

Drought impacts on PM_{2.5} composition and amount over the US during 1988-2018

Yi Wang^{1,2}, Jun Wang², Yuxuan Wang³, and Wei Li³

¹Key Laboratory of Regional Ecology and Environmental Change, School of Geography and Information Engineering, China University of Geosciences, Wuhan 430074, China

²Department of Chemical and Biochemical Engineering, Iowa Technology Institute, Center for Global and Regional Environmental Research, University of Iowa, Iowa City, IA 52242, USA

³Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, University of Houston, Houston, Texas 77204, USA

Corresponding author: Jun Wang, jun-wang-1@uiowa.edu

This is the author manuscript accepted for publication and has undergone full peer review but has not been through the copyediting, typesetting, pagination and proofreading process, which may lead to differences between this version and the [Version of Record](#). Please cite this article as doi: [10.1029/2022JD037677](https://doi.org/10.1029/2022JD037677).

This article is protected by copyright. All rights reserved.

Key points

- The increase in $PM_{2.5}$ in the northwestern US in summer is mainly due to the enhancement of total carbonaceous aerosols related to droughts
- Droughts affect total carbonaceous aerosol variations over the northwestern US mainly through its impact on wildfires
- The impacts of droughts on species concentrations in other regions and seasons are not sufficient to change $PM_{2.5}$ trends

Abstract

This study uses PM_{2.5} species concentrations from Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments and Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI) during 1988-2018 over the continental US to investigate the association of spatial-temporal variations of surface PM_{2.5} species with droughts. Ubiquitous decreasing trends in seasonal mean reconstructed PM_{2.5} are detected in all seasons except for the summer over the northwestern US. The increasing trend in the reconstructed PM_{2.5} in summer over northwestern US is primary due to the positive trend in Total Carbonaceous Aerosols (TCA), which more than offsets the negative trends in sulfate and nitrate aerosols. This also causes the contribution of TCA to the reconstructed PM_{2.5} to show an increasing trend in summer over the same region. The positive trend in TCA in summer over northwestern US is stronger under the drought than the wet conditions, hence resulting in a stronger positive trend in the contribution of TCA to the reconstructed PM_{2.5} in the drought conditions. Drought enhances TCA over northwestern US through its impact on wildfire, and the temporal change of TCA mainly follows the non-linear variation of SPEI. Although droughts are found to have statistically significant impacts on the trends in sulfate, nitrate, and dust in other regions and seasons, the small contributions of these species to the reconstructed PM_{2.5} make their trend variations not sufficient to affect trends in the reconstructed PM_{2.5}.

Plain Language Summary

Ubiquitous decreasing trends in surface mass concentrations of fine aerosol particles are observed in the past ~30 years in all seasons and regions except for the northwestern US in summer. The increasing trend in fine aerosol particle concentrations over the northwestern US in summer during 1988-2018 is primarily due to the positive trend in total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations associated with large fires in drought years. This positive trend is greater than the decreasing trends in sulfate and nitrate aerosols. As the frequency, duration, and spatial converge of droughts are expected to increase in a warming climate, the drought-induced air pollution through wildfire cannot be overlooked and could partly offset the benefit from reduction of anthropogenic emissions. To circumvent the model deficiencies of predicting wildfires, drought index has the potential to be a predictor for forecasting long-term trend of air pollution in future.

1. Introduction

Fine particulate matter (aerodynamic diameter $\leq 2.5 \mu\text{m}$; $\text{PM}_{2.5}$) is recognized as a criteria pollutant by the US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) and has adverse impacts on human health (Lelieveld et al., 2015). $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ mainly consists of ammonium, sulfate, nitrate, Black Carbon (BC), Organic Matter (OM), and fine dust aerosols. Carbonaceous aerosol, including BC and OM, has stronger toxicity than the rest of the $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ species (Lelieveld et al., 2015; Tuomisto et al., 2008). $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations over most US regions show negative trends in the range of -51% to -18% from 2000 to 2020 except for the northwestern US, where an increase of 6% exists (EPA, 2022). The reduction of carbonaceous and sulfate aerosols due to the control of anthropogenic emissions greatly contributes to the decreasing trends in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ concentrations (Leibensperger et al., 2012; Malm et al., 2017; McClure & Jaffe, 2018; Murphy et al., 2011; Ridley et al., 2018). The positive trend in $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ over the northwestern US mainly exists in summer, and is thought to be largely attributed to the increase in wildfire carbonaceous aerosol emissions (McClure & Jaffe, 2018; O'Dell et al., 2019), although these studies only used data primarily collected during 1995-2016 (O'Dell et al., 2019) or confined to quantile trend analysis (McClure & Jaffe, 2018). Furthermore, the change of various $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ species and wildfires are both amenable to the change of weather patterns (Wang et al., 2017), and from the observation-based point of view, it remains unclear how droughts, a major driver for the wildfires, may affect $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ composition and amount in different seasons. Establishing this association is important because the climate models still lack the processes or fidelity to predict the occurrence of fires and the change of $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ heretofore.

Over the past three decades, wildfire-burned areas show an increasing trend (CRS, 2021; Singleton et al., 2019), which is mainly linked to warmer temperatures (Westerling et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2014), lower atmospheric moisture content (Williams et al., 2014), and less precipitation (Holden et al., 2018). All these drivers are characteristics of drought and can be linked well with the drought index (Beguería et al., 2014). $\text{PM}_{2.5}$ from

the drought-induced wildfire emissions can significantly increase children hospitalizations related to respiratory diseases (Smith et al., 2014). Hence it is important to investigate the impact of droughts on the variations of aerosol concentrations from wildfires. Hallar et al. (2017) showed that the drought-related wildfires result in the increase of aerosol loading in the intermountain western US. Wang et al. (2015) demonstrated that the increase of Organic Carbon (OC, the measurement of carbon associated with OM) emissions from wildfires is the major contributor to the enhanced PM_{2.5} over the southern US during the 2011 drought from the perspectives of observation and simulation. Wang et al. (2017) found the enhancement of OC over the US under the drought condition and ascribed it to the increase in OC emissions from wildfires through analyzing Global Fire Emission Database (GFED). However, quantitatively, how the frequency and severity of drought affect the variations of total carbonaceous aerosols (OM and BC) and PM_{2.5} mass remains elusive, especially from a long-term observation perspective. This is complicated by the possible impacts of drought on other PM_{2.5} species (Wang et al., 2017) in addition to wildfire-induced total carbonaceous aerosols. Additionally, the temporal variation of drought can be divided into a linear part and a non-linear part (Wang et al., 2021); their influence on the total carbonaceous aerosols is also unknown. As more droughts are expected to increase from global warming (Cook et al., 2015; Wang et al., 2017), analysis of historic data can help establish the benchmarks that are needed for better predicting future air quality of PM_{2.5} and total carbonaceous aerosols.

Total carbonaceous aerosols are not only from wildfires, but also from anthropogenic combustion and the formation of Secondary Organic Aerosol (SOA), whose formation process and precursors from biogenic sources are both affected by drought events (Zhao et al., 2019). To investigate the impact of drought on aerosols, it is important to distinguish total carbonaceous aerosols from different sources. As non-soil potassium in smoke particles is a good indicator of wildfire activity (Kreidenweis et al., 2001; Wang et al., 2006), this study will analyze the covariation between non-soil potassium, total

carbonaceous aerosols, and other PM_{2.5} species, and link their temporal variation with drought events. We introduce data and method in Sect. 2. Section 3 presents the relationships among droughts, wildfires, and PM_{2.5} species concentrations. Discussion and conclusions are included in Sect. 4 and Sect. 5, respectively.

