# Long-term Particulate Matter Modeling for Health Effects Studies in California – Part I: Model Performance on Temporal and Spatial

### Variations

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### 2 Abstract

3 For the first time, a ~decadal (9 years from 2000 to 2008) air quality model simulation 4 with 4 km horizontal resolution over populated regions and daily time resolution has been 5 conducted forin California to provide air quality data for health effects studies. Model predictions are compared to measurements to evaluate the accuracy of the simulation with an 6 7 emphasis on spatial and temporal variations that could be used in epidemiology studies. Better model performance is found at longer averaging times, suggesting that model results with 8 9 averaging times  $\geq 1$  month should be the first to be considered in epidemiological studies. The 10 UCD/CIT model predicts spatial and temporal variations in the concentrations of O<sub>3</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, elemental carbon (EC), organic carbon (,-OC), nitrate, and ammonium that meet standard 11 12 modeling performance criteria when compared to monthly-averaged measurements. Predicted 13 sulfate concentrations do not meet target performance metrics due to missing sulfur sources in 14 the emissions. Predicted seasonal and annual variations of PM2.5, EC, OC, nitrate, and 15 ammonium have mean fractional biases that meet the model performance criteria in 95%, 100%, 16 71%, 73%, and 92% of the simulated months, respectively. The base dataset provides an 17 improvement for predicted population exposure to PM concentrations in California compared to 18 exposures estimated by central site monitors operated one day out of every 3 days at a few urban 19 locations.

Uncertainties in the model predictions arise from several issues. Incomplete understanding of secondary organic aerosol formation mechanisms leads to OC bias in the model results in summertime but does not affect OC predictions in winter when concentrations are typically highest. The CO and NO (species dominated by mobile emissions) results reveal temporal and spatial uncertainties associated with the mobile emissions generated by the

25	EMFAC 2007 model. The WRF model tends to over-predict wind speed during stagnation
26	events, leading to under-predictions of high PM concentrations, usually in winter months. The
27	WRF model also generally under-predicts relative humidity, resulting in less particulate nitrate
28	formation, especially during winter months. These limitations mustissues will be recognized
29	when using dataimproved in healthfuture studies. All model results included in the current
30	manuscript can be downloaded free of charge at http://faculty.engineering.ucdavis.edu/kleeman/.
31	Key Words: particulate matter, chemical transport models, temporal variation, spatial variation
32	1. Introduction
33	
34	Numerous scientific studies have demonstrated associations between exposure to ambient
35	airborne particulate matter (PM) and a variety of health effects, such as cardiovascular diseases
36	(Dockery, 2001; Ford et al., 1998; Franchini and Mannucci, 2009; Langrish et al., 2012; Le
37	Tertre et al., 2002), respiratory diseases (Gordian et al., 1996; Hacon et al., 2007; Hughes and
38	Tolsma, 2002; Willers et al., 2013), low birth weight and birth defects (Barnett et al., 2011; Bell
39	et al., 2010; Brauer et al., 2008; Laurent et al., 2014; Laurent et al., 2013; Stieb et al., 2012), lung
40	cancer (Beelen et al., 2008; Beeson et al., 1998; Pope et al., 2002; Vineis et al., 2006), mortality
41	and life expectancy (Chen et al., 2013; Correia et al., 2013; Dockery et al., 1993; Franklin et al.,
42	2007; Goldgewicht, 2007; Kan and Gu, 2011; Laden et al., 2000; Ostro et al., 2006; Pope et al.,
43	2009). Recently a few studies have investigated the associations between particle composition
44	and health effects (Bell et al., 2010; Bell et al., 2007; Burnett et al., 2000; Cao et al., 2012;
45	Franklin et al., 2008; Ito et al., 2011; Krall et al., 2013; Levy et al., 2012; Mar et al., 2000; Ostro
46	et al., 2007; Ostro et al., 2010; Son et al., 2012). However, there remains large uncertainty about
47	which PM components are most responsible for the observed health effects, possibly due to the

48	fact that central site monitoring measurements used in the PM composition studies have limited
49	temporal, spatial, and chemical resolution, which could potentially lead to misclassification of
50	exposure estimates and mask some detailed correlations. Central site PM measurements typically
51	have a collection schedule of 1 sample every 3 or 6 days at a few sites used to represent an entire
52	population region. Important In addition, important particle size distribution and chemical
53	composition information is not always routinely measured. Additional information relating PM
54	composition to health effects would provide a solid foundation to design effective PM control
55	strategies to protect public health at a reduced economic and social cost.
56	+
57	Chemical transport models (CTMs) have recently been used as one of the alternative
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57 58 59 60	approaches to address the limitations of central site monitors (Anenberg et al., 2010 <u>; Bravo et al.,</u> 2012; Sarnat et al., 2011; Tainio et al., 2012 <u>)</u> ; Bravo et al., 2012; Sarnat et al., 2011; Tainio et al., 2012). The latest generation of CTMs represents a "state-of- <u>the-</u> science" understanding of
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67 The CTM applications in epidemiology studies to date have generally used relatively coarse spatial resolutions in order to reduce computational burden. Global CTMs have used 68 69 horizontal resolutions of over 100 km and regional CTMs have used resolution of 12-36 km. 70 These resolutions cannot capture fine spatial gradients of PM concentrations, especially in areas Formatted: Don't adjust space between Latin and Asian text, Don't adjust space between Asian text and numbers

71	with diverse topography and demography. Previous CTMs predictions used in epidemiology
72	studies have also been limited to time periods less than one year. Recently Zhang et al. (Zhang et
73	al., 2014a) evaluated the performance of the Community Multiscale Air Quality (CMAQ) model
74	over a 7-year period in the Eastern United States (U.S.), but no other long-term CTMs studies for
75	health effects analyses have been published to date. As a further limitation, previous
76	epidemiology studies based on CTM predictions have mostly used predicted particles with
77	aerodynamic diameter less than $2.5\mu m$ (PM <sub>2.5</sub> ) mass concentrations without taking full advantage
78	of the ability of CTMs to simultaneously estimate population exposure to multiple particle size
79	fractions, chemical components, and source contributions. The variation in CTM prediction bias
80	as a function of space and time due to uncertainties in model inputs (emissions, meteorological
81	fields, mechanism parameters) is often not sufficiently characterized to understand potential
82	impacts on health effects estimates. Detailed analyses are needed to assess the temporal and
83	spatial features of CTM predictions to identify accurate and/or unbiased information for
84	exposure assessment before such information can be applied in health effect studies (Beevers et
85	<u>al., 2013).</u>
86	
87	The objective of the current study is to develop and apply advanced source-oriented
88	CTMs to predict the concentrations and sources for enhanced PM exposure assessment in
89	epidemiological studies over a long-term period with high spatial resolution in California.
90	California is chosen as the focus area for the current study because it has extensive infrastructure
91	to support CTM studies, and it has one of the largest populations in the U.S. that is experiencing
92	unhealthy levels of PM pollution. In 2013, 104 U.S. counties with a population of 65 million

