

## 1 **Source Sector and Region Contributions to BC and PM<sub>2.5</sub> in Central Asia**

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32

33 **Abstract**

34 Particulate matter (PM) mass concentrations, seasonal cycles, source sector and source region  
35 contributions in Central Asia (CA) are analyzed for the period April 2008-July 2009 using the  
36 Sulfur Transport and dEposition Model (STEM) chemical transport model and modeled  
37 meteorology from the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model. Predicted Aerosol  
38 Optical Depth (AOD) values (annual mean value ~0.2) in CA vary seasonally with lowest values  
39 in the winter. Surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations (annual mean value ~10 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) also exhibit a  
40 seasonal cycle, with peak values and largest variability in the spring/summer, and lowest values  
41 and variability in the winter (hourly values from 2 – 90 µg/m<sup>3</sup>). Surface concentrations of black  
42 carbon (BC) (mean value ~0.1 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) show peak values in the winter. The simulated values are  
43 compared to surface measurements of AOD, and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, BC, organic carbon (OC) mass  
44 concentrations at two regional sites in the Kyrgyz Republic (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka (LST)  
45 and Bishkek). The predicted values of AOD and PM mass concentrations and their seasonal  
46 cycles are fairly well captured. The carbonaceous aerosols are underpredicted in winter, and  
47 analysis suggests that the winter heating emissions are underestimated in the current inventory.

48 Dust, from sources within and outside CA, is a significant component of the PM mass and drives  
49 the seasonal cycles of PM and AOD. On an annual basis, the power and industrial sectors are  
50 found to be the most important contributors to the anthropogenic portion of PM<sub>2.5</sub>. Residential  
51 combustion and transportation are shown to be the most important sectors for BC. Biomass  
52 burning within and outside the region also contributes to elevated PM and BC concentrations.  
53 The analysis of the transport pathways and the variations in particulate matter mass and

54 composition in CA demonstrate that this region is strategically located to characterize regional  
55 and intercontinental transport of pollutants. Aerosols at these sites are shown to reflect dust,  
56 biomass burning and anthropogenic sources from Europe, South, East and CA, and Russia  
57 depending on the time period.

58 Simulations for a reference 2030 emission scenario based on pollution abatement measures  
59 already committed to in current legislation show that  $PM_{2.5}$  and BC concentrations in the region  
60 increase, with BC growing more than  $PM_{2.5}$  on a relative basis. This suggests that both the health  
61 impacts and the climate warming associated with these particles may increase over the next  
62 decades unless additional control measures are taken. The importance of observations in CA to  
63 help characterize the changes that are rapidly taking place in the region are discussed.

64 **1. Introduction**

65 Central Asia (CA), a region of republics located between Europe and Asia, faces severe  
66 environmental problems, with origins dating back to the 1960s and best symbolized by the Aral  
67 Sea catastrophe (Whish-Wilson, 2002). The Aral Sea has shrunk to only about 30 percent of its  
68 1960 volume and roughly half its geographical size due to diversion of water for crop cultivation  
69 and other purposes. The resulting desertification of the lake-bed has resulted in extensive dust  
70 storms from the region, which have impacted the surrounding agriculture, ecosystem, and the  
71 population's health.

72 The 2012 Environmental Performance Index (EPI), which tracks performance of 132  
73 countries across a variety of environmental and ecosystem vitality indicators, ranked CA  
74 countries among the weakest performers (Kazakhstan 129, Uzbekistan 130, Turkmenistan 131,  
75 Tajikistan 121, and Kyrgyzstan 101) (Emerson et al., 2012). CA and the surrounding areas are  
76 developing quickly and air pollution emissions are projected to increase significantly for the next  
77 several decades (Shindell et al., 2012). In recognition of the need to improve the environmental  
78 conditions in the region five CA countries have formulated the Framework Convention on  
79 Preservation of Environment for Sustainable Development of CA (UNEP, 2006).

80 Despite the awareness of the environmental conditions, it remains an understudied region  
81 and there is a general lack of air pollution observations within CA. Furthermore the recent  
82 assessment of the intercontinental transport of pollution (HTAP, 2010) has indicated that the  
83 major transport pathway of pollution from Europe to Asia is via low altitude flows passing  
84 through CA. The magnitude of the pollution transport from Europe to Asia is highly uncertain in  
85 large part due to the lack of observations of pollutants along this pathway. To help better  
86 characterize the air pollution levels and the transport pathways in the region a study was

87 undertaken between Russia, Kyrgyz Republic, and USA scientists to observe and model aerosols  
88 in the region. Measurements of particulate matter (PM) mass and composition were taken at two  
89 locations in the Kyrgyz Republic (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka (LST) and Bishkek) and  
90 modeling analysis was performed to assess the contributions of local, regional and distant  
91 sources to the PM concentrations in the region (Miller-Schulze et al., 2012, Chen et al., 2012,  
92 2013).

93 In this paper we present a modeling analysis of  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $PM_{10}$ , ( $PM_{2.5}$  refers to particles in  
94 the size range of less than  $2.5 \mu m$  aerodynamic diameter (AD) and  $PM_{10}$  refers to particles in the  
95 size range of less than  $10 \mu m$  AD), black carbon (BC) and organic carbon (OC) mass  
96 concentrations and aerosol optical depth (AOD) over the time period of April 2008 to July 2009.  
97 The Sulfur Transport and dEposition Model (STEM), a hemispheric chemical transport model  
98 (D'Allura et al., 2011), is used to estimate spatial and temporal variations in PM in CA, and to  
99 assess the contributions to PM from wind-blown dust, open biomass burning, and anthropogenic  
100 sources, and different geographical source regions and source sectors (transportation, power,  
101 industry and residential). The simulated values are compared to surface measurements of AOD,  
102  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $PM_{10}$ , BC, OC mass concentrations at the two regional sites in CA. The transport of  
103 aerosols into CA is also explored through three dimensional backward trajectory analysis.  
104 Transport from CA and their impacts on downwind areas are also analyzed via forward trajectory  
105 analysis. Finally we present results of how the PM concentrations may change in the future using  
106 emission scenarios for 2030 that reflect possible air quality and climate policies.

107

## 108 **2. Data and Methods**

## 109 2.1. Observations

110 Surface observations from two sites established in the Kyrgyz Republic to measure PM  
111 concentrations and AOD in CA are used in the analysis. The locations of the Bishkek  
112 (42°40'46.65"N, 74°41'38.13"E, elevation 1743 above sea level (ASL)) and LST  
113 (42°27'49.38"N, 78°31'44.17"E, elevation 1921 m ASL) sites are denoted by circle and triangle  
114 markers, respectively, in Fig. 1. Both sampling sites are in mountain ranges with valleys to the  
115 north, with mountains that reach elevations greater than 3500 m ASL south of the Bishkek site  
116 and 4600 m ASL south of the LST site, and essentially no population to the south. At each site,  
117 PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass was measured continuously with tapered element oscillating microbalance (TEOM)  
118 instruments and PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, BC, and OC were obtained using filter-based sampling with  
119 samples collected for 24 h every other day. AOD was measured every day at 10:30 am local time  
120 (LT) using Microtops-II sun-photometers (SP). A stationary three wavelength aerosol Lidar  
121 measured vertical profiles of extinction and depolarization on an event basis at the LST site. The  
122 Lidar vertical profiles provide information on vertical distribution of the particles, and were also  
123 used to calculate AOD from the Lidar Extinction (LE) profiles and to estimate the height of the  
124 planetary boundary layer (PBL) as described in Chen et al., (2013). These observations sites are  
125 now part of the UNEP project ABC measurement network  
126 (<http://www.rrcap.ait.asia/abc/index.cfm>). Further details of the study can be found in Miller-  
127 Schulze et al., (2011). Observations from these sites were obtained for the period April 2008 to  
128 July 2009 (the TEOM measurements were available from April 2008 and filter measurements  
129 began from July 1, 2008).

130 The Moderate Resolution Imaging Spectroradiometer (MODIS) collection 5.1 Level 2  
131 AOD products (~ 10 km horizontal resolution) at 550 nm wavelength from Terra and Aqua  
132 satellites were used to compare the observed and simulated AOD. The MODIS Level 2 data were  
133 used and included land and ocean AOD retrieved via the dark target algorithm (Remer et al.,  
134 2005, Levy et al., 2007), and the Deep Blue AOD over land (Hsu et al., 2004, Hsu et al., 2006),  
135 which can retrieve AOD over bright and desert surfaces. This is particularly relevant for the CA  
136 region, which contains major dust sources in western China, South Asia, the Middle East, and  
137 Africa (Ginoux et al., 2001). The MODIS Level 2 to Level 3 averaging procedure outlined in  
138 Hubanks et al., (2008) was employed to interpolate the 10 km Level 2 AOD products to the 60  
139 km horizontal model resolution on a daily basis. Level 2 QA flag weightings were used to reduce  
140 the uncertainty associated with the MODIS retrievals. In grid cells where both the MODIS dark  
141 target and Deep Blue AOD were retrieved, the mean value of the two was used.

## 142 **2.2. Modeling System**

### 143 2.2.1 Meteorological Model

144

145 The Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) model (Skamarock et al., 2008) version  
146 3.2 was used to generate the meteorological fields needed for simulating the transport patterns in  
147 the STEM model (D'Allura et al., 2011). The WRF simulations for each day were initialized  
148 using the meteorological boundary conditions obtained from National Centers for Environmental  
149 Prediction (NCEP) Final Analysis (FNL, <http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds083.2/>). A daily 24 hour  
150 spin up time for WRF was used (i.e. WRF was run for 48 hours each day and the first 24 hours  
151 were treated as spin up and were discarded). The STEM model simulation time period was from  
152 April 2008 to July 2009.



### 153 2.2.2 Chemical Transport Model

154 The STEM model (Carmichael et al., 2009) was used to simulate the mass of sulfate, BC,  
155 OC, other primary emitted  $PM_{2.5}$ , and other primary emitted  $PM_{10}$  (i.e., non-carbonaceous PM  
156 such as fly ash, road dust, and cement), which were simulated as a single mass component with  
157 aerodynamic diameters less than or equal  $2.5 \mu\text{m}$ , and between  $2.5$  and  $10 \mu\text{m}$  (denoted as coarse  
158 fraction), respectively and referred to in this paper as  $OPM_{2.5}$  and  $OPM_{10}$ , dust (fine and coarse)  
159 and sea salt (fine and coarse). Nitrate and secondary organic aerosols (SOA) were not included in  
160 the model for this application. The nitrate aerosol is estimated to be a minor component of the  
161 PM mass in CA (Baurer et al., 2007). The importance of SOA will be discussed later in the  
162 paper. The dry deposition of aerosols was modeled using the “Resistance in Series  
163 Parameterization” (Wesely and Hicks, 2000) and wet deposition was calculated as a loss rate  
164 based on the hourly precipitation calculated from the WRF model. Further details of the wet  
165 scavenging can be found in Adhikary et al., (2007). The modeled AOD at 550 nm wavelength  
166 was calculated using the simulated three dimensional aerosol distributions and species specific  
167 extinction coefficients as described in Chung et al., (2010).

### 168 2.2.3 Modeling Domain

169 The STEM and WRF computation domains were identical, with a  $60 \times 60$  km horizontal  
170 resolution ( $249 \times 249$  horizontal grid cells) and 22 vertical layers up to 10 hPa. The domain (Fig.  
171 1) covered much of the northern hemisphere in a polar stereographic projection, centered over  
172 the Arctic region and extended to  $35^\circ$  N to include the major emission regions of North America,  
173 Europe, and Asia. This modeling system has been applied to simulate aerosol distributions in  
174 several field campaigns as described in D’Allura et al., (2011) and further details describing the

175 model can be found there. STEM was initialized with a one month spin up using March 2008.  
176 Much of the analysis for this paper is focused on the domain denoted by the rectangle centered  
177 over CA shown in Fig. 1. This domain has large gradients in topography (insert Fig. 1), which  
178 significantly impact the transport patterns in the region.

179

#### 180 2.2.4 Air Mass Trajectories

181

182 The CA observation sites are impacted by dust, anthropogenic pollution, and biomass  
183 burning emissions from various source regions. To further understand the transport pathways and  
184 source region influences on the PM distributions at these sites, three dimensional ten day air  
185 mass trajectories (both forward and backward in time) from each site were calculated for the  
186 entire time period (April 2008 – July 2009). In this trajectory analysis, we utilized the three  
187 dimensional wind fields (including u, v and w components) along with the above ground level  
188 (AGL) altitude simulated by the WRF meteorological model consistent with Dallura et al., 2011  
189 study. These trajectories describe the general flow patterns based on wind fields alone and  
190 provide useful information about the history of air mass particularly the influence of source  
191 regions over which the air mass had resided before arriving at the site of interest. Note that these  
192 trajectories do not account for any other atmospheric processes such as diffusion or chemical  
193 evolution along its path (Kurata et al, 2004 and Guttikunda et al., 2005).

194 To understand the differences in transport patterns at the surface and aloft, and to study  
195 the impact of topographic gradients in the vicinity of the sites, trajectories were initialized at  
196 different altitudes (0.1 (100m), 0.3 (300m) 0.5 (500m), 1, 2, 3, and 5 km) a.g.l at the site  
197 locations (i.e. latitude and longitude) daily every 3 hours for a ten day period both backward and

198 forward in time. The trajectories were terminated when they touched the ground, or went out of  
199 the model domain or exceeded the ten day calculation period. The trajectories (at or below 1 km)  
200 were used to characterize transport pathways impacting the surface concentrations at these sites,  
201 which are discussed later in section 3.5.

## 202 **2.3. Emissions**

### 203 **2.3.1 Base emissions**

204  
205 Anthropogenic emissions of BC, OC, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, PM<sub>10</sub>, and SO<sub>2</sub> were based on the ARCTAS  
206 emissions described in D’Allura et al., (2011), but updated with newly available information. For  
207 India and China BC, OC, and SO<sub>2</sub> emissions from Lu et al., (2011) were utilized, and INTEX-B  
208 emissions were used for the rest of Asia (Zhang et al., 2009). For Europe, the EMEP 2008  
209 (<http://www.ceip.at/webdab-emission-database/officially-reported-emission-data>) emissions were  
210 used for SO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and PM<sub>10</sub>, and the EUCAARI 2005 inventory was used for the  
211 carbonaceous particles (BC and OC) (Visschedijk et al. 2009 and Denier van der Gon et al.  
212 2009). The shipping emissions came from the IIASA base year 2005 inventory (UNEP and  
213 WMO, 2011). Mass conservative regrinding tools including MTXCALC and MTXCPL from  
214 the IOAPI m3tools suite (<http://www.baronams.com/products/ioapi/AA.html#tools>) were used to  
215 interpolate the input raw emissions described above on to the model grid.  
216  
217

218 Anthropogenic emissions for SO<sub>2</sub>, BC and OC were available by major economic sectors;  
219 i.e., transportation, residential, industry, and power. The industry and power sectors were treated  
220 as small and large point sources, respectively, and emitted into the first 6 model levels (lowest 2  
221 km). The residential and transportation emissions were treated as area sources and partitioned  
222 into the first two model levels with a 90 – 10 percent split. Monthly emission allocation factors

223 were applied over India and China for the economic sectors from Lu et al., (2011). The rest of  
224 the domain (i.e. excluding India and China) used same emission rates for all months due to  
225 unavailability of monthly emission allocation factors.

226 The Fire Inventory from NCAR (FINN v1) was used for BC, OC, CO, SO<sub>2</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub> and  
227 PM<sub>10</sub> biomass burning emissions from forest, grassland and crop residual fires. The FINN  
228 database, which is based on MODIS fire detection as thermal anomalies, provides global  
229 coverage of fire emissions at a spatial resolution of ~ 1km on a daily timescale (Wiedinmyer et  
230 al., 2011). The WRF-Chem fire utility (<http://bai.acd.ucar.edu/Data/fire/>) was employed to  
231 interpolate the speciated FINN emissions to the WRF model grid. The gridded two-dimensional  
232 FINN emissions were used as input to the WRF-Chem (Grell et al., 2005) plume rise model  
233 (Grell et al., 2011), which implements the Freitas et al., (2007) and Freitas et al., (2010)  
234 algorithm to compute injection heights and to calculate the vertical distribution of fire emissions  
235 at an hourly time step, which were further utilized as input to STEM model simulations.

236 Sea salt and dust emissions were calculated using the WRF meteorological fields based  
237 on the methods described in Gong, (2003) and Uno et al., (2004), respectively. The dust  
238 emissions were further constrained with snow cover (SNOWC variable from WRF output) and  
239 only grid cells with snow cover < 1% were used for dust emission calculations.

240 Fig. 2 shows the annual gridded anthropogenic SO<sub>2</sub> and BC, dust, and biomass burning  
241 PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions in Gg per grid in and around CA. Large BC emission hotspots can be seen over  
242 the Indo-Gangetic plain and eastern China. Significant BC emissions are also seen over Europe,  
243 but are relatively lower in intensity than the Asian sources. The SO<sub>2</sub> emissions show Eastern  
244 China as the largest source region followed by regions of South Asia, Europe, and Russia. The

245 major natural dust emission sources (Fig. 2c) include Africa, the Middle East, CA, Western India  
246 boundaries, and Western China. The major sources of biomass burning are Eastern Europe,  
247 portions of Siberian (between 40 – 60° N), Southeast Asia, Southern China and India (Fig. 2d).

248 Dust emissions have a strong seasonal cycle. The major dust sources in the region (Fig.  
249 1) are located to the east, west and south of the observation sites and include the cool winter  
250 deserts around the Aral and Caspian seas and those in western China and northern Pakistan as  
251 well as the sub-tropical deserts in western India, around the Persian Gulf and northern Africa.  
252 The emissions from the cool winter deserts occur when the surfaces are free of snow cover (from  
253 March through October). Emissions from the sub-tropical deserts can occur throughout the year.

