Interactive comment on "The effects of global change upon United States air quality"

by R. Gonzalez-Abraham et al.

Response to Anonymous Referee #1

We appreciate the referee for his/her constructive and thorough review. We have revised the manuscript according to the referee's comments. During the revision, we learned there were bugs in CMAQv4.7 in processing emissions, as described here: <u>www.cmascenter.org/cmaq/documentation/4.7.1/RELEASE_NOTES.txt</u>. Accordingly, we have re-run all simulations using CMAQv4.7.1, resulting in substantial changes to the PM2.5 section. Changes in ozone also occurred as a result of upgrading to CMAQ 4.7.1 due a combination of updates in emission, advection and plume rise emission modeling. Most notably, a larger increase in ozone in coastal urban areas is projected as a result of changes in US anthropogenic emissions. We believe the manuscript has been much improved in addressing comments by both referees and updating the manuscript to reflect the new simulations. Our detailed responses to Referee #1's comments (in italics) appear below.

General Comments

This paper describes a climate model downscaling study to investigate the impact of future climate change (following the IPCC A1B scenario) on US air quality. The authors find that daily maximum 8 h average ozone (DM8O) will increase by 2-12 ppb in the US due to increased temperatures, enhanced biogenic emissions, and land use changes, which will overwhelm the reductions in DM8O that would have happened from reductions in US anthropogenic emissions in the absence of climate change. They also find that PM2.5 levels are expected to increase 2-4 μ g m-3 in the Southeast US and nearby regions due to enhanced biogenic emissions and land use changes. This is a well-written paper on a scientific question relevant to ACP. The methods are valid and clearly outlined, as are the modeling experiments performed. Substantial conclusions are reached that are generally supported by the results presented, and the tables need some work, but overall I recommend publication after minor revisions to address by concerns below.

We appreciate the reviewer's positive comments. We have revised the manuscript according to both referees' comments to have more clarity in the text and updated figures and tables. Below we address Referee #1's comments directly.

Minor Comments

1) P31844, L13-14: Since you mention evaluating the impacts of Asian emissions as a goal of the study, you should also include your findings on their impacts on O3 and PM2.5 in the abstract.

We have revised the abstract to include: "The model predicts an average increase of 1-6 ppb in DM8O due to projected increase in global emissions of ozone precursors."

2) P31853, L8-11: You say MARKAL was used to get growth factors of NOx, SO2, and PM2.5, but then mention the use of CO2 factors as well. Should CO2 be on the initial list as well?

The Referee is correct. We have revised the manuscript to include CO2.

3) P31853, L10-11: I'm not sure that it is appropriate to use CO2 growth factors for CO, NH3, VOCs, HCI, and chlorine. I understand doing it in the absence of other data, but how realistic do you think it is that CO will increase proportionally with CO2 even with future control technologies being implemented to reduce NOx and SO2 emissions. This gives a 70% increase in CO and 20% increase in NMVOCs in the Midwest – how realistic is that? And how does this affect your results?

We agree that using CO2 growth factors for CO and VOC is not the most appropriate. Historically CO emissions and concentrations have been decreasing while CO2 emissions are increasing (http://www.epa.gov/airtrends/carbon.html). Also, for the mobile sources, the CO and NMHC emissions will either level off or will continue decreasing (McDonald et al., 2013, DOI: 10.1021/es401034z). Therefore, increase in CO emission as presented in this manuscript means higher ozone (less reduction from the current decade) in urban (high-NOx) areas in comparison to a projection with CO-specific growth factor. We have added text to this section to note this caveat. We have added to section 3.3.1: "The smaller reduction in ozone concentrations between the future and the current decade in comparison to Nolte et al., (2008) is likely to be a consequence of the increase in VOC and CO emissions from business-as-usual scenario of ESP v1.0 which uses CO2 as a surrogate for growth factors for CO (Loughlin et al. 2011)."

4) P31857, L12-16: You are really stretching the words "majority" and "most" here – the results in Figure 6 don't look all that great. The claim that PM2.5 meets the guide- lines for 4 regions seems false to me –by my eye 5 of the PM2.5 results fall outside the weaker bias and error constraints. I would reword this section to be a little more accurate about the model performance.

Note that due to the lack of speciated PM data for our period of simulation, we have removed the section on model performance for speciated PM (the observed data in the ACPD version were from 2003-2008 and we believed is not representative of our period of simulation). Also, the PM2.5 section changed substantially after the new simulations were performed.

5) P31860, L15-22: This paragraph confused me on my first read-through, as you discus the increases in isoprene, monoterpenes, and overall BVOCs all in the first sentence. I'd try to separate out this discussion, and add a total BVOCs bar to Figure 3 as well. It is also not clear when you say "biggest increase" if you mean biggest percentage increase or biggest absolute increase.

In Figure 3, having isoprene and monoterpene emissions as separate bars is useful to aid the discussion of biogenic SOA; however, we don't think it is necessary to include another bar in Figure 3 for total BVOC because the change in BVOC emissions is dominated by changes in isoprene emissions. For clarity, we have modified the text to read:

The model projects bigger percentage increase in monoterpenes than isoprene across the domain; however, total isoprene emission is an order of magnitude higher and thus dominates the changes in total BVOC. The increase in total BVOC ranges between 17% and 45%. The only region that is projected to have reduced total BVOC emissions is the Northwest, where the model simulates a 7% reduction in isoprene emissions (Figure 4) that in absolute amount is greater than the 20% increase in simulated monoterpene emissions.

6) P31861, L9-10: I think this sentence on monoterpenes belongs in the next paragraph. Also, you say "because of higher across the domain" – higher what?

We have rearranged the text in Section 3.2 for better clarity, and the sentence referred to by the referee is no longer in the text. Also, please note that the section has changed drastically.

7) P31863, L8-9: Cloud cover only increases in the Northwest and Central regions, correct? Can you make that clear here?

The reviewer is correct that the increase in cloud cover is in the Northwest and parts of the central region (western Montana). We have modified the text to read: "The reductions in DM8O concentrations in the Northwest resulted from an increase in cloud cover and lower solar radiation reaching the ground, and resulting in a reduction in photochemistry."

8) Comment from Referee. P31864, L1-6: I'd like to see more discussion here about how the emissions differ between this study and the previous ones and how the climate simulations differ. Some of this information is in section 2, but it would be nice to restate it here to make the discussion of the results clearer.

As requested by the reviewer, we have added more discussion to the text. First, the reference was corrected to be Nolte et al. (2008) instead of Leung and Gustafson (2008). We now have "However, the difference in geographical features of DM8O changes with Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) suggests that the source of

disparities resides in the simulated regional meteorological fields resulting from different global climate models, regional climate models and the methods used to estimate emissions from biogenic sources. We used the ECHAM5 global climate model results while both Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) used results from the GISS global climate model. For regional climate simulations, both Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) used MM5 while we used WRF here. In contrast with Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) who use the BEIS/BELD3 (Hanna et al., 2005; http://www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/emch/biogenic/) tool to compute biogenic emissions, this investigation estimates the biogenic emissions with MEGAN v2.04. MEGAN v2.04 generally predicts higher isoprene emissions than BEIS (Hogrefe et al., 2011; Sakulyanontvittaya et al., 2012). Hogrefe et al. (2011) shows that for the Northeast, MEGAN leads to higher DM8O by upwards of 7 ppb using 2005 anthropogenic emissions; however, under a scenario by which anthropogenic NOx emissions were reduced by ~60%, difference in DM8O was generally 3 ppb because of greater sensitivity to NOx emissions when MEGAN was used."

9) P31864, L11: Please be quantitative about the size of the decrease in DM8O you are discussing here.

We have now included "2 to 4 ppb" in the text.

10) P31864, L18: Please be quantitative about the size of the reduction in the VOC to NOx ratio and the depletion of DM8O you are discussing here.

We have revised the text to explain the change in BVOC and NOx emissions under the land use change scenario instead of VOC to NOx ratio: "When land use changes are included along with biogenic emissions (Simulation 3), the increase in BVOC emissions is projected to be less, while NO emission is projected to increase in areas where natural vegetation is converted to cropland. This combination leads to higher DM8O in Simulation 3 than Simulation 2 (Simulation 3; Figure 12d)."

11) P31864, L21: The reduction of BVOC emissions due to land use changes (discussed on P31861, L7-9) also plays a role here, right?

Yes, there is a decrease in BVOC emissions and an increase in NO emissions where natural vegetation is converted to cropland. The text has been updated to reflect this. See response to comment above.

12) P31864, L28: Instead of saying "mostly" can you be quantitative?

We revised the sentence to be more quantitative. The sentence now reads: "The increase in DM8O is mostly due to an increase in global emissions of ozone precursors from the semi-hemispheric domain, which contributes to an increase of 2-6 ppb under current climate conditions (Fig. 13f)."

13) P31865, L13-15: These two statements are not clearly supported by the results in Figure 12. In Figure 12f it looks like Asian emissions lead to a very slight increase in the

southern half of the US and very slight increases in the northern half, with no reason to single out the western US as a homogenous group. The impact of climate change and biogenic emissions in Figure 12c seems to increase PM2.5 throughout the US rather than increases and decreases in different regions.

We had misplaced text on ozone in this section. This error has been corrected in the revised manuscript. The line now reads as follows: "Changes in global emissions do not have a significant impact on $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations, while changes in the climate and biogenic emissions can lead to both increases and decreases in $PM_{2.5}$ depending on the region."

14) P31866, L1-2: I think you should explicitly state here that your results for sulfate are different than Avise et al. (2009).

This section has been re-written to reflect the results of new CMAQv4.7.1 simulations after discovery of ammonia emission bugs in CMAQv4.7.

15) P31866, L23: Why is there no discussion of aerosol ammonium here? The effect of the boundary conditions on ammonium is huge in Table 3 and should be addressed in the text.

We have revised the PM2.5 section to reflect the new simulation results and include discussion of ammonium.

16) P31867, L1: Can you be quantitative instead of saying "insignificant"?

The line now reads as follows: "...the effect of climate change alone (with no change to biogenic emissions) on total $PM_{2.5}$ concentrations over land is a change of less than 1 $\mu g m^{-3}$ "

17) I think you need to discuss the increases in SOA in the Northwest region here –SOA increased with increases in BVOCs, but sulfate decreased, in contrast to the other regions that had negligible changes in sulfate with increased BVOCs.

The decrease in sulfate with increasing BVOC and SOA is due to the competition between BVOC and SO2 for OH. The text now includes: "The smaller increase or absolute reduction in sulfate in comparison to the climate-only case is due to the competition between BVOC and SO2 for the availability of OH, which is an oxidant for both."

18) P31869, L24: The "positive influence (reduced concentrations)" phrasing is confusing, consider rewording this to make what you mean clear.

The text now reads: "Decreases in future US anthropogenic emissions of ozone precursors are the only consistently beneficial influence that improves the air quality in the US; updated assumptions to generate scenarios of future US anthropogenic emissions may show even more positive influence."

Sections

19) Section 4: You should be as quantitative as possible about the magnitudes of the impacts here, as you are in the abstract.

Our main aim for the conclusion section is to focus on the influence of each individual attribution within the context of one single future scenario (the combined changes), rather than summarizing the individual contributions quantitatively.

20) P31870, L3-5: Here I'd stick to the regions you defined in Figure 3 and avoid less specific phrases like "East regions" and "regions with high biogenic emissions."

Text has been edited to reflect referees comments: "...2) climate changes (namely, increased temperatures and solar radiation) which increase ozone concentrations in the Central, South, Midwest, Northeast and Southeast regions of the domain; and 3) increases in US BVOC emissions which also increase ozone concentrations in regions with high biogenic emissions such as the South, Midwest, Northeast and Southeast"

Figures and Tables

21) Table 2: This is like Table 5 for PM2.5, but where is the equivalent of Table 3 for DM8O? I'd suggest adding a table with similar quantitate results for each region.

We agree with referee's comment. A new Table 2 with the percentage change in DM8O from each scenario has replaced the old Table 2; and a new Table 5 with the percentage change in PM2.5 has replaced the old Table 5.

22) Tables 2-5: It's not clear in these tables what the scenario names in the column headings mean. Does "BVOC" include climate impacts, so that it is Scenario 2 minus Scenario 0, or does it only look at the impact of BVOCs on top of climate, and so is Scenario 2 minus Scenario 1? The same question applies for the land use changes, which aren't listed in Tables 2 and 5 but are listed in Tables 3 and 4 as BVOC future land use". Is this Scenario 4 minus Scenario 3, 2, 1, or 0? Please clarify this in footnotes in Table 2 and then use consistent definitions for all other tables.

The original Tables 2 and 5 have been replaced with tables showing percentage changes of DM8O and PM2.5. The new Tables 2 and 5 as well the original Tables 3 and 4 now have column headings listing the simulation numbers consistent with those of Table 1.

23) Table 4: You have a row called "SOA" – does that mean these results are only for SOA and not primary organic carbon? Doesn't this contradict your caption? Are the POC results just missing?

The caption should state only secondary organic aerosol. The table caption has been corrected.

24) Figure 3: Add a bar for the percentage change in total BVOCs in each region as well.

Because total BVOC is dominated by isoprene, percent change in total BVOC is very similar to percent change in isoprene. Therefore, we do not think it is necessary to add an additional bar for BVOC.

25) Figure 5: Add a legend to the box and whisker plot as in Figure 4.

The figure has been updated to include a legend. Note that the original Figure 5 is now Figure 6.

Typos and Technical Corrections

26) P31856, L6: I think you mean Figure 11a, not the top of Figure 10. And I think this should be renumbered Figure 6, as it comes after you mention Figure 5 but before you mention Figure 6.

The reviewer is correct about the typo. The number is now Fig 12a in the revised manuscript. We have kept the figure location because it is discussed most heavily in the results section later in the manuscript.

27) P31856, L14: I think you mean Figure 12a, not the top of Figure 11. And I think this should be renumbered Figure 7.

The reviewer is correct about the typo. The number is now Fig 13a in the revised manuscript. As noted in the above comment, we prefer keeping this figure in its current position because it is discussed most heavily in the results section later in the manuscript.

28) P31858, L21: "the result of" instead of "resulted of"

We have corrected the error.

28) P31864, L11: "The decrease", not "this decrease"

We have corrected the error.

29) P31865, L24: I think you mean Table 3, not Table 2. And shouldn't the Southeast region also be in this list?

Yes, Southeast has been added to the list

30) P31867, L14-15: You can't say "in all regions" and then discuss an exception. Try "in nearly all regions" and "The lone exception."