2. Data and method

2.1 IMPROVE aerosol concentrations

Mass concentrations of surface PM_{2.5} species are routinely measured by the Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE) network. As the ammonium concentrations are not analyzed by IMPROVE, PM_{2.5} concentrations are calculated as the sum of sulfate, nitrate, BC, OM, and fine dust (aka fine soil); we call it the reconstructed PM_{2.5}. OM mass concentrations are obtained through multiplying OC mass concentrations by 1.8 (Bae et al., 2006) to calculate the reconstructed PM_{2.5}. Potassium (K) in smoke particles is an indicator of aerosols from wildfires, but the sources of K in the atmosphere include not only smoke but also soil. In the study, the technique of Kreidenweis et al. (2001) is used to estimate the mass of smoke K from non-soil sources, which is equal to the total mass of K minus 60% mass of Fe. The same technique is also used in Wang et al. (2006) that showed the mass concentration of non-soil K tracks well the smoke concentration from model simulation. Species concentrations data are available over a 24-hour period every third day in the IMPROVE observational network, and they are processed to form monthly mean datasets for every site if there are at least three every-third-day observations in one month. These monthly mean datasets will be processed to form seasonal and regional mean, median, and maximum as shown in Sect. 2.4.

2.2 SPEI drought index

Standardized Precipitation Evapotranspiration Index (SPEI) is selected in this study to investigate the impacts of drought events on spatial and temporal variations in aerosol concentrations across the contiguous US. SPEI is formulated through a water balance approach based on precipitation and air temperature data and can represent the temporal

duration of drought events (Beguería et al., 2014). We select SPEI in this study as not only it is related to air temperature and precipitation, both of which play an important role in the occurrence of wildfires (Holden et al., 2018; Westerling et al., 2006; Williams et al., 2014), but also the relationship between drought events and aerosol concentrations derived from SPEI has been shown to be robust (Wang et al., 2017). The SPEI dataset (<https://spei.csic.es/index.html>) used in this study is based on Climatic Research Unit of the University of East Anglia's monthly precipitation and potential evapotranspiration datasets (<https://catalogue.ceda.ac.uk/uuid/c26a65020a5e4b80b20018f148556681>), which are based on observational data. The spatial and temporal resolutions of SPEI are $0.5^{\circ} \times 0.5^{\circ}$ and 1 month, respectively. Negative and positive SPEI usually represents drought and wet events, respectively, and monthly SPEI is used to detect the drought and wet events that last at least one month.

2.3 Time period and site selection

The time period for investigation in this study is 1988-2018, in which the SPEI and IMPROVE datasets have temporal overlaps. To investigate their seasonal characteristics, we group January, February, and March (JFM) as winter; April, May, and June (AMJ) as spring; July, August, and September (JAS) as summer; and October, November, and December (OND) as fall. We use this season definition as most active fires in the northwestern US occur in JAS (O'Dell et al., 2019), and the maximums of non-soil potassium, the indicator of aerosols from wildfires, are generally in August (Fig. S1). *In this way, the summer season (July-August-September) is also the most active fire months in the northwestern (Fig. 6b).* This season definition was also used in O'Dell et al. (2019). For the 31-year study period, we only analyze the data from those IMPROVE sites that have observational data available for at least 240-month (~65% or equivalent to 20 years). The monthly SPEI datasets at the grid boxes where the IMPROVE sites are located are paired with the monthly aerosol speciation data from the corresponding IMPROVE sites. The paired monthly data will be further processed to form seasonal data as shown in Sect.

2.4. As the dominant species vary by region and season, the contiguous US is divided into the northwestern (north of 37 °N and west of 100 °W), the southwestern (south of 37 °N and west of 100 °W), and the eastern (east of 100 °W) US. There are 31, 15, and 21 IMPROVE sites meet the data selection criteria across the northwestern, southwestern, and eastern US, respectively.

2.4 Aerosol and SPEI trends analysis

To investigate the impacts of drought on the trends in aerosol concentrations, we processed the monthly mean IMPROVE dataset that meets the *completeness criteria in Sect. 2.3* into three conditions: one for the whole data record (i.e. the selected monthly mean data from Sect. 2.3) in 1988-2018, and the other two are the records under drought (SPEI < 0.0) and wet (SPEI > 0.0) conditions for every month and at every 0.5°×0.5° grid; we name them the all, drought, and wet conditions, respectively. Thus, data under the drought and wet conditions are mutually exclusive, and the union of them is the all condition. For a certain month, there could be some grids under the drought condition and the rest under the wet condition, which is different from defining the whole area as drought or wet in the month. Based on the categorized IMPROVE monthly datasets, the seasonal mean and seasonal and regional mean, median, and maximum of each dataset are computed and their trends are analyzed. The monthly SPEI data in the grids where the monthly IMPROVE data are available are averaged to form seasonal mean and seasonal and regional mean. The trends are calculated as the slopes derived from linear least-squares regression between time and variables to be analyzed, and the slopes are considered statistically significant in the two-tailed t-test when the corresponding p-value is less than 0.05. The calculation of the uncertainties (standard errors) of the slope (Wilks, 2011) is shown in S1 in the supplement. Meanwhile, with the assumption that if *dryness conditions affect species trends, the impacts of drought and wet should be opposite*, the one-tailed t-test is applied to evaluate the difference between the slopes calculated under different dryness conditions.

3. Results

3.1 Seasonal mean and trends of $PM_{2.5}$

Seasonal mean reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations from 1988 to 2018 at the contiguous US IMPROVE sites are shown in Fig. 1. The reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations over the eastern US are generally larger than that over the northwestern and southwestern US in all seasons (Fig. 1). Although the largest concentration occurs in summer for both the northwestern and eastern US, followed by spring (Fig. 1 and Fig. 2), the contribution of species for the enhancements are different between these two regions (Fig. 2). The large reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ concentration across the eastern US in summer and spring is mainly caused by the enhancement of sulfate concentrations, followed by OM and dust concentrations; the magnitude of these increases largely surpasses the decrease of nitrate concentration (Fig. 2c). Similar seasonal variations in sulfate, nitrate, and dust concentrations also occur in the northwestern US, but the enhancement of OM concentration is the most important contributor to the large reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ concentration in summer (Fig. 2a). As to the southwestern US, the largest reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ concentration is observed in spring, followed by summer, which is caused by the increase of sulfate, OM, and dust concentrations (Fig. 2b), and dust plays a more important role over the southwestern US than northwestern and eastern US (Fig. 2).

Figure 3 shows the linear trends in seasonal mean reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations during the same period. All the 21 sites across the eastern US observe statistically significant negative trends in winter and fall, and the decreasing reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ trends are statistically significant at 95% and 85% of sites in spring and summer, respectively. In contrast to the ubiquitous statistically significant negative trends across the eastern US in all seasons, the percentage of sites observing significant decreasing trends over the northwestern US is much smaller. More than 93% of the 31 sites across the northwestern US have negative reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ trends in winter, spring, and fall, and only 71%~87% is statistically significant. Moreover, only 42% and 10% of sites exhibit statistically

insignificant and significant declines in the reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$, respectively in summer in the same region; of the 58% remaining sites that show positive trends, there are five sites that are statistically significant. As to the southwestern US, 73%~93% of sites observe statistically significant declines in the reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ in winter, summer, and fall, while it decreases to 60% in spring.