93 people are in non-attainment with the National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS) for

94	PM <sub>2.5</sub> (EPA, 2013). Approximately half of that population (31 million people) lives in 29
95	California counties meaning that California suffers a disproportionately large share of U.S. PM-
96	related mortality (Fann et al., 2012). The California Air Resources Board (CARB) estimates that
97	14000 - 24000 California residents die prematurely each year due to particulate air pollution
98	(Tran, 2008). The severity of this problem has motivated extensive investments to support air
99	pollution studies. California has the densest ambient PM measurement network, accurate
100	emissions inventories, and the most health effects study groups of any state in the United States.
101	Rich datasets are available to support model application and evaluation.
102	
103	The current study is the first attempt to address the sparse PM data problem in exposure
104	assessment using CTM results over a ~decadal time period (9 years from 2000 to 2008) over a
105	domain spanning ~1000 km at a spatial resolution of 4 km. Companion studies have modeled
106	primary $PM_{2.5}$ and $PM_{0.1}$ (particles with aerodynamic diameter less than 0.1µm) concentrations
107	and sources in California (Hu et al., 2014a; Hu et al., 2014b). The current paper, as the third in
108	the series, focuses on model evaluation of total (=primary+secondary) $PM_{2.5}$ and major
109	components elemental carbon (EC), organic carboncompounds (OC), nitrate, sulfate,
110	ammonium), emphasizing the aspects of temporal and spatial variations, to identify the features
111	of the CTM results that could add skill to the exposure assessment for epidemiological studies. A
112	future study will investigate the model capability for PM source apportionment of primary and
113	secondary $\underline{\text{organic aerosols}}\Theta C$ , which is currently an area with great uncertainty.
114	2. Methods

- **2.1 Air Quality Model Description**

118	The host air quality model employed in the current study is based on the Eulerian source-
119	oriented University of California-Davis/California Institute of Technology (UCD/CIT) chemical
120	transport model (Chen et al., 2010; Held, 2004; Held et al., 2005; Hu et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2010;
121	Kleeman and Cass, 2001; Kleeman et al., 1997; Kleeman et al., 2007; Mahmud, 2010; Mysliwiec
122	and Kleeman, 2002; Rasmussen et al., 2013; Ying, 2008; Ying et al., 2007; Ying and Kleeman,
123	2006; Zhang and Ying, 2010). The UCD/CIT model includes a complete description of
124	atmospheric transport, deposition, chemical reaction, and gas-particle transfer. The details of the
125	standard algorithms used in the UCD/CIT family of models have been described in the above
126	references and therefore are not repeated here. Only the aspects that are updated during the
127	current study are discussed in the following section.
128	
129	The photochemical mechanism used by the UCD/CIT model was updated to reflect the
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140 parameters for the thermodynamic equilibrium calculation (i.e., enthalpy of vaporization,

141 saturation concentrations, and stoichiometric yields) are provided in Carlton et al. and references

142 therein (Carlton et al., 2010).

143

144	Model simulations were configured using a one-way nesting technique with a parent	
145	domain of 24 km horizontal resolution that covered the entire state of California (referred to as	
146	CA_24km) and two nested domains with 4 km horizontal resolution that covered the Southern	
147	California Air Basin (SoCAB) (referred to as SoCAB_4km) and San Francisco Bay Area + San	
148	Joaquin Valley (SJV) + South Sacramento Valley air basins (referred to as SJV_4km) (shown in	
149	Figure 1). The nested 4 km resolution domains are configured to cover the major ocean, coast,	
150	urban, and rural regions that influence California's air quality and, most importantly, to cover	
151	most of the California's population for the purpose of health effects analyses. Over 92% of	
152	California's population lives in the 4 km domains based on the most recent census information.	
153	The UCD/CIT model was configured with 16 vertical layers up to a height of 5 km above ground	
154	level in all the mother and nested domains, with 10 layers in the first 1 km, Note that the use of	
155	relatively shallow vertical domains is only appropriate in regions with well-defined air basins	
156	and would not be appropriate for locations in the eastern U.S. or other regions with moderate	
157	topography. Particulate composition, number and mass concentrations are represented in 15 size	
158	bins, ranging from 0.01 to 10 $\mu$ m in diameter. Primary particles are assumed to be internally	
159	mixed, i.e., all particles within a size bin have the same composition. Previous studies (Ying et	
160	al., 2007) have shown that this assumptions provides adequate predictions for total PM	
161	concentrations relative to source-oriented mixing treatments in California when feedbacks to	
162	meteorology are not considered (Zhang et al., 2014b).	

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### **2.2 Meteorology and Emissions**

166	Hourly meteorology inputs (wind, temperature, humidity, precipitation, radiation, air
167	density, and mixing layer height) were generated using the Weather Research and Forecasting
168	model (WRF) v3.1.1 (Wei Wang, January 2010; William C. Skamarock, June 2008). Two-way
169	nesting was used with the outer domain at 12 km resolution and the inner nested domain at 4 km
170	resolution. North American Regional Reanalysis (NARR) data with 32 km resolution and 3-hour
171	time resolution was used as initial and boundary conditions of the coarse 12 km domain. The
172	WRF model was configured with 31 vertical layers up to 100 hPahpa (around 16 km). Four-
173	dimensional data assimilation (FDDA) was used. The YSU boundary layer scheme, thermal
174	diffusion land-surface scheme, and Monin-Obukhov surface layer scheme were used based on
175	results from a previous study in California (Mahmud, 2010; Zhao et al., 2011). The surface wind
176	was over-predicted with the original version of WRF, especially for wind speed less than 3 m/s,
177	consistent with other studies in California (Angevine et al., 2012; Fast et al., 2014; Michelson et
178	al., 2010a). Over-prediction of the slow winds caused under-prediction of concentrations during
179	high pollution events. A recent study (Mass, C.F, personal communication) found that
180	increasing the surface friction velocity (u*) was increased by 50% reduced to improve the
181	bias in surface wind predictions in a complex-terrain domain. This technique was tested and
182	adopted in previous studies (Hu et al., 2012; Hu et al., 2014a) where it improved the accuracy of
183	air quality predictions. In the current study, a 1-year - A-sensitivity simulation conducted for
184	California in the year of 2000 revealed that increasing u* by 50% improved the mean wind bias
185	from 1.15 m/s to $-0.50$ m/s, and lowered the root-mean-square error from 2.95 to 2.20 m/s (Hu et

