

1 **Global estimates of ambient reactive nitrogen components during**  
2 **2000-2100 based on the multi-stage model**

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10 **Abstract**

11 High contents of reactive nitrogen components aggravate air pollution and could also impact  
12 ecosystem structure and function across the terrestrial-aquatic-marine continuum. However, the  
13 long-term historical trends and future prediction of reactive nitrogen components at the global scale  
14 still remains high uncertainties. In our study, the field observations, satellite products, model output,  
15 and many other covariates were integrated into the multi-stage machine-learning model to capture  
16 the global patterns of reactive nitrogen components during 2000-2019. In order to decrease the  
17 estimate uncertainties in the future scenarios, the constructed reactive nitrogen component dataset  
18 during the historical period was then utilized as the constraint to calibrate the CMIP6 dataset in four  
19 scenarios. The results suggested the cross-validation (CV)  $R^2$  values of four species showed satisfied  
20 performance ( $R^2 > 0.55$ ). The concentrations of estimated reactive nitrogen components in China  
21 experienced persistent increases during 2000-2013, while they suffered from drastic decreases since  
22 2013 except  $\text{NH}_3$ . It might be associated with the impact of clean air policy. However, these  
23 compounds in Europe and the United States remained relatively stable since 2000. In the future  
24 scenarios, SSP3-7.0 (traditional energy scenario) and SSP1-2.6 (carbon neutrality scenario) showed  
25 the highest and lowest reactive nitrogen component concentrations, respectively. Although the  
26 reactive nitrogen concentrations in some heavy-pollution scenarios (SSP3-7.0) also experienced  
27 decreases during 2020-2100, SSP1-2.6 and SSP2-4.5 (middle emission scenario) still kept more  
28 rapid decreasing trends. Our results emphasize the need for carbon-neutrality pathway to reduce  
29 global atmospheric N pollution.

30 **1. Introduction**

31 Along with the development of global urbanization and industrialization, the anthropogenic  
32 emissions of reactive nitrogen (e.g., NO<sub>x</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, HNO<sub>2</sub>) experienced drastic increases during the past  
33 decades, and caused the higher concentrations of NO<sub>2</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and many secondary components such  
34 as NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (NO<sub>3</sub>-N), NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub>-N), and HNO<sub>2</sub> (Chen et al., 2021; Liu et al., 2020b; McDuffie et al.,  
35 2020). The reactive nitrogen released from anthropogenic source could significantly alter the global  
36 nitrogen cycle throughout the Earth system (Altieri et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2020). Reactive  
37 nitrogen in the atmosphere dominates the chemical formation of tropospheric O<sub>3</sub> and aggravates the  
38 particle pollution (Geddes and Martin, 2017), with implications for global air quality and climate  
39 change (He et al., 2022; Von Schneidmesser et al., 2015). Moreover, the ambient reactive nitrogen  
40 could be deposited into the land surface and could cause lake eutrophication and soil acidification  
41 (Bouwman et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2018). Therefore, it is highly necessary to understand the spatial  
42 distributions and temporal evolution trends of reactive nitrogen components at the global scale.

43 Despite the global importance, observational constraints on reactive nitrogen in the atmosphere  
44 were still scarce in most parts of the world (Liu et al., 2020b). Furthermore, the majority of  
45 monitoring sites focused on China, Europe, and the United States (Du et al., 2014; Li et al., 2020;  
46 Li et al., 2019a; Li et al., 2016), and these uneven sites only possessed limited spatial  
47 representativeness (Shi et al., 2018), which restricted the accurate assessment of global reactive  
48 nitrogen pollution. Fortunately, the satellite observations gave us a unprecedented chance to capture  
49 the global variations of atmospheric reactive nitrogen. Geddes et al. (2017) used the satellite  
50 products to calibrate the simulated reactive nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>y</sub>) and improved the predictive  
51 performance (R = 0.83) compared with the chemical transport model (CTM) output alone (Geddes  
52 and Martin, 2017). Afterwards, Liu et al. (2022) also used the similar method to estimate the global  
53 wet deposition of reduced nitrogen (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>) and the R value achieved 0.80(Liu et al., 2021). Although  
54 the calibration based on satellite products could improve the predictive accuracy compared with  
55 CTM output, the simulated values still largely biased from the ground-level observations. Moreover,  
56 the method cannot accurately fill the gaps of reactive nitrogen concentrations without satellite  
57 coverage. In our previous works, we developed a satellite-based ensemble machine-learning model  
58 to predict the wet NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> deposition across China and the R<sup>2</sup> value reached 0.76 (R = 0.88) (Li et al.,

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59 2020). However, this technique was not expanded to the global scale and the high-accuracy and full-  
60 coverage global ambient reactive nitrogen dataset was still lack.

61 Apart from the historical estimates, the future prediction of reactive nitrogen is also important  
62 because these components in the future scenarios could significantly affect the land carbon cycle  
63 and greenhouse gas emissions, both of which could aggravate the global climate change and affect  
64 the earth system safety (Chen et al., 2015; Zaehle, 2013). To the best of our knowledge, only two  
65 studies focused on global aerosol prediction in the future scenarios. Chen et al. (2023) predicted the  
66 global PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels and associated mortalities in 2100 under different climate scenarios and found  
67 that SSP3-7.0 scenario was linked with the highest PM<sub>2.5</sub> exposure. Li et al., (2022) also simulated  
68 the global NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (NO<sub>3</sub>-N) and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub>-N) levels in the future four scenarios and demonstrated  
69 that both of these components showed marked decreases in most cases except SSP5-8.5 scenario.  
70 However, this study predicted the future reactive nitrogen based on historical CTM output alone,  
71 which lacks of observation constraints. The result might increase the uncertainty of assessment.

72 In our study, we developed a multi-stage model to estimate the concentrations of four reactive  
73 nitrogen species (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (NO<sub>3</sub>-N), HNO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub>-N)) during 2000-2019 because these  
74 species were most important reactive nitrogen components for human health and ecological  
75 ecosystem and also showed abundant ground-level observations. Then, the species over the 2020-  
76 2100 period under the SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5 scenarios were also corrected  
77 based on the historical estimates. Finally, the long-term dataset of reactive nitrogen during 2000-  
78 2100 was constructed. Our results were beneficial to assess the impacts of reactive nitrogen  
79 components on air pollution and climate change in the future.

## 80 **2. Material and methods**

### 81 **2.1 Reactive nitrogen observations**

82 Most of reactive nitrogen observations focused on East Asia, Europe, and the United States. The  
83 monthly reactive nitrogen components monitoring data during 2010-2015 in China were  
84 downloaded from nationwide nitrogen deposition monitoring network (NNDMN) including 32 sites,  
85 and these sites could be classified into three types mixed with urban, rural, and background sites  
86 (Xu et al., 2019) (Table S1). The concentrations of reactive nitrogen components were determined  
87 using the active DENuder for Long-Term Atmospheric sampling system (DELTA). The detailed

88 sampling and analysis procedures have been described by Xu et al. (2019). The dataset of reactive  
89 nitrogen components in other countries of East Asia during 2000-2019 were download from the  
90 Acid Deposition Monitoring Network in East Asia (EANET), [which includes 41 sites](#). The European  
91 Monitoring and Evaluation Programme (EMEP) provides records of long-term reactive nitrogen  
92 components in 86 sites of most countries across West Europe. Monthly reactive nitrogen  
93 components dataset in 84 locations across the United States could be obtained from the Clean Air  
94 Status and Trends Network (CASTNET) (Figure S1).

