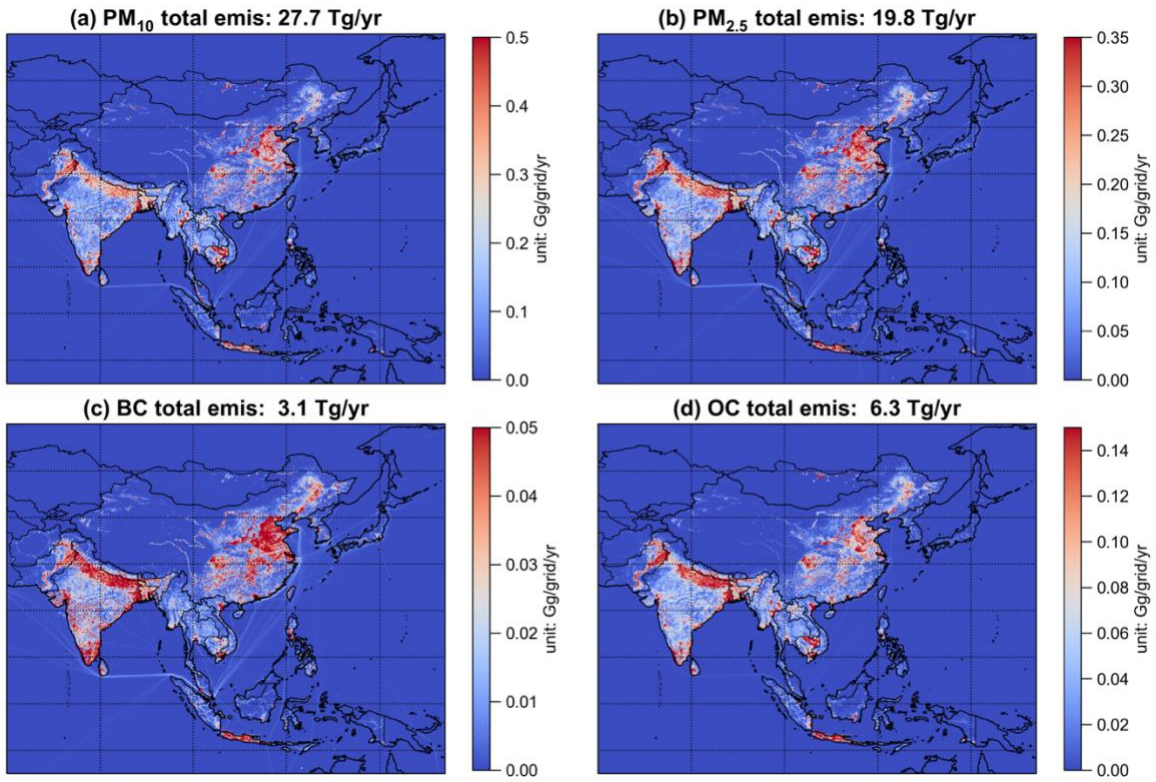
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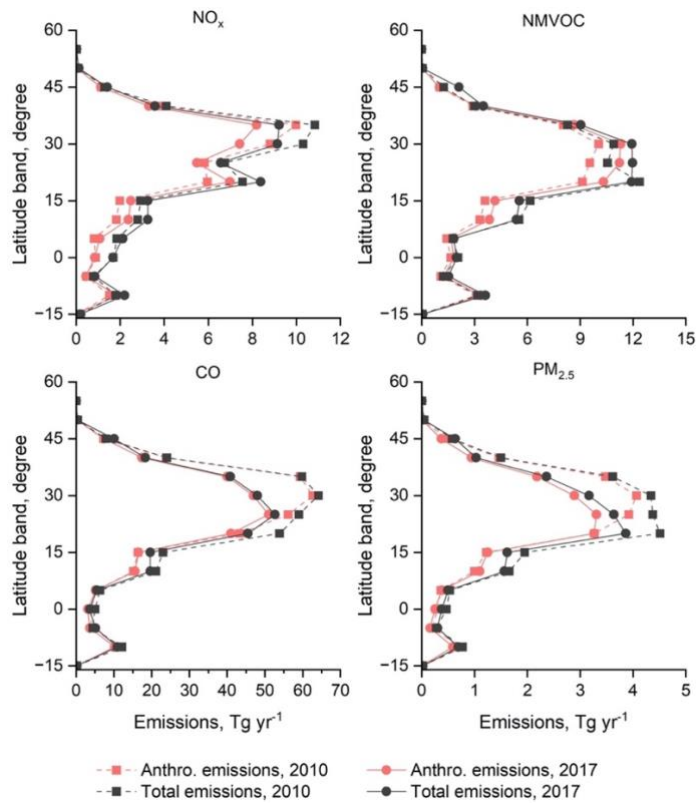
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Figure 8. Spatial distribution of emissions in MIXv2 in 2017 for gaseous species.