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186	al., 2014a) Hourly average meteorology outputs at the air quality model vertical layer heights
187	were created. The meteorology predictions were evaluated against meteorological observations
188	(CARB, 2011a). The meteorological statistical evaluation over the period 2000-2006 has been
189	presented in a previous study (Hu et al., 2014a)(Hu et al., 2014a), and the results in the period
190	2007-2008 are consistent with those years. In summary, meteorology predictions of temperature
191	and wind speed generally meet benchmarks suggested by Emery et al. (2001). Mean fractional
192	biases (MFBs) of temperature and wind are generally within $\pm 0.15$ , root mean square errors
193	(RMSEs) of temperature are around 4 $^{\circ}$ C, and RMSEs of wind are generally lower than 2.0 m/s,
194	especially in the SoCAB and SJV air basins which are the focus of the current study. Relative
195	humidity is under-predicted, consistent with findings in other studies in California (Bao, 2008;
196	Michelson et al., 2010). Wind, temperature and humidity are the major meteorological factors
197	that influence the PM concentrations. Further discussions of the uncertainties in meteorology
198	predictions on PM predictions are included in the Results and Discussions section.
199	
200	Hourly gridded gas and particulate emissions were generated using an updated version of
201	the emissions model described by Kleeman and Cass (Kleeman and Cass, 1998). The standard
202	emissions inventories from anthropogenic sources (i.e., point sources, stationary area sources,
203	and mobile sources) were provided by CARB. Size and composition resolved particle emissions
204	were specified using a library of primary particle source profiles measured during actual source
205	tests (Cooper, 1989; Harley et al., 1992; Hildemann et al., 1991a; Hildemann et al., 1991b;
206	Houck, 1989; Kleeman et al., 2008; Kleeman et al., 1999, 2000; Robert et al., 2007a; Robert et
207	al., 2007b; Schauer et al., 1999a, b, 2001, 2002a, b; Taback et al., 1979). A few studies have
208	revealed some uncertainties associated with the standard emissions inventories. Millstein and

209	Harley (Millstein and Harley, 2009) found that PM and NOx emissions from diesel-powered
210	construction equipment were over-estimated by a factor of 3.1 and 4.5, respectively. Countess
211	(Countess, 2003) suggested that a scaling factor of $0.33 - 0.74$ should be applied to the fugitive
212	dust emissions in the California's San Joaquin Valley. Therefore, scaling factors of 0.32 for off-
213	road diesel sources and 0.50 for dust emissions were applied in the current study. The EMFAC
214	2007 model (CARB, 2008) was used to scale the mobile emissions using predicted temperature
215	and relative humidity fields through the entire nine-year modeling episode. Biogenic emissions
216	were generated using the Biogenic Emissions Inventory System v3.14 (BEIS3.14), which
217	includes a 1-km resolution land cover database with 230 different vegetation types (Vukovich
218	and Pierce, 2002). Sea-salt emissions were generated on-line based on the formulation described
219	by de Leeuw et al. (de Leeuw et al., 2000) for the surf zone and the formulation described by
220	Gong (Gong, 2003) for the open ocean. Emissions from wildfires and open burning at 1 km $\times$ 1
221	km resolution were obtained from the Fire INventory from NCAR (FINN) (Hodzic et al., 2007;
222	Wiedinmyer et al., 2011). The FINN inventory provides SAPRC99 speciated daily emissions of
223	gaseous and particulate emissions (EC, organic matter (OM), OC, PM <sub>2.5</sub> and PM <sub>10</sub> ) based on
224	satellite observations of open burning events. Each open burning event is allocated to model grid
225	cells of each domain based on the reported longitude/latitude of the event and the area burned.
226	The emissions were injected at the height of the atmospheric mixing layer (PBL). The temporal
227	variation of wildfire emissions was obtained from the Western Regional Air Partnership
228	(WRAP) report (WRAP, 2005). A size distribution profile was calculated based on assumptions
229	described in Hodzic et al. (Hodzic et al., 2007).
230	

**2.3 Ambient Air Quality Measurements** 

233	The evaluation dataset was compiled from several measurement networks, including
234	CARB's "2011 Air Quality Data DVD" (CARB, 2011b) and the database maintained by the
235	Interagency Monitoring of Protected Visual Environments (IMPROVE). The data DVD includes
236	daily average mass concentrations of PM <sub>2.5</sub> , EC, OC, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium, and trace
237	metals every 3 or 6 days at the sites of the $PM_{2.5}$ Speciation Trends Network (STN) and the State
238	and Local Air Monitoring Stations (SLAMS). There are a total 13 $PM_{2.5}$ speciation sites included
239	in the DVD covered in the 4 km domains during the modeling periods. The precision of STN
240	measurements is estimated to be 3.5%, 8.6%, and 3.9% for sulfate, nitrate, and ammonium,
241	respectively (Sickles Ii and Shadwick, 2002). Measured EC concentrations at 5 sites are found
242	to be exactly 0.5 $\mu$ g/m3 on > 80% of the measurement days, suggesting corrupt or missing data
243	at these locations. Therefore these 5 sites were excluded in the evaluation for EC, but still
244	included in the evaluation for other PM components. The OC data were not blank corrected,
245	resulting in a positive artifact by the NIOSH5040 method that is equivalent to approximately 1
246	$\mu$ g/m <sup>3</sup> . Measured OC concentrations were blank corrected in the current study by subtracting 1
247	$\mu g/m^3$ from all OC measurements. The IMPROVE network provides daily average mass
248	concentrations every 3 days for $PM_{2.5}$ , EC, OC, nitrate, sulfate, and soil. There are a total of 9
249	IMPROVE sites covered in the 4 km domains. The precision of IMPROVE measurements is
250	estimated to be 4–6% for $PM_{2.5}$ mass, nitrate, and sulfate, and to be > 15% for EC and OC
251	(http://vista.cira.colostate.edu/improve/Publications/OtherDocs/IMPROVEDataGuide/IMPROV
252	EDataGuide.htm). Daily average PM <sub>10</sub> mass measurements and hourly measurements of several
253	key gaseous pollutants (ozone, CO, NO, NO <sub>2</sub> , and SO <sub>2</sub> ) are also included in the data DVD. There
254	are a total of 66 $PM_{2.5}$ Federal Reference Method (FRM) sites covered in the 4 km domains.