3.2 Drought impact on aerosol composition

The trends in regional mean reconstructed IMPROVE $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations under the all, drought, and wet conditions are shown in Fig. 4. The reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ trends are always negative regardless of dryness conditions in any seasons and any regions except for the northwestern US in summer (Fig. 4a-c). The trend in the reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ over the northwestern US in summer is $0.078 \pm 0.041 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$ under the drought condition, which is much larger than $0.034 \pm 0.023 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$ under the all condition, and the trend decreases to $0.004 \pm 0.020 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$ under the wet condition (Fig. 4a). Drought and wet events can significantly modify the trend when the p-value for the trend difference between drought and wet events is less than 0.1. The difference between the trends in the reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ under drought and wet conditions over the northwestern US in summer is statistically significant ($p=0.05$), while for the rest of the seasons and regions, p values are in the range of 0.11-0.44. These variations in $PM_{2.5}$ trends over the northwestern US in summer under different dryness conditions are mainly caused by the fact that drought and wet events have significant impacts on the trends in OM ($p=0.04$, Fig. 4d). Similar trend variation occurs in BC ($p=0.07$, Fig. S2c, note that the number at the top left corner indicates the magnitude of y axis), but the BC trend difference between drought and wet conditions is around an order of magnitude smaller than that of OM (Fig. 4d, note that the number at the top left corner indicates the magnitude of y axis) as the concentrations of BC are much smaller than OM (Fig. 2a). As OM (Fig. 4d) and BC (Fig. S2c) show a similar response to droughts, and the combination has smaller observational error than separate species (Schmid et al., 2001), we combine OM and BC as total carbonaceous aerosols (Fig. S2e), and it shows

that the total carbonaceous trends are very similar to OM trends. Although the trends in sulfate (Fig. S2a) in fall, nitrate (Fig. S2b) in winter, and dust (Fig. S2d) in summer and fall over the northwestern US under drought condition are different from that under wet condition with statistical significance, these differences are not sufficient to lead to statistically significant difference of trends in the reconstructed PM_{2.5} under different dryness conditions over the northwestern US. Similarly, the significant trend differences between drought and wet events for sulfate and dust in fall over the southwestern US, and for nitrate in spring over the eastern US do not significantly change the corresponding trends in the reconstructed PM_{2.5}. For certain regions, seasons, and species that are not mentioned above, the trend differences between drought and wet conditions are not statistically significant.

As the drought-induced change of trends in total carbonaceous aerosols can significantly affect the trend in the reconstructed PM_{2.5} (Fig. 4 and Fig. S2), we further investigate how the linear trend of drought severity affects total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations. The interannual variations in the regional mean, median, and maximum of total carbonaceous aerosols in summer over the northwestern US are shown in Fig. 5a. The trend in the maximum during 1988-2018 is $0.639 \pm 0.165 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$, which is much stronger than $0.058 \pm 0.021 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$ and $0.025 \pm 0.011 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$ for the mean and the median, respectively (Fig. 5a and Table 1). To remove the interference caused by the magnitude difference of these time series in the comparison of their trends, Fig. 5b shows the seasonal mean, median, and maximum total carbonaceous aerosols expressed as the percentage of 31-year average of the corresponding time series, and their corresponding trends are analyzed. The normalized trend in the maximum is $4.70\% \pm 1.22\% \text{ a}^{-1}$, which is still much larger than $1.92\% \pm 0.71\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ for the mean and $1.03\% \pm 0.47\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ for the median (Fig. 5b); all these trends are statistically significant. As the trend in maximum is much larger than that in mean and median, the increasing trend in extremely high total carbonaceous aerosol concentration is a major contributor to the upward trend in total mean carbonaceous aerosol

concentration over the northwestern US in summer. Meanwhile, the linear trend in seasonal and regional mean SPEI is negative over the northwestern US during 1988-2018 summer, but it is not statistically significant (Fig. 5c).

To further analyze how the linear trend in total carbonaceous aerosols is affected by drought, we divide the whole time period into 1988-2009 and 2010-2018. The trends in the mean, median, and maximum of total carbonaceous aerosol from 2010 to 2018 are $0.538 \pm 0.189 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$, $0.212 \pm 0.099 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$ and $4.094 \pm 1.553 \mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{ a}^{-1}$, respectively, which are a factor 7~19 larger than that during 1988-2009 (Table 1). Correspondingly, the trend in the seasonal and regional mean of SPEI in summer over the northwestern US during 2010-2018 is $-0.0426 \pm 0.0586 \text{ a}^{-1}$, which is a factor of 4 stronger than $-0.0106 \pm 0.0147 \text{ a}^{-1}$ from 1988 to 2018, although they are not *statistically* significant. The trends in SPEI and total carbonaceous aerosols during 2010-2018 are simultaneously larger than that during 1988-2009, which means the linear trend in drought partly enhance the total carbonaceous aerosols in summer over the northwestern US. We also notice that the total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations in 2017 and 2018 summers are much larger than that in the rest of the summers, and have important impacts on total carbonaceous aerosols during 2010-2018 summers; when the two-summer data are removed, the linear trends in the mean, median, and maximum of total carbonaceous aerosols are $0.085 \pm 0.147 \text{ a}^{-1}$, $0.033 \pm 0.100 \text{ a}^{-1}$, and $0.164 \pm 1.113 \text{ a}^{-1}$ during 2010-2016, respectively, which are much weaker than the corresponding $0.538 \pm 0.189 \text{ a}^{-1}$, $0.212 \pm 0.099 \text{ a}^{-1}$, and $4.094 \pm 1.553 \text{ a}^{-1}$ during 2010-2018. Since air pollution extreme events and uncertainties of trends are both important for assessing air quality, we include the two-summer data in the analysis.

According to the method to calculate the standard error (S1 in supplement) of a linear trend, the large non-linear variation of SPEI leads to the large uncertainty ($\pm 0.0086 \text{ a}^{-1}$, Fig. 5c) of SPEI trend (-0.0092 a^{-1} , Fig. 5c). Thus, we investigate the following question: does the non-linear variation of SPEI impacts total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations in addition to its impact on the standard error of SPEI linear trend? The linear correlation

Author Manuscript

coefficients between the regional mean, median, and maximum of total carbonaceous aerosols and regional mean of SPEI in summer over the northwestern US are -0.45, -0.54, and -0.42, respectively, which are all statistically significant. When the linear trends of these time series are removed by subtracting them from the original time series (S2 in supplement), the linear correlation coefficients of the residue are -0.41, -0.51, and -0.39, and are still statistically significant. The correlation coefficients for the non-linear part (-0.41, -0.51, and -0.39) are only a little weaker than that for the original time series (-0.45, -0.54, and -0.42); thus, the non-linear temporal variation of SPEI plays a more important role than the linear trend for the increase of total carbonaceous aerosols in summer over the northwestern US.

Figure 6 shows that total carbonaceous aerosols over the northwestern US mainly originate from wildfires, and Holden et al. (2018) has shown decreasing precipitation, a phenomenon of drought, leads to the increase of wildfire area burned over the western US. Therefore, drought events lead to the enhancement of total carbonaceous aerosols through the increase of wildfires over the northwestern US. The median and mean of both total carbonaceous aerosols (Fig. 6a) and non-soil potassium (Fig. 6b) for each month have their minimum in JFM, show increases in AMJ, reach their maximum in JAS, and then decrease in OND. The linear correlation coefficients between non-soil potassium and total carbonaceous aerosols for monthly mean and median are 0.87 (Fig. 6c) and 0.96 (Fig. 6d), respectively, both of which are at a 99% statistical confidence level. In the meanwhile, the temporal variations in BC (Fig. S3c), and OM (Fig. S3d) follow the same pattern. Although sulfate (Fig. S3a), total carbonaceous aerosols (Fig. 6a) and non-soil potassium (Fig. 6b) have a similar pattern for seasonal variation, the change of sulfate is smoother than that for the other two species. In contrast, monthly variations of sulfate (Fig. S3a), nitrate (Fig. S3b), and dust (Fig. S3e) are different from that of total carbonaceous aerosols and non-soil potassium.