## 95 2.2 Data preparation

96 The GEOS-Chem (v13.4.0) model driven by MERRA2 meteorological parameters was applied  
97 to simulate the historical reactive nitrogen components (daily) during 2000-2019 (Feng et al., 2021).  
98 The GEOS-Chem model was composed of detailed ozone-NO<sub>x</sub>-VOC-PM-halogen tropospheric  
99 chemistry. The grid version of the model with a horizontal resolution of 2° × 2.5° was utilized. [Wet](#)  
100 [deposition contained many processes including sub-grid scavenging in convective updrafts, in-](#)  
101 [cloud rainout, and below-cloud washout \(Liu et al., 2001\). Dry deposition was estimated based on](#)  
102 [a resistance-in-series model \(Wesely, 2007\). The estimates of aerosol optical properties account for](#)  
103 [the hygroscopic growth \(Drury et al., 2010\). Vertical mixing in the boundary layer follows a non-](#)  
104 [local scheme implemented by Lin and McElroy \(2010\), and convection employs the relaxed](#)  
105 [Arakawa-Schubert scheme](#). The anthropogenic emission inventory in 2000-2019 was downloaded  
106 from the website of Community Emissions Data System (CEDS) (Hoesly et al., 2018). [CEDS](#)  
107 [emission inventory includes eight sectors such as agriculture, energy, industry, residential, shipping,](#)  
108 [solvents, transportation, and waste incineration](#). Then, the daily reactive nitrogen components were  
109 averaged to the monthly scale.

110 The IASI instrument aboard on the polar sun-synchronous MetOp platform traverses the  
111 equator twice each day (9:30 a.m. and 9:30 p.m. local solar time) (Whitburn et al., 2016a). The  
112 measurements in the daytime usually shows the better accuracy than those at night due to the high  
113 sensitivity to ambient NH<sub>3</sub> (Van Damme et al., 2017; Whitburn et al., 2016a; Whitburn et al., 2016b).  
114 In our study, we used the IASI NH<sub>3</sub> columns in morning during 2008-2019 to estimate the NH<sub>3</sub> and  
115 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations globally. Besides, the NH<sub>3</sub> column dataset with a cloud shield higher than 25%  
116 and relative error above 100% were eliminated.

117 The tropospheric vertical column density (VCD) of NO<sub>2</sub> retrieved from OMI aboard on Aura  
118 satellite crosses the earth once a day (Kim et al., 2016). OMI-derived tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column  
119 densities during 2005-2019 was applied to develop the model. The tropospheric NO<sub>2</sub> column density  
120 data with cloud radiance fraction > 0.5, terrain reflectivity > 30%, and solar zenith angles > 85°  
121 were screened (Cooper et al., 2022). Additionally, the NO<sub>2</sub> columns from GOME (1995-2003),  
122 SCIAMACHY (2002-2011) and GOME-2 (2007-) were also collected to simulate the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (NO<sub>3</sub>-  
123 N) and HNO<sub>3</sub> levels. The similar overpass time of these three instruments (from about 09:30 to  
124 10:30 LT, local time) facilitates the simultaneous use to capture consistent long-term coverage.  
125 However, the dataset cannot cover the NO<sub>2</sub> columns since 2017. To overcome the inconsistency of  
126 these satellite products, we applied the linear regression technique to construct the relationship  
127 between OMI-NO<sub>2</sub> columns and GOME/SCIAMACHY NO<sub>2</sub> columns. The results suggested these  
128 satellite products showed good relationship ( $R^2 > 0.6$ ). At last, the long-term (2000-2019) NO<sub>2</sub>  
129 columns at the global scale were constructed.

130 The monthly meteorological parameters derived from ERA-5 comprise of 2 m dewpoint  
131 temperature ( $D_{2m}$ ), 2 m temperature ( $T_{2m}$ ), surface pressure ( $S_p$ ), and total precipitation ( $T_p$ ), 10 m  
132 U wind component (U10), and 10 m V wind component (V10). The population density data during  
133 2000-2020 around the world were downloaded from  
134 <https://hub.worldpop.org/geodata/listing?id=64>. The elevation data was extracted from ETOPO at a  
135 spatial resolution of 1' (Amante and Eakins, 2009) (<https://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds759.4/>). In  
136 addition, the land use data types including cropland, forest, grassland, shrubland, tundra, barren land,  
137 and snow/ice were obtained from Liu et al. (2020a). Besides, the CMIP6 dataset in four scenarios  
138 were also applied to predict the reactive nitrogen concentrations during 2020-2100. The dataset  
139 includes 2-m air temperatures, wind speed at 850 and 500 hPa, total cloud cover, precipitation,  
140 relative humidity, and short-wave radiation. The modelled meteorological parameters derived from  
141 16 earth system models were incorporated into the machine-learning model. The detailed models  
142 are summarized in Table S2.

### 143 2.3 Model development

144 A three-stage model was established to capture the full-coverage reactive nitrogen dataset at  
145 the global scale (Figure 1). In the first stage, the ground-level reactive nitrogen species, satellite

146 products (e.g., OMI-NO<sub>2</sub> and IASI-NH<sub>3</sub> columns), meteorological [factorsparameters](#), land use types,  
 147 population, and simulated reactive nitrogen components derived from GEOS-Chem model were  
 148 collected as the independent variables to estimate the gridded reactive nitrogen species at the  
 149 period/grid with satellite product based on [LightGBM-XGBoost](#) algorithm. In the second stage, the  
 150 meteorological parameters, GEOS-Chem output, land use [datatypes](#), and population were applied  
 151 to fill the gaps without satellite retrievals. Then, the simulated results based on these models were  
 152 fused to obtain the full-coverage reactive nitrogen components and the ground-level observations  
 153 were further used to calibrate the full-coverage dataset and the final reactive nitrogen components  
 154 at the global scale were simulated. In the last stage, the reactive nitrogen components and  
 155 meteorological parameters in four scenarios (SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5) during  
 156 2020-2100 were collected from CMIP6 dataset including 16 earth system models (Table S2). Then,  
 157 the data in the future scenarios were integrated into the ensemble model including XGBoost,  
 158 LightGBM, and convolutional neural networks (CNN) to further calibrate the modeling results  
 159 based on historical dataset (2000-2019) derived from previous two-stage model. The detailed  
 160 equations of multiple machine-learning models are summarized as follows:

161 (1) XGBoost model

$$162 \quad F^{(t)} = \sum_{i=1}^n [l(y_i, y^{\wedge(t-1)}) + \partial_{y^{(t-1)}} l(y_i, y^{\wedge(t-1)}) f_i(x_i) + \frac{1}{2} \partial_{y^{(t-1)}}^2 l(y_i, y^{\wedge(t-1)}) f_i^2(x_i)] + \Omega(f_i) \quad (1)$$

163 where  $F^{(t)}$  is the cost function at the  $t$ -th period;  $\partial$  is the derivative of the function;  $\partial_{y^{(t-1)}}^2$   
 164 represents the second derivative of the function;  $l$  denotes the differentiable convex loss function  
 165 that reveals the difference of the predicted value ( $y^{\wedge}$ ) of the  $i$ -th instance at the  $t$ -th period and the  
 166 target value ( $y_i$ );  $f_i(x)$  represents the increment;  $\Omega(f_i)$  reflects the regularizer. [Maximum tree](#)  
 167 [depth and learning rate reached 15 and 0.1, respectively.](#)

168 (2) LightGBM model

$$169 \quad f = \arg \min_f E_{y,x} Q(y, f(x)) \quad (2)$$

$$170 \quad f_T(X) = \sum_{t=1}^T f_t(X) \quad (3)$$

171 where  $Q(y, f(x))$  reflects the a specific loss function;  $\sum_{t=1}^T f_t(X)$  denotes the regression trees.