255	Frank (Frank, 2006) found that FRM $PM_{2.5}$ mass measured using STN monitors was within $\pm$
256	30% of reconstructed fine mass (RCFM) concentrations measured using IMPROVE monitors.

**3. R** 

## 3. Results and Discussion Discussions

### **3.1 Statistical evaluation**

260	Statistical measures of MFB and mean fractional error (MFE) were calculated to evaluate
261	the accuracy of model estimates in space and time. Boylan and Russell (Boylan and Russell,
262	2006) proposed concentration dependent MFB and MFE performance goals and criteria,
263	realizing that lower concentrations are more difficult to accurately predict. The performance
264	goals are the level of accuracy close to the best that a model can be expected to achieve, while
265	performance criteria are the level of accuracy acceptable for standard modeling applications.
266	
267	Figures 2 and 3 show the monthly MFB and MFE values, respectively, of predicted daily
268	average EC, OC, nitrate, ammonium, sulfate and total $PM_{2.5}$ mass in the 4 km domains.
269	Measured EC, OC, nitrate, ammonium, and total $PM_{2.5}$ mass concentrations follow similar
270	seasonal patterns with high concentrations occurring in winters (indicated by blue colors in
271	figures) and low concentrations occurring in summers (indicated by red colors in figures). These
272	patterns are driven by the meteorological cycles (i.e., lower mixing layer and wind speed
273	providing less dilution, and lower temperature encouraging partitioning of ammonium nitrate to
274	the particle phase) and the emissions variations (i.e., additional wood burning emissions for
275	home heating in winters). The opposite seasonal variations in sulfate concentrations are
276	observed, due to higher oxidation rates from S(IV) to S(VI) and higher sulfur emissions from
277	natural sources in summer (Bates et al., 1992).

279	EC predictions are in excellent agreement with measurements. MFBs in all months and
280	MFEs in 107 months out of the total 108 months are within the model performance goal. EC
281	MFBs and MFEs show no significant difference among months/seasons, indicating consistently
282	good EC performance during the entire 9-year modeling period. OC, nitrate, sulfate, and
283	ammonium, the PM components that include the secondary formation pathways, meet the MFBs
284	model performance criteria in 71%, 73%, 46%, and 92% of the simulated months, respectively.
285	These components generally have good agreement between predictions and measurements in
286	winter months, with only a few months not meeting the performance criteria. When analyzing by
287	season, predicted concentrations of these species are found to be more biased in summer months,
288	especially for sulfate and nitrate. Different factors influence the seasonal profile of each species.
289	The more significant OC under-prediction in summertime is mainly associated with the under-
290	prediction of SOA due to incomplete knowledge of SOA formation mechanism at the present
291	time. Similar patterns have been reported in other modeling studies outside California (Matsui et
292	al., 2009; Volkamer et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2014a; Zhang and Ying, 2011). Measured nitrate
293	concentrations in summertime (1-5 $\mu$ g/m <sup>3</sup> ) are factors of 2-5 lower than concentrations in
294	wintertime (5-12 $\mu$ g/m <sup>3</sup> ). Model predictions tend to underestimate the low particle phase nitrate
295	concentrations in summer, especially when temperatures exceed 25 °C. Model predictions for
296	particulate nitrate are usually less than 1 $\mu$ g/m <sup>3</sup> under these conditions, while 2-3 $\mu$ g/m <sup>3</sup> nitrate
297	concentrations are still observed in the ambient air. Similar under-predictions of summertime
298	nitrate have been reported in other regional modeling studies (Appel et al., 2008; Tesche et al.,
299	2006; Yu et al., 2005; Zhang et al., 2014a). Model calculations reflect thermodynamics and
300	kinetic gas-particle transfer for ammonium nitrate in mixed particles, suggesting that some other

301	form of nitrate is present in the real atmosphere, such as organo-nitrates (Day et al., 2010).	
302	Sulfate concentrations are <u>consistently</u> under-predicted <u>throughout the modeling period at all</u>	
303	locations, especially in southern California where the measured sulfate concentrations are	
304	highest. Under-prediction of sulfate has also been reported by other regional modeling studies in	
305	California (Chen et al., 2014; Fast et al., 2014), using different air quality models (e.g., CMAQ,	
306	WRF-Chem). This consistent behavior suggests that the specific model is not the cause of the	
307	sulfate under-prediction. A global model study that included ocean DMS emissions showed a	
308	better sulfate performance in California (Walker et al., 2012). Therefore, because of missing	Formatted: Font color: Text 1
309	emissions sources such as the sulfur emitted as dimethyl sulfide (DMS) from the Pacific Ocean	
310	likely contribute to the sulfate under-predictions in the current study. The sulfate concentrations	
311	at the sites in southern California are ~2 to 3 times higher than in northern California, and are	
312	under-predicted by an even larger amount (with MFBs around -1.0). It is therefore likely that	
313	anthropogenic sulfur sources are missing in southern California in addition to background DMS	
314	sources., Ammonium is drawn to acidic particles and so ammonium concentration predictions	Formatted: Font color: Text 1
315	reflect the combined trends of nitrate and sulfate predictions.	
316		
317	The model predictions of total mass of PM <sub>2.5</sub> mass, as a summation of all components,	Formatted: Font color: Text 1
318	show very good agreement with measurements, with only 3 summer months and 2 spring	Formatted: Font color: Text 1 Formatted: Font color: Text 1
319	monthsmonth (5% of all simulated months) not meeting the performance criteria, and 78% and	Formatted: Font color: Text 1
320	75% of months within the performance goals for MFB and MFE, respectively. The largest	Formatted: Font color: Text 1
321	biases in the total PM <sub>2.5</sub> mass occur in summer. Under-prediction in summer sulfate and OC	
322	contribute to negative biases in the total PM <sub>2.5</sub> mass predictions. Sulfate and OC concentrations	
323	in summer accounted for ~18% and ~37% of the total $PM_{2.5}$ mass. <u>Sulfate Therefore, sulfate</u> and	Formatted: Font color: Text 1