254 The open biomass burning emissions that impact CA also have a strong seasonality with  
255 minimum impact in winter (Supplemental Materials Fig. S1). Fires typically begin in the spring  
256 in Siberia along 50° N latitude and in northern India and South East Asia and in summer the high  
257 latitude burning shifts to the west. In October the fire activity decreases and remains low until  
258 spring, with the most active fire regions associated with agricultural burning in northern India  
259 and southeast China.

### 260 **2.3.2 Future Emissions Scenarios**

261 In addition to the base emissions, a series of simulations were analyzed using emission  
262 scenarios for 2030. These scenarios were developed for the WMO/UNEP report that looked at  
263 short lived climate pollutants as described in Shindell et al., (2012) and Anenberg et al., (2012).  
264 The reference scenario for 2030 was based on the implementation of control measures currently  
265 approved in the various regions and assumed their perfect implementation. The 2030 reference

266 scenarios were developed from a reference global emissions inventory with a 2005 reference  
267 year, and assumed significant growth in fossil fuel use relative to 2005, leading to increases in  
268 estimated CO<sub>2</sub> emissions (45%). Abatement measures prescribed in current legislation were  
269 projected to lead to reductions in air pollutant emissions, which varied by pollutant and region.  
270 In the 2030 reference scenario, total primary PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions remain approximately constant,  
271 while BC and OC decline by a few percent. However, in the study domain emission changes  
272 varied widely. BC emissions increased by 10 – 100% in CA, South and Southeast Asia and in  
273 western China, and decreased in East Asia and Europe. The PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions showed similar  
274 regional changes but grew at smaller rates (10 – 40%). SO<sub>2</sub> emissions generally increased  
275 throughout the region by 10 – 20%. Spatial maps of emission changes for the 2030 reference  
276 scenario are presented in Figs. S2b, S3b, and S4b.

277         A series of emission control scenarios for 2030 were developed to evaluate the impact of  
278 additional abatement measures designed to reduce the levels of short lived climate pollutants  
279 (e.g., BC). The BC measures in the scenarios included two different sets of assumptions (low and  
280 lowest). The first focused on reductions from incomplete combustion sources. These included  
281 implementation of Euro 6 equivalent vehicle emission standards (requiring installation of diesel  
282 particulate filters) and improving traditional biomass cook stoves in developing countries  
283 (assuming 25% decrease in BC and 80 – 90% decreases in OC, CO, non-methane volatile  
284 organic compounds(NMVOC), methane, and direct PM<sub>2.5</sub>, relative to emissions from traditional  
285 stoves). Under this scenario BC and PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions in the study region are projected to decrease  
286 throughout most of the domain, with SO<sub>2</sub> emissions showing almost no change (see Figs. S2c,  
287 S3c, and S4c).

288           The lowest option assumed the additional elimination of high-emitting vehicles, biomass  
289 cook stoves (in developing countries), and agricultural waste burning. These BC measures in the  
290 lowest scenario reduced global anthropogenic BC emissions by 75%. Measures targeting BC  
291 also substantially reduced total primary PM<sub>2.5</sub> (-50%), OC (-79%), NO<sub>x</sub> (-27%), and CO (-44%).  
292 These BC measures have little impact on SO<sub>2</sub> emissions. Projected emissions of BC and OC  
293 under these scenarios are reduced most in Asia, followed by Africa. North America, and Europe.

294           These measures were also combined with a scenario designed to stabilize greenhouse  
295 gases at 450 ppm of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalent (lowest+450ppm scenario), consistent with a global average  
296 temperature increase of ~2° C. These CO<sub>2</sub> measures reduced SO<sub>2</sub> (-30%) (Fig. S4d) and NO<sub>x</sub> (-  
297 20%), but had little further impact on BC (~5% decline, Fig. S2d) since the major sources of CO<sub>2</sub>  
298 differ from those of BC. PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions were substantially further reduced under this scenario  
299 (Fig. S3d).

#### 300   **2.4. Simulations Analyzed**

301           Several simulations were analyzed for this paper. The *base* simulation included all  
302 sources and used the meteorology from the WRF model for the period April 2008 – July 2009.  
303 To investigate the contributions from specific source sectors, additional simulations were  
304 performed where emissions from one sector were set to zero everywhere. The contribution from  
305 each sector was calculated as the difference between the base simulation and the simulation with  
306 emissions from that particular sector set to zero. This was repeated for each sector and for  
307 biomass burning. Additional simulations were performed to assess the source contribution from  
308 specific regions to the particle levels in CA. The specific regions used are shown in Fig.1. In  
309 these simulations all anthropogenic emissions were set to zero in that region. In a similar manner

310 regional dust and fire sources were also studied and the source regions are also shown in Fig.1.  
311 Finally, simulations were performed using the *reference* 2005 and 2030 emissions and the *low*  
312 and *lowest + 450 CO<sub>2</sub>* 2030 scenarios (described above). For these runs, the meteorology, open  
313 biomass burning, and dust emissions were the same as in the base run (i.e., 2008/2009).

### 314 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 315 316 **3.1. Regional Perspective**

317 CA is a region with high aerosol loadings as shown in the mean MODIS retrieved AOD  
318 at 550 nm for the time period of study (April 2008 – July 2009) (Fig. 3). AOD (period mean)  
319 throughout CA (~ 45-90° E, 35-50° N) are greater than 0.25, with the highest regional values  
320 around the desert areas near the Caspian and the Aral seas. There are also high values (>0.6)  
321 along CA's eastern border, which reflect the deserts and rapidly developing cities in western  
322 China, and to the south over Pakistan and northern India.

323 The predicted period mean AOD spatial distribution shown in Fig. 4d captures the main  
324 observed features. The period-mean predicted surface concentrations of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, BC, and total dust  
325 (fine and coarse) are also plotted. The period mean PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in CA (10 to 35 μg/m<sup>3</sup>)  
326 have a similar geographical distribution as AOD. Dust is the major component of predicted PM<sub>10</sub>  
327 in CA and concentrations are high (25-100 μg/m<sup>3</sup>). The BC levels in CA are typically less than  
328 0.3 μg/m<sup>3</sup> and its spatial pattern reflects contributions from both anthropogenic and biomass  
329 burning sources.

#### 330 **3.2 Comparison with surface observations in CA**



331 The surface observations at the two CA sites provide the opportunity for the first time to  
332 evaluate the performance of chemical transport models in estimating the distribution of aerosols  
333 in CA and to assess the emission estimates in the region. A comparison of the predicted and  
334 observed meteorology is presented in Fig. 5, where the distributions of key meteorological  
335 parameters for the entire measurement period are shown as box-plots. The model accurately  
336 predicted the magnitude and variability in temperature and relative humidity. For example the  
337 model mean value of temperature and relative humidity are 279.3K and 61.6% in comparison to  
338 the observed values of 280.3K and 59.2% at the LST site. The model wind speeds were biased  
339 high by about 30% (mostly in winter, see section 3.4) and the direction had a southwest bias.  
340 These biases are due in part to the 60 km model grid size, which is too coarse to capture the steep  
341 gradients in topography in and around the observation sites, and to the site placement in small N-  
342 S oriented valleys. More details regarding the evaluation of the modeled meteorology can be  
343 found in the Supplemental Materials, Table S1.

344 The observed and modeled distributions of AOD and PM are compared in Fig. 6. The  
345 AOD observations based on the LE on average are ~50% larger than those from the SP. Modeled  
346 AOD on average are ~20-30% higher when compared to SP at the Bishkek and LST sites and ~1  
347 % lower when compared to the LE values. The variability in the predictions is slightly under-  
348 estimated.  $PM_{2.5}$  is over predicted (~50%) and the spread is accurately captured, while  $PM_{10}$  is  
349 over predicted by ~70%. This leads to an underestimation of the  $PM_{2.5}/PM_{10}$  (0.4 predicted  
350 versus 0.5 observed) and also helps account for the overestimation in modeled AOD (by ~20-  
351 30%).

352 Chemical analysis of the filter and soil samples in the CA dust regions have been used to  
353 estimate the dust contribution to measured PM at the two sites and to help identify source regions  
354 of importance (Park et al., 2014). The emission regions within CA, including around the Aral  
355 Sea, and western China were identified as the most important dust sources, which is consistent  
356 with the regions identified in the simulations. Dust was estimated to comprise between 5-40% of  
357 PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass at the LST site and to vary by season (minimum values in winter). The observation-  
358 based estimates of dust percentage contribution suggest that modeled dust is over predicted by  
359 ~2 times. Thus it appears that dust is a main reason for the over prediction of PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub>,  
360 and that dust emission models need to be refined for CA applications.

361 The overestimation in PM mass at the surface could also be impacted by errors in the  
362 modeled PBL heights. The PBL height as determined by the Lidar aerosol profiles varies  
363 seasonally and is highest in the summer (from 2-4 km AGL) and lowest in the winter (Nov-Feb,  
364 0.5-1.5 km AGL) (Fig. S5). The predicted PBL heights show a similar seasonal cycle with a  
365 tendency to under-predict the heights in all seasons as indicated by the comparison of the  
366 distributions of the observed and predicted values (Fig. 5), and this occurs in all seasons (Fig  
367 S5). The lower PBL height in the model contributes a systematic high bias in surface  
368 concentrations driven by near surface emissions. Further statistical details of the model-  
369 observation comparison can be found in the supplemental materials (Tables SM2 & 3). The  
370 seasonal variability in the observations is discussed in further detail later (section 3.4).

371 We have evaluated this model framework in other regions outside CA including arctic  
372 region and continental US, which are summarized below. Dallura et. al., 2011 evaluated the  
373 performance of the WRF-STEM modeling framework (used in this study) through the case study

374 of the ARCTAS mission DC-8 flight conducted on July 9 2008. The WRF model compared well  
375 with observed meteorological variables (including temperature, pressure, wind speed and wind  
376 direction) along the flight and correctly simulated the various meteorological processes (i.e.  
377 cyclonic circulation, low pressure system, anticyclones and geostrophic wind flows) that  
378 facilitate transport of pollutants into the Arctic region. This study also compared CO along the  
379 flight and found that the simulated values were able to capture the magnitude and temporal  
380 variability seen in observed values. The study also found that the fires from North Asia and  
381 anthropogenic CO from China were the major sources contributing to observed CO levels along  
382 the flight suggesting that the midlatitude pollution and summertime forest fires/biomass burning  
383 transport events were well represented in the STEM model.

384         The study by Huang et al., 2012 used the STEM model to simulate summertime sectoral  
385 and regional contributions to BC over continental US and evaluated the model performance aloft  
386 and at surface using measurements from ARCTAS mission DC8 flights conducted on June 20  
387 and 22 and 24 that sampled over California and Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual  
388 Environments (IMPROVE) surface site network. Huang et al., 2012 found that the predicted BC  
389 values captured many of the vertical features seen in the flight observations with a tendency to  
390 over predict surface BC and > 4km. The comparison of predicted BC with observed values from  
391 IMPROVE network showed that the model was able to capture the gradients in BC values with  
392 high concentrations in western and eastern NA regions with slight positive and negative biases  
393 over the mountain regions and the eastern US and CA.

394         Since the Huang et al., 2012 study was focused on summer, we evaluated the simulated  
395 BC values with IMPROVE BC observations for the simulation time period (i.e. April 2008 –

396 July 2009) used in this study. The IMPROVE BC analysis is limited to 27 sites on the US west  
397 coast (i.e. west of 120 W) to be consistent with the focus of this paper (i.e., long range transport  
398 of pollutants on a hemispheric scale). The mean observed and modeled BC for the West Coast  
399 sites are  $\sim 0.16$  and  $0.19 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  ( $n = 3759$  points) with mean bias and RMSE of  $0.03 \mu\text{g m}^{-3}$  and  
400  $\sim 32\%$  respectively. The mean simulated/observed BC at surface sites is  $\sim 1.2$ , which compares  
401 well with the corresponding ratio of 1.6 reported in the global model performance over North  
402 America region by Koch et al., 2009. The detailed analysis of the IMPROVE BC sites and  
403 associated seasonality will be addressed in a future paper.

404 These studies indicate that the simulated transport patterns are able to capture the main  
405 important features of the hemispheric flows at the scale discussed here for improving the current  
406 understanding of the source receptor relationships of aerosols at intercontinental scales. The  
407 prediction of aerosol mass and composition at the hemispheric scales is also quite good, but has  
408 considerably higher uncertainties associated with emission estimates (in particular forest  
409 fires/biomass burning and natural dust emissions) and wet removal processes (Bates et al., 2006).

### 410 **3.3 Source Contributions to $\text{PM}_{2.5}$**

411 Model simulations were performed to identify the component, source region and  
412 emission sector contributions to  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  mass. Period means for the spatial average over the entire  
413 CA region (see Fig. 1) and for the grid cells for the Bishkek and LST observation locations are  
414 presented in Fig.7, and their comparison provides insights into the spatial variability of PM and  
415 its sources within CA, and how representative the observation sites are at characterizing CA PM.  
416 The component contribution to AOD at the sites and for the CA average are similar, with the  
417 major contributions coming from fine dust, sulfate, and OC. Spatial maps of mean percent

418 contributions of the various components (i.e., BC, OC, sulfate, OPM, dust and sea salt) to AOD  
419 and  $PM_{2.5}$  mass are presented in Figs. S6 & S7, respectively. Coarse particles contribute ~10% to  
420 mean AOD. Dust accounts for >60% of the calculated  $PM_{2.5}$  mass at the observation sites and for  
421 the CA region. The dust source regions (see Fig. 1) contributing to  $PM_{2.5}$  vary within CA. Dust  
422 from the CA source regions has the largest influence on the region mean dust-  $PM_{2.5}$  mass. At the  
423 LST site, which is located in the far east of CA, western China dust sources have their largest  
424 influence (~40%). African and Middle East source regions have their largest influence on the  
425 Bishkek site (20 and 15%, respectively), and collectively contribute ~25% to regional CA dust  
426  $PM_{2.5}$ .

427         The source region contributions to the non-dust  $PM_{2.5}$  are very similar for the Bishkek  
428 and LST sites, with CA sources making the largest contribution (~50%) followed by Europe  
429 (~20%), the Middle East (~15%), and biomass burning (~15% from all sources). For the entire  
430 CA region the European source contribution is as large as the CA sources (~30% each), with  
431 larger contributions from biomass burning and Russia sources and smaller contributions from  
432 Middle East emissions than at the observation sites. The significant contribution from Europe  
433 sources reflects their large anthropogenic emissions and the general westerly transport patterns.  
434 On average the impact from South Asia sources are small. North America sources contribute  
435 between 3 to 7% to  $PM_{2.5}$  in CA. Of the biomass burning contribution to  $PM_{2.5}$ , the Siberian and  
436 European fires (see Fig. 1 for fire regions) contribute 63 and 25%, respectively, with  
437 contributions from South/Southeast Asia and North America fires each contributing ~5%. The  
438 power and industrial sectors are identified by the simulations as the largest contributors (~40%  
439 each) to non-dust  $PM_{2.5}$  mass in CA.

440

### 441 **3.4. Seasonal Variations in AOD and PM at the Observation Sites**

442 AOD has a seasonal cycle with the lowest values in winter and highest values in spring  
443 and summer as shown in Fig. 8 by the AOD observations at the LST site from both the SP and  
444 the LE profiles. A similar seasonal cycle was observed at the Bishkek site (not shown) and in  
445 the MODIS AOD retrievals (Fig. S8). The modeled AOD captures this seasonal variation, with a  
446 tendency to over predict the values during the periods with the lowest observed AOD.

447 The seasonal cycles in  $PM_{2.5}$  (Fig. 9) and  $PM_{10}$  are similar to those for AOD, with  
448 minimum values in October – February. At the LST site  $PM_{2.5}$  from both the filter based and the  
449 non-volatile TEOM measurements are plotted. Both the observations and the model find a strong  
450 similarity in the time series at the two sites.

451 There is also a clear seasonality in the surface meteorology in the region as shown by the  
452 time series in surface temperature and relative humidity at the two sites (Fig. 10). There are  
453 distinct temperature minima in the winter and relative humidity minima in the summer. However  
454 there is not a clear seasonality in wind speed and direction, and the winds are generally from the  
455 south and less than 4m/s throughout the year at the LST site (not shown).

456 The source region and component contributions exhibit seasonal variability as shown by  
457 the modeled contributions to  $PM_{2.5}$  mass in Fig. 11. Dust is found to be the main driver of the  
458 seasonal cycle of  $PM_{2.5}$ . The dust contribution to  $PM_{2.5}$  is peak in spring and minimum in winter  
459 (<20%). During this time period the transport of air masses to the sites are from the west and the  
460 southwest. When the transport is from the east then dust sources from western China can impact

461 the stations. This transport pattern occurs episodically throughout the year, with contributions  
462 from western China sources as large as 20 to 50%. The dust seasonal cycle is in turn influenced  
463 by the seasonal variations in meteorology that drives the dust emissions and transport. The  
464 seasonal changes in the dust source regions can be seen in the seasonal spatial maps of AOD  
465 (Fig. S8). Throughout the domain, AOD in the dust regions are highest in March – October and  
466 lowest in winter (Fig. S8) as the nearby dessert regions are snow covered.

467 Biomass burning also adds to the seasonal cycle, and its contribution is minimum in the  
468 winter. South Asia sources can impact the sites in the winter time. The periods when North  
469 America sources impact the site are associated with strong transport events across the Atlantic  
470 and subsequent subsidence towards the surface associated with high pressure systems as they  
471 move towards CA. The transport pathways are discussed in more detail in Sect. 3.7.

### 472 **3.5 Source Contributions to BC**

473 Because of its dual role as an air pollutant and as a climate warming agent there is special  
474 interest in understanding the regional and sector contributions to BC (Ramanathan and  
475 Carmichael, et al., 2008). BC comprises on average only about 1-2% of PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass in CA. The  
476 period mean predicted BC surface concentrations are ~0.1 µg/m<sup>3</sup> at the two observation sites and  
477 0.15 µg/m<sup>3</sup> for the CA regional average. As shown in Fig. 7, European emissions contribute  
478 ~50% to the mean BC concentrations in CA, while Middle-eastern and biomass burning sources  
479 each contribute ~15-20%. Residential and transport are the most important sectors each  
480 contributing ~30% to BC in CA, followed by industry (~20%), and with power the least  
481 important. This is in contrast to the sector contributions to non-dust PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass, where power  
482 and industry are the most important sectors. On average biomass burning contributes ~10% to

483 BC mass, with Siberian and European fires accounting for 61% and 33%, respectively. The  
484 source contributions to OC are shown in Fig. S9.