We have corrected the error.

31) P31868, L8: Just reference Figure 12c here, and then reference Figure 12d in L11 below.

We have added the figure references in the text. (The relevant figures are now numbered 13c and 13d.)

32) P31868, L11: Shouldn't the Southeast region also be in this list?

We have corrected the text.

33) P31869, L2: Remove comma after "monoterpene"

We have corrected the typo.

34) P31870, L28: "intended to", not "intended so"

We have corrected the typo.

35) P31871, L1: Typo, remove the "7".

This was an error introduced during typesetting.

36) P31871, L3: "take" not "takes"

We have corrected the typo.

37) P31871, L3: The semicolon should go before the word "and" not after.

We have corrected the typo.

"The effects of global change upon United States air quality"

by R. Gonzalez-Abraham et al,.

Anonymous Referee #2: Response

We appreciate the referee for his/her constructive and thorough review. We have revised the manuscript according to the referee's comments. During the revision, we learned there were bugs in CMAQv4.7 in processing emissions, as described here: www.cmascenter.org/cmaq/documentation/4.7.1/RELEASE_NOTES.txt. Accordingly, we have re-run all simulations using CMAQv4.7.1, resulting in substantial changes to the PM2.5 section. Changes in ozone also occurred as a result of upgrading to CMAQ 4.7.1 due a combination of updates in emission, advection and plume rise emission modeling. Most notably, a larger increase in ozone in coastal urban areas is projected as a result of changes in US anthropogenic emissions. We believe the manuscript has been much improved in addressing comments by both referees and updating the manuscript to reflect the new simulations. Our detailed responses to Referee #2's comments (in italics) appear below.

The authors present findings related to the application of the WRF and CMAQ models to downscale future climate predictions estimated with a global model simulation. They find that improvements in ozone and PM air quality due to decreases in anthropogenic emissions are somewhat offset due to climate change and increases in global emissions. The manuscript is generally well written and the approach is thoroughly described. However, certain aspects of the study need further explanation. The scope of this manuscript in its current form does not present particularly novel work in this area, especially for ACP.

While the manuscript does not present a novel methodology, the set of simulations do present different elements than previous publications. The novelty is stated below.

a) The paper separates the effect of climate change on air quality from the effect of changes in biogenic emissions due to climate change. This approach, while unrealistic, situates the largely documented effect of climate change (with changes in biogenic emissions) on air quality on a different perspective. The approach followed in this manuscript shows that climate change alone has a dominant effect on PM2.5 and O3 concentrations over the increase in biogenic emissions in some regions of the US. Also, the regional changes in land use and the resulting effect in the emissions of BVOC with

respect to the emissions of NO offer a wider set of sensitivities of the model to changes in emissions.

b) Unlike previous research, the paper shows the sensitivity of Ozone and the inorganic fraction of PM2.5 to different regimes of VOC and NOx concentrations. The approach is followed in the form of a sensitivity analysis.

c) The manuscript presents a wider range in the levels of atmospheric oxidants and their effect on Ozone and PM2.5 due to climate, biogenic and anthropogenic emissions.

d) In the case of DM8O, our approach presents a diverse perspective of the reactions that involve the gas and the organic and inorganic particle phase. One example is the importance of sequestration versus recycling of isoprene nitrates in the SAPRC99 mechanism presented in section 3.3.3.

1) The current year model performance is concerning. If these results are consistent with other downscaling efforts then maybe that is a notable addition to the literature and could be focused on in more detail as a potential confounding factor in interpreting these projected future year scenarios.

As noted above, due to a bug in the emission processing in CMAQv4.7 we have re-ran all simulations using CMAQv4.7.1. As a result, the model performance for PM_{2.5} has improved (Figure 7 of the revised manuscript). Also, The model performance has to be understood in terms of the climatological perspective of the investigation. Both current and future meteorological conditions are derived from downscaled climate simulations rather than meteorological reanalysis. In our particular study, ECHAM5 global climate model was used. Biases in the drivers of ozone and PM formation and removal are in both the current and future decade simulations. Previous studies that used downscaled climate realizations to drive air quality models also show overestimations of DM8O (Tagaris et al., 2007; Nolte et al., 2008) and underestimations of total PM2.5 mass (Tagaris et al., 2007).

2) RCP scenarios are not always good indicators of future changes in air quality since they are focused on greenhouse gases rather than O3 and PM precursors. The conclusion that ozone reductions due to lower anthropogenic emissions being totally offset by increases in global ozone and climate change impacts seems inconsistent with other studies. Even more importantly, observed ozone concentrations continue to trend downward in many places in the United States suggesting US emissions reduction impacts are outpacing climate and international emissions increases. We are 10 years past the baseline for this model simulation so that reality should be recognized in some way.

This study is based on the SRES (used in IPCC's Fourth Assessment Report (AR4) rather than the RCPs (used in AR5). The Greenhouse gas emissions from the SRES scenarios are used to drive the global climate models. We agree that they are not always good indicators of future changes in air quality; but in many countries it is the only proxy for future scenarios. As presented in the results, we explicitly recognize that the scenarios of global and regional anthropogenic emissions are the reason for the inconsistencies between studies. We also explicitly acknowledge in the conclusions that updated emission inventories and future emission scenarios are needed to improve the assessment of the impacts of global change upon the US.

While the emission inventory, the assumptions for the regional and global emission projections and the meteorological simulations may be outdated, the results presented in this manuscript are still relevant evidence of the dependence of the US air quality of global emissions and the need of rigorous emission controls.

Nevertheless, additional information was added to the manuscript for clarity. A figure with the emissions from the semi-hemispheric domain was added. The figure shows the dramatic increase in NOx emissions across the domain and aims at the reason behind the increase in DM8O. A line addressing a possible higher reduction in ozone as a result of updated future regional emission projections was also added to the conclusion.

3) How closely did the projections using MARKAL match those of the IPCC A1B scenario for areas where both are applied? Are the ozone changes aggregated and postprocessed similarly to other similar studies? More clarity is needed regarding methane. The authors state they do not consider methane but may have indirectly as impacts of increasing methane emissions globally may be part of the global 2050 simulation

Emissions from the IPCC A1B scenario and results of the MARKAL methodology were never overlapped on the same simulation. However, CO₂ is underestimated in the A1B scenario in comparison to the US emission inventory and MARKAL projection.

The metric used (daily maximum 8 hour average ozone) is common to the studies based on US air quality. Methane emissions are not used in the chemical mechanism used in CMAQ. The impact of methane is in the global climate represented in the ECHAM5 simulations and passed onto the downscaled meteorological fields that drive CMAQ. However, impact of increased methane on chemistry is not considered in this study; in all our CMAQ simulations, methane concentration is fixed at 1.85 ppm.

Author's Change in the manuscript. Two changes have been made:

a) Changes in the text of the introduction to highlight the direct effect of methane. "Furthermore, despite the observed sensitivity of tropospheric ozone to regional emissions and global burden of methane (Zhang et al., 2011; Fiore et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2008a; Nolte et al., 2008; Fiore et al., 2006), in this work, we do not address the direct effect of emissions of methane in the air quality simulations"

b) Section 2.5. Added the line "Methane concentration is fixed at 1.85 ppm for all CMAQ simulations."

Introduction section:

4) First paragraph; the authors have 2 references for negative health effects associated with O3 and PM. Typically journal articles focus on either O3 or PM so it is not clear that both of these references are relevant for both O3 and PM. End of second paragraph; it would be appropriate to also reference Cooper et al 2010 and Cooper et al 2012 here.

For clarity, we added "and, in the case of PM," to the sentence. We also added Cooper et al. 2010 and Cooper et al. 2012, as requested.

5) Page 31847 lines 1-5; It would be helpful for the reader if the authors add what time scale these increased ozone concentrations are seen. Annual average? Average of the highest days? Just the highest days or are low ozone days part of the average?

The text was modified for clarity: "In summary, despite the differences in modeling elements, all studies found an increase in the summer average of the daily maximum 8-hour average ozone concentrations over large regions of the simulated CONUS domain on the order of 2 to 8 ppb (Weaver et al., 2009)"

6) Page 31847 lines 6-20; this section should mention the time period over which the climate changed and whether the climate impact was isolated or US emission changes were also considered.

The manuscript was modified for clarity and the time periods were also added to the paragraphs: "This downscaling approach has been used in a variety of studies in

Europe, Canada, and Asia at different time scales of climate change (e.g., Liao et al., 2006 [2000 to 2100]; Langner et al., 2005 [2000 to 2060]; Forkel and Knoche, 2006 [2990 to 2030]; Meleux et al., 2007 [1975 to 1985]; Kunkel et al., 2007 [1990 to 2090]; Lin et al., 2008 [2000 to 2100]; Spracklen et al., 2009 [2000 to 2050]; Kelly et al., 2012 [2000's to 2050's])." Later in the fifth paragraph of the introduction, we also added "projected to the 2050s" for the US studies funded by the EPA.

7) The A1B scenario has aggressive methane emissions growth through 2040. Is that impact included in the semi-hemispheric model? That is not clear but important in interpretation of the global impacts offsetting decreases in US anthropogenic emissions.

The air quality simulations in this study do not take into account of future changes in methane. This caveat was added in the introduction and the first paragraph of section 2.5:

"Furthermore, despite the observed sensitivity of tropospheric ozone to regional emissions and global burden of methane (Zhang et al., 2011; Fiore et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2008a; Nolte et al., 2008; Fiore et al., 2006), in this work, we do not address the direct effect of emissions of methane on the air quality simulations"

"Section 2.5. Added the line "Methane concentration is fixed at 1.85 ppm for all CMAQ simulations."

Methods section:

8) Sections 2.3 and 2.4: A summary Table similar to Figure 3 showing the non-U.S. emissions would be extremely helpful with interpretation of the results. This is especially critical given the main conclusion that global emissions increases are offsetting reductions in US anthropogenic emissions. It is unclear what is driving the large increases in VOC, primary PM2.5, and ammonia. Primarily emitted PM2.5 is fairly cost effective for point sources and VOC would seemingly be decreasing due to vehicle fleet turnover and mobile source sector regulations. It is not clear why emissions from confined animal operations and/or fertilizer application would just continue to increase in the future. There is only so much land to farm and so much fertilizer than can be put in the soil. One of the reasons the authors see global emission increases compensating for decreases in US anthropogenic emissions is related to the choices made here for

these species so the reasoning behind these VOC/PM/ammonia increases are important.

A new figure was added that shows the changes in global emissions (Figure 3 in the revised manuscript). For energy systems, CO_2 growth factors were used as a surrogate for CO, NH₃, and VOC. For mobile sources, NOx growth factors were used for CO, VOC, and NH₃. Non-combustion industrial emission growth factors were developed from projections of economic growth. Growth factors for non-combustion emissions from the residential and commercial sectors are linked to population growth. More text were added in paragraph 4 of Section 2.4 to make this clearer.

We agree that more discussion is required about the effect of increasing CO and VOCs. In the last paragraph of Section 2.4, we have added the following sentence: "The use of CO₂ as a surrogate for growth factors as described above means the projected CO and VOC emissions are likely too high." Text was also added in the last paragraph of Section 3.3.1 to address the effect of growing emissions of CO and VOC: "The smaller reduction in ozone concentrations between the future and the current decade in comparison to Nolte et al., (2008) is likely to be a consequence of the increase in VOC and CO emissions from business-as-usual scenario of MARKAL, which uses surrogates as growth factors for CO and VOC (Loughlin et al. 2011)."

9) Evaluation of model performance (2.6): A tighter scale for Figure 4 would make this Figure more useful for interepretation. More explanation and discussion is needed regarding the overestimated temperatures in the central and eastern U.S. These are rather large overpredictions and would seem to result in overestimated biogenic VOC. These ozone overestimates are extremely large. Mean MDAO3 in the Midwest in current conditions is 50 ppb but the modeling suggests 70 ppb! I appreciate that the authors have not tried to generate Tables and Figures to minimize our focus on the current conditions model performance but it is important to consider these issues when thinking about the results.

The original Figure 4 is now Figure 5 and has been modified as suggested by the referee. We agree with the referee that that overprediction of temperatures and its impact on ozone should be noted. The revised manuscript includes the following statement: DM8O is be over-estimated in regions where temperature maxima are also over predicted, most noticeably in the Midwest, the South, and the Southeast but also in the Northeast."

10) Given the large overestimation bias it would be good for the authors to show that rather than refer to a different manuscript. Also, it would be helpful to know why it is important to represent the correlation between ozone and temperature. If they are both grossly overpredicted is model performance really ok just because these variables correlate well?

Evaluation of model performance was carried out comparing modeled values vs observations (Figure 5 which is 6 in the revised version of the manuscript). The correlation between ozone and temperature across different years is evidence that bias in temperature is the main cause of the bias in DM8O and that the air quality model is responding to the meteorological driver of ozone production and thus can predict the impact of climate change on DM8O. The text has been edited to have: "Despite the bias, results from the modeling framework presented here have been shown to accurately represent the correlation between ozone and temperature at rural CASTNET sites throughout the US (Avise et al., 2012), suggesting that the bias in temperature is a main cause of the bias in DM8O and that the chemical transport model is responding to the meteorological driver of ozone production and thus can predict the impact of climate change on DM8O.

11) These underpredictions for PM2.5 are very large and puzzling since ozone is grossly overestimated. Generally when a modeling system can predict a lot of ozone there would be a lot of sulfate, but the spatial plot of average current condition PM2.5 does not show the typical eastern US regional sulfate signature typical for model runs representing the early 2000s. The PM2.5 performance looks like there is something fundamentally wrong with either the CMAQ simulations or the way they were post processed.

As mentioned previously, in the process of addressing this comment, we discovered a bug in CMAQv4.7 that resulted in NH_3 emission being read into the model incorrectly. We have re-run all the simulations using CMAQv4.7.1. Modeled to observed $PM_{2.5}$ comparison is show in Figure 7 in the revised manuscript. The $PM_{2.5}$ results are significantly improved, though PM2.5 is still underestimated in the western half of the US. We note in the revised manuscript that the causes of underprediction include the lack of wind blown dust and fire smoke emissions, underestimation of SOA formation, and overprediction of precipitation. Note that due to the lack of speciated PM data for our period of simulation, we have removed the section on model performance for

speciated PM (the observed data in the ACPD version were from 2003-2008 and we believed is not representative of our period of simulation).

12) Comment from Referee. Despite what the authors suggest in 375-377 this type of underestimate is not typical of other regional CMAQ simulations for this time period and performance here is far worse than Foley et al and Appel et al (and probably the others but I don't have time to go back and check them all).