324	OC under-prediction contributed to a combined $\sim$ 37% under-prediction of total PM <sub>2.5</sub> mass.	
325	However, positive biases in predicted dust concentrations rich in crustal elements such as	
326	aluminum and silica (Hu et al., 2014a)(Hu et al., 2014a) compensate for the under-predictions in	Formatted: Font color: Text
327	carbonaceous components and water-soluble ions described above.	
328		
329	Figure 4 shows the MFB and MFE values of particulate species of PM <sub>2.5</sub> total mass, EC,	
330	OC, nitrate, sulfate, ammonium and gaseous species of O <sub>3</sub> , CO, NO, NO <sub>2</sub> , SO <sub>2</sub> using daily	
331	averages across all measurement sites during the entire modeled 9-year period. $PM_{2.5}$ total mass,	
332	EC, OC, ammonium and gaseous species of $O_3$ , CO, $NO_2$ have MFBs within ±0.3 and MFE less	
333	than 0.75, indicating general agreement between predictions and measurement for these species.	
334	Nitrate and NO have MFBs of -0.4 and -0.28, respectively, but MFEs of 0.8 and 1.07,	
335	respectively. The relatively moderate or small bias combined with relatively large error indicates	
336	that the daily predictions miss the extremely high and low concentrations. Sulfate and $SO_2$ have	
337	high MFBs of -0.7 and -0.5, respectively, and high MFEs of 0.8 and 0.9, respectively, indicating	
338	that these species are consistently under-predicted.	
339		
340	Concentrations averaged over longer times, such as 1 month or 1 year, are used in some	
341	air pollution-health effects studies. A previous examination of primary particles in California	
342	revealed that air quality model predictions are more accurate over longer averaging time because	
343	the influence of extreme events and short-term variability is reduced as the averaging period gets	
344	longer ( <u>Hu et al., 2014a)</u> (Hu et al., 2014a). Figure 4 compares the MFB and MFE values for total	
345	(=primary+secondary) particulate matter and gaseous species using daily, monthly, and annual	
346	averages across all sites in the 4 km domains. The results demonstrate that longer averaging	

347	times produce better agreement between model predictions and measurements (except for
348	sulfate, which is under-predicted due to missing emissions) because they remove the effects of
349	random measurement errors at monitoring stations and variations in actual emissions rates that
350	are not reflected in seasonally-averaged emissions inventories. The reduced errors associated
351	with longer averaging times indicate that model results may be most useful in epidemiological
352	studies that <u>can take advantage of require</u> averaging times $\geq 1$ month.
353	3.2 Spatial and temporal variations
354	
355	Figure 5 panel (a) shows the predicted and measured monthly average concentrations of
356	1-h peak $O_3$ at 5 major urban sites (Sacramento, Fresno, Bakersfield, Los Angeles, and
357	Riverside). Strong seasonal variations are observed in measured and predicted 1-h peak O <sub>3</sub> . The
358	measured 1-h peak O <sub>3</sub> shows seasonal variation from 100 ppb in summertime to 20 ppb in
359	wintertime. The predicted high 1-h peak O <sub>3</sub> concentrations in non-winter months are in good
360	agreement with, or slightly higher than, ambient measured concentrations at all sites. This is
361	consistent with studies in the eastern U.S. (Zhang et al., 2014a), which found similar slight over-
362	predictions of summer O <sub>3</sub> concentrations. Predicted 1-h peak O <sub>3</sub> concentrations in cold winter
363	months, however, are generally higher than measured values. Photochemical reaction rates in
364	wintertime months are slow and the predicted O <sub>3</sub> concentration at the surface mostly reflects
365	downward mixing of the aloft background O <sub>3</sub> followed by titration by surface NO emissions.
366	The STN measurement sites in California are located in urban areas that are close to major
367	freeways (see the site locations and nearby sources information in (Hu et al., 2014a)(Hu et al.,
368	$\frac{2014a}{2014a}$ ). The 4 km × 4 km model grid cells that contain both freeways and monitors dilute the
369	high NO concentrations around the measurement sites leading to an under-prediction of O <sub>3</sub>

370	titration and an over-prediction of O <sub>3</sub> concentrations. EPA recommends a threshold O <sub>3</sub> value of
371	60 ppb for model $O_3$ evaluations (U.S.EPA, 2007), which means that wintertime $O_3$
372	concentrations at the urban sites will generally not be considered in the formal model evaluation.
373	

374 Figure 5 panels (b) and (c) show the predicted and measured monthly average CO and 375 NO concentrations. Strong seasonal variations in CO and NO can be observed, with wintertime 376 concentrations that are a factor of 3-5 higher than summertime concentrations. Model predictions 377 generally reproduce the seasonal variations except at the Riverside site where predicted seasonal 378 variations are weaker than measurements. The model performance varies by simulation year and 379 location. At the Sacramento and Fresno sties, predicted CO is in good agreement with measured 380 concentrations in all months of 2002 through 2006, but CO is under-predicted in winter months 381 of 2000-2001 and slightly over-predicted in most months of 2007-2008. At the Bakersfield site, 382 CO is under-predicted in 2000-2003 and in good agreement with measurements in 2004-2005 383 (after which further measurements are not available). At the Los Angeles site, CO is in good 384 agreement in 2000-2003, and over-predicted in the later years. At the Riverside site, CO is 385 under-predicted in all months of 2000-2003, under-predicted in non-summer months in 2004-386 2006, and in general agreement with measurements in 2007-2008. NO predictions generally 387 agree well with measured NO concentrations in 2000-2004 at Sacramento, Fresno, Bakersfield 388 and Los Angeles, and then are over-predicted in the later years. NO at Riverside is under-389 predicted in the winter months of 2000-2003, and over-predicted in the summer months of 2004-390 2008. Mobile emissions are the dominant sources of CO and NO in California, contributing > 391 80% of total anthropogenic emissions (CARB, 2012). The results of the current modeling study 392 suggest that uncertainties in the mobile emissions exist both in time and space.