172 Maximum tree depth, learning rate, and feature fraction reached 25, 0.2, and 0.7, respectively.

173 (3) CNN model

174 The reactive nitrogen species and meteorological parameters in the future scenarios were applied to  
175 CNN model based on the historical (2000-2019) reactive nitrogen species derived from stage 1-2  
176 model.

$$177 \quad x \xrightarrow{f:U-Net} y \quad (4)$$

178 where  $x (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  represents the reactive nitrogen species and meteorological parameters  
179 derived from CMIP6 dataset;  $y (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  denotes the historical (2000-2019) reactive nitrogen  
180 species.

181 All of the convolution layers showed the same kernel size of  $3 \times 3$  and used rectified linear unit  
182 (ReLU) as the activation function. Max-pooling layers were employed for adjusting the size of  
183 images to capture better bottleneck information. After each block, the image size could be halved  
184 by using the max pooling layer with kernel size of  $2 \times 2$ , but the number of channels will be doubled.  
185 In our study, the learning rate was set as 0.1 to achieve the best performance.

186 All of the independent variables collected from multiple sources were resampled to  $0.25^\circ$  grids  
187 using appropriate algorithms Kriging interpolation. For example, both of the population density and  
188 land use types in each grid were calculated using spatial clipping toolbox. Later on, all of these  
189 variables were combined to develop the model. During the development of multi-stage model, it  
190 was highly imperative to remove some redundant explanatory variables and then determine the  
191 optimal variable group. The redundant variables means that the overall predictive accuracy could  
192 degrade after the removal of these variables.

### 193 3. Results and discussion

#### 194 3.1 The modelling performance of historical reactive nitrogen estimates

195 The multi-stage model was applied to capture the spatiotemporal variations of reactive nitrogen  
196 concentrations during 2000-2100. In our study, we employed XGBoost model to construct the full-  
197 coverage reactive nitrogen dataset during 2000-2020. The cross-validation (CV)  $R^2$  values of the  
198 model for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ) estimates reached 0.67, 0.62, 0.58, and

199 0.60, respectively (Figure 2). RMSE of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ) were 0.55,  
200 0.23, 2.32, and 1.71  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ , respectively. MAE of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ )  
201  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  reached 0.19, 0.13, 1.23, and 0.59  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ . The CV  $R^2$  values of  
202  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ) estimates were significantly higher than Jia et al. (2016)  
203 (0.22, 0.41, and 0.49), while the CV  $R^2$  value of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  estimate in our study was comparable to  
204 Geddes et al. (2017) (0.68) (Geddes and Martin, 2017). The CV  $R^2$  value of  $\text{NH}_3$  estimates were  
205 also close to the results obtained by Liu et al. (2019) (0.45-0.71) (Liu et al., 2019). Overall, the  
206 predictive performances historical reactive nitrogen was satisfied. Although the CV  $R^2$  values in our  
207 study were not significantly higher than those in some previous studies, our study developed the  
208 full-coverage (gap-free) ambient reactive nitrogen dataset, which was superior to some previous  
209 studies. Based on the constructed full-coverage reactive nitrogen dataset, we also developed the  
210 ensemble model to calibrate the CMIP6 dataset in the future scenarios. The CV  $R^2$  values of the  
211 model for  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ )  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  estimates in  
212 the future scenarios reached 0.62, 0.67, 0.56, and 0.60, respectively (Figure S2). RMSE of  $\text{NO}_3^-$   
213 ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ )  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  were 0.58, 0.26, 2.12, and  
214 1.91  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ , respectively. MAE of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ )  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  
215  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  reached 0.22, 0.22, 1.04, and 0.65  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ . Overall, the ensemble model for these  
216 species in the future scenarios still showed satisfied performance, and thus the result could be treated  
217 to be robust.

### 218 3.2 The spatial patterns of nitrogen reactive components

219 The global annual mean concentrations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  during 2000-2019  
220 ranged from 0.03 to 9.08, 0.03 to 1.73, 0.21 to 13.9, and 0.08 to 17.1  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  with the mean values  
221 of  $0.43 \pm 0.24$  (standard deviation over grids),  $0.28 \pm 0.13$ ,  $1.79 \pm 0.85$ , and  $0.65 \pm 0.36$   $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$   
222 (Figure S3), respectively. China East Asia especially China, West Europe, and the United States  
223 obtained widespread attention due to the developed economy and dense anthropogenic activity.

224 In China, the overall mean ambient  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ )  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  
225  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations reached  $1.05 \pm 0.62$ ,  $0.35 \pm 0.19$ ,  $4.05 \pm 1.84$ , and  $2.38 \pm 1.26$   
226  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ , ranging from 0.07-9.08, 0.06-1.73, 0.84-11.6, and 0.18-13.1  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ . At the regional  
227 scale, the annual mean  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations followed the order of North



228 China Plain (NCP) ( $4.38, 1.12, 7.22, \text{ and } 7.69 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) > Sichuan Basin ( $2.40 \pm 1.01, 0.52 \pm 0.28,$   
229  $4.92 \pm 1.71, \text{ and } 6.02 \pm 1.82 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) (Figure 3). NCP displayed the higher  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{HNO}_3$   
230 concentrations owing to dense human activities and strong industry foundation (Qi et al., 2023; Wen  
231 et al., 2018), which could emit a large amount of  $\text{NO}_x$  to the atmosphere. In both of Yangtze River  
232 Delta (YRD) and Pearl River Delta (PRD), the combustion of fossil fuels and traffic emissions might  
233 be the major source of  $\text{NO}_x$  emission, which aggravated nitrate events via gas-particle conversion  
234 processes (Huang et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017). For Sichuan Basin, the poor topographical or  
235 meteorological conditions were major factors responsible for the severe nitrate pollution (Zhang et  
236 al., 2019). It was not surprising that high ambient  $\text{NH}_3$  concentrations focused on NCP and Sichuan  
237 Basin because ~~most of Chinese~~ many croplands (dry land) are distributed on these regions (Karra et  
238 al., 2021; Potapov et al., 2022), which was the major source of  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions with frequent N  
239 fertilizer applications (Ma et al., 2022). Besides, N manure was another major source of  $\text{NH}_3$   
240 emissions in China, and the percentage of N manure to  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions exceeds 50% (Kang et al.,  
241 2016). The spatial pattern of  $\text{NH}_4^+$  level was in good agreement with the  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration because  
242  $\text{NH}_4^+$  was often generated from the reaction of  $\text{NH}_3$  with  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_2$  (Ehrnsperger and Klemm,  
243 2021). Apart from China, many other countries such as South Korea and Japan also showed the  
244 higher ambient reactive nitrogen concentrations. As shown in Figure 3, the higher reactive N  
245 concentrations occurred on the western coasts of South Korea than on the eastern coasts. The higher  
246 reactive N concentrations in Japan mainly focused on the urban areas around Tokyo, which might  
247 be linked with the dense anthropogenic emission in this region (Li et al., 2024). In Southeast Asia,  
248 Indonesia ( $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ):  $0.18, 0.47, 5.72, \text{ and } 0.44 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ )  
249 suffered from the most serious reactive N pollution compared with other surrounding countries.  
250 In Europe, the ambient  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  
251  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations ranged from 0.13 to 2.84, 0.06 to 0.92, 0.35 to 7.81, and 0.22 to  $3.77 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ,  
252 respectively. The annual mean  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ ,  
253 and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  levels reached  $0.57 \pm 0.28, 0.25 \pm 0.11, 1.58 \pm 0.68, \text{ and } 0.89 \pm 0.42 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ , respectively  
254 (Figure 4). High concentrations of reactive nitrogen components focused on the northern part of  
255 Italy, central and southern part of Germany, North France, Poland, and the western part of Russia,  
256 which was in good agreement with the spatial pattern of  $\text{NO}_x$  and  $\text{NH}_3$  emissions (Luo et al., 2022;