Thanks to the referees' comment, we encountered a bug on CMAQ version 4.7. We reran the simulations with CMAQv4.7.1 and the results changed significantly. Please see comments above.

13) There is really no value to discussing the fractional composition of PM2.5. How is that important for providing confidence in the model? If the model gets the composition right how does that make the large underestimates of all the major species ok? The fractional evaluation should be removed from the manuscript. Please just provide a comparison of speciated mass for the major species.

We agree with the Referee. This section has been removed (see response to comment #11 above)

14) It is very debatable the model is performing well for PM2.5. A five year summer average of 5.6 ug/m3 for total PM2.5 mass during the early 2000s is extremely small. Typically models do quite well capturing regional sulfate and since these simulations are under predicting so much it raises some questions about the model inputs, in particular the emissions.

The text in this section has been changed after we re-ran the simulations using CMAQv4.7.1. After the simulations, PM concentrations did increase across the simulation domain with slight overprediction in the eastern half of the US. For the western US, however, $PM_{2.5}$ remain heavily underpredicted. The underprediction can be

explained by the overprediction of precipitation. The last paragraph of Section 2.6 has been edited to reflex the new simulation results.

Results section:

15) The A1B scenario is a not a great projection of what will happen to global methane and NOX in the future so that caveat would be useful here and in other places where this is mentioned. Does the Hogrefe 2004 paper detail how much of this increase in related to methane emissions?

In this study, methane concentration is fixed at 1.85 ppm. We have added this caveat to the manuscript; see response to comments #3 and #7. Hogrefe does not detail how much increase is due to methane.

It has been published that the emission projections considered from the SRES have been underestimated (Garnaut et al., 2008; Pozzer et al., 2012; Williams et al., 2014). But the level of uncertainty of the socio economic drivers behind each scenario was the motivation behind the SRES developers to consider each of the scenarios equally plausible. We would be thankful if the referee expands on the evidence behind his/her assertions on future emissions of NOx from the A1B scenario.

16) Comment from Referee. Please provide more explanation about how biogenic VOCs are sequestering ozone precursors and which ozone precursors are being sequestered. NOX? Toluene? How do the authors separate the impacts of this sequestration and recycling of isoprene nitrates? It sounds like this information is available and since this might be a more novel aspect of this research I suggest the authors provide spatial plots or some way to present the relative contributions of these processes here.

We have added Figure 14 and text in Section 3.3.3 regarding the sequestration of NOx:

"This [DM8O] decrease is associated with a decrease in NOx concentrations (Fig. 14a). This decrease in NOx suggests that the effect of sequestration of NOx by the biogenic VOCs as organic nitrates (RNO₃) is predominant over the effect

of recycling of NOx considered in SAPRC-99, which lumps all non-PAN organic nitrates as one compound that has a NOx recycling efficiency of about 30%. This reduction in ozone is consistent with the results of Xie et al. (2013), who reported increases in NOx and ozone in the Southeast when sequestration by isoprene nitrates was reduced relative to the base SAPRC-07T mechanism that has the same RNO₃ treatment as SAPRC-99. Evidence of the predominant effect of sequestration over the recycling of NOx in the eastern US is seen in Figure 14, which shows an increase in RNO₃ and reduction in the NOx concentrations in most of the eastern US for Simulation 2 relative to Simulation 1

17) Probably worth noting these increases are driven by global emissions changes.

Reviewer didn't link the comment to any particular paragraph, line, table, figure or section in the manuscript.

Conclusions section:

18) Are Asian and Mexican emissions impacts tracked separately from other countries? It would be nice to see the breakdown by country if that is available.

We did not run additional sensitivity simulations to separate out the effects of Asian and Mexican emissions. It is something to consider for future work

19) The biases in the model current conditions period should be mentioned here again.

The text was added to reflect the referee's suggestion

The next line was added to the conclusion. "The evaluation of the model performance for the base case simulation shows an overestimation of DM8O and an underestimation of $PM_{2.5}$ across the projected domain"

20) Suggest changing the word "will" to "may" since this assessment is not singularly conclusive.

Referee is correct. The word "will" was changed to "may" throughout the conclusion section.

Figures:

21) Figure 1. The US only map is impossible to read with the current color scale.

We have changed the color scale of Figure 1 so that the US map is more visible.

22) Figure 4. Please show number of stations similar to Figure 5.

We have edited the figure according the referee's suggestion.

23) Figure 6. Please show absolute speciated PM2.5 predictions and observations. The fractional plot does not terribly useful. Since the authors are referencing EPA guidance I suggest showing prediction-observation pairs with shorter averaging times like either the 24-hr or monthly averages to be more consistent with that guidance and to provide more useful information.

The plot has been added to the manuscript. See response to comment #11.

24) Figure 11. Its not clear that any of these panels isolate the biogenic impacts. Is that on here already?

Note that the original Figures 11 and 12 are now Figures 12 and 13. In Figures 12 and 13, panels c and d show the effects of biogenic emissions due to climate change and of biogenic emissions due to climate plus land use changes, respectively. We have edited the figure captions to be this clearer.

List of Most Relevant Changes

- 1. We have performed the small changes and edits in the text to reflect the suggestions posted in the interactive comments.
- 2. During the revision, we learned there were bugs in CMAQv4.7 in processing emissions, as described here: www.cmascenter.org/cmaq/documentation/4.7.1/RELEASE_NOTES.txt. Accordingly, we have re-run all simulations using CMAQv4.7.1, resulting in substantial changes to the PM2.5 section. Changes in ozone also occurred as a result of upgrading to CMAQ 4.7.1 due a combination of updates in emission, advection and plume rise emission modeling. The most notorious changes are on the modeling performance and the PM2.5 and O3 concentrations.
- 3. Due to the lack of speciated PM data for our period of simulation, we have removed the section on model performance for speciated PM (the observed data in the ACPD version were from 2003-2008 and we believed is not representative of our period of simulation). Figure 6 was removed and replaced for a regional performance plot of model vs observations PM2.5.
- 4. We have added Figure 14 and text in Section 3.3.3 regarding the sequestration of NOx:

This [DM8O] decrease is associated with a decrease in NOx concentrations (Fig. 14a). This decrease in NOx suggests that the effect of sequestration of NOx by the biogenic VOCs as organic nitrates (RNO₃) is predominant over the effect of recycling of NOx considered in SAPRC-99, which lumps all non-PAN organic nitrates as one compound that has a NOx recycling efficiency of about 30%. This reduction in ozone is consistent with the results of Xie et al. (2013), who reported increases in NOx and ozone in the Southeast when sequestration by isoprene nitrates was reduced relative to the base SAPRC-07T mechanism that has the same RNO₃ treatment as SAPRC-99. Evidence of the predominant effect of sequestration over the recycling of NOx in the eastern US is seen in Figure 14, which shows an increase in RNO₃ and reduction in the NOx concentrations in most of the eastern US for Simulation 2 relative to Simulation 1

5. We have added to section 3.3.1: "The smaller reduction in ozone concentrations between the future and the current decade in comparison to Nolte et al., (2008) is likely to be a consequence of the increase in VOC and CO emissions from business-as-usual scenario of ESP v1.0 which uses CO2 as a surrogate for growth factors for CO (Loughlin et al. 2011)."

- 6. We have rearranged the text in Section 3.2 for better clarity, and the sentence referred to by the referee is no longer in the text. Also, please note that the section has changed drastically.
- 7. As requested by the reviewer No1, we have added more discussion to the text in section 3.3.3. First, the reference was corrected to be Nolte et al. (2008) instead of Leung and Gustafson (2008). We now have "However, the difference in geographical features of DM8O changes with Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) suggests that the source of disparities resides in the simulated regional meteorological fields resulting from different global climate models, regional climate models and the methods used to estimate emissions from biogenic sources. We used the ECHAM5 global climate model results while both Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) used results from the GISS global climate model. For regional climate simulations, both Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) used MM5 while we used WRF here. In contrast with Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) who use the BEIS/BELD3 (Hanna et al., 2005; http://www.epa.gov/ttn/chief/emch/biogenic/) tool to compute biogenic emissions, this investigation estimates the biogenic emissions with MEGAN v2.04. MEGAN v2.04 generally predicts higher isoprene emissions than BEIS (Hogrefe et al., 2011; Sakulyanontvittaya et al., 2012). Hogrefe et al. (2011) shows that for the Northeast, MEGAN leads to higher DM8O by upwards of 7 ppb using 2005 anthropogenic emissions; however, under a scenario by which anthropogenic NOx emissions were reduced by ~60%, difference in DM8O was generally 3 ppb because of greater sensitivity to NOx emissions when MEGAN was used."
- 8. We have revised the text to explain the change in BVOC and NOx emissions under the land use change scenario instead of VOC to NOx ratio: "When land use changes are included along with biogenic emissions (Simulation 3), the increase in BVOC emissions is projected to be less, while NO emission is projected to increase in areas where natural vegetation is converted to cropland. This combination leads to higher DM8O in Simulation 3 than Simulation 2 (Simulation 3; Figure 12d)."
- 9. We had misplaced text on ozone in section 3.4 This error has been corrected in the revised manuscript. The line now reads as follows: "Changes in global emissions do not have a significant impact on PM_{2.5} concentrations, while changes in the climate and biogenic emissions can lead to both increases and decreases in PM_{2.5} depending on the region."
- 10. The original Tables 2 and 5 have been replaced with tables showing percentage changes of DM8O and PM2.5. The new Tables 2 and 5 as well the original

Tables 3 and 4 now have column headings listing the simulation numbers consistent with those of Table 1.

- 11. A figure with the emissions from the semi-hemispheric domain was added (new Figure 3). The figure shows the dramatic increase in NOx emissions across the domain and aims at the reason behind the increase in DM8O. A line addressing a possible higher reduction in ozone as a result of updated future regional emission projections was also added to the conclusion.
- 12. Changes in the text of the introduction to highlight the direct effect of methane. "Furthermore, despite the observed sensitivity of tropospheric ozone to regional emissions and global burden of methane (Zhang et al., 2011; Fiore et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2008a; Nolte et al., 2008; Fiore et al., 2006), in this work, we do not address the direct effect of emissions of methane in the air quality simulations"
- 13. Added Cooper et al. 2010 and Cooper et al. 2012, and added references in the introduction and result section to reflect recent advances in the field.
- 14. Section 2.5. Added the line "Methane concentration is fixed at 1.85 ppm for all CMAQ simulations."
- 15. In the last paragraph of Section 2.4, we have added the following sentence: "The use of CO₂ as a surrogate for growth factors as described above means the projected CO and VOC emissions are likely too high." Text was also added in the last paragraph of Section 3.3.1 to address the effect of growing emissions of CO and VOC: "The smaller reduction in ozone concentrations between the future and the current decade in comparison to Nolte et al., (2008) is likely to be a consequence of the increase in VOC and CO emissions from business-as-usual scenario of MARKAL, which uses surrogates as growth factors for CO and VOC (Loughlin et al. 2011)."
- 16. The original Figure 4 is now Figure 5 and has been modified as suggested by the referee. We agree with the referee that that overprediction of temperatures and its impact on ozone should be noted. The revised manuscript includes the following statement: DM8O is be over-estimated in regions where temperature maxima are also over predicted, most noticeably in the Midwest, the South, and the Southeast but also in the Northeast."

1 The Effects of Global Change upon United States Air Quality

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20 Abstract

21 To understand more fully the effects of global changes on ambient concentrations 22 of ozone and particulate matter with aerodynamic diameter smaller than 2.5 μ m (PM_{2.5}) 23 in the US, we conducted a comprehensive modeling effort to evaluate explicitly the effects 24 of changes in climate, biogenic emissions, land use, and global/regional anthropogenic 25 emissions on ozone and PM_{2.5} concentrations and composition. Results from the 26 ECHAM5 global climate model driven with the A1B emission scenario from the 27 Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) were downscaled using the Weather 28 Research and Forecasting (WRF) model to provide regional meteorological fields. We 29 developed air quality simulations using the Community Multiscale Air Quality Model 30 (CMAQ) chemical transport model for two nested domains with 220 km and 36 km 31 horizontal grid cell resolution for a semi-hemispheric domain and a continental United 32 States (US) domain, respectively. The semi-hemispheric domain was used to evaluate 33 the impact of projected Asian global emissions changes on US air quality. WRF 34 meteorological fields were used to calculate current (2000s) and future (2050s) biogenic 35 emissions using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols from Nature (MEGAN). 36 For the semi-hemispheric domain CMAQ simulations, present-day global emissions 37 inventories were used and projected to the 2050s based on the IPCC A1B scenario. 38 Regional anthropogenic emissions were obtained from the US Environmental Protection 39 Agency National Emission Inventory 2002 (EPA NEI2002) and projected to the future 40 using the MARKet ALlocation (MARKAL) energy system model assuming a business as 41 usual scenario that extends current decade emission regulations through 2050. Our

42 results suggest that daily maximum 8 hour average ozone (DM8O) concentrations will 43 increase in a range between 2 to 12 parts per billion (ppb) across most of the continental 44 US., with tThe highest increase occurs in the South, Central, and Midwest regions of the 45 US, due to increases in temperature, enhanced biogenic emissions, and changes in land 46 use. TIn the western US, the model predicts an average increase of 21-6 ppb in DM8O 47 due to projected increase in global emissions in Asia of ozone precursors, particularly from 48 Asia. The effects of these factors are only partially offset by reductions in DM8O 49 associated with decreasing US anthropogenic emissions. Increases in PM_{2.5} levels between 42 and 104 µg m⁻³ in the Northeast, Southeast, Midwest and South regions are 50 51 mostly a result of increase in primary anthropogenic particulate matter (PM), enhanced 52 biogenic emissions and land use changes. Little change in PM_{2.5} in the Central, 53 Northwest, and Southwest regions was found, even when PM precursors are reduced 54 with regulatory curtailment. Changes in temperature, relative humidity, and boundary 55 conditions shift the composition but do not alter overall simulated PM_{2.5} mass 56 concentrations.

57 **1. Introduction**

Despite extensive efforts to reduce anthropogenic emissions, air pollution continues to be a public health issue in the United States (EPA, 2010). Elevated concentrations of pollutants in the troposphere, such as ozone (O₃) and particulate matter (PM), degrade air quality and have been associated with, among other things, increasing human respiratory diseases in urban areas (WHO, 2005), and in the case of PM, with low birth weights across the world (Dadvand et al., 2012).

