1 Global Estimates and Long-Term Trends of Fine Particulate Matter Concentrations (1998-2018)

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29 Abstract

Exposure to outdoor fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) is a leading risk factor for mortality. We 30 develop global estimates of annual PM2.5 concentrations and trends for 1998-2018 using satellite 31 observations, chemical transport modeling, and ground-based monitoring. Aerosol optical depth 32 (AOD) from updated satellite products including finer resolution, increased global coverage, and 33 improved long-term stability, are combined and related to surface PM_{2.5} concentrations using 34 geophysical relationships between surface PM_{2.5} and AOD simulated by the GEOS-Chem 35 chemical transport model. The resultant annual mean geophysical PM_{2.5} estimates are highly 36 consistent with globally distributed ground monitors ($R^2=0.81$; slope=0.90). Geographically 37 38 weighted regression is applied to the geophysical PM_{2.5} estimates to predict and account for the residual bias with PM_{2.5} monitors, yielding even higher cross validated agreement (R²=0.90-0.92; 39 slope=0.90-0.97) with ground monitors, and improved agreement compared to all earlier 40 estimates. The consistent long-term satellite AOD and simulation enable trend assessment over a 41 21 year period, identifying significant trends for eastern North America ($-0.44\pm0.05 \ \mu g/m^3/yr$), 42 Europe (-0.15 \pm 0.03 µg/m³/yr), India (1.13 \pm 0.15 µg/m³/yr), and globally (0.04 \pm 0.02 µg/m³/yr). 43 The positive trend (2.44 \pm 0.44 µg/m³/yr) for India over 2005-2013 and the negative trend (-44 45 $3.37\pm0.38 \,\mu\text{g/m}^3/\text{yr}$) for China over 2011-2018 are remarkable, with implications for the health of billions of people. 46





48 Introduction

Exposure to ambient fine particulate matter (PM_{2.5}) is the leading environmental risk factor for the 49 global burden of disease¹ with an estimated 3 million attributable deaths worldwide in 2017. 50 Additionally, the World Health Organization (WHO) estimates that 92% of the world's population 51 lives in areas with annual mean $PM_{2.5}$ greater than 10 µg/m³, exceeding their air quality guideline 52 for PM_{2.5} exposure.² International assessments require global estimates of PM_{2.5} $^{1-4}$ However, large 53 gaps exist in ground-based monitoring of PM_{2.5}⁵ Satellites and global models are critical for 54 constraining the magnitude and trends in concentrations of PM_{2.5} globally, and for quantifying 55 exposure-health relationships.⁶ Recent developments in satellite products, chemical transport 56 model simulations, and ground monitor sampling offer exciting opportunities to improve global 57 PM_{2.5} estimates and to evaluate ambient PM_{2.5} concentrations and trends for the past 20+ years. 58

59 Several recent advancements in satellite-retrieved aerosol optical depth (AOD) offer the prospect 60 of improving global PM_{2.5} estimates. Collection 6.1 (C6.1) of MODIS (MODerate resolution 61 Imaging Spectroradiometer) retrieved AOD includes updated radiometric calibration improving 62 the stability of MODIS measured radiances over the entire record and important updates to the Dark Target (DT)⁷ and Deep Blue (DB)^{8,9} algorithms. The MAIAC (Multi-Angle Implementation of Atmospheric Correction) algorithm¹⁰ provides AOD retrieved from MODIS C6 radiances at a resolution of 1 km and is now extended to global coverage for the entire MODIS record. The recently released MISR (Multi-angle Imaging Spectroradiometer) version 23 algorithm^{11,12} now provides AOD retrievals at 4.4 km resolution, finer than the 17.6 km resolution of the previous version 22.

