

# **Towards Better and Healthier Air Quality: Implementation of WHO 2021 Global Air Quality Guidelines in Asia**

Huiling Ouyang<sup>a</sup>, Xu Tang<sup>a</sup>, Rajesh Kumar<sup>b</sup>, Renhe Zhang<sup>a</sup>, Guy Brasseur<sup>c</sup>, Ben Churchill<sup>d</sup>,  
Mozaharul Alam<sup>e</sup>, Haidong Kan<sup>a</sup>, Hong Liao<sup>f</sup>, Tong Zhu<sup>g</sup>, Emily Ying Yang Chan<sup>h</sup>, Ranjeet  
Sokhi<sup>i</sup>, Jiacan Yuan<sup>a</sup>, Alexander Baklanov<sup>j</sup>, Jianmin Chen<sup>a</sup>, Maria Katherina Patdu<sup>c</sup>

<sup>a</sup> *Monitoring, Analysis, and Prediction of Air Quality (MAP-AQ) Asian Office Shanghai & Integrated Research  
on Disaster Risk (IRDR) International Centre of Excellence (ICoE) on Risk Interconnectivity and Governance  
on Weather/Climate Extremes Impact and Public Health, Department of Atmospheric and Oceanic Sciences,  
Fudan University, Shanghai, China*

<sup>b</sup> *Research Applications Laboratory, National Center for Atmospheric Research, Boulder, Colorado*

<sup>c</sup> *Max Planck Institute for Meteorology, Hamburg, Germany*

<sup>d</sup> *World Meteorological Organization (WMO) Regional Office for Asia and the South-West Pacific, Singapore*

<sup>e</sup> *United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) Asia and the Pacific Office, Bangkok, Thailand*

<sup>f</sup> *Jiangsu Key Laboratory of Atmospheric Environment Monitoring and Pollution Control, Jiangsu  
Collaborative Innovation Center of Atmospheric Environment and Equipment Technology, School of  
Environmental Science and Engineering, Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology, Nanjing,  
China*

<sup>g</sup> *College of Environmental Sciences and Engineering, Peking University, Beijing, China*

<sup>h</sup> *Collaborating Centre for Oxford University and CUHK for Disaster and Medical Humanitarian Response,  
Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hongkong, China*

<sup>i</sup> *Centre for Climate Change (C3R) and Centre for Atmospheric and Climate Physics (CACP), School of  
Physics, Engineering and Computer Science, University of Hertfordshire, Hatfield, UK*

<sup>j</sup> *Science and Innovation Department, World Meteorological Organization (WMO), Geneva, Switzerland*

*Corresponding author: Xu Tang, tangxu@fudan.edu.cn; Rajesh Kumar,  
rkumar@ucar.edu*

29

## ABSTRACT

30 Air pollution is estimated to contribute to approximately 7 million premature deaths, of  
31 which around 4.5 million deaths are linked to ambient (outdoor) air pollution (Murray et al.  
32 2020). The deaths attributed to air pollution rank the highest in the Asian Region and thus the  
33 implementation of the stricter World Health Organization (WHO) Global Air Quality  
34 Guidelines (AQGs) released on 22 Sep 2021 will generate the greatest health benefits in the  
35 Asian region. Here we present some key messages and recommendations at national,  
36 regional, and global level to promote the strategies for implementation of the ambitious WHO  
37 2021 AQGs in the Asian region.

38

39 On 22 Sep 2021, the World Health Organization (WHO) launched new Global Air  
40 Quality Guidelines (AQGs) to address this worldwide issue (WHO, 2021a). Except for SO<sub>2</sub>,  
41 all the other 2021 AQGs are considerably stricter than the 2005 WHO AQGs and several new  
42 indices have also been developed (Table 1). Recent advances in epidemiological and cohort  
43 studies have provided strong evidence that the adverse effects of air pollution can be  
44 observed not only at high exposure concentrations but also at very low concentration levels.  
45 As a result, after a systematic review of the accumulated evidence over the past 15 years,  
46 WHO substantially lowered AQGs to encourage further investment by countries in air quality  
47 management with the goal of minimizing the exposure of humans to air pollution. Estimates  
48 show that approximately 80% of the deaths attributed to ambient fine particulate matter  
49 (PM<sub>2.5</sub>) exposure worldwide could be avoided if the new annual PM<sub>2.5</sub> level can be met by all  
50 countries (WHO, 2021b).