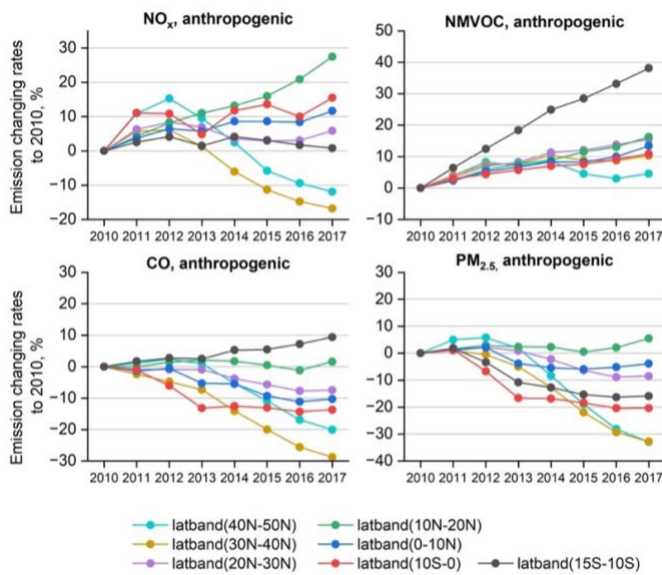


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Figure 9. Spatial distribution of emissions in MIXv2 in 2017 for PM species.



(a)



(b)

Figure 10. Emissions in 2010 and 2017 (a), and anthropogenic emission changes from 2010 to 2017 (b) by latitude bands for NO_x , NMVOC, CO and $\text{PM}_{2.5}$. The total emissions

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689 **changing patterns by latitude (anthropogenic + open biomass burning) are shown in Figure**
690 **S2.**

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692 **3.5 Speciated NMVOC emissions**

693 As one of the key precursors of ozone and secondary organic aerosols (SOA), NMVOC gain
694 more and more attention because of the emission increase due to relatively loose targeted control
695 measures. As estimated in MIXv2, Asian emissions have increased by 13% for anthropogenic
696 sources and 6% with additional open biomass burning. We speciated the total NMVOC to three
697 chemical mechanisms: SARPC99, SAPRC07 and CB05 following the profile-based approach
698 (Sect. 2.5). Emission changes during 2010-2017 by chemical groups are shown in Fig. 11.

699 Alkanes, Alkenes and Aromatics comprise 78% of the total emissions on a mole basis in 2017.
700 Driven by the growing activities in industry, emissions of Alkanes and Aromatics increased by
701 ~20% within 7 years, according to our estimates. Alkenes and Alkynes show a stable trend,
702 reflecting the combined results of emission reduction in residential and growth in industry and
703 transportation sectors. For OVOCs, especially Aldehydes, emissions decreased by 10% since
704 2010 due to reduced residential fuel combustion. Open biomass burning play a role over other
705 OVOCs (OVOCs other than Aldehydes and Ketones) emission changes. India, Southeast Asia,
706 and China are the largest contributors to the total Asian budget, with varying sector distributions
707 and driving forces by chemical groups.

708 Industry, mainly industrial solvent use, is the primary driving sector for emissions increase of
709 Alkanes (+15%) and Aromatics (+21%) in China. Moderate reductions are estimated for
710 anthropogenic OVOCs (-33% Aldehydes, +20% Ketones, -22% other OVOCs) attributed to fuel
711 transfer in the residential sector. OEA emissions show generally decreasing trends from -13%
712 (Ketones, Alkenes) to +3% (Alkynes) for anthropogenic sectors, and -10% (Ketones, Aromatics,
713 Others) to +25% (Other OVOCs) with additional open biomass burning. Industrial emissions
714 have decreased over all chemical groups for OEA. Similar sectoral distributions across chemical
715 species are found for India and OSA, dominated by the residential and transportation sectors.
716 More than 29% emissions growth are estimated for Alkanes and Aromatics, driven by industry,
717 residential, and transportation sectors in India and OSA. In SEA, ~20% increases are estimated
718 for emissions of Alkanes and Aromatics, and minor changes for Alkenes, Alkynes, Aldehydes
719 and Ketones (within 10%) during 2010-2017. OVOCs emissions in 2017 are 25% lower than the
720 values in 2010, contributed by residential sources and open biomass burning.