394	A clear and similar decreasing trend is apparent in measured CO and NO concentrations
395	from 2000-2008. This inter-annual trend is not well captured by the model predictions due to the
396	uncertainties in the emissions. An adjusted NO prediction (NO_adj) can be calculated using CO
397	as a tracer for the mobile emissions and dilution according to the equation:
398	NO_adj = NO_noadj * CO_predicted / CO_measured
399	where NO_noadj is the NO predictions before the adjustment (i.e., the concentrations showing in
400	Figure 5(c)). NO_adj has higher correlation coefficient ( $R^2$ ) with measured NO concentrations
401	than the NO_noadj prediction at all the five monitoring sites (as shown in Figure 76) and NO_adj
402	has a regression slope closer to 1.0 than NO_noadj at 3 out of 5 sites. This suggests that either
403	emissions or physical dilution processes in the model contribute to the errors observed in Figure
404	5 (in addition to the possibility of errors in model chemistry). Unfortunately, the large variation
405	in the correction factor among different locations suggests that these scaling factors cannot be
406	simply interpolated/extrapolated from the indicated five monitoring sites to the full modeling
407	domain.
408	
409	Figure 5 panels (d) and Figure 6 (a(+) show the predicted and measured monthly average
410	ammonium and nitrate concentrations. Ammonium nitrate is a major $PM_{2.5}$ component in
411	California, especially in wintertime when the low temperature and high relative humidity favor
412	partitioning to the condensed phase. The monthly average ammonium and nitrate results
413	demonstrate similar model performance. The predicted concentrations agree reasonably well
414	with measured ambient concentrations and seasonal variations. Model predictions are lower than
415	measured values in the early years, especially during winter months when concentrations are

416	highest. This pattern is very consistent with CO model performance, suggesting mobile
417	emissions are under-estimated for the early years of the simulation period. Nitrate is formed
418	through NO oxidation to nitric acid but NO concentrations are not under-predicted, suggesting
419	that the chemical conversion of NO to nitric acid is too slow. Carter and Heo (Carter and Heo,
420	2012b) suggested that SAPRC11 mechanism systematically under-predicts OH radical
421	concentrations by ~30%, which would be consistent with the observed trends.
422	
423	Gas-particle partitioning of ammonium nitrate depends on temperature and relative
424	humidity. While there is no systematic bias in WRF temperature, relative humidity is generally
425	under-predicted by up to 40% over California. A one-year sensitivity analysis was conducted
426	with RH increased uniformly by +30% (but not to exceed 95%, and all other meteorological
427	parameters were kept the same)%) in 2008 to investigate the impact of the relative humidity bias
428	on particulate nitrate predictions. <u>The arbitrary increase in RH by 30% in the air quality model</u>
429	simulations yields an upper bound estimate of the nitrate sensitivity to RH. Figure 8Figure 7
430	compares the monthly average nitrate concentrations predicted with the original RH (denoted as
431	"RH_ori" case) and the enhanced RH (denoted as "RH+0.3" case) at Sacramento and Fresno.
432	Nitrate predictions are generally higher in the "RH+0.3" case due to more particle phase water
433	available to absorb nitrate into the condensed phase. The nitrate predictions at Sacramento are
434	significantly improved during most months in 2008, suggesting this area suffers from the low
435	RH bias in the WRF predictions. Nitrate at Fresno is improved mostly in the winter and spring,
436	but is still under-predicted during the time period with peak winter concentrations, indicating this
437	area is influenced by other factors besides RH. Nitrate predictions at Fresno in summer and fall
438	are lower when RH is enhanced, due to faster deposition caused by larger particle sizes with

439 more particle phase water. The uniform RH increase of 0.3 in this region is likely unrealistically
440 large <u>duringin</u> these months.

442	Figure $65$ panel ( $bf$ ) shows the OC predictions and measurements. Organic aerosol in
443	California it is typically the second most abundant species, after ammonium nitrate. In the
444	comparison, an OM/OC ratio of 1.6 (Turpin and Lim, 2010) is applied to convert primary
445	organic aerosol OM back to OC for comparison to measured concentrations. The conversion
446	ratios for SOA species are taken from Table 1 in Carlton et al. (Carlton et al., 2010). Predicted
447	OC agrees reasonably well with measured concentrations, but is lower than the wintertime high
448	concentrations in the early years, similar to other PM components. Predicted OC in summers is
449	also in good agreement with measurements at the indicated monitoring sites. As mentioned
450	previously, these sites are all near major freeways and therefore OC is dominated by primary
451	organic aerosols. Larger bias is found at sites distant from local sources where SOA becomes
452	more important. More analysis about the concentrations and sources of the OC results are
453	included in a companion paper (Hu, Manuscript in preparation).
454	
455	Figure $65$ panel ( $cg$ ) shows that predicted EC concentrations agree well with measured
456	concentrations. High measured EC concentrations in a few winter months in the early years are
457	under-predicted, but EC concentrations in the summer months are generally over-predicted.
458	
459	Figure $65$ panel ( $dh$ ) shows that monthly average predictions for PM <sub>2.5</sub> mass
460	concentrations agree well with observations, and seasonal trends are generally captured with
461	high concentrations in winter, and low concentrations in summer. PM <sub>2.5</sub> is over-predicted in

462	summer months when nitrate, sulfate, and ammonium are found to be under-predicted. These
463	trends reflect the over-prediction of the primary components, mostly dust particles, in the model
464	calculations (Hu et al., 2014a)(Hu et al., 2014a). This result suggests that a uniform scaling
465	factor of 0.5 for dust emissions may not be appropriate. A smaller factor (for example, a factor
466	of 0.25 was used in the eastern U.S. (Tesche et al., 2006)) or a spatially resolved method that
467	accounts for the land-use types (Pace, 2005) should be used for future studies in California.
468	

469 California experiences the highest  $PM_{2.5}$  concentrations in wintertime, caused by stagnant 470 meteorological conditions characterized by low wind speed and shallow atmospheric mixing 471 layer. The WRF model tends to over-predict wind speed during low wind speed events ( $\leq 2$  m/s) 472 in California (Zhao et al., 2011). Increasing u\* by 50% improves the WRF wind prediction but 473 still over-predicts wind speed during events when measured wind speed is <1.5 m/s. A zero-474 order approximation of air pollutant concentration (Mahmud, 2010) is:

(1)

$$C = \frac{E}{V} = \frac{E}{u \times H}$$

475

476 where C is the pollutant concentration, E is the source pollutant emission rate, V is the air 477 ventilation rate which is equal to (wind speed  $\times$  mixing height), u and H are the horizontal wind 478 speed and mixing height, respectively. - The concentration is linearly dependent on the inverse 479 wind speed (1/u). Figure <u>98</u> shows the MFBs of the predicted atmospheric inverse wind speed 480 (1/u) as a function of the observed atmospheric inverse wind speed. Also shown in Figure 98 481 are the MFBs of PM component concentrations as a function of the observed concentrations. The 482 MFBs decrease when the inverse wind speed or concentrations increase, indicating low inverse 483 wind speed/concentrations are over-predicted, but high inverse wind speed /concentrations are 484 under-predicted. The trends of inverse wind speed and concentrations are well correlated,