64 High concentrations of tropospheric ozone O₃ and particulate PM matter with 65 aerodynamic diameter smaller than 2.5 µm (PM_{2.5}) are caused by a combination of 66 adverse meteorological conditions and the atmospheric emissions of their primary 67 precursors. While regulatory controls are expected to reduce emissions of many emitted 68 pollutants in the United States (US) in the future, the negative effects of global climate 69 change may offset the positive effects of such reductions. Furthermore, global emissions 70 of greenhouse gases and other pollutant precursors are projected to increase (IPCC, 71 2007). Moreover, recent research has provided evidence of increasing long-range 72 transport of ozone-O₃ and PM_{2.5} precursors from Asia and their influence over the western 73 US. (Lelieveld and Dentener, 2000; Wuebbles et al., 2007; Cooper et al., 2010, Zhang et 74 al., 2010; Ambrose et al., 2011; Cooper et al., 2012, WMO, 2012, Lin et al., 2012).

In the United States, regulations and technological changes in the transportation
and energy sectors are projected to reduce regional atmospheric pollutants in the future
(Loughlin et al., 2011). However, the interplay between climate change, increasing global

78 emissions, and intercontinental transport pose challenges that air quality managers will 79 have to address in order to maintain regional air quality standards (Ravishankara et al., 80 2012). To provide a foundation for building effective management strategies and public 81 policies in a changing global environment, modeling approaches that link global changes 82 with regional air quality are required. The general approach has been to use output from 83 general circulation models (GCMs) to drive regional climate models (RCMs) and regional 84 or global chemical transport models (CTMs/GTMs; Giorgi and Meleux, 2007; Jacob and 85 Winner, 2009).

86 This downscaling approach has been used in a variety of studies in Europe, 87 Canada, and Asia at different time scales of climate change (e.g., Liao et al., 2006 [2000 to 2100];- Langner et al., 2005 [2000 to 2060]; Forkel and Knoche, 2006 [2990 to 2030]; 88 89 Meleux et al., 2007 [1975 to 1985]; Kunkel et al., 2007 [1990 to 2090]; Lin et al., 2008 90 [2000 to 2100]; Spracklen et al., 2009 [2000 to 2050]; Kelly et al., 2012 [2000's to 2050's]). 91 These investigations based the global emissions on future anthropogenic emissions 92 scenarios developed from the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) 93 assessment reports projected to 2050's, 2080 and 2100. Despite the differences in 94 emission scenarios, time scales, modeling frameworks and future climate realizations, 95 increases in ozone concentrations on the order of 2 to 10 ppb in polluted regions were 96 consistently predicted from these studies as a result of climate change alone. By contrast, 97 there is little consistency among the model predictions of climate change effects on 98 particulate matter (PM)PM (Jacob et al, 2009; Dawson et al., 2013).

99 In the US, a combined effort between the Environmental Protection Agency and 100 the academic community resulted in a set of modeling studies that adopted a variety of 101 modeling methods (Hogrefe et al., 2004; Leung and Gustafson, 2005; Liang et al., 2006; Steiner et al., 2006; Tagaris et al., 2007; Liao et al., 2006; Racherla and Adams, 2006, 102 103 2008; Tao et al., 2007; Huang et al., 2007, 2008; Nolte et al., 2008; Wu et al, 2008a, 104 2008b; Chen et al, 2009b; Avise et al., 2009; Dawson et al., 2009). These US 105 investigations based their current and future climate realizations on the results of GCMs 106 using the various IPCC emissions scenarios (IPCC, 2007) projected to the 2050's. In 107 some of the studies, the global climate realizations were subsequently downscaled to a 108 higher resolution using the PSU (Pennsylvania State University)/NCAR (National Center 109 for Atmospheric Research) Mesoscale Model version 5 (MM5; Grell et al., 1994) to 110 horizontal resolutions that ranged from 90 km to 36 km. Many of these studies based their 111 analysis on the effects of climate change on summer air quality in the Contiguous 112 Continental US (CONUS). -In summary, despite the differences in modeling elements, all 113 studies found an increases in daily the summer average of the daily maximum summer 114 8-hour average ozone concentrations over large regions of the simulated CONUS domain 115 on the order of 2 to 8 ppb for the simulated CONUS domain (Weaver et al., 2009), but 116 with regional variations. In contrast, PM concentrations showed changes between $\pm 0.1 \mu g$ m^{-3} to $\pm 1\mu g m^{-3}$, with little consistency between studies, including the sign of the 117 118 differences (Day and Pandis, 2015; Trail et al., 2014; Jacob and Winner, 2009).

119 It is important to note that variations between modeling frameworks did result in
120 very diverse regional patterns of key weather drivers for ozone and PM formation. Thus,

121 while most of the studies mentioned above found-projected an average increase in ozone 122 concentrations for the simulated domains, reductions or insignificant changes in certain 123 regions of the domain were also simulated. Generally, temperature and solar radiation 124 reaching the surface were the major meteorological drivers for regional ozone 125 concentrations. For PM concentrations, most of the studies found a direct link between 126 changes in precipitation and relative humidity and changes in PM concentrations (Liao et 127 al., 2006; Unger et al., 2006; Racherla and Adams 2006, Tagaris et al., 2007; Avise et 128 al., 2009; Chen et al., 2009b). Nevertheless, the direct impacts of changes in 129 meteorological conditions are not the only factors of change for ozone and PM 130 concentrations. Changes in emissions of biogenic volatile organic compounds (BVOCs), 131 due to climate and land cover change, and the treatment of isoprene nitrates in the 132 chemical mechanism were found to be a key factor in the regional variability of ozone and 133 PM, particularly in areas of the southeastern US (Jacob and Winner, 2009; Weaver et al., 134 2009).

135 In this work, we present a continuation of the work described by Avise et al. (2009) 136 and Chen et al. (2009a, b), who downscaled the Parallel Climate Model (PCM; 137 Washington et al., 2000) and MOZART (Model for OZone And Related chemical Tracers; 138 Horowitz, 2006) global model output for the A2 IPCC scenario using MM5 and the 139 Community Multi-scale Air Quality Model (CMAQ; Byun and Schere, 2006) to simulate 140 current and future air quality in the US. For this update, we implemented a semi-141 hemispheric domain for the Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) mesoscale 142 meteorological model (http://www.wrf-model.org) and CMAQ simulations in lieu of using

143 MOZART output for chemical boundary conditions for our CONUS CMAQ simulations. 144 We used the ECHAM5 global climate model (Roeckner et al., 1999, 2003) output for the 145 A1B scenario to drive these simulations for two decadal periods: the current decade from 146 1995–2004 and the future decade 2045–2054. In presenting our results, we follow the 147 attribution approach described in Avise et al. (2009), where the separate and combined 148 effects of changes in climate, US anthropogenic emissions, global anthropogenic 149 emissions and biogenic emissions due to changes in regional meteorology and land use 150 are investigated. Ideally, this framework should include feedback from changes in 151 atmospheric chemistry to the climate system (Raes et al., 2010). However, due to the 152 computational requirements of an on-line approach, we did not incorporate feedback 153 between the atmospheric chemistry and transport simulations from the CTM to the RCM. 154 Furthermore, despite the observed sensitivity of tropospheric ozone to regional emissions 155 and global burden of methane (Zhang et al., 2011; Fiore et al., 2008; Wu et al., 2008a; 156 Nolte et al., 2008; Fiore et al., 2006), in this work, we do not address the potential direct 157 contribution effect of emissions of methane oin the air quality simulations.-

In Section 2, we provide an overview of the modeling framework and emissions scenarios. Evaluation of the model performance for the climate simulations and results of the changes in meteorological fields are presented in Section 3. Assessment of air quality changes and the individual and combined effects from changes in model components are presented in Section 4. Finally, we present a summary of the results and conclusions in Section 5.

164 **2. Methodology**

165 **2.1 General Framework**

166 Results from the global climate model ECHAM5 under the IPCC Special Report 167 on Emissions Scenarios (SRES) A1B scenario (Nakicenovic et al., 2000) were 168 downscaled using the WRF model separately to a semi-hemispheric (S-HEM) 220 km 169 domain and nested CONUS domains of 108 km (not shown) and 36 km (Figure 1). 170 Although, it has been suggested that periods of 10 to 30 years are required to fully 171 determine climatological conditions (Andersson and Engardt, 2010), the fact that 172 emission inventories can substantially change from one decade to the next suggests that 173 using five to ten year periods for air quality assessment is more appropriate. Thus, five 174 representative summers (June-July-August; with May as a spin-up period) for the present 175 (1995 to 2004) and the future (2045 to 2054) decades were selected. Ranked in terms of 176 their CONUS-mean maximum temperature of the year, the summers of the warmest and 177 coldest years, as well as the second, fifth and seventh warmest years in each decade 178 were selected for CMAQ simulations. Comparison of the meteorological conditions of 179 these five selected chosen summers to those of the full decades is presented in section 180 3.1. These five representative summers (June-July-August; with May as a spin-up period) 181 for the present and future periods were processed with the Meteorology-Chemistry 182 Interface Processor v3.4.1 (MCIP; Otte and Pleim, 2010) for the S-HEM and 36 km 183 CONUS domains. Meteorological fields generated from MCIP for both domains were 184 used to estimate biogenic emissions using the Model of Emissions of Gases and Aerosols 185 from Nature v2.04 (MEGANv2.04; Guenther et al., 2006) and to calculate the temporal 186 profiles within the Sparse Matrix Operator Kernel Emissions (SMOKE) v2.7

(http://www.smoke-model.org). With the elements described above, a framework to
perform air quality simulations using the Community Multiscale Air Quality Model (CMAQ
v4.7; Foley et al., 2010) was created. The overall schematic for the modeling system is
shown in Figure 2.

191 2.2 Climate and Meteorology

192 The regional weather model WRF includes advanced representations of land-193 surface dynamics and cloud microphysics to simulate complex interactions between 194 atmospheric processes and the land surface characteristics. Detailed descriptions of 195 WRF can be found at http://wrf-model.org and a discussion of its range of regional climate 196 modeling applications can be found in is detailed by Leung et al. (2006). In this experiment, 197 WRF was used to downscale the ECHAM5 output for both the S-HEM and 108/36 km 198 CONUS domains. The model was applied with 31 vertical levels and a vertical resolution 199 of $\sim 40 - 100$ m throughout the boundary layer with the model top fixed at 50 mb. Details 200 of the model setup and a discussion of the results are reported by Salathé et al. (2010), 201 Zhang et al. (2009, 2012), and Duliére (2011, 2013).

202 **2.3 Current and Future Biogenic Emissions and Land Use Changes**

The MEGANv2.04 biogenic emission model (Guenther et al., 2006, Sakulyanontvittaya et al., 2008) was used to estimate current and future biogenic VOC and soil NO_X emissions based on the WRF meteorology with current and future estimates of land use and land cover. –For the current decade, the default MEGANv2.04 land cover and emission factor data (Guenther et al., 2012) were used. For the future decade, cropland distributions were estimated by combining three datasets: the IMAGE 2100 global

209 cropland extent dataset, (Zuidema et al., 1994), the SAGE maximum cultivable land 210 dataset (Ramankutty et al., 2002), and the MODIS-derived current cropland data (as used 211 in MEGANv2.04 and described in Guenther et al., 2006). The IMAGE 2100 dataset was 212 created from the output of a land cover model, which forms part of a sub-system of the 213 IMAGE 2.0 model of global climate change (Alcamo, 1994). The SAGE cultivable dataset 214 was created using a 1992 global cropland dataset (Ramankutty and Foley, 1998) modified 215 by characterizing limitations to crop growth based on both climatic and soil properties. 216 The future global cropland extent distribution was generated by analyzing predicted 217 changes in agriculture on a continent-by-continent basis (using the IMAGE data). These 218 changes were then applied to the MODIS based cropland map (used for present day 219 MEGAN simulations) using the SAGE maximum cultivable dataset as an upper limit to 220 cropland extent. The resulting land cover data has considerably lower cropland fraction 221 than the original IMAGE data, which likely overestimates future cropland area by not 222 considering whether a location is cultivable.

223 In addition to generating a future crop cover dataset to simulate potential biogenic 224 VOC emissions using MEGAN, future datasets representing several other MEGAN 225 driving variables were developed. These included geo-gridded potential future plant 226 functional type (PFT)-specific emission factor (EF) maps for isoprene and terpene 227 compounds, as well as future-extent maps of four non-crop PFTs: broadleaf trees, 228 needle-leaf trees, shrubs, and grasses. For regions outside of the US, the non-crop PFT 229 distributions were generated by reducing the current extent of each non-crop PFT map 230 by an amount that would appropriately offset the predicted cropland expansion for a given

231 continent. For the US, future non-crop PFT maps were generated using the Mapped 232 Atmosphere-Plant-Soil System (MAPSS) model output 233 (http://www.fs.fed.us/pnw/corvallis/mdr/mapss/; Neilson, 1995), based on three GCM 234 future scenarios. Present-day MAPSS physiognomic vegetation classes were associated 235 with current PFT fractional coverage estimates by dividing the US into sub-regions and 236 by averaging existing (MODIS-derived) geospatially explicit PFT data within each sub-237 region as a function of MAPSS class. Sub-regions were created based on Ecological 238 Regions of North America (http://www.epa.gov/wed/pages/ecoregions.htm). After every 239 current MAPSS class had been assigned PFT-specific fractional coverage estimates, 240 future PFT cover was determined by re-classifying future distribution maps for the three 241 MAPSS datasets using the fractional PFT cover estimates for each MAPSS class (within 242 each ecological region), and averaging the three resultant future datasets into a single 243 estimate of future cover for each PFT.

For the eastern US, future isoprene and monoterpene PFT-specific EF maps were constructed using changes in tree species composition predicted by the US_D<u>epartment</u> of Agriculture A-'Climate Change Tree Atlas' (CCTA, http://nrs.fs.fed.us/atlas/tree/). The CCTA data <u>arewas</u> based on <u>ecosystem changes driven by</u> the average of three GCMs, which that represented the most conservative emissions scenarios available.

Using existing speciated EF data (Guenther, 2013), we applied anticipated changes in the average species composition of each PFT to generate species-weighted PFT-specific EF maps on a state-by-state basis (the CCTA data is organized by state).

As data was lacking on predicted species-level changes for areas outside the easternUS, we did not attempt to alter EF maps outside the eastern US.