485 There is also large seasonal variability in BC concentrations and source sector/region  
486 contributions (Fig. 12). BC surface concentrations show the highest values in fall/winter (as do  
487 the observations), when there is maximum contribution from the residential sector, reflecting the  
488 wide-spread use of biofuels and coal for heating in the region. The source region contributions  
489 vary by season, with maximum contributions from Europe and China. South Asia sources  
490 contribute in the winter. Biomass burning also is an important source of BC and plays an  
491 important role in influencing daily and seasonal variability in BC concentrations.

492 Predicted BC captures the seasonality and the magnitude of the spring and summer  
493 values as observed, but concentrations are biased low in the fall/winter. Median BC  
494 concentrations (and variability) are underestimated by a factor of 2 at both observation sites (Fig.  
495 6 and Tables S2&3)). The high wind speed bias in winter (~ factor of 2), should result in too  
496 rapid dispersion and could contribute to the negative bias, but the negative bias in the PBL  
497 heights should lead to higher predicted concentrations. Thus this negative bias is likely related to  
498 emissions (an indication of an underestimation of the heating fuel use).

499 The OC concentrations follow a similar seasonal cycle as BC and are also under  
500 predicted (Fig. 6 and Tables S2 & 3)). Furthermore the OC/BC ratio is under predicted by a  
501 factor of ~3 (Fig. 6). The observed OC/BC ratio follows a seasonal cycle with values >15 in  
502 summer and ~5 in September through April. Part of this under prediction in OC and the OC/BC  
503 ratio is due to the fact that SOA is not estimated in the model. However a source contribution of  
504 OC using the filter data and chemical mass balance (CMB) approach found that SOA sources



505 were very low in winter and only ~ 20% in summer (Miller-Schulze et al., 2011). Thus SOA  
506 cannot account for the model under prediction of winter values. There appears to be an  
507 underestimation of regional OC primary emissions. SOA can however help account for the large  
508 values of OC/BC observed in the summer and not predicted.

509 Biomass burning emissions cannot account for the underestimation in winter BC and  
510 OC. The largest impact of fires at the observation sites is in the late summer, when the fires are  
511 concentrated in western Russia and the wind direction is such that the smoke is transported into  
512 CA. Fires from South Asia can impact the sites associated with the fires and high pollution levels  
513 in northern India and with winds from the south, which can occur in late fall, but not frequently.

514 The fact that BC and OC are systematically under predicted in the winter suggests that  
515 local/regional emissions during the heating season may be underestimated. This is supported by  
516 the results of the CMB analysis of OC discussed above that found the contribution from biofuel  
517 combustion increased 2-3 times in the fall and winter periods. The uncertainty in emissions can  
518 also be partly caused by the lack of seasonal emissions over this region as described earlier in  
519 section 2.

520

### 521 **3.6 Vertical Distributions**

522 Figure 13 shows the predicted weekly averaged vertical distributions of PM<sub>2.5</sub>, dust, and  
523 BC for the entire simulation period at the LST site. These plots show more clearly that much of  
524 the variability in the PM loadings is associated with dust and biomass burning episodes (as  
525 represented by the enhancements in BC). Typically the high PM episodes show elevated PM

526 mass that extend from the surface to 2 to 4 km. The vertical extents show a seasonality  
527 associated with seasonal variations in the PBL heights. These vertical distributions indicate that  
528 much of the transport of aerosols in CA occurs via low altitude pathways. In some cases there are  
529 large amounts of dust and biomass burning aerosol in the 3-6 km altitude range that are  
530 decoupled from the surface (e.g., dust in early May 2009), reflecting that some aerosols are lifted  
531 out of the boundary layer and are transported at high altitude over CA, enhancing AOD but not  
532 contributing to ground-level mass concentrations at the observation sites. These vertical features  
533 are confirmed by the aerosol extinction profiles observed at the LST site as discussed in Chen et  
534 al., (2012 b). The variation in weekly averaged AOD can be significant (Fig. 13 bottom panel)  
535 and is driven by variations in dust and biomass burning emissions.

536

### 537 **3.7 Transport Pathways**

538 The three dimensional ten day air mass trajectories (described in section 2.2) were utilized to  
539 further understand the transport pathways of air masses entering into and exiting out of the CA  
540 region and its subsequent impact of source regions on the aerosol distributions at the CA sites.

541

#### 542 3.7.1 Transport into CA

543 The air mass transport into CA is discussed through back trajectories associated with the  
544 five events labeled on Fig. 13. These five events represent transport episodes with elevated  
545 surface  $PM_{2.5}$  (averaged over the three hour time window consistent with trajectory time step)  
546 with varying contributions from biomass burning, anthropogenic pollution, and dust sources. In

547 each trajectory figure (Figs. 14 and 15), the regions with active dust (blue diamond hatches) and  
548 biomass burning emissions (green square hatches) for the event time period and prior ten days  
549 are identified and MODIS AOD (values printed in black) overlaid. The trajectories are color  
550 coded by region to distinguish the source impacts. The regions include: Africa (blue), Middle  
551 East (green), CA (yellow), North Asia biomass ( $> 50^\circ$  N, black), Europe (brown), China (red)  
552 and South Asia (orange).

553         Figure 14 shows the first two events for August 2008. The first event in early August  
554 (Fig. 13, event labeled 1) is a high dust event associated with trajectories from the west passing  
555 over the dust regions of the Aral Sea ( $\sim 45^\circ$ N,  $55^\circ$ E) and eastern trajectories passing over the  
556 Taklimakan region of western China ( $90\text{-}100^\circ$ E,  $40^\circ$ N). These were both regions with active dust  
557 emissions as indicated by the elevated MODIS AOD values. Thus the PM increases during this  
558 event were due largely to dust emitted from CA and western China deserts. The second event in  
559 the latter half of August is characterized by high levels of BC without dust. During this episode  
560 the transport to the site was under the influence of a high pressure system located to the  
561 northwest and air masses were transported over the active fire region in western Russia.

562         Figure 15 shows winter and spring events. The November episode (event 3) is a period  
563 with elevated BC and  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  from pollution sources from South Asia (including some fires) and  
564 western China and low fire and dust emission activity. The January episode (event 4) is a period  
565 of elevated BC with air masses coming from Europe, indicating the influence of anthropogenic  
566 pollution coming from this industrialized region, and from CA sources. Dust emissions from CA  
567 and Africa were low during this period. The final illustrative episode is for April 2009 (event 5),

568 a period with both elevated levels of dust from western China, CA and Africa and BC from both  
569 fire and anthropogenic pollution from Europe, CA and Russia sources.

570 These examples provide insights into the source region contributions to PM mass in CA  
571 as presented in Figs. 11 & 12). CA is an ideal location to observe a variety of source regions as it  
572 is at the crossroad of transport patterns with air masses impacted from dust, anthropogenic  
573 activity and biomass burning from different geographical regions.

### 574 3.7.2 Long range transport of CA sources

575 The transport pathways out of CA were also evaluated by calculating forward trajectories  
576 from the observation sites. Selected forward trajectories initialized at or below 1 km are used to  
577 represent the transport of boundary layer PM from CA and these are shown for summer, winter  
578 and spring periods in Fig. 16. In these plots the MODIS AOD, dust, and fire emissions plotted  
579 for each event represent values averaged over the subsequent ten days and trajectories were  
580 stopped if they impacted the surface. During the summer, outflow from CA is towards the north  
581 in association with the summer monsoon system. Figure 16a shows the subset of forward  
582 trajectories that reside for at least 3 days over the region 48 - 65° N during June 2008.  
583 Trajectories typically pass over Russia and reach into the Arctic and also can be caught in  
584 westerly storm tracks and reach the higher latitudes of the northern hemisphere. During the  
585 winter, air mass transport out of CA is associated with the winter monsoon system and the  
586 transport pathway is over Mongolia and then over eastern China as seen in Fig. 16b. In this  
587 figure, forward trajectories that pass over the region west of 130° E during late December 2008  
588 are shown. Figure 16c illustrates transpacific transport of CA air masses. Plotted are the forward  
589 trajectories that stay within the 30 – 50° N region for at least 3 days during the month of April

590 2009. During the spring transport from CA is dominated by strong westerly flows and air masses  
591 are transported over China, Korea, and Japan and then across the Pacific, reaching North  
592 America in 7 – 10 days.

593 PM arising from dust and anthropogenic emissions from CA impact the entire northern  
594 hemisphere as illustrated in the hemispheric maps of seasonal average surface dust  
595 concentrations due to CA emissions only (Fig. 17). The predominant westerly flows in all  
596 seasons in the northern hemisphere result in the bulk of the CA emissions being transported to  
597 the west. The contribution of CA sources to surface PM concentrations of  $0.35 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$  or greater  
598 covers large portions of the northern hemisphere, including the Arctic, all of Asia, much of  
599 Europe, and portions of the continental US.

600 There are episodic and seasonal components to the intercontinental transport as shown in  
601 the time series of the vertical profiles of  $\text{PM}_{2.5}$  at Mt. Bachelor, Oregon (43.97N, 121.69W,  
602 2700m agl) (Fig. 18). The bulk of the CA particle transport takes place in the free troposphere  
603 and impacts surface concentrations in the US as the boundary layer grows and entrains “plumes”  
604 aloft. This occurs most frequently in spring, summer and fall. The episodic contributions of CA  
605 sources to surface concentrations can exceed  $1.5 \mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ . In the fall, there is also strong transport  
606 of dust from CA across Europe and out into the Atlantic.

607

### 608 **3.8 Future Scenarios**

609 How might PM levels change in CA over the next few decades? To address this question,  
610 simulations were repeated for various emission scenarios developed and used in the

611 WMO/UNEP assessment on short-lived climate pollutants (Shindell et al., 2012) as described in  
612 Sect. 2. Dust and biomass burning emissions and meteorology were the same as those used in the  
613 2008/2009 simulations. The period mean changes in surface BC and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations in  
614 2030 for the reference scenario are shown in Fig. 19a, d, respectively. This scenario reflects all  
615 present agreed policies affecting emissions and assumes that they are fully implemented. Under  
616 this scenario PM<sub>2.5</sub> increases significantly in South Asia and western China (>50%) and in parts  
617 of CA, including the area where the sampling sites are located. PM<sub>2.5</sub> decreases in Western  
618 Europe and Eastern China (< 10%). BC surface concentrations show a similar pattern to PM<sub>2.5</sub>,  
619 although covering larger portions of CA with relatively larger increases in BC than in PM<sub>2.5</sub>.  
620 These results suggest that health impacts and climate warming due to BC and PM<sub>2.5</sub> may increase  
621 in coming decades unless additional emission control measures are implemented.

622 Results for two other scenarios are also presented in Fig. 19. One scenario specifically  
623 targets BC emission reductions in recognition that BC is also a major contributor to atmospheric  
624 warming (Ramanathan and Carmichael, 2008). These additional measures significantly reduce  
625 2030 BC concentrations by greater than 35% throughout most of the domain, with only a few  
626 regions (e.g., Myanmar and eastern Afghanistan) showing increases in BC relative to 2005  
627 levels. This scenario assumes that all BC emission reduction measures are perfectly implemented  
628 and 100% effective. BC measures also impact emissions of co-emitted pollutants (e.g., OC and  
629 SO<sub>2</sub>). PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations under this scenario (Fig. 19e) are reduced, but by much smaller  
630 amounts, and concentrations still increase relative to 2005 over large regions of South Asia and  
631 western China, and parts of CA. These results suggest that health impacts in these regions may  
632 increase due to the PM<sub>2.5</sub> increases whereas positive radiative forcing and health effects due to  
633 BC may decrease. When the BC measures are used along with greenhouse gas measures aimed at

634 keeping CO<sub>2</sub> levels below 450 ppm, the PM<sub>2.5</sub> levels in South Asia are lower than 2005 levels  
635 (Fig. 19f), with few exceptions (one being Myanmar region). This is due to the large decreases in  
636 SO<sub>2</sub> and NO<sub>x</sub> emissions under this scenario, resulting in significant reductions in particulate  
637 nitrate and sulfate (e.g., a ~30% increase in particulate sulfate in CA).

638 To get a regional perspective of how the future emission changes would specifically  
639 impact the CA region (See Fig. 1 for the CA region definition used in this study), we have  
640 summarized the changes in emissions and the corresponding concentrations in Table 1. The  
641 reference 2030 emissions scenario reports an increase in emissions of BC, SO<sub>2</sub> and PM<sub>2.5</sub> over  
642 Central Asia by ~ 22, 17 and 14 % respectively w.r.t to base 2005 levels. However, the  
643 corresponding BC, SO<sub>4</sub> and anthropogenic portion of PM<sub>2.5</sub> decrease by ~ 5, 12 and 5 %  
644 respectively. This suggest that on average the concentration levels go down even though CA  
645 emissions increase due to long range transport of pollutants into CA region from the surrounding  
646 regions, but locations within CA still increase when dominated by local sources. The Low GWP  
647 emission scenario predicts decrease in BC and PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions by 31% and 10% respectively  
648 with the corresponding decrease in concentrations by ~ 37% and 10 % respectively, while SO<sub>2</sub>  
649 emissions remained same as the reference 2030 scenario. The lowest + 450 ppm scenario shows  
650 a consistent decreasing trend in emissions and concentration of all the species. This analysis  
651 suggests that the impact of the changes in major source region emissions and their subsequent  
652 transport to Central Asia will play a major role in determining the future aerosol levels in CA.

#### 653 **4. Summary**

654 AOD in CA during the period April 2008 through July 2009 averaged ~0.3 and displayed  
655 a seasonal cycle with the lowest values in the winter and highest values in spring to mid-summer

656 with observed values of AOD > 0.6 and even > 0.8. Surface PM<sub>2.5</sub> measured at two sites in  
657 eastern CA averaged ~10 µg/m<sup>3</sup> but with large variability (hourly values from 2 - 90 µg/m<sup>3</sup>).  
658 Surface concentrations of PM also showed a seasonal cycle with peak values and largest  
659 variability in the spring/summer, and lowest values and variability in the winter. BC at these sites  
660 averaged ~0.1 µg/m<sup>3</sup> with peak values (~ 1 µg/m<sup>3</sup>) in the winter.

661 The seasonal cycles and source sector and source region contributions to PM in CA were  
662 analyzed using the STEM chemical transport model. Dust was the largest component of the  
663 PM<sub>2.5</sub> and PM<sub>10</sub> mass in the region in all seasons except winter, whereas sulfate was the largest  
664 anthropogenic component of the PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass. Dust was also found to be the major driver of the  
665 seasonal cycles of AOD and PM concentrations. On an annual basis the power and industrial  
666 sectors were the most important contributors to PM<sub>2.5</sub>, while residential and transportation were  
667 the most important sectors for BC. Open biomass burning within and outside the region also  
668 contributed to elevated PM and BC concentrations and to the temporal variability.

669 The model simulations showed a systematic over prediction of PM mass. This is most  
670 likely due in large part to the over prediction in dust. Carbonaceous PM was underpredicted and  
671 it is speculated that the winter emissions associated with residential heating may be  
672 underestimated in the current emissions inventory. The predicted wind speeds were biased high  
673 (by ~30%) and the direction had a southwest bias. The high bias in wind speeds may also  
674 contribute to the over-prediction in PM<sub>10</sub>, as dust emissions depend strongly on wind speed.  
675 Efforts to improve the dust emissions and to improve the wind speed and direction predictions  
676 using a finer model resolution are planned. Additional efforts are needed to improve the  
677 anthropogenic emissions estimates for CA.



678           Currently there are few measurements in CA that can be used to quantify the  
679 intercontinental transport of pollution from Europe to Asia. The analysis of the transport  
680 pathways and variations in PM mass and composition observed at the two sites in CA  
681 demonstrate that this region is strategically located to characterize regional and intercontinental  
682 transport of pollutants. Aerosols at these sites were shown to reflect dust, biomass burning, and  
683 anthropogenic sources from South, East, and CA, Europe, and Russia depending on the time of  
684 year. For example, during the spring fine particles from Europe and Africa were transported to  
685 CA, on to eastern Asia, and then across the Pacific to North America.

686           Observations of PM and its composition in this region are of growing importance as it is  
687 estimated that  $PM_{2.5}$  levels are likely to increase significantly in Central and South Asia and  
688 western China over the next few decades. Simulations for a reference 2030 emission scenario  
689 showed that BC concentrations had a larger relative increase than  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations. This  
690 suggests that health impacts and climate warming associated with these pollutants may increase  
691 over the next decades unless additional control measures are implemented. Continued pollutant  
692 observations in CA will help to characterize the changes that are rapidly taking place in the  
693 region.

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704 publication.

705  
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873

874 **7. Table Captions**

875 Table:1 Summary of changes in Central Asia (CA) region (See figure 1 for CA region definition)  
876 emissions and concentration under the future emission scenarios (See Sect. 3.8 for more details)

877

878 **8. Figure Captions**

879 Fig. 1. WRF-STEM modeling domain set up and source region definition used in the  
880 simulations. Modeling analysis was done on the hemispheric scale. The black dotted rectangular  
881 box denotes the subset of the modeling domain used in this analysis. The triangle and circle  
882 markers denote locations of the LST and Bishkek observation sites. The anthropogenic source  
883 regions are denoted by colored regions with the A notation: A1 (N. America), A2 (Europe), A3  
884 (Russia), A4 (Middle East), A5 (Central Asia), A6 (China) and A7 (South + Southeast Asia).  
885 The dust source regions are indicated by the magenta rectangles with the D notations: D1  
886 (Africa), D2 (Middle East), D3 (Central Asia) and D4 (Western China). The biomass burning  
887 sources regional boundaries are indicated by the long dashed black lines with B notations: B1 (N.  
888 America i.e. region west of 25 W), B2 (Europe i.e. region west of 45E and 40 N and above), B3  
889 (Siberia : i.e east of 45 E and 40 N and above) and B4 (South Asia i.e. below 40 N). The insert  
890 shows the topography around the observation sites.