3.3 The contribution of total carbonaceous aerosols

To investigate the contribution of total carbonaceous aerosols to reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ over the northwestern US, and how drought and wet events affect it, we calculate the percentage of total carbonaceous aerosols to reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ in every season and dryness conditions, and analyze their temporal variations from 1988 to 2018 (Fig. 7). Under the all condition, the contribution of total carbonaceous aerosols to reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ shows a statistically significant decreasing trend in winter during 1988-2018 (Fig. 7a), and there are no trends in spring (Fig. 7b) and fall (Fig. 7d); the same holds true under the wet and drought conditions (Fig. 7a, b, and d). Thus, drought and wet events do not affect the trends in the contribution of total carbonaceous aerosols to reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ in winter, spring, and fall. Conversely, regardless of dryness conditions, the contribution of total carbonaceous aerosols to reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ show statistically significant increasing trends in summer (Fig. 7c). The increasing trends in the contribution of total carbonaceous aerosols to reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ in summer during 1988-2018 result from the combination of the increasing trend in total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations (Fig. S2e) and the decreasing trends in sulfate (Fig. S2a) and nitrate (Fig. S2b) concentrations. Moreover, the positive trends increase from $0.45\% \pm 0.09\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ under the wet condition to $0.60\% \pm 0.09\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ and $0.73\% \pm 0.14\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ under the all condition and the drought condition, respectively (Fig. 7c), which can be explained by the facts that (1) drought events significantly enhance the positive trend in total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations (Fig. 4 and S2); (2) the impact on reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ trends from sulfate and nitrate concentrations is not significant (Fig. S2); (3) although the impact on the reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ trend from dust is statistically significant, it is an order magnitude smaller than that from total carbonaceous aerosols (Fig. 4 and S2). We also notice that the contribution of total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations to the reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ in 2017 and 2018 summers are much larger than that in the rest of the summers. when the two-summer data are removed, the trends in the contribution are $0.39\% \pm 0.09\% \text{ a}^{-1}$, $0.44\% \pm 0.08\% \text{ a}^{-1}$, $0.52\% \pm 0.13\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ under the wet, all, and drought conditions, respectively. The two-summer data have a larger impact under the

drought condition than the wet condition.

4. Discussion

Dry versus wet month separation is conducted for every IMPROVE site rather than for the selected regions as a whole in this study, as there are both drought and wet in any of the three selected regions. With this separation, however, if total carbonaceous aerosols at a site mainly come from the long-range transport (from emissions of fires in the upper wind), dryness condition at this site alone cannot explain the total carbonaceous aerosol concentration at this site. To tackle this situation, we further calculate regional and seasonal mean SPEI over the northwestern US in every summer using SPEI at every grid in the region rather than only using SPEI that is paired with IMPROVE sites (Sect. 2.4). The linear correlation coefficient of the regional summer mean SPEI calculated and regional summer mean total carbonaceous aerosol is -0.36 over the northwestern US, which is weaker than -0.45 (Sect. 3.2) calculated by using SPEI paired with IMPROVE sites. Hence, this contrast suggests that the impact of local dryness condition on total carbonaceous aerosols is more important than that of remote dryness condition (and its associated transport of fire emissions through the atmosphere).

In this study, data from IMPROVE sites are used to calculate regional mean, which is further applied for trend analysis. As there are only 31, 15, and 21 IMPROVE sites that can be used across the northwestern, southwestern, and eastern US, respectively, and all these sites are in remote regions, our analysis has the possibility to lack the regional representativeness. However, IMPROVE program has the longest record of aerosol composition data in the U.S. with a focus on rural areas. Unlike urban areas that have undergone the a large change of anthropogenic emissions in the past three decades, rural areas can be more susceptible to the impact of drought and the resultant aerosols from wildfires. Future studies may infuse satellite-based aerosol optical depth data with IMPROVE data and study how droughts impact aerosols in urban areas.

5. Conclusions

This study investigates the spatial distributions of both the reconstructed PM_{2.5} and their species concentrations, as well as their respective trends across the US in different seasons in 1988-2018 using IMPROVE data. During the four seasons, the largest reconstructed PM_{2.5} concentrations occur in summer over the northwestern and eastern US mainly due to the enhancement of OM and sulfate aerosols, respectively. In the southwestern US, the increase of sulfate, OM, and dust concentrations lead to the largest PM_{2.5} concentrations in spring. Ubiquitous decreasing trends in the reconstructed PM_{2.5} concentrations are observed in all seasons and regions except for the northwestern US in summer. The increasing trend in PM_{2.5} concentrations over the northwestern US in summer during 1988-2018 is primarily due to the positive trend in total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations, which is *more than compensates for* the negative trends in sulfate and nitrate aerosols. The value of the negative trends in dust aerosol is much smaller than their standard errors and is negligible.

According to SPEI, IMPROVE data are grouped into drought, wet, and all conditions to investigate how the drought and wet events affect species trends over the northwestern US. The trends in OM and BC over the northwestern US under the drought condition are significantly different from that under the wet condition. Positive trends in OM are observed under the all conditions and are enhanced by droughts, while trends in BC change from negative under the wet condition to positive under the drought condition. Due to the impact of drought and wet events on BC and OM, we combine them as total carbonaceous aerosols for further analysis. The monthly variations of total carbonaceous aerosols follow the temporal pattern of non-soil potassium, which is a good indicator of wildfire smoke. Hence, droughts affect the temporal variations of total carbon aerosols primarily via its impact on wildfire emissions. The linear correlation coefficient between the regional median of total carbonaceous aerosols and the regional mean of SPEI in summer over the northwestern US is -0.54, which is stronger than that for the regional mean (-0.45) and regional maximum (-0.42) of total carbonaceous aerosols. When linear trends are removed,

these correlation coefficients become -0.41, -0.51, and -0.39, respectively, but are still significant. Thus, non-linear variation of SPEI plays a more important role than its linear trend in changing total carbonaceous aerosols over the northwestern US in summer. Due to the fact that drought events significantly enhance the positive trend in total carbonaceous aerosol concentrations, the percentage contribution of total carbonaceous aerosols to PM_{2.5} has an increasing trend of $0.45\% \pm 0.09\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ under wet conditions and increases to $0.60\% \pm 0.09\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ and $0.73\% \pm 0.14\% \text{ a}^{-1}$ in the all and drought scenario, respectively.

The observational analysis presented here has shown that droughts enhance the total carbonaceous aerosol pollutions through the impacts on wildfires over the northwestern US in summer, hence increase the contribution total carbonaceous aerosols to PM_{2.5}. Droughts are expected to increase in the context of global warming, thus this study implicate that drought-induced air pollution through wildfire cannot be overlooked and could partly offset the benefit from reduction of anthropogenic emissions. To circumvent the model deficiencies of predicting wildfires, drought index is likely a promising predictor for forecasting long-term air pollution.

Acknowledgement

This research was supported by the NOAA's Atmospheric Chemistry, Carbon Cycle, and Climate (AC4) Program (NA19OAR4310177). J. Wang acknowledges the James E. Ashton Professorship for supporting this work.