254 **2.4 Anthropogenic Emissions**

255 For S-HEM domain CMAQ simulations, global emissions of ozone precursors from 256 anthropogenic, natural, and biomass burning sources were estimated for the period 1990-257 2000 (applied to 1995-2004) using the POET emission inventory (Granier et al., 2005). 258 Non-US anthropogenic emissions (containing 15 sectors) were projected based on 259 national activity data and emission factors. Gridded maps (e.g. population maps) were 260 applied to spatially distribute the emissions within a country. The global emission 261 inventory for black and organic carbon (BC and OC respectively) was obtained from Bond 262 et al. (2004), which uses applies emission factors on the basisbased of fuel type and 263 economic sectors alone. The Bond et al. (2004) inventory includes emissions from fossil 264 fuels, biofuels, open burning of biomass, and urban waste. Emissions are varied by 265 combustion practices, which consider<u>Considering</u> combinations of fuel, combustion type, 266 and emission controls, as well as their prevalence on a regional basis covers the 267 dependence of emissions on combustion practices.

Global emissions for the year 2000 from the POET, MEGAN, and Bond et al. (2004) inventories were combined, and the 16 gas-phase POET and MEGAN species, along with the OC and BC species were adapted to the SAPRC99 (Carter 1990, 2000) chemical mechanism. Diurnal patterns were developed and applied to the gridded emission inventories and processed using SMOKE. For the future decade hemispheric domain simulations, current decade emissions were projected to the year 2050 based on
the IPCC A1B emission scenario. <u>After the emission inventories were combined and</u> <u>adapted to SAPRC99 and the diurnal patterns were applied, the differences percent</u> <u>change in emissions between the future and the current decade wereas estimated. To</u> <u>aid in understanding the effects of changes in global emissions upon the US, Tthe percent</u> <u>change in emissions was summarized according to the regions and countries in the S-</u> HEM domain that surround the CONUS domain (Figure 3).

280 For the 36-km CONUS current decade CMAQ simulations, US anthropogenic 281 emissions for the 36-km CONUS current decade CMAQ simulations were developed 282 using the 2002 National Emission Inventory. The Emission Scenario Projection (ESP) 283 methodology, version 1.0 (Loughlin et al., 2011), was applied to project future decade US 284 anthropogenic emissions. A primary component of ESP v1.0 is the MARKet Allocation 285 (MARKAL) energy system model (Loulou et al., 2004). MARKAL is an energy system 286 optimization model that characterizes scenarios of the evolution of an energy system over 287 time. In this context, the energy system extends from obtaining primary energy sources, 288 through their transformation to useful forms, to the variety of technologies (e.g., classes 289 of light-duty personal vehicles, heat pumps, or gas furnaces) that meet "end-use" energy 290 demands (e.g., projected vehicle miles traveled, space heating). Within ESP 1.0, the 291 MARKAL is used to develop multiplicative factors that grow energy-related emissions 292 from a base year to a future year. Surrogates, such as projected population growth or 293 industrial growth, are used to develop non-energy-related growth factors. The resulting 294 factors were used applied within SMOKE to develop a future decade inventory from the 295 2002 NEI inventory.

296 For the work presented here, the EPAUS9r06v1.3 database (Shay et al., 2006) 297 was used with MARKAL to develop growth factors for CO₂, NOx, SO₂ and PM with 298 aerodynamic diameter smaller than 10 µm (PM₁₀-). The PM₁₀ growth factors were also 299 applied to PM_{2.5}; and the CO₂ growth factors were used as a surrogate for energy system 300 CO, NH₃, VOC, HCI and chlorine. For mobile sources, NOx growth factors were used for 301 CO, VOC, and NH₃. Non-combustion industrial emission growth factors were developed 302 from projections of economic growth. Growth factors for non-combustion emissions from 303 the residential and commercial sectors are linked to population growth. The resulting 304 energy and non-energy factors were then used within SMOKE to multiply emissions from 305 the 2002 National Emissions Inventory (NEI) to 2050.

306 EPAUS9r06v1.3 originally was calibrated to mimic the fuel use projections of the 307 U.S. Energy Information Administration's 2006 Annual Energy Outlook (AEO06; U.S. 308 DOE, 2008). Energy demands were adjusted to account for population growth consistent 309 with the A1B storyline. The results reflect business as usual assumptions about future 310 environmental and energy regulations as of 2006. Thus, while electric sector emissions 311 are capped to capture the effects of the Clean Air Interstate Rule (CAIR: US EPA, 2005). 312 the impacts of increases in natural gas availability, the -2007- economic downturn, and 313 the relatively new 54.5 Corporate Average Vehicle Efficiency (CAFÉ) standard (US CFR, 314 2011) are not reflected. More recent versions of the MARKAL database reflect these 315 factors with, expanded pollutant growth coverage, and refined emission factors (U.S. 316 EPA, 2013). The ESP v1.0, including the MARKAL database EPAUS9rv1.3, was selected 317 here to maintain compatibility with previous and ongoing activities.

318 After SMOKE was used to develop a 2050 inventory, The differences between the 319 base year and future-year US inventories were summarized at the pollutant and regional 320 level, as are shown in (-Figure 4)3. Using the ESP v1.0 methodology, emissions of NOx 321 and SO₂ are projected to decrease between 16% in the South and Southwest to 35% in 322 the Northeast and Northwest. On the other hand, emissions of pollutants that were not 323 captured endogenously in-by MARKAL, such as carbon monoxide (CO), non-methane 324 volatile organic compounds (excluding methane; NMVOCsNMVOCs) and ammonia (NH₃) 325 are projojectected to increase in nearly all regions across the CONUS domain. The use 326 of surrogates for growth factors as described above means the projected changes in CO 327 and VOC emissions are likely too high. The largest increase (70%) of in emissions of CO 328 is projected in the Midwest; this is co-located with a 70% increase combined with an 329 increase of about 20% of NMVOC. The smallest increase of CO is projected for the South; 330 however, the same region was projected to increase NMVOC by about 12%. The largestr 331 increase in PM_{2.5} emissions is projected in the Northwest (<20%) and t⁺he smallest 332 increase (3%) of PM_{2.5} is projected in the central region, which also has a projected 34% 333 increase in NMVOC.

334 2.5 Air Quality Simulations

The CMAQ model version 4.7.1 was employed to simulate the potential impact of climate change on surface ozone and PM_{2.5} over the CONUS at 36 km horizontal grid spacing and covering 18 vertical layers from the surface up to 100 mb. The model configuration included the use of the SAPRC99 chemical mechanism and version 5 of the aerosol module, with Secondary Organic Aerosol parameters of Carlton et al. (2010). Methane concentration is fixed at 1.85 parts per million (ppm) for all CMAQ simulations.
 Stratospheric intrusion (STE) was not included in the CMAQ simulations; <u>HHHigh STE</u>
 events are mostly relevant during the spring season, thus, lack of STE in our summer
 simulations is not expected to have a significant effect in our results.

344

345 Using the framework components described above, a matrix of CMAQ simulations 346 that included changes in predicted meteorological conditions and potential emission 347 scenarios was constructed (Table 1).- For each set of simulations shown in Table 1, five 348 representative summers were modeled. ___ Simulation 0 represents the base case 349 simulation, where all model inputs are set to current decade conditions.- Simulation 1 is 350 used to investigate the impact of climate change alone: where all model inputs are set to 351 current decade conditions except for meteorology (biogenic emissions are not allowed to 352 change with the future climate for this case).—Simulation 2 is the same as Simulation 1, 353 except that biogenic emissions are allowed to change with the future climate,; and in 354 Simulation 3, future land use is also incorporated into the biogenic emission estimates. 355 Simulation 4 is used to investigate the impact of future decade US anthropogenic 356 emissions, where all inputs are set to current decade levels except for US anthropogenic 357 emissions.-_The impact of future global emissions is investigated in Simulation 5.- Finally, 358 and Simulation 6 represents the combined impacts of Simulations 1-5.

359 2.6 Evaluation of Model Performance

360 To aid in summarizing model results, the 36 km domain was divided geographically 361 into 7 regions (Figure 43, lower right). Since the WRF simulations used to drive CMAQ 362 are based on a climate realization rather than reanalysis data, a direct comparison 363 between the modeled output and observations cannot be made. Instead, the frequency 364 distributions of simulated and observed values are compared. For the simulated 365 meteorological fields, daily maximum temperature, and daily precipitation are compared 366 against a decade of summer observations (1995 to 2004) from the United States 367 Historical Climatological Network (US-HCN; http://cdiac.ornl.gov/ftp/ushcn_daily/; Karl et 368 al., 1990) in Figure 54. The model distributions of temperature and precipitation agree 369 reasonably well with the observations, and provide a good representation of the regional 370 variability of precipitation and temperature. Except for the Northwest and Southwest 371 regions, the observed mean and maximum temperatures are slightly over predicted, with 372 the largest overprediction in the Midwest. which is likely to result in higher emissions of 373 ozone and PM precursors from biogenic sources. However, fFor all analyzed regions the 374 model successfully simulates the seasonal trend of summer temperatures, showing the 375 observed increase in mean temperature from June to July and subsequent decrease in 376 mean temperature from July to August (not shown).

The modeled daily maximum 8 hr ozone concentrations (DM8O) from the five representative summers (Figure $\underline{65}$) from the current decade CMAQ simulations (Simulation 0 in Table 1) were compared to the range of observations from the AIRNow network (http://airnow.gov/). As seen in Figure $\underline{65}$, DM8O tends-isto be over-estimated in

381 regions where temperature maxima is are also over predicted, such as the South, 382 Midwest, Southeast and Northeastmost noticeably in the Midwest, the South, and the 383 Southeast but also in the Northeast. Except for the less populated Central region, DM8O 384 shows a bias that ranges between +10 ppb (+15%) and +25 ppb (+37%) across the 385 domain. This is consistent with previous climate downscaled results by Tagaris et al. 386 (2007), who found a bias of +15%, and with Avise et al. (2009), who found regional biases 387 as high as +39%. Despite the bias, results from the modeling framework presented here 388 have been shown to accurately represent the correlation between ozone and temperature 389 at rural Clean Air Status and Trends Network (CASTNET) -sites throughout the US (Avise 390 et al., 2012), suggesting that the bias in temperature is the main cause of the bias in 391 DM8O. This implies and that the chemical transport model is responding to the 392 meteorological driver of ozone production and thus can predict the impact of climate 393 change on DM8O.-

394 Simulations for the current decade show a domain meanaverage DM8O of 66 ± 395 20 ppb (standard deviation between simulated DM8O for the five summers), while the 396 observed average at the AIRNow sites was 563 ± 189 ppb. The sSimulations successfully 397 captured the enhanced DM8O concentrations over the major urban areas and regions 398 with high biogenic sources (Figure 10231a, top). Interannual \forall variability of the simulated 399 summertime DM8O concentrations between summers is on the order of 10% (not shown) 400 in highly populated areas and down to as little as 1% in less populated areas, with the 401 greatest variability found in the Northeast region.

Simulated concentrations of current decade $PM_{2.5}$ ($PM_{2.5}$ with no water content, unless otherwise specified) show a five summer average of <u>12.056.9 ± 10.87</u> µg m⁻³, compared to 14.3 ± 9.2 µg m⁻³ observed at the Speciation Trends Network (STN; US EPA, 2000). Simulated $PM_{2.5}$ show the highest concentrations occurring inland of coastal regions and throughout the Northeast and Southeast (Figure 1<u>42</u>1, top).

407 In general, the model slightly overestimates PM_{2.5} in the Midwest, the Southeast, and the 408 Northeast and significantly underestimates PM_{2.5} in the western half of the US (Figure 7). 409 Several factors contribute to the underestimation of PM_{2.5} in the western US, including a 410 lack of windblown dust and fire smoke emissions, and an underestimation of secondary 411 organic aerosol (SOA) formation (Carlton et al., 2010; Foley et al., 2010; Appel et al., 412 2012; Luo et al., 2011). In our study, when comparing to the STN data, we found an 413 underestimation of all species, including SO42- and total carbon (Organic Carbon + 414 Elemental [Black] Carbon), except for the un-speciated PM_{2.5} species (also known as PM 415 "other"). Nevertheless, when comparing the average fractional composition we found a 416 slight overestimation of the SO₄² fraction for most regions (Figure 86, top panel). Most 417 regions were also found to underestimate the NO3⁻ and NH4⁺ fractions. Low 418 concentrations of NH₄⁺ relative to SO₄² result in a sulfate-rich system, where aerosols 419 are dominated by aqueous phase HSO4⁻ and SO4²⁻ and have lower concentrations of 420 (NH₄)₂SO₄ and NH₄NO₃ (Fountoukis and Nenes, 2007; Kim et al., 1993; Sienfield and 421 Pandis, 2006). Further discussion of the response of the inorganic aerosol system to 422 global changes is provided in Section 3.4.).- Another important factor that influenced the 423 underestimation of PM_{2.5} is the over-prediction of precipitation as shown in Figure 5

When compared to STN data (Figure <u>86</u>, top panel), we found a large underestimation of the fraction of organic carbon in all regions, while the unspecified fraction was overpredicted. The unspecified fraction in CMAQ is composed of all the non-carbon atoms associated with the OC fraction, unspecified direct PM_{2.5} emissions, and other trace species (Foley et al., 2010). The underprediction in OC reflects the uncertainties in precursor sources and the SOA formation mechanisms which have been previously documented (e.g., Carlton et al., 2010; Foley et al., 2010).

431 Speciated PM_{2.5} model performance evaluation using mean fractional error (MFE) and 432 mean fractional bias (MFB) statistics for the major PM_{2.5} components as suggested by 433 Boylan and Russell (2006) was performed (Figure 86, middle and bottom panels). Overall, 434 the model has a large underestimation of organic carbon due to underestimation of SOA 435 as documented in previous studies (see compilation by Simon et al., 2012). To a less 436 degree the model also underesimates EC, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, and NH₄⁺; this most likely is due 437 to overpredicition of precipitation (Fig. 4b), but errors in other meteorological variables 438 and emissions also contribute to the underesimation. For the unspecified component, the 439 model meets the performance goal for 5 of the 7 regions. The majority of the speciated 440 components show MFE and MFB within the criteria threshold for most regions. 441 Furthermore, tThe model performance was within the criteria thresholdsthese guidelines 442 for PM_{2.5} in four of the seven regions, and only in the Central region did the model not 443 meet these guidelines. Similarly, SO₄²⁻, NO₃⁻, NH₄⁺ and unspecified fractions meet the 444 benchmark thresholds for model performance in most regions. In terms of the unspecified 445 fraction, the better model performance in most regions is due to the heavy contribution to

the total mass of the PM_{2.5}. For the SO₄²-NO₃-NH₄*-system, the values for the MFE and MFB indicate that the model performed sufficiently well in responding to the conditions that drive inorganic aerosol formation. These values increase the confidence about the response to global changes in the system. In the case of OC and EC, poor model performance was found, with concentrations largely underpredicted for all regions.