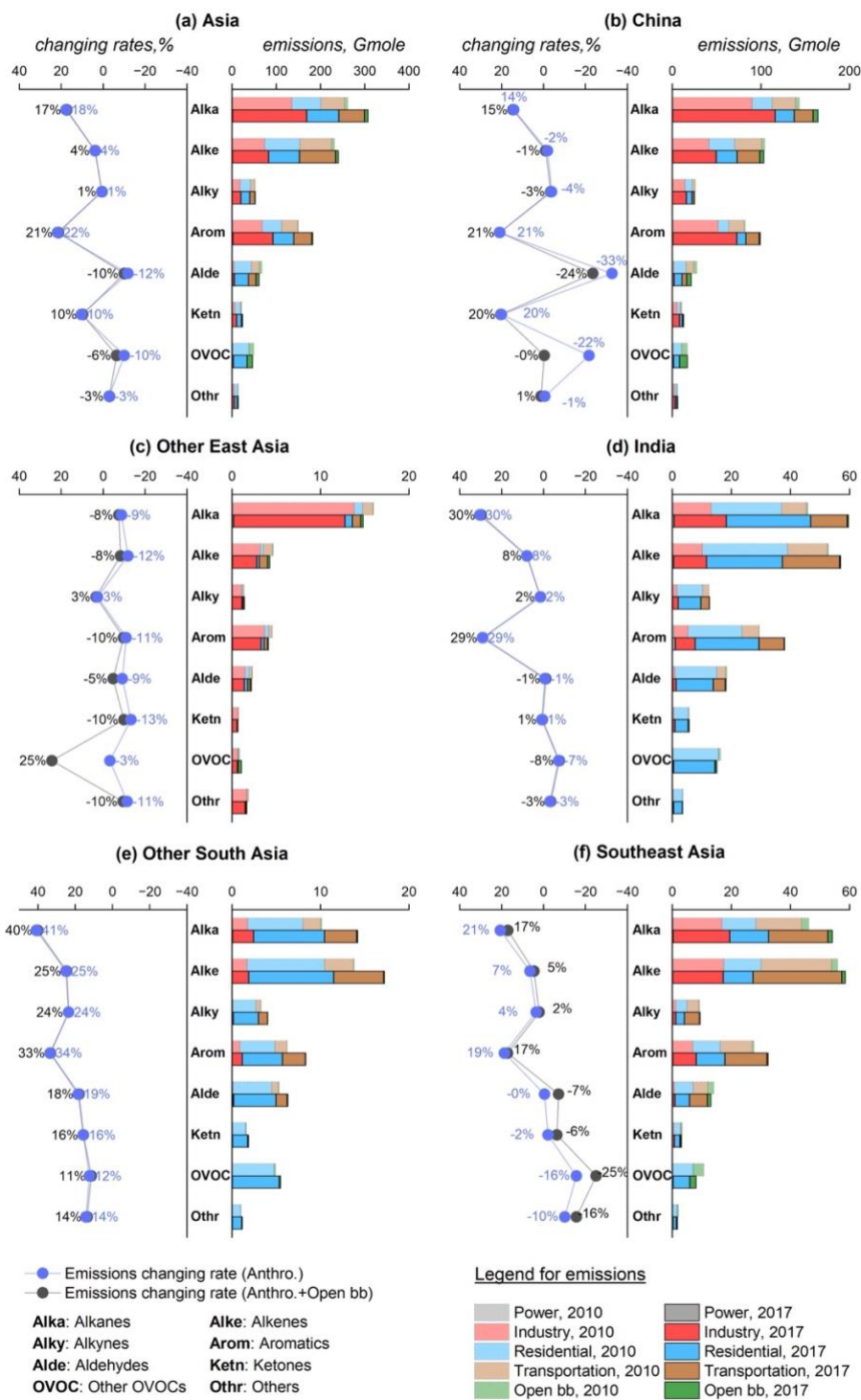
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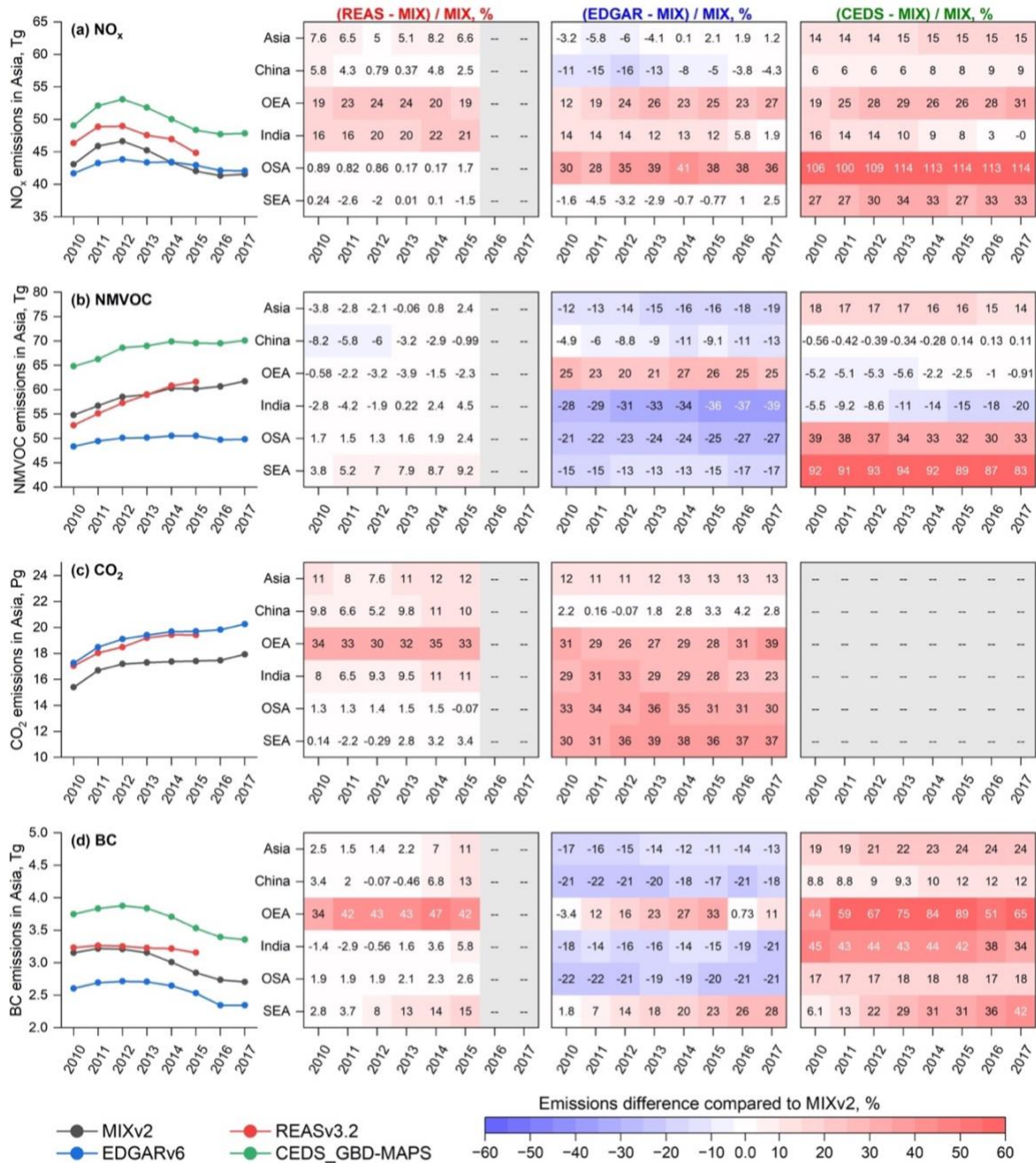
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Figure 11. Emissions in 2010 and 2017 (right columns) and the emission changing rates from 2010–2017 (left columns) of NMVOCs by chemical groups. For each country/region,

