Assessment of long-term WRF-CMAQ simulations for understanding direct aerosol effects on radiation "brightening" in the United States.

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16 Abstract

Long-term simulations with the coupled WRF-CMAQ model have been conducted to 17 systematically investigate the changes in anthropogenic emissions of SO₂ and NO_x over the past 18 16 years (1995-2010) across the United States (US), their impacts on anthropogenic aerosol loading 19 over North America, and subsequent impacts on regional radiation budgets. In particular, this study 20 attempts to determine the consequences of the changes in tropospheric aerosol burden arising from 21 substantial reductions in emissions of SO₂ and NO_x associated with control measures under the 22 Clean Air Act (CAA) especially on trends in solar radiation. Extensive analyses conducted by Gan 23 et al. (2014a) utilizing observations (e.g. SURFRAD, CASTNET, IMPROVE and ARM) over the 24 past 16 years (1995-2010) indicate a shortwave (SW) radiation (both all-sky and clear-sky) 25 "brightening" in the US. The relationship of the radiation brightening trend with decreases in the 26 aerosol burden is less apparent in the western US. One of the main reasons for this is that the 27

emission controls under the CAA were aimed primarily at reducing pollutants in areas violating 28 national air quality standards, most of which were located in the eastern US while the relatively 29 less populated areas in the western US were less polluted at the beginning of this study period. 30 Comparisons of model results with observations of aerosol optical depth (AOD), aerosol 31 concentration, and radiation demonstrate that the coupled WRF-CMAQ model is capable of 32 replicating the trends well even through it tends to underestimate the AOD. In particular, the sulfate 33 concentration predictions were well matched with the observations. The discrengancies found in 34 the clear-sky diffuse SW radiation are likely due to several factors such as potential increase of ice 35 particles associated with increasing air traffic, the definition of "clear-sky" in the radiation retrieval 36 methodology and aerosol semi-direct and/or indirect effects which cannot be readily isolated from 37 the observed data. 38

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40 **1** Introduction

Sulfate and nitrate are important secondary aerosols as they are key contributors to the airborne 41 PM_{2.5} (particulate matter that is 2.5 micrometers in diameter and smaller) mass in the United States 42 (US) (Hand et al., 2012; Hand et al., 2013 and Blanchard, 2013). Because of its adverse impact on 43 human health and ecosystems, surface-level PM2.5 is extensively monitored to determine 44 compliance with the particulate matter National Ambient Air Quality Standards (NAAQS). 45 Moreover, knowledge of the alteration in the net radiative flux associated with the change of 46 anthropogenic aerosol concentrations is essential to better understand aerosol radiative forcing and 47 its effect on Earth's radiation budget (Chin et al., 2014; IPCC 2014a and 2014b). For example, 48 radiation brightening is the gradual increase in the amount of shortwave irradiance at the Earth's 49 surface which has been affected by changes in atmospheric constituents such as anthropogenic 50 51 aerosol and cloudiness. In a recent study, Gan et al. [2014a] showed the effects of the implementation of controls under the Clean Air Act (CAA) on changing anthropogenic aerosols 52 burden and associated radiation brightening in the US. This extensive analysis of various 53 observation networks over the past 16 years (1995-2010) indicated that both all-sky and clear-sky 54 55 shortwave (SW) radiation have experienced "brightening" in the US especially in the east region (Wild et al., 2009; Long et al, 2009; Augustine and Dutton, 2013). It however remains challenging 56 57 to quantify the aerosol SW radiative forcing solely based on measurements since the distribution, life time and sources of anthropogenic aerosol are heterogeneous in space and time. Here we extend our previous analysis (Gan et al., 2014a) by using the two-way coupled Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) – Community Multi-scale Air Quality (CMAQ) model (Wong et al., 2012) to further investigate the changing aerosol effects on radiation "brightening". This study is also an assessment of the ability of the coupled model to replicate the observed trends of SW radiation, particulate matter and aerosol optical depth utilizing a comprehensive emission dataset (Xing et al., 2013).

Section 2 gives a brief overview of each observation network together with their measurements. 65 The configurations of the coupled model together with methodologies that are applied to each 66 dataset are also briefly discussed in this section. The results from the analyses of these datasets are 67 presented in Section 3. In this section, the effects of the reduction in SO_2 and NO_x emissions on the 68 radiation budget are assessed by using observed and modeled AOD and surface-level particulate 69 matter. In addition, observed and modeled all-sky and clear-sky downwelling SW radiation are 70 compared to further investigate trends in the aerosol direct effect. In Section 4 we summarize the 71 72 findings and conclusions from our analyses.

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74 2 Dataset

75 2.1 Observations

The comprehensive observational data analysis presented in a previous study by Gan et al. [2014a] 76 77 is used in this study. This section provides a brief overview of the observations. The reader is referred to Gan et al. [2014a] for additional details of the observational data analysis. Data from 78 several observational networks including SURFRAD (Surface Radiation Budget Network), 79 Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM), CASTNET (Clean Air Status and Trend Network) 80 81 and IMPROVE (Interagency Monitoring of Protection Visual Environments) from 1995 to 2010 are used in this study for comparison with model results across the US. The six sites from 82 SURFRAD and one site from ARM, listed in Table 1 and shown in Figure 1, are the main focus in 83 this study. They are paired with the closest sites from CASTNET and IMPROVE with the longest 84 available measurements within the simulation period. Note that some sites are farther away from 85

the SURFRAD sites while some are closer (see "Distance" in Table 1 for more information). For 86 example, the Bondville group has all 3 sites (SURFRAD, CASTNET and IMPROVE) co-located 87 while the Goodwin Creek group has the IMPROVE site ~500 km away from the SUFRAD site. 88 Measurements of interests are SW radiation, aerosol composition concentrations near the surface 89 and aerosol optical depth (AOD). In this study, we required data completeness of 80% or greater 90 for each individual year to minimize any artificial effects on inferred seasonal variations and trends. 91 92 This criterion was met for each year at all sites for the time periods listed in Table 1. For example, observed AOD is only available after 1997 so the trends comparison spans 1997 - 2010 instead of 93 1995 - 2010. Additional details on the quality of the data and the methodology used to process each 94 dataset can be found in Gan et al. [2014a]. 95