451 3. Results and Discussion

452 3.1 Projected Changes in Meteorology

453 For these types of climate change simulations, it is important to consider whether 454 the five selected summers represent the climatological conditions for the 1995-2004 and 455 2045-2054 periods. To address this, we compared the regional mean temperature and 456 total precipitation (Figure 978)) as well as maximum daily insolation and mean relative 457 humidity (not shown) for all ten summers versus the five selected summers. Based on the 458 two sample *t*-test, except for the Northwest region, we found no statistical difference in 459 the overall regional average conditions between the five and ten summer samples (p 460 >0.01).-The effect of selecting five summers instead of ten summers for the Northwest 461 region is explained below. For the purposes of this air quality assessment, this 462 comparison of the meteorological conditions for the five selected summers to the full ten 463 summer set of data suggest that the five summers provide a reasonable representation 464 of decadal summer meteorological conditions. While no statistical difference was found 465 between the five and ten summer samples, some distinct features shouldneed to be 466 highlighted: 1) For the current decade, except fort the Southeast, tThe former chosen set 467 of five summers on average represents an average warmer current decade is slightly

warmer than the average of the ten summers samplelatter; 2) The five summers chosen
for current and future decades Fiver year summerled to a projection of cooling in the
Northwest average represent a decrease in future temperature in the Northwest region.
The effects of the higher average temperature as result of the five summer sample, and
the projected decrease in future temperature in the Northwest region areexplained
discussed below.

Similar to the 30 year meteorological variability assessment carried out by Andersson and Engardt (2010), the differences between current and future summer meteorological conditions, based on the five representative periods, were found to be significant at the 99% confidence level for all regions except <u>for</u> the Northwest. This further supports the use of five representative summers as the basis for the air quality assessment of current and future conditions.

480 Projected changes in selected meteorological parameters are shown in Figure 481 9108. Except for some minor cooling along the Pacific coast, the resulted of selecting five 482 versus ten summers, mean summer temperature across the continental US is projected 483 to increase between 0.5°C and 4°C (Figure 9108a). This increase falls within the lower 484 bound of the warming predicted by the ensemble of 20 GCM's under the A1B emission 485 scenario described by Christensen et al., (2007), but differs in the regional variability due 486 to the higher resolution of our simulations. When compared to similar studies of equal 487 resolution using a GCM (e.g. Goddard Institute for Space Studies (,-GISS) GCM II') driven 488 by the A1B IPCC emission scenario and downscaled with MM5 to 36-km resolution, our 489 simulated temperatures show higher temperature differences between future and current

490 decades (Leung and Gustafson, 2005; Tagaris et al., 2007). Furthermore, Tagaris et al. 491 (2007) and Leung and Gustafson (2005) predicted an average increase of between 1 and 492 3 °C for most of the domainCONUS, and temperature reductions in the border states of 493 the Central and South regions. Nevertheless, despite the differences in physical 494 parameterizations contained in the GCMs and the driving IPCC emission scenarios that 495 were used, similar temperature differences (2 to 4 °C) between our study and previous 496 investigations were simulated for the Northeast and Southeast regions (Leung and 497 Gustaffson, 2005; Tagaris et al., 2007; Avise et al., 2009).

498 Projected increases in solar radiation reaching the ground vary by region. A 499 decrease in solar radiation in the Northwest that extends to the northern boundaries of 500 the Central regions is simulated. Small changes in the Southwest, South and Midwest are 501 also predicted, with the largest increase experienced in the Northeast and Southeast 502 regions (Figure 9108b). Similar results for the Northeast regions are reported for by 503 previous investigations (Leung and Gustafson, 2005; Tagaris et al., 2007, and Avise et 504 al., 2009);- hHowever, these same investigations had higher reductions in solar radiation 505 at the border states between the Central and South regions.

Projected changes in precipitation across the US also vary depending on the region. With the exception of the Northwest and the northern boundary of the Central region, summertime precipitation is projected to decrease between -10% and -80%. The largest decrease is projected in the Southwest region. Our results show greater precipitation reductions than those presented in Christensen et al., (2007), who predicted projected between a -5 to -15% decreases in the South and Southwest regions. Also,

512 previous investigations agreed with our predicted projected mean precipitation reductions 513 across the domain (Figure 9108c). In the Northwest, the modeled increase in precipitation 514 is also-consistent with Leung and Gustafson (2005), who projected an increase in 515 precipitation throughout the Northwest region. In contrast, the Southeast and Northeast 516 regions show disparities in the magnitude and the sign of the change in precipitation. 517 While our simulations predict show a reduction in precipitation between -10 to -20%, the 518 ensemble of 20 GCM's in Christensen et al., (2007) predicted resulted in an increase 519 between 5 to 10% across these same regions. The disparities may be a result of the 520 differences in resolution and parameterization schemes between our study and those 521 used for the 20 GCM²s.

522 Changes in relative humidity are shown in Figure <u>910</u>³d. Relative humidity is 523 predicted <u>shown</u> to decrease in most of the domain except for the regions where 524 decreases in solar radiation were projected. The greater decrease in relative humidity 525 occurs in the Southwest and Central regions of the domain, and the largest increase is 526 observed in the Northwest region.

527 **3.2 Changes in Biogenic Emissions**

Average summertime isoprene emissions over five summers of simulation for each decade are shown in Figure 10a. As expected, ilsoprene emissions occur at relatively high rates (>50 metric tons/day) in the eastern US and at much lower rates in the western US (<10 metric tons/day). Under future climate conditions and current land use, isoprene and monoterpene emissions are projected to increase in all regions except for the Northwest (Figs. 4 and 10b); this follows the spatial pattern of projected temperature 534 changes (Fig. 9a).- The most noticeable increases occur in the Northeast and Southeast 535 regions. The model projects bigger percentage increase in monoterpenes than isoprene 536 across the domain; however, total isoprene emission is an order of magnitude higher and 537 thus dominates the changes in total BVOC. The increase in total BVOC ranges between 538 17% and 45%. The only region that is projected to have reduced total BVOC emissions 539 is the Northwest, where, despite the increase in monoterpenes, the model simulates a 540 7% reduction in isoprene emissions (Figure 43)- that in absolute amount is greater than 541 the 20% increase in simulated monoterpene emissionsis simulated. The reduction in 542 isoprene emissions in the Northwest is a result of the decrease in temperatures in areas 543 the coastal area where the higher isoprene emissions are encountered (Figure <u>9108a</u>).

544 Furthermore, despiteprojects having the biggerhe percentage biggest increases 545 in monoterpenes than isoprene across the USdomain, s arethe latter still drives the 546 absolute change in the Central and South regions, the larger increase in isoprene for the 547 Midwest, followed by the Northeast, Southeast, South, Central and Southwest regions, 548 drives the increase in total BVOC in emissions of BVOC. The increase in BVOC ranges 549 between 17% and 45%. Previous investigations (Liao et al., 2006, Nolte et al., 2008) show 550 the greatest increase in BVOC emissions in the Southeast region (10-50%). Similarly, 551 Leung and Gustafson (2005) predicted the greatest increase in BVOC in the Southeast, 552 but did not show any significant changes in the Northwest region.

Average summertime isoprene emissions over five summers of simulation for each
decade are shown in Figure <u>1019a.</u> As expected, isoprene emissions occur at relatively
high rates (>50 metric tons/day) in the eastern US and at much lower rates in the western

556 US (<10 metric tons/day). When the emissions are projected to future climate conditions 557 with current land use distributions, isoprene emissions are projected to increase across 558 the domain (average increase of about 30%; Figure 1019b) with the most noticeable 559 increases occurring in the Northeast and Southeast regions. However, wWhen future 560 climate is combined with future land use to project biogenic emissions, there are still 561 increases in the eastern US, but the spatial extent of isoprene emission the increase is 562 reduced, reflecting the expansion of low isoprene-emitting croplands into regions of high 563 isoprene-emitting deciduous forests. In this case, the domain-average increase was 564 approximately 12% of current decade emissions, compared with a 25% increase when 565 changes in land use are not included (Figure 1120a). Thus, future expansion of cropland 566 and subsequent reduction of broadleaf forested lands are projected to lessen the overall 567 increase in US isoprene emissions that result from a warmer climate. When the future 568 decade meteorology is combined with future land use, an increase of over 100% of 569 current decade monoterpene emissions is predicted (Figureg. 11b). The growth is most 570 noticeable in the Central, South and Midwest regions. Also, an overall increase between 571 25% and 50% for the western and eastern regions is predicted simulated. This limited 572 increase is primarily driven by the projected changes in land use predicted for those 573 regions.

574 Future monoterpene emission estimates increase because of higher <u>temperatures</u> 575 across the domain. Since the version of MEGAN used in this work does not include the 576 suppression of isoprene emissions due to elevated concentrations of CO₂ (Rosenstiel et 577 al., 2003; Heald et al., 2009), the future estimates in this study are likely to be an upper

578 bound on isoprene emissions, and it is likely that future isoprene emissions will be lower 579 than predicted by this work. Monoterpene emissions from US landscapes are not 580 expected to be suppressed by increasing CO₂ and so are not impacted by omitting this 581 process.

When the future decade meteorology is combined with future land use (Figure 1120b), an increase of over 100% of current decade monoterpene emissions is predicted. The growth is most noticeable in the Central, South and Midwest regions. Also, an overall increase between 25% and 50% for the Western and Eastern regions is predicted. This limited increase is primarily driven by the projected changes in land use predicted for those regions.

588 **3.3 Effects of Global Changes upon Ozone Concentrations**

589 Results for how the various global changes affect summertime DM8O are 590 summarized in Table 232 and Figure 1231. Simulations for the future decade (Simulation) 591 6) show a domain average of 48 ± 11 ppb with higher_-DM8O across the domainatin the 592 Northwest, Central and South regions than the current decade simulation (Simulation 0) 593 with a domain average of 51 ± 10 ppb. In general, increases in DM8O are due to growing 594 global anthropogenic emissions and climate change, while decreasing US emissions 595 reduce DM8O. Changes in biogenic emissions as a result of a changing climate and land 596 use have less of an influence on DM8O than intercontinental transport increase of global 597 anthropogenic emissions; the influence can be either positive or negative depending on 598 the region. These various <u>F</u>factors that influence future DMO3 are discussed in the 599 following sections.

600 3.3.1 Contributions from Changes in Global and Regional US Anthropogenic 601 Emissions

602 The effects of increased long-range transport of global emissions from Asia and 603 Mexico are shown in Figure 1231 f. The changes in chemical boundary conditions (the 604 difference between Simulations 0 and 5 in Table 1) -increase DM8O between 212 to 656 605 ppb across the CONUS domain. The general west-to-east -and south-to-north gradient of 606 the change in DM8O reflects intercontinental and regional transport of ozone and its 607 precursors from the west and from Mexico at the south. The greatest impact is 608 predictedoccurs in the South (6ppb) (6 ppb) and Southwest (5 ppb) (4 ppb) regions. These 609 results show a smaller influence in DM8O from the intercontinental transport than the 610 simulations presented in are consistent with Avise et al., (2009), who showreported 611 increases between 3 and 6 ppb of DM8O across the domain, with the greatest increase 612 in the Southwest and South regions. The higher effect from intercontinental transport 613 presented in Avise et al., (2009) is due to higher-larger increases inNOx emissions-of 614 NOx from global anthropogenic sources under the SRES A2 emission scenario. The 615 effects of future global emissions and intercontinental transport of ozone precursors in 616 the continental US have also been investigated by Hogrefe et al. (2004), who predicted 617 an increase of 5 ppb in the Northeast region under the SRES A2 IPCC emission scenario.

618 Changes in regional US emissions of ozone precursors (difference between 619 Simulations 0 and 4) reduce DM8O concentrations between 2 and 15 ppb across the 620 domainin most of eastern US, most of western US, and Texas. Projected increases in 621 ozone in urban areas near the coasts are mainly due to the limited representation of the 622 heavy duty, shipping and rail sectors on the ESPv1.0 (Loughlin et al., – 2012) by which 623 local steady or increase in emissions of NOx and VOCs in ports are the main cause of 624 increase in ozone in those urban areas. Regionally, ILarger reductions are observed in 625 the Southeast (-3%) and Southwest (-3.5%) regions with a reduction of 5 ppb and the 626 Northeast (-2.3%) and South (-0.9%) regions with a reduction of 3-ppb (Figure 12e, 627 Table 2). Similar results are shown in Nolte et al., (2008) and Tagaris et al., (2007) despite 628 a difference in the magnitude of projected emissions reductions. Tagaris et al., (2007) 629 simulated similar ozone reductions (about 9%), with a higher nationwide reduction of 51% 630 in NO_X emissions and a slight increase (about 2%) in VOC emissions from A1B 631 projections based on the Clean Air Interstate Rule (CAIR) emission inventory. Nolte et 632 al., (2008) showed a decrease in ozone across the domain (-12 to -16 ppb) as a result of 633 projected reductions of 45% for NO_x and 21% for VOC emissions from the NEI 2002, 634 following the SRES A1B-IPCC emission scenario. In contrast, our future simulations 635 included a 3821% reduction in NO_X emissions and a slight increase (about 2%) in VOC 636 emissions. Avise et al., (2009) predicted an average contribution of +3 ppb across the 637 domain as a result of projecting the NEI 1999 (NEI-1999) with the Economic Growth 638 Analysis System (EGAS) and the SRES A2 IPCC emission scenario; increasing 639 emissions by 5% for NO_X and 50% for VOCs in the future.- The smallerlower reduction in 640 ozone concentrations between the future and the current decade in comparison to Nolte 641 et al., (2008) is likely to be a consequence of the increase in VOC and CO emissions from 642 the resulted of the current version of the MARKAL database business-as-usual scenario 643 of MARKAL, which, as explained in section 2.4, uses CO₂ as a diverse surrogates for 644 growth factors for CO and VOC (Loughlin et al. 2011).