51

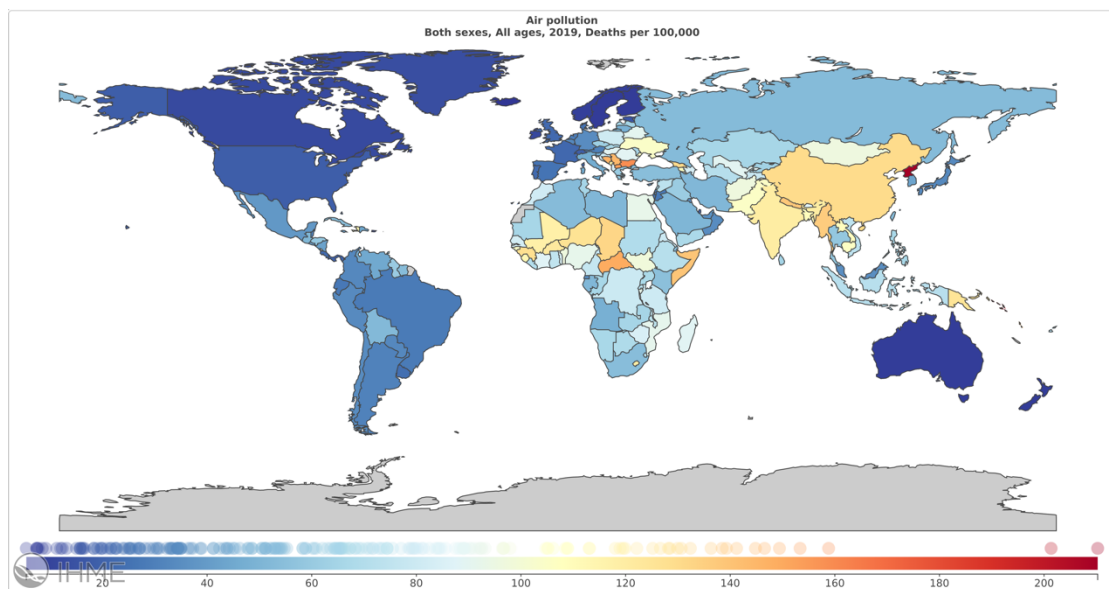
<b>Pollutant</b>	<b>Averaging Time</b>	<b>2005 AQGs</b>	<b>2021 AQGs</b>	<b>Note</b>
PM <sub>2.5</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Annual	10	5	Lower ↓
	24-Hour	25	15	Lower ↓
PM <sub>10</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Annual	20	15	Lower ↓
	24-Hour	50	45	Lower ↓
O <sub>3</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Peak season	-	60	New

	8-Hour	100	100	Same →
NO <sub>2</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	Annual	40	10	Lower ↓
	24-Hour	-	25	New
SO <sub>2</sub> (µg/m <sup>3</sup> )	24-Hour	20	40	Higher ↑
CO (mg/m <sup>3</sup> )	24-Hour	-	4	New

52 Table 1. Comparison between WHO 2005 and 2021 Air Quality Guidelines (AQGs)  
53 (Source: WHO, 2021b)

54

55 At present, air pollution is most severe in developing countries, which accounted for 91%  
56 of the global premature deaths attributable to ambient air pollution (WHO, 2021c). According  
57 to the estimation provided by Global Burden of Disease Study 2019, the deaths attributed to  
58 air pollution ranked the highest in the Asian Region (Fig. 1). More than two-third of these  
59 deaths occur in Asia alone (Murray et al. 2020). Ambient air-pollution related deaths are  
60 dominated by PM<sub>2.5</sub>, while ambient ozone pollution only accounted for about 8% of the  
61 global deaths (Murray et al. 2020). The top 10 cities with the highest ambient PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
62 concentration are located in Asia (IQAir, 2020). Thus, health benefits of improving air quality  
63 in Asia would be the greatest.