Concurrent development of chemical transport models offer an improved characterization of the 69 PM_{2.5} distribution and the geophysical relationship of AOD to PM_{2.5}. A recent assimilation 70 (MERRA-2)¹³ provides consistent meteorological inputs for 1979-present. Improved 71 representations of secondary organic aerosol^{14,15} and fine dust^{16,17} better simulate surface PM_{2.5} 72 concentrations. The development of an anthropogenic fugitive, combustion, and industrial dust 73 (AFCID) emission inventory now represents anthropogenic crustal material.¹⁸ An updated fire 74 emissions inventory (GFED4)¹⁹ provides increased global coverage and finer resolution biomass 75 burning emissions. Significant updates to regional anthropogenic emissions inventories of aerosols 76 and their precursors over China,²⁰ elsewhere in Asia,²⁰ the United States,²¹ and Europe 77 (http://www.emep.int) provide improved time-varying information, especially for recent years. 78

The ground-based PM_{2.5} measurement network has expanded considerably in recent years with 3787 direct PM_{2.5} monitor sites in 2015,²² increasing monitor density particularly in China and India. Improved statistical methods have been developed to obtain estimates of surface PM_{2.5} concentrations from satellite AOD and ground monitor data, including empirical relationships between satellite AOD and PM_{2.5} from ground monitors,^{23,24} Land Use Regression (LUR) models in conjunction with satellite AOD,²⁵ and Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR) with meteorological and land use information with satellite AOD at PM_{2.5} monitor sites.^{26,27} Several studies have found that including geophysical fields from a chemical transport model aids
statistical fusion at large spatial scales. ^{28–32}

In this work, we leverage recent developments in satellite AOD, chemical transport modeling, and 88 ground monitor data on satellite-derived PM_{2.5} estimates and produce global PM_{2.5} estimates for 89 the years 1998-2018. As risk estimates for chronic exposure per increment of PM_{2.5} are 90 approximately an order of magnitude larger than for acute exposures,^{33,34} we therefore focus on 91 92 the annual scale to be most applicable to health impact studies, as these are the basis for most assessments and given that most concentration response functions that connect PM2.5 to health 93 outcomes were developed using annual-average concentrations.^{1,2,35–37} In addition, ground monitor 94 95 data used for comparison is most consistently available globally on an annual mean basis. We combine satellite AOD from SeaWiFS (Sea-Viewing Wide Field-of-View Sensor) and the newly 96 released MAIAC, MISRv23, and C6.1 MODIS products. We conduct an updated simulation using 97 the global chemical transport model GEOS-Chem to represent the geophysical relationship 98 between PM_{2.5} and AOD, and as an additional AOD source. We investigate the impact of these 99 changes on previous satellite-derived PM_{2.5} estimates that follow a similar methodology.²⁹ Taking 100 advantage of the improved long-term consistency in satellite AOD and simulated meteorology, we 101 102 calculate the 21-year trends in the satellite-derived PM_{2.5} values, and examine the monthly 103 population-weighted mean time-series. We then statistically fuse the PM_{2.5} surface with an updated version of the recently released ground monitor dataset from the World Health Organization 104 (WHO), and investigate the impact of increased ground-based monitoring. We examine the 105 106 regional distributions of population as a function of 1) PM_{2.5} concentrations and 2) 1998-2018 107 PM_{2.5} trends to gain insight into the distribution of ambient PM_{2.5} effects worldwide.

109 Methods

110 Satellite AOD Sources

A detailed description of the satellite AOD sources used is given in the Supporting Information S1. We use AOD retrieved from radiances measured by four satellite instruments: twin MODIS instruments, the MISR instrument, and the SeaWiFS instrument.

The twin MODIS instruments have flown on the Terra and Aqua satellites since 2000 and 2002, respectively, providing daily global coverage.³⁸ We use AOD retrieved from three retrieval algorithms that process MODIS measured radiances: Dark Target (DT), Deep Blue (DB), and MAIAC.

The DT retrieval algorithm³⁹ is designed to retrieve AOD over dark surfaces (e.g. vegetated land surfaces and dark soils). The DB retrieval algorithm⁹ uses blue wavelength measurements where the surface reflectance over land is typically much lower than at longer wavelengths, allowing for the retrieval of aerosol properties over both bright and dark surfaces. We use the recently released collection 6.1 of the MODIS retrieved AOD products, which include spatial resolution of 10 km and several updates to the DT⁷ and DB^{8,9} algorithms.

The MAIAC algorithm¹⁰ retrieves AOD at a spatial resolution of 1 km over both bright and dark land surfaces. MAIAC was officially released in May 2018, providing AOD globally for the entire MODIS record. However, this work started earlier and used an internally released MAIAC dataset consistent with the global release, but lacking parts of Canada, eastern Siberia, and the Indo-Pacific region.