485	indicating that simple wind bias effects on the ventilation rates leads to bias in PM predictions,
486	especially during the events with high PM pollution. The correlation with $1/u$ MFB is stronger
487	for primary PM component(s) than for secondary components, indicating that additional
488	processes affect the secondary PM, such as chemistry, gas-particle partitioning, etc. Sulfate bias
489	has the <u>weakest</u> least correlation to inverse ventilation bias, because <u>sulfate bias</u> it is mainly driven
490	by the bias in $\frac{\text{sulfur}SO_2}{\text{sulfur}SO_2}$ emissions.
491	
492	Figure $\underline{109}$ shows the predicted 9-year average concentrations of PM <sub>2.5</sub> , EC, OC, nitrate,
493	sulfate, and ammonium, compared with measured average concentrations over California. High
494	concentrations of all PM pollutants occur in the urban areas with large population, indicating that
495	most of the PM is generated by anthropogenic activities. The predicted spatial distributions
496	generally agree well with measurements, but provide much more detailed information. $PM_{2.5}$
497	concentrations are over-predicted in the SJV air basin due to an over-prediction of agricultural
498	dust. High OC concentrations were measured at two sites in northern California due to intense
499	wood burning. The two sites are in the 24 km model domain but outside the 4 km, therefore the
500	predicted OC concentrations in the 24 km grids do not agree well with the measurements at this
501	location. This finding confirms that 24 km resolution is probably too coarse for health effects
502	studies and justifies the use of thee 4 km grids over the majority of California's population in the

- 503 current work. Background sulfate concentrations at IMPOVE sites were measured to be 0.6-1
- 504  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> but higher concentrations of 2~3  $\mu$ g/m<sup>3</sup> were measured in Southern California. Model 505 calculations do not reproduce this concentration enhancement, leading to an under-prediction in 506 the concentrations of this PM<sub>2.5</sub> species.
- 507 **<u>3.3 Discussion</u>**

508	
509	In general, the reasonable agreement between model predictions and measurement builds
510	confidence that the model predictions can provide a reasonable estimate of exposure fields in
511	locations with no available measurements. The detailed analysis described in the previous
512	section identifies several aspects that must be considered when applying the data in the health
513	effect studies. For the gaseous pollutants, daily maximum $O_3$ predictions are in good agreement
514	with measurements across the entire modeling domain. Seasonal and annual variations are
515	captured accurately. Therefore daily maximum $O_3$ predictions can be used in health analyses
516	with high confidence. The predictions also capture the seasonal variations in NO and CO, but do
517	not reflect the long-term trends, especially in southern California. Predicted monthly averages of
518	NO and CO in northern California are preferred over daily averages for use in health analyses.
519	For the PM pollutants, daily concentrations and spatial distributions of EC and total PM <sub>2.5</sub> mass
520	generally agree well with observations, but monthly averages should be considered first in health
521	studies as they are in better agreement with observations than shorter averages. Predicted OC in
522	winter is also reasonably accurate, but OC in summer should be used with caution. Sulfate and
523	nitrate are both under-predicted. Sulfate has greater bias in southern California than in northern
524	California, while nitrate has consistent bias throughout the modeling domain. This suggests that
525	the spatial distribution information of nitrate might still be useful for health effect studies that
526	use contrasts in exposure as a function of location, but sulfate data are likely not useful in health
527	effects studies at the present time.
528	
529	Predicted monthly averages for PM concentrations are more accurate than daily averages,
530	suggesting that the PM exposure predictions will be most useful in studies that can take

531	advantage of averaging times $\geq$ 30 days. Longer averaging times smooth out short-term PM
532	variations that could be useful in some epidemiological studies that focus on short term changes
533	in health effects. To get more accurate pollutant predictions at shorter timescales would require
534	more accurate representation of emissions, meteorological conditions, and atmospheric
535	chemistry at these time scales. Many intensive studies that manually corrected input data have
536	focused on high temporal resolution for short periods (generally less than 1 month), such as the
537	California Regional PM <sub>10</sub> /PM <sub>2.5</sub> Air Quality Study (CRPAQS) (Ying, 2008). It is currently
538	impractical to carry out such efforts for a ~10 year modeling period in which there are a large
539	number of special events that are not represented by automated meteorology and emissions
540	models. The atmospheric modeling community continues to refine tools that can capture and
541	accurately represent these special cases. For example, the current study includes automatic
542	detection and incorporation of wildfire emissions into the modeling system based on satellite
543	observations. This automated feature was not generally available in previous studies. Future
544	advances will detect transportation patterns responding to traffic accidents or holiday traffic
545	jams, drought effects on biogenic emissions, etc. These future advances will improve models to
546	have more accurate predictions in both short- (<1 month) and long- (>1 month) averaging
547	timesprovide a reasonable estimate of exposure fields
548	4. Conclusions

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## 549 For the first time, a ~decadal (9 year) CTM air quality model simulation with 4 km 550 horizontal resolution <u>over populated regions</u> has been conducted in California to provide air 551 quality data for health effects studies. Model predictions are compared to measurements in order 552 to evaluate both the spatial and temporal accuracy of the results. The performance of the source-553 oriented UCD/CIT air quality model is satisfactory for O<sub>3</sub>, PM<sub>2.5</sub>, and EC (both spatially and

554	temporally). Predicted OC, nitrate, and ammonium are less satisfactory, but generally meet
555	standard model performance criteria. OC bias is larger in summertime than wintertime mainly
556	due to an incomplete understanding of SOA formation mechanisms. Bias in predicted
557	ammonium nitrate is associated with uncertainties in emissions, the WRF predicted relative
558	humidity fields, and the chemistry mechanism. Predicted sulfate is not satisfactory due to
559	missing sulfur sources in the emissions. The CO and NO (species dominated by mobile
560	emissions) results reveal significant temporal and spatial uncertainties associated with the mobile
561	emissions generated by the EMFAC 2007 model. The WRF model tends to over-predict wind
562	speed during stagnation events, leading to under-predictions of high PM concentrations, usually
563	in winter months. The WRF model also generally under-predicts relative humidity, resulting in
564	less particulate nitrate formation especially during winter months. Despite the issues noted
565	above, predicted spatial distributions of PM components are in reasonably good agreement with
566	measurements. Predicted seasonal and annual variations also generally agree well with
567	measurements. Better model performance with longer averaging time is found in the predictions,
568	suggesting that model results with averaging times $\geq 1$ month should be first considered in
569	epidemiological studies. All model results included in the current manuscript can be
570	downloaded free of charge at http://faculty.engineering.ucdavis.edu/kleeman/.