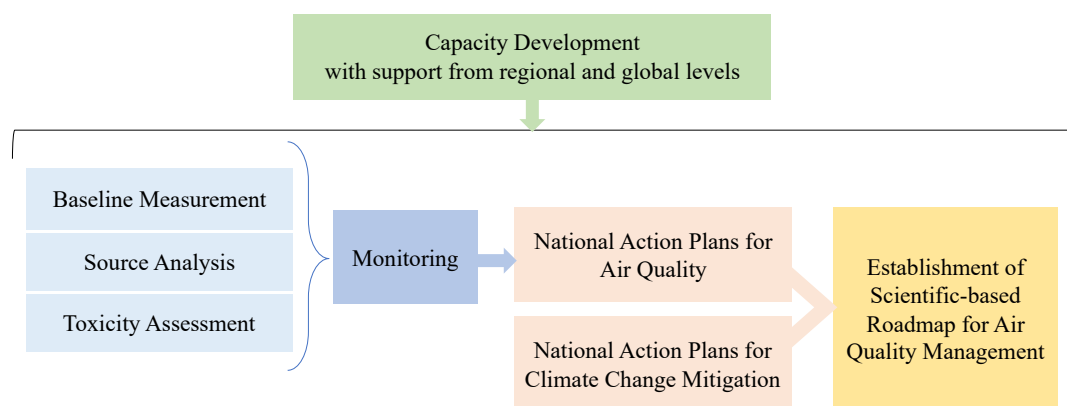
64

65 Fig. 1 Deaths attributed to air pollution in different countries and regions in 2019,  
66 according to the Global Burden of Disease Study 2019 (Murray et al. 2020). Picture was

67 captured from <https://vizhub.healthdata.org/gbd-compare/> by selecting “Air Pollution” as the  
68 “Risk” and “Deaths” as the “Measure”.

69

70 The implementation of the WHO 2021 AQGs towards a better and healthier air quality  
71 requires joint efforts and endeavors at multiple levels. Here we present some key messages  
72 and recommendations from experts in epidemiology, public health, atmospheric sciences,  
73 climatology, environmental sciences and policy development, to promote the implementation  
74 of the ambitious WHO 2021 AQGs, specifically in the Asia region (Fig. 2). Although these  
75 recommendations are intended for Asian region, they also apply to other parts of the world.