257 Qu et al., 2020). Emissions Database for Global Atmospheric Research (EDGAR) suggested that N  
258 fertilization and N manure accounted for 43% and 53% of total NH<sub>3</sub> emissions in western Europe  
259 (Liu et al., 2019), respectively. Furthermore, Liu et al. (2019) confirmed that a good relationship  
260 between ambient NH<sub>3</sub> level and N fertilization plus N manure ( $r = 0.62$ ) was observed in Europe.  
261 Cooper et al. (2017) employed the inversion model to estimate NO<sub>x</sub> emission in Europe and also  
262 found that high NO<sub>x</sub> emission was also mainly distributed on North France, Germany, the northern  
263 part of Italy, and Russia, which partly explained the higher concentrations of reactive nitrogen  
264 components in these regions.

265 In the United States, the ambient NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (NO<sub>3</sub>-N), HNO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub>-N)NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, HNO<sub>3</sub>,  
266 NH<sub>3</sub>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> concentrations reached  $0.28 \pm 0.12$ ,  $0.19 \pm 0.08$ ,  $2.12 \pm 0.66$ , and  $0.49 \pm 0.25$   $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$   
267  $\text{m}^{-3}$ , with the range of 0.03-2.35, 0.03-1.31, 0.26-9.96, and 0.10-6.09  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$  (Figure 5),  
268 respectively. The hotspots of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (NO<sub>3</sub>-N)NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub>-N) levels focused on the  
269 eastern part of the United States, while the higher NH<sub>3</sub> concentration focused on Central Great Plains  
270 and some regions in California such as San Joaquin Valley ( $6.15 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ). Both of bottom-up and  
271 top-down NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions suggested that the spatial distributions of reactive nitrogen  
272 components were strongly dependent on the precursor emissions (McDuffie et al., 2020; Qu et al.,  
273 2020).

274 Besides, some other regions such as India (1.4, 0.5, 6.6, and 4.4  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) especially the  
275 northern part of India (3.1, 0.8, 12.6, and 8.4  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) also experienced severe reactive N pollution  
276 in the atmosphere. Meanwhile, some countries in South America such Brazil\_ and Argentina and  
277 in Africa such as West Africa Coast (Nigeria, Ivory Coast, Ghana, Togo, and Benin) (HNO<sub>3</sub> and  
278 NH<sub>3</sub>: 0.3 and 5.0  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) and Democratic Congo (0.4 and 1.6  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) also suffered from serious  
279 HNO<sub>3</sub> (Brazil and Argentina: 0.3 and 0.2  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) and NH<sub>3</sub> (3.6 and 2.8  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ) pollution. The  
280 higher ambient NH<sub>3</sub> concentration focused on the northern part of India might be contributed by  
281 two major reasons. First of all, the intensive agricultural activities and high air temperature might  
282 be responsible for the higher NH<sub>3</sub> level (Cui, 2023; Wang et al., 2020). Moreover, the relatively low  
283 sulfur dioxide (SO<sub>2</sub>) and nitrogen oxides (NO<sub>x</sub>) emissions coupled with high air temperature  
284 restricted the gas-to-particle conversion of NH<sub>3</sub> (Wang et al., 2020). The severe HNO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub>  
285 pollution in Brazil and, Argentina, and West Africa Coast might be also linked with the dense

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286 agricultural activities (Huneus et al., 2017).

### 287 3.3 The seasonal variations of reactive nitrogen components

288 The ambient  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ) concentrations exhibited significant seasonal variations (Figure S4-8).  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$   
289 concentrations exhibited significant seasonal variations (Figure S4-8).  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$   
290 displayed the highest and lowest values in winter (December-February) and summer (June-August),  
291 respectively. On the one hand, the anthropogenic  $\text{NO}_x$  emission for domestic heating might be higher  
292 in winter compared with other seasons (Lin et al., 2011). On the other hand, the stagnant  
293 meteorological conditions limited the pollutant diffusion (Li et al., 2019b; Liu et al., 2020c).  
294 Meanwhile, the higher relative humidity in winter facilitated the formation of  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$  (Huang et  
295 al., 2016; Xu et al., 2012). However, both of ambient  $\text{NO}_3^-$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations showed the  
296 lower concentrations in summer, which might be attributable to the decomposition of  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3$   
297 under the condition of high air temperature. In contrast to the secondary inorganic nitrogen, the  
298 ambient  $\text{NH}_3$  level showed the highest concentration in summer ( $1.71 \pm 0.45 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ). China,  
299 Europe, and the United States suffered from similar  $\text{NH}_3$  peaks in summer ( $4.20 \pm 1.85$ ,  $1.77 \pm 0.65$ ,  
300 and  $2.21 \pm 1.04 \mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ). There are two reasons accounting for the fact. At first, mineral N fertilizer  
301 or manure application was mainly performed in spring and early summer (Paulot et al., 2014). Many  
302 field observations have obtained similar  $\text{NH}_3$  peak in summer (He et al., 2021; Pan et al., 2018).  
303 Moreover, summer often showed the higher air temperature, which promotes the volatilization of  
304 ammonium and limits the gas-to-particle of gaseous  $\text{NH}_3$  (Liu et al., 2019).

### 305 3.4 The historical trends of reactive nitrogen components during 2000-2019

306 The long-term trends of ambient  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ),  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ) concentrations are shown in Figure 6 and Figure S9-12. The  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in  
307  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations are shown in Figure 6 and Figure S9-12. The  $\text{NO}_3^-$  concentration in  
308 China displayed rapid increase (9.7%/yr) during 2000-2007, and then it kept the moderate increase  
309 (4.2%/yr) during 2007-2013. However, the  $\text{NO}_3^-$  ( $\text{NO}_3\text{-N}$ ) concentration in China experienced the  
310 drastic decrease (-2.6%/yr) since 2013. The ambient  $\text{HNO}_3$  and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ( $\text{NH}_4\text{-N}$ ) concentrations  
311 showed similar trends during this period. Due to the impact of Clean Air Action, the concentrations  
312 of gaseous precursors (e.g.,  $\text{SO}_2$  and  $\text{NO}_x$ ) suffered from substantial decreases, which could be  
313 transformed into nitrate and ammonium via heterogeneous reactions (Huang et al., 2019). However,  
314 the decreasing rates of  $\text{NO}_3^-$  were still much lower than those of gaseous precursors (Li et al., 2023).