Open Research

The IMPROVE data used for species analysis in this study were from Federal Land Manager Environmental Database (Federal Land Manager Environmental Database, 2022). The SPEI data used for drought analysis in this study were from Global SPEI database (Beguería et al., 2022). Figures were made with Matplotlib version 3.2.1 (Caswell et al., 2020; Hunter, 2007)

References

- Bae, M.-S., Schauer, J. J., & Turner, J. R. (2006). Estimation of the Monthly Average Ratios of Organic Mass to Organic Carbon for Fine Particulate Matter at an Urban Site. *Aerosol Science and Technology*, 40(12), 1123-1139.
- Beguiría, S., Latorre, B., Reig, F., & Vicente-Serrano, S. M. (2022). Global standardized precipitation evapotranspiration index [Dataset]. <https://spei.csic.es/> (last accessed June 13, 2022).
- Beguiría, S., Vicente-Serrano, S. M., Reig, F., & Latorre, B. (2014). Standardized precipitation evapotranspiration index (SPEI) revisited: parameter fitting, evapotranspiration models, tools, datasets and drought monitoring. *International Journal of Climatology*, 34(10), 3001-3023.
- Caswell, T. A., Droettboom, M., Lee, A., Hunter, J., Firing, E., Sales De Andrade, E., et al. (2020) Matplotlib/Matplotlib: REL: V3.2.1 Zenodo [Software]. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.3714460>
- Cook, B. I., Ault, T. R., & Smerdon, J. E. (2015). Unprecedented 21st century drought risk in the American Southwest and Central Plains. *Science Advances*, 1(1), e1400082.
- CRS. (2021). Wildfire Statistics. <https://sgp.fas.org/crs/misc/IF10244.pdf> (last access: July 8, 2022).
- EPA. (2022). Particulate Matter (PM_{2.5}) Trends. <https://www.epa.gov/air-trends/particulate-matter-pm25-trends> (last access: July 6, 2022).
- Federal Land Manager Environmental Database. (2022). Interagency monitoring of protected visual environments data [Dataset]. <http://views.cira.colostate.edu/fed/> (last accessed June 13, 2022)
- Hallar, A. G., Molotch, N. P., Hand, J. L., Livneh, B., McCubbin, I. B., Petersen, R., et al. (2017). Impacts of increasing aridity and wildfires on aerosol loading in the intermountain Western US. *Environmental Research Letters*, 12(1), 014006.
- Holden, Z. A., Swanson, A., Luce, C. H., Jolly, W. M., Maneta, M., Oyler, J. W., et al.

- (2018). *Decreasing fire season precipitation increased recent western US forest wildfire activity. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(36), E8349.
- Hunter, J. D. (2007). *Matplotlib: A 2D Graphics Environment [Software]. Computing in Science & Engineering*, 9(3), 90-95.
- Kreidenweis, S. M., Remer, L. A., Bruintjes, R., & Dubovik, O. (2001). *Smoke aerosol from biomass burning in Mexico: Hygroscopic smoke optical model. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 106(D5), 4831-4844.
- Leibensperger, E. M., Mickley, L. J., Jacob, D. J., Chen, W. T., Seinfeld, J. H., Nenes, A., et al. (2012). *Climatic effects of 1950–2050 changes in US anthropogenic aerosols – Part 1: Aerosol trends and radiative forcing. Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 12(7), 3333-3348.
- Lelieveld, J., Evans, J. S., Fnais, M., Giannadaki, D., & Pozzer, A. (2015). *The contribution of outdoor air pollution sources to premature mortality on a global scale. Nature*, 525(7569), 367-371.
- Malm, W. C., Schichtel, B. A., Hand, J. L., & Collett Jr, J. L. (2017). *Concurrent Temporal and Spatial Trends in Sulfate and Organic Mass Concentrations Measured in the IMPROVE Monitoring Program. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres*, 122(19), 10,462-410,476.
- McClure, C. D., & Jaffe, D. A. (2018). *US particulate matter air quality improves except in wildfire-prone areas. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 115(31), 7901.
- Murphy, D. M., Chow, J. C., Leibensperger, E. M., Malm, W. C., Pitchford, M., Schichtel, B. A., et al. (2011). *Decreases in elemental carbon and fine particle mass in the United States. Atmos. Chem. Phys.*, 11(10), 4679-4686.
- O'Dell, K., Ford, B., Fischer, E. V., & Pierce, J. R. (2019). *Contribution of Wildland-Fire Smoke to US PM_{2.5} and Its Influence on Recent Trends. Environmental Science & Technology*, 53(4), 1797-1804.

- Ridley, D. A., Heald, C. L., Ridley, K. J., & Kroll, J. H. (2018). *Causes and consequences of decreasing atmospheric organic aerosol in the United States. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 115(2), 290-295.*
- Schmid, H., Laskus, L., Jürgen Abraham, H., Baltensperger, U., Lavanchy, V., Bizjak, M., et al. (2001). *Results of the “carbon conference” international aerosol carbon round robin test stage I. Atmospheric Environment, 35(12), 2111-2121.*
- Singleton, M. P., Thode, A. E., Sánchez Meador, A. J., & Iniguez, J. M. (2019). *Increasing trends in high-severity fire in the southwestern USA from 1984 to 2015. Forest Ecology and Management, 433, 709-719.*
- Smith, L. T., Aragão, L. E. O. C., Sabel, C. E., & Nakaya, T. (2014). *Drought impacts on children's respiratory health in the Brazilian Amazon. Scientific Reports, 4(1), 3726.*
- Tuomisto, J. T., Wilson, A., Evans, J. S., & Tainio, M. (2008). *Uncertainty in mortality response to airborne fine particulate matter: Combining European air pollution experts. Reliability Engineering & System Safety, 93(5), 732-744.*
- Wang, J., Christopher, S. A., Nair, U. S., Reid, J. S., Prins, E. M., Szykman, J., & Hand, J. L. (2006). *Mesoscale modeling of Central American smoke transport to the United States: 1. “Top-down” assessment of emission strength and diurnal variation impacts. Journal of Geophysical Research: Atmospheres, 111(D5).*
- Wang, Y., Ge, C., Castro Garcia, L., Jenerette, G. D., Oikawa, P. Y., & Wang, J. (2021). *Improved modelling of soil NO_x emissions in a high temperature agricultural region: role of background emissions on NO₂ trend over the US. Environmental Research Letters, 16(8), 084061.*
- Wang, Y., Xie, Y., Cai, L., Dong, W., Zhang, Q., & Zhang, L. (2015). *Impact of the 2011 Southern U.S. Drought on Ground-Level Fine Aerosol Concentration in Summertime. Journal of the Atmospheric Sciences, 72(3), 1075-1093.*
- Wang, Y., Xie, Y., Dong, W., Ming, Y., Wang, J., & Shen, L. (2017). *Adverse effects of increasing drought on air quality via natural processes. Atmos. Chem. Phys.,*

17(20), 12827-12843.

Westerling, A. L., Hidalgo, H. G., Cayan, D. R., & Swetnam, T. W. (2006). Warming and Earlier Spring Increase Western U.S. Forest Wildfire Activity. *Science*, 313(5789), 940-943.

Wilks, D. S. (2011). *Statistical Methods in the Atmospheric Sciences* (3 ed.). Cambridge, MA: Academic Press.

Williams, A. P., Seager, R., Berkelhammer, M., Macalady, A. K., Crimmins, M. A., Swetnam, T. W., et al. (2014). Causes and Implications of Extreme Atmospheric Moisture Demand during the Record-Breaking 2011 Wildfire Season in the Southwestern United States. *Journal of Applied Meteorology and Climatology*, 53(12), 2671-2684.

Zhao, Z., Wang, Y., Qin, M., Hu, Y., Xie, Y., & Russell, A. G. (2019). Drought Impacts on Secondary Organic Aerosol: A Case Study in the Southeast United States. *Environmental Science & Technology*, 53(1), 242-250.

Table 1. Linear trends and their standard errors in the mean, median, and maximum of Total Carbonaceous Aerosols (TCA, units: $\mu\text{g m}^{-3} \text{a}^{-1}$) and mean SPEI (unitless) in summer over the northwestern US during various periods.