891 Fig. 2. Spatial distribution of a) BC b) SO<sub>2</sub> c) Natural dust d) Biomass burning PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions  
892 averaged over the simulation period in Gg/yr/grid.

893 Fig. 3. Spatial distribution of MODIS AOD averaged over the simulation period. The triangle  
894 and circle markers denote the location of LST and Bishkek sites. The numbers on the map denote  
895 contour values at sharp gradients.

896 Fig. 4. Spatial distribution of simulated a) BC (μg/m<sup>3</sup>), b) Dust (μg/m<sup>3</sup>), c) PM<sub>2.5</sub> (μg/m<sup>3</sup>), and d)  
897 AOD averaged over the simulation period. The values on the map denote contour values at sharp  
898 gradients.

899 Fig. 5. Comparison of predicted meteorological variables from WRF model with observations  
900 shown as box and whisker plots over the simulation period (a) Temperature (K), (b) Relative  
901 Humidity RH (%), (c) Wind Speed (m/s), (d) Wind Direction (°), and (e) PBL height (m). Lidar  
902 denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site. In each box whisker panel, the middle line  
903 denotes the median value, while the edges of the box represent 25th and 75th percentile values  
904 respectively. The whiskers denote the maximum and minimum values.

905 Fig. 6. Comparison of predicted aerosols with observations shown as box and whisker plots over  
906 the simulation period at a) LST and b) Bishkek sites. SP and LE denote the AOD from the sun-  
907 photometer (SP) and integrated from the vertical extinction profiles (LE). OBS and TEOM  
908 denote filter and TEOM measurements while the MDL denotes the modeled values respectively.  
909 Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site. In each box whisker panel, the  
910 middle line denotes the median value, while the edges of the box represent 25th and 75th

911 percentile values respectively. The whiskers denote the maximum and minimum values. The  
912 triangle marker denotes the mean value.

913 Fig. 7. Summary of period mean contributions by source regions and sectors for AOD, PM<sub>2.5</sub>,  
914 dust, non-dust PM<sub>2.5</sub>, sulfate and BC in % for the grid cells containing the Bishkek and LST  
915 observation sites, and spatially averaged over the Central Asia region. See Fig. 1 for  
916 anthropogenic, dust and fire source regions. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station  
917 Teplokluchenka) site.

918 Fig. 8. Temporal variability in simulated AOD compared with observations at the LST site. The  
919 box-plots of monthly values are shown. AOD from the sun-photometer (SP) and integrated from  
920 the vertical extinction profiles (LE) are shown. MDL denotes modeled values. Lidar denotes the  
921 LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site. In each box whisker panel, the middle line denotes the  
922 median value, while the edges of the box represent 25th and 75th percentile values respectively.  
923 The whiskers denote the maximum and minimum values.

924 Fig. 9. Comparison of simulated PM mass with filter-based observations at Central Asia sites (a)  
925 PM<sub>2.5</sub> (LST) along with TEOM non-volatile measurements, (b) PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Bishkek), (c) PM<sub>10</sub> (LST),  
926 and (d) PM<sub>10</sub> (Bishkek) in (μg/m<sup>3</sup>). Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

927 Fig. 10. Temporal variability in simulated (a) Temperature (K) and (b) Relative Humidity RH  
928 (%) from WRF model compared with observations at the LST and Bishkek sites. Lidar denotes  
929 the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

930 Fig. 11. Simulated composition of PM<sub>2.5</sub> at the LST site by a) Species (μg/m<sup>3</sup>), b) Fine dust  
931 source regions(μg/m<sup>3</sup>) c) Anthropogenic PM<sub>2.5</sub> source regions (μg/m<sup>3</sup>) d) Anthropogenic PM<sub>2.5</sub>  
932 source (μg/m<sup>3</sup>) e) Biomass PM<sub>2.5</sub> source regions(μg/m<sup>3</sup>).The contributions from source region  
933 and sectors denote the non – dust portion of PM<sub>2.5</sub> mass.

934 Fig. 12. Simulated composition of BC at the LST site by a) Source regions (μg/m<sup>3</sup>), b) Source  
935 sector (μg/m<sup>3</sup>), and c) Biomass burning source regions (μg/m<sup>3</sup>).

936 Fig. 13. Time altitude cross sections of weekly averaged predicted BC, dust and PM<sub>2.5</sub> for the  
937 simulation period at the LST site. The numbers denote the specific episodes of aerosol  
938 enhancements for back trajectory analysis in Fig. 14 and Fig. 15. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar  
939 Station Teplokluchenka) site.

940 Fig. 14. Ten day air mass back trajectories for August 2008 (events 1 and 2 as denoted in Fig.  
941 13) color coded by source regions. The blue diamond and green square hatched areas denote the  
942 natural dust and biomass burning emission sources while the number in black denote MODIS  
943 AOD contours averaged over the event time period and ten day prior time window. The  
944 trajectories are color coded by source regions including Africa (blue), Middle East (green),  
945 Central Asia (yellow), North Asia biomass (> 50° N, black), Europe (brown), China (red) and  
946 South Asia (orange). Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

947 Fig. 15. Same as Fig. 14 but for November 2008, January 2009 and April 2009 (events 3, 4, 5  
948 denoted in Fig. 13).



949 Fig. 16 Ten day air mass forward trajectories illustrating the seasonality in transport pathways  
950 out of CA for a) June 2008, b) December 2008, and c) April 2009. The blue diamond, green  
951 square hatched areas denote the natural dust and biomass burning emission sources while the  
952 number in black denote MODIS AOD contours, respectively, averaged over the event time  
953 period and subsequent ten day time window. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station  
954 Teplokluchenka) site.

955 Fig. 17. Seasonally averaged surface total dust ( $PM_{10}$ ) concentrations from Central Asia dust  
956 emissions. DJF (top left panel) denotes the average for the months of December, January and  
957 February. MAM (top right panel) denotes the average for months of March, April and May. JJA  
958 (bottom left panel) denotes the average for months of June, July and August while SON (bottom  
959 right panel) denotes average for months of September, October and November.

960 Fig. 18. Time series of predicted surface concentration at 6 h time step (top panel) and weekly  
961 averaged time altitude cross sections (bottom panel) of total dust ( $PM_{10}$ ) from Central Asia dust  
962 emissions at Mt. Bachelor, Oregon.

963 Fig. 19. Percent change in simulated period mean surface BC and  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations for future  
964 2030 emission scenarios relative to the base year (2005) a),d) reference 2030, a),e) BC measures  
965 (low) and c),f) BC (lowest) and greenhouse gas measures aimed at keeping  $CO_2$  levels below  
966 450 ppm. Refer to Sec. 2.3 for more details on emission scenarios.

967

## 968 **9. Supplemental Materials Figure and Table Captions**

969 Table S1. Comparison of the observed and predicted surface meteorology at the observation  
970 sites.

971 Table S2. Comparison of observations and model of AOD,  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $PM_{10}$ , BC and OC at the  
972 Bishkek site.

973 Table S3. Comparison of observations and model of AOD,  $PM_{2.5}$ ,  $PM_{10}$ , BC and OC at the LST  
974 site.

975

976 Fig. S1. Seasonal variability in spatial distribution of biomass burning  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions in  
977 Gg/month/grid (a) April 2008, (b) August 2008, (c) November 2008, and (d) May 2009.

978 Fig. S2. Spatial distribution of a) base year 2005 BC emissions (Gg/yr/grid) along with percent  
979 change (w.r.t to base year 2005) in b) Reference 2030 BC emissions c) 2030 BC emissions with  
980 BC measures (low) and d) 2030 BC emissions with BC (lowest) and greenhouse gas measures  
981 aimed at keeping  $CO_2$  levels below 450ppm. The triangle and circle markers denote locations of  
982 the LST and Bishkek sites. Refer to Sec. 2.3 for more details on emission scenarios.

983 Fig. S3. Spatial distribution of a) base year 2005  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions (Gg/yr/grid) along with percent  
984 change (w.r.t to base year 2005) in b) Reference 2030  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions c) 2030  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions  
985 with BC measures and d) 2030  $PM_{2.5}$  emissions with BC and greenhouse gas measures aimed at

986 keeping CO<sub>2</sub> levels below 450ppm. The triangle and circle markers denote locations of the LST  
987 and Bishkek sites. Refer to Sec. 2.3 for more details on emission scenarios.

988 Fig. S4. Spatial distribution of a) base year 2005 SO<sub>2</sub> emissions (Gg/yr/grid) along with percent  
989 change (w.r.t to base year 2005) in (b) Reference 2030 SO<sub>2</sub>emissions c) 2030 SO<sub>2</sub> emissions with  
990 BC measures and d) 2030 SO<sub>2</sub> emissions with BC and greenhouse gas measures aimed at  
991 keeping CO<sub>2</sub> levels below 450ppm. The triangle and circle markers denote locations of the LST  
992 and Bishkek sites. Refer to Sec. 2.3 for more details on emission scenarios.

993 Fig. S5. Comparison of observed and predicted PBL heights (m) at the LST site. Observed PBL  
994 heights were determined from the Lidar profiles.

995 Fig. S6. Spatial distribution of predicted species contributions (%) to AOD averaged over the  
996 simulation period a) Carbonaceous aerosols (BC+OC), b) SO<sub>4</sub>, c) Other PM, and d) Dust.

997 Fig. S7. Spatial distribution of predicted species contributions (%) to PM<sub>2.5</sub> averaged over the  
998 simulation period a) Carbonaceous aerosols (BC+OC), b) SO<sub>4</sub>, c) Other PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and d) Dust.

999 Fig. S8. Seasonal variability in spatial distribution of MODIS and simulated AOD averaged over  
1000 the simulation period.

1001 Fig S9. Summary of period mean contributions by source regions and sectors for OC in % for the  
1002 grid cells containing the Bishkek and LST observation sites, and spatially averaged over the  
1003 Central Asia region. See Fig. 1 for anthropogenic and fire source regions.

1004 Table:1 Summary of changes in Central Asia (CA) region (See figure 1 for CA region definition)  
 1005 emissions and concentration under the future emission scenarios (See Sect. 3.8 for more details)  
 1006

Emission Scenario	Emissions Gg yr <sup>-1</sup>			Emissions change (%) w.r.t to base 2005		
	BC	SO <sub>2</sub>	PM <sub>25</sub>	BC	SO <sub>2</sub>	PM <sub>25</sub>
<b>Base 2005</b>	39	1130	197			
<b>Reference 2030</b>	47	1326	224	22.1	17.3	13.9
<b>Low GWP 2030</b>	27	1325	177	-31.1	17.3	-10.1
<b>Lowest GWP + 450</b>	21	1058	115	-46.9	-6.4	-41.5

	Concentration (µg m <sup>-3</sup> )			Concentration change (%) w.r.t to base 2005		
	BC	SO <sub>4</sub>	PM <sub>25</sub>	BC	SO <sub>4</sub>	PM <sub>25</sub>
<b>Base 2005</b>	0.17	3.04	4.26			
<b>Reference 2030</b>	0.16	2.65	4.03	-4.2	-12.6	-5.3
<b>Low GWP 2030</b>	0.11	2.64	3.85	-36.6	-13	-9.5
<b>Lowest GWP + 450</b>	0.10	2.04	3.06	-38.5	-32.9	-28

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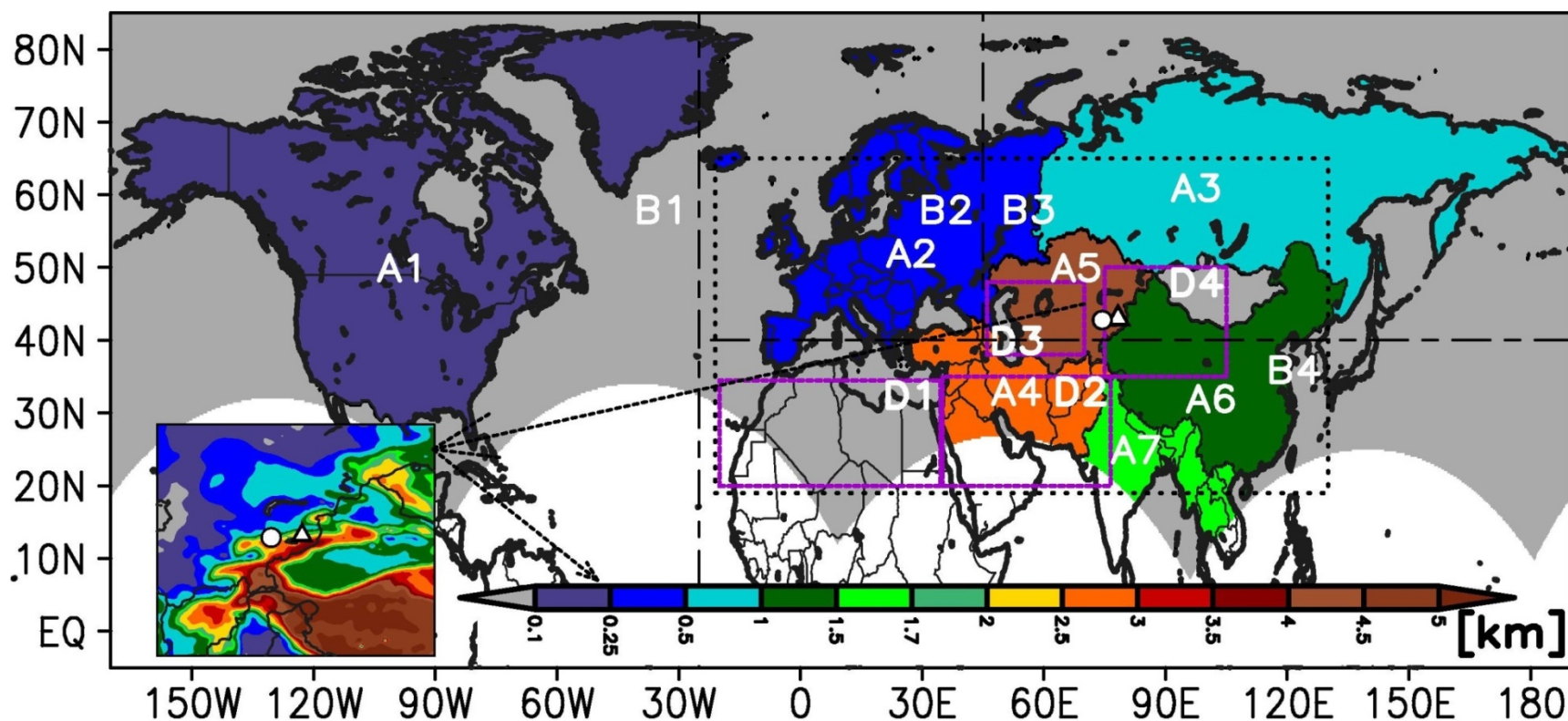


Fig. 1. WRF-STEM modeling domain set up and source region definition used in the simulations. Modeling analysis was done on the hemispheric scale. The black dotted rectangular box denotes the subset of the modeling domain used in this analysis. The triangle and circle markers denote locations of the LST and Bishkek observation sites. The anthropogenic source regions are denoted by colored regions with the A notation: A1 (N. America), A2 (Europe), A3 (Russia), A4 (Middle East), A5 (Central Asia), A6 (China) and A7 (South + Southeast Asia). The dust source regions are indicated by the magenta rectangles with the D notations: D1 (Africa), D2 (Middle East), D3 (Central Asia) and D4 (Western China). The biomass burning sources regional boundaries are indicated by the long dashed black lines with B notations: B1 (N. America i.e. region west of 25 W), B2 (Europe i.e. region west of 45E and 40 N and above), B3 (Siberia : i.e east of 45 E and 40 N and above) and B4 (South Asia i.e. below 40 N). The insert shows the topography around the observation sites.