96 2.2 Weather Research and Forecasting (WRF) – Community Multi-scale Air Quality 97 (CMAQ) Model

The coupled two-way WRF-CMAQ (Wong et al. 2012) model simulations were performed with a 98 99 configuration based on coupling WRFv3.4 and CMAQv5.0.2. For this study, the output temporal resolution is one hour while the modeling domain covering the Continental US (CONUS) (see 100 Figure 1) is discretized with grid cells of size 36 km by 36 km in the horizontal and with 35 vertical 101 layers of varying thickness (between the surface and 50 mb). Two sets of simulations (with aerosol 102 feedback (FB) and without aerosol feedbacks (NFB)) are performed from 1990 to 2010 but only 103 results from 1995 to 2010 are analyzed in this study due to the lack of observations for earlier time 104 periods. Note that the aerosol feedback simulation involved only the direct aerosol effects on 105 radiation and photolysis. In the coupled modeling system, CMAQ computes the concentration, 106 composition, and size distribution of particulate matter (aerosol) in the atmosphere. The presence 107 of aerosols in the atmosphere affects the radiation which in turn affects the photolysis rates which 108 dictate atmospheric photo-chemistry, surface temperature that can affect thermally driven 109 atmospheric chemical reactions, planetary boundary layer height which dictates dilution and 110 dispersion of pollutants, and even cloud formation. The response of the meteorological / WRF 111 112 model to aerosol loading can be significant under conditions of significant pollution loading (Wang et al. 2014). In these feedback simulations, aerosol effects are treated dynamically where the 113 114 CMAO chemistry and radiation feedback modules are called every 5 and 20 WRF time steps,

respectively. While the time step of WRF is 60 seconds, the meteorology fields are updated from 115 the feedback module every 20 minutes. The AOD calculation in the model is based on Mie and 116 117 core-shell scattering (Gan et al., 2014b) while the radiation calculation is based on Rapid Radiative Transfer Model (RRTM). Four Dimensional Data Assimilation (FDDA) based on National Centers 118 for Environmental Prediction (NCEP) Automated Data Processing (ADP) Operation Global 119 Surface Observation (http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds464.0/ last access June 10, 2015) and NCEP 120 121 ADP Global upper Air observational Weather Data (http://rda.ucar.edu/datasets/ds351.0/#!description, last access June 10, 2015) is applied above the 122 PBL using nudging coefficients of wind (guv), temperature (gt) and moisture (gq) (i.e. 123 $guv=0.00005 s^{-1}$, $gt=0.00005 s^{-1}$ and $gq=0.00001 s^{-1}$) (Stauffer and Seaman, 1994; Pleim and Xiu, 124 2003; Pleim and Gilliam, 2009). These nudging coefficients are lower than the typical values used 125 in standard WRF-CMAQ simulations in order to minimize the masking of the aerosol direct 126 feedback effects (difference between feedback and no feedback runs). Hogrefe et al. (2015) showed 127 that these minimal nudging coefficients had very little effect on the magnitude of the aerosol direct 128 feedback effects compared to sensitivity simulations where no nudging was used but did lead to an 129 improvement in model performance for temperature. 130

The WRF-CMAQ modeling system used in this study treats all relevant aerosol species, including 131 sulfate, nitrate, ammonium, dust and organic aerosols. Likewise, the model also used a 132 comprehensive emission dataset (Xing et al., 2014) which included aerosol precursors and primary 133 particulate matter. Additional details on the aerosol speciation represented in the CMAQ model 134 135 can be found in Carlton et al (2010), Foley et al (2010) and Appel et al (2013). Furthermore, Gan et al. (2014b) discuss how the optical properties and AOD are estimated based on the predicted 136 spatially and temporally varying compositional characteristics which included the full suite of 137 inorganic and organic constituents. However, in the analysis in this paper, we mainly focus on the 138 139 change (i.e. reduction) of sulfate and nitrate which are the aerosol species most affected by emission reductions under the Clean Air Act and its amendments over the past two decades. The time varying 140 chemical lateral boundary conditions (BC) were obtained from a 108 x 108 km WRF-CMAQ 141 hemispheric simulation (Xing et al. 2014). The details of the model parameterizations are listed in 142 Table 2. 143

144 **2.3 Data Analysis Methodology**

First, the seven sites shown in Figure 1 are separated into east and west regions. The results from 145 each observation network are presented as time series of their network mean of eastern US (i.e. 146 averaging the annual mean of BON, GWN, PSU and SGP to obtain the eastern network mean) and 147 of western US (i.e. averaging the annual mean of TBL, FPK and DRA to obtain the western network 148 mean). Note that they are shown as annual mean anomalies except AOD. Specific time series trends 149 at each site for different observed variables can be found in Gan et al. (2014a). The same averaging 150 technique is applied to the model output and emission dataset. Model data is extracted from the 151 grid cell where the site is located. After that, least square fits (LSF) are applied to both eastern and 152 western network means for observations, model output and emissions to determine the trends 153 individually. 154

To ensure the estimated trends are statistically significant, a regression analysis is used to account 155 for autocorrelation and variability in both observed and modeled data. This statistical methodology 156 is constructed from Weatherhead et al. (1998); the general principle and its application can be found 157 in Gan et al. (2014a). Note that the significance of the trend can be calculated using the ratio of the 158 159 absolute trend relative to its uncertainty estimate. This ratio is assumed to be approximately normally distributed with mean zero and standard deviation 1. Thus, if this ratio is 1.96 or greater, 160 161 the trend is significant at the 95% confidence level. In the same way, if this ratio is greater than 1.65, the trend is significant at the 90% confidence level. The term "significant" in this study 162 indicates that the estimated trend is statistically significantly different from zero at the given 163 confidence level. 164