The SeaWiFS instrument flew on the SeaStar satellite and was operational between 1997-2010.
 SeaWiFS maintained a highly accurate and stable calibration over its lifetime⁴⁰ providing daily

global coverage. We use the version 4 SeaWiFS Deep Blue^{40,41} data set with a spatial resolution
of 13.5 km.

The MISR instrument is onboard the Terra satellite along with MODIS, and has been operational since 2000 providing global coverage once per week.⁴² The MISR retrieval algorithm provides AOD retrievals over bright and dark land surfaces.⁴³ We use AOD retrieved from the recently released MISRv23 algorithm,^{11,44} which provides AOD at a spatial resolution of 4.4 km, a significant improvement over the 17.6 km resolution in the previous version of MISRv22.

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139 Simulated relationship of surface PM_{2.5} and total column AOD

To estimate surface concentrations of PM_{2.5} from satellite AOD (AOD_{SAT}), we use the local, coincident ratio (η) of simulated surface PM_{2.5} concentrations (PM_{2.5,SIM}) to simulated total column AOD (AOD_{SIM}):

143
$$PM_{2.5,SAT} = \eta \times AOD_{SAT}$$
[1]

144 where

145
$$\eta = PM_{2.5,SIM} / AOD_{SIM}$$
 [2]

146 η is a function of the factors that relate PM_{2.5} mass to satellite observations of AOD (e.g. aerosol 147 size, aerosol composition, diurnal variation, relative humidity, and the vertical structure of aerosol 148 extinction⁴⁵). A full derivation of η is in van Donkelaar et al.⁴⁶ To account for differences in 149 temporal sampling of the AOD data sources, we calculate daily values of η as the ratio of 24-hr 150 ground-level PM_{2.5} at a relative humidity of 35%, to total-column AOD at ambient relative 151 humidity sampled at satellite overpass time.

The ability to calculate accurate η values depends on the simulation's ability to accurately model 152 the relationship between PM_{2.5} concentrations and AOD. We use v11-01 of the GEOS-Chem 153 chemical transport model (http://geos-chem.org). A detailed description of the simulation is 154 included in the Supporting Information (SI). Our simulation is driven by assimilated 155 meteorological data from the recent MERRA-2 Reanalysis of the NASA Global Modeling and 156 Assimilation Office (GMAO), which offers a consistent assimilation from 1979.⁴⁷ We conduct our 157 simulation for the years 1998–2018 with 47 vertical layers at a spatial resolution of $2^{\circ} \times 2.5^{\circ}$ with a 158 nested resolution of 0.5°x0.625° over North America, Europe, and China. The top of lowest model 159 layer is ~100 m. Our simulation includes improved representations of secondary organic 160 aerosol^{14,15} and fine dust^{16,17} which better simulate surface PM concentrations. We use the AFCID 161 emission inventory, which now provides a representation of anthropogenic crustal material.¹⁸ An 162 updated version of GFED4 provides increased global coverage and finer resolution biomass 163 burning emissions¹⁹ over the entire period of interest (1998-2018). We include updated regional 164 anthropogenic emission inventories (summarized in SI Table S2) of aerosols and their precursors 165 over China (MEIC²⁰), India (Lu et al.⁴⁸), elsewhere in Asia (MIX²⁰), the United States 166 (EPA/NEI11²¹), and Europe (EMEP; http://www.emep.int). 167

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169 *Combined PM*_{2.5} *estimated from satellites and simulation*

We calculate geophysical PM_{2.5} estimates following van Donkelaar et al.,²⁹ with updates to (1) ground-based PM_{2.5} and AOD measurements, (2) satellite AOD products, (3) GEOS-Chem simulation, and (4) resolution of our analysis. A detailed description of the algorithm is provided in van Donkelaar et al.²⁹ and in the Supporting Information. A summary of the satellite AOD sources can be found in SI Table S1a, while a summary of the other data sources used can be found

in SI Table S1b. There are two main steps of the algorithm: the intercalibration of the satellite and 175 simulated AOD sources, and the calculation of combined PM2.5 from the calibrated AOD sources. 176 For the intercalibration of satellite and simulated AOD sources, each source is first translated onto 177 a common 0.05°x0.05° grid by area-weighting satellite retrievals and linearly interpolating 178 simulated values. This resolution is finer than the 0.1°x 0.1° resolution used previously,²⁹ given 179 the finer resolution provided by the new versions of MISR (4.4 km) and MAIAC (1 km) AOD. 180 For a consistent definition of uncertainty, we compare the daily satellite AOD values from each 181 dataset with daily AOD measurements at 550 nm from AERONET (Aerosol Robotic Network).⁴⁹ 182 a global sun photometer network that provides AOD measurements with high accuracy 183 (uncertainty<0.02⁵⁰). We use level 2 of the recently released version 3 AERONET data.⁵¹ 184