76

77 Fig. 2 Schematic map for the implementation of WHO 2021 Air Quality Guidelines,  
78 suggested by the present study.

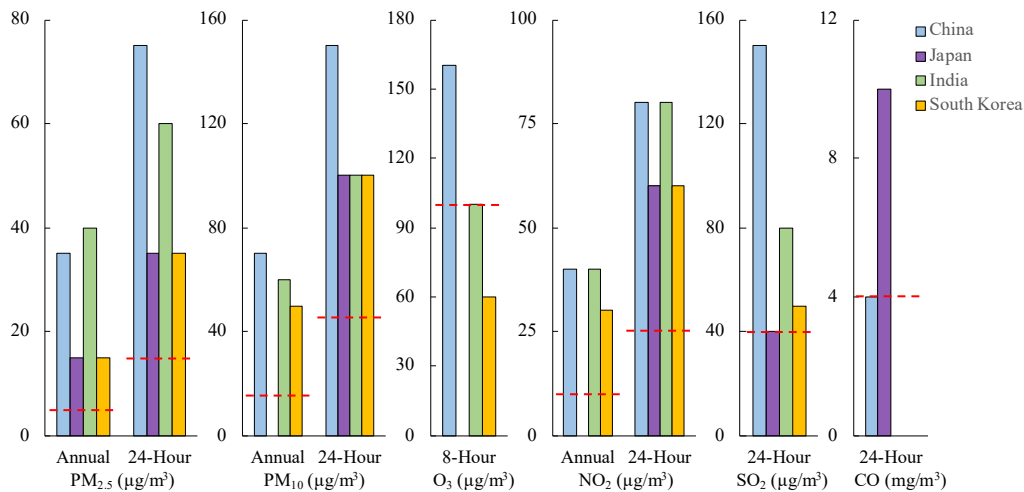
79

## 80 **Take Immediate Action to Reduce Health Burden**

81 Whilst not legally-binding, the WHO AQGs are an evidence-informed tool to guide  
82 legislation and policies to improve air quality and reduce the burden of disease from exposure  
83 to air pollution. At the moment, no country at global level meets all of the WHO 2021 AQGs,  
84 when national averages are considered. Therefore, all countries need to make additional  
85 efforts to achieve the 2021 AQGs. A recent review of air quality legislation by the United  
86 Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) showed that, globally, 31% of the countries are yet  
87 ready to set up their National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) (UNEP, 2021). For  
88 countries that have already set up NAAQS, we urge a re-assessment of the current NAAQS  
89 for a possible revision to align with the WHO 2021 AQGs. A comparison of NAAQS in  
90 major Asian countries including China, Japan, India and South Korea with the WHO 2021  
91 AQGs suggests there is still much efforts to be made to improve air quality (Fig. 3). For those  
92 countries that have not yet adopted any NAAQS yet, we urge for an assessment of the current

4

93 air pollution conditions and the associated health impacts; we encourage these countries to set  
 94 up a process for adoption of their own NAAQS as soon as possible, and we urge them to  
 95 promote air pollution control through legislation.

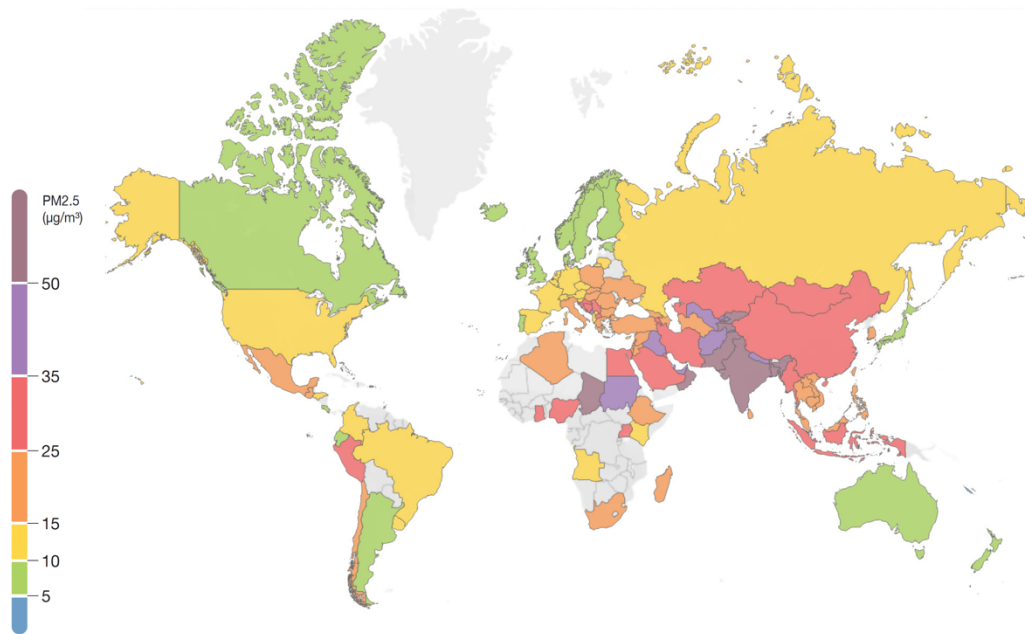


96  
 97 Fig. 3 Comparison of National Ambient Air Quality Standards of China (Blue), Japan  
 98 (Purple), India (Green) and South Korea (Yellow) with the WHO 2021 Air Quality  
 99 Guidelines (Red line).