Year	Mean TCA	Median TCA	Maximum TCA	Mean SPEI
1988-2018	0.058 ± 0.021	0.025 ± 0.011	0.639 ± 0.165	$-0.0092^* \pm 0.0086$
1988-2009	0.028 ± 0.012	$0.025^* \pm 0.013$	0.575 ± 0.110	$-0.0106^* \pm 0.0147$
2010-2018	0.538 ± 0.189	$0.212^* \pm 0.099$	4.094 ± 1.553	$-0.0426^* \pm 0.0586$

* All the trends are statistically significant at a 95% confidence level except for those denoted by asterisks.

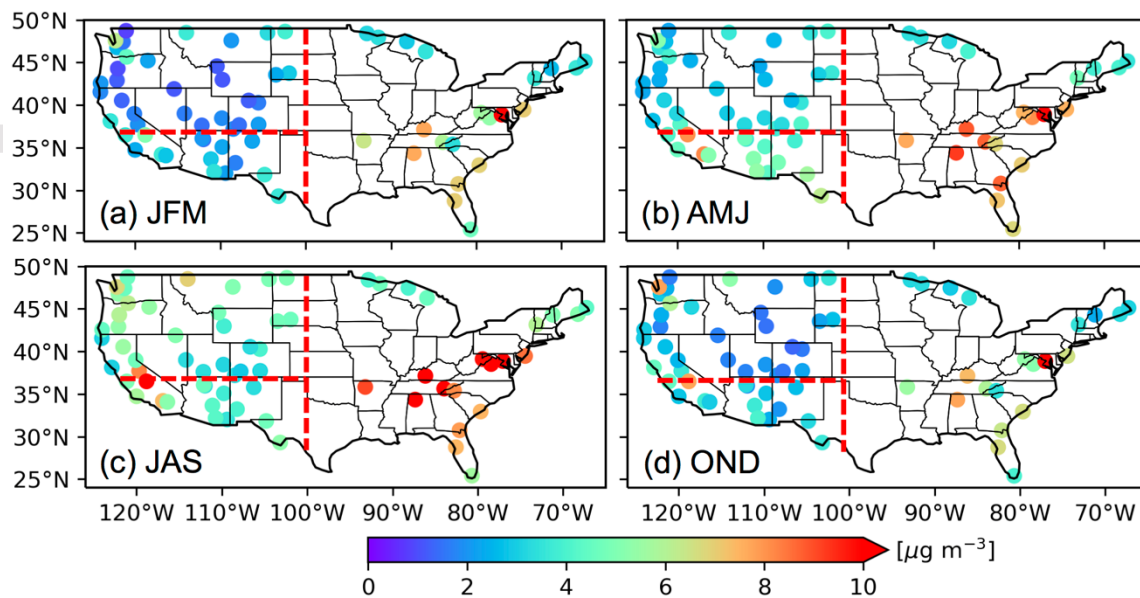


Fig. 1 Seasonal mean reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at IMPROVE sites from 1988 to 2018 in (a) winter (JFM), (b) spring (AMJ), (c) summer (JAS), and (d) fall (OND). Red dashed lines drawn along 100° W and 37° N are used in the analysis to distinguish between the northwestern, southwestern, and eastern US.

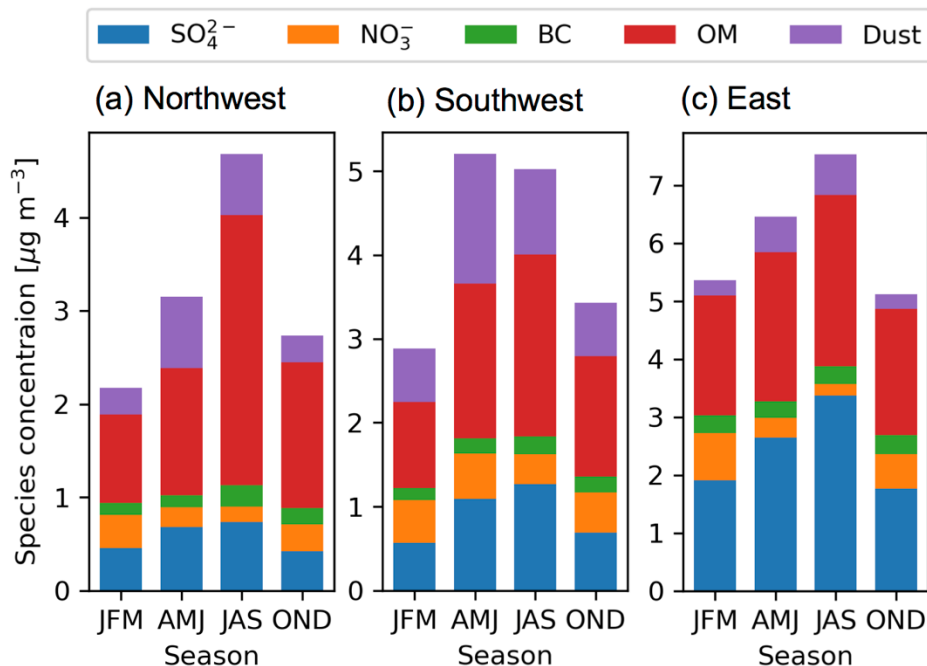


Fig. 2 Regional mean concentration of sulfate (SO_4^{2-}), nitrate (NO_3^-), Black Carbon (BC), Organic Matter (OM), and dust during 1988-2018 in the northwestern (a), southwestern (b), and eastern (c) US from IMPROVE in different seasons. The regions are defined in Fig.1. JFM, AMJ, JAS, and OND are months of winter, spring, summer, and fall, respectively.

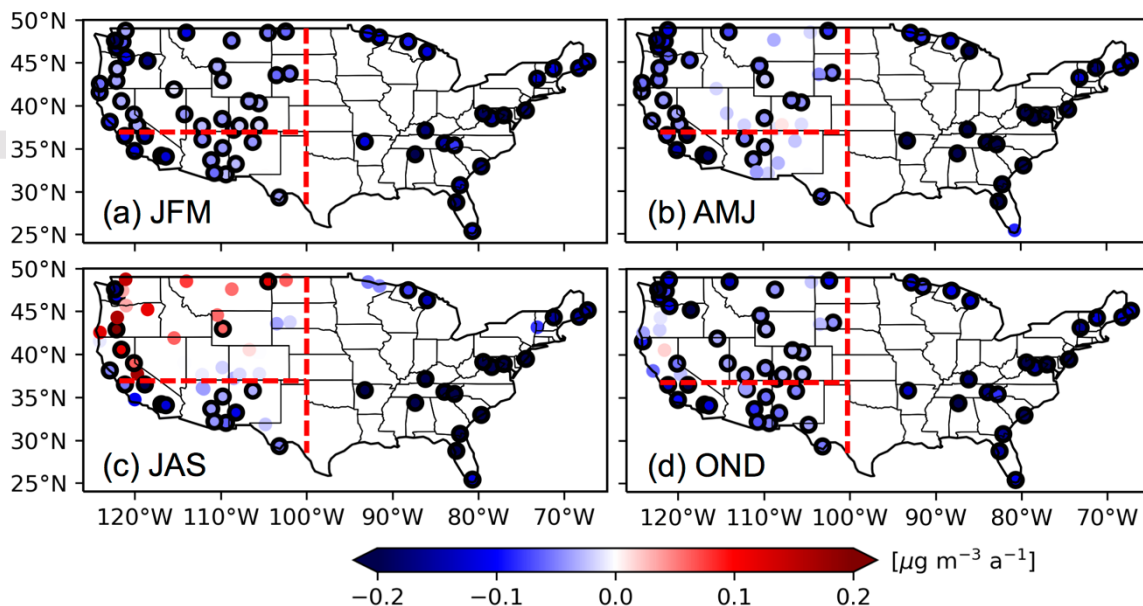


Fig. 3 Trends in seasonal mean reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations at IMPROVE sites from 1988 to 2018 in (a) winter (JFM), (b) spring (AMJ), (c) summer (JAS), and (d) fall (OND). Sites with trends that are significant at a 95% confidence level are outlined in black, and sites with insignificant trends are not outlined. Red dashed lines drawn along the 100° W and 37° N are used in the analysis to distinguish between northwestern, southwestern, and eastern US.