315 On the one hand, it might be associated with the increased O<sub>3</sub> level and enhanced atmospheric  
316 oxidation capacity (AOC), which led to an increase in the photochemical reaction rate of the  
317 secondary components (Wang et al., 2019). On the other hand, strong SO<sub>2</sub> emission control under  
318 the Clean Air Action allowed more gaseous NH<sub>3</sub> to form nitrate. The ambient NH<sub>3</sub> level remained  
319 relatively stable status during 2000-2013, while it experienced rapid increases after 2013. The result  
320 was in good agreement with Liu et al. (2019). In fact, the ambient NH<sub>3</sub> level in North China Plain  
321 still experienced dramatic increase (> 0.2 µg N m<sup>-3</sup>/yr) during 2000-2013 because enhanced  
322 agricultural activities. Zhang et al. (2017) have demonstrated that the livestock manure and fertilizer  
323 application generally accounted for 43% and 36% of the agricultural NH<sub>3</sub> emission, respectively.  
324 Since 2013, the NH<sub>3</sub> concentration in the entire China suffered from rapid increase, which might be  
325 associated with the drastic decrease of sulfate. It was well known that NH<sub>3</sub> could react with HNO<sub>3</sub>  
326 and gaseous H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> to generate ammonia sulfate and ammonia nitrate (Wang et al., 2022; Wang et  
327 al., 2019). Substantial decreases of acidic gases (e.g., SO<sub>2</sub>) lead to the reduction of NH<sub>3</sub> conversion  
328 to ammonia salts in the atmosphere (Chen et al., 2019), which result in excess NH<sub>3</sub> remaining in the  
329 gaseous phase. Different from China, the reactive N concentrations in some other Asia and Africa  
330 countries especially India (NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, HNO<sub>3</sub>, NH<sub>3</sub>, and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>: 54%, 46%, 11%, and 94%), South Korea  
331 (76%, 42%, 40%, and 9%), Indonesia (21%, 5%, 14%, and 41%), Democratic Congo (9%, 16%,  
332 145%, 41%), and West Africa Coast (4%, 11%, 37%, and 106%) still exhibited stable increases  
333 during 2000-2019. The results indicated that no strong reactive N emission control measures were  
334 implemented in these countries, which should be further exerted imperatively.

335 Compared with China, the long-term trends of reactive nitrogen components Europe and the  
336 United States were relatively stable. In the Europe, the concentrations of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (NO<sub>3</sub>-N), HNO<sub>3</sub>, and  
337 NH<sub>3</sub> exhibited increases during 2000-2007 (0.7%/yr, 2.3%/yr, and 2.1%/yr), while they experienced  
338 slight decreases after 2007. The NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> (NH<sub>4</sub>-N) level displayed continuous decrease since 2000. The  
339 result was closely linked with the trends of NO<sub>x</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> emissions derived from satellite retrieval  
340 (Cooper et al., 2017; Luo et al., 2022). In the United States, both of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> showed persistent  
341 decreases during 2000-2019. Zhang et al. (2018) have confirmed that NO<sub>x</sub> emission in the eastern  
342 US has experienced persistent decrease since 1990, which facilitated the decreases of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> and  
343 NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> levels. However, the ambient HNO<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations displayed slight increases during

344 2000-2007 (2.1%/yr), and then remained relatively stable since 2007. Liu et al. (2019) also found  
345 similar characteristic of ambient NH<sub>3</sub> trend in the United States. In fact, the NH<sub>3</sub> concentrations in  
346 the Middle Plain and eastern US still showed increases due to the lack of NH<sub>3</sub> emission control  
347 policies as well as the decline in acidic gases (Warner et al., 2017). The reactive N concentrations  
348 in some countries in South America such as Brazil (9%, 0%, 13%, and 34%) and Argentina (10%,  
349 12%, 18%, and 7%) also remained relatively stable because local anthropogenic emission of reactive  
350 N did not show dramatic increases in the past two decades (McDuffie et al., 2020).

### 351 3.5 Projection of future ambient reactive nitrogen components

352 For the future reactive nitrogen component estimates, the ensemble model was applied to  
353 predict the reactive nitrogen component concentrations under the SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5, SSP3-7.0,  
354 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios. SSP1-2.6 represents the low emission pathways. In SSP1-2.6, the projected  
355 average NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations in most countries experienced rapid decreases from 2020 to 2100  
356 (Figure 7 and Table 1). The mean concentrations of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in China, India, Europe, and the United  
357 States decreased from 1.16 ± 0.35, 1.23 ± 0.42, 0.41 ± 0.14, and 0.27 ± 0.09 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> to 0.33 ± 0.10,  
358 0.65 ± 0.21, 0.10 ± 0.03, and 0.06 ± 0.02 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> during 2020-2100 in SSP1-2.6 scenario,  
359 respectively. Besides, the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations in many other countries of Africa and South America  
360 such as Brazil (-127%) and Democratic Congo (-162%) also suffered from drastic decreases in this  
361 scenario. SSP2-4.5 scenario represents the middle range of plausible future pathways (Nazarenko  
362 et al., 2022). In this scenario, the predicted average NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations in China, India, Europe,  
363 and the United States decreased from 1.19 ± 0.40, 1.43 ± 0.35, 0.44 ± 0.13, and 0.24 ± 0.08 μg N  
364 m<sup>-3</sup> to 0.41 ± 0.14, 0.95 ± 0.32, 0.24 ± 0.08, and 0.05 ± 0.02 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> during 2020-2100, respectively.  
365 SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 denote the less investment in the environment and heavily relies on  
366 traditional energy for rapid economic development, respectively. The ambient NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> in these  
367 scenarios generally showed the higher concentrations compared with other scenarios. For instance,  
368 the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations in China reduced from 1.25 ± 0.40 (SSP3-7.0) and 1.21 ± 0.39 (SSP5-8.5)  
369 to 0.75 ± 0.25 (SSP3-7.0) and 0.58 ± 0.18 (SSP5-8.5) μg N m<sup>-3</sup> during 2020-2100 (Figure 8),  
370 respectively. The higher NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations in SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 might be associated with  
371 the higher anthropogenic NO<sub>x</sub> emission. Compard with SSP1-2.6 and SSP2-4.5, the NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>  
372 concentrations in some countries during SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios displayed slight increases

373 from 2020 to 2040. For instance, the ambient NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations in Indonesia increased by 12%  
374 (SSP3-7.0) and 5% (SSP5-8.5), respectively.

375 The temporal variations of ambient HNO<sub>3</sub> were similar to those of NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations. The  
376 mean concentrations of HNO<sub>3</sub> in China, India, Europe, and the United States decreased from 0.25  
377 ± 0.09, 0.50 ± 0.16, 0.18 ± 0.06, and 0.08 ± 0.03 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> to 0.05 ± 0.01, 0.24 ± 0.08, 0.05 ± 0.02,  
378 and 0.03 ± 0.01 μg N m<sup>-3</sup> during 2020-2100 in SSP1-2.6 scenario (Figure S13-S14 and Table S3),  
379 respectively. However, the decreasing ratios of ambient HNO<sub>3</sub> levels especially in some developing  
380 countries such as Democratic Congo (-13%) and West Africa Coast (-47%) were much less than  
381 those of ambient NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> levels. For the SSP3-7.0 and SSP5-8.5 scenarios, the HNO<sub>3</sub> levels in some  
382 developing countries such as Democratic Congo (18%), West Africa Coast (16%), Indonesia (13%)  
383 even experienced moderate increases. It was assumed that the government gave less investment in  
384 environment improvement and the anthropogenic emission did not show marked decrease under the  
385 condition of SSP3-7.0 scenario (Chen et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2020).