100

101 A comparison of annual average PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentration in 2021 across countries is shown in  
 102 Fig. 4. It must be noted that achieving the stricter WHO 2021 AQGs is considerably more  
 103 challenging for developing countries, especially those in Asia and Africa, as they are still  
 104 attempting to improve the overall quality of lives for their citizens and are struggling to meet  
 105 even the 2005 AQGs. An ideal experimental result obtained during COVID-19 period  
 106 indicates that even with an unprecedented lockdown (i.e., dramatic reduction in emissions),  
 107 most cities still struggled to achieve AQGs for several pollutants including PM<sub>2.5</sub>, O<sub>3</sub> and  
 108 sometimes NO<sub>2</sub> (WMO, 2021a). For example, during lockdown periods in China, although  
 109 there were reductions in concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub>, SO<sub>2</sub>, and CO, almost all the  
 110 concentrations remained higher than the WHO AQGs as listed in Table 1, and the observed  
 111 concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and O<sub>3</sub> even increased around Beijing (Wang and Zhang, 2020). It  
 112 should be noted that in addition to the high air pollution emissions, the heavy ambient air  
 113 pollution over Asia is also attributed to the local meteorological conditions, such as weakened  
 114 surface wind speed, declined vertical wind shear between lower and higher troposphere,  
 115 increased potential temperature difference between 850 and 1,000 hPa, enhanced humidity,  
 116 and weakened Asian monsoon (Zhang et al. 2014; Li et al. 2016; Wang and Zhang, 2020).  
 117 This suggests that achieving AQGs in those countries and regions in the near future will be

118 extremely challenging. Therefore, developing countries need to adopt a stepwise approach by  
119 utilizing the interim targets of WHO AQGs as stepping stones. Every effort should be taken  
120 to achieve a lower level of air pollution to gain health benefits and save lives. For instance,  
121 0.37 million premature deaths in China were avoided with the decrease of national PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
122 level from 61.8 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in 2013 to 42.0 µg/m<sup>3</sup> in 2017, owing to the toughest-ever clean air  
123 policy (Zhang et al. 2019). More importantly, action should be taken now, as early as  
124 possible, instead of later.



125  
126 Fig. 4 Spatial distribution of country-wise annual average PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels in 2021. Some  
127 countries are in grey color due to lack of sufficient monitoring data. Picture is captured from  
128 <https://www.iqair.cn/cn/world-air-quality-report>.

129

### 130 **Policy Integration with Climate Actions towards Co-Health Benefits**

131 We have stepped into a climate-emergency era in which rapid actions to mitigate climate  
132 warming threats have become a top priority for governments around the world. Climate  
133 change and air pollution are interconnected and are exerting a combined effect on public  
134 health (Zhang et al. 2022). Evidence suggests that climate change may deteriorate air quality  
135 through altering emissions, reactions, and transport of chemical species as well as stagnant  
136 weather conditions, which play an important role in driving air pollution events (Zhang,  
137 2017). It is also well understood that climate actions including reducing fossil fuels  
138 consumption and a shift to clean energy would not only contribute to mitigation of climate

139 change, but will also significantly improve air quality (WHO, 2021b). A recent study shows  
140 that, if China achieves carbon neutrality by 2060, the average annual PM<sub>2.5</sub> could be reduced  
141 from 34.7 µg/m<sup>3</sup> (2020) to 8 µg/m<sup>3</sup> (2060) (Cheng et al. 2021). Climate actions to achieve  
142 carbon neutrality will therefore provide an excellent opportunity to reduce air pollution  
143 levels. The holistic integration of air quality control goals with climate actions will  
144 significantly reduce health burdens and should be considered as a whole by policy-makers to  
145 maximize health benefits.

## 146 **A Step Forward: Health-Impact-Based Governance for the Control of** 147 **Particulate Matter**

148 While other pollutants are single compounds, PM is composed of numerous components  
149 including sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, black carbon, organic carbon, dust, sea-salt, and may  
150 also attach virus, bacteria and bio-allergens. Many studies have shown that the health impact  
151 of the same mass concentration of PM may vary significantly due to the differences in the  
152 particle composition, toxicity, weather, and mixing (Li et al. 2019; Daellenbach et al. 2020;  
153 Vermeulen et al. 2020). Therefore, deep investigation is required to support the shift from  
154 concentration-based governance to targeted health-impact-based governance for PM control,  
155 with the development of a new operable metric which is more targeted. This is particularly  
156 important in light of the 2021 AQGs because several regions (e.g., in the Middle East,  
157 northwestern parts of India and China) might never be able to achieve an annual average  
158 PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass concentration of 5 µg/m<sup>3</sup> due to high natural abundance of dust aerosols.