The different sources of error associated with satellite and simulated AOD require care in 185 accounting for their relative uncertainties.²⁹ Briefly, one of the main sources of uncertainty 186 associated with satellite retrieved AOD is the surface treatment used in the retrieval,⁵² which we 187 assess by comparison with AERONET as a function of land type. For the simulated AOD, to 188 account for errors due to species-specific emissions and assumed aerosol microphysical properties, 189 we calculate the relative uncertainty based on the simulated fractional aerosol composition applied 190 to each daily AERONET observation following van Donkelaar et al.⁵³ SI Figure S1 shows a 191 scatterplot of our combined monthly AOD estimates versus AERONET AOD for 2015, illustrating 192 a high degree of consistency ($R^2=0.84$; slope=0.97). 193

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The daily surface PM_{2.5} concentrations from each data source are obtained by applying the daily simulated AOD to PM_{2.5} ratios (η) to the coincident daily calibrated AOD sources. Monthly means are calculated from the daily PM_{2.5} values. The monthly mean PM_{2.5} concentrations from each source are then combined using a weighted average (equation S4). Where available, spatial information from the 1 km MAIAC AOD retrieval is incorporated by applying the monthly climatology of its retrieved relative variation between 0.01° and 0.05°. Where MAIAC is unavailable, monthly AOD and PM_{2.5} are linearly interpolated onto a 0.01°x0.01° grid. The monthly mean PM_{2.5} concentrations are then aggregated to annual mean values.

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204 *Hybrid PM*_{2.5} estimates

We use Geographically Weighted Regression (GWR)^{54,55} to predict and account for the bias in the 205 annual mean of our geophysical PM_{2.5} estimates as described in van Donkelaar et al.²⁹ We perform 206 the GWR between our annual mean geophysical PM2.5 estimates and annual PM2.5 concentrations 207 measured by ground monitors. We use monitor-specific ground-based measurements of PM2.5 208 from an updated version of the WHO Global Ambient Air Quality Database,²² which provides 209 annual measurements for the years 2010-2018. Supplemental Table S3 summarizes the global 210 number of measurements for each year. The predictor variables used in the regression are 211 associated with uncertainties in the simulated relation of PM2.5 to AOD, such as simulated aerosol 212 types, sub-grid topographical variation and urban surfaces (equation S5). 213

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215 **Results and Discussion**

The top three panels of Figure 1 show (A) the combined AOD, (B) simulated η (PM_{2.5}/AOD), and (C) combined PM_{2.5} estimates for 1998-2018. The logarithmic PM_{2.5} color-scale (C) is directly proportional to the logarithmic AOD (A) and η (B) color-scales to facilitate comparison of features

between plots. Several factors affect the simulated relation of AOD and PM_{2.5}.^{45,56} Since AOD is 219 at ambient relative humidity and surface PM_{2.5} is at controlled relative humidity, high η values 220 exist over desert regions in North Africa and the Middle-East partly due to the low hygroscopicity 221 of the aerosols.^{45,46} Hygroscopicity decreases η by decreasing dry mass compared with ambient 222 conditions. Higher η values over industrial regions in India and eastern China, where aerosols have 223 more water uptake,^{57–59} reflect the enhanced near-surface aerosol concentrations in source regions 224 that increase the ground level to columnar fraction. Over southern China, higher AOD compared 225 to surface PM_{2.5} (e.g smaller η values) partially reflect the transport of biomass burning aerosol 226 from southeast Asia at high altitudes.^{60,61} Relatively low η values over northern regions in Canada 227 and Russia occur where surface PM_{2.5} concentrations are lower and a higher fraction of the aerosol 228 tends to be aloft. Enhanced η values over the Andes and the Tibetan Plateau reflect the diminished 229 230 AOD column over elevated topography.