729 the left column represents the emission changing rates (in unit of %), and the right column
 730 shows the emissions by sectors in 2010 and 2017. Chemical groups are lumped from the
 731 SAPRC07 species following Table S4. Open bb denotes open biomass burning.



732
 733 **Figure 12. Emission comparisons for anthropogenic sources between MIXv2, REASv3.2,**
 734 **EDGARv6, and CEDS_GBD-MAPS for (a) NO_x, (b) NMVOC, (c) CO₂ and (d) BC during**
 735 **2010–2017 by Asian regions.**

736 **4. Inter-comparisons with other bottom-up and top-down emission**
 737 **estimates**

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Table 5. Top-down emission trends since 2010 over Asia.

Species	Estimates	Region	Period	AGR (% yr ⁻¹) ^a	Techniques
NO _x	Krotkov et al. (2016)	E China	2010-2015	-4.9	Satellite
	Liu et al. (2016)	E China	2010-2015	-5.1	Satellite
	Miyazaki et al. (2017)	China	2010-2016	-2.6	Inverse Modeling
	van der A et al. (2017)	E China	2010-2015	-1.7	Inverse Modeling
	Georgoulias et al. (2019)	China	2011-2018	-6.2	Satellite
	Hou et al. (2019)	China	2010-2017	-4.1	Satellite
	Itahashi et al. (2019)	China	2010-2016	-1.6	Inverse Modeling
	Zhang et al. (2019)	China	2010-2017	-5.0	Satellite
	MIXv2	China	2010-2017	-2.6	Bottom-up
	Krotkov et al. (2016)	India	2010-2015	3.4	Satellite
	Miyazaki et al. (2017)	India	2010-2016	2.5	Inverse Modeling
	Itahashi et al. (2019)	India	2010-2016	6.0	Inverse Modeling
	MIXv2	India	2010-2017	4.7	Bottom-up
	SO ₂	Tropospheric Chemistry Reanalysis (TCR-2) ^b	China	2010-2017	-7.1
Krotkov et al. (2016)		E China	2010-2015	-11.0	Satellite
van der A et al. (2017)		E China	2010-2015	-8.0	Inverse Modeling
C. Li et al. (2017)		China	2010-2016	-18.0	Inverse Modeling
Koukouli et al. (2018)		China	2010-2015	-6.2	Inverse Modeling
Zhang et al. (2019)		China	2010-2017	-4.0	Satellite
Qu et al. (2019) ^c		China	2010-2017	-4.0	Inverse Modeling
MIXv2		China	2010-2017	-12.9	Bottom-up
TCR-2 ^b		India	2010-2017	1.2	Inverse Modeling
Krotkov et al. (2016)		India	2010-2015	6.0	Satellite
C. Li et al. (2017)		India	2010-2016	3.4	Inverse Modeling
Qu et al. (2019) ^c		India	2010-2017	1.7	Inverse Modeling
MIXv2		India	2010-2017	5.6	Bottom-up
CO		Jiang et al. (2017) ^d	China	2010-2015	-2.8
	Zheng et al. (2019) ^e	China	2010-2017	-2.1	Inverse Modeling
	MIX v2	China	2010-2017	-4.4	Bottom-up
	Jiang et al. (2017) ^d	India / SEA	2010-2015	2.9	Inverse Modeling

	Zheng et al. (2019)	India	2010-2017	-1.7	Inverse Modeling
	MIXv2	India	2010-2017	0.4	Bottom-up
	Zheng et al. (2019)	SEA (an) ^f	2010-2017	-2.4	Inverse Modeling
	MIXv2	SEA (an)	2010-2017	-0.8	Bottom-up
	Jiang et al. (2017)	SEA (bb) ^g	2010-2014 [2010-2015] ^h	6.3 [51.6] ^h	Inverse Modeling
	Zheng et al. (2019)	SEA (bb)	2010-2017 [2010-2015]	-11.2 [40.1]	Inverse Modeling
	MIXv2	SEA (bb)	2010-2017 [2010-2015]	-7.9 [40.1]	Bottom-up
NMVO	Stavrou et al. (2017)	China	2010-2014	1.7	Inverse Modeling ⁱ
C	Zhang et al. (2019)	China	2010-2017	1.0	Satellite ⁱ
	MIXv2	China	2010-2017	1.3	Bottom-up
NH ₃	Warner et al. (2017)	China	2010-2016	2.2	Satellite
	Damme et al. (2021)	China	2010-2017	5.5	Satellite
	MIXv2	China	2010-2017	-1.2	Bottom-up
	Damme et al. (2021)	India	2010-2017	0.5	Satellite
	MIXv2	India	2010-2017	2.2	Bottom-up
	Damme et al. (2021)	SEA	2010-2017 [2010-2015]	-2.7 [8.9]	Satellite
	MIXv2	SEA	2010-2017 [2010-2015]	1.7 [5.3]	Bottom-up

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741 ^a AGR: Annual Growth Rate.