386 As shown in Figure S15-S18 and Table S4-S5, the higher ambient NH<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
387 concentrations also focused on India and North China. In SSP1-2.6, the ambient NH<sub>3</sub> (NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>)  
388 concentrations in China, India, Europe, and the United States decreased from 3.51 ± 1.12 (2.00 ±  
389 0.62), 6.30 ± 2.12 (4.26 ± 1.42), 1.54 ± 0.51 (0.75 ± 0.24), and 1.79 ± 0.59 (0.53 ± 0.17) μg N m<sup>-3</sup>  
390 to 1.75 ± 0.58 (0.58 ± 0.19), 2.57 ± 0.85 (1.25 ± 0.41), 1.15 ± 0.36 (0.50 ± 0.16), and 1.58 ± 0.52  
391 (0.45 ± 0.15) μg N m<sup>-3</sup> during 2020-2100. Compared with SSP1-2.6, the ambient NH<sub>3</sub> and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>  
392 concentrations in heavy-pollution scenarios (SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5) scenarios did not show  
393 marked decreases from 2020-2100. Some developing countries such as Argentina (9%), Democratic  
394 Congo (25%), and West Africa Coast (24%) even suffered from persistent increases of ambient NH<sub>3</sub>  
395 and NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> levels. It might be associated with ineffective control of NH<sub>3</sub> emission compared with  
396 NO<sub>x</sub> emission.

### 397 3.6 Implications- Conclusions and limitations

398 The ground-level ambient reactive nitrogen observations, satellite retrievals, GEOS-Chem  
399 model output, and many other geographical covariates were integrated into the multi-stage model  
400 to reveal the global patterns of ambient reactive nitrogen components during 2000-2019. Then, these  
401 high-resolution reactive nitrogen dataset during the historical period was then utilized as the

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402 constraint to calibrate the CMIP6 dataset in four scenarios during 2020-2100. The results indicated  
403 the cross-validation (CV)  $R^2$  values of four reactive nitrogen species showed satisfied performance  
404 ( $R^2 > 0.55$ ). At the spatial scale, four reactive nitrogen components exhibited the higher  
405 concentrations in China and India. For the temporal variations, the concentrations of estimated  
406 ambient reactive nitrogen components in China experienced persistent increases during 2000-2013,  
407 while they suffered from drastic decreases since 2013 except  $\text{NH}_3$ , which might be linked with the  
408 impact of clean air policy. However, the concentrations of these species in Europe and the United  
409 States remained relatively stable since 2000. In the future scenarios, SSP3-7.0 (traditional energy  
410 scenario) and SSP1-2.6 (carbon neutrality scenario) displayed the highest and lowest reactive  
411 nitrogen component concentrations, respectively.

412 Global trends of four reactive nitrogen components during 2000-2100 emphasizes the urgent  
413 mitigation measures (carbon neutrality pathway) to reduce precursor emissions in order to decrease  
414 the concentrations and depositions of reactive nitrogen components especially in China and India.  
415 Furthermore, our result could give valuable insights into the impact of reactive nitrogen components  
416 on human health and ecological environment. However, this study still shows some limitations. First  
417 of all, the observation networks mainly focus on China, Europe, and the United States, and thus the  
418 simulations in many other regions might show large uncertainties. Secondly, both of the GEOS-  
419 Chem output and CMIP6 future climate scenario data also exhibits large uncertainties, which could  
420 impact the reliability of this study. Lastly, our predictions were performed on the basis of the premise  
421 that the world was steadily developing, and cannot predict the impacts of uncontrollable factors  
422 (e.g., COVID-19, Russia-Ukraine War).

#### 423 **Competing interests**

424 The contact author has declared that none of the authors has any competing interests.

#### 425 **Acknowledgements**

426 This work was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (U23A2030).

#### 427 **Data availability**

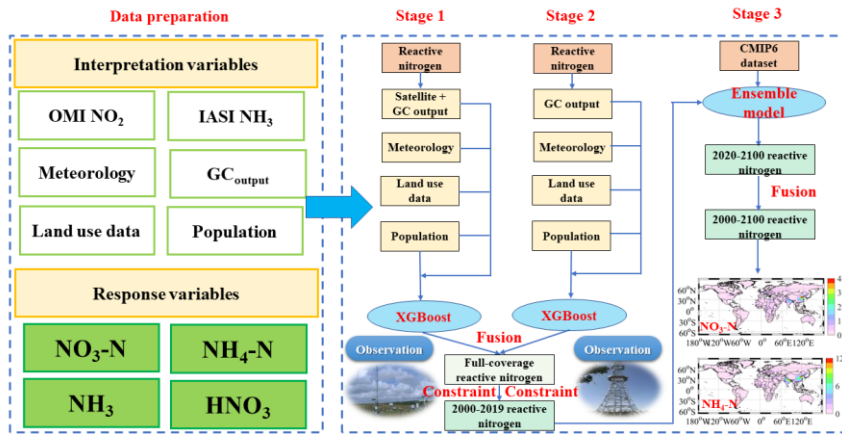
428 The CMIP6 dataset used in this publication is available in [https://esgf.nci.org.au/projects/cmip6-](https://esgf.nci.org.au/projects/cmip6-nci/)  
429 [nci/](https://esgf.nci.org.au/projects/cmip6-nci/).

#### 430 **Author contributions**

431 LR and WGH designed the study; LR developed the model; GYN, ZLJ, and SYB analyzed the  
432 observation and model data. LR wrote this manuscript.  
433

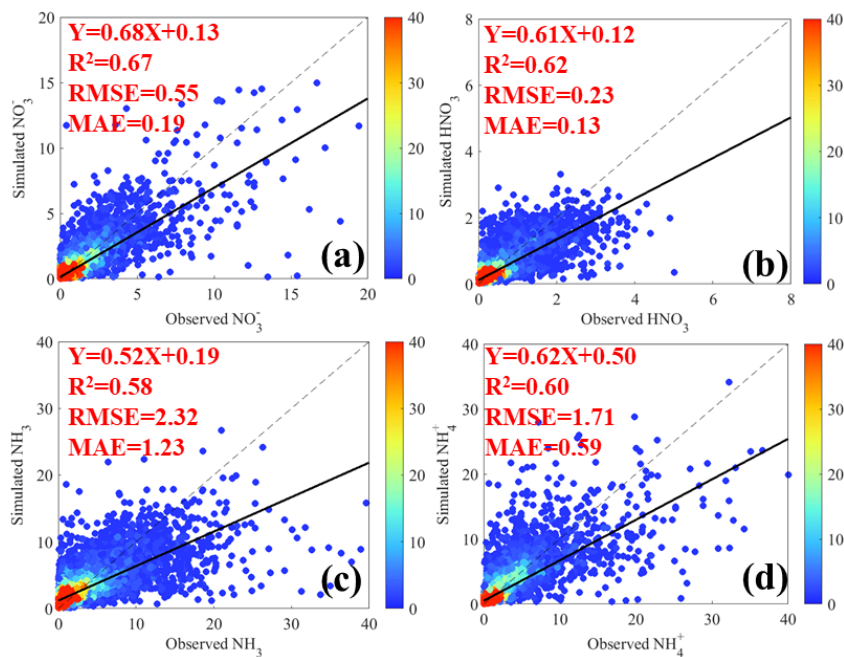


434 **Figure 1** The workflow of global full-coverage reactive nitrogen estimates during 2000-2100.  
 435 GC<sub>output</sub> denotes the GEOS-Chem output.