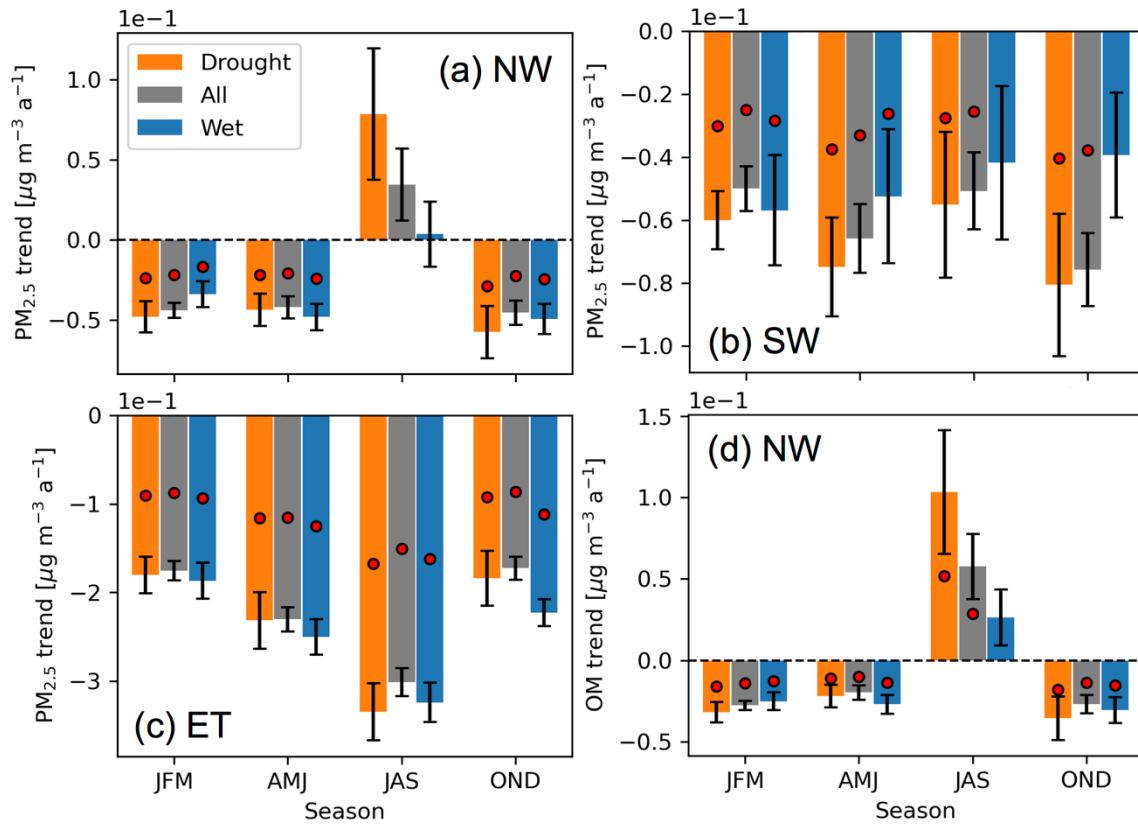


Fig. 4 The 1988-2018 trends in mean reconstructed $PM_{2.5}$ over the (a) northwestern (NW), (b) southwestern (SW), and (c) eastern (ET) US and Organic Matter (OM) over the northwestern US (d) in various seasons derived under drought (orange), all data (grey), and wet (blue) conditions. Vertical black lines represent the standard error of trends. Solid red circles represent that the trends are statistically significant. The numbers at the top left corner of panels indicate the magnitude of y axis.

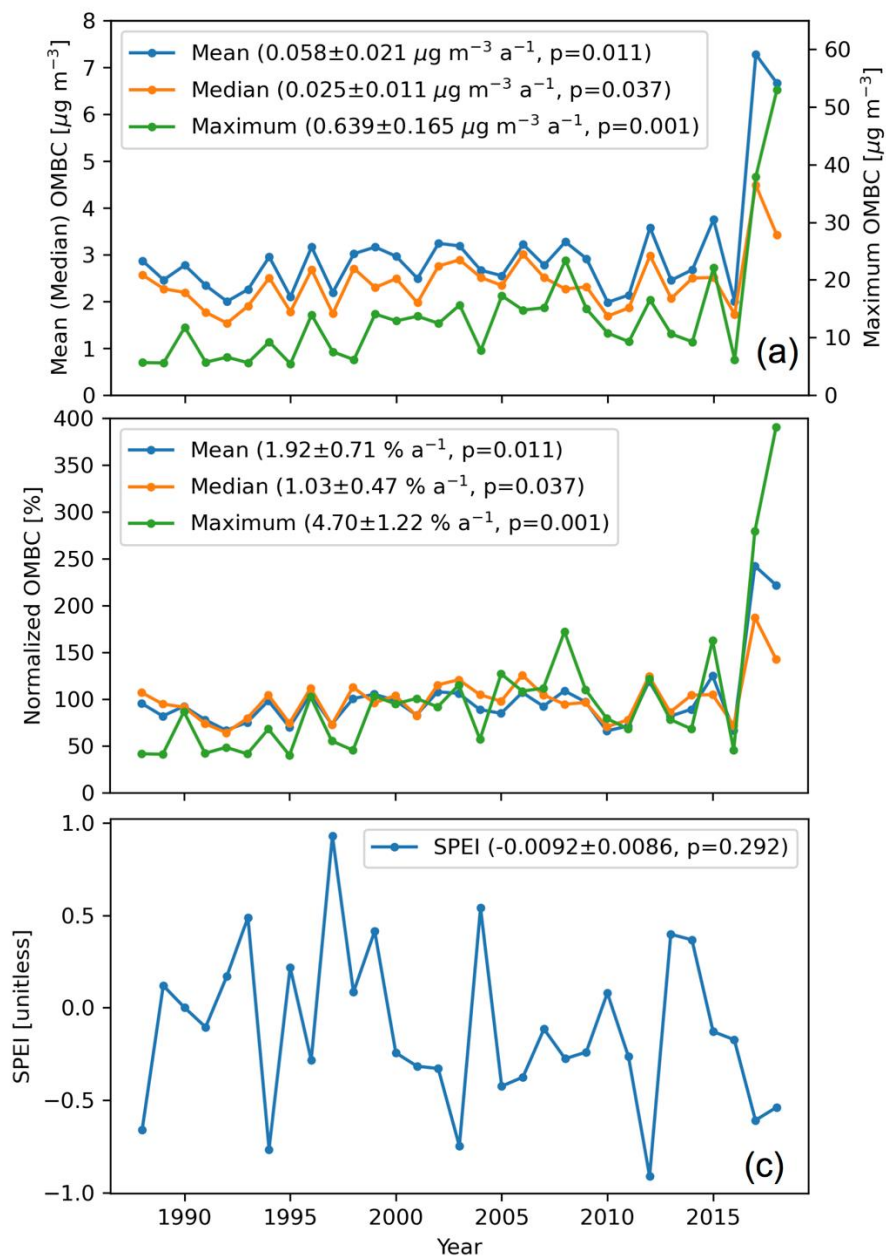


Fig. 5 Interannual variations in (a) total carbonaceous aerosols (OMBC) of seasonal and regional mean (blue), median (orange), and maximum (green) derived from monthly mean IMPROVE data and (c) SPEI over the northwestern US in summer; linear trends, their standard errors, and p-values are shown in the legend. (b) is similar to (a), but expressed as the percentage of 31-year average of the corresponding time series.