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572

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### 946 Figures and Tables

947 948 Figure 1. Modeling domains (blue lines outline the CA 24km domain, and red lines outline the 949 SoCAB\_4km (bottom) and SJV\_4km domains (up)) and PM measurement sites (dots). Blue dots represent the sites of the PM2.5 Speciation Trends Network (STN) and the State and Local Air 950 Monitoring Stations (SLAMS), green dots represent the Interagency Monitoring of Protected 951 952 Visual Environments (IMPROVE) sites, and gray dots represent the PM<sub>2.5</sub> Federal Reference 953 Method (FRM) sites. 954 955 Figure 2. Monthly mean fractional bias (MFB) of PM<sub>2.5</sub> EC, OC, nitrate, ammonium, sulfate, and 956 total mass. Solid lines represent the MFB criteria, and the blue dash lines represent the MFB 957 goals. 958 959 Figure 3. Monthly mean fractional errors (MFE) of  $PM_{2.5}$  EC, OC, nitrate, ammonium, sulfate, 960 and total mass. Solid lines represent the MFE criteria, and the blue dash lines represent the MFE 961 goals. 962 963 Figure 4. Mean fractional bias (MFB) and mean fractional errors (MFE) of PM and gaseous species when calculated using daily, monthly and annual averages. 964 965 966 Figure 5. Predicted (red lines) vs. observed (dark dots) monthly average O<sub>3</sub>(a), CO(b), NO (c), ammonium, nitrate, OC, EC, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> ammonium (d)total mass at Sacramento, Fresno, 967 968 Bakersfield, Los Angeles, and Riverside. 969 970 Figure 6. Predicted (red lines) vs. observed (dark dots) monthly average PM<sub>2.5</sub> nitrate (a), OC (b), EC (c), and PM<sub>2.5</sub> total mass (d) at Sacramento, Fresno, Bakersfield, Los Angeles, and 971 972 Riverside. 973 974 Figure 7. Figure 6. Monthly average NO concentrations adjusted with the predicted/observed CO 975 ratios. NO noadj represents the NO concentrations in the UCD/CIT model predictions, and 976 NO adj represents the NO concentrations adjusted with observations as: NO adj = NO noadj \* CO predicted / CO measured 977 978 979 Figure 87. Monthly average nitrate concentrations in2008 at Sacramento and Fresno predicted 980 with perturbed relative humidity (RH+0.3), compared to the basecase nitrate predictions (RH ori) and observed concentrations (Obs) 981 982 983 Figure 98. Association between predicted PM concentration bias and wind bias vs. observed 984 values. The observed PM concentrations and 1/u values on the x-axis are expressed in a relative 985 scale of 0-100% of maximum range calculated as  $x (\%) = (C_{-Cmin})/(C_{max}-C_{min})*100$ . Values for 986 [Cmin, Cmax] are listed in the concentration key. Bias between predicted vs. observed values is 987 shown on the y-axis. Ideal behavior is bias of zero at all concentrations & wind speeds. 988

989 Figure <u>109</u>. Predicted (1) vs. measured (2) 9-year average PM<sub>2.5</sub> total mass (a), EC (b), OC (c), nitrate (d), sulfate (e), and ammonium (f) concentrations. The SoCAB\_4km and SJV\_4km

991 results are overlayed on top of CA\_24km results to create the model predicted spatial

distributions. Predicted and measured concentrations of the same species are in the same scale showing in the panels of measurements 





997

998 represent the sites of the PM2.5 Speciation Trends Network (STN) and the State and Local Air

Monitoring Stations (SLAMS), green dots represent the Interagency Monitoring of Protected 999 1000 Visual Environments (IMPROVE) sites, and gray dots represent the PM<sub>2.5</sub> Federal Reference

Method (FRM) sites. 1001









Figure 3. Monthly mean fractional errors (MFE) of PM2.5 EC, OC, nitrate, ammonium, sulfate, and total mass. Solid lines represent the MFE criteria, and the blue dash lines represent the MFE 1010 goals.



1013 1014 1015 Figure 4. Mean fractional bias (MFB) and mean fractional errors (MFE) of PM and gaseous species when calculated using daily, monthly and annual averages.





- Figure 5. Predicted (red lines) vs. observed (dark dots) monthly average  $O_3(\underline{a})_{,7}$  CO(\underline{b})\_{,7} NO(<u>c</u>), ammonium, nitrate, OC, EC, and PM<sub>2.5</sub> ammonium (<u>d</u>)total mass at Sacramento, Fresno, Bakersfield, Los Angeles, and Riverside.
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1032 NO\_noadj represents the NO concentrations in the UCD/CIT model predictions, and NO\_adj

- 1033 represents the NO concentrations adjusted with observations as:
- 1034 NO\_adj = NO\_noadj \* CO\_predicted / CO\_measured



1037 1038 Figure <u>87</u>. Monthly average nitrate concentrations in 2008in2008 at Sacramento and Fresno 1039 predicted with perturbed relative humidity (RH+0.3), compared to the basecase nitrate

- 1040 predictions (RH\_ori) and observed concentrations (Obs).
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Figure <u>98</u>. Association between predicted PM concentration bias and wind bias vs. observed values. The observed PM concentrations and 1/u values on the x-axis are expressed in a relative scale of 0-100% of maximum range calculated as  $x (\%) = (C-_{Cmin})/(_{Cmax}-_{Cmin})*100$ . Values for

 $[C_{min}, C_{max}]$  are listed in the concentration key. Units are  $\mu g m^{-3}$  for concentrations, and  $m s^{-1}$  for wind speed. Bias between predicted vs. observed values is shown on the y-axis. Ideal behavior is bias of zero at all concentrations & wind speeds.



Figure <u>109</u>. Predicted (1) vs. measured (2) 9-year average  $PM_{2.5}$  total mass (a), EC (b), OC (c), nitrate (d), sulfate (e), and ammonium (f) concentrations. The SoCAB\_4km and SJV\_4km results are overlayed on top of CA\_24km results to create the model predicted spatial distributions. Predicted and measured concentrations of the same species are in the same scale showing in the panels of measurements. <u>Unit are µg m<sup>-3</sup></u>.