The bottom panel of Figure 1 (D) shows the difference between this updated version (V4.GL.03) 231 of geophysical PM_{2.5} estimates and the previous version²⁹ (V4.GL.02) for 2011-2016. The largest 232 differences are apparent over desert regions, with a decrease in PM_{2.5} concentrations of about -20 233 $\mu g/m^3$. This difference reflects the influence of the improved dust scheme^{16,17} used in the updated 234 GEOS-Chem simulation on simulated η , as the previous version overestimated surface fine dust 235 concentrations.²⁹ There are increases in PM_{2.5} concentrations of about 5-15 µg/m³ over South 236 America, central Africa, India, China, and South-east Asia, with smaller increases of about 2-5 237 $\mu g/m^3$ over parts of North America and Russia. These differences reflect the updated 238 anthropogenic^{20,21,48} and biomass burning¹⁹ emission inventories and secondary organic aerosol 239 chemistry scheme^{14,15} used in the updated GEOS-Chem simulation. 240

Figure 2 shows the mean area-based weighting over 2000-2018 of each AOD source used in the 241 combined estimate (we chose this time period because prior to 2000 SeaWiFS was the only 242 observing satellite instrument). For MODIS Dark Target and Deep Blue, only Terra-based 243 retrievals are shown, although Aqua is also included in the combined estimate. Therefore a total 244 of 8 sources contribute to the combined product, and an individual source of average quality would 245 have a weighting of approximately 1/8 (12%). Values in black in the bottom-left of each panel 246 indicate the population-based mean weighting at locations with available data, whereas purple 247 values in parentheses indicate the area-based mean weighting. MAIAC contributes the highest 248 percentage to the population-based geophysical $PM_{2.5}$ estimate with a mean weighting of 26% 249 reflecting its strong overall performance including over arid and mountainous regions with 250 difficult surface conditions. The large increase in MAIAC contribution compared to the 12% mean 251 contribution in earlier work²⁹ is related to its near global coverage, which was not previously 252 available. MODIS Deep Blue performs well over most parts of the world, especially over deserts, 253 with a population-based mean weighting of 14%. MODIS Dark Target (13% population-based) 254 performs well over Central America, central Africa, and Southeast Asia. MISR (7% population-255 based mean weighting) is strongest over regions with difficult surface conditions such as deserts. 256 SeaWiFS DB is weighted less heavily (4% population-based mean weighting) compared to the 257 other sources, largely due to reduced sampling frequency. Simulated AOD has a population-based 258 mean weighting of 19% from large contributions over northern regions and south-eastern Asia 259 260 where seasonal snow-cover and cloud-cover respectively inhibit satellite retrievals. Overall satellite retrievals comprise most (83%) of the population-weighted AOD contribution due to their 261 accuracy in the majority of regions associated with significant population density. 262

Figure 3 shows the geophysical PM_{2.5} estimates for 2015. Elevated concentrations are apparent 263 over East Asia and South Asia reflecting a wide variety of sources as extensively discussed in the 264 literature.^{60–66} Enhancements over North Africa and the Middle-East are driven by regional 265 mineral dust sources.^{67–69} Lower concentrations over North America and western Europe reflect 266 regional emission controls.⁷⁰⁻⁷⁵ Evaluation of these geophysical estimates versus ground-based 267 measurements yields excellent consistency on an annual mean basis with R²=0.81 and a slope of 268 0.90. This agreement offers promise for satellite-derived PM_{2.5} in regions with low monitor 269 density, as our geophysical estimates are independent of ground monitor data. Exclusion of GEOS-270 Chem would reduce the R² versus PM_{2.5} monitors to 0.73. Using AOD from only a single satellite 271 retrieval would further reduce the R² to 0.50-0.70. Using only AOD from GEOS-Chem would give 272 an $R^2=0.63$. Thus the overall consistency with ground measurements is driven by satellite 273 observations complemented by the GEOS-Chem simulation. 274