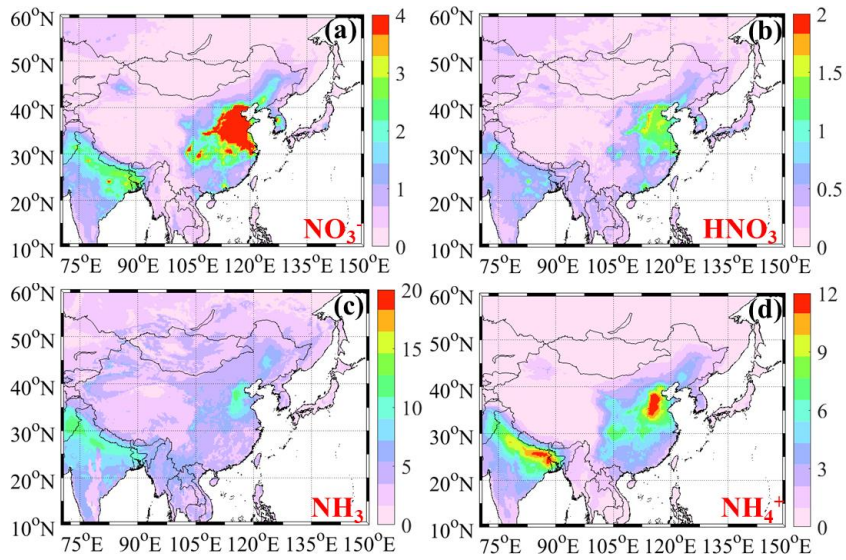
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437 **Figure 2** The predictive performances of four reactive nitrogen components including  $\text{NO}_3^-$  (a),  
438  $\text{HNO}_3$  (b),  $\text{NH}_3$  (c), and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  (d). The model was constructed with 90% original data and the  
439 remained data was applied to validate the model. The black solid line denotes the best-fitting curve  
440 for all of the points, while the black dashed line represents the diagonal, which means the same  
441 observed and simulated values. The color scale denotes the sample size.



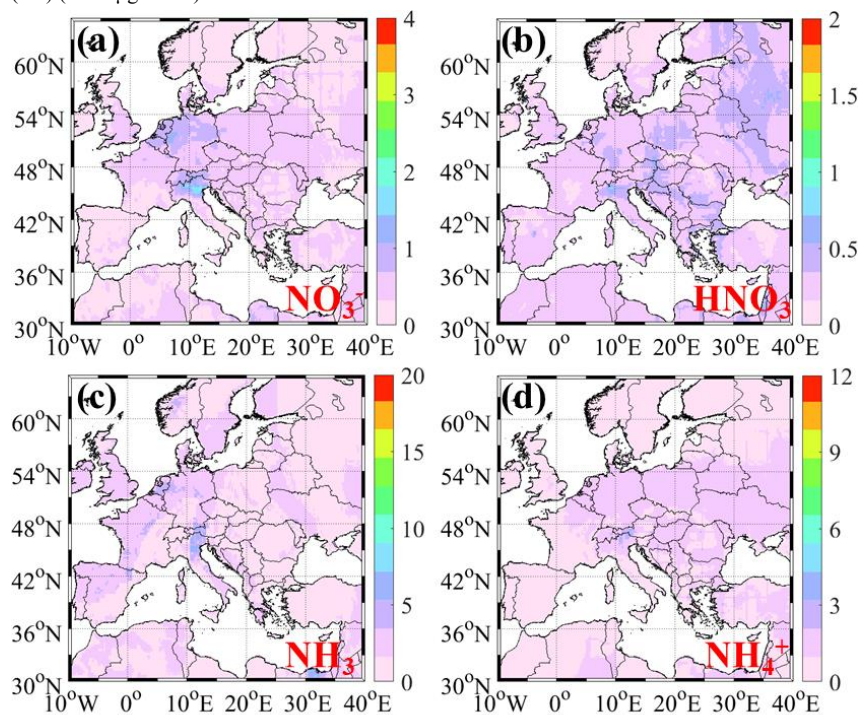
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443 **Figure 3** The spatiotemporal variations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations in East Asia  
444 (a-d) (Unit:  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ).



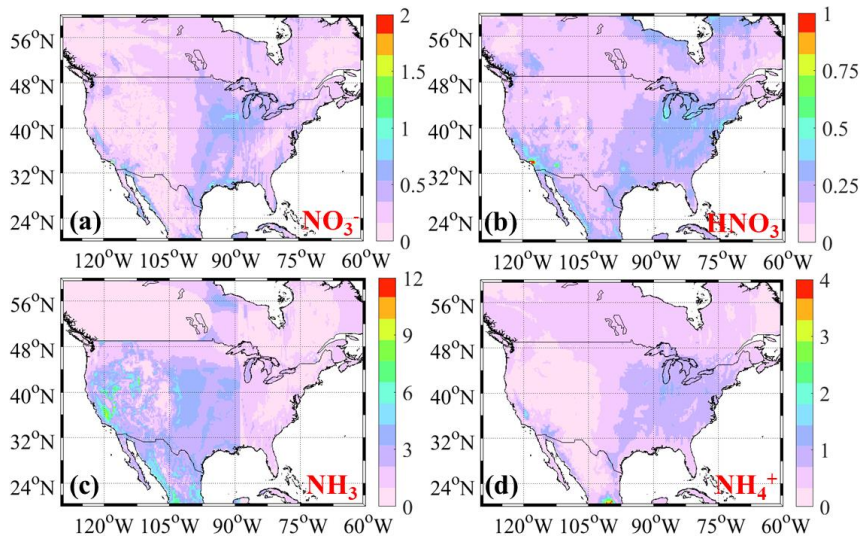
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447 **Figure 4** The spatiotemporal variations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations in Europe  
448 (a-d) (Unit:  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ).



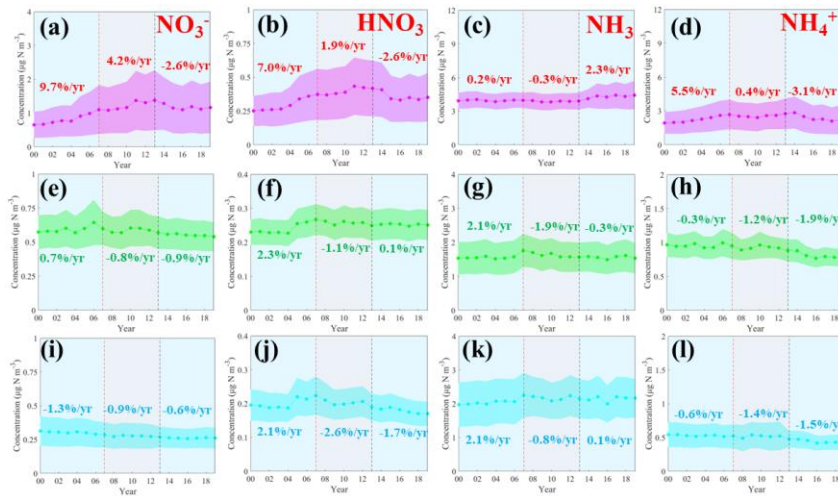
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451 **Figure 5** The spatiotemporal variations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations in North  
452 America (a-d) (Unit:  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ).