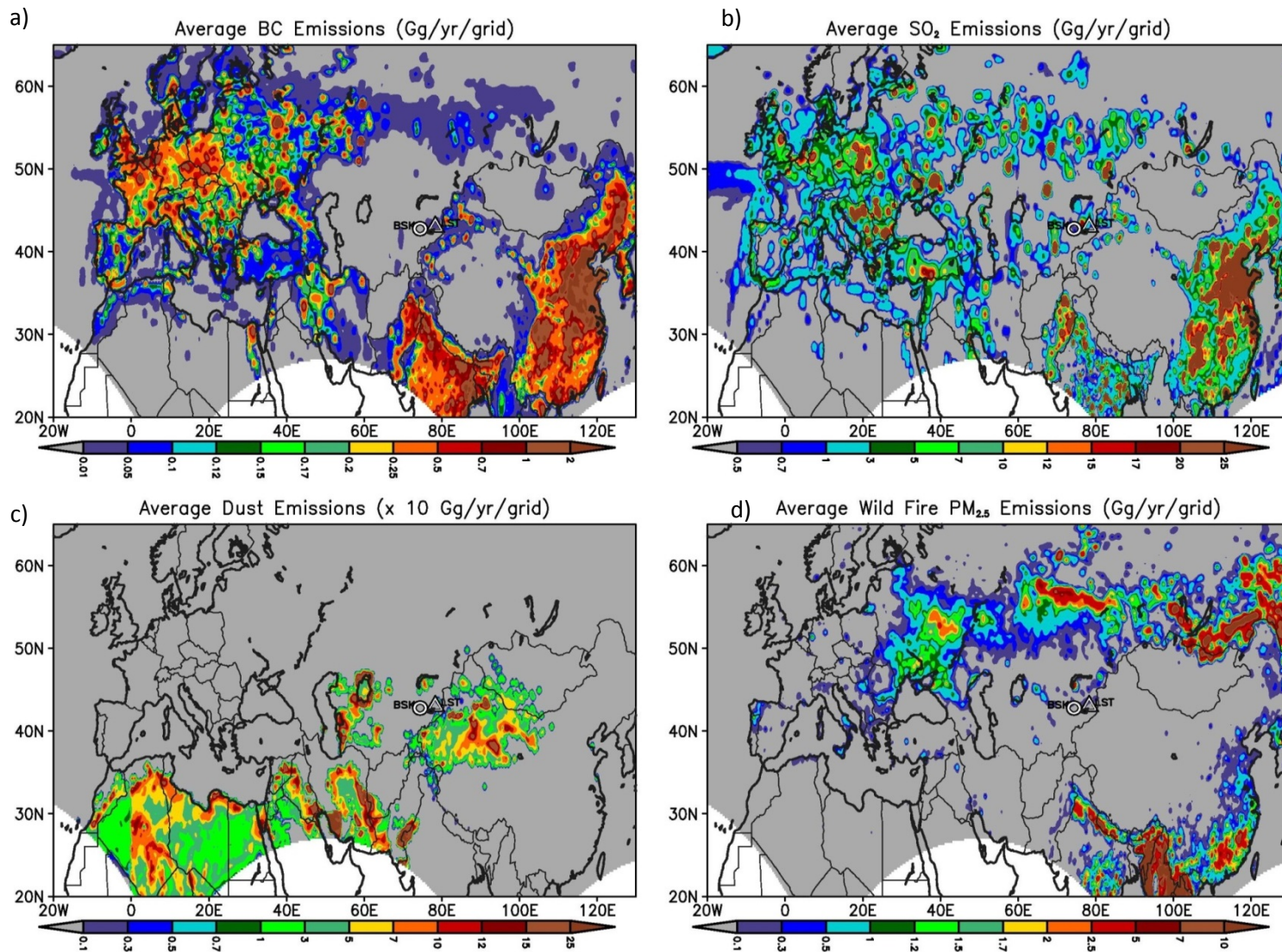


Fig. 2. Spatial distribution of a) BC b) SO<sub>2</sub> c) Natural dust d) Biomass burning PM<sub>2.5</sub> emissions averaged over the simulation period in Gg/yr/grid.

Average MODIS AOD (April 2008 – July 2009)

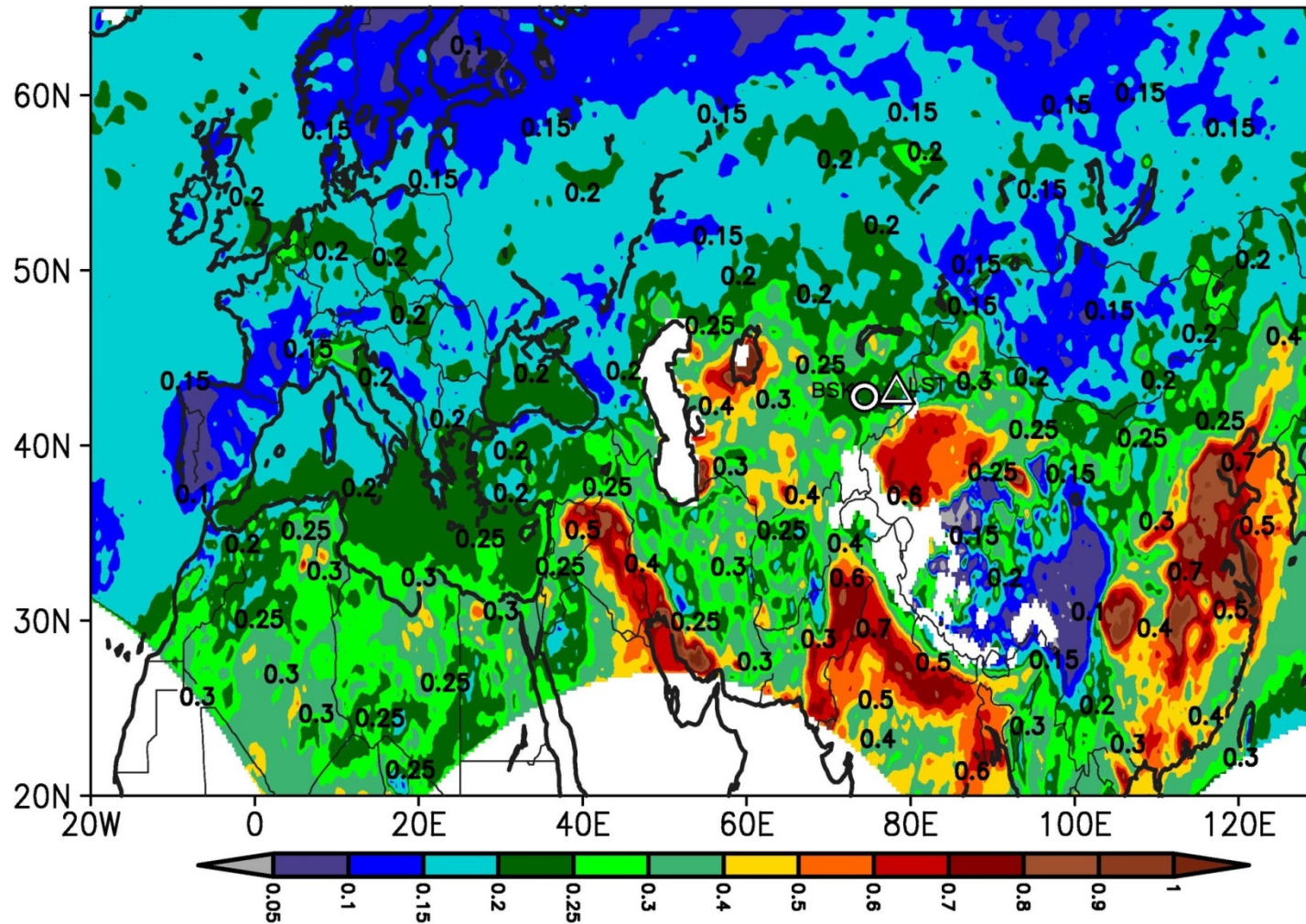


Fig. 3. Spatial distribution of MODIS AOD averaged over the simulation period. The triangle and circle markers denote the location of LST and Bishkek sites. The numbers on the map denote contour values at sharp gradients.

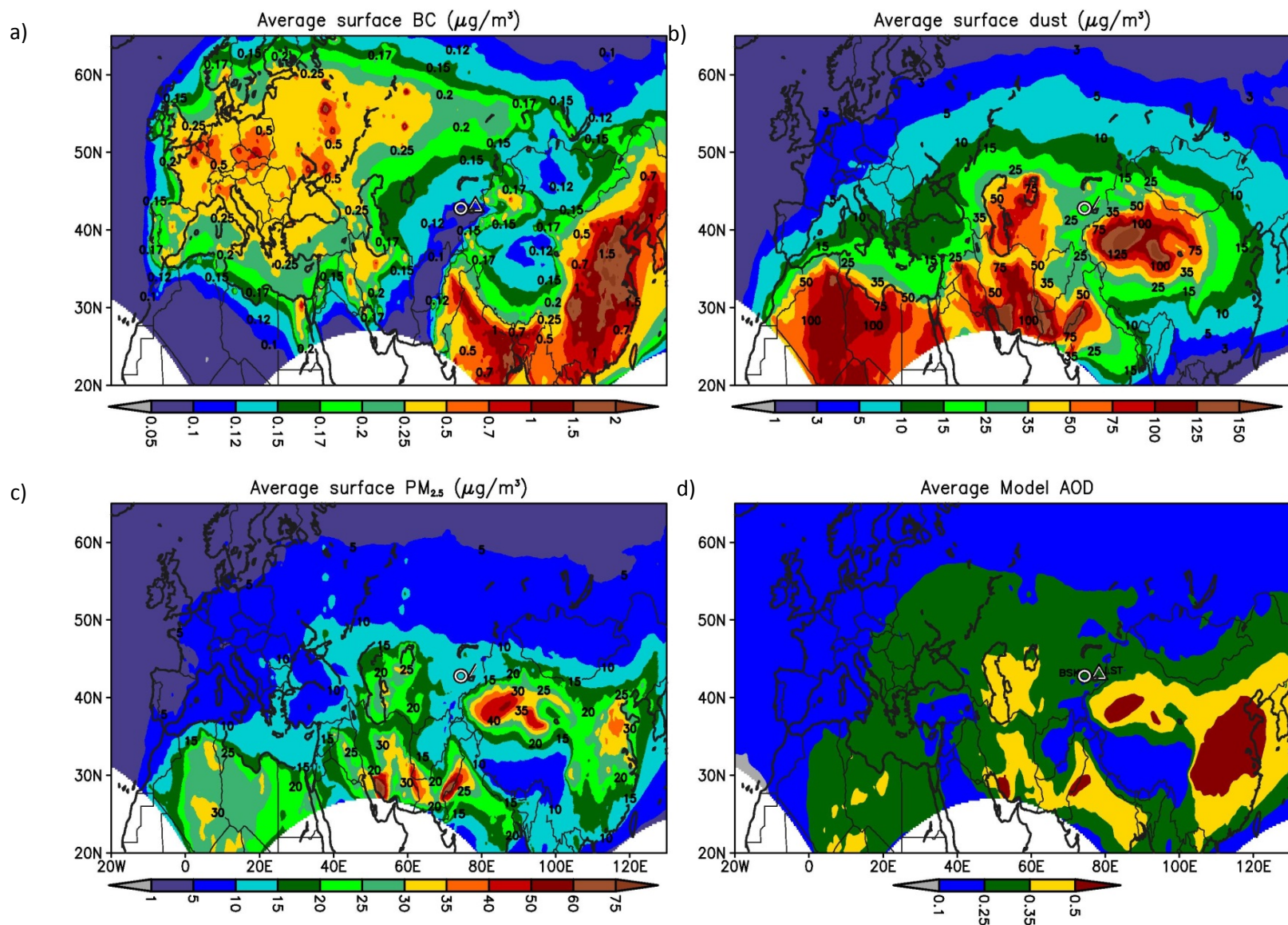


Fig. 4. Spatial distribution of simulated a) BC ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ), b) Dust ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ), c) PM<sub>2.5</sub> ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ), and d) AOD averaged over the simulation period. The values on the map denote contour values at sharp gradients.

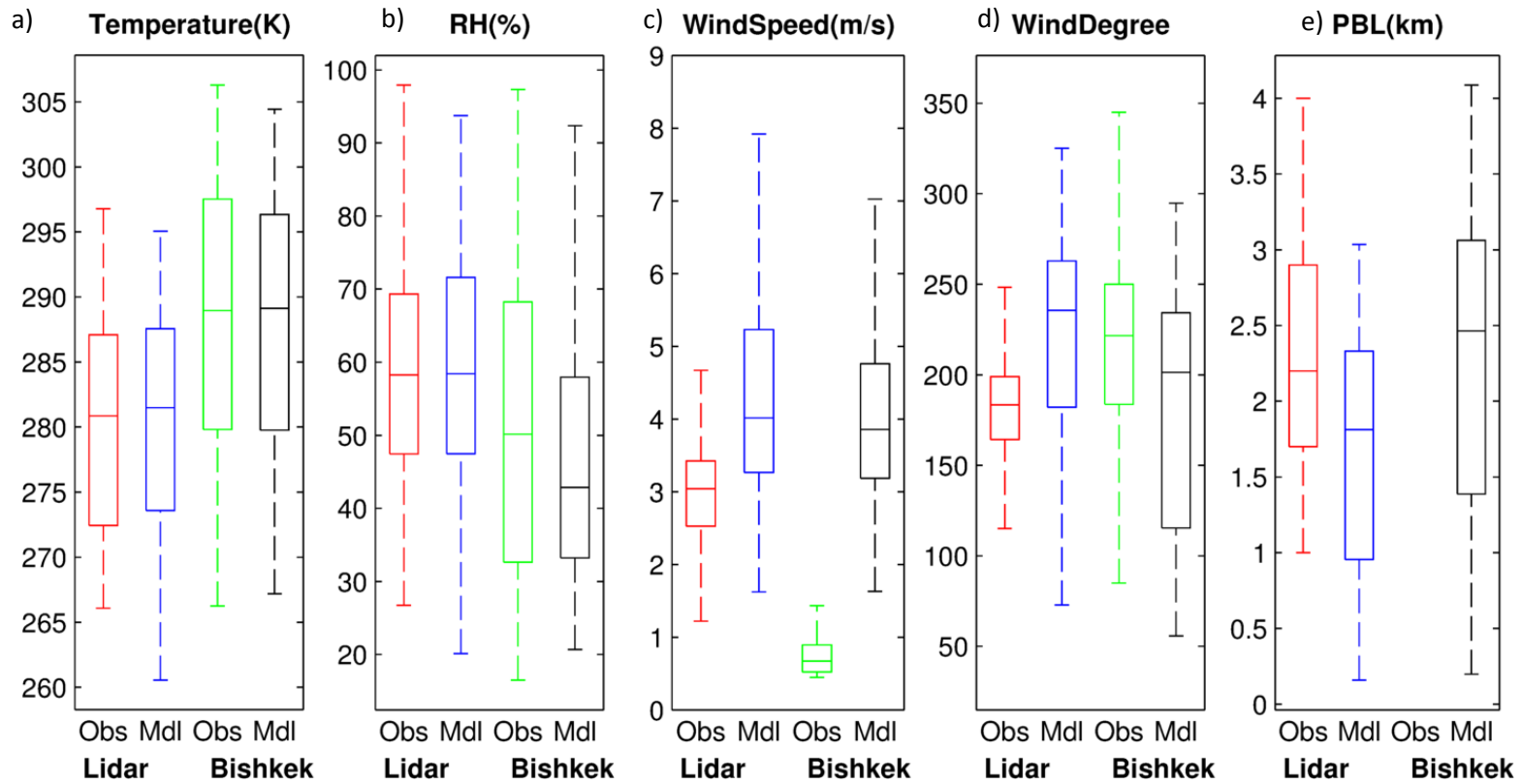


Fig. 5. Comparison of predicted meteorological variables from WRF model with observations shown as box and whisker plots over the simulation period (a) Temperature (K), (b) Relative Humidity RH (%), (c) Wind Speed (m/s), (d) Wind Direction ( $^{\circ}$ ), and PBL height (m). Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenska) site. In each box whisker panel, the middle line denotes the median value, while the edges of the box represent 25th and 75th percentile values respectively. The whiskers denote the maximum and minimum values.



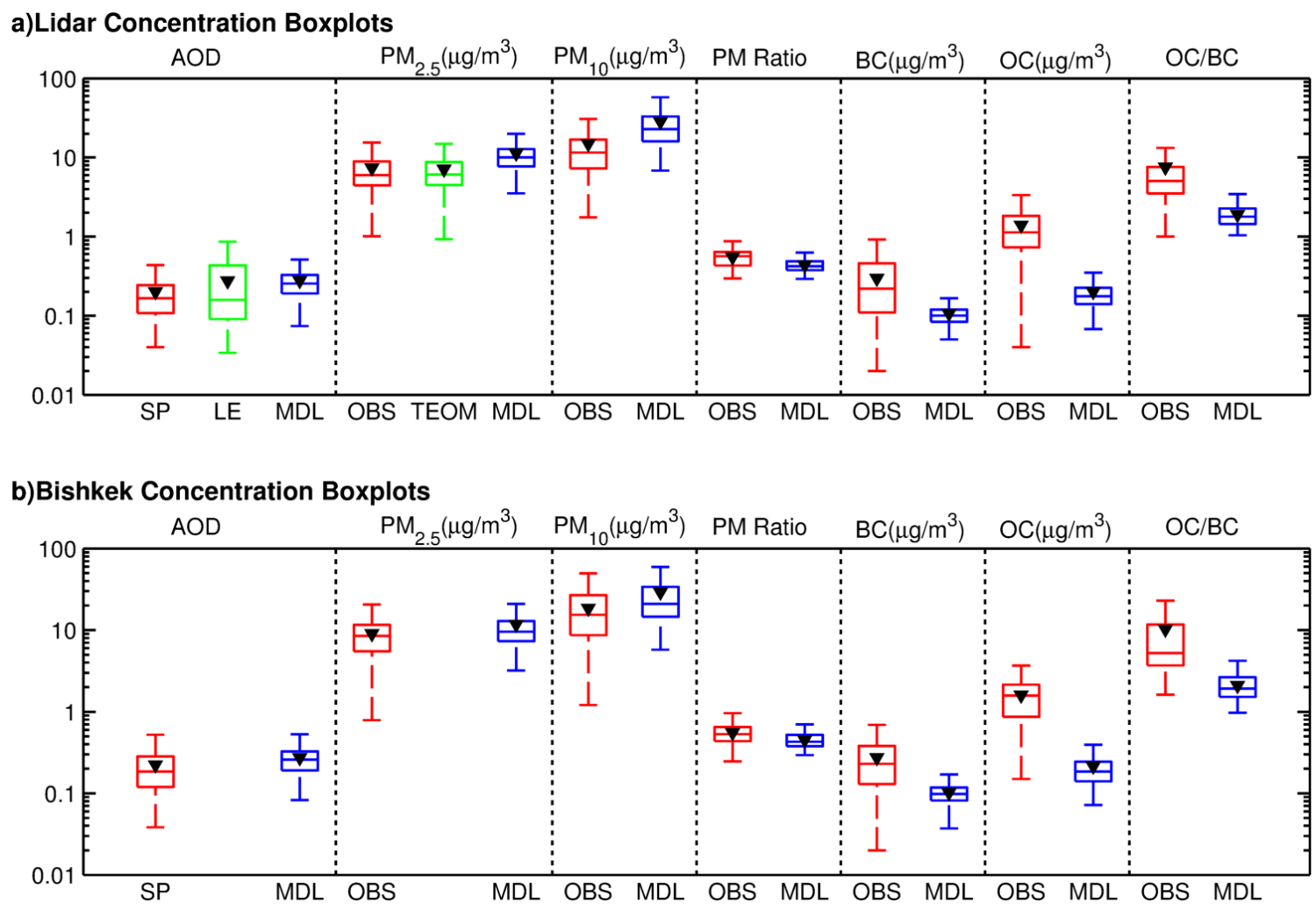


Fig. 6. Comparison of predicted aerosols with observations shown as box and whisker plots over the simulation period at a) LST and b) Bishkek sites. SP and LE denote the AOD from the sun-photometer (SP) and integrated from the vertical extinction profiles (LE). OBS and TEOM denote filter and TEOM measurements while the MDL denotes the modeled values respectively. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenska) site. In each box whisker panel, the middle line denotes the median value, while the edges of the

box represent 25th and 75th percentile values respectively. The whiskers denote the maximum and minimum values. The triangle marker denotes the mean value.