159 Understanding the composition of the PM is essential for health impact assessment. Thus,  
160 the monitoring infrastructure should include not only concentration measurements, but also  
161 provide information on the composition and the toxicity of the PM. Moreover, it is important  
162 to have a full understanding of the sources of the pollutants and their related toxicity. In  
163 addition to anthropogenic contributions, natural sources including natural dust, sea salt, and a  
164 fraction of biomass burning are also responsible for air pollution. Only if the contributions  
165 from different sources are well quantified, it will be possible to identify, optimize and  
166 implement cost-effective policies for reducing the health impacts.

## 167 **Efforts towards the Implementation of AQGs**

168 The disparity in air quality levels across the world is significant. In some regions, for  
169 example, the background concentration of PM from natural sources (e.g., from wildfires, sea

170 salt, or sand/dust storms) is already higher than the 2021 AQGs levels, making it challenging  
171 for these regions to achieve the guideline levels. For example, the background PM<sub>2.5</sub> level at  
172 Mumbai, India was found to be 33 ± 7 µg/m<sup>3</sup> (Beig et al. 2020), which is 6.6 times higher  
173 than the 2021 AQGs. The background PM<sub>2.5</sub> level at Beijing, China was found to be 30.6  
174 µg/m<sup>3</sup> (CMA, 2021), which is 6 times higher than the 2021 AQGs. Further investigation is  
175 necessary to assess and understand the relevant background conditions at national and  
176 regional levels. WMO and partners are working in this direction within the Sand and Dust  
177 Storm Warning Advisory and Assessment System (SDS-WAS) (WMO, 2021b) and  
178 Vegetation Fire and Smoke Pollution Warning Advisory and Assessment System (VFSP-  
179 WAS) (Baklanov et al. 2021) research projects for Asia and Pacific in particular.

180 While the WHO 2021 AQGs is meant to guide the wide community internationally,  
181 localization of AQGs for different regions to guide regional legislation, considering the  
182 differences in surface environment and background levels, may be more meaningful.  
183 Therefore, we recommend that WHO and UNEP work together with other regional  
184 organizations through their Regional Offices to lead the development of regional guidance,  
185 for a better and smooth implementation of AQGs. International and regional groups, such as  
186 the WMO Global Atmosphere Watch Urban Research Meteorology and Environment  
187 (GURME) and Monitoring, Analysis, and Prediction of Air Quality (MAP-AQ) communities,  
188 should be involved as hubs of expertise in support of the implementation of AQGs. In this  
189 direction, it is also important to consider urban cross-cutting foci to support the realization of  
190 effective urban air quality forecasting and information systems (Sokhi et al. 2021) and  
191 integrate urban weather, climate and environmental systems and services (IUS) (Baklanov et  
192 al. 2018; Grimmond et al. 2020) in an effort to promote for environment and climate smart  
193 cities.

## 194 **Make Sure No One is Left Behind for A Fairer World**

195 The disparity in the air quality and related health burden between developed countries and  
196 Least Developed Countries (LDCs) should be addressed. Support to the LDCs that are  
197 severely affected by air pollution are urgently needed to create a more equal, fair, and  
198 healthier world. The vulnerable groups including children, women, elderly people, and those  
199 who have suffered basic health problems should also be supported so that their health can be  
200 improved.



201 Observations represent the fundamental basis for all the evaluation. Without accurate  
202 observational data, there is no reliable and convincing information on the level of air  
203 pollution and its impacts, which is a prerequisite for developing any improvement strategy.  
204 Monitoring facilities are still lacking in large parts of the world, especially the measurements  
205 of components of PM in less-developed regions. In some countries, although monitoring  
206 facilities are available, the accuracy, sharing, and consistency of the data remain a concern.  
207 This paper calls for increased investments and funding to support the development of  
208 fundamental monitoring infrastructure. The aim must be to develop a global air quality  
209 monitoring network so that no one is left behind (Kumar et al. 2018; WMO, 2017).

210 In addition, capacity development of the associated technical staff and research scientists  
211 is crucial for the implementation of science-based policy making. This includes, but is not  
212 limited to, training for data quality control, chemical analytic methods, particle composition  
213 analysis, health impact evaluation, air quality forecasting, source attribution modeling, and  
214 approaches to policy decision making. Strengthened international cooperation and  
215 collaboration between multi-stakeholders including academia, universities/institutes,  
216 government agencies, international organizations, donors, and enterprises is required to  
217 ensure better air quality.