645 **3.3.2 Contributions from Changes in Meteorological Fields**

646 Figure 1231b shows the difference between simulations that include changes in 647 meteorological conditions (without the effect of biogenic emissions or land use) and the 648 current decade base case (Simulations 0 and 1). The local greater reductions- in DM8O 649 concentrations in the Northwest and Southwest regions resulted from an increase in cloud 650 cover and lower solar radiation reaching the ground, and which cause resulting in aa 651 reduction in photochemistry due to lower solar radiation reaching the ground (Figure 652 9108b), similar to the results of Jacob and Winner, 2009. Nevertheless, For other regions, 653 increases in DM8O concentrations were projected (+5 ppb) because of increases in 654 temperature had a greater impact on the ozone chemistry and solar insolation; this is 655 particularly evident in the Central, Midwest, Northeast and Southeast regionseastern half 656 of the US.

657 **3.3.3 Contributions from Changes in Biogenic Emissions and Future Land Use**

658 When biogenic emissions are allowed to change with the future meteorology, an 659 average increase of DM8O with respect to the current decade base case simulations is 660 predicted (Simulations 0 and 32). Increases of as much as 7 ppb in DM8O concentrations 661 are mainly predicted in areas with substantial biogenic sources (Figure 1231c). Similar 662 results are shown by Leung and Gustafson Nolte et al. (20085) and Tagaris et al. (2007), 663 +; both predicted an increase of DM8O above 5 ppb in the east coast. Simulated 664 reductions between 2 to 4 ppb of DM8O in the coastal areas of the western regions are 665 probably due to cooler temperatures and reduced solar insolation (Fig-ure 9a, b)increased cloud cover. Minor changes in DM8O concentrations are shown over the Southwest and 666 667 Northwest regions. This is in agreement with Avise et al. (2009) and Nolte et al., Leung

668 and Gustafson (20085) who predicted reductions in DM8O concentrations from 1 to 4 ppb 669 in the western regions, while Tagaris et al. (2007) also predicted similar reductions in 670 ozone in the Central and Midwest regions. The disparities between this investigation and 671 Avise et al. (2009) are reasonable due to the different climate realizations used (A2 vs. 672 A1B; Storyline in scenario A2 consider higher emissions of CO₂ by 2050 than the scenario 673 A1B). However, -, -the difference in geographical features of ozone-DM8O changes with 674 Leung and GustafsonNolte et al. (20085) and Tagaris et al. (2007) suggests that the 675 source of disparities resides in both: the simulated regional meteorological fields resulted 676 of the different global climate models, modeling systems, as discussed by Weaver et al. 677 (2009); regional climate models both the climate realization and -the methods used to 678 estimate emissions from biogenic sources. We used the ECHAM5 global climate model 679 results while both Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) used results from the GISS 680 global climate model. For regional climate simulations, we used WRF; while both Nolte 681 et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) used MM5-while we used WRF here.- In contrast 682 with Nolte et al. (2008) and Tagaris et al. (2007) who use the BEIS/BELD3 (Hanna et al., 683 2005; http://www.epa.gov/chief/emch/biogenic/) tool to compute biogenic emissions, this 684 investigation estimates the biogenic emissions with MEGAN v2.04., which MEGAN v2.04, 685 which generally predicts higher isoprene emissions than BEIS (Hogrefe et al., 686 2011; Sakulyanontvittaya et al., 2012). is known to produce Hogrefe et al. (2011) showed 687 that for the Northeast using MEGAN leads to higher DM8O in the Northeast by upwards 688 of 7 ppb for under the scenario of 2005 anthropogenic emissions; however, underfor a scenario by which anthropogenic NOx emissions were reduced by ~60%, difference in 689

690 <u>DM8O was generally 3 ppb because of due to greater sensitivity to NOx emissions when</u>
 691 MEGAN was used. <u>higher concentrations of ozone than BEIS (Hogrefe et al., 2011)</u>

692 When the results from Simulation 2 (Fig. 12c) are compared to the climate-only 693 simulations (Simulation 1, Fig. 124b), our results suggest that changes in the 694 meteorological fields are the main driver of DM8O enhancement in Simulations 2 and 3 695 (Fig. 121-c and d) across the domain. Even though BVOC emissions are higher in 696 Simulation 2 relative to Simulation 1, Simulation 2 resulted in 2 to 4 ppb lower DM8O in 697 the Southeast. This decrease is associated with a decrease reduction in NOx 698 concentrations (Fig. 14a)... This decrease in NOxThe change in biogenic emissions leads 699 to an increase in the VOC concentrations to NOx ratio relative to the climate-only (Simulation 1). Theis decrease between the Simulation 2 and Simulation 1 in our 700 701 simulated DM8O suggests that the effect of seguestration of ozone precursorsNOx by the 702 biogenic VOCs as organic nitrates (RNO₃) -is predominant over the effect of recycling of 703 NOx organicisoprene nitrates (RNO₃) considered in SAPRC-99, which lumps all non-PAN 704 organic nitrates as one compound that has a NOx recycling efficiency of about 30%.-; A 705 similar effect was reported by The simulated is reduction in ozone is consistent with the 706 results of Xie, et al. (20122013), who simulated reported an increases in NOx and of 2 707 ppb of ozone in the Southeast when sequestration by isoprene nitrates was reduced in 708 therelative to the chemical mechanismbase SAPRC-07T mechanism that has the same 709 RNO₃ treatment as SAPRC-99. Evidence of the predominant -effect of sequestration over 710 the recycling of organic nitratesNOx in the Southeasteastern US is shownseen in Figure 711 145, where which shows an increase in RNO₃ and reduction in the NO_X concentrations

712 (Figure 145a) and the consequent decrease in the NOx to RNO3 ratio (RNO3; Figure

- 713 145b) in most of the eastern US in the for sSimulation 2 relative to sSimulation 1 is
- 714 <u>observed.</u> Furthermore, wWhen land use changes are included along with biogenic

remissions (Simulation 3; Figure 11d), the increase in <u>B</u>VOC <u>emissions is projected to be</u>

- 716 less whileto NOx emission is projected to increase in areas where natural vegetation is
- 717 <u>converted to cropland. This combination leads to ratio is reduced and less depletion</u>
- 718 inhigher DM8O is simulated in Simulation 3 than, thus, higher concentrations of DM8O
- than the Simulation 2 (Simulation 3; Figure 1231d) are also observed. This lower VOC to
- 720 NO_x ratio is due to the increase in soil NO and the reduction of BVOC emissions
- 721 associated with the land use change from natural vegetation to cropland.

3.3.4 Contributions from Combined Global Change to Future Changes in DM8O Concentrations

724 When the combined global changes are considered (Simulation 6), DM8O is 725 projected to increase in all regions, except with local reductions along the western 726 coastlinesin in the Northwest, Central and Southnearly all regions except along the 727 western and eastern coastlines and inland areas of those regions. Increases of DM8O 728 between 14 to 3712 ppb in the NorthwestSouth, Southwest and Central and 729 MidwesNortheast regions are shown along with a local reductions increase of 1 to 634 730 ppb in parts of the South, Midwest and Centralwest and Northwest Midwest regions 731 (Figure 1231g). The increase in DM8O is mostly due to an increase in global emissions 732 of ozone precursors from the semi-hemispheric domain, which contributes to an increase 733 of 2-6 ppb under current climate conditions (Figure 1231f). The other contributing factors 734 to increasing DM8O are a combination of changed meteorological changesy (Figure

1231b) and higher BVOC emissions (with current and future land use; Figure 1231c,_d).
Reductions in DM8O in the urban areas resulted generally from reductions in ozone
precursors from regional anthropogenic sources (Figure 1231e). However, in the western
regions, lower DM8O are the result of a combination of favorable meteorological
conditions (e.g. reduction in temperature and solar radiation reaching the ground) and
reductions in regional ozone precursors.

741 **3.4 Effects of Global Changes upon PM2.5 Concentrations**

Results for how the various global changes affect PM_{2.5} concentrations and composition are summarized in Tables <u>34-56</u> and Figure 1<u>34</u>. Overall, <u>projected increase</u> in US anthropogenic emissions have the largest impact on PM_{2.5}, <u>with leading to an</u> increase in concentrations in all regions.—_Changes in global emissions do not have a significant impact on PM_{2.5} concentrations, while changes in the climate and biogenic emissions can lead to both increases and decreases in PM_{2.5} depending on the region.

3.4.1 Contribution to PM_{2.5} Concentrations from Changes in Global and Regional Anthropogenic Emissions

750 The results from this study are similar to those reported by Similar results are 751 shown in Avise et al. (2009), who predicted a change in PM2.5 of less than 1 µg m⁻³ as a 752 result of changes in future chemical boundary conditions. In our simulation, the highest 753 increase in PM_{2.5} concentrations is found in the South region (< 1%). This increase in the 754 South region is indicative of the effects of increased emissions from Mexico (Figure 13f). 755 Due to the relatively short atmospheric lifetime of PM, the effects from long-range 756 transport and increasing global emissions on US PM_{2.5} concentrations are relatively small 757 in comparison. to the current decade PM_{2.5} concentrationsPM_{2.5} concentrations increase

758 by 8-10% in the South, Southwest, Central, and Northwest regions, with a south to north 759 gradient indicative of the effects of increased emissions from Mexico (Figure 12f). Similar results are shown in Avise et al. (2009), who predicted a change of less than 1 µg m⁻³ as 760 761 a result of changes in future chemical boundary conditions. However, wWhen the 762 chemical composition is analyzed, Table 3simulations shows an increase in aerosol 763 nitrate (NO₃-) in nearly all regions except for the South (Table 33); these increases are less than 0.1 μg m⁻³, as a result of increased global NH₃ emissions. In contrast, similar to 764 the results of Avise et al. (2009) predicted no change in NO3⁻ for the same regions. 765 766 Furthermore, In our simulation, increases between 3% and 8% in SO₄² and NH₄⁺ in the 767 Southwest, Central and South regions are mostly a result of increase in emissions of SO₂ 768 and NH₃ from Mexico_{τ}. Similarly, Avise et al. (2009) showed higher future concentrations 769 (by 7% to 25%) of SO₄²⁻ for the same regions resulting from higher global SO₂ emissions. 770 In our simulations, cChanges in global anthropogenic emissions cause reductions in SOA 771 in the Southwest, Central, South, regions and an increases in the Northwest, Midwest, 772 Southeast and Northeast Regions (Table 44);- However, the simulated changes in SOA 773 are very small– (< 1.3% and < 0.05 μ g m⁻³) and the variation is probably may be due to 774 small differences in modeled OH radical concentrations.

In the US, reductions in regional SO₂ and NO_x emissions from regulatory curtailment<u>on electricity generation</u> are offset by the projected increase and further speciation of primaryin emissions of PM_{2.5} and NH₃ from other sources, thus, resulting in an overall increase in PM_{2.5} concentrations between 1 and 4 μ g m⁻³ across the nation<u>CONUS</u>. Similarly, Avise et al. (2009) predicted an average increase of 3 μ g m⁻³ 780 across the domain but as a result of increasing NO_X and SO₂ from anthropogenic sources. 781 The greatest increase, between 2 to 4 μ g m⁻³, is found in the urban areas across the 782 Northwest, Northeast, Midwest and Southeast region (Figure 132e) as a result of increase 783 in primary emissions of PM_{2.5}. Similarly, Trail et al., (2015) find an increase in PM_{2.5} concentrations between 1 and 2 µg m⁻³ as a result of an scenario that consider changes 784 785 in fuel use. In contrast, Tagaris et al. $(2007)_{\overline{1}}$ predicted a decrease of 23% as a result of 786 decreasing emissions. Increase in SOA concentrations-is also-resulted from higher 787 emissions of NMVOC and an increase in primary organic aerosol from anthropogenic 788 sources in the US_{-} (Table 4).

789 In terms of the inorganic PM2.5 components, reductions in SO2 and NOx emissions 790 in the US are offset by higher emissions of primary SO₄²-sulfate and nitrate and ammonia 791 NO₃-and NH₃, leading to an increase in both sulfate and ammoniumaerosol in the form 792 of ammonium sulfate and ammonium bisulfate. When cCompared to Tagaris et al. (2007), 793 our investigation shows no reduction in SO42-sulfate concentrations as a result of smaller 794 reduction in SO₂ emissions from anthropogenic sources. Furthermore, similar to 795 Shimadera et al., (2013) the increase in NO₃-nitrate concentrations in the form of 796 ammonium nitrate is highly dependent on the increase in NH₃ emissions and insensitive 797 less sensitive to changes in emissions of NOx.

798 **3.4.2 Contribution to PM2.5 concentrations from global climate change alone**

Despite the effect of precipitation on PM loading, as it washes out the precursors and the existing PM from the atmosphere (Seinfeld and Pandis, 2006), the effect of climate change alone (with no change to biogenic emissions) on total PM_{2.5}

802 concentrations over land is a change of less than 1 μ g m⁻³ -(Figure 123b). However, the 803 change in PM_{2.5} composition due to climate change is highly variable and depends on 804 changes in temperature, relative humidity and precipitation. Increases in reaction rate 805 constants of SO₂ and higher oxidant concentrations from increased temperature and solar 806 insolation lead to an increase in aerosol sulfate formed and thus are correlated with 807 changes in SO₄² concentrations (Dawson et al., 2007). Relative humidity and 808 temperature affect the thermodynamic equilibrium of SO₄²⁻-NH₄⁺-NO₃⁻, especially the 809 partitioning of HNO₃ between the gas and particulate phases.

810 For all regions, sulfate concentrations are predicted to increase by 3-10%. Except 811 for the Northwest regions, this change in concentrations is consistent with decreased 812 precipitation, which reduces wet deposition, and; increases in temperature and solar 813 insolation, which increase radical production rates and increases the oxidation of SO_2 to 814 produce aerosol sulfate. The same increase in temperature leads to nitrate being more 815 volatile and thus decreases aerosol nitrate concentrations in regions where sulfate 816 concentrations are predicted to increase. For the same regions where SO4²-sulfate is 817 projected to increase, higher concentrations of radicals also lead to higher oxidation of 818 VOC, thus increasing SOA concentrations in the same regions.

819 While increasing precipitation is generally associated with decreasing $PM_{2.5}$, 820 results here for the Northwest region showed an increase in $PM_{2.5}$ despite an increase in 821 precipitation (Figure 1<u>3</u>2b). This suggests the effects of slightly colder temperature and 822 higher relative humidity in this region, leading to an enhanced formation of 823 (NH₄)NO₃ammonium nitrate (Table 3). Furthermore, the increase in relative humidity in

the Northwest and the coastal areas of the Southwest regions leads to the increase in production of sulfate aerosol via aqueous reaction (Luo et al., 2011). Higher concentrations of <u>ammonium nitrate(NH4)NO3_and</u>, in addition to higher concentrations of SOA (Table <u>44) indicate increased aerosol formation</u>, appear to dominate over the effect of precipitation.