In addition to the time series and trends at specific modeling locations, our analysis also includes 165 maps of trends in annual mean values calculated from the 1995-2010 WRF-CMAQ simulations 166 over the CONUS domain overlaid with circles representing observed trends from the seven selected 167 sites for each network. The size of the circle in the Figures 4, 5, 6 and 9 represents the level of the 168 significance (e.g. the bigger the circle, the higher the significance). Analysis of the entire US for 169 the entire 16 years period (except AOD is represented by the last 14 years) provides a better overall 170 understanding of the spatial extent of the effects of the CAA implementation across US than just 171 the seven groups of sites. 172

174 3 Results

175 **3.1 Trends in aerosol concentrations**

Since this study attempts to determine the aerosol radiative effects, the following discussion 176 focusses only on the feedback simulations. First, the observed and modelled surface aerosol and 177 gas concentrations are assessed at the CASTNET and IMPROVE monitors. Their time series trends 178 are presented in Figure 2 and 3 respectively. As illustrated in Figure 2 (a-f), the locations of the 179 CASTNET monitors in the western US show small decreasing or almost no trends in observations, 180 model, and emissions for all species (i.e. sulfur dioxide (SO₂), sulfate (SO₄²⁻), nitrate (NO₃⁻)) while 181 more dramatic decreasing trends are noted at the eastern US sites. This finding is not surprising 182 183 because the implementation of the CAA reduced emissions and consequently ambient air pollutants 184 in source regions predominantly located in the eastern US (e.g. targeted at areas exceeding the NAAQS). In contrast air pollution concentrations were low at the rural western monitors from the 185 beginning resulting in the noted weaker trend (Gan et al., 2014a). Therefore, more dramatic 186 decreasing trends are observed in the eastern US. The calculated trends are summarized in Table 187 3. The results listed in this table show that the model output and emissions exhibit decreasing trends 188 which are in line with CASTNET measurements except for SO_4^{2-} in the western US where the 189 simulations show a decrease and the observations show an increase. However, note that the SO_4^{2-} 190 trends from the model and observations are both very close to zero in this region. In Figure 3 (a-f) 191 and Table 4, similar trends (i.e. decreasing or almost no trend) are observed in measurements, 192 model output, and emissions for SO_4^{2-} , NO_3^{-} and EC at the IMPROVE monitors locations. Overall, 193 the model trend predictions match (see Table 6 for entire network correlation coefficients: R >0.8 194 for each variable except diffuse radiation) with surface observation trends for both networks, 195 especially SO₄²⁻. This demonstrates that the coupled WRF-CMAQ model exhibits skill in 196 replicating the long-term trends of anthropogenic aerosol loadings, thereby providing confidence 197 198 for examining trends in aerosol direct effects.

To assess the effects of reductions in anthropogenic emissions resulting from the implementation of the CAA during 1995-2010, the modelled trends in annual means across the entire CONUS domain for all species are presented in Figure 4 (a-f) along with observed trends at the seven sites (color coded circles) from the CASTNET and IMPROVE networks. In general, at the location of
the observations (circles), the modeled and observed trends are similar in direction and magnitude
(i.e. similar color code). As shown in Figure 4 (a-f), more substantial reductions are noted in the
eastern US, in particular for sulfate. Again this result validates previous findings and indicates that
there is a possibility of aerosol direct effect induced "brightening" in the US over the past 16 years
(Gan et al. 2014a).

Before examining the total AOD, the PM_{2.5} concentrations from IMPROVE are evaluated to gain 208 some insight into the change in the total particulate matter burden resulting from air pollution 209 controls. In Figure 5 (a-b), time series of annual mean PM_{2.5} from observations (blue line) and 210 model simulations (red line) are presented together with (c) a map of the modeled and observed 211 trends across the entire CONUS domain. The modeled trends are consistent with observations (see 212 Table 4 and 6). A small or almost no trend is seen in the western US while a dramatic decreasing 213 trend is evident in the eastern US and illustrates the effectiveness of air pollution controls strategies 214 in improving the air quality over large portions of the US. 215

3.2 Trends in aerosol optical depth (AOD) and SW radiation

As a result of the reduction in the tropospheric particulate matter burden, the AOD was reduced in 217 the eastern US over the 14 year period (1997 - 2010) as illustrated in Figure 6 (a-c). However, the 218 AOD in the western US shows very little change over this period. Even though the model predicted 219 AOD is underestimated relative to the observations (see Figure 6 a-b and Table 5), the model is 220 still able to capture trends similar to observations, especially in eastern US (obs west: 0.0009 year 221 ¹, sim_west: 0.0001 year⁻¹ and obs_east: -0.0012 year⁻¹, sim_east: -0.0017 year⁻¹). As stated in Gan 222 et al. (2014b), several possible reasons for this model AOD underestimation are the 223 224 underestimation of specific aerosol constituents such as organic carbon, low sea-salt concentration in the accumulation mode and uncertainties in characterizing the water soluble potion of the organic 225 carbon leading to poor representation of refractive indices of organic aerosol. Furthermore, the 226 hygroscopic effects of water soluble organic carbon and external mixing are not considered in the 227 current version of the WRF-CMAQ model. The omitted effects and incomplete representation of 228 mixing state can play an important role in the apportionment of extinction. (Gan et al. 2014b, Curci 229 et al., 2014). Another WRF-CMAQ evaluation study by Hogrefe et al. (2015) found that the 230

underestimation of AOD occurs throughout all seasons despite the fact that the analysis of 24-hr 231 average surface PM_{2.5} predictions (see Table 1 in Hogrefe et al. 2015) indicate overestimations of 232 PM_{2.5} during winter but largely unbiased PM_{2.5} prediction during summer. Note that the PM_{2.5} 233 concentration in this study represent the ground-level measurement while the AOD is an integration 234 of aerosol extinction over a vertical column. Model predicted aerosol extinction in any one layer 235 depends on aerosol concentrations and properties together with relative humidity, therefore 236 differences in the vertical distribution of modeled aerosol concentrations and relative humidity 237 would result in different calculated AOD even if PM2.5 column mass was consistent with 238 observations. 239