742 ^b Elguindi et al. (2020)

743 ^c Top-down estimates based on NASA products

744 ^d estimates derived from MOPITT profiles

745 ^e the results of full inversion # 3 are summarized here

746 ^f Southeast Asia for anthropogenic sources

747 ^g Southeast Asia for open biomass burning

748 ^h the growth rates between 2010 and 2015 are listed in square brackets because 2015 is a El Niño year

749 ⁱ HCHO columns are used

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751 To provide a potential uncertainty range of MIXv2, we compared our estimates with both
752 regional and global inventories, as well as top-down estimates from previous satellite-based and
753 inverse modeling studies. Figure 12 shows the emission comparisons of MIXv2 with REASv3.2,
754 EDGARv6, and CEDS_GBD-MAPS (referred to as CEDS) (McDuffie et al., 2020) by Asian
755 regions during 2010-2017 for NO_x, NMVOC, CO₂ and BC. REAS and MIX show the best
756 agreement (differing within 12%) as expected because REAS was used as default estimates over
757 Asia. Similar trends are found between REAS and MIX for all species except BC. The trends of
758 NO_x in EDGAR are different than the others which peak in 2012, indicating the needs of re-
759 visiting the parameterization of control policies in East Asia in the global inventory system.

760 EDGAR estimates are within 20% difference with MIXv2 for the whole Asia, but with higher
761 discrepancies over OEA, OSA and SEA. NMVOCs are 12%~19% lower in EDGAR, mainly for
762 India and OSA. Notably, the emission discrepancies have grown larger in recent years, attributed
763 to the differences in emissions trends. EDGAR's NMVOC emissions show a relatively flat trend,
764 in contrast to the continuously increasing pattern of MIX. Emissions of CO₂ over OEA, OSA and
765 SEA seem to be uncertain, with more than 30% difference between EDGAR and MIX. Similarly,
766 the emission differences of BC in SEA need to be considered when used in climate model
767 simulations. The emission trends of CEDS are consistent with those of MIX because MEIC was
768 applied to scale the emissions in the CEDS system (McDuffie et al., 2020). However, compared
769 to MIX, CEDS emissions are generally higher across regions and species, with large
770 discrepancies over OEA (+65% for BC, +31% for NO_x in 2017), India (+34% for BC), OSA
771 (+114% for NO_x, +33% for NMVOCs) and SEA (+33% for NO_x, +83% for NMVOCs, +42% for
772 BC). These comparisons highlight the potential uncertainties of bottom-up emission inventories
773 over South Asia and Southeast Asia where information is still limited compared to East Asia.
774 More validations and revisions are needed to identify the reasons of the discrepancies and narrow
775 down the gaps.

776 Table 5 summarizes the top-down emission annual growth rates since 2010 as derived from
777 satellite retrievals and inverse modeling studies. MIX trends show high consistency with the top-
778 down estimates, especially the inverse modeling results. Decreasing trends since the peak in
779 2012 for NO_x emissions in China are validated from space (Georgoulas et al., 2019; Hou et al.,
780 2019; Itahashi et al., 2019; Krotkov et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2016; Miyazaki et al., 2017; van der
781 A et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019). The annual growth rates derived directly from satellite
782 retrievals (-4.1 ~ -6.2 % yr⁻¹) are in general larger than those from inverse modeling (-1.6 ~ -
783 2.6 % yr⁻¹) which jointly account for the air transport and chemical non-linearity. Similar
784 declining trends are found from top-down estimates of SO₂ (Elguindi et al., 2020; Koukouli et
785 al., 2018; Krotkov et al., 2016; Li et al., 2017a; Qu et al., 2019; van der A et al., 2017; Zhang et
786 al., 2019) and CO (Jiang et al., 2017; Zheng et al., 2019) over China. For India, emissions have
787 been detected to grow continuously from space for NO_x and SO₂, with growth rates consistent
788 with the inventory estimation. Slightly increasing trend is detected from space for HCHO in
789 China, as an indicator of NMVOC emissions (Stavrakou et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019). 2015 is
790 an El Niño year, and this climate anomaly turns out to significantly affect the emissions trends of
791 CO and NH₃ in SEA (Van Damme et al., 2021). More inverse modeling work by combining
792 multiple species are needed for NH₃ over Asia to shed light on the uncertainty range of inventory
793 estimation.