829 3.4.3 Contribution to PM_{2.5} concentrations from changes in biogenic emissions 830 and future land use

831 Simulations that consider projected climate change as well as the associated 832 change in biogenic emissions (Simulation 2) show an increase in PM_{2.5} between 0.5 and 833 $3 \mu g m^{-3}$.; These these changes are mainly reflected in areas with high biogenic sources 834 (Figure 132c). When the effects of future land use are considered (Simulation 3), an 835 increase in the geographical extent of PM_{2.5} is observed in comparison to the climate and 836 biogenic emissions case, and higher increases (up to 6 µg m⁻³) of PM_{2.5} are predicted in 837 parts of the South, SouthwestSoutheast, Midwest and Northeast regions (Figure 123d). 838 This is primarily due to the increase in emissions of sesquiterpenes (not shown) and 839 monoterpenes (Figure 110b), leading to more SOA being formed.

In terms of the inorganic components of PM_{2.5}, the effect of climate change is still the predominant factor for the change in SO_4^2 -sulfate concentrations for the Central, South, Midwest and Southeast regions (Table 3). The lessen smaller increase or absolute reduction in SO_4^2 -sulfate in comparison to the climate-only case is due to the competition between BVOC and SO₂ for the availability of OH, which is an oxidant for both. Additionally, a lessensmaller decrease in NO₃⁻ in most of the domain and increase in the Northwest is predicted due to changes in the availability of OH as a result of the changes

in emissions of BVOC and soil NO. The increase in availability of OH and increase in soil
 NO emissions lead to higher formation of <u>aAmmonium nNitrate in Ssimulations 2 and 3</u>
 than in Ssimulation 1.

SOA concentrations are predicted to increase as a result of higher emissions of BVOC across the domain (Table 4). Furthermore, when climate change and biogenic emissions are combined with future land use, concentrations of SOA are predicted to increase up to 121% in the Central region and up to 188% in the Southeast due to increased biogenic monoterpene and sesquiterpene emissions (not shown).

3.4.4 Changes in Precursors and PM_{2.5} Concentrations from the Combined Global 856 Changes

857 Table 5 shows the summary of changes to PM_{2.5} as a result for all Simulations of 858 the individual and combined global changes presented above. The differences in PM_{2.5} 859 between the future decade and current decade base case are greater in the eastern half 860 of the US compared to the western half. In the eastern half of the US, the largest increases in PM_{2.5} occur in the Southeast. Our results show that the 2 to 10 µg m⁻³ increase in PM_{2.5} 861 862 in the Southeast region is dominated by higher concentrations of SOA due to increased 863 biogenic emissions as a result of climate change (Figure 123c), changes in land use 864 (Figure 132d; Table 4) and increase in anthropogenic emissions (Figure 132e). Table 5 865 indicates that the combination of climate change, biogenic emissions and land use, and 866 increase in anthropogenic emissions increases the concentrations of PM2.5 between 27 867 and 78 % depending on the region.

868 4. Conclusions

869 We have investigated the individual and combined contributions of factors that 870 impact US air quality by dynamically downscaling future climate projections using the 871 WRF model and using the regional chemical transport model CMAQ version 4.7.1. 872 Decreases in future US anthropogenic ozone precursor emissions are the only 873 consistently positive beneficial influence that improves the ozone concentrationsair 874 quality in the US and updated assumptions to generate scenarios of future US 875 anthropogenic emissions may improve such influenceshow even more positive influence. 876 However that positive influence is offset by 1) changes in long range transport and 877 increasing global emissions and changes in long range transport, which have a negative 878 impact on air quality across the domain; 2) climate changes (namely, increased 879 temperatures and solar radiation), which increase ozone concentrations in the Central, 880 South, Midwest, Northeast and Southeast regions of the domain; and 3) increases in US 881 BVOC emissions, which also increase ozone concentrations in regions with high biogenic 882 emissions such as the South, Midwest, Northeast and Southeast.

In the case of the overall concentrations of PM_{2.5}, our results indicate that the effects of increasing biogenic emissions in addition to increase primary PM from anthropogenic sources have an overall negative impact on air quality by increasing PM_{2.5} concentrations between 27 to 78%. In terms of the PM_{2.5} composition, we show a regionally dependent mixture of inorganic aerosols and SOA. For the case of the Southeast, our findings indicate that increases in BVOC may result in higher concentrations of PM_{2.5}. This effect extends to the Midwest and Northeast regions due to

890 changes in land use. Furthermore, meteorological changes or regulatory curtailment, as 891 incorporated in these simulations do not offset the increasing concentrations of primary 892 PM and BVOC. In addition, synergistic effects of changes in meteorological parameters 893 and changes in emission may shift the composition of the inorganic fraction of PM_{2.5} in 894 the western US. The synergistic effects of increase of SO4-sulfate and SOA in the urban 895 areas of the coastal regions of the Northwest and Southwest leads to an increase in PM_{2.5} 896 in those regions, off-setting decreases due to increased precipitation and temperature, 897 and reduced primary anthropogenic emissions of SO₂ and NO_x.

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that the efforts to improve air quality through low emission technologies and public policy <u>directed to the electricity generation</u> <u>sector</u> may not have a major effect if future emissions of primary PMfrom other sectors are are allowed to increase. In addition, higher global anthropogenic emissions, a warmer future world and the effects of these changes on emissions from biogenic sources may increasingly undermine all regulatory efforts. Consequently, additional measures may be necessary to improve air quality in the US.

905 Much of the modeling components used for this research carry different levels of 906 complexity and have reached diverse stages of development, thus, subsequent research 907 intended to assess the effect of climate change and future regional emissions upon air 908 quality would benefit from newer versions of the emission inventories (e.g. 2011); updated 909 assumptions on the US emission projections (e.g. New versions of MARKAL with the use 910 of the ESP 2.0 methodology); newer versions of MEGAN that take into account the 911 isoprene emission suppression due to CO₂ concentrations<u>and more realistic estimates</u>

912 <u>of land use change</u>; and the inclusion of emissions from wildfires and the consequent
913 effect upon air quality.

914

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Table 1. List of simulations to assess the effect of global climate changes upon air quality in the United States

	Climate	Biogenic	Emissions	Anthropogenic Emissions		
		Climate Land Use		US	Global	
0	Current	Current	Current	Current	Current	
1	Future	Current	Current	Current	Current	
2	Future	Future	Current	Current	Current	
3	Future	Future	Future	Current	Current	
4	Current	Current	Current	Future	Current	
5	Current	Current	Current	Current	Future	
6	Future	Future	Future	Future	Future	

Table <u>2</u>. Percent change in DM8O between each future scenario and the current decade base case.

			BVOC					
Decion			Future	US	Boundary			
Region	Climate	BVOC	Land Use	emissions	Conditions	Combined		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)		
	DM8O							
Northwest	0.4	-1.0	-0.8	-0.6	8.1	4.5		
Southwest	2.0	0.4	0.0	-3.5	9.1	4.2		
Central	5.6	4.5	4.9	-0.1	8.9	12.3		
South	6.2	4.3	6.1	-0.9	9.6	13.0		
Midwest	7.6	7.2	8.5	0.0	2.6	10.0		
Northeast	8.2	6.6	7.6	-2.3	1.4	5.3		
Southeast	8.6	6.1	7.7	-3.0	3.3	6.1		

Table <u>334</u>. Percent change in the aerosol NH₄⁺, SO₄²⁻ and NO₃⁻ between each future scenario and the current decade base case. <u>The corresponding simulation number for</u> <u>each sensitivity simulation is shown isn parenthesis</u>

Region	Climate (1)	Climate & BVOC (2)	Climate, BVOC, Land Use (3) <i>NH</i> ₄⁺	US Anthropogenic Emissions (4)	Boundary Conditions (5)	Combined (6)			
Northwest 15.7 -0.6 -0.9 12.8 -0.2 12.2									
Southwest	3.4	-8.8	-7.9	4.2	8.2	4.8			
Central	12.5	2.1	2.7	6.9	3.3	14.8			
South	9.1	4.3	5.8	7.5	4.8	22.9			
Midwest	5.1	0.6	3.3	12.2	0.4	18.1			
Northeast	1.8	-5.0	-4.2	17.5	-0.3	12.7			
Southeast	10.0	5.0	4.8	12.4	0.5	21.3			
	L		SO4 ²⁻	L					
Northwest	10.0	-5.4	-5.3	6.3	0.9	1.6			
Southwest	5.4	-4.6	-4.0	0.7	6.2	2.8			
Central	10.9	1.5	2.0	3.4	3.2	10.1			
South	7.3	3.7	4.7	1.5	4.8	14.5			
Midwest	7.2	1.8	4.1	2.7	0.4	10.9			
Northeast	3.5	-4.0	-3.2	3.2	-0.2	2.3			
Southeast	8.8	3.5	2.9	1.9	0.8	9.3			
NO3									
Northwest	-0.3	2.3	0.9	20.3	6.4	27.4			
Southwest	-10.1	-8.0	-7.3	11.8	8.2	12.7			
Central	-34.4	-17.1	-12.0	87.6	2.6	68.4			
South	-7.0	-18.7	-11.5	38.5	-2.0	17.0			
Midwest	-38.4	-31.1	-23.6	96.6	2.6	56.4			
Northeast	-43.9	-43.2	-42.1	74.0	2.0	4.8			
Southeast	-29.4	-28.7	-28.7	54.6	7.5	19.6			

Table 4 <u>45</u> Percent change of <u>secondary organic aerosolSOA</u> and primary organic carbon between each future scenario and the current decade base case. <u>The</u> <u>corresponding simulation number for each sensitivity simulation is shown isn</u> <u>parenthesis</u>

Region	Climate (1)	Climate & BVOC (2)	Climate BVOC & Land Use (3)	US Anthropogenic Emissions (4)	Boundary Conditions (5)	Combined (6)			
	ŚOA								
Northwest	11.6	17.5	40.7	17.4	1.3	61.1			
Southwest	2.2	20.3	31.9	10.2	-0.2	41.0			
Central	16.2	43.9	118.6	7.1	-0.2	126.4			
South	4.7	57.0	113.2	7.4	-0.4	121.3			
Midwest	16.0	48.6	121.2	7.9	0.1	131.0			
Northeast	17.9	59.5	108.8	9.8	0.2	119.1			
Southeast	14.2	73.2	135.1	8.1	0.3	143.5			

Table 5 Percent change of $PM_{2.5}$ between each future scenario and the current decade base case. The corresponding simulation number is shown is parenthesis

Region	Climate	BVOC	BVOC Future Land Use	US emissions	Boundary Conditions	Combined		
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)		
	PM2.5							
Northwest	7.0	2.1	7.3	43.2	-0.8	51.7		
Southwest	3.3	3.3	7.1	20.7	0.7	27.8		
Central	10.5	12.6	31.0	14.5	0.0	46.5		
South	5.4	21.3	40.5	17.6	1.0	60.8		
Midwest	7.8	15.2	37.6	22.4	0.1	61.2		
Northeast	7.8	16.0	30.4	28.5	0.0	58.3		
Southeast	10.6	29.8	52.4	24.3	0.4	78.5		



Figure 1. Projected future DM8O concentrations with future anthropogenic and biogenic emissions used to show the for the 220-km and 36-km CMAQ modeling domains-at 36 and 220 km resolutions. The 36 km modeling domain was nested inside the 220 km domain.



Figure 2. Schematic of the modeling framework.



Figure 3. Summary of regional changes in global anthropogenic and biogenic emissions.



Figure <u>4</u>3. Summary of regional changes in US anthropogenic and biogenic emissions from future decade land use.



Figure 4<u>5</u>. Comparison of modeled and observed seasonal-mean meteorological variables by region: maximum daily temperatures (top); and precipitation rates (bottom).–_Each box-and-whisker indicates median, 25% and 75% quartiles, maximums and minimums of the values across all sites within each region._-



Figure <u>56</u>. 2nd, 25th, 50th, 75th, 98th percentiles of observed (black) vs modeled (red) values of DM8O for each region. The number of monitoring stations per region is shown in parenthesis.



Figure 7. 2nd, 25th, 50th, 75th, 98th percentiles of observed vs modeled values of 24-hr average PM_{2.5} for each region.



Figure 78. (Top Panel) Mean regional temperature for the five chosen summers (red) and ten summers (blue) of the current (C) and future (F) decades. (Bottom Panel) Total regional precipitation per day for the five chosen summers (red) and ten summers (blue) of the current (C) and future (F) decades. Each box-and-whisker indicates median, 5%, 25%, 75% and 95% quartiles within each region.



Figure 8-9 Projected changes in summertime meteorological fields (future decade - current decade): a) changes in 2-m temperature (°C); b) percent change in solar radiation reaching the ground; c) percent change in precipitation; d) change in relative humidity.



Figure 910. a) Current decade summertime isoprene emissions, and b) percent change induced by climate on future summertime isoprene emissions with current decade land use.



Figure <u>1401</u>. Percent change between future and current decade summertime emissions for future climate and land use for a) isoprene and b) monoterpene.



Figure <u>-1211</u>. a) Current decade base case daily maximum 8-hour ozone average concentrations for five summers in the 2000s; spatial distribution; and regional effect on maximum 8-hour ozone due to: b) changes in meteorology (Simulation 1 <u>- Simulation 0</u>); c) changes in meteorology and biogenic emissions (Simulation 2 <u>- Simulation 0</u>); d) changes in meteorology, biogenic emissions, and land use (Simulation 3 <u>- Simulation 0</u>); e) changes in US anthropogenic emissions (Simulation 4 <u>- Simulation 0</u>); f) changes in global anthropogenic emissions (Simulation 5 <u>- Simulation 0</u>); and g) all the changes above combined (Simulation 6 <u>- Simulation 0</u>).



Figure <u>1423</u>. a) Current decade base case PM_{2.5} average concentrations for five summers in the 2000s; and spatial distribution and regional effect on PM_{2.5} due to: b) changes in meteorology (Simulation 1 – Simulation 0); c) changes in meteorology and biogenic emissions (Simulation 2 – Simulation 0); d) changes in meteorology, biogenic emissions, and land use (Simulation 3 – Simulation 0); e) changes in US anthropogenic emissions (Simulation 4 – Simulation 0); f) changes in global anthropogenic emissions (Simulation 5 – Simulation 0); and g) all the changes above combined (Simulation 6 – Simulation 0).



Figure 14.– Differences in (a) RNO₃ and (b) NO_x concentrations between Simulation 2 and Simulation 1.