As discussed by Gan et al. (2014a), the "brightening" effects are evident in the observed all-sky 240 and clear-sky total SW radiation trends and this finding was confirmed for all-sky by the model 241 results as illustrated in Figure 7 (a-b) and less so for the clear-sky shown in Figure 8 (a-b). Stronger 242 and better agreement is noted in the all-sky SW radiation trend (see Figure 9 (a) and Table 5 and 243 6) while there is a weaker model trend and less agreement in the clear-sky SW radiation (see Figure 244 9 (b) and Table 5 and 6). As shown in Table 5, the "brightening" occurs in the all-sky SW radiation 245 while the cloudiness of both model and observations exhibit decreasing trends indicating the 246 247 possibility that semi-indirect and/or indirect effects of decreasing aerosols may be a contributing factor. Aerosols can interact with clouds and precipitation in many ways, acting either as cloud 248 condensation nuclei or ice nuclei, or as absorbing particles, redistributing solar energy as thermal 249 energy inside cloud layers. In other words, a decreasing troposphere burden of aerosols can cause 250 251 a decrease of averaged cloud cover, and then this effect leads to more solar radiation reaching the surface. However, trends in cloud cover can be influenced by many other factors which are very 252 difficult to quantify based solely on available observational information. A better representation of 253 clouds is needed for the model. We also note that trends in both all-sky with (FB) and without 254 (NFB) aerosol direct feedback for model prediction are very similar, but that the simulation with 255 aerosol direct effect predicts a trend modestly closer to the observed trend in the eastern US 256 (obs east: 0.6296 W/m²year, simFB east: 0.4678 W/m²year and simNFB east: 0.4148 W/m²year) 257 while the aerosol direct effect is less apparent in the western US (obs_west: 0.5131 W/m²year, 258 simFB_west: 0.2389 W/m²year, simNFB_west: 0.2877 W/m²year). Aerosol indirect effects have 259 recently been included in the WRF-CMAQ model (Yu et al., 2015) and implementing the aerosol 260

indirect effect may help to improve the simulation of all-sky SW total, direct and diffuse trends and
this will be investigated in future analysis.

In order to better examine the aerosol direct effect, the following discussion focuses on clear-sky 263 SW radiation. The trend of the clear-sky SW radiation from the model is underestimated compared 264 to the observations and the opposite in trend for the direct and diffuse components especially for 265 the east. One of the potential causes of this underestimate maybe related to the underestimation of 266 particulate matter concentration and AOD (Gan et al. 2014b, Curci et al., 2014 and Hogrefe et al., 267 2015). Another possible source of disagreement between modelled and observed trends in the clear-268 sky direct and diffuse components is not accounting for possible clear-sky "whitening" proposed 269 by Long et al (2009) and mentioned by Gan et al. (2014a) which acts to repartition the downwelling 270 SW from the direct into the diffuse field. 271

Next, the clear-sky direct and diffuse SW radiation from observation and model are examined; 272 annual mean time series and trends over the CONUS domain are plotted in Figure 8 (c-f) and Figure 273 9 (c-d) respectively. If the "brightening" effect is primarily caused by the anthropogenic aerosol 274 direct effect, then in the absence of other forcing the clear-sky direct SW radiation should show an 275 276 increasing trend while the clear-sky diffuse SW radiation would be expected to have a decreasing trend. However, in the observation, the clear-sky direct SW radiation shows no trend (i.e. very 277 small increasing) while the clear-sky diffuse SW radiation has an increasing trend. In the 278 simulation, the aerosol direct effects are clearly evident in the clear-sky direct and diffuse SW 279 radiation (i.e. the results are the opposite of those in the observations, especially in the clear-sky 280 diffuse radiation). Overall, the clear-sky SW radiation may be related at least in part with a decrease 281 282 in aerosols, particularly in the eastern US where extensive reductions in the anthropogenic emissions of SO₂ and NO_x resulted from the implementation of CAA. One of the indications that 283 the aerosol direct effect is contributing to "brightening" is shown in comparison of the feedback 284 (FB) case with the no feedback (NFB) case. Table 5 illustrates almost no trend in the no feedback 285 case in clear-sky total, direct and diffuse SW radiation. One of the indications that the aerosol direct 286 effect is contributing to the "brightening" is shown in comparison of the feedback (FB) case with 287 the no feedback (NFB) case. As illustrated by the data tabulated in Table 5, almost no trends is 288 apparent in the no feedback case for clear-sky total, direct and diffuse SW radiation. 289

Nevertheless, as can be seen in Figure 8 (b), the model trends in clear-sky total SW agree in the 290 aggregate with the eastern SURFRAD sites over the last 11 years (i.e. clear-sky SW 2000-2010 291 trends for obs east: 0.3055 W/m²year, sim east: 0.1905 W/m²year). A similar result was found in 292 the AOD 11 years (2000 - 2010) trend (obs_east: -0.0026, sim_east: -0.0019). One of the possible 293 reasons for a better agreement over the latest 11 years is because the emission dataset may be more 294 accurate for this more recent time period. For example, more detailed information (e.g. 295 measurements provided by every state, point sources and species) of emission sources and 296 improved technology (e.g. new instruments for surface measurements) are available in later years 297 for constructing the emission dataset which likely increased its accuracy. 298

Figure 8 (b) illustrates that the 1995 - 2010 eastern SURFRAD trend is strongly influenced by two 299 anomalous years (1998 and 1999). These anomalies are likely associated with the very strong El 300 Nino occurrence of 1998-1999 which had significant impact on continental US weather patterns. 301 For example, El Nino affects (i.e. increases) the US rain and snow fall, water vapor and temperature 302 in the atmosphere. As discussed in Long et al. (2009) and Gan et al. (2014a), we allow some amount 303 of condensed water in the atmospheric column under the "clear sky" classification. Dupont et al. 304 (2008) show that up to an optical depth of 0.15 of primarily elevated ice crystals are still typically 305 306 classified as clear sky. Augustine and Dutton (2013) show using SURFRAD data that there exists a moderate correlation between ENSO, surface air temperature and surface specific humidity at the 307 SURFRAD sites. Their Figure 7 shows the 1998-1999 El Nino increasing the yearly average 308 specific humidity, with Bonneville and Goodwin Creek sites exhibiting the greatest increase of 309 310 almost 1 g/kg. This increased humidity likely also increased the occurrence and/or amount condensed water in the atmospheric column at levels still classified as clear-sky, yet as shown in 311 their Figure 8 had an impact on the partitioning of the downwelling clear-sky SW, significantly 312 decreasing the downwelling direct SW while increasing the diffuse SW. In the west, the decreased 313 314 direct SW anomaly is about balanced by the increased diffuse SW, but not so for the east where the 315 decrease in the direct SW is much larger.