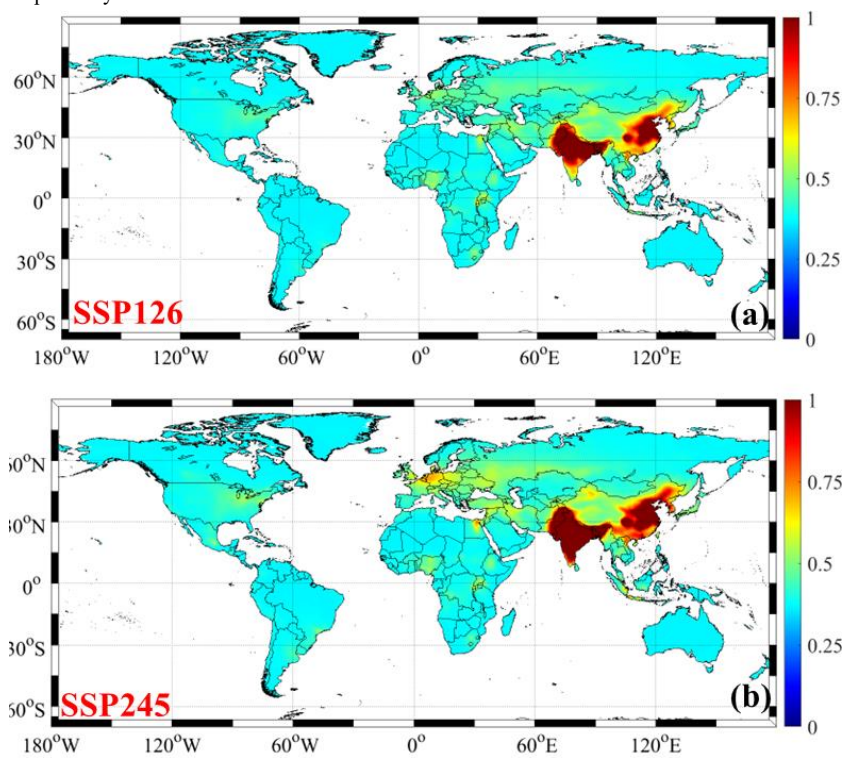
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454 **Figure 6** The long-term variations of  $\text{NO}_3^-$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{NH}_3$ , and  $\text{NH}_4^+$  concentrations in China (pink),  
 455 Europe (green), and the United States (cyan) (Unit:  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ).



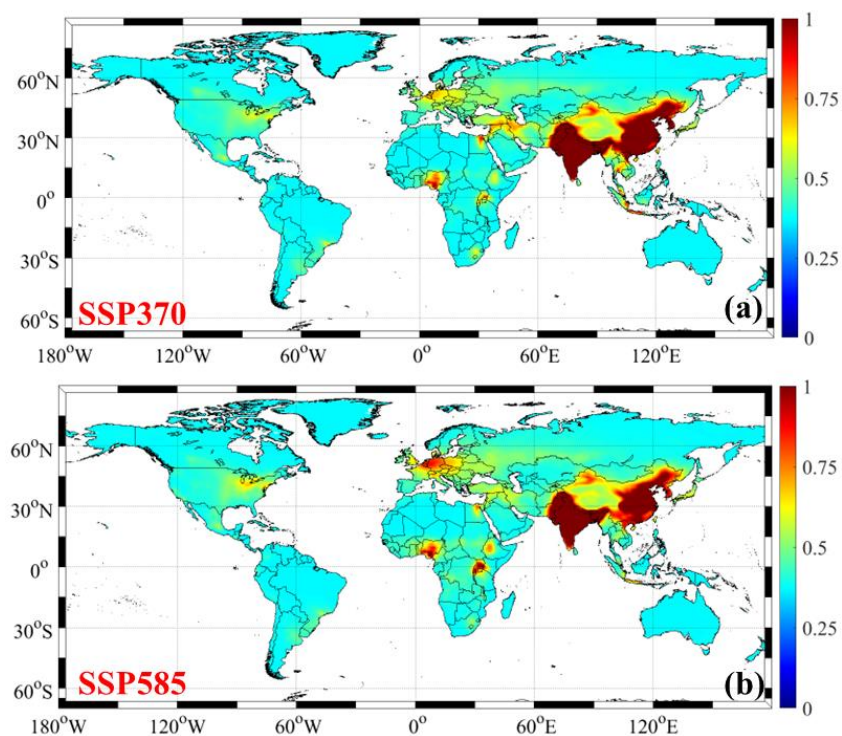
456

457 **Figure 7** Spatial variations of projected global ambient concentrations of reactive nitrogen  
458 components under different climate change scenarios (Unit:  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ). Panels (a-b) represent the  
459 annual mean concentrations of ambient  $\text{NO}_3^-$  under SSP1-2.6, SSP2-4.5 during 2021-2100,  
460 respectively.



461  
462

463 **Figure 8** Spatial variations of projected global ambient concentrations of reactive nitrogen  
464 components under different climate change scenarios (Unit:  $\mu\text{g N m}^{-3}$ ). Panels (a-b) represent the  
465 annual mean concentrations of ambient  $\text{NO}_3^-$  under SSP3-7.0, and SSP5-8.5 during 2021-2100,  
466 respectively.



467  
468



469 **Table 1** The temporal variations of ambient NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup> (NO<sub>3</sub>-N) concentrations (average concentrations)  
 470 in many countries during 2000-2100.

Scenario	NO <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup>	China	India	Europe	United States	Brazil	Argentina	Democratic Congo	West Africa Coast	Indonesia	South Korea
Historical	2000	0.66	0.95	0.57	0.31	0.29	0.21	0.56	0.30	0.31	1.06
	2005	0.91	1.26	0.60	0.30	0.31	0.22	0.56	0.30	0.34	1.38
	2010	1.17	1.53	0.60	0.28	0.33	0.23	0.58	0.31	0.32	1.43
	2013	1.39	1.63	0.57	0.27	0.30	0.24	0.58	0.31	0.33	1.57
	2015	1.16	1.34	0.56	0.26	0.32	0.22	0.58	0.32	0.45	1.88
	2019	1.18	1.46	0.54	0.26	0.32	0.23	0.61	0.32	0.37	1.87
SSP1-2.6	2020	1.16	1.23	0.41	0.27	0.25	0.18	0.55	0.28	0.34	1.81
	2040	0.82	1.12	0.28	0.10	0.21	0.14	0.62	0.32	0.28	1.46
	2060	0.69	1.01	0.15	0.05	0.18	0.13	0.43	0.25	0.24	0.69
	2080	0.41	0.89	0.12	0.05	0.17	0.12	0.32	0.17	0.20	0.39
	2100	0.33	0.65	0.10	0.06	0.11	0.08	0.21	0.11	0.16	0.23
SSP2-4.5	2020	1.19	1.43	0.44	0.24	0.26	0.19	0.52	0.29	0.37	1.85
	2040	1.09	1.35	0.43	0.16	0.22	0.16	0.57	0.31	0.35	1.80
	2060	0.89	1.22	0.35	0.11	0.20	0.15	0.51	0.27	0.32	1.25
	2080	0.63	1.06	0.29	0.07	0.17	0.12	0.42	0.23	0.23	0.68
	2100	0.41	0.95	0.24	0.05	0.14	0.10	0.36	0.19	0.20	0.38
SSP3-7.0	2020	1.25	1.59	0.53	0.33	0.31	0.22	0.64	0.34	0.42	1.95
	2040	1.36	1.50	0.47	0.24	0.26	0.19	0.61	0.33	0.47	1.89
	2060	1.18	1.35	0.42	0.19	0.22	0.16	0.56	0.30	0.41	1.56
	2080	0.96	1.15	0.36	0.16	0.18	0.13	0.54	0.29	0.35	1.35
	2100	0.75	1.08	0.33	0.12	0.15	0.11	0.51	0.27	0.30	1.24
SSP5-8.5	2020	1.21	1.50	0.53	0.28	0.28	0.20	0.57	0.31	0.37	1.91
	2040	1.28	1.42	0.49	0.23	0.25	0.18	0.60	0.32	0.39	1.85
	2060	1.05	1.30	0.47	0.24	0.20	0.15	0.55	0.29	0.35	1.44
	2080	0.86	1.10	0.44	0.25	0.15	0.11	0.50	0.27	0.29	1.26
	2100	0.58	1.02	0.31	0.20	0.13	0.09	0.46	0.25	0.25	1.05

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