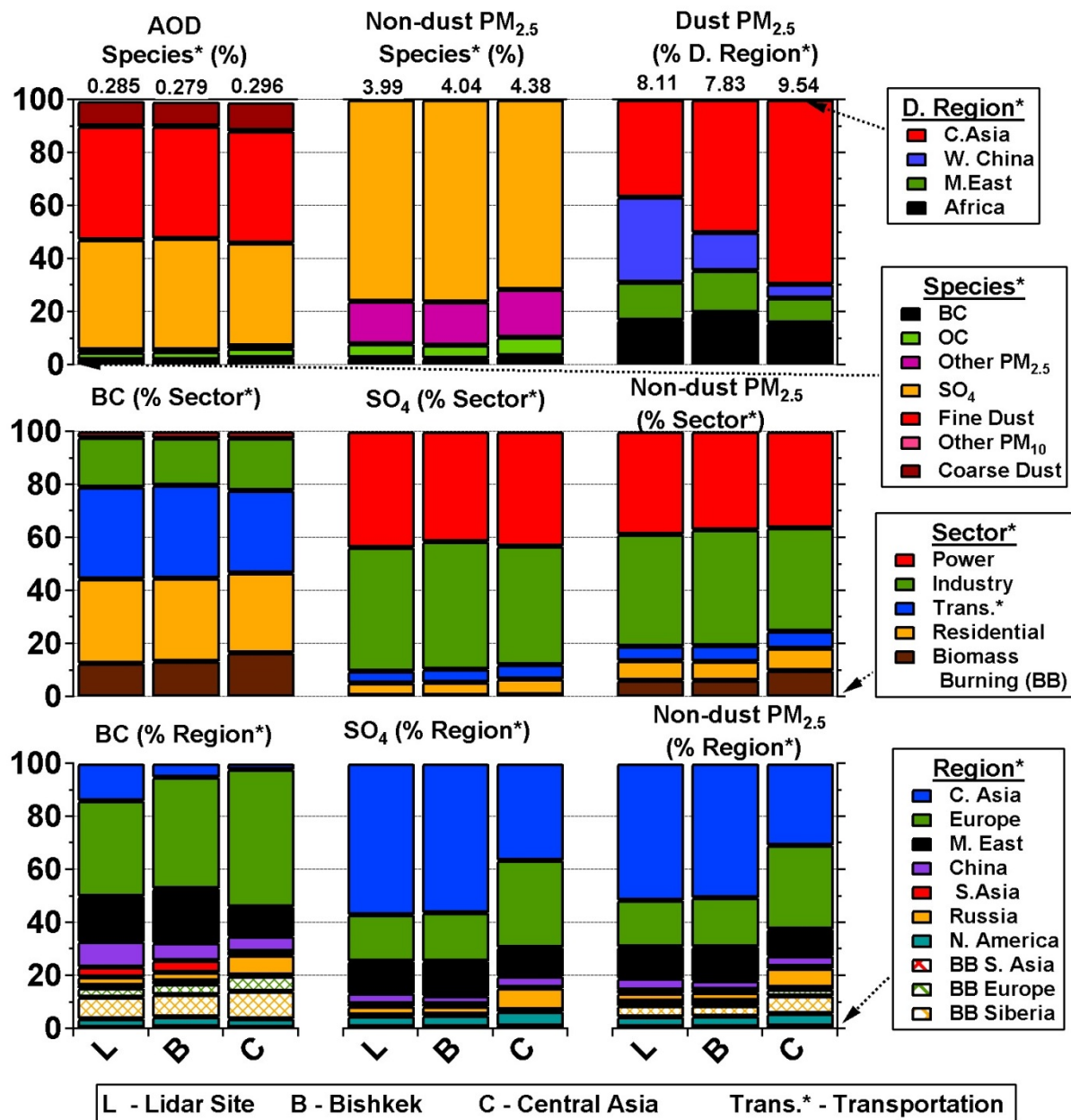


Fig. 7. Summary of period mean contributions by source regions and sectors for AOD, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, dust, non-dust PM<sub>2.5</sub>, sulfate and BC in % for the grid cells containing the Bishkek and LST observation sites, and spatially averaged over the Central Asia region. See Fig. 1 for anthropogenic, dust and fire source regions. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

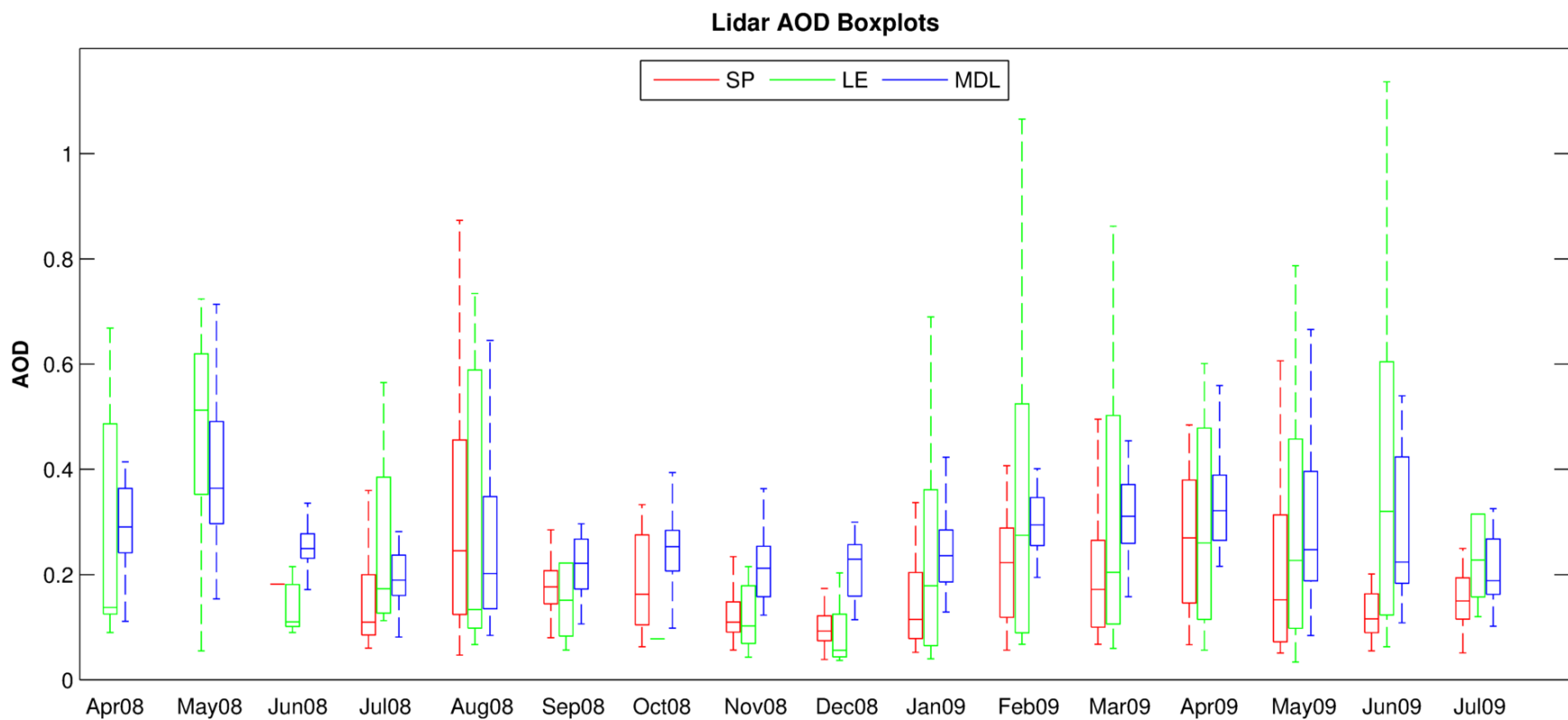


Fig. 8. Temporal variability in simulated AOD compared with observations at the LST site. The box-plots of monthly values are shown. AOD from the sun-photometer (SP) and integrated from the vertical extinction profiles (LE) are shown. MDL denotes modeled values. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site. In each box whisker panel, the middle line denotes the median value, while the edges of the box represent 25th and 75th percentile values respectively. The whiskers denote the maximum and minimum values.

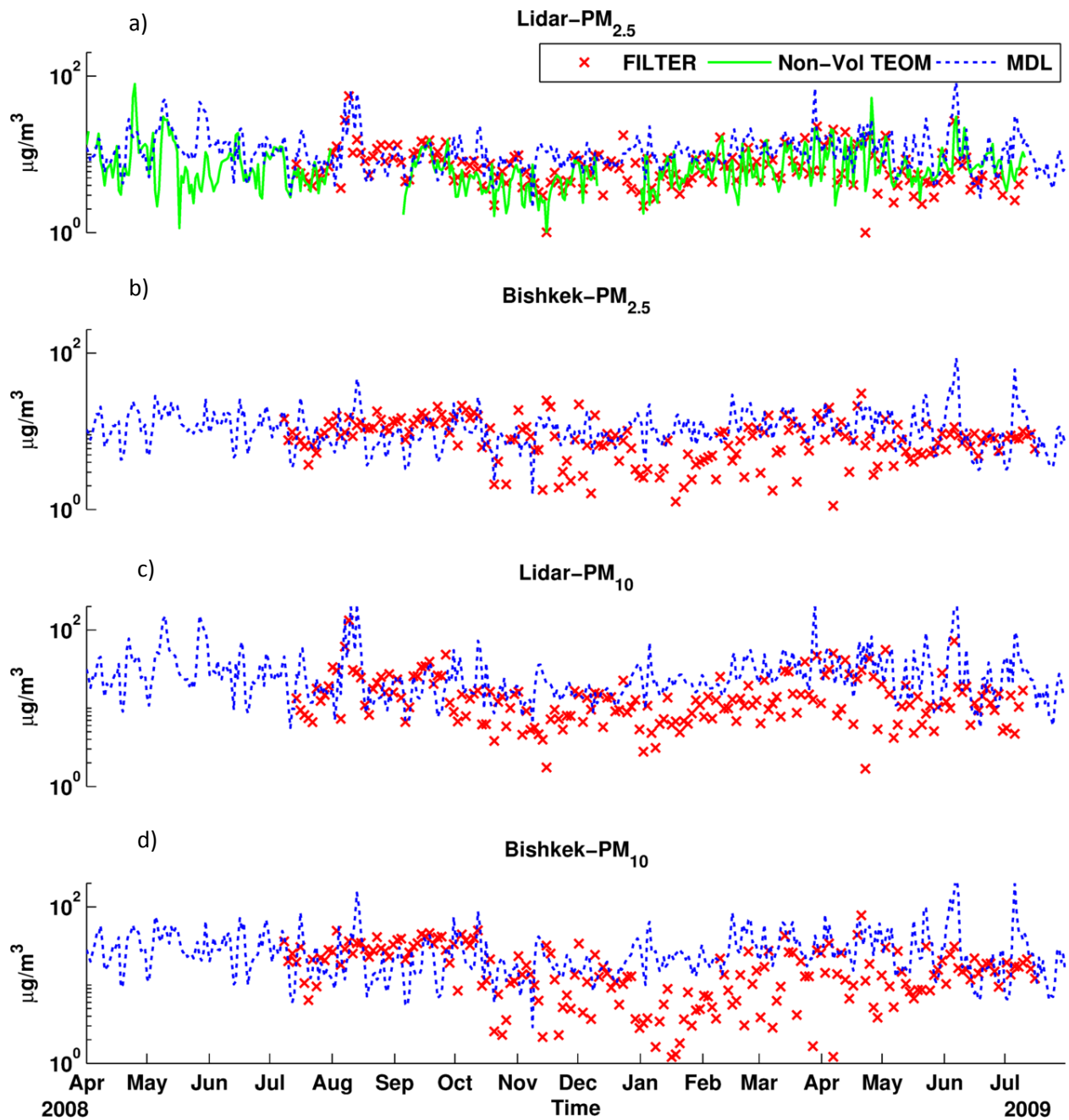


Fig. 9. Comparison of simulated PM mass with filter-based observations at Central Asia sites (a) PM<sub>2.5</sub> (LST) along with TEOM non-volatile measurements, (b) PM<sub>2.5</sub> (Bishkek), (c) PM<sub>10</sub> (LST), and (d) PM<sub>10</sub> (Bishkek) in ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ). Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

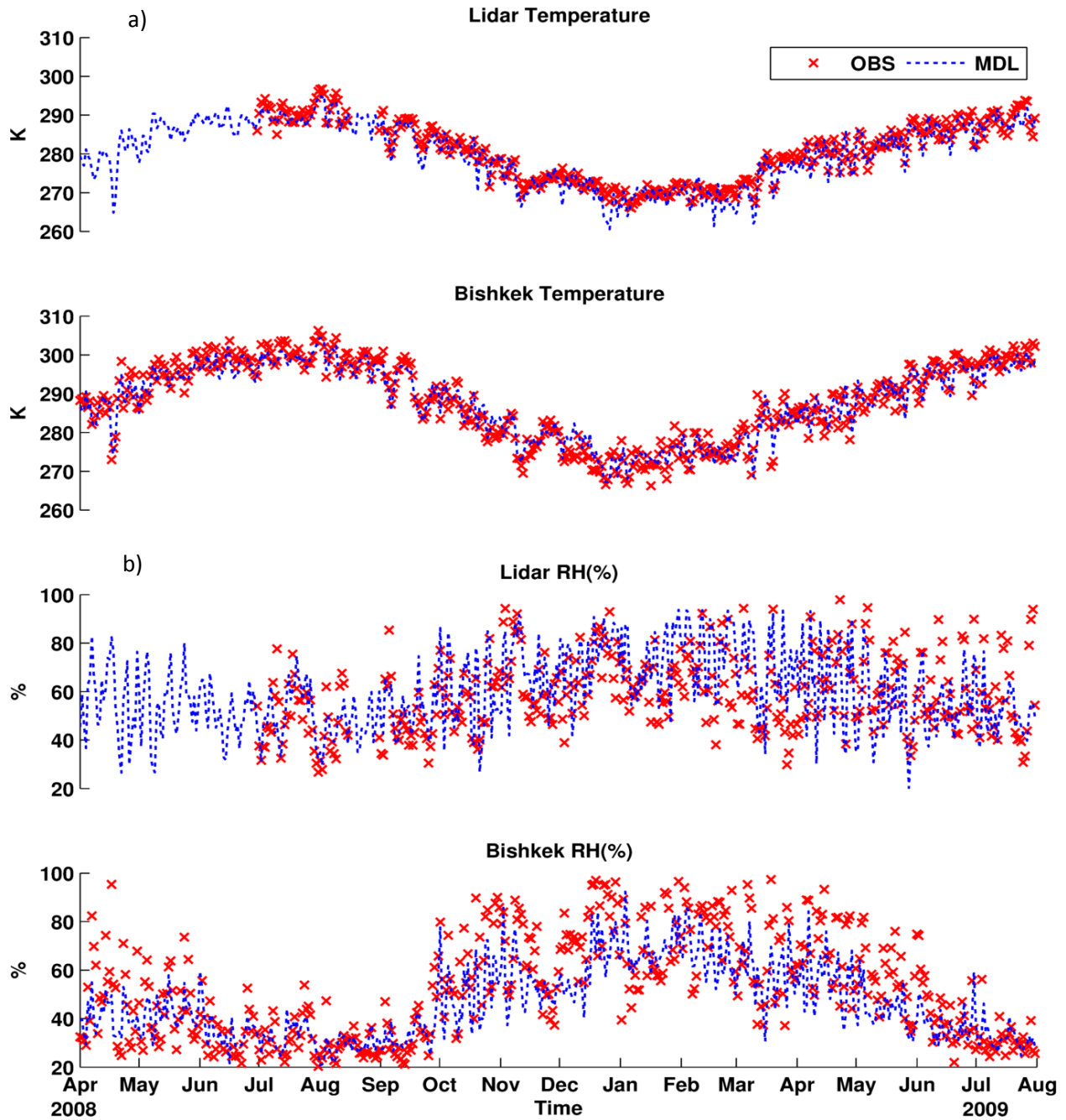


Fig. 10. Temporal variability in simulated Temperature (K) and (b) Relative Humidity RH (%) from WRF model compared with observations at the LST and Bishkek sites. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