In contrast with the observed trends, the simulation with aerosol direct feedback effect shows a clear association between decreasing aerosol burden with increasing clear-sky SW and also better agreement with trends in observed total SW. However, the comparison of the clear-sky diffuse SW radiation in the feedback case with the observations shows that the radiative impacts of decreasing

aerosol concentrations are confounded by other factors. As suggested by previous studies (Long et 320 al, 2013, Augustine and Dutton, 2013 and Gan et al, 2014a), some potential factors contributing to 321 this discrepancy include increasing occurrences of contrail-generated ice haze that are caused by 322 increasing air traffic producing an aggregate clear-sky "whitening" effect (a process missing in the 323 current model), the traditional definition of "clear-sky" that allows for some small amount of 324 condensed water in the column (Long et al., 2009; Long et al, 2006 and Dupont et al., 2008), and 325 aerosol semi-direct and/or indirect effects (Ruckstuhl et al., 2008). For example, as a result of the 326 increasing air traffic, ice haze layers associated with aircraft emission contrails (Hofmann et al., 327 1998) can potentially increase the diffuse radiation. More support for this theory was presented by 328 Gan et al. (2014a); the pattern of US air carrier traffic (i.e. steady growth of air traffic from 1996 329 to 2007, followed by a decrease after 2008) agreed well with the pattern inferred in the observed 330 clear-sky diffuse radiation especially during the last 3 years (i.e. both of them decreased). 331 Moreover, Haywood et al. (2009) and Gerritsen (2012) illustrated that increasing contrails do 332 increase the diffuse radiation. This suggests that contrails or sub-visual cirrus clouds and ice haze 333 can play a role in the increasing trend noted in the observed clear-sky diffuse SW radiation. To 334 capture this, a realistic characterization of air traffic emission and the optical properties of the 335 contrails (e.g. crystal shapes, ice layers and altitude) in the model is needed and will be pursued as 336 part of a future study. Additionally, the water vapor concentration (Haywood et al., 2011) can 337 possibly impact the surface radiation. Thus, more investigation is needed to quantify and attribute 338 the causes of the increase of measured clear-sky diffuse SW radiation. 339

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341 **4** Summary and Conclusions

In general, the coupled WRF-CMAQ model is capable of replicating the observed trends in surface particulate matter concentration and AOD even though the magnitude of observed AOD is underestimated by the model. Possible causes of this underestimation could be under representation of some particulate matter constituent species in the model such as sea salt, organic carbon and other hygroscopic properties in the aerosol optics calculations, and uncertainties in the representation of the mixing state (Gan et al., 2014b; Curci et al., 2014).

The analysis of model and observations of clear-sky total SW trends are more consistent with each 348 other during 2000 - 2010 than those for 1995 - 2010, suggesting that the improved agreement for 349 the more recent period may be due to better emission estimates. For example, wild fire emissions 350 are provided by states after 2002 instead of national totals. As mentioned in Xing et al. (2013), for 351 earlier years, information for some sectors was not as detailed as recent data so scaling factors 352 based on activities were used to estimate some of the earlier years' emission sources. This finding 353 354 illustrates the importance of the accurate specification of the changes in emissions to capture the changes in aerosol burden and their radiative effects. Shortwave "brightening" trends are apparent 355 in both observations and model calculations for the past 16 years, though the magnitude is 356 underestimated in the model. One purpose of using the modeling is to fill in for the lack of spatial 357 coverage of the observations, which in turn can help us to better understand the overall aerosol 358 direct effects in the US. 359

Our analysis suggests an association between the SW radiation "brightening" (both all-sky and 360 clear-sky) and troposphere aerosol burden over the past 16 years especially in the eastern US where 361 large reductions in airborne particulate matter have occurred. Even though the "brightening" effect 362 is underestimated in the clear-sky SW radiation in the model, it is still able to capture the total SW 363 364 trend derived from the observations (i.e. both observation and model prediction illustrate increasing trends but smaller magnitude in the model), especially for the more recent years. As a consequence 365 of the CAA controls, a dramatic reduction in particulate matter concentrations, especially SO_4^{2-} and 366 NO_3^- , are found in the eastern US. 367

Radiation trends in the western US could be influenced by local terrain (Oliphant et al., 2003; Wen et al. 2009) influences as well as episodic long-range pollution transport which may contribute to the lack of a clear relationship between trends in aerosol burden and surface radiation at these locations. As stated by Gan et al., (2014), the long range transport of aerosol / dust plumes can cause enhancements in both surface aerosol concentrations and AOD (Gan et al., 2008; Mathur, 2008; Miller et al., 2011; Uno et al., 2011) and possibly contribute to the noted trends in both surface and aloft tropospheric aerosol burden.

Trends of observed and simulated clear-sky diffuse SW radiation show opposite signs. Potential contributors to this discrepancy include increasing ice deposition in the upper atmosphere from growing air traffic that is not considered in the model, differences in the classification of "clear-

sky" conditions between the radiation retrieval methodology and the model, differences in 378 simulated cloudiness, and aerosol semi-direct and indirect effects not represented in the current 379 model simulations. In general, the representation of the trends in clear-sky and all-sky SW radiation 380 in the simulation with aerosol direct effects relative to the observation are captured much better 381 compared to the simulation without these effects. This indicates that at least a portion of trends in 382 the recent radiation brightening, especially in the eastern US are likely influenced by decreasing 383 aerosol levels in the region, which in turn have resulted from control of emissions of anthropogenic 384 particulate matter and precursors species. 385