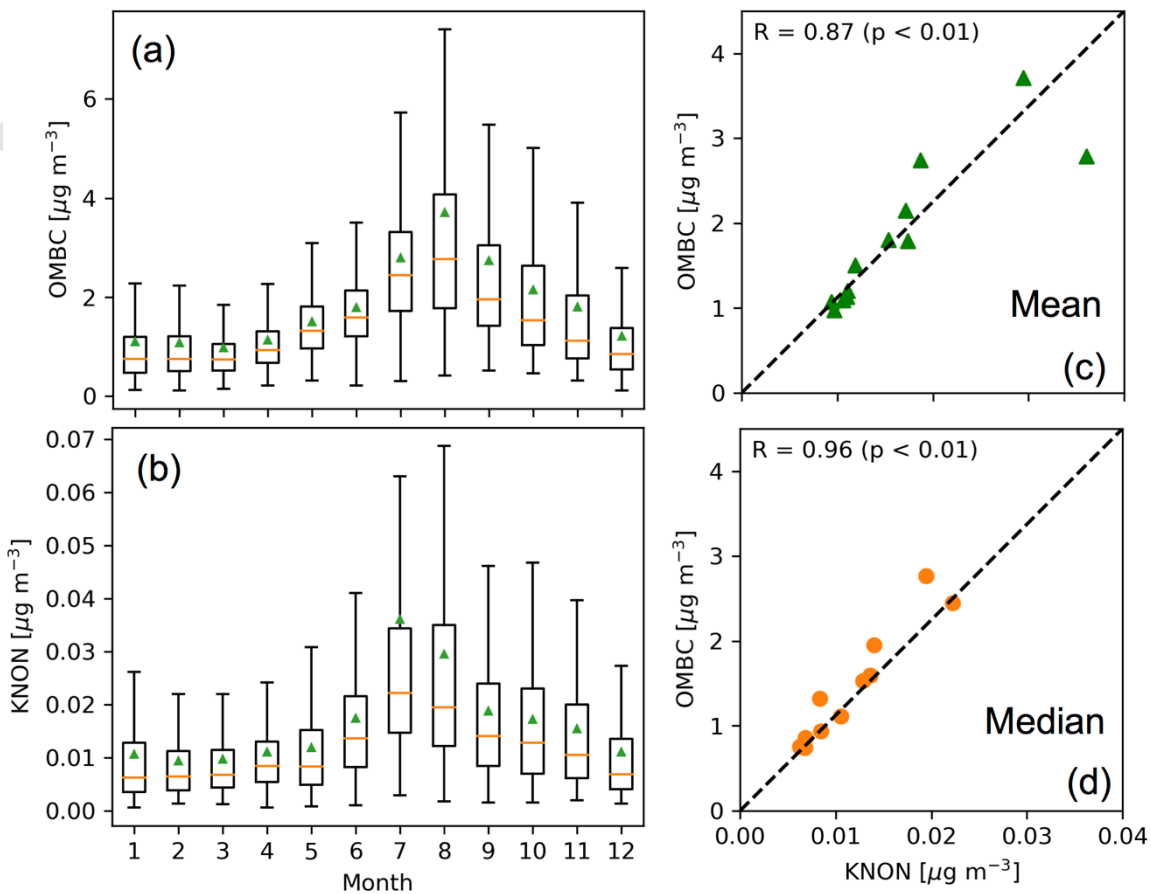


Fig. 6 Boxplots of (a) total carbonaceous aerosols (OMBC) and (b) non-soil potassium (KNON) during 1988-2018 in every month over the northwestern US. Scatter plots of the monthly mean (c) and median (d) of total carbonaceous aerosols from (a) versus non-soil potassium from (b). Linear correlation coefficients and p-values are shown in the scatter plots.

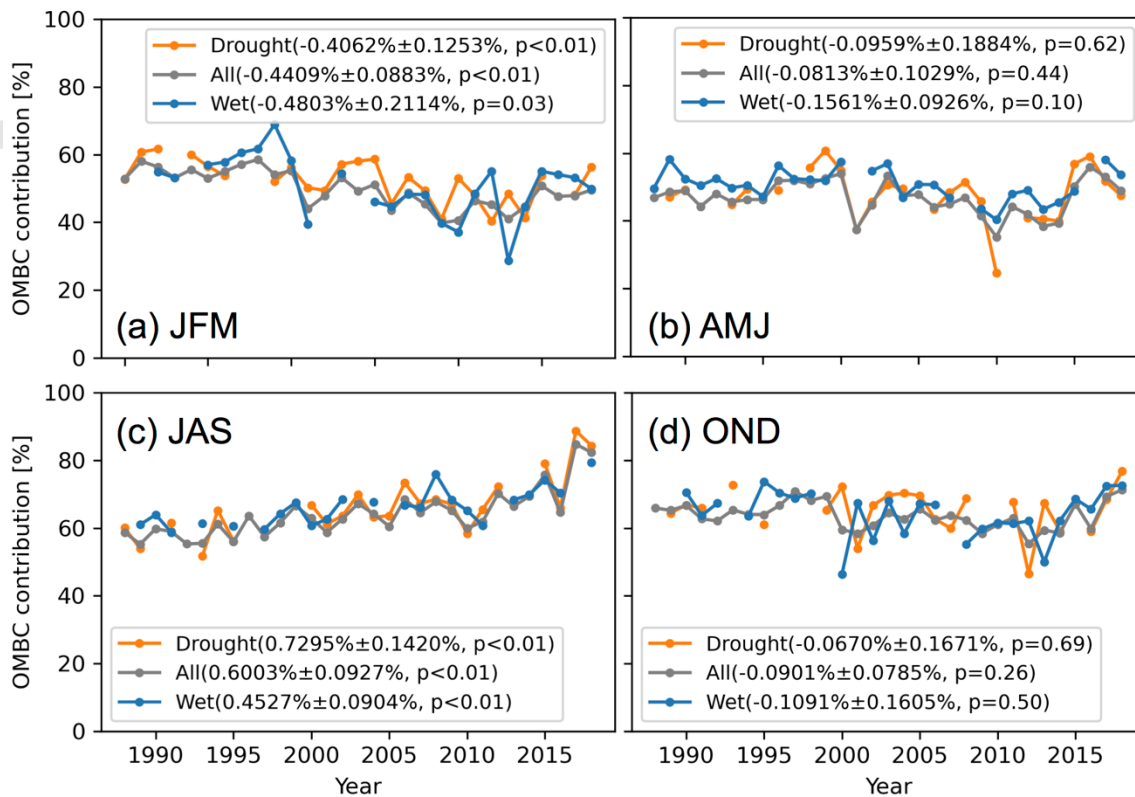


Fig. 7 The 1988-2018 trends in the percentage of total carbonaceous aerosols (OMBC) in the reconstructed PM_{2.5} mass in (a) winter (JFM), (b) spring (AMJ), (c) summer (JAS), and (d) fall (OND) derived under drought (orange), all (grey), and wet (blue) conditions over the northwestern US; linear trends, their standard errors, and p-values are shown in the legend.