The long-term radiometric calibration of the newly released satellite AOD products and the long-275 term consistency of the meteorology and emissions used in the GEOS-Chem simulation enable 276 assessment of trends. Figure 4 shows the trends in our geophysical PM_{2.5} values for 1998-2018, 277 calculated using generalized least squares regression (GLS)^{76,77} as implemented by Boys et al.⁷⁸ 278 There are statistically significant (p-value<0.05) positive trends in PM_{2.5} exceeding 1 μ g/m³/yr 279 throughout India and of 0.25 to 0.5 μ g/m³/yr across the Middle-East, central and southern Africa, 280 and Canada. There is a small area of positive trends ($\sim 1 \,\mu g/m^3/yr$) over eastern China and a small 281 region of negative trends (-1 μ g/m³/yr) over northern China, however most of East Asia does not 282 exhibit statistically significant trends when taken over the entire time period. There are statistically 283 significant, negative trends in PM_{2.5} values (-1 to $-0.25 \ \mu g/m^3/yr$) over the eastern US, Europe, 284 central South America, and Australia. 285

Figure 5 shows the regional time-series calculated using the GLS of monthly population-weighted 286 mean (PWM) geophysical PM_{2.5} anomalies for the eastern US, Europe, East Asia, and India. The 287 time-series plots for the eastern US and Europe exhibit negative trends, with slopes of -0.44±0.05 288 $\mu g/m^3/yr$ and -0.15 \pm 0.03 $\mu g/m^3/yr$ respectively. These negative trends reflect the emission controls 289 implemented in these regions.^{70–75} Over the eastern US we evaluate the time-series coincidently 290 sampled with EPA ground measurements for 1999-2016 and find excellent consistency with slope 291 -0.43 ± 0.03 µg/m³/yr. There is a positive trend in PWM PM_{2.5} concentrations over India with a 292 slope of $1.13\pm0.15 \,\mu\text{g/m}^3/\text{yr}$, reflecting the increasing emissions of anthropogenic aerosol and their 293 precursors.^{48,79} Three separate regimes are visible over India: a positive trend (slope 0.93±0.39 294 $\mu g/m^3/yr$; pink) for 1998-2007, a period of a large positive trend (slope 2.44±0.44 $\mu g/m^3/yr$; green) 295 for ~2005-2013 which drives the positive 1998-2018 trend, then a negative trend (slope -0.55 ± 0.70 296 µg/m³/yr; dark purple) for 2011-2018. Over East Asia, a positive trend in PWM PM_{2.5} 297 concentrations (slope $0.93\pm0.19 \,\mu\text{g/m}^3/\text{yr}$; yellow) is visible until about 2012, after which the trend 298 becomes strongly negative (slope -3.67 \pm 0.38 µg/m³/yr; fuschia). This recent negative trend is the 299 300 most rapid regional decrease in PM_{2.5} concentrations apparent worldwide since the year 1998, reflecting the emission controls placed on SO₂ and NO_x in China after 2012.^{48,80–82} Overall, global 301 PWM PM_{2.5} increased by $0.04\pm0.02 \ \mu g/m^3/yr$ (SI Table S5). 302

We next statistically fuse the geophysical estimates of PM_{2.5} with in situ ground monitor data. SI Figure S2 shows the predicted bias from GWR, while SI Figure S3 shows the net impact of the individual predictors on the predicted bias. Figure 6 shows the resulting statistically fused (hybrid) estimates for 2015. The scatterplot shows 10-fold out-of-sample 10% cross validation at sites that were not used in the GWR regression. Statistical fusion explains 11% of the variance in the groundbased measurements, increasing to R^2 =0.92. The agreement for the entire dataset of hybrid PM_{2.5} values was very similar ($R^2=0.90$) to the agreement of just the cross-validated sites described above, suggesting the impact of overfitting is small, and is comparable to other recent statistical fusion techniques.³⁰

The agreement of our hybrid PM_{2.5} estimates (V4.GL.03) with ground monitors is significantly improved compared to the agreement of V4.GL.02 in van Donkelaar et al.²⁹ for more recent years (2014-2016), as shown in SI Table S4. The weak change in the agreement among years 2014-2016, when there was still a significant increase in the number of monitors, suggests that estimates would benefit from increasing monitor density in underrepresented regions (e.g. India, Africa, the Middle-East, and South America), rather than increasing the number of monitors in regions where they are already available (i.e. North America, Europe, and China).

Our out-of-sample population-weighted RMSE is 8.2 μ g/m³, lower than all prior estimates to date

321 locations (PWM 43.2 μ g/m³) are also more consistent with PM_{2.5} measurements (PWM 44.9

(e.g. Shaddick et al³⁰). Table S5 shows that our hybrid PM_{2.5} estimates (V4.GL.03) at monitor

 $\mu g/m^3$) than are recent estimates from the Global Burden of Disease³⁰ (PWM 50 $\mu g/m^3$).