218

#### 219 *Acknowledgments.*

220 The authors acknowledge the MAP-AQ Asian Office Shanghai and IRDR International  
221 Centre of Excellences at Fudan University for organizing the Air Quality and Health Seminar  
222 to address the implementation of ambitious WHO 2021 Air Quality Guidelines in Asia  
223 (<https://www.irdrinternational.org/news/882>). The authors acknowledge the support from  
224 WMO Science and Innovation Department, WMO Regional Office for Asia and the South-  
225 West Pacific, WMO/GAW GURME, WHO Public Health and the Environment Department  
226 and UNEP Asia and the Pacific Office. The National Center for Atmospheric Research is  
227 sponsored by the National Science Foundation. This work was supported by Shanghai  
228 International Science and Technology Partnership Project (21230780200). We thank the two  
229 anonymous reviewers for their insightful comments on the manuscript.

230

#### 231 *Data Availability Statement.*

232 All the data used in this manuscript are publicly available as stated in the text or in the  
233 reference.

234

## 235 REFERENCES

236 Baklanov, A., and Coauthors, 2018: From urban meteorology, climate and environment  
237 research to integrated city services. *Urban Climate*, **23**, 330–341,  
238 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.uclim.2017.05.004>.

239 Baklanov, A., and Coauthors, 2021: The WMO Vegetation Fire and Smoke Pollution  
240 Warning Advisory and Assessment System (VFSP-WAS): Concept, Current Capabilities,  
241 Research and Development Challenges and the Way Ahead. *Bio. Brasil.*, **11**, 1–23,  
242 <https://doi.org/10.37002/biobrasil.v11i2.1738>.

243 Beig, G., and Coauthors, 2020: COVID-19 and environmental-weather markers: Unfolding  
244 baseline levels and veracity of linkages in tropical India. *Environ. Res.*, **191**,  
245 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envres.2020.110121>.

246 Cheng, J., and Coauthors, 2021: Pathways of China's PM<sub>2.5</sub> air quality 2015–2060 in the  
247 context of carbon neutrality. *Natl. Sci. Rev.*, **8**, <https://doi.org/10.1093/nsr/nwab078>.

248 China Meteorological Administration (CMA), 2021: Atmospheric, Environmental, and  
249 Meteorological Bulletin 2020. 50 pp,  
250 <http://zwgk.cma.gov.cn/zfxxgk/gknr/qxbg/202104/P020210901332524643055.pdf>.

251 Daellenbach, K. R., and Coauthors, 2020: Sources of particulate-matter air pollution and its  
252 oxidative potential in Europe. *Nature*, **587**, 414–419, [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-020-2902-8)  
253 2902-8.

254 Grimmond, S., and Coauthors, 2020: Integrated urban hydrometeorological, climate and  
255 environmental services: Concept, methodology and key messages. *Urban Climate*, **33**,  
256 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.uclim.2020.100623>.

257 IQAir, 2021: 2020 World air quality report. 41 pp, [https://www.iqair.com/world-most-](https://www.iqair.com/world-most-polluted-cities/world-air-quality-report-2020-en.pdf)  
258 [polluted-cities/world-air-quality-report-2020-en.pdf](https://www.iqair.com/world-most-polluted-cities/world-air-quality-report-2020-en.pdf).

259 Kumar, R., V. H. Peuch, J. H. Crawford, G. Brasseur, 2018: Five steps to improve air-quality  
260 forecasts. *Nature*, **561**, 27–29, <https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-018-06150-5>.

261 Li, Q., R. H. Zhang, Y. Wang, 2016: Interannual variation of the wintertime fog-haze days  
262 across central and eastern China and its relation with East Asian winter monsoon. *Int. J.*  
263 *Climatol.*, **36**, 346–354, <https://doi.org/10.1002/joc.4350>.

264 Li, X. D., J. Ling, H. D. Kan, 2019: Air pollution: a global problem needs local fixes. *Nature*,  
265 **570**, 437–439, <https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-019-01960-7>.