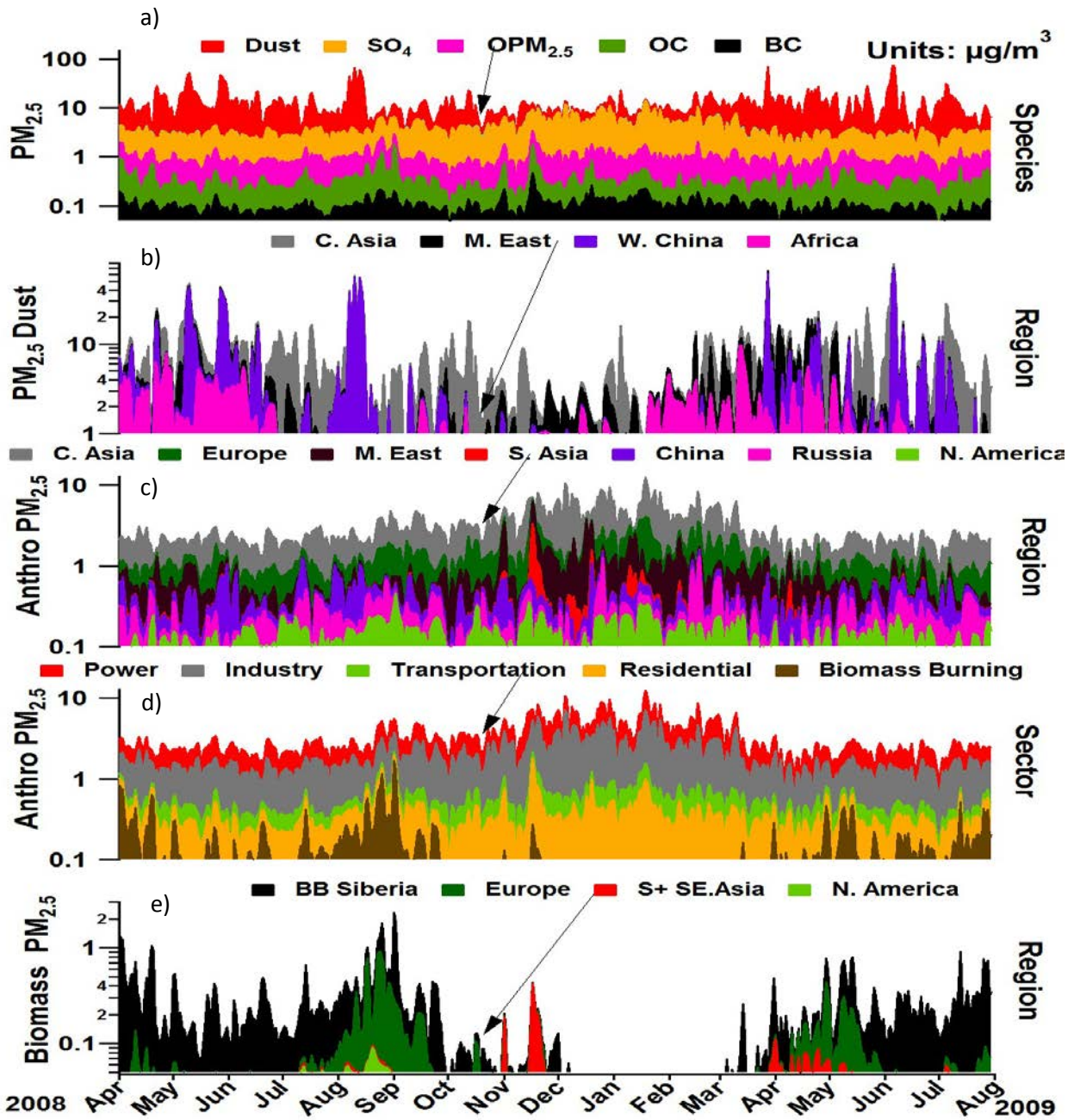


Fig. 11. Simulated composition of  $PM_{2.5}$  at the LST site by a) Species ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ), b) Source sector ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ), and c) Source regions ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ). The contributions from source region and sectors denote the non – dust portion of  $PM_{2.5}$  mass.

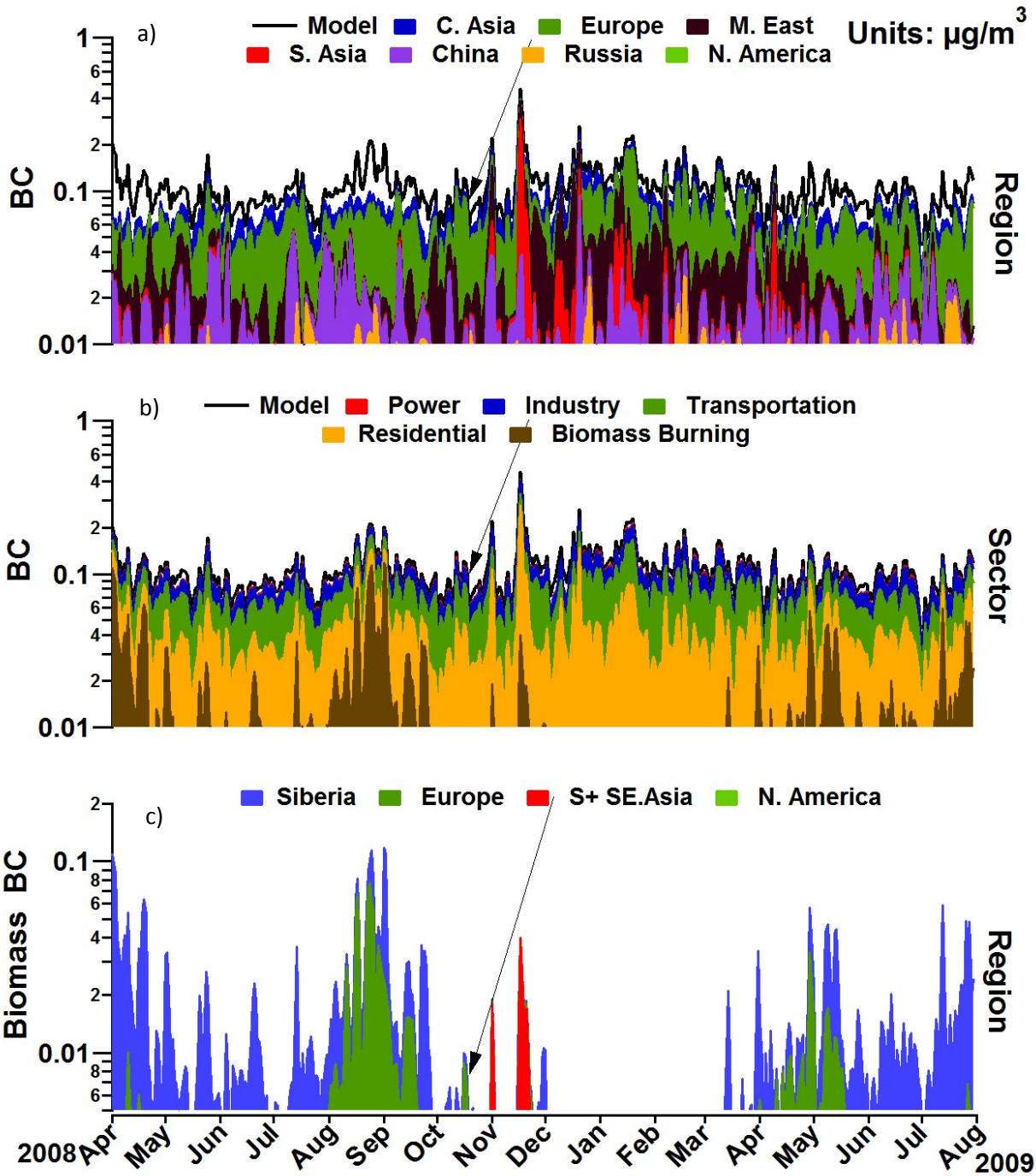


Fig. 12. Simulated composition of BC at the LST site by a) Source regions ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ), b) Source sector ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ), and c) Biomass burning source regions ( $\mu\text{g}/\text{m}^3$ ).



### Time Altitude Curtains at Lidar

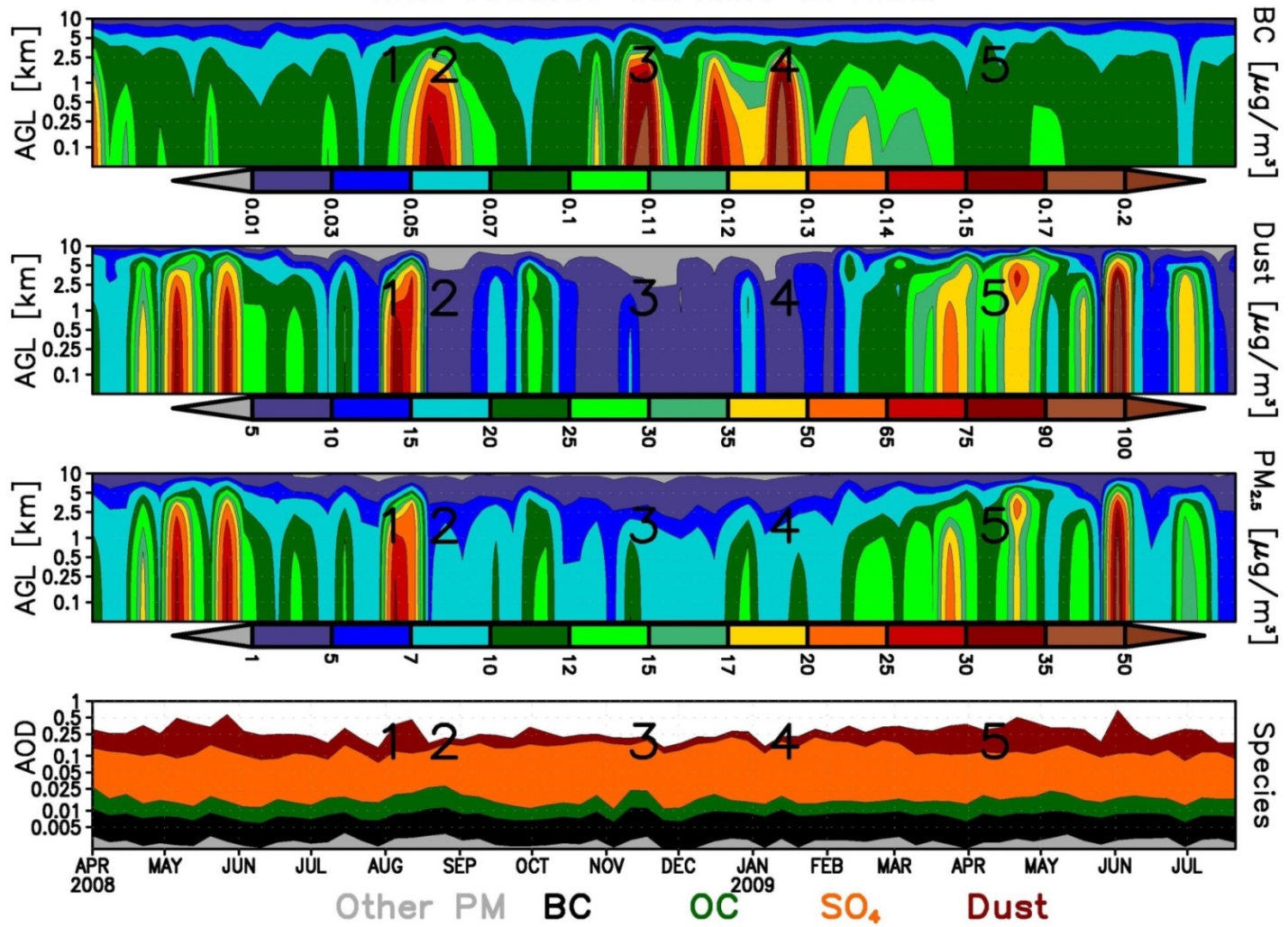


Fig. 13. Time altitude cross sections of weekly averaged predicted BC, dust and PM<sub>2.5</sub> for the simulation period at the LST site. The numbers denote the specific episodes of aerosol enhancements for back trajectory analysis in Fig. 14 and Fig. 15. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

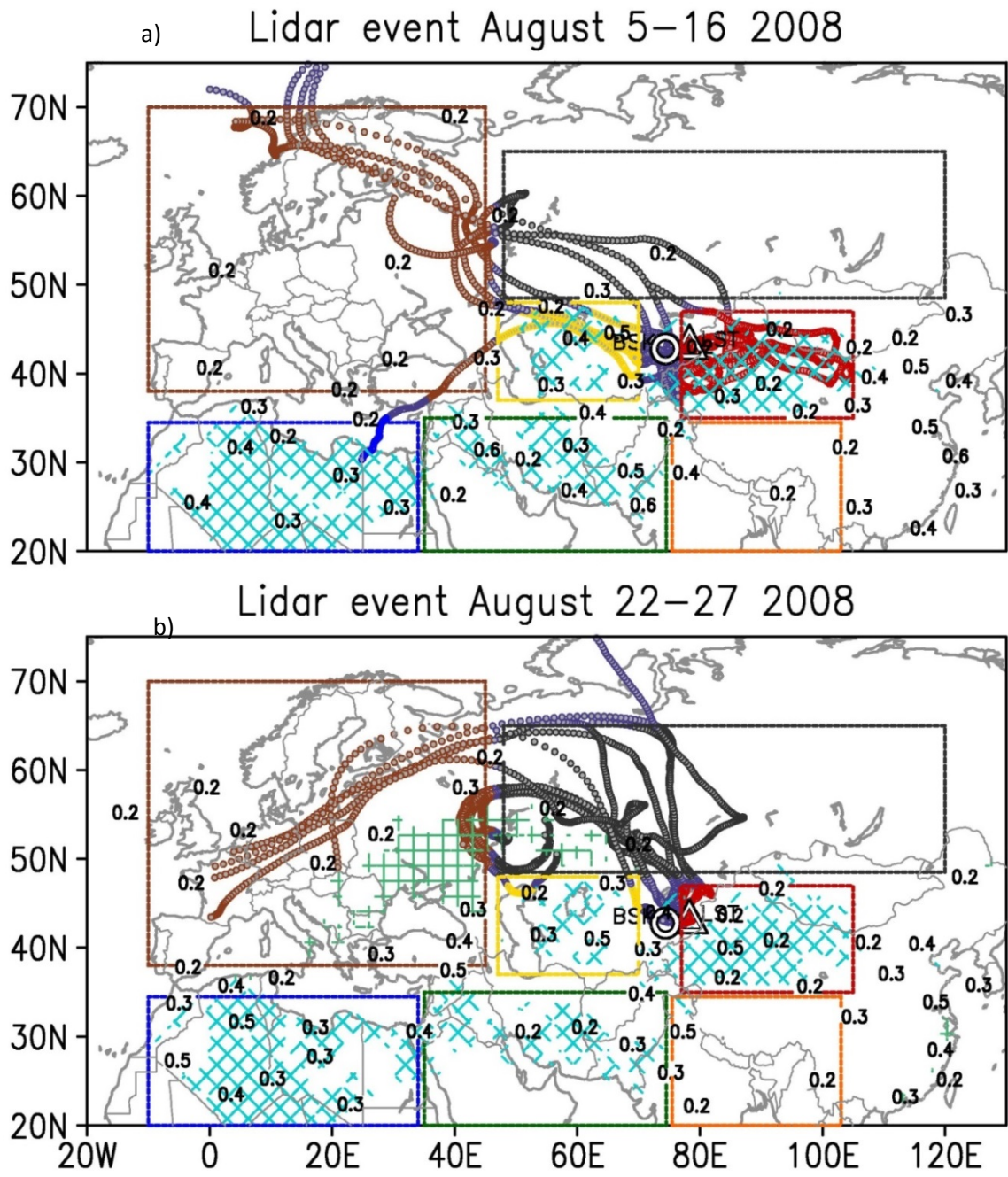


Fig. 14. Ten day air mass back trajectories for August 2008 (events 1 and 2 as denoted in Fig. 11) color coded by source regions. The blue diamond and green square hatched areas denote the natural dust and biomass burning emission sources while the number in black denote MODIS AOD contours averaged over the event time period and ten day prior time window. The trajectories are color coded by source regions including Africa (blue), Middle East (green), Central Asia (yellow), North Asia biomass (> 50° N, black), Europe (brown), China (red) and South Asia (orange). (green), Central Asia (yellow), North Asia biomass (> 50° N,

black), Europe (brown), China (red) and South Asia (orange). Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

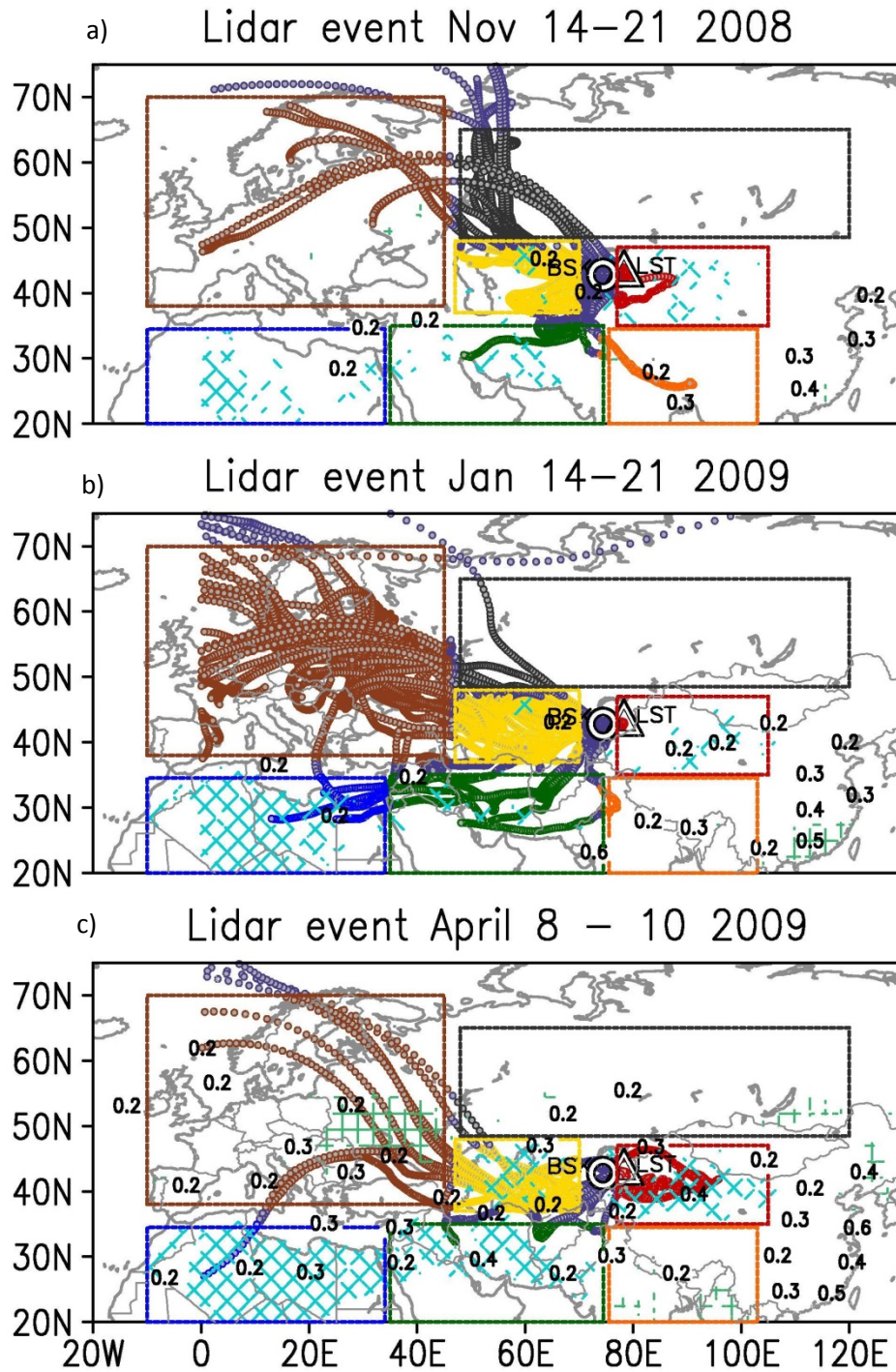


Fig. 15. Same as Fig. 14 but for November 2008, January 2009 and April 2009 (events 3, 4, 5 denoted in Fig. 13).