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The top three panels of Figure 7 show the regional distributions of the global population as a function of hybrid PM_{2.5} concentrations for 1998, 2008, and 2018, following the method of Apte et al.⁸³ The bottom panel shows the regional distributions of the global population as a function of the 1998-2018 trends from Figure 4. Only statistically significant (p-value<0.05) trends were included to focus on locations with meaningful trends, therefore the populations in the bottom plot reflect those exposed to statistically significant trends, not the total populations.

For all three years (top panels) the majority of the global population (89% in 1998, 86% in 2008,

330 83% in 2018) lived in regions with PM_{2.5} concentrations above the WHO air quality guideline of

10 µg/m³. Over 1998-2018, 27% of the global population experienced statistically significant 331 332 trends (p-value < 0.5) (bottom panel). Statistically significant negative trends were experienced by 23% of the total North American and 23% of the total European populations, while 11% and 14% 333 334 of the total populations respectively experienced statistically significant positive trends. The population of India exposed to PM_{2.5} concentrations of 50-150 μ g/m³ increased from 46% in 1998 335 to 69% in 2018 (top panels), with 40% of the total population experiencing statistically significant 336 positive trends (1 to 4 μ g/m³/yr), and 0% experiencing statistically significant negative trends 337 338 (bottom panel). The fraction of the population in China exposed to PM2.5 concentrations of 50-100 $\mu g/m^3$ increased in 2008 (56%) compared to 1998 (40%); however the fraction significantly 339 decreased in 2018 (18%) as more of the population shifted towards ~50 μ g/m³. Over 1998-2018, 340 8% of the total population in China experienced statistically significant negative trends, while 13% 341 experienced statistically significant positive trends. Globally, 8% of the total population 342 experienced statistically significant negative trends, while 18% experienced statistically 343 significant positive trends. 344

In summary, recent developments in satellite AOD, simulation, and ground monitor data enabled 345 improved global PM_{2.5} estimates and trends over the years 1998-2018, revealing large shifts in the 346 global distribution of PM2.5. The updated satellite AOD sources benefited from finer resolution 347 (MISR), increased global availability (MAIAC), and updated radiometric calibration that 348 improved the stability of all MODIS products over time. The updated GEOS-Chem simulation 349 350 benefitted from consistent long-term meteorology (MERRA-2), updated dust and SOA chemistry schemes, biomass burning emissions, and emission inventories providing improved time-varying 351 information for more recent years, especially over China and India. The geophysical PM2.5 352 estimates exhibited significant agreement with ground monitors ($R^2=0.81$), providing confidence 353

in the utility of the geophysical estimates in regions with low monitor density. Trends for 1998-354 2018 in our PWM geophysical PM_{2.5} values over the eastern United States (-0.44 \pm 0.05 μ g/m³/yr) 355 were consistent with trends in measurements (-0.43 \pm 0.03 µg/m³/yr). Statistical fusion explained 356 an additional 11% of the variance in the PM_{2.5} estimates, yielding an improved agreement 357 $(R^2=0.92)$ with cross-validated ground monitor sites. The populations of North America, Europe, 358 and recently China experienced negative trends in PM2.5, while large amounts of the global 359 population experienced positive trends in PM_{2.5} values, particularly in India. This new iteration of 360 PM_{2.5} estimates provides an improved geophysical and hybrid dataset to be used for health impact 361 studies, and is especially valuable for regions with low monitor density. 362

The temporal resolution of these globally-fused PM2.5 estimates focused on annual mean values to 363 inform global health assessments, and to align with the timescale at which ground-based 364 observations are readily available at a global scale. Regional monthly estimates have been 365 developed for North America, Europe and China (van Donkelaar et al.⁸⁴), where ground 366 measurements are available at higher frequency to evaluate and improve the estimates. Ongoing 367 efforts to improve accessibility to higher frequency measurements, such as OpenAQ 368 (https://openaq.org), may allow increased global temporal resolution in the future. Additional 369 ground-based monitoring of collocated AOD and PM_{2.5} (e.g. www.spartan-network.org) would 370 offer valuable information to evaluate and improve simulation of the AOD-to-PM_{2.5} relationship 371 and in turn satellite-derived estimates of PM2.5.85,86 372