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387 Acknowledgements

388 This research was performed while Chuen-Meei Gan held a National Research Council Research Associateship Award at US EPA. The research presented in this study was supported through an 389 interagency agreement between the US Department of Energy (funding IA DE-SC0003782) and 390 the US Environmental Protection Agency (funding IA RW-89-9233260). It has been subject to the 391 US EPA's administrative review and approved for publication. The authors also would like thank 392 John Augustine from NOAA-SURFRAD for his support and assistance in obtaining the SURFRAD 393 data, as well as the NOAA Earth System Research Laboratory (ESRL) Global Monitoring Division 394 (GMD) for their diligent efforts in operating and maintaining the SURFRAD sites. Dr. Long 395 acknowledges the support of the Climate Change Research Division of the US Department of 396 Energy as part of the Atmospheric Radiation Measurement (ARM) and Atmospheric System 397 Research (ASR) Programs, and the support of the Cooperative Institute for Research in 398 399 Environmental Sciences (CIRES). The authors would like thank James Kelly from US EPA for his comments. 400

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553 Figure 1: Locations of various sites in SURFRAD, ARM, CASTNET and IMPROVE networks.

554 This figure is adapted from Figure 1 of Gan et al. (2014a).



Figure 2: Annual mean anomalies of $1995 - 2010 \text{ SO}_4^{2-} (1^{\text{st}} \text{ row})$, $\text{SO}_2 (2^{\text{nd}} \text{ row})$ and $\text{NO}_3^- (3^{\text{rd}} \text{ row})$ for CASTNET observations (blue line - primary y-axis), model simulations (red line - primary yaxis) and emissions (purple line - secondary y-axis). Least-square fit trend lines are also shown for each time series. Note that SO₂ emissions are paired with both SO₂ and SO₄²⁻ concentrations since most of the atmospheric SO₄²⁻ burden is due to secondary formation from SO₂ rather than primary emissions of particulate SO₄²⁻. The left column represents the western US while the right column represents the eastern US.



Figure 3: Annual mean anomalies of $1995 - 2010 \text{ NO}_3^-$ (1st row), SO₄²⁻ (2nd row) and EC (3rd row) for IMPROVE observation (blue line - primary y-axis), model simulations (red line - primary yaxis) and emissions (purple line - secondary y-axis). Least-square fit trend lines are also shown for each time series. Note that SO₂ emissions are paired with both SO₂ and SO₄ concentrations since most of the atmospheric SO₄²⁻ burden is due to secondary formation from SO₂ rather than primary emissions of particulate SO₄²⁻. The left column represents the western US while the right column represents the eastern US.



Figure 4: Map of annual trends based on 1995-2010 coupled WRF-CMAQ simulations over the CONUS domain are depicted along with circles representing observed trends for seven sites. Left column for SO_4^{2-} (1st row), NO_3^{-} (2nd row) and SO_2 (3rd row) from CASTNET network while the right column if for SO_4^{2-} (1st row), NO_3^{-} (2nd row) and EC (3rd row) from IMPROVE network. Note that the size of the circle represents the level of the significance. Larger circle means more significance.







Figure 5: Annual mean anomalies of $1995 - 2010 \text{ PM}_{2.5}$ (a) western and (b) eastern US from IMPROVE for observations (blue line) and model simulations (red line). Least-square fit trend lines are also shown for each time series. (c) Map of PM_{2.5} annual trends based on 1995-2010 coupled WRF-CMAQ simulations over the CONUS domain are depicted along with circles representing observed trends for seven sites. Note that the size of the circle represents the level of the significance. Larger circle means more significance.







Figure 6: Annual mean of 1997 – 2010 AOD (a) western and (b) eastern US from SURFRAD for
observation (blue line) and model simulations (red line). Least-square fit trend lines are also shown
for each time series... (c) Map of AOD annual trends based on 1995-2010 coupled WRF-CMAQ
simulations over the CONUS domain are depicted along with circles representing observed trends
for seven sites. Note that the size of the circle represents the level of the significance. Larger circle
means more significance.



Figure 7: Annual mean anomalies of 1995 – 2010 all-sky total SW radiation for SURFRAD
observations (blue line) and model simulations (red line). Least-square fit trend lines are also shown
for each time series. The left column represents the western US while the right column represents
the eastern US.







Figure 8: Annual mean anomalies of clear-sky total (1st row), direct (2nd row) and diffuse (3rd row)
SW radiation for SURFRAD observation (blue line) and model 16 years (red) together with their
trends respectively. The left column represents the western US while the right column represents
the eastern US.



Figure 9: Map of annual trends based on 1995-2010 coupled WRF-CMAQ simulations over the CONUS domain for (a) all-sky total SW radiation, (b) clear-sky total SW radiation, (c) clear-sky direct SW radiation and (d) clear-sky diffuse SW radiation are depicted along with circles representing SURFRAD observed trends for seven sites. Note that the size of the circle represents the level of the significance. Larger circle means more significance.

Table 1: Listing of site identification of each site for different networks and their measurement 662

period which are used in this study. Distance means the approximate distance between 663

SURFRAD/ARM sites with CASTNET or IMPROVE sites. This table is adapted from Gan et al. 664 (2014a).