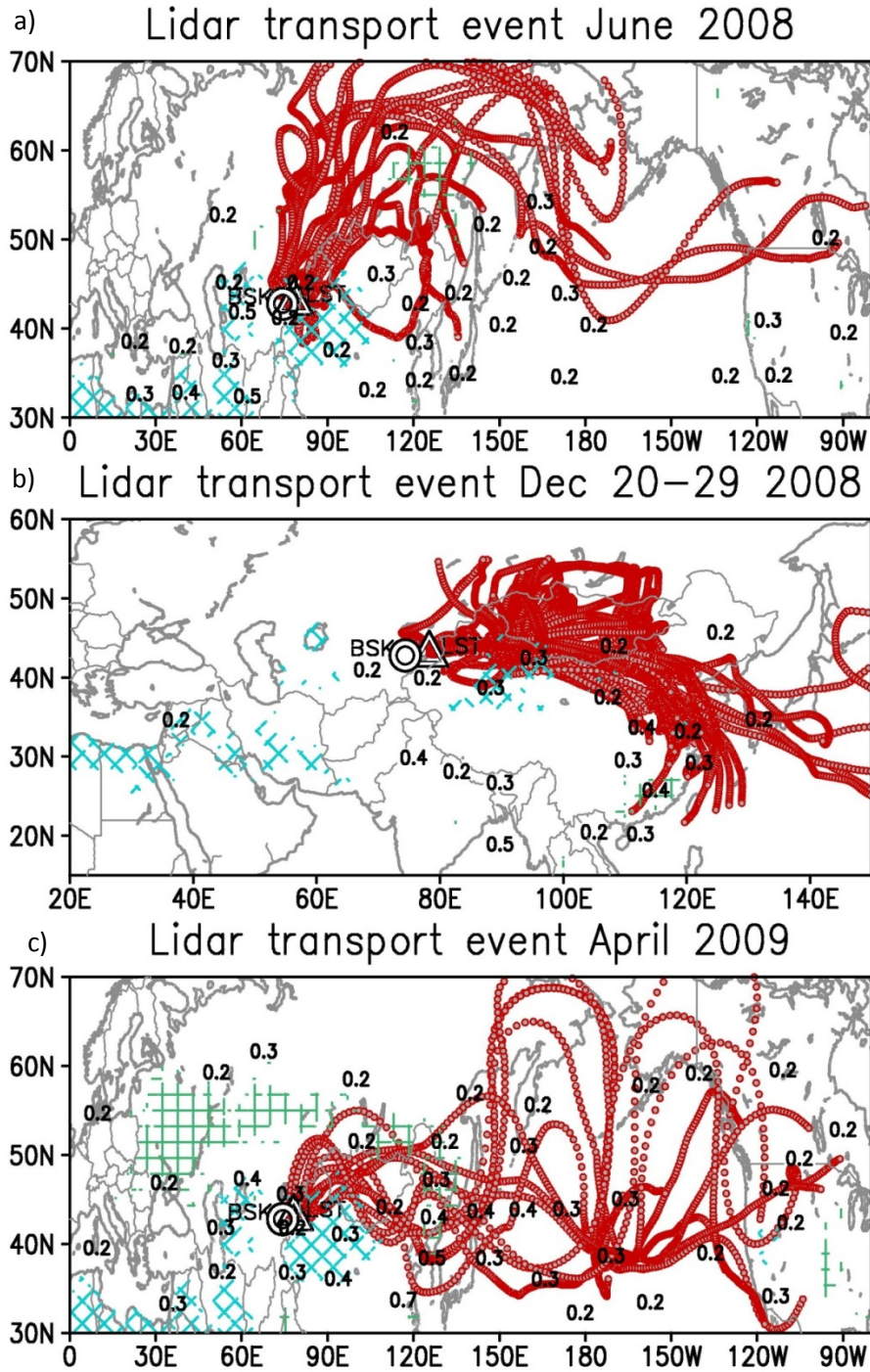


Fig. 16 Ten day air mass forward trajectories illustrating the seasonality in transport pathways out of CA for a) June 2008, b) December 2008, and c) April 2009. The blue diamond, green square hatched areas denote the natural dust and biomass burning emission sources while the number in black denote MODIS AOD contours, respectively, averaged over the event time

period and subsequent ten day time window. Lidar denotes the LST (Lidar Station Teplokluchenka) site.

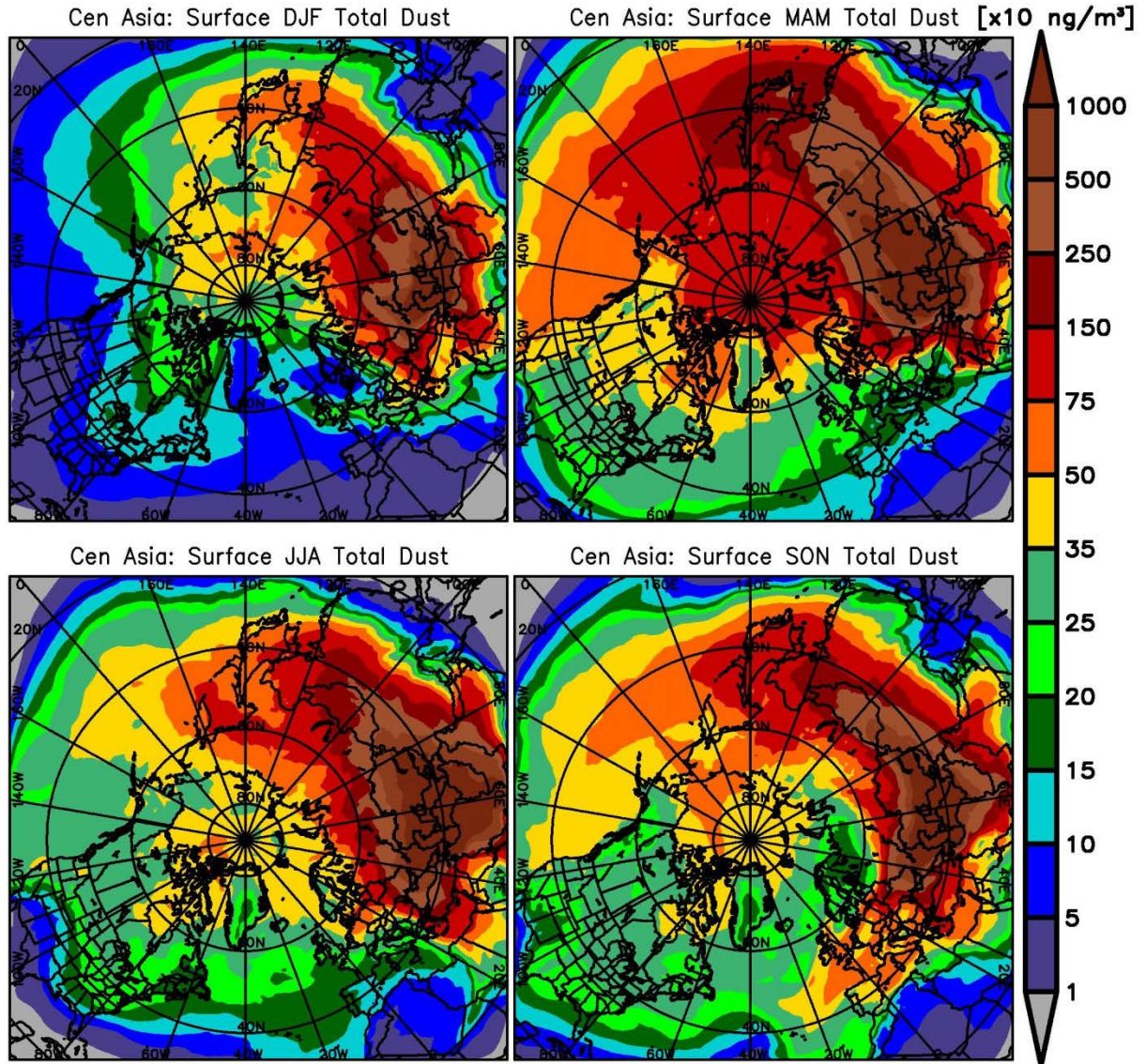


Fig. 17. Seasonally averaged surface total dust (PM<sub>10</sub>) concentrations from Central Asia dust emissions. DJF (top left panel) denotes the average for the months of December, January and February. MAM (top right panel) denotes the average for months of March, April and May. JJA (bottom left panel) denotes the average for months of June, July and August while SON (bottom right panel) denotes average for months of September, October and November.

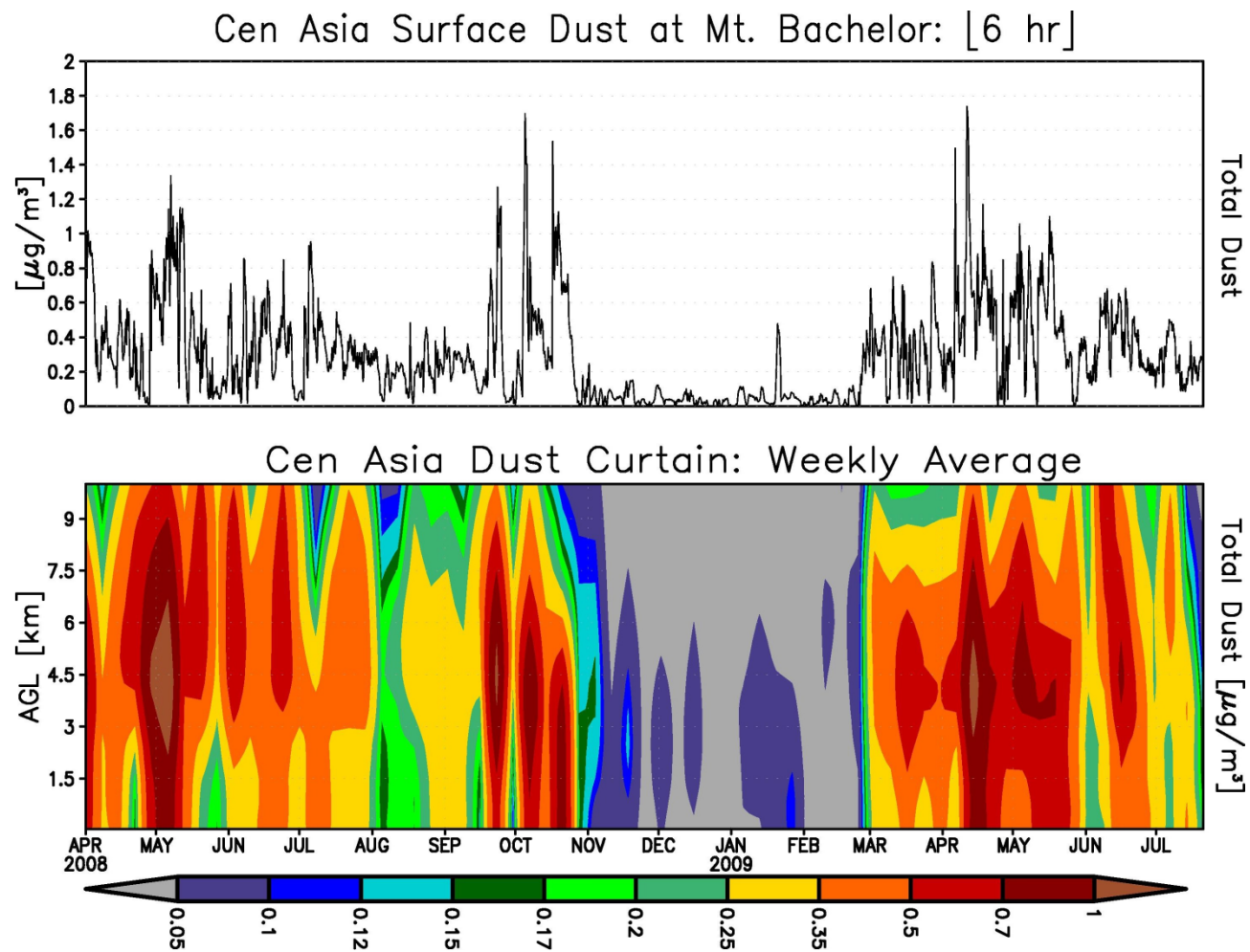


Fig. 18. Time series of predicted surface concentration at 6 h time step (top panel) and weekly averaged time altitude cross sections (bottom panel) of total dust (PM<sub>10</sub>) from Central Asia dust emissions at Mt. Bachelor, Oregon.



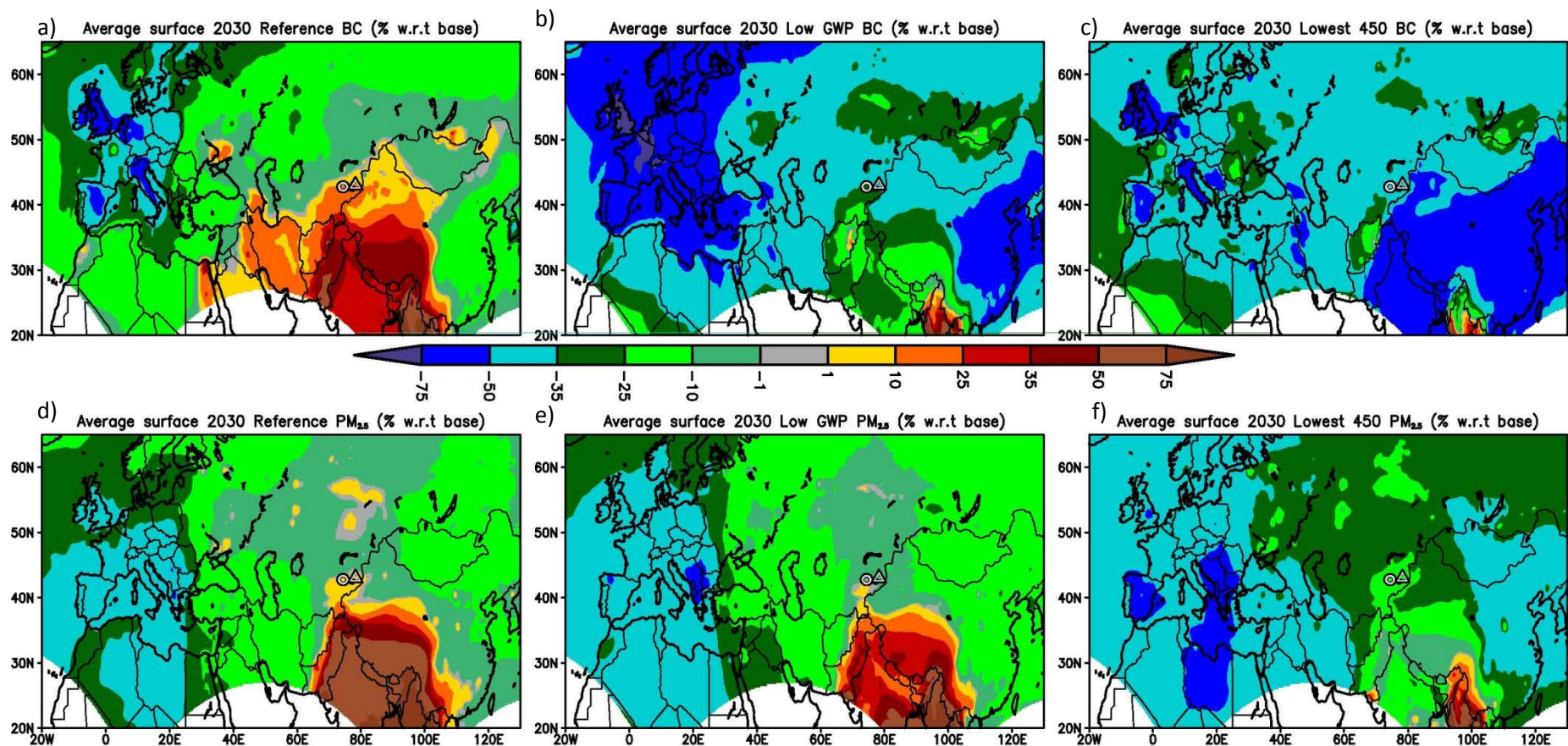


Fig. 19. Percent change in simulated period mean surface BC and PM<sub>2.5</sub> concentrations for future 2030 emission scenarios relative to the base year (2005) a),d) reference 2030, a),e) BC measures (low) and c),f) BC (lowest) and greenhouse gas measures aimed at keeping CO<sub>2</sub> levels below 450 ppm. Refer to Sec. 2.3 for more details on emission scenarios.