The global PM_{2.5} estimates described in this work are publicly available as version V4.GL.03 via 373 the Atmospheric Composition Analysis Group website at Dalhousie University 374 (http://fizz.phys.dal.ca/~atmos/martin/?page_id=140) Washington University 375 and (http://sites.wustl.edu/acag), or by contacting the authors. 376

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383 Supporting Information

384 Detailed description of satellite AOD sources, GEOS-Chem simulation, and algorithm for

calculating PM_{2.5} estimates (6 tables and 3 figures)

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Figure 1: The combined AOD (A), simulated η (PM_{2.5}/AOD) (B), and combined PM_{2.5} estimates (C) for 1998-2018. The logarithmic PM_{2.5} color-scale (C) is directly proportional to the logarithmic AOD (A) and η (B) color-scales, obtained by normalizing the global average AOD and global average η to that of PM_{2.5}. The bottom panel (D) shows the difference between this updated version (V4.GL.03) of geophysical PM_{2.5} estimates and the previous version (V4.GL.02) from van Donkelaar et al. (2016) for 2011-2016. Grey denotes water.



Figure 2: Mean contribution of each source to the combined PM_{2.5} estimate for 2000-2018. Values in black in the bottom-left of each panel indicate the population-based mean weighting at locations with available data, while purple values indicate the area-based mean weighting. The retrieval algorithm name is given in the lower left of each panel, with the instrument name in brackets. Dark Target and Deep Blue MODIS correspond to Terra- based retrievals only. Grey denotes missing data or water.

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Figure 3: Left: Geophysical PM_{2.5} for 2015. Black dots represent monitor locations. Grey denotes
water. Right: Annual mean geophysical PM_{2.5} versus coincident annual mean in situ values for

417 2015. Included on the plots are the coefficient of variation (R^2) , the normal distribution of

uncertainty (N(bias,variance)), the line of best fit (y), and the number of comparison points (N).

419 The color-scale indicates the number density of observations at each point.





Figure 4: Trends in geophysical PM_{2.5} values calculated from the generalized least squares regression of monthly time series values during 1998-2018. Warm colors indicate positive trends, cool colors indicate negative trends, and the opacity of the colors indicate the statistical significance of the trends. Grey denotes water. Grey boxes indicate areas featured for regional analysis in Figure 5.



Figure 5: Regional monthly time series anomaly plots of population-weighted mean geophysical 434 $PM_{2.5}$ values for 1998-2018 with their corresponding linear fits (with the slope \pm standard error) in 435 blue. In the top panel, black lines indicate the time series and corresponding linear fit for EPA 436 measurements over the Eastern U.S. In the third panel, the 1998-2007 linear fit over India is shown 437 in pink, the 2005-2013 linear fit is shown in green, and the 2011-2018 linear fit is shown in purple. 438 In the bottom panel, the 1998-2012 linear fit over East Asia is shown in yellow, while the 2011-439 2018 linear fit is shown in magenta. Population estimates are from the Gridded Population of the 440 World (GPW v4) database⁸⁷, and unavailable years were obtained via linear interpolation. 441



Figure 6: Left: Hybrid $PM_{2.5}$ for 2015. Black dots represent monitor locations. Grey denotes water. Right: Annual mean geophysical $PM_{2.5}$ versus coincident annual mean in situ values for 2015. Included on the plots are the coefficient of variation (R^2), the normal distribution of uncertainty

447 (N(bias,variance)), the line of best fit (y), and the number of comparison points (N). The color-

scale indicates the number density of observations at each point.

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Figure 7: Top: Regional distribution of population as a function of PM2.5 concentrations for 1998 (left), 2008 (middle), and 2018 (right). Plotted data reflect local smoothing of bin-width normalized distributions computed over 400 logarithmically spaced bins (range 0.1-400 µg m⁻³) following Apte et al.⁸³; equal-sized plotted areas reflect equal populations. Population estimates are from the Gridded Population of the World (GPW v4) database⁸⁷. The 2018 population estimate was obtained by linearly interpolating between 2015 and 2020. Bottom: Regional distribution of population (for 2018) as a function of 1998-2018 PM2.5 trends with statistical significance (p-value < 0.05).

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