SURFRAD / ARM	FRAD / ARM SW Radiation AOD CASTNET		Aerosol Concentration	IMPROVE	Aerosol Concentration	
PSU [Penn State, PA] Elevation: 0.38 km Lat : 40.72° Lon : -77.93°	1999-2010	1999- 2009	PSU106 [Penn State, PA] Distance: 0 km Elevation : 0.38 km Lat : 40.72° Lon : -77.93°	1990-2010	WASH1 [Washington DC] Distance: 210 km Elevation : 0.02 km Lat : 38.88° Lon : -77.03°	1990-2010
BON [Bondville, IL] Elevation : 0.23 km Lat : 40.05° Lon : -88.37°	1995-2010	1997- 2010	BVL130 [Bondville, IL] Distance: 0 km Elevation : 0.21 km Lat : 40.05° Lon : -88.37°	1990-2010	BONL1 [Bondville, IL] Distance: 0 km Elevation : 0.21 km Lat : 40.05° Lon : -88.37°	2001-2010
GWN [Goodwin Creek, MS] Elevation: 0.1 km Lat : 34.25° Lon : -89.87°	1995-2010	1997- 2010	CVL151 [Coffeeville, MS] Distance: 30 km Elevation : 0.1 km Lat : 34.00° Lon : -89.80°	1990-2010	MACA1 [Mammoth Cave NP, KY] Distance: 500 km Elevation : 0.25 km Lat : 37.13° Lon : -86.15°	1992-2010
SGP [South Great Plain, OK] Elevation: 0.31 km Lat : 36.80° Lon : -97.50°	1997-2010	1996- 2007	CHE185 [Cherokee, OK] Distance: 270 km Elevation : 0.3 km Lat : 35.75° Lon : -94.67°	2002-2010	CHER1 [Cherokee Nation, OK] Distance: 50 km Elevation : 0.34 km Lat : 36.93° Lon : -97.02°	2003-2010
FPK [Fort Peck, MT] Elevation: 0.63 km Lat : 48.31° Lon : -105.10°	1996-2010	1997- 2010	THR422 [Theodore, ND] Distance: 170 km Elevation : 0.85 km Lat : 46.89° Lon : -103.38°	1998-2010	MELA1 [Midicine Lake, MT] Distance: 50 km Elevation : 0.61 km Lat : 48.49° Lon : -104.48°	2000-2010
TBL [Table Mountain, CO] Elevation: 1.69 km Lat : 40.13° Lon : -105.24°	1996-2010	1997- 2010	ROM406 [Rocky Mtn NP, CO] Distance: 30 km Elevation : 2.7 km Lat : 40.28° Lon : -105.55°	1994-2010	ROMO1 [Rocky Mountain NP, CO] Distance: 30 km Elevation : 2.8 km Lat : 40.28° Lon : -105.55°	1991-2008
DRA [Desert Rock, NV] Elevation: 1.01 km Lat : 36.63° Lon : -116.02°	1999-2010	1999- 2010	DEV412 [Death Valley, CA] Distance: 85 km Elevation : 0.12 km Lat : 36.51° Lon : -116.85°	1995-2007	DEVA1 [Death Valley NP, CA] Distance: 85 km Elevation : 0.13 km Lat : 36.51° Lon : -116.85°	2000-2010

666 Table 2: List of model configuration

	Parameter	Configuration
	Emissions	Xing et al. [2013]
	Planetary Boundary Layer	ACM2 (Pleim 2007)
	Microphysics	Morrison 2-moment
	Gas-phase Chemistry	Carbon Bond 06
	Aerosol Chemistry	Carbon Bond 06
	Surface layer	Pleim-Xiu
	Cumulus	Kain-Fritsch (new Eta)
	Radiation	RRTMG SW & LW
	Land use	NLCD 50
	Boundary conditions	Hemispheric WRF-CMAQ simulation from Xing et al. [2014]
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Table 3: Trends of 16 years for CASTNET observations, aerosol feedback (FB) simulation and

emissions. The table also shows the uncertainty estimates of the trends, the ratio of the absolute

trends relative to their uncertainty estimate, and the confidence level based on the method

684	described in Weatherhead et al. (1998) and Gan et al. (2014a).	

CASTNET				Ea	st						
		obs	ervations			simul	ation (FB)				
(µg/m³)	trend	std. error	$rac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_{m}}}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$rac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_m}}$	confidence level			
SO ²⁻ 4	-0.1346	0.0056	23.8675	>95	-0.1115	0.0032	34.8830	>95			
SO ₂	-0.2089	0.0107	19.4757	>95	-0.2624	0.0078	33.7830	>95			
NO⁻₃	-0.1026	0.0034	30.4293	>95	-0.0348	0.0019	18.5530	>95			
CASTNET	ASTNET West										
	observations simulation (FB)										
			\hat{m}	confidence			$ \hat{m} $	confidence			
(μg/m³)	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{_m}$	level	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{_m}$	level			
SO ²⁻ 4	-0.0026	0.0010	2.5329	>95	0.0010	0.0005	1.8118	>90			
SO ₂	-0.0121	0.0012	10.3122	>95	-0.0108	0.0004	28.0550	>95			
NO ⁻ 3	-0.1100	0.0010	10.7925	>95	-0.0052	0.0003	14.9930	>95			
EMISSION			East				West				
(mole/sec/m	²) trend	std. error	$rac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_{m}}}$	confidence lev	el trend	std. error	$rac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_{m}}}$	confidence level			

EMISSION			East				West	
(mole/sec/m ²)			\hat{m}				\hat{m}	
(11010/300/1117	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{\scriptscriptstyle m}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{_m}$	confidence level
SO ₂	-0.0792	0.0016	49.0140	>95	-0.0102	0.0003	29.5820	>95
NOx	-0.0636	0.0005	140.7900	>95	-0.0522	0.0024	21.4980	>95

695 Table 4: Trends of 16 years for IMPROVE observations, aerosol feedback (FB) simulation and

emissions. The table also shows the uncertainty estimates of the trends, the ratio of the absolute

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trends relative to their uncertainty estimate, and the confidence level based on the method

698	described in	Weatherhead et al.	(1998) and	Gan et al.	(2014a).
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IMPROVE	East											
		ob	servations			sim	ulation (FB)					
			ŵ				ŵ					
(µg/m³)	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{_m}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{_m}$	confidence level				
SO4	-0.0933	0.0071	13.1013	>95	-0.1358	0.0029	47.3720	>95				
NO3	0.0025	0.0065	0.3906	<90	-0.0585	0.0020	28.9020	>95				
EC	-0.0106	0.0014	7.7710	>95	-0.0195	0.0008	24.6109	>95				
PM2.5	-0.2998	0.0114	26.3410	>95	-0.4419	0.0072	61.3020	>95				
IMPROVE				W	est							
		ob	servations			sim	ulation (FB)					
			\hat{m}				ŵ					
(µg/m³)	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{\scriptscriptstyle m}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{\scriptscriptstyle m}$	confidence level				
SO4	0.0038	0.0009	4.3870	>95	-0.0006	0.0005	1.3370	<90				
NO3	0.0069	0.0013	5.3737	>95	-0.0078	0.0004	19.0980	>95				
EC	-0.0033	0.0001	26.1560	>95	-0.0001	0.0005	0.2313	<90				
PM2.5	0.0181	0.0074	2.4442	>95	-0.0151	0.0037	4.0741	>95				

EMISSION			East		West					
(mole/sec/m ²)			\hat{m}			$ \hat{m} $				
(11010/300/111)	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{\scriptscriptstyle m}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$\sigma_{\scriptscriptstyle m}$	confidence level		
SO ₂	-0.0941	0.0118	7.9968	>95	-0.0102	0.0003	29.5810	>95		
NOx	-0.1628	0.0038	42.8840	>95	-0.0519	0.0024	21.4580	>95		
EC	-0.0889	0.0030	29.6640	>95	-0.0090	0.0033	2.7338	>95		

- Table 5: Trends of 16 years for SURFRAD observations, aerosol feedback (FB) and no aerosol
- feedback (NFB) simulations. The table also shows the uncertainty estimates of the trends, the
- ratio of the absolute trends relative to their uncertainty estimate, and the confidence level based
- on the method described in Weatherhead et al. (1998) and Gan et al. (2014a).

SURFRAD							East						
		obs	ervations			simu	lation (FB)			simulation (NFB)			
	trend	std. error	$rac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_m}}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$\frac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_m}}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$rac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_m}}$	confidence level	
SW (W/m ² year)	0.6296	0.0566	11.1315	>95	0.4678	0.0476	9.8347	>95	0.4148	0.0547	7.5757	>95	
SWC (W/m ² year)	0.3691	0.0292	12.6481	>95	0.1242	0.0099	12.5670	>95	0.0006	0.0036	0.1786	<90	
SW DIR (W/m ² year)	0.4149	0.0576	7.2066	>95	0.8364	0.0746	11.2120	>95	0.6817	0.0930	7.3320	>95	
SW DIF (W/m ² year)	0.2555	0.0235	10.8605	>95	-0.3589	0.0270	13.3040	>95	-0.2586	0.0361	7.1687	>95	
SWC DIR (W/m²year)	-0.0085	0.0315	0.2701	<90	0.5810	0.0244	23.7720	>95	0.0038	0.0040	0.9496	<90	
SWC DIF (W/m ² year)	0.3764	0.0107	35.1138	>95	-0.4569	0.0142	32.0910	>95	-0.0031	0.0005	5.9625	>95	
AOD (unitless)	-0.0012	0.0003	4.2559	>95	-0.0017	0.00005	30.7585	>95					
Cloudiness (unitless)	-0.0021	0.0003	6.1257	>95	-0.0034	0.0004	7.6943	>95					

SURFRAD							West					
		obs	ervations		simulation (FB)					simulation (NFB)		
	trend	std. error	$rac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_m}}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$rac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{_m}}$	confidence level	trend	std. error	$\frac{ \hat{m} }{\sigma_{m}}$	confidence level
SW (W/m²year)	0.5131	0.0359	14.2751	>95	0.2389	0.0371	6.4364	>95	0.2877	0.0362	7.9451	>95
SWC (W/m ² year)	0.4799	0.0443	10.8243	>95	0.0148	0.0144	1.0263	<90	0.0506	0.0062	8.1029	>95
SW DIR (W/m²year)	0.1739	0.0488	3.5616	>95	0.4648	0.0463	10.0480	>95	0.6432	0.0511	12.5980	>95
SW DIF (W/m ² year)	0.4009	0.0489	8.2052	>95	-0.2204	0.0147	15.0360	>95	-0.3414	0.0214	15.9440	>95
SWC DIR (W/m ² year)	0.0005	0.0331	0.0148	<90	-0.0758	0.0229	3.3132	>95	0.0493	0.0061	8.0979	>95
SWC DIF (W/m ² year)	0.4781	0.0253	18.8751	>95	0.0906	0.0111	8.1834	>95	0.0014	0.0022	0.6051	<90
AOD (unitless)	0.0009	0.0001	6.7010	>95	0.0001	0.00005	1.1083	<90				
Cloudiness (unitless)	-0.0012	0.0004	2.7129	>95	-0.0031	0.0002	13.0811	>95				

*Note: SW (all-sky shortwave radiation), SWC (clear-sky shorwave radiation), DIR (direct), DIF (diffuse) and AOD

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^{713 (}aerosol optical depth)

- Table 6: Statistics information (observation mean, correlation coefficient (R), mean bias (MB),
- normalized mean bias (NMB), root mean square different (RMSD) and normalized mean (NME)
- 722 of model) for each network.

SURFRAD	obs mean	R	MB	NMB	RMSD	NME
SW (W/m²)	182.85	0.948	22.46	12.28	23.79	12.68
SWC (W/m²)	243.04	0.917	-2.52	-1.04	6.51	2.17
SW DIR (W/m ²)	113.50	0.965	17.85	15.73	19.64	17.33
SW DIF (W/m ²)	66.83	0.701	13.38	20.02	14.56	20.62
SWC DIR (W/m ²)	207.90	0.812	-9.17	-4.41	14.42	5.14
SWC DIF (W/m ²)	35.15	0.540	6.64	18.90	10.23	22.34
AOD (unitless)	0.12	0.795	-0.06	-51.77	0.07	51.42
CASTNET (µg/m3)						
SO ²⁻ ₄	2.64	0.967	-0.47	-17.88	0.65	19.91
SO ₂	3.10	0.946	0.17	5.34	1.10	31.61
NO ⁻ 3	2.30	0.933	-1.06	-46.12	1.17	54.40
IMPROVE (µg/m3)						
SO ²⁻ ₄	2.52	0.934	-0.48	-18.99	0.83	18.83
NO ⁻ 3	0.90	0.933	0.24	26.94	0.53	49.63
EC	2.49	0.872	-1.07	-42.95	1.23	48.21
PM _{2.5}	7.98	0.971	2.98	37.34	4.62	39.67

*Note: SW (all-sky shortwave radiation), SWC (clear-sky shorwave radiation), DIR (direct), DIF (diffuse) and AOD

724 (aerosol optical depth)