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799 **5. Concluding remarks**

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801 In this work, we developed the MIXv2 emission inventory for Asia during 2010-2017 resolved
802 with relatively high spatial resolution (0.1°) and temporal resolution (monthly), and detailed
803 chemical speciation (SAPRC99, SAPRC07, CB05). MEICv2, PKU-NH₃, PKU-Biomass, ANL-
804 India, CAPSS, JPN are used to represent the best available emission inventories for China, India,
805 the Republic of Korea, and Japan, fill-gaped with REASv3 and GFEDv4. Constructing a long-
806 term mosaic emission inventory requires substantial international collaborations. MIXv2 was
807 developed based on the state-of-the-art updated emission inputs under the framework of MICS-
808 Asia Phase IV, and is now ready to feed the atmospheric chemistry models and improve
809 chemistry-climate models for long-term analyses. With high spatial resolution up to 0.1° , MIXv2
810 is capable of supporting model activities at regional and even local scales. As far as we know,
811 MIXv2 is the first mosaic inventory with both anthropogenic and open biomass burning
812 estimated by incorporating local emission inventories. Emissions are aggregated to seven sectors
813 in MIX: power, industry, residential, transportation, agriculture as anthropogenic sources, along
814 with open biomass burning and shipping. With three chemical mechanisms developed using a
815 consistent speciation framework, MIXv2 can be used in most of the atmospheric models even for
816 those configured with updates on ozone and secondary organic aerosols formation. MIXv2 also
817 has CO₂ emissions based on the same emissions model for 9 air pollutants (NO_x, SO₂, CO,
818 NMVOC, NH₃, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5}, BC, OC), providing a consistent dataset for climate-air quality
819 nexus research. Gridded monthly emissions are publicly available at
820 <https://csl.noaa.gov/groups/csl4/modeldata/data/Li2023/>.

821 Driving forces of the emission changes during 2010-2017 are investigated based on MIXv2.
822 Significant emission reductions from anthropogenic sources are found for SO₂, CO, PM₁₀, PM_{2.5},
823 BC, and OC, driven by effective clean air actions conducted over China and Other East Asia.
824 India, Other South Asia, and Southeast Asia show continuously increasing emissions trends since
825 2010, limiting the emissions reduction for Asia as a whole. On the contrary, NMVOC and NH₃
826 emissions increased or remained flat due to insufficient targeted control measures. Open biomass
827 burning is the largest contributor to Southeast Asia for emissions of CO, NMVOC and OC. NO_x
828 emissions have shown clear latitudinal shifts southward in Asia, which is important for global
829 tropospheric ozone budget. Our estimated trends are in general consistent with those derived
830 from satellite retrievals, especially results from inverse modeling.

831 Further validation is needed for MIXv2 for better understanding of the data reliability. Inverse
832 modeling studies on NMVOC and NH₃ are still limited, partly attributed to the lack of available
833 measurement data over Asia. With the launch of the Geostationary Environment Monitoring
834 Spectrometer (GEMS) and the availability of hourly retrievals of atmospheric composition, top-
835 down constraints on both emissions spatial distributions and temporal variations are now
836 possible (Kim et al., 2020) on the scale of Asia. In-situ measurements, aircraft and satellite data
837 should be combined with inventory and model simulations to improve emission estimates in the
838 future.

839

840 **6. Data availability**

841 MIXv2 gridded monthly emissions data for both anthropogenic and open biomass burning for
842 2010-2017 by 10 species and 7 sectors are available at:
843 <https://csl.noaa.gov/groups/csl4/modeldata/data/Li2023/>, and also shared in
844 <http://meicmodel.org/dataset-mixv2>. Emission estimates by Asian countries and sectors are
845 summarized in the supplement. Daily open biomass burning emissions are available upon
846 request.

847

848 **7. Author contribution**

849 M. Li, Q. Zhang, J. Kurokawa and J. Woo initiated the research topic. M. Li developed the
850 emissions model, conducted the analyses, and prepared the paper. J. Kurokawa, Q. Zhang, J.
851 Woo, T. Morikawa, S. Chatani, Z. Lu, Y. Song, G. Geng, H. Hu, J. Kim provided the regional
852 emissions data. O. R. Cooper and B. C. McDonald have contributed by providing the computing
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854

855 **8. Competing interests**

856 At least one of our co-authors are members of the editorial board of ACP. The peer-review
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