266 Murray, C. J. L., and Coauthors, 2020: Global burden of 87 risk factors in 204 countries and  
267 territories, 1990–2019: a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study  
268 2019. *The Lancet*, **396**, 1223–1249, [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(20\)30752-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(20)30752-2).

269 Sokhi, R. S., and Coauthors, 2021: Advances in Air Quality Research – Current and  
270 Emerging Challenges. *Atmos. Chem. Phys. Discuss.*, [https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-2021-](https://doi.org/10.5194/acp-2021-581)  
271 581.

272 United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP), 2021: Regulating Air Quality: the First  
273 Global Assessment of Air Pollution Legislation. 102 pp,  
274 [https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/36666/RAQ\\_GAAPL.pdf](https://wedocs.unep.org/bitstream/handle/20.500.11822/36666/RAQ_GAAPL.pdf).

275 Vermeulen, R., E. L. Schymanski, A. L. Barabási, G. W. Miller, 2020: The exposome and  
276 health: Where chemistry meets biology. *Science*, **367**, 392–396,  
277 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aay3164>.

278 Wang, X., R. Zhang, 2020: How did air pollution change during the COVID-19 outbreak in  
279 China? *Bull. Amer. Meteor. Soc.*, **101**, E1645–E1652, [https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-](https://doi.org/10.1175/BAMS-D-20-0102.1)  
280 20-0102.1.

281 World Health Organization (WHO), 2021a: WHO global air quality guidelines: particulate  
282 matter (PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>), ozone, nitrogen dioxide, sulfur dioxide and carbon monoxide.  
283 Accessed 21 Dec 2021, <https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240034228>.

284 World Health Organization (WHO), 2021b: WHO global air quality guidelines: Questions  
285 and Answers. Accessed 21 Dec 2021, [https://www.who.int/news-room/questions-and-](https://www.who.int/news-room/questions-and-answers/item/who-global-air-quality-guidelines)  
286 [answers/item/who-global-air-quality-guidelines](https://www.who.int/news-room/questions-and-answers/item/who-global-air-quality-guidelines).

287 World Health Organization (WHO), 2021c: Ambient (outdoor) air pollution – Key facts.  
288 Accessed 21 Dec 2021, [https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/ambient-](https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/ambient-(outdoor)-air-quality-and-health)  
289 [\(outdoor\)-air-quality-and-health](https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/ambient-(outdoor)-air-quality-and-health).

290 World Meteorological Organization (WMO), 2017: WMO Global Atmosphere Watch  
291 (GAW) Implementation Plan:2016-2023. Accessed 22 Jan 2022,  
292 [https://library.wmo.int/doc\\_num.php?explnum\\_id=3395](https://library.wmo.int/doc_num.php?explnum_id=3395).

293 World Meteorological Organization (WMO), 2021a: WMO Air Quality and Climate Bulletin.  
294 Accessed 21 Dec 2021, [https://public.wmo.int/en/our-mandate/focus-](https://public.wmo.int/en/our-mandate/focus-areas/environment/air_quality)  
295 [areas/environment/air\\_quality](https://public.wmo.int/en/our-mandate/focus-areas/environment/air_quality).

296 World Meteorological Organization (WMO), 2021b: WMO Dust Airborne Bulletin.  
297 Accessed 22 Jan 2022, [https://library.wmo.int/doc\\_num.php?explnum\\_id=10732](https://library.wmo.int/doc_num.php?explnum_id=10732).

298 Zhang, Q., and Coauthors, 2019: Drivers of improved PM<sub>2.5</sub> air quality in China from 2013 to  
299 2017. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.*, **116**, 24463–24469,  
300 <https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1907956116>.

301 Zhang, R. H., and Coauthors, 2022: From concept to action: A united, holistic and One  
302 Health approach to respond to the climate change crisis. *Infect. Dis. Poverty*, **11**, 1–6,  
303 <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40249-022-00941-9>.

304 Zhang, R. H., 2017: Warming boosts air pollution. *Nature Clim. Change*, **7**, 238–239,  
305 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nclimate3257>.

306 Zhang, R., Q. Li, and R. Zhang, 2014: Meteorological conditions for the persistent severe fog  
307 and haze event over eastern China in January 2013. *Sci. China Earth Sci.*, **57**, 26–35,  
308 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11430-